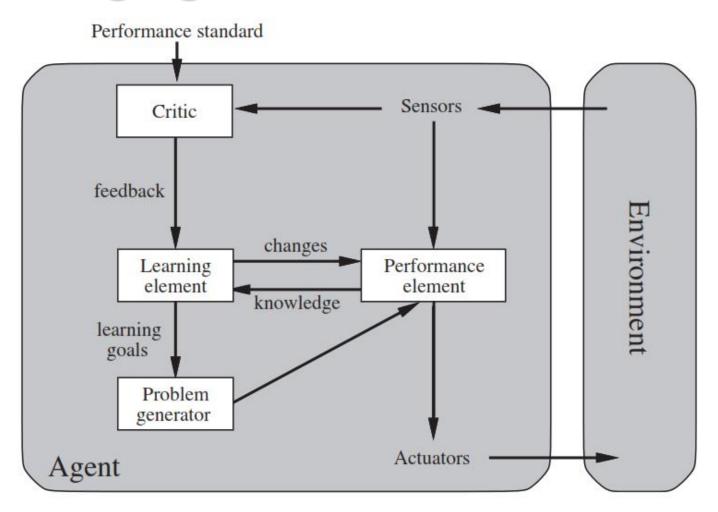
Al 2002 Artificial Intelligence

- Turing instead of actually programming intelligent machines by hand, build learning machines and then teach them
- All agents can improve their performance through learning
- Learning also allows the agent
 - to operate in initially unknown environments
 - to become more competent than its initial knowledge

- A learning agent can be divided into <u>four conceptual</u> <u>components</u>:
 - The learning element
 - 2. The performance element
 - 3. The critic
 - 4. The problem generator

- A learning agent can be divided into <u>four conceptual</u> <u>components</u>:
 - The learning element, which is responsible for making improvements,
 - The performance element, which is responsible for selecting external actions.
 - 3. The learning element uses feedback from the critic
 - how the agent is doing and
 - determines how the performance element should be modified to do better in the future.

- 4. The last component of the learning agent is the problem generator.
 - It is responsible for suggesting actions that will lead to new and informative experiences.
 - The problem generator's job is to suggest these exploratory actions.



State:

- A state is the representation of the physical configuration. It may be considered as all relevant aspects of the problem.
- Three ways to represent states and the transitions between them.

Atomic representation:

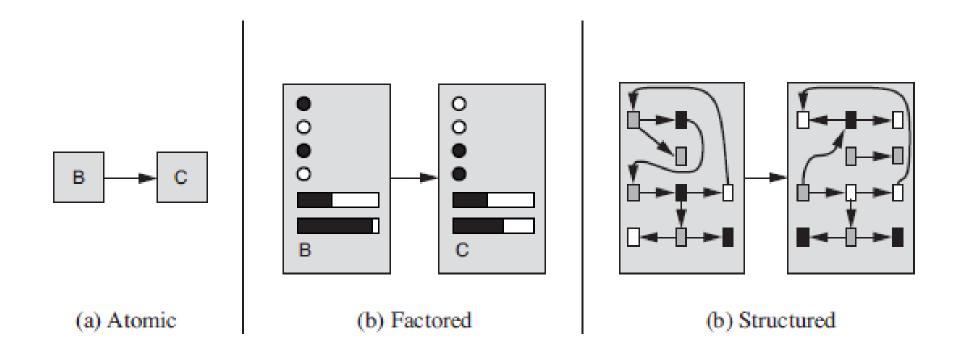
- A state (such as B or C) is a black box with no internal structure;
 - The algorithms underlying search, game-playing, Hidden Markov models, and Markov decision processes etc.

Factored representation:

- A state consists of a vector of attribute values; values can be Boolean, real-valued, or one of a fixed set of symbols.
 - Constraint Satisfaction Problems, Propositional Logic,
 Planning, Bayesian Networks

Structured representation:

- A state includes objects, each of which may have attributes of its own as well as relationships to other objects
 - First-order Logic, Knowledge-based Learning



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Problem Solving Agents

Problem Solving Agents

- Problem formulation is the process of deciding what actions and states to consider, given a goal
- A goal-based agent is also called a problem-solving agent.
- The problem-solving agents use atomic representation.
- Goal-based agents that use more advanced factored or structured representations are usually called planning agents.

Searching

- How can an agent <u>find a sequence of actions</u> that achieves its goal when no single action will do?
- One general approach to problem solving is
 - to reduce the problem to be solved to one of searching a tree or graph.
- Search plays a key role in many parts of AI.

Trees & Graphs

Tree:

- A tree is made up of nodes and links (circles and lines) connected so that there are NO loops (cycles).
- Nodes are sometimes referred to as vertices and links as edges (this is more common in graphs).
- A tree has a root node (where the tree "starts").
- Every node except the root has a single parent (aka direct ancestor).
- Each node except the terminal (leaf nodes) has one or more children (direct descendants).

Trees & Graphs

Graph:

- A graph is also a set of nodes connected by links but where <u>loops are allowed</u> and a node can have multiple parents.
- We have two kinds of graphs to deal with: Directed graphs and undirected graphs
- Directed graphs, where the links have direction (for example: one-way streets).
- Undirected graphs, where the links go both ways.

- A **problem** can be defined formally by <u>five</u> components:
 - Initial State
 - Actions
 - Transition Model
 - Goal Test
 - Path Cost

- State: A state is the representation of the physical configuration. It may be considered as all relevant aspects of the problem.
- Actions: Actions are operators:
 - Actions are deterministic, when we know exactly the state after an action is performed.
 - Actions are discrete, when we don't have to represent what happens while the action is happening.
 - For example, we assume that a flight gets us to the scheduled destination and that what happens during the flight does not matter.

- Goal Test: It determines whether a given state is a goal state.
- In general, we need a test for the goal, not just one specific goal state.
- For example,
 - We might be interested in any city in Germany rather than specifically Frankfurt.
 - When proving a theorem, all we care is about knowing one fact in our current database of facts.
 - Any final set of facts that contains the desired fact is a proof.
- Path Cost: Some penalty has been allocated.

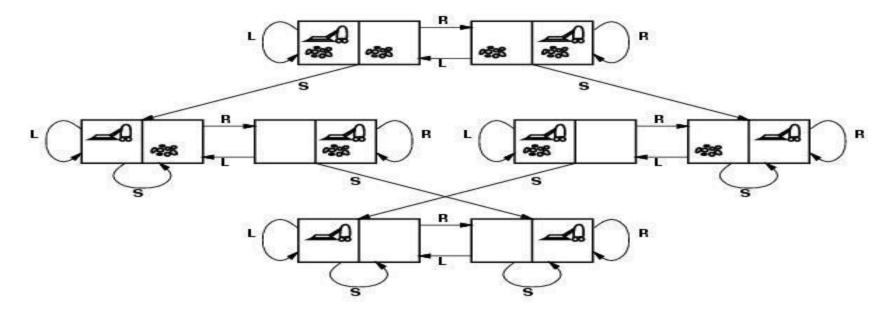
Transition Model:

- A description of what does each action do;
- The transition model, specified by a function RESULT(s, a) that returns the state that results from doing action a in state s.
- We also use the term successor to refer to any state reachable from a given state by a single action

RESULT(In(FSD), Go(LHR)) = In(LHR)

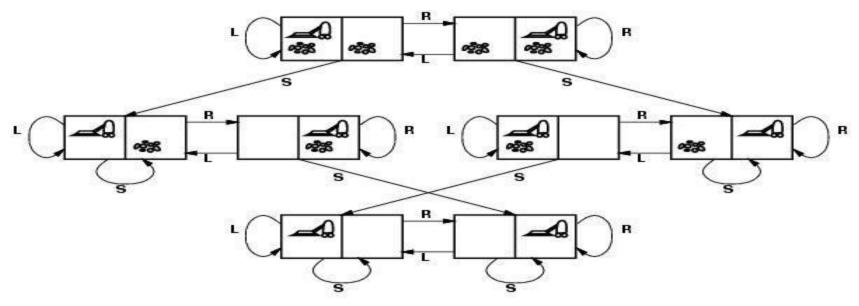
Toy Problems

Example: vacuum world



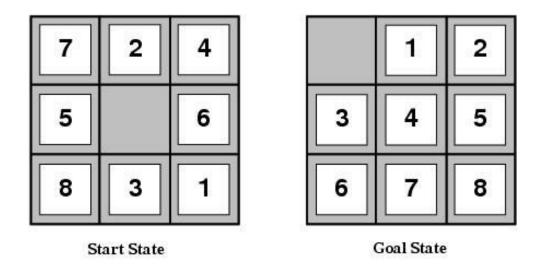
- States: The state is determined by both the agent location (2) and the dirt locations (2²): two locations with or without dirt: 2 x 2²=8 states.
 - larger environment with n locations has n x 2ⁿ states
- Initial state: Any state can be initial

Example: vacuum world



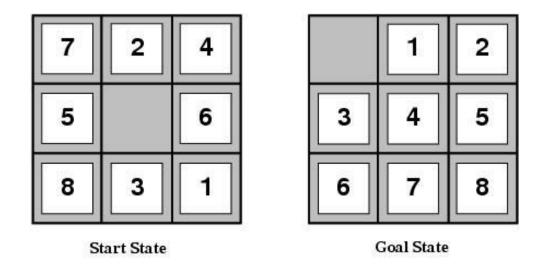
- Actions: {Left, Right, Suck}
- ▶ **Transition model**: The actions have their expected effects, except that moving *Left*, moving *Right*, and *Suck*ing in a clean square have no effect.
- Goal test: Check whether all squares are clean.
- Path cost: Each step costs 1, so the path cost is the number of steps in the path.

Example: 8-puzzle Problem



- States: Integer location of each tile
 - A state description specifies the location of each of the eight tiles and the blank in one of the nine squares.
- Initial state: Any state can be initial
- Actions: {Left, Right, Up, Down}

Example: 8-puzzle Problem



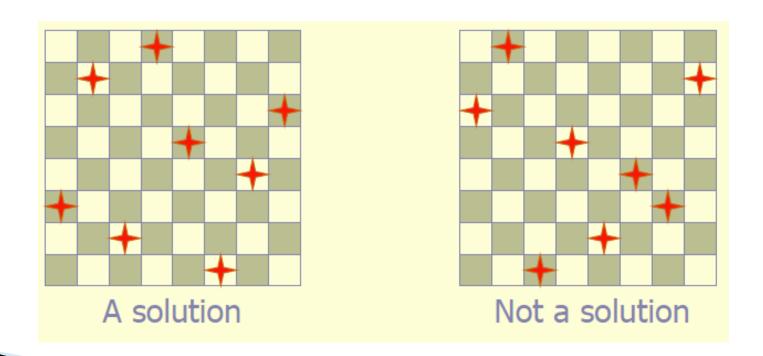
- Transition model: Given a state and action, this returns the resulting state;
 - for example, if we apply Left to the start state in Figure, the resulting state has the 5 and the blank switched.
- Goal test: Check whether goal configuration is reached.
- Path cost: Each step costs 1, so the path cost is the number of steps in the path.

Example: 8-puzzle Problem

- ► The 8-puzzle has 181, 440 reachable states and is easily solved.
- The 15-puzzle (on a 4×4 board) has around 1.3 trillion states, and random instances can be solved optimally in a few milliseconds by the best search algorithms.
- The 24-puzzle (on a 5 x 5 board) has around 10²⁵ states, and random instances take several hours to solve optimally.

Example: 8-queen Problem

Place 8 queens in a chessboard so that no two queens are in the same row, column, or diagonal.



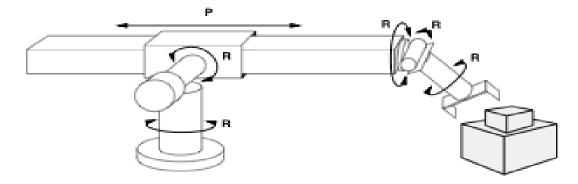
Example: 8-queen Problem

- States: any arrangement of 0 to 8 queens on the board
- Initial state: No queen on the board
- ▶ **Transition model**: Returns the board with a queen added to the specified square.
- Actions: add a queen in any square
- Goal test: 8 queens on the board, none attacked
- Path cost: none

648 states with 8 queens

Real Life Problems

Example: Robot Assembly



- States: Real-valued coordinates of robot joint angles; parts of the object to be assembled.
- Initial state: Any arm position and object configuration.
- Actions: Continuous motion of robot joints
- Goal test: Complete assembly
- Path cost: Time to execute

Example: Route Finding Problem

- States: each state is represented by a location (e.g., An airport) and the current time
- Initial state: specified by the problem
- Actions: Take any flight from the current location, in any seat class, leaving after the current time, leaving enough time for within-airport transfer if needed.

Example: Route Finding Problem

- Transition model: The state resulting from taking a flight will have the *flight's destination* as the current location and the *flight's arrival time* as the current time.
- Goal test: are we at the destination by some prespecified time
- Path cost: monetary cost, waiting time, flight time, customs and immigration procedures, seat quality, time of day, type of airplane, frequent-flyer mileage awards, etc.

Searching

Uninformed search

- No information about the number of steps
- No path cost taken into account from current state to the goal
- Search the state space blindly

Informed search, or heuristic search

- A cleverer strategy is used that searches toward the goal.
- Based on the information from the current state.

Searching

Any-path searches and optimal searches.

- Any-path searches will just settle for finding some solution,
- Optimal searches are looking for the best possible path.

Evaluation of a Search Strategy

- Completeness: is the strategy guaranteed to find a solution when there is one?
- Optimality: does the strategy find the highest-quality (least-cost) solution when there are several different solutions?
- Time complexity: how long does it take to find a solution?
- Space complexity: how much memory is needed to perform the search?

Evaluation of a Search Strategy

Complexity may be expressed in

- b, branching factor, maximum number of successors of any node
- d, the depth of the shallowest goal node. (number of steps along the path from the root), depth of the least-cost solution
- m, the maximum length of any path in the state space
 <u>Time and Space</u> is measured in
- number of nodes generated during the search
- maximum number of nodes stored in memory

Reading Material

- Artificial Intelligence, A Modern Approach Stuart J. Russell and Peter Norvig
 - Chapter 2 & 3.