COURSE MATERIAL

IV Year B. Tech I- Semester

MECHANICAL ENGINEERING

AY: 2022-23

ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE

R18A1205

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MALLA REDDY COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY

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(R18A1205) ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE

Course Objectives: To train the students to understand different types of AI agents, various AI search algorithms, fundamentals of knowledge representation, building of simple knowledge-based systems and to apply knowledge representation, reasoning. Study of Markov Models enable the student ready to step into applied AI.

UNIT - I

Introduction: AI problems, Agents and Environments, Structure of Agents, Problem Solving Agents **Basic Search Strategies**: Problem Spaces, Uninformed Search (Breadth-First, Depth-First Search, Depth-first with Iterative Deepening), Heuristic Search (Hill Climbing, Generic Best-First, A*), Constraint Satisfaction (Backtracking, Local Search)

UNIT - II

Advanced Search: Constructing Search Trees, Stochastic Search, A* Search Implementation, Minimax Search, Alpha-Beta Pruning

Basic Knowledge Representation and Reasoning: Propositional Logic, First-Order Logic, Forward Chaining and Backward Chaining, Introduction to Probabilistic Reasoning, Bayes Theorem

UNIT - III

Advanced Knowledge Representation and Reasoning: Knowledge Representation Issues, Non- monotonic Reasoning, Other Knowledge Representation Schemes

Reasoning Under Uncertainty: Basic probability, Acting Under Uncertainty, Bayes' Rule, Representing Knowledge in an Uncertain Domain, Bayesian Networks

UNIT - IV

Learning: What Is Learning? Rote Learning, Learning by Taking Advice, Learning in Problem Solving, Learning from Examples, Winston's Learning Program, Decision Trees.

UNIT - V

Expert Systems: Representing and Using Domain Knowledge, Shell, Explanation, Knowledge Acquisition.

TEXT BOOK:

1. Russell, S. and Norvig, P, Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach, Third Edition, Prentice- Hall, 2010.

REFERENCE BOOKS:

1. Artificial Intelligence, Elaine Rich, Kevin Knight, Shivasankar B. Nair, The McGraw Hill publications, Third Edition, 2009.
2. George F. Luger, Artificial Intelligence: Structures and Strategies for Complex Problem Solving, Pearson Education, 6th ed., 2009.

UNIT I

INTRODUCTION-AI

Syllabus: AI problems, Agents and Environments, Structure of Agents, Problem Solving Agents Basic Search Strategies: Problem Spaces, Uninformed Search (BreadthFirst, Depth-First Search, Depth-first with Iterative Deepening), Heuristic Search (Hill Climbing, Generic Best-First, A*), Constraint Satisfaction (Backtracking, Local Search)

Introduction to AI

AI systems work by ingesting large amounts of labeled training data, analyzing the data for correlations and patterns, and using these patterns to make predictions about future states. In this way, a chatbot that is fed examples of text chats can learn to produce lifelike exchanges with people, or an image recognition tool can learn to identify and describe objects in images by reviewing millions of examples.

Definition(s)

Artificial Intelligence is an approach to make a computer, a robot, or a product to think how smart human think. The aim of AI is to improve computer functions which are related to human knowledge, for example, reasoning, learning, and problem-solving.

Artificial intelligence is the simulation of human intelligence processes by machines, especially computer systems. Specific applications of AI include expert systems, natural language processing, and speech recognition and machine vision.

Importance of AI:

- AI can give enterprises insights into their operations that they may not have been aware of previously and because, in some cases, AI can perform tasks better than humans.

- Particularly when it comes to repetitive, detail-oriented tasks like analyzing large numbers of legal documents to ensure relevant fields are filled in properly, AI tools often complete jobs quickly and with relatively few errors.

Understanding AI:

- It would have been hard to imagine using computer software to connect riders to taxis, but today Uber has become one of the largest companies in the world by doing just that. It utilizes sophisticated machine learning algorithms to predict when

people are likely to need rides in certain areas, which helps proactively get drivers on the road before they're needed.

- Google has become one of the largest players for a range of online services by using machine learning to understand how people use their services and then improving them.

Examples of AI based on different technologies:

1. Automation. When paired with AI technologies, automation tools can expand the volume and types of tasks performed. An example is robotic process automation (RPA), a type of software that automates repetitive, rules-based data processing tasks traditionally done by humans. When combined with machine learning and emerging AI tools, RPA can automate bigger portions of enterprise jobs, enabling RPA's tactical bots to pass along intelligence from AI and respond to process changes.

2. Machine learning. This is the science of getting a computer to act without programming. Deep learning is a subset of machine learning that, in very simple terms, can be thought of as the automation of predictive analytics. There are three types of machine learning algorithms:

1. Supervised learning. Data sets are labelled so that patterns can be detected and used to label new data sets.
2. Unsupervised learning. Data sets are not labelled and are sorted according to similarities or differences.
3. Reinforcement learning. Data sets aren't labelled but, after performing an action or several actions, the AI system is given feedback.

3. Machine vision. This technology gives a machine the ability to see. Machine vision captures and analyzes visual information using a camera, analog-to-digital conversion and digital signal processing. It is often compared to human eyesight, but machine vision isn't bound by biology and can be programmed to see through walls, for example. It is used in a range of applications from signature identification to medical image analysis. Computer vision, which is focused on machine-based image processing, is often conflated with machine vision.

4. **Natural language processing (NLP).** This is the processing of human language by a computer program. One of the older and best-known examples of NLP is spam detection, which looks at the subject line and text of an email and decides if it's junk. Current approaches to NLP are based on machine learning. NLP tasks include text translation, sentiment analysis and speech recognition.

5. Robotics. This field of engineering focuses on the design and manufacturing of robots. Robots are often used to perform tasks that are difficult for humans to perform or perform consistently. For example, robots are used in assembly lines for car production or by NASA to move large objects in space. Researchers are also using machine learning to build robots that can interact in social settings.

6. Self-driving cars. Autonomous vehicles use a combination of computer vision, image recognition and deep learning to build automated skill at piloting a vehicle while staying in a given lane and avoiding unexpected obstructions, such as pedestrians.

Advantages and Disadvantages

Advantages

1. Good at detail-oriented jobs;
2. Reduced time for data-heavy tasks;
3. Delivers consistent results; and
4. AI-powered virtual agents are always available.

Disadvantages

1. Expensive;
2. Requires deep technical expertise;
3. Limited supply of qualified workers to build AI tools;
4. Only knows what it's been shown; and
5. Lack of ability to generalize from one task to another.

Applications of AI

1. AI in healthcare. The biggest bets are on improving patient outcomes and reducing costs. Companies are applying machine learning to make better and faster diagnoses than humans. One of the best-known healthcare technologies is IBM Watson. It understands natural language and can respond to questions asked of it. The system mines patient data and other available data sources to form a hypothesis, which it then presents with a confidence scoring schema. Other AI applications include using online virtual health assistants and chatbots to help patients and healthcare customers find medical information, schedule appointments, understand the billing process and complete other administrative processes. An array of AI technologies is also being used to predict, fight and understand pandemics such as COVID-19.

2. AI in business. Machine learning algorithms are being integrated into analytics and customer relationship management (CRM) platforms to uncover information on how to better serve customers. Chatbots have been incorporated into websites to provide immediate service to customers. Automation of job positions has also become a talking point among academics and IT analysts.

3. AI in education. AI can automate grading, giving educators more time. It can assess students and adapt to their needs, helping them work at their own pace. AI tutors can provide additional support to students, ensuring they stay on track. And it could change where and how students learn, perhaps even replacing some teachers.

4. AI in finance. AI in personal finance applications, such as Intuit Mint or TurboTax, is disrupting financial institutions. Applications such as these collect personal data and provide financial advice. Other programs, such as IBM Watson, have been applied to the process of buying a home. Today, artificial intelligence software performs much of the trading on Wall Street.

5. AI in law. The discovery process -- sifting through documents -- in law is often overwhelming for humans. Using AI to help automate the legal industry's labor-intensive processes is saving time and improving client service. Law firms are using machine learning to describe data and predict outcomes, computer vision to classify and extract information from documents and natural language processing to interpret requests for information.

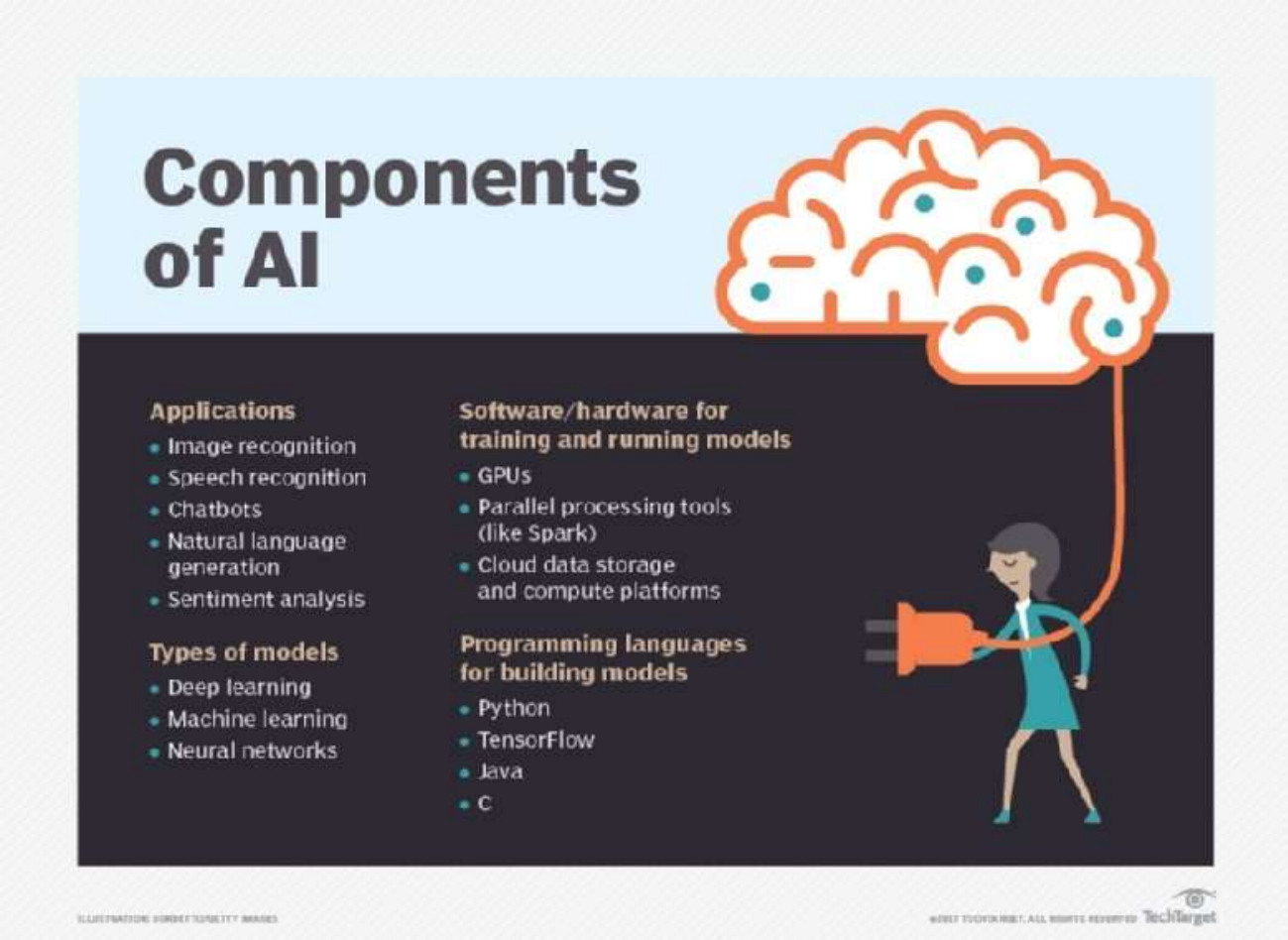
6. AI in manufacturing. Manufacturing has been at the forefront of incorporating robots into the workflow. For example, the industrial robots that were at one time programmed to perform single tasks and separated from human workers, increasingly function as cobots: Smaller, multitasking robots that collaborate with humans and take on responsibility for more parts of the job in warehouses, factory floors and other workspaces.

7. AI in banking. Banks are successfully employing chatbots to make their customers aware of services and offerings and to handle transactions that don't require human intervention. AI virtual assistants are being used to improve and cut the costs of compliance with banking regulations. Banking organizations are also using AI to improve their decision-making for loans, and to set credit limits and identify investment opportunities.

8. AI in transportation. In addition to AI's fundamental role in operating autonomous vehicles, AI technologies are used in transportation to manage traffic, predict flight delays, and make ocean shipping safer and more efficient.

9. Security. AI and machine learning are at the top of the buzzword list security vendor's use today to differentiate their offerings. Those terms also represent truly viable technologies. Organizations use machine learning in security information and event management (SIEM) software and related areas to detect anomalies and identify suspicious activities that indicate threats. By analyzing data and using logic to identify similarities to known malicious code, AI can provide alerts to new and emerging attacks much sooner than human employees and previous technology iterations. The maturing technology is playing a big role in helping organizations fight off cyber-attacks.

Components of AI



Categorization of AI

Weak AI, also known as narrow AI, is an AI system that is designed and trained to complete a specific task. Industrial robots and virtual personal assistants, such as Apple's Siri, use weak AI.

Strong AI, also known as artificial general intelligence (AGI), describes programming that can replicate the cognitive abilities of the human brain. When presented with an unfamiliar task, a strong AI system can use fuzzy logic to apply

knowledge from one domain to another and find a solution autonomously. In theory, a strong AI program should be able to pass both a Turing Test and the Chinese room test.

AI programming focuses on three cognitive skills: Learning, Reasoning and Self-correction.

Learning processes: This aspect of AI programming focuses on acquiring data and creating rules for how to turn the data into actionable information. The rules, which are called algorithms, provide computing devices with step-by-step instructions for how to complete a specific task.

Reasoning processes: This aspect of AI programming focuses on choosing the right algorithm to reach a desired outcome.

Self-correction processes: This aspect of AI programming is designed to continually fine-tune algorithms and ensure they provide the most accurate results possible.

Augmented intelligence vs. artificial intelligence

Experts believe the term artificial intelligence is too closely linked to popular culture, and this has caused the general public to have improbable expectations about how AI will change the workplace and life in general.

Augmented intelligence. Some researchers and marketers hope the label augmented intelligence, which has a more neutral connotation, will help people understand that most implementations of AI will be weak and simply improve products and services. Examples include automatically surfacing important information in business intelligence reports or highlighting important information in legal filings.

Artificial intelligence. True AI, or artificial general intelligence, is closely associated with the concept of the technological singularity -- a future ruled by an artificial superintelligence that far surpasses the human brain's ability to understand it or how it is shaping our reality. This remains within the realm of science fiction, though some developers are working on the problem. Many believe that technologies such as quantum computing could play an important role in making AGI a reality and that we should reserve the use of the term AI for this kind of general intelligence.

Ethical Use of Artificial Intelligence

While AI tools present a range of new functionality for businesses, the use of artificial intelligence also raises ethical questions because, for better or worse, an AI system will reinforce what it has already learned.

This can be problematic because machine learning algorithms, which underpin many of the most advanced AI tools, are only as smart as the data they are given in training. Because a human being selects what data is used to train an AI program, the potential for machine learning bias is inherent and must be monitored closely.

Anyone looking to use machine learning as part of real-world, in-production systems needs to factor ethics into their AI training processes and strive to avoid bias. This is especially true when using AI algorithms that are inherently unexplainable in deep learning and generative adversarial network (GAN) applications.

Explainability is a potential stumbling block to using AI in industries that operate under strict regulatory compliance requirements. For example, financial institutions in the United States operate under regulations that require them to explain their credit-issuing decisions. When a decision to refuse credit is made by AI programming, however, it can be difficult to explain how the decision was arrived at because the AI tools used to make such decisions operate by teasing out subtle correlations between thousands of variables. When the decision-making process cannot be explained, the program may be referred to as black box AI.

Despite potential risks, there are currently few regulations governing the use of AI tools, and where laws do exist, they typically pertain to AI indirectly. For example, as previously mentioned, United States Fair Lending regulations require financial institutions to explain credit decisions to potential customers. This limits the extent to which lenders can use deep learning algorithms, which by their nature are opaque and lack explainability.

The European Union's General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) puts strict limits on how enterprises can use consumer data, which impedes the training and functionality of many consumer-facing AI applications.

In October 2016, the National Science and Technology Council issued a report examining the potential role governmental regulation might play in AI development, but it did not recommend specific legislation be considered.

Crafting laws to regulate AI will not be easy, in part because AI comprises a variety of technologies that companies use for different ends, and partly because regulations can come at the cost of AI progress and development. The rapid evolution of AI technologies is another obstacle to forming meaningful regulation of AI. Technology breakthroughs and novel applications can make existing laws

instantly obsolete. For example, existing laws regulating the privacy of conversations and recorded conversations do not cover the challenge posed by voice assistants like Amazon's Alexa and Apple's Siri that gather but do not distribute conversation -- except to the companies' technology teams which use it to improve machine learning algorithms. And, of course, the laws that governments do manage to craft to regulate AI don't stop criminals from using the technology with malicious intent.

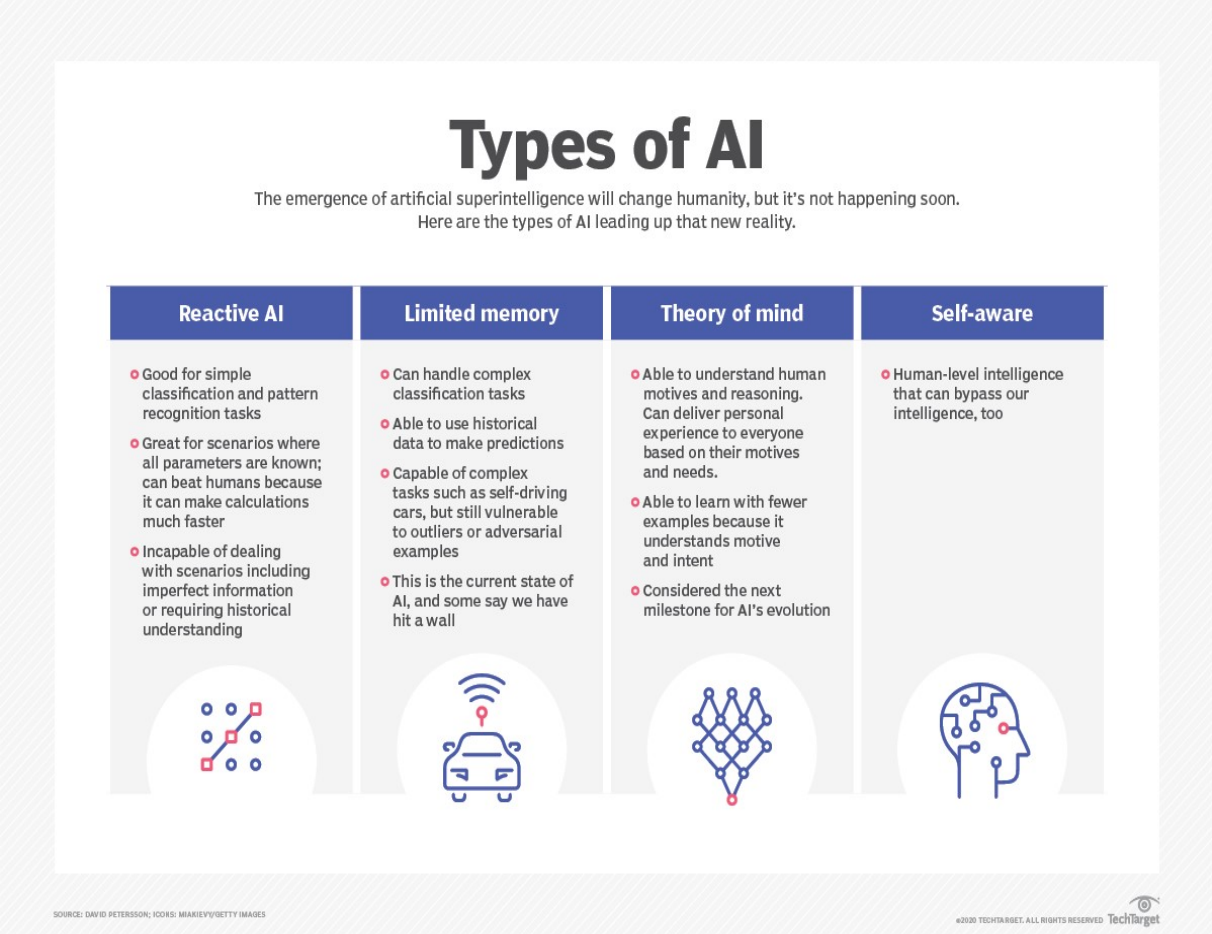
Cognitive computing and AI

The terms AI and cognitive computing are sometimes used interchangeably, but, generally speaking, the label AI is used in reference to machines that replace human intelligence by simulating how we sense, learn, process and react to information in the environment.

The label cognitive computing is used in reference to products and services that mimic and augment human thought processes.

Types of AI

AI can be categorized into four types, beginning with the task-specific intelligent systems in wide use today and progressing to sentient systems, which do not yet exist. The categories are as follows:



Type 1: Reactive machines. These AI systems have no memory and are task specific. An example is Deep Blue, the IBM chess program that beat Garry Kasparov in the 1990s. Deep Blue can identify pieces on the chessboard and make predictions, but because it has no memory, it cannot use past experiences to inform future ones.

Type 2: Limited memory. These AI systems have memory, so they can use past experiences to inform future decisions. Some of the decision-making functions in self-driving cars are designed this way.

Type 3: Theory of mind. Theory of mind is a psychology term. When applied to AI, it means that the system would have the social intelligence to understand emotions. This type of AI will be able to infer human intentions and predict behavior, a necessary skill for AI systems to become integral members of human teams.

Type 4: Self-awareness. In this category, AI systems have a sense of self, which gives them consciousness. Machines with self-awareness understand their own current state. This type of AI does not yet exist.

An AI system is composed of an agent and its environment. The agents act in their environment. The environment may contain other agents.

An agent is anything that can perceive its environment through sensors and acts upon that environment through effectors.

- A human agent has sensory organs such as eyes, ears, nose, tongue and skin parallel to the sensors, and other organs such as hands, legs, mouth, for effectors.
- A robotic agent replaces cameras and infrared range finders for the sensors, and various motors and actuators for effectors.
- A software agent has encoded bit strings as its programs and actions.

AI Problems:
Artificial Intelligence (AI) is the toast of every technology driven company. Integration of AI gives a business a massive amount of transformation opportunities to leverage the value chain. Adopting and integrating AI technologies is a roller-coaster ride no matter how business-friendly it may sound. A report says, around 94% of the enterprises face potential Artificial Intelligence problems while implementing it.

1. Lack of technical knowledge

To integrate, deploy and implement AI applications in the enterprise, the organization must have the knowledge of the current AI advancement and technologies as well as its shortcomings. The lack of technical know-how is hindering the adoption of this niche domain in most of the organization. Only 6% enterprises, currently, having a smooth ride adopting AI technologies. Enterprise requires a specialist to identify the roadblocks in the deployment process. Skilled human resources would also help the teamwork with Return on in tracking of adopting AI/ML solutions.

2. The price factor

Small and mid-sized organization struggles a lot when it comes to adopting AI technologies as it is a costly affair. Even big firms like Facebook, Apple, Microsoft, Google, Amazon (FAMGA) allocate a separate budget for adopting and implementing AI technologies.

3. Data acquisition and storage

One of the biggest Artificial Intelligence problems is data acquisition and storage. Business AI systems depend on sensor data as its input. For

validation of AI, a mountain of sensor data is collected. Irrelevant and noisy datasets may cause obstruction as they are hard to store and analyze.

AI works best when it has a good amount of quality data available to it. The algorithm becomes strong and performs well as the relevant data grows. The AI system fails badly when enough quality data isn't fed into it.

With small input variations in data quality having such profound results on outcomes and predictions, there's a real need to ensure greater stability and accuracy in Artificial Intelligence. Furthermore, in some industries, such as industrial applications, sufficient data might not be available, limiting AI adoption.

4. Rare and expensive workforce

As mentioned above, adoption and deployment of AI technologies require specialists like data scientists, data engineer and other SMEs (Subject Matter Experts). These experts are expensive and rare in the current marketplace. Small and medium-sized enterprises fall short of their tight budget to bring in the manpower according to the requirement of the project.

5. Issue of responsibility

The implementation of AI application comes with great responsibility. Any specific individual must bear the burden of any sort of hardware malfunctions. Earlier, it was relatively easy to determine whether an incident was the result of the actions of a user, developer or manufacturer.

6. Ethical challenges

One of the major AI problems that are yet be tackled are the ethics and morality. The way how the developers are technically grooming the AI bots to perfection where it can flawlessly imitate human conversations, making it increasingly tough to spot a difference between a machine and a real customer service rep.

Artificial intelligence algorithm predicts based on the training given to it. The algorithm will label things as per the assumption of data it is trained on. Hence, it will simply ignore the correctness of data, for example- if the algorithm is trained on data that reflects racism or sexism, the result of prediction will mirror back it instead of correcting it automatically. There are some current algorithms that have mislabeled black people as 'gorillas'.

Therefore, we need to make sure that the algorithms are fair, especially when it is used by private and corporate individuals.

7. Lack of computation speed

AI, Machine learning and deep learning solutions require a high degree of computation speeds offered only by high-end processors. Larger infrastructure requirements and pricing associated with these processors has become a hindrance in their general adoption of the AI technology. In this scenario, cloud computing environment and multiple processors running in parallel offer a potent alternative to cater to these computational requirements. As the volume of data available for processing grows exponentially, the computation speed requirements will grow with it. It is imperative to develop next-gen computational infrastructure solutions.

8. Legal Challenges

An AI application with an erroneous algorithm and data governance can cause legal challenges for the company. This is yet again one of the biggest Artificial Intelligence problems that a developer faces in a real world. Flawed algorithm made with an inappropriate set of data can leave a colossal dent in an organization's profit. An erroneous algorithm will always make incorrect and unfavorable predictions. Problems like data breach can be a consequence of weak & poor data governance–how? To an algorithm, a user's PII (personal identifiable information) acts as a feed stock which may slip into the hands of hackers. Consequently, the organization will fall into the traps of legal challenges.

9. AI Myths & Expectation:

There's a quite discrepancy between the actual potential of the AI system and the expectations of this generation. Media says, Artificial Intelligence, with its cognitive capabilities, will replace human's jobs.

However, the IT industry has a challenge on their hands to address these lofty expectations by accurately conveying that AI is just a tool that can operate only with the indulgence of human brains. AI can definitely boost the outcome of something that will replace human roles like automation of routine or common work, optimizations of every industrial work, data-driven predictions, etc.

However, in most of the occasions (particularly in highly specialized roles), AI cannot substitute the caliber of the human brain and what it brings to the table.

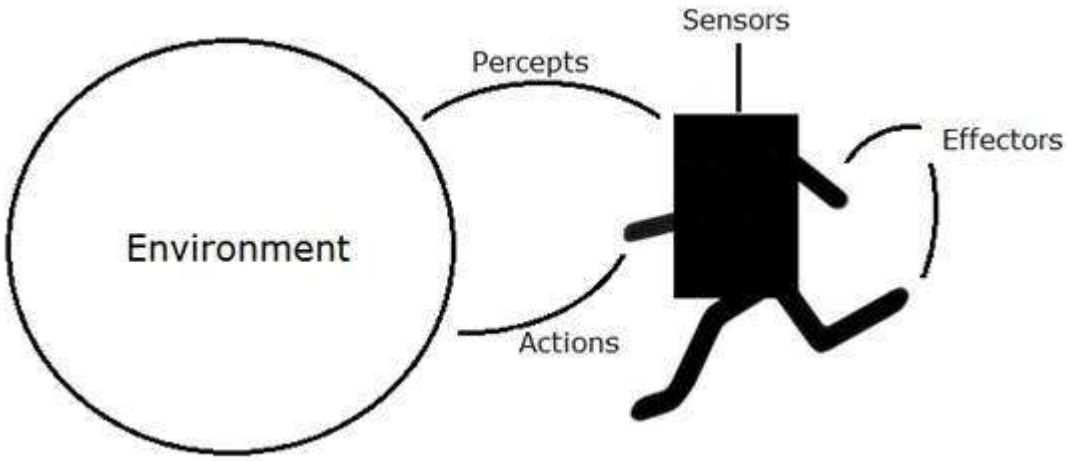
Not everything you hear about AI is true. AI is often over-hyped. Read this article from Forbes to clear all your misconceptions about the AI technologies.

10. Difficulty of assessing vendors

In any emerging field, a tech procurement is quite challenging as AI is particularly vulnerable. Businesses face a lot of problems to know how exactly they can use AI effectively as many non-AI companies engage in AI washing, some organizations overstate.

Agent Terminology

- Performance Measure of Agent − It is the criteria, which determines how successful an agent is.
- Behavior of Agent − It is the action that agent performs after any given sequence of percepts.
- Percept − It is agent's perceptual inputs at a given instance.
- Percept Sequence − It is the history of all that an agent has perceived till date.
- Agent Function − It is a map from the precept sequence to an action.



Rationality

Rationality is nothing but status of being reasonable, sensible, and having good sense of judgment.

Rationality is concerned with expected actions and results depending upon what the agent has perceived. Performing actions with the aim of obtaining useful information is an important part of rationality.

An ideal rational agent is the one, which is capable of doing expected actions to maximize its performance measure, on the basis of −

- Its percept sequence
- Its built-in knowledge base

Rationality of an agent depends on the following −

- The performance measures, which determine the degree of success.
- Agent's Percept Sequence till now.
- The agent's prior knowledge about the environment.
- The actions that the agent can carry out.

A rational agent always performs right action, where the right action means the action that causes the agent to be most successful in the given percept sequence. The problem the agent solves is characterized by Performance Measure, Environment, Actuators, and Sensors (PEAS).

The Structure of Intelligent Agents

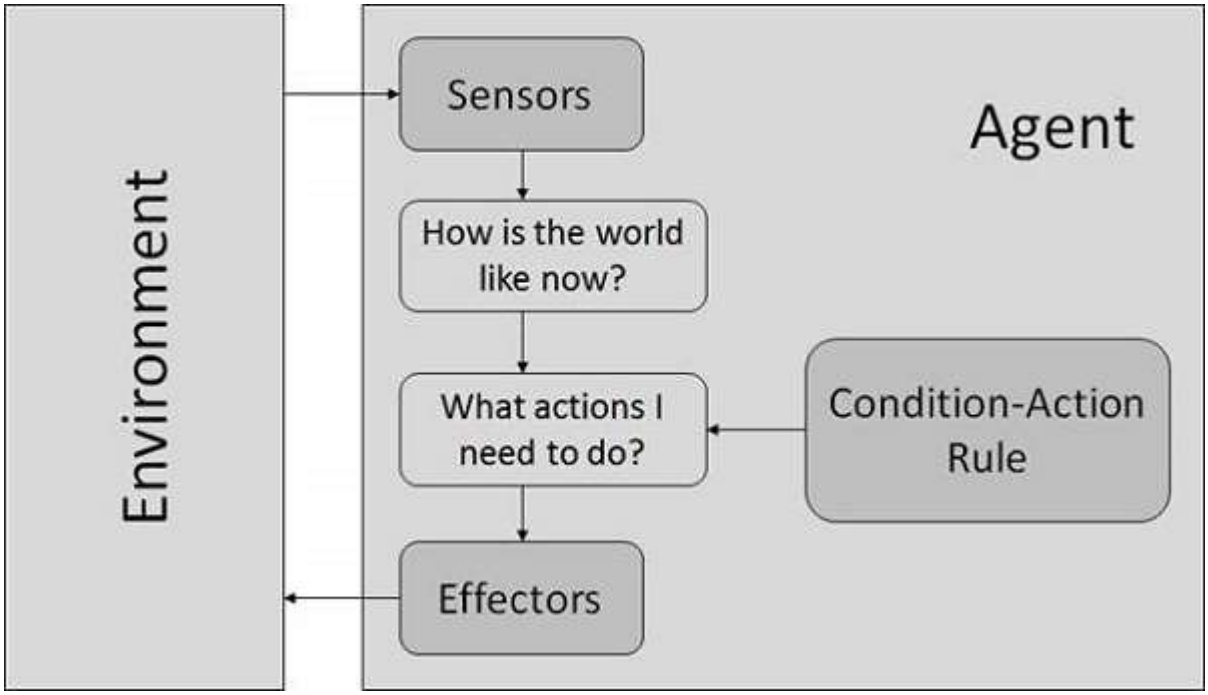
Agent's structure can be viewed as −

- Agent = Architecture + Agent Program
- Architecture = the machinery that an agent executes on.
- Agent Program = an implementation of an agent function.

Simple Reflex Agents

- They choose actions only based on the current percept.
- They are rational only if a correct decision is made only on the basis of current precept.
- Their environment is completely observable.

Condition-Action Rule − It is a rule that maps a state (condition) to an action.



Model Based Reflex Agents

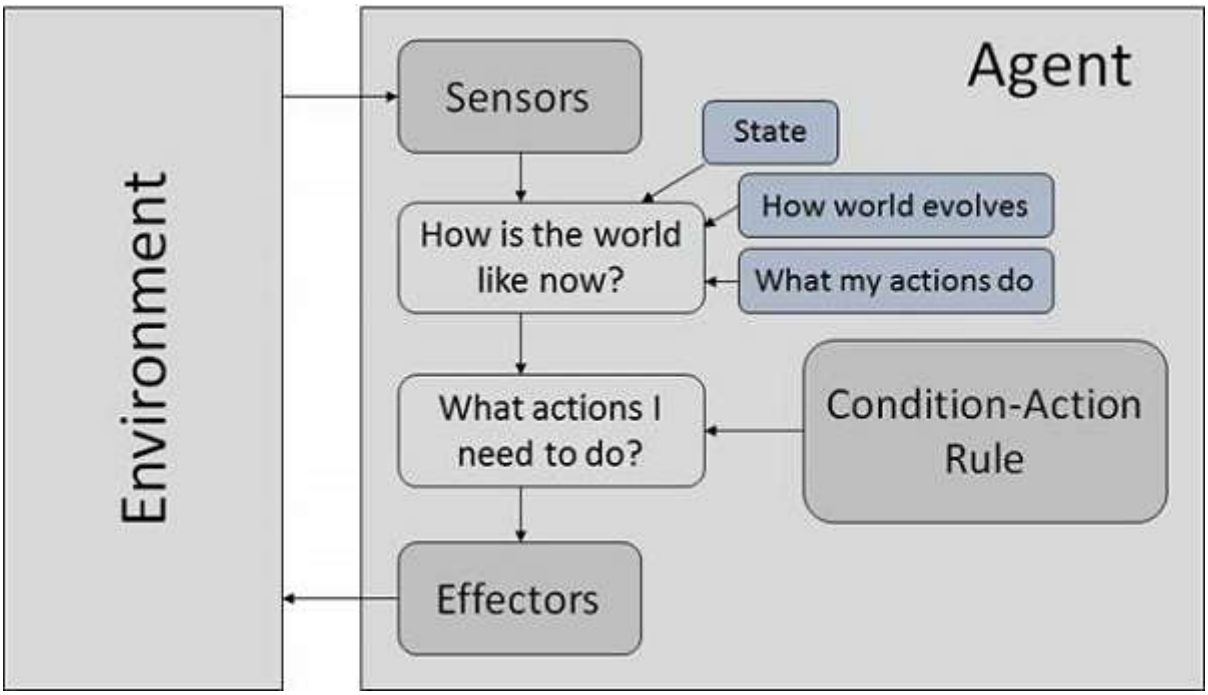
They use a model of the world to choose their actions. They maintain an internal state.

Model − knowledge about "how the things happen in the world".

Internal State − It is a representation of unobserved aspects of current state depending on percept history.

Updating the state requires the information about −

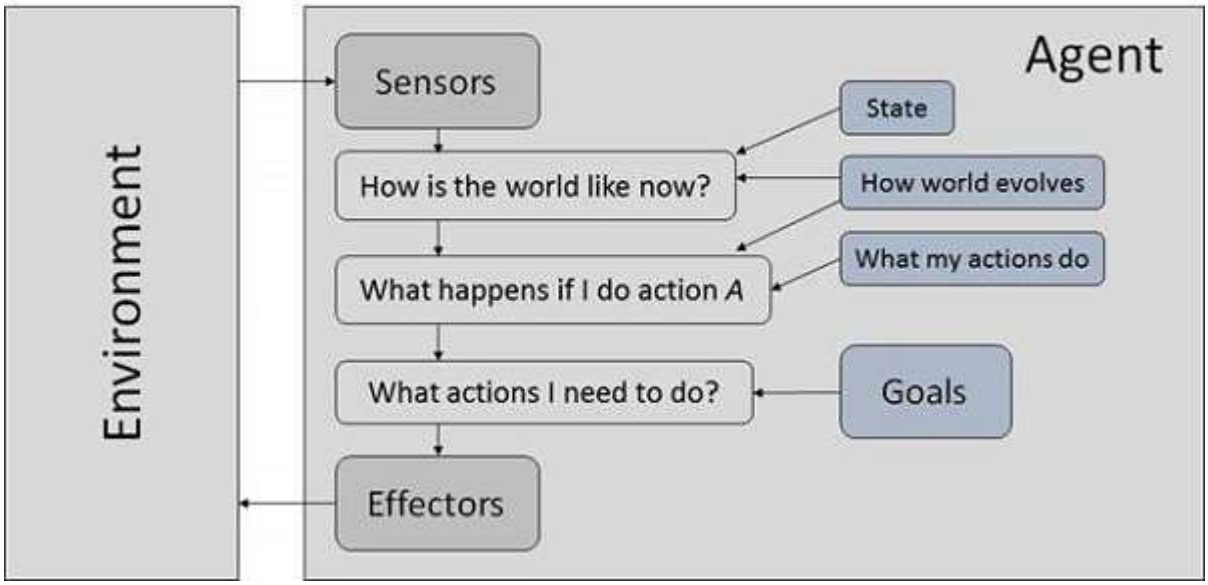
- How the world evolves.
- How the agent's actions affect the world.



Goal Based Agents

They choose their actions in order to achieve goals. Goal-based approach is more flexible than reflex agent since the knowledge supporting a decision is explicitly modeled, thereby allowing for modifications.

Goal − It is the description of desirable situations.

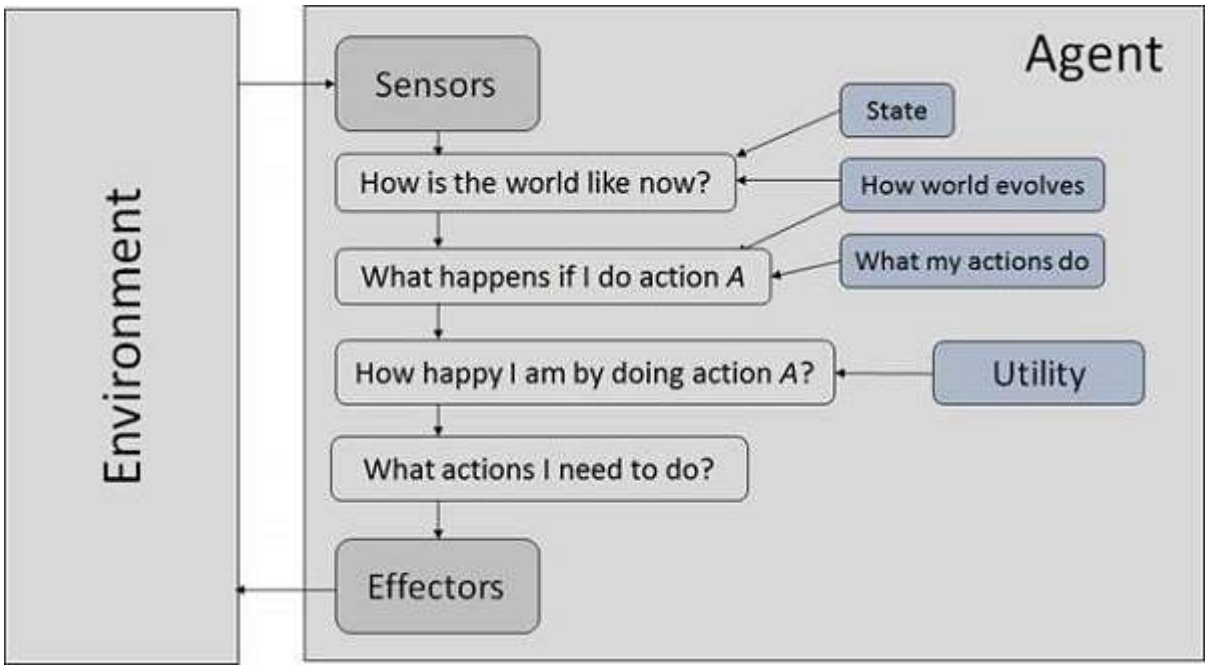


Utility Based Agents

They choose actions based on a preference (utility) for each state.

Goals are inadequate when −

- There are conflicting goals, out of which only few can be achieved.
- Goals have some uncertainty of being achieved and you need to weigh likelihood of success against the importance of a goal.



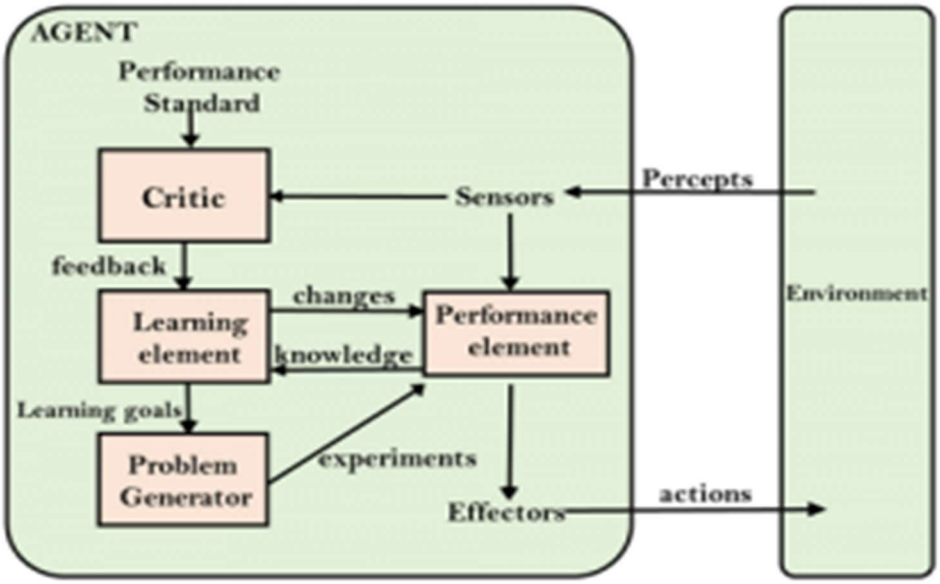
Learning Agent

A learning agent in AI is the type of agent which can learn from its past experiences or it has learning capabilities.

It starts to act with basic knowledge and then able to act and adapt automatically through learning.

A learning agent has mainly four conceptual components, which are:

i. **Learning element** :It is responsible for making improvements by learning from the environment
ii. **Critic**: Learning element takes feedback from critic which describes how well the agent is doing with respect to a fixed performance standard.
iii. **Performance element**: It is responsile for selecting external action
iv. **Problem Generator**: This component is responsible for suggesting actions that will lead to new and informative experiences.



The Nature of Environments

Some programs operate in the entirely artificial environment confined to keyboard input, database, computer file systems and character output on a screen.

In contrast, some software agents (software robots or softbots) exist in rich, unlimited softbots domains. The simulator has a very detailed, complex environment. The software agent needs to choose from a long array of actions in real time. A softbot designed to scan the online preferences of the customer and show interesting items to the customer works in the real as well as an artificial environment.

The most famous artificial environment is the Turing Test environment, in which one real and other artificial agents are tested on equal ground. This is a very challenging environment as it is highly difficult for a software agent to perform as well as a human.

Turing Test

The success of an intelligent behavior of a system can be measured with Turing Test.

Two persons and a machine to be evaluated participate in the test. Out of the two persons, one plays the role of the tester. Each of them sits in different rooms. The tester is unaware of who is machine and who is a human. He interrogates the questions by typing and sending them to both intelligences, to which he receives typed responses.

This test aims at fooling the tester. If the tester fails to determine machine's response from the human response, then the machine is said to be intelligent.

Properties of Environment

The environment has multifold properties −

Discrete / Continuous − If there are a limited number of distinct, clearly defined, states of the environment, the environment is discrete (For example, chess); otherwise it is continuous (For example, driving).

Observable / Partially Observable − If it is possible to determine the complete state of the environment at each time point from the percepts it is observable; otherwise it is only partially observable.

Static / Dynamic − If the environment does not change while an agent is acting, then it is static; otherwise it is dynamic.

Single agent / Multiple agents − the environment may contain other agents which may be of the same or different kind as that of the agent.

Accessible / Inaccessible − If the agent's sensory apparatus can have access to the complete state of the environment, then the environment is accessible to that agent.

Deterministic / Non-deterministic − If the next state of the environment is completely determined by the current state and the actions of the agent, then the environment is deterministic; otherwise it is non-deterministic.

Episodic / Non-episodic − In an episodic environment, each episode consists of the agent perceiving and then acting. The quality of its action depends just on the episode itself. Subsequent episodes do not depend on the actions in the previous episodes. Episodic environments are much simpler because the agent does not need to think ahead.

Problem-solving agents:

In Artificial Intelligence, Search techniques are universal problem-solving methods. **Rational agents** or **Problem-solving agents** in AI mostly used these search strategies or algorithms to solve a specific problem and provide the best result. Problem-solving agents are the goal-based agents and use atomic representation.

Search Algorithm Terminologies (Search Strategies):

1. Search

Searching is a step by step procedure to solve a search-problem in a given search space. A search problem can have three main factors:

- **Search Space:** Search space represents a set of possible solutions, which a system may have.
- **Start State**: It is a state from where agent begins the search.
- **Goal test:** It is a function which observe the current state and returns whether the goal state is achieved or not.

2. Search Trees

A tree representation of search problem is called Search tree. The root of the search tree is the root node which is corresponding to the initial state.

3. Actions

It gives the description of all the available actions to the agent.

4. Transition Model

A description of what each action do, can be represented as a transition model.

5. Path Cost

It is a function which assigns a numeric cost to each path**.**

6. Solution

It is an action sequence which leads from the start node to the goal node.

7. Optimal Solution

If a solution has the lowest cost among all solutions.

Properties of Search Algorithms:

Following are the four essential properties of search algorithms:

Completeness: A search algorithm is said to be complete if it guarantees to return a solution if at least any solution exists for any random input.

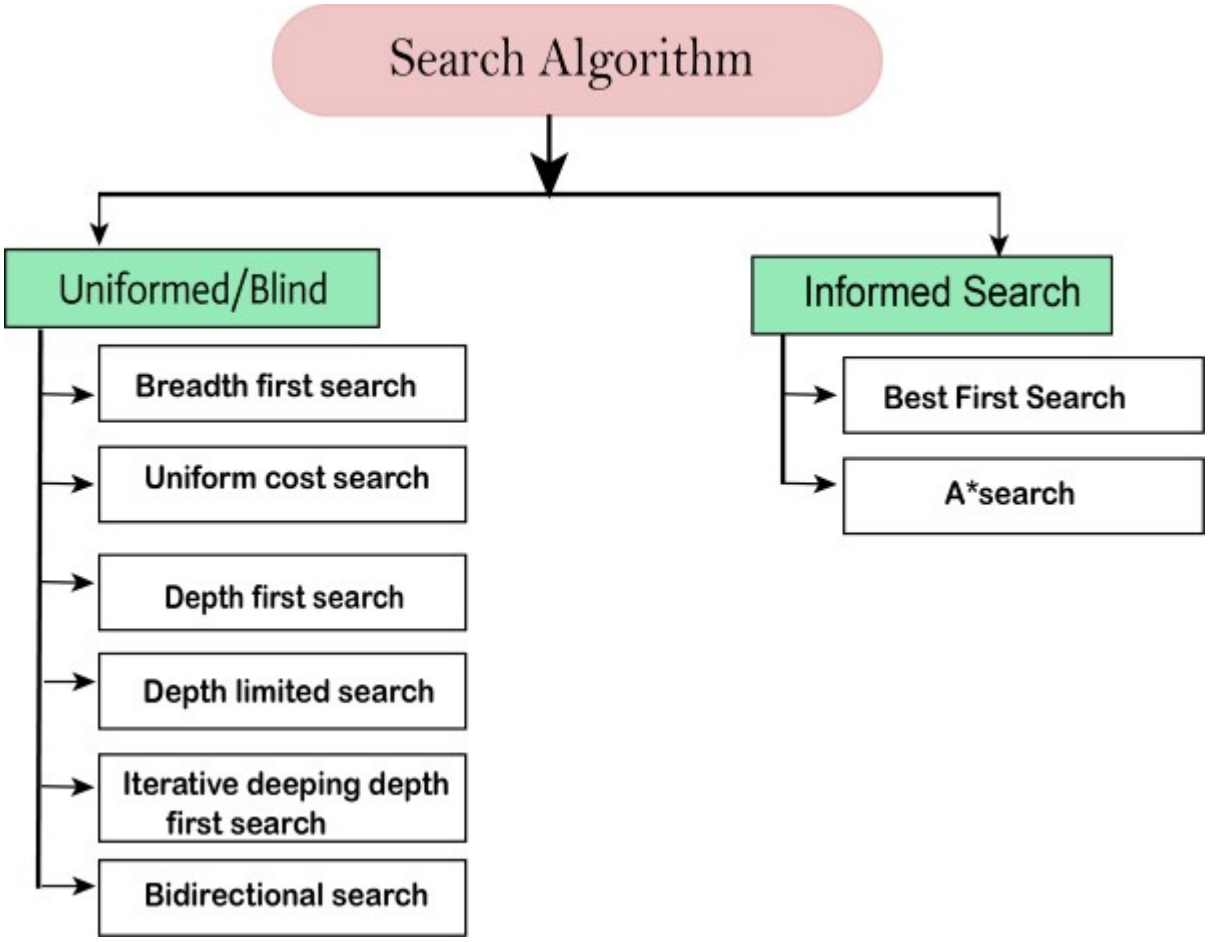
Optimality: If a solution found for an algorithm is guaranteed to be the best solution (lowest path cost) among all other solutions, then such a solution for is said to be an optimal solution.

Time Complexity: Time complexity is a measure of time for an algorithm to complete its task.

Space Complexity: It is the maximum storage space required at any point during the search, as the complexity of the problem.

Types of search algorithms

Based on the search problems we can classify the search algorithms into uninformed (Blind search) search and informed search (Heuristic search) algorithms.



Uninformed/Blind Search:

The uninformed search does not contain any domain knowledge such as closeness, the location of the goal. It operates in a brute-force way as it only includes information about how to traverse the tree and how to identify leaf and goal nodes. Uninformed search applies a way in which search tree is searched without any information about the search space like initial state operators and test for the goal, so it is also called blind search. It examines each node of the tree until it achieves the goal node.

It can be divided into five main types:

- Breadth-first search
- Uniform cost search
- Depth-first search
- Iterative deepening depth-first search
- Bidirectional Search

Uninformed Search Algorithms

Uninformed search is a class of general-purpose search algorithms which operates in brute force-way. Uninformed search algorithms do not have

additional information about state or search space other than how to traverse the tree, so it is also called blind search.

Following are the various types of uninformed search algorithms:

1. Breadth-first Search
2. Depth-first Search
3. Depth-limited Search
4. Iterative deepening depth-first search
5. Uniform cost search
6. Bidirectional Search

1. Breadth-first Search:

- Breadth-first search is the most common search strategy for traversing a tree or graph. This algorithm searches breadthwise in a tree or graph, so it is called breadth-first search.
- BFS algorithm starts searching from the root node of the tree and expands all successor node at the current level before moving to nodes of next level.
- The breadth-first search algorithm is an example of a general-graph search algorithm.
- Breadth-first search implemented using FIFO queue data structure.

Advantages:

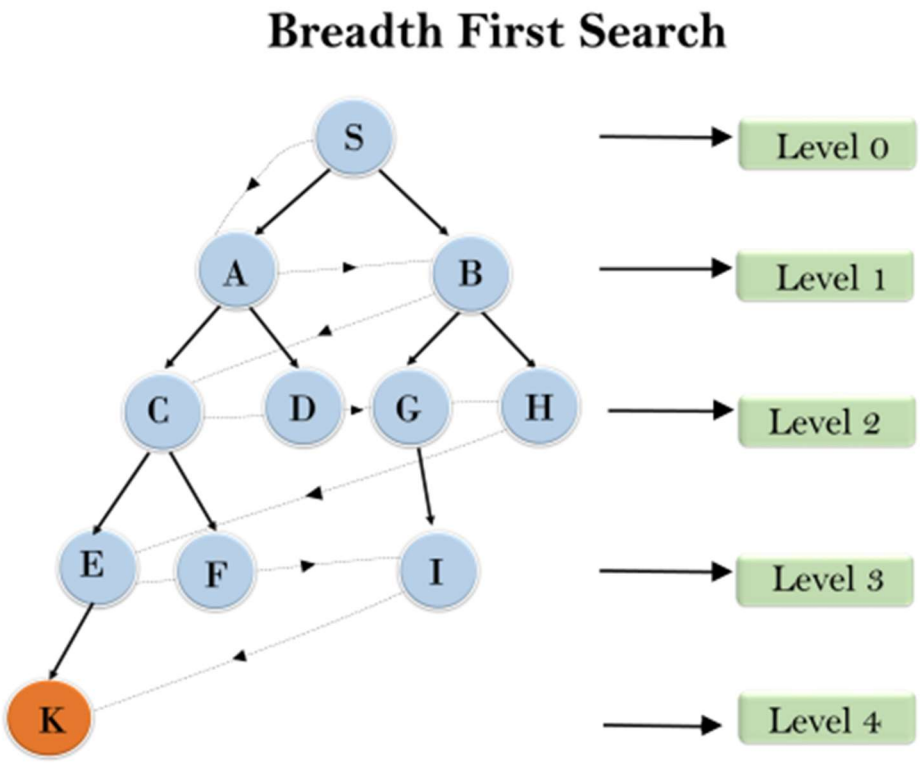
- BFS will provide a solution if any solution exists.
- If there are more than one solutions for a given problem, then BFS will provide the minimal solution which requires the least number of steps.

Disadvantages:

- It requires lots of memory since each level of the tree must be saved into memory to expand the next level.
- BFS needs lots of time if the solution is far away from the root node.

Example:

In the below tree structure, we have shown the traversing of the tree using BFS algorithm from the root node S to goal node K. BFS search algorithm traverse in layers, so it will follow the path which is shown by the dotted arrow, and the traversed path will be:



Time Complexity: Time Complexity of BFS algorithm can be obtained by the number of nodes traversed in BFS until the shallowest Node. Where the d= depth of shallowest solution and b is a node at every state.

$T(b) = 1+b^2+b^3+.....+ b^d= O(b^d)$

Space Complexity: Space complexity of BFS algorithm is given by the Memory size of frontier which is $O(b^d)$.

Completeness: BFS is complete, which means if the shallowest goal node is at some finite depth, then BFS will find a solution.

Optimality: BFS is optimal if path cost is a non-decreasing function of the depth of the node.

2. Depth-first Search

- Depth-first search is a recursive algorithm for traversing a tree or graph data structure.
- It is called the depth-first search because it starts from the root node and follows each path to its greatest depth node before moving to the next path.
- DFS uses a stack data structure for its implementation.
- The process of the DFS algorithm is similar to the BFS algorithm.

Advantage:

- DFS requires very less memory as it only needs to store a stack of the nodes on the path from root node to the current node.
- It takes less time to reach to the goal node than BFS algorithm (if it traverses in the right path).

Disadvantages:

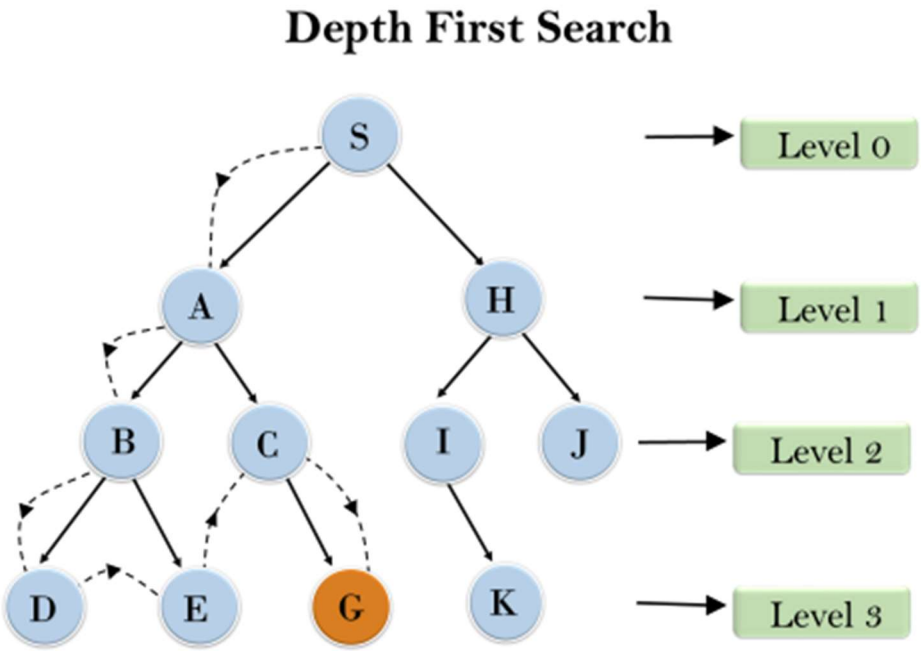
- There is the possibility that many states keep re-occurring, and there is no guarantee of finding the solution.
- DFS algorithm goes for deep down searching and sometime it may go to the infinite loop.

Example:

In the below search tree, we have shown the flow of depth-first search, and it will follow the order as:

Root node--->Left node ----> right node.

It will start searching from root node S, and traverse A, then B, then D and E, after traversing E, it will backtrack the tree as E has no other successor and still goal node is not found. After backtracking it will traverse node C and then G, and here it will terminate as it found goal node.



Completeness: DFS search algorithm is complete within finite state space as it will expand every node within a limited search tree.

Time Complexity: Time complexity of DFS will be equivalent to the node traversed by the algorithm. It is given by:

$T(n)= 1+ n^2+ n^3 +.....+ n^m=O(n^m)$

Where, m= maximum depth of any node and this can be much larger than d (Shallowest solution depth)

Space Complexity: DFS algorithm needs to store only single path from the root node, hence space complexity of DFS is equivalent to the size of the fringe set, which is O(bm).

Optimal: DFS search algorithm is non-optimal, as it may generate a large number of steps or high cost to reach to the goal node.

3. Depth-Limited Search Algorithm:

A depth-limited search algorithm is similar to depth-first search with a predetermined limit. Depth-limited search can solve the drawback of the infinite path in the Depth-first search. In this algorithm, the node at the depth limit will treat as it has no successor nodes further.

Depth-limited search can be terminated with two Conditions of failure:

- Standard failure value: It indicates that problem does not have any solution.
- Cutoff failure value: It defines no solution for the problem within a given depth limit.

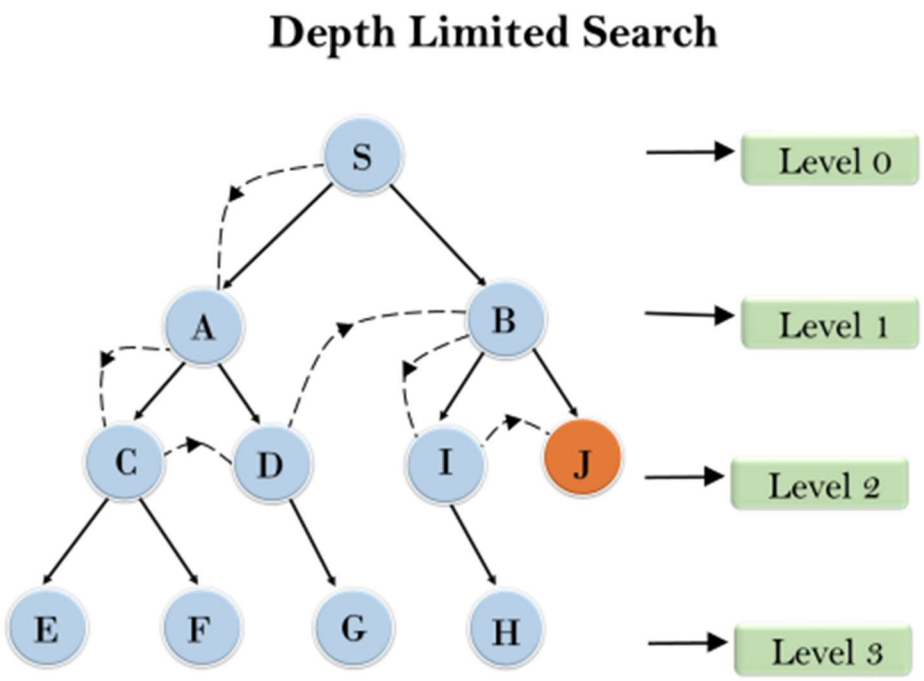
Advantage:

Depth-limited search is Memory efficient.

Disadvantages:

- Depth-limited search also has a disadvantage of incompleteness.
- It may not be optimal if the problem has more than one solution.

Example:



Completeness: DLS search algorithm is complete if the solution is above the depth-limit.

Time Complexity: Time complexity of DLS algorithm is $O(b^{\ell})$.

Space Complexity: Space complexity of DLS algorithm is $O(b \times \ell)$.

Optimal: Depth-limited search can be viewed as a special case of DFS, and it is also not optimal even if $\ell > d$.

4. Uniform-cost Search Algorithm:

Uniform-cost search is a searching algorithm used for traversing a weighted tree or graph. This algorithm comes into play when a different cost is available for each edge. The primary goal of the uniform-cost search is to find a path to the goal node which has the lowest cumulative cost. Uniform-cost search expands nodes according to their path costs form the root node. It can be used to solve any graph/tree where the optimal cost is in demand. A uniform-cost search algorithm is implemented by the priority queue. It gives maximum priority to the lowest cumulative cost. Uniform cost search is equivalent to BFS algorithm if the path cost of all edges is the same.

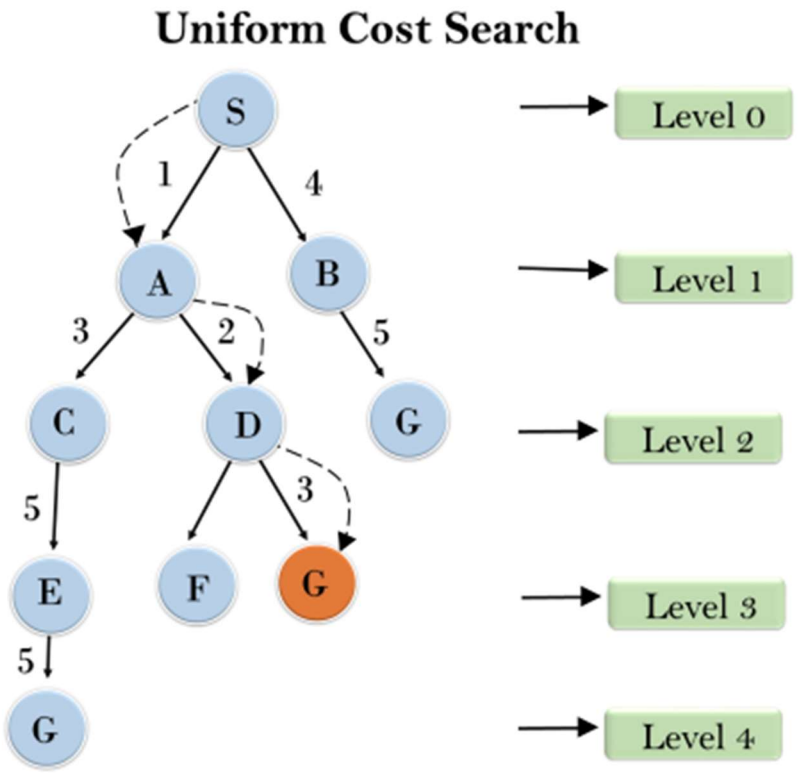
Advantage:

- Uniform cost search is optimal because at every state the path with the least cost is chosen.

Disadvantage:

- It does not care about the number of steps involve in searching and only concerned about path cost. Due to which this algorithm may be stuck in an infinite loop.

Example:



Completeness:

Uniform-cost search is complete, such as if there is a solution, UCS will find it.

Time Complexity:

Let C* is Cost of the optimal solution, and ε is each step to get closer to the goal node. Then the number of steps is = C*/ε+1. Here we have taken +1, as we start from state 0 and end to C*/ε.

Hence, the worst-case time complexity of Uniform-cost search is $O(^{b1 + [C^*/\varepsilon]})/$.

Space Complexity:

The same logic is for space complexity so, the worst-case space complexity of Uniform-cost search is $O(^{b1 + [C^*/\varepsilon]})$.

Optimal:

Uniform-cost search is always optimal as it only selects a path with the lowest path cost.

5. Iterative deepening depth-first Search:

The iterative deepening algorithm is a combination of DFS and BFS algorithms. This search algorithm finds out the best depth limit and does it by gradually increasing the limit until a goal is found.

This algorithm performs depth-first search up to a certain "depth limit", and it keeps increasing the depth limit after each iteration until the goal node is found.

This Search algorithm combines the benefits of Breadth-first search's fast search and depth-first search's memory efficiency.

The iterative search algorithm is useful uninformed search when search space is large, and depth of goal node is unknown.

Advantages:

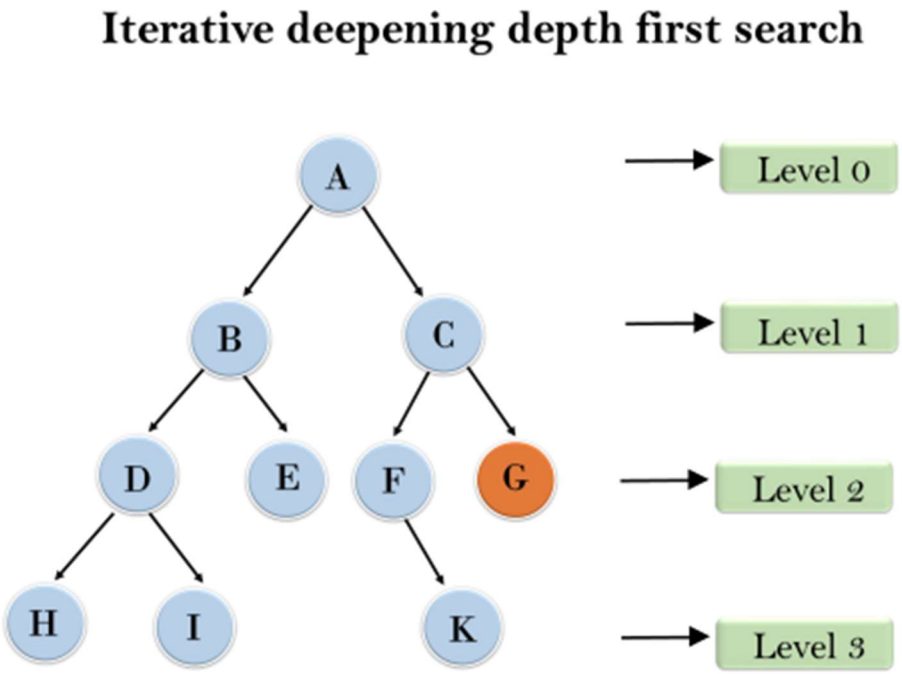
- It combines the benefits of BFS and DFS search algorithm in terms of fast search and memory efficiency.

Disadvantages:

- The main drawback of IDDFS is that it repeats all the work of the previous phase.

Example:

Following tree structure is showing the iterative deepening depth-first search. IDDFS algorithm performs various iterations until it does not find the goal node. The iteration performed by the algorithm is given as:



1'st Iteration-----> A

2'nd Iteration----> A, B, C

3'rd Iteration------>A, B, D, E, C, F, G

4'th Iteration------>A, B, D, H, I, E, C, F, K, G

In the fourth iteration, the algorithm will find the goal node.

Completeness:

This algorithm is complete is ifthe branching factor is finite.

Time Complexity:

Let's suppose b is the branching factor and depth is d then the worst-case time complexity is $O(b^d)$.

Space Complexity:

The space complexity of IDDFS will be O(bd).

Optimal:

IDDFS algorithm is optimal if path cost is a non- decreasing function of the depth of the node.

6. Bidirectional Search Algorithm:

Bidirectional search algorithm runs two simultaneous searches, one form initial state called as forward-search and other from goal node called as backward-search, to find the goal node. Bidirectional search replaces one single search graph with two small subgraphs in which one starts the search from an initial vertex and other starts from goal vertex. The search stops when these two graphs intersect each other.

Bidirectional search can use search techniques such as BFS, DFS, DLS, etc.

Advantages:

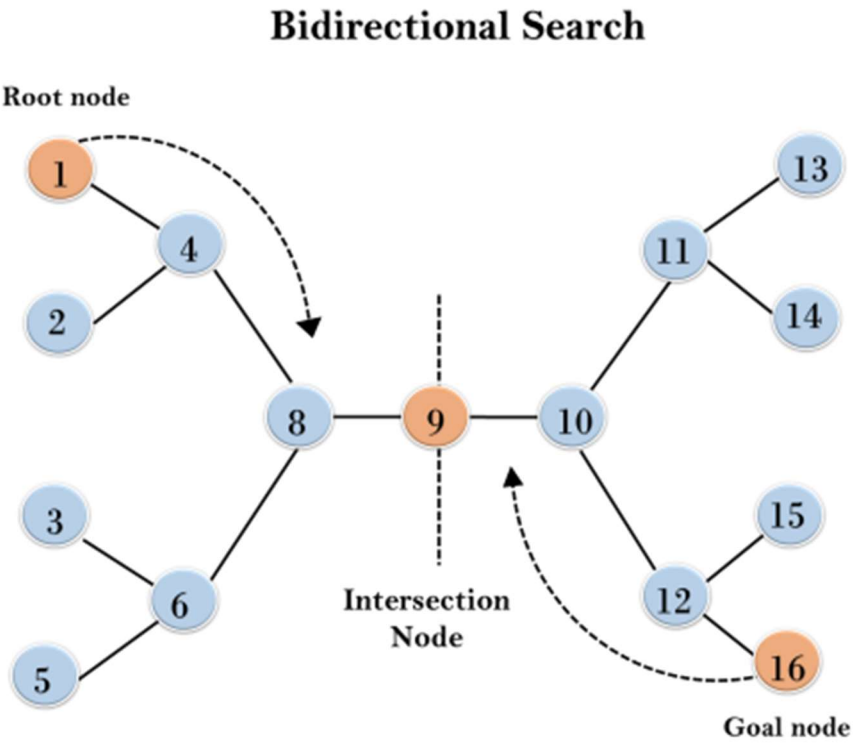
- Bidirectional search is fast.
- Bidirectional search requires less memory

Disadvantages:

- Implementation of the bidirectional search tree is difficult.
- In bidirectional search, one should know the goal state in advance.

Example:

In the below search tree, bidirectional search algorithm is applied. This algorithm divides one graph/tree into two sub-graphs. It starts traversing from node 1 in the forward direction and starts from goal node 16 in the backward direction.



The algorithm terminates at node 9 where two searches meet.

Completeness: Bidirectional Search is complete if we use BFS in both searches.

Time Complexity: Time complexity of bidirectional search using BFS is $O(b^d)$.

Space Complexity: Space complexity of bidirectional search is $O(b^d)$.

Optimal: Bidirectional search is Optimal.

Informed Search

Informed search algorithms use domain knowledge. In an informed search, problem information is available which can guide the search. Informed search strategies can find a solution more efficiently than an uninformed search strategy. Informed search is also called a Heuristic search.

A heuristic is a way which might not always be guaranteed for best solutions but guaranteed to find a good solution in reasonable time.

Informed search can solve much complex problem which could not be solved in another way.

An example of informed search algorithms is a traveling salesman problem.

- Greedy Search
- A* Search

The informed search algorithm is more useful for large search space. Informed search algorithm uses the idea of heuristic, so it is also called Heuristic search.

Heuristics function: Heuristic is a function which is used in Informed Search, and it finds the most promising path. It takes the current state of the agent as its input and produces the estimation of how close agent is from the goal. The heuristic method, however, might not always give the best solution, but it guaranteed to find a good solution in reasonable time. Heuristic function estimates how close a state is to the goal. It is represented by h(n), and it calculates the cost of an optimal path between the pair of states. The value of the heuristic function is always positive.

Admissibility of the heuristic function is given as:

$h(n) <= h^*(n)$

Here h(n) is heuristic cost, and h*(n) is the estimated cost. Hence heuristic cost should be less than or equal to the estimated cost.

Pure Heuristic Search:

Pure heuristic search is the simplest form of heuristic search algorithms. It expands nodes based on their heuristic value h(n). It maintains two lists, OPEN and CLOSED list. In the CLOSED list, it places those nodes which have already expanded and in the OPEN list, it places nodes which have yet not been expanded.

On each iteration, each node n with the lowest heuristic value is expanded and generates all its successors and n is placed to the closed list. The algorithm continues unit a goal state is found.

In the informed search we will discuss two main algorithms which are given below:

- Best First Search Algorithm(Greedy search)
- A* Search Algorithm

1.) Best-first Search Algorithm (Greedy Search):

Greedy best-first search algorithm always selects the path which appears best at that moment. It is the combination of depth-first search and breadth-first search algorithms. It uses the heuristic function and search. Best-first search allows us to take the advantages of both algorithms. With the help of best-first search, at each step, we can choose the most promising node. In the best first search algorithm, we expand the node which is closest to the goal node and the closest cost is estimated by heuristic function, i.e.

f(n)= g(n).

Were, h(n)= estimated cost from node n to the goal.

The greedy best first algorithm is implemented by the priority queue.

Best first search algorithm:

Step 1: Place the starting node into the OPEN list.

Step 2: If the OPEN list is empty, Stop and return failure.

Step 3: Remove the node n, from the OPEN list which has the lowest value of h(n), and places it in the CLOSED list.

Step 4: Expand the node n, and generate the successors of node n.

Step 5: Check each successor of node n, and find whether any node is a goal node or not. If any successor node is goal node, then return success and terminate the search, else proceed to Step 6.

Step 6: For each successor node, algorithm checks for evaluation function f(n), and then check if the node has been in either OPEN or CLOSED list. If the node has not been in both list, then add it to the OPEN list.

Step 7: Return to Step 2.

Advantages:

- Best first search can switch between BFS and DFS by gaining the advantages of both the algorithms.
- This algorithm is more efficient than BFS and DFS algorithms.

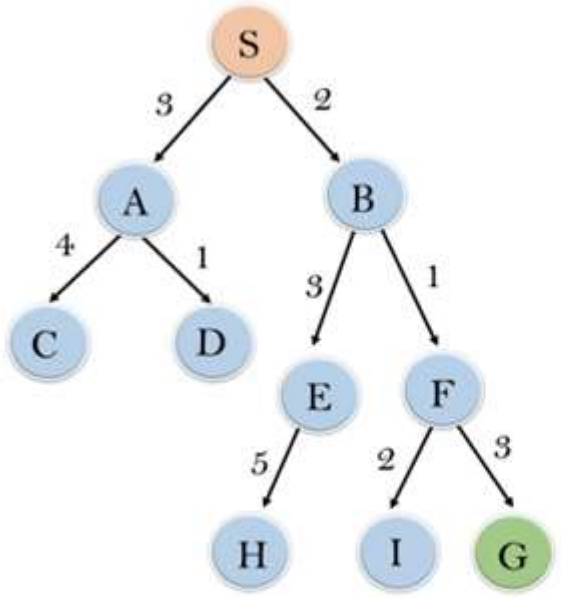
Disadvantages:

- It can behave as an unguided depth-first search in the worst case scenario.
- It can get stuck in a loop as DFS.

This algorithm is not optimal.

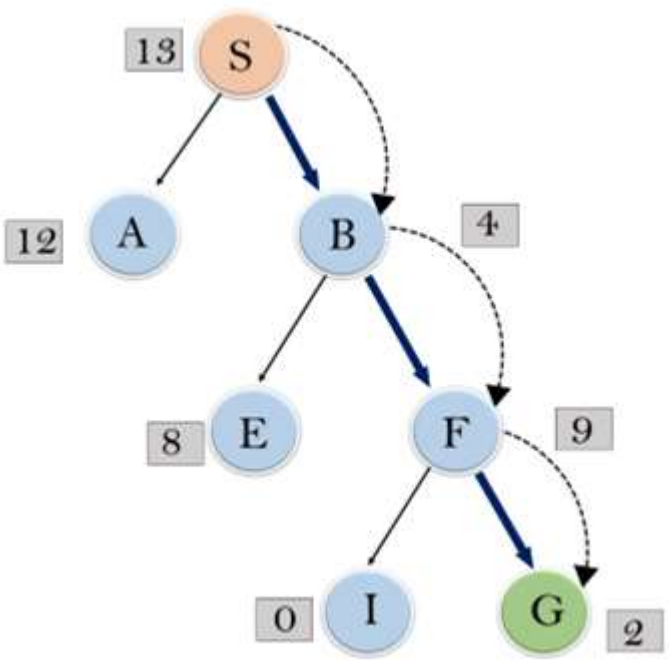
Example:

Consider the below search problem, and we will traverse it using greedy best-first search. At each iteration, each node is expanded using evaluation function f(n)=h(n) , which is given in the below table.



node	H (n)
A	12
B	4
C	7
D	3
E	8
F	2
H	4
I	9
S	13
G	0

In this search example, we are using two lists which are OPEN and CLOSED Lists. Following are the iteration for traversing the above example.



Expand the nodes of S and put in the CLOSED list

Initialization: Open [A, B], Closed [S]

Iteration 1: Open [A], Closed [S, B]

Iteration 2: Open [E, F, A], Closed [S, B]

: Open [E, A], Closed [S, B, F]

Iteration 3: Open [I, G, E, A], Closed [S, B, F]

: Open [I, E, A], Closed [S, B, F, G]

Hence the final solution path will be: S----> B----->F----> G

Time Complexity: The worst case time complexity of Greedy best first search is $O(b^m)$

Space Complexity: The worst case space complexity of Greedy best first search is $O(b^m)$. Where, m is the maximum depth of the search space.

Complete: Greedy best-first search is also incomplete, even if the given state space is finite.

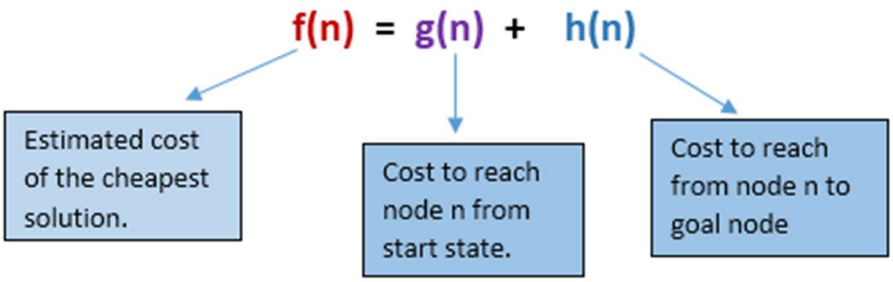
Optimal: Greedy best first search algorithm is not optimal.

2.) A* Search Algorithm:

A* search is the most commonly known form of best-first search. It uses heuristic function h(n), and cost to reach the node n from the start state g(n). It has combined

features of UCS and greedy best-first search, by which it solve the problem efficiently. A* search algorithm finds the shortest path through the search space using the heuristic function. This search algorithm expands less search tree and provides optimal result faster. A* algorithm is similar to UCS except that it uses g(n)+h(n) instead of g(n).

In A* search algorithm, we use search heuristic as well as the cost to reach the node. Hence we can combine both costs as following, and this sum is called as a fitness number.



Algorithm of A* search:

Step1: Place the starting node in the OPEN list.

Step 2: Check if the OPEN list is empty or not, if the list is empty then return failure and stops.

Step 3: Select the node from the OPEN list which has the smallest value of evaluation function (g+h), if node n is goal node then return success and stop, otherwise

Step 4: Expand node n and generate all of its successors, and put n into the closed list. For each successor n', check whether n' is already in the OPEN or CLOSED list, if not then compute evaluation function for n' and place into Open list.

Step 5: Else if node n' is already in OPEN and CLOSED, then it should be attached to the back pointer which reflects the lowest g(n') value.

Step 6: Return to Step 2

Advantages:

- A* search algorithm is the best algorithm than other search algorithms.
- A* search algorithm is optimal and complete.
- This algorithm can solve very complex problems.

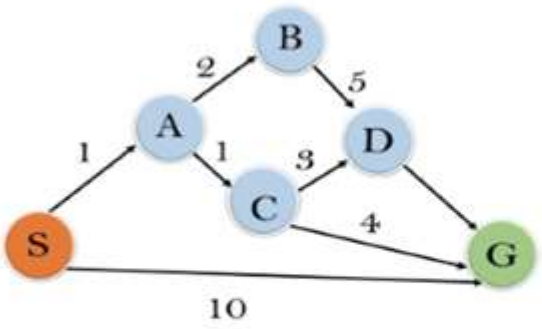
Disadvantages:

- It does not always produce the shortest path as it mostly based on heuristics and approximation.
- A* search algorithm has some complexity issues.
- The main drawback of A* is memory requirement as it keeps all generated nodes in the memory, so it is not practical for various large-scale problems.

Example:

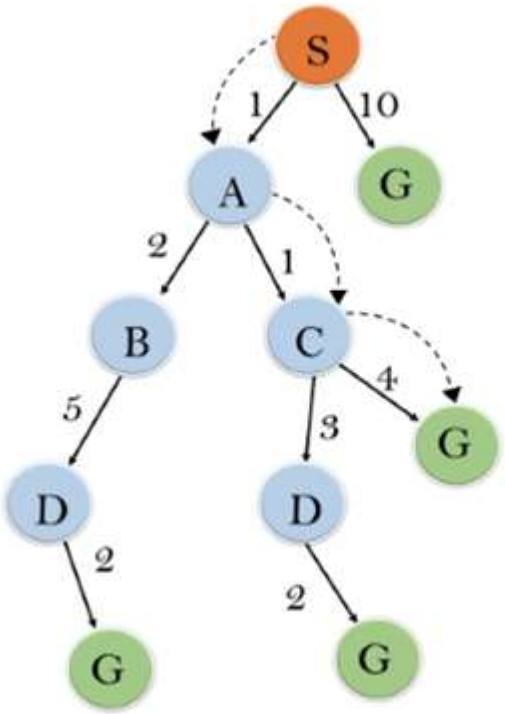
In this example, we will traverse the given graph using the A* algorithm. The heuristic value of all states is given in the below table so we will calculate the f(n) of each state using the formula f(n)= g(n) + h(n), where g(n) is the cost to reach any node from start state.

Here we will use OPEN and CLOSED list.



State	h(n)
S	5
A	3
B	4
C	2
D	6
G	0

Solution:



Initialization: {(S, 5)}

Iteration1: {(S--> A, 4), (S-->G, 10)}

Iteration2: {(S--> A-->C, 4), (S--> A-->B, 7), (S-->G, 10)}

Iteration3: {(S--> A-->C--->G, 6), (S--> A-->C--->D, 11), (S--> A-->B, 7), (S-->G, 10)}

Iteration 4 will give the final result, as S--->A--->C--->G it provides the optimal path with cost 6.

Points to remember:

- A* algorithm returns the path which occurred first, and it does not search for all remaining paths.
- The efficiency of A* algorithm depends on the quality of heuristic.
- A* algorithm expands all nodes which satisfy the condition f(n)

Complete: A* algorithm is complete as long as:

- Branching factor is finite.
- Cost at every action is fixed.

Optimal: A* search algorithm is optimal if it follows below two conditions:

Admissible: the first condition requires for optimality is that h(n) should be an admissible heuristic for A* tree search. An admissible heuristic is optimistic in nature.

Consistency: Second required condition is consistency for only A* graph-search.

If the heuristic function is admissible, then A* tree search will always find the least cost path.

Time Complexity: The time complexity of A* search algorithm depends on heuristic function, and the number of nodes expanded is exponential to the depth of solution d. So the time complexity is O(b^d), where b is the branching factor.

Space Complexity: The space complexity of A* search algorithm is O(b^d)

Hill Climbing Algorithm

- Hill climbing algorithm is a local search algorithm which continuously moves in the direction of increasing elevation/value to find the peak of the mountain or best solution to the problem. It terminates when it reaches a peak value where no neighbor has a higher value.
- Hill climbing algorithm is a technique which is used for optimizing the mathematical problems. One of the widely discussed examples of Hill climbing algorithm is Traveling-salesman Problem in which we need to minimize the distance traveled by the salesman.
- It is also called greedy local search as it only looks to its good immediate neighbor state and not beyond that.
- A node of hill climbing algorithm has two components which are state and value.
- Hill Climbing is mostly used when a good heuristic is available.
- In this algorithm, we don't need to maintain and handle the search tree or graph as it only keeps a single current state.

Features of Hill Climbing:

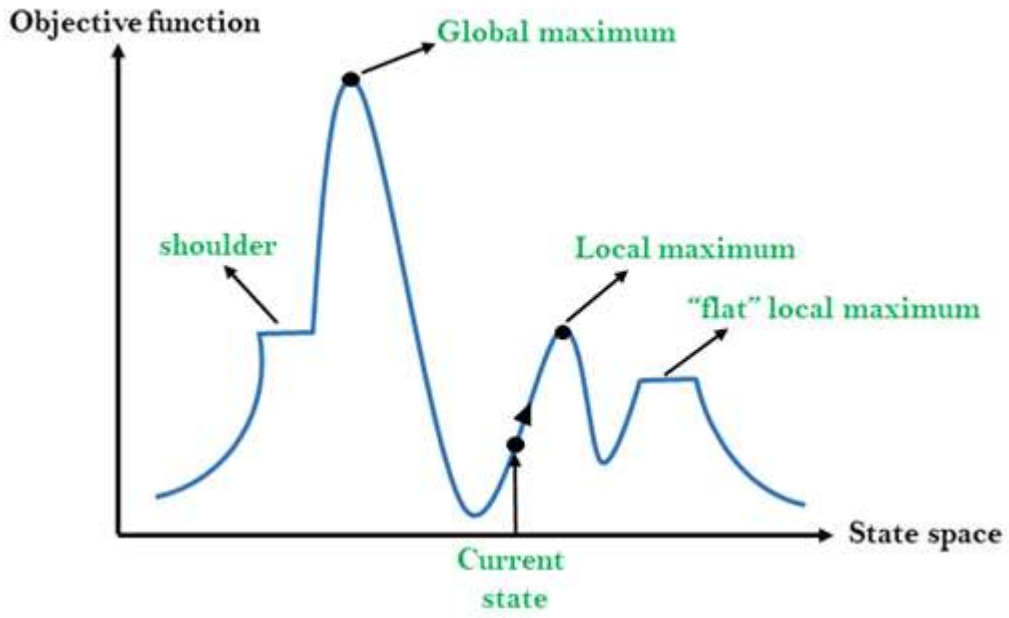
Following are some main features of Hill Climbing Algorithm:

- Generate and Test variant: Hill Climbing is the variant of Generate and Test method. The Generate and Test method produce feedback which helps to decide which direction to move in the search space.
- Greedy approach: Hill-climbing algorithm search moves in the direction which optimizes the cost.
- No backtracking: It does not backtrack the search space, as it does not remember the previous states.

State-space Diagram for Hill Climbing:

The state-space landscape is a graphical representation of the hill-climbing algorithm which is showing a graph between various states of algorithm and Objective function/Cost.

On Y-axis we have taken the function which can be an objective function or cost function, and state-space on the x-axis. If the function on Y-axis is cost then, the goal of search is to find the global minimum and local minimum. If the function of Y-axis is Objective function, then the goal of the search is to find the global maximum and local maximum.



Different regions in the state space landscape:

Local Maximum: Local maximum is a state which is better than its neighbor states, but there is also another state which is higher than it.

Global Maximum: Global maximum is the best possible state of state space landscape. It has the highest value of objective function.

Current state: It is a state in a landscape diagram where an agent is currently present.

Flat local maximum: It is a flat space in the landscape where all the neighbor states of current states have the same value.

Shoulder: It is a plateau region which has an uphill edge.

Types of Hill Climbing Algorithm:

1. Simple hill Climbing:

2. Steepest-Ascent hill-climbing:
3. Stochastic hill Climbing:

1. Simple Hill Climbing:

Simple hill climbing is the simplest way to implement a hill climbing algorithm. It only evaluates the neighbor node state at a time and selects the first one which optimizes current cost and set it as a current state. It only checks it's one successor state, and if it finds better than the current state, then move else be in the same state. This algorithm has the following features:

- Less time consuming
- Less optimal solution and the solution is not guaranteed

Algorithm for Simple Hill Climbing:

Step 1: Evaluate the initial state, if it is goal state then return success and Stop.

Step 2: Loop Until a solution is found or there is no new operator left to apply.

Step 3: Select and apply an operator to the current state.

Step 4: Check new state:

i. If it is goal state, then return success and quit.
ii. Else if it is better than the current state then assign new state as a current state.
iii. Else if not better than the current state, then return to step2.

Step 5: Exit.

2. Steepest-Ascent hill climbing:

The steepest-Ascent algorithm is a variation of simple hill climbing algorithm. This algorithm examines all the neighboring nodes of the current state and selects one neighbor node which is closest to the goal state. This algorithm consumes more time as it searches for multiple neighbors.

Algorithm for Steepest-Ascent hill climbing:

Step 1: Evaluate the initial state, if it is goal state then return success and stop, else make current state as initial state.

Step 2: Loop until a solution is found or the current state does not change.

a. Let SUCC be a state such that any successor of the current state will be better than it.
b. For each operator that applies to the current state:

i. Apply the new operator and generate a new state.
ii. Evaluate the new state.
iii. If it is goal state, then return it and quit, else compare it to the SUCC.
iv. If it is better than SUCC, then set new state as SUCC.
v. If the SUCC is better than the current state, then set current state to SUCC.

Step 5: Exit.

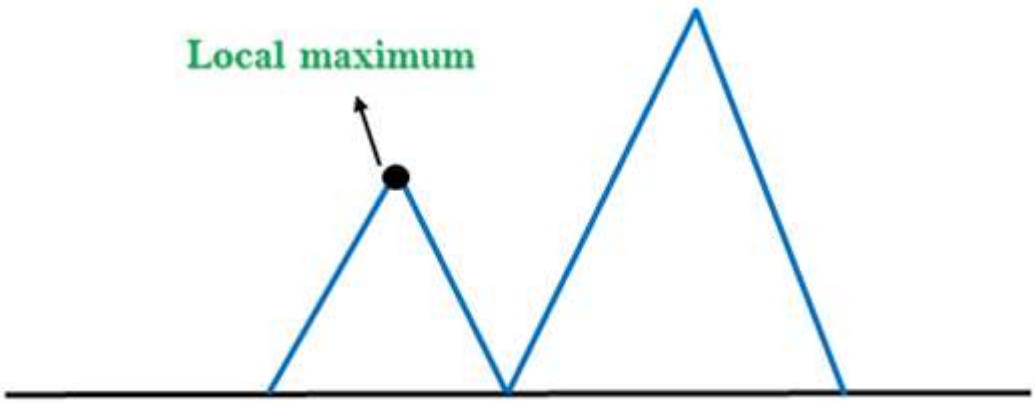
3. Stochastic hill climbing:

Stochastic hill climbing does not examine for all its neighbor before moving. Rather, this search algorithm selects one neighbor node at random and decides whether to choose it as a current state or examine another state.

Problems in Hill Climbing Algorithm:

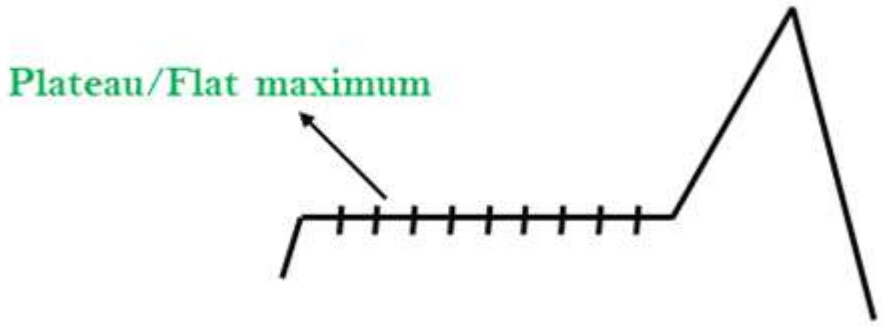
1. Local Maximum: A local maximum is a peak state in the landscape which is better than each of its neighboring states, but there is another state also present which is higher than the local maximum.

Solution: Backtracking technique can be a solution of the local maximum in state space landscape. Create a list of the promising path so that the algorithm can backtrack the search space and explore other paths as well.



2. Plateau: A plateau is the flat area of the search space in which all the neighbor states of the current state contains the same value, because of this algorithm does not find any best direction to move. A hill-climbing search might be lost in the plateau area.

Solution: The solution for the plateau is to take big steps or very little steps while searching, to solve the problem. Randomly select a state which is far away from the current state so it is possible that the algorithm could find non-plateau region.



3. Ridges: A ridge is a special form of the local maximum. It has an area which is higher than its surrounding areas, but itself has a slope, and cannot be reached in a single move.

Solution: With the use of bidirectional search, or by moving in different directions, we can improve this problem.

Simulated Annealing:

A hill-climbing algorithm which never makes a move towards a lower value guaranteed to be incomplete because it can get stuck on a local maximum. And if algorithm applies a random walk, by moving a successor, then it may complete but not efficient. Simulated Annealing is an algorithm which yields both efficiency and completeness.

In mechanical term Annealing is a process of hardening a metal or glass to a high temperature then cooling gradually, so this allows the metal to reach a low-energy crystalline state. The same process is used in simulated annealing in which the algorithm picks a random move, instead of picking the best move. If the random move improves the state, then it follows the same path. Otherwise, the algorithm

follows the path which has a probability of less than 1 or it moves downhill and chooses another path.

CSP (constraint satisfaction problem):

CSPs represent a state with a set of variable/value pairs and represent the conditions for a solution by a set of constraints on the variables. Many important real-world problems can be described as CSPs.

CSP (constraint satisfaction problem): Use a factored representation (a set of variables, each of which has a value) for each state, a problem that is solved when each variable has a value that satisfies all the constraints on the variable is called a CSP.

A CSP consists of 3 components:

·X is a set of variables, $\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$.

·D is a set of domains, $\{D_1, \ldots, D_n\}$, one for each variable.

Each domain Di consists of a set of allowable values, $\{v_1, \ldots, v_k\}$ for variable X_i.

·C is a set of constraints that specify allowable combination of values.

A relation can be represented as: a. an explicit list of all tuples of values that satisfy the constraint; or b. an abstract relation that supports two operations. (e.g. if X_1 and X_2 both have the domain {A,B}, the constraint saying "the two variables must have different values" can be written as a. $<(X_1,X_2),[(A,B),(B,A)]>$ or b. $<(X_1,X_2),X_1 \neq X_2>$.

Each constraint Ci consists of pair <scope, rel>, where scope is a tuple of variables that participate in the constraint, and rel is a relation that defines the values that those variables can take on.

Assignment:

Each state in a CSP is defined by an assignment of values to some of the variables, $\{X_i=v_i, X_j=v_j, \ldots\}$;

An assignment that does not violate any constraints is called a consistent or legal assignment;

A complete assignment is one in which every variable is assigned;

A solution to a CSP is a consistent, complete assignment;

A partial assignment is one that assigns values to only some of the variables.

Map coloring

UNIT II

ADVANCED SEARCH

Advanced Search: Constructing Search Trees, Stochastic Search, A* Search Implementation, Minimax Search, Alpha-Beta Pruning

BASIC KNOWLEDGE REPRESENTATION AND REASONING: Propositional Logic, First-Order Logic, Forward Chaining and Backward Chaining, Introduction to Probabilistic Reasoning, Bayes Theorem

Adversarial search or Game Tree search is a search, where we examine the problem which arises when we try to plan ahead of the world and other agents are planning against us.

In previous topics, it is studied the search strategies which are only associated with a single agent that aims to find the solution which often expressed in the form of a sequence of actions.

But, there might be some situations where more than one agent is searching for the solution in the same search space, and this situation usually occurs in game playing.

The environment with more than one agent is termed as multi-agent environment, in which each agent is an opponent of other agent and playing against each other. Each agent needs to consider the action of other agent and effect of that action on their performance.

So, Searches in which two or more players with conflicting goals are trying to explore the same search space for the solution, are called adversarial searches, often known as Games.

Games are modeled as a Search problem and heuristic evaluation function, and these are the two main factors which help to model and solve games in AI.

Types of Games in AI:

	Deterministic	Chance Moves
Perfect information	Chess, Checkers, go, Othello	Backgammon, monopoly
Imperfect information	Battleships, blind, tic-tac-toe	Bridge, poker, scrabble, nuclear war

Perfect information: A game with the perfect information is that in which agents can look into the complete board. Agents have all the information about the game, and they can see each other moves also. Examples are Chess, Checkers, Go, etc.

Imperfect information: If in a game agents do not have all information about the game and not aware with what's going on, such type of games are called the game with imperfect information, such as tic-tac-toe, Battleship, blind, Bridge, etc.

Deterministic games: Deterministic games are those games which follow a strict pattern and set of rules for the games, and there is no randomness associated with them. Examples are chess, Checkers, Go, tic-tac-toe, etc.

Non-deterministic games: Non-deterministic are those games which have various unpredictable events and has a factor of chance or luck. This factor of chance or luck is introduced by either dice or cards. These are random, and each action response is not fixed. Such games are also called as stochastic games.

Example: Backgammon, Monopoly, Poker, etc.

Zero-Sum Game

- Zero-sum games are adversarial search which involves pure competition.
- In Zero-sum game each agent's gain or loss of utility is exactly balanced by the losses or gains of utility of another agent.
- One player of the game try to maximize one single value, while other player tries to minimize it.
- Each move by one player in the game is called as ply.
- Chess and tic-tac-toe are examples of a Zero-sum game.

Zero-sum game: Embedded thinking

The Zero-sum game involved embedded thinking in which one agent or player is trying to figure out:

- What to do.
- How to decide the move
- Needs to think about his opponent as well
- The opponent also thinks what to do

Each of the players is trying to find out the response of his opponent to their actions. This requires embedded thinking or backward reasoning to solve the game problems in AI.

Formalization of the problem:

A game can be defined as a type of search in AI which can be formalized of the following elements:

Initial state: It specifies how the game is set up at the start.

Player(s): It specifies which player has moved in the state space.

Action(s): It returns the set of legal moves in state space.

Result(s, a): It is the transition model, which specifies the result of moves in the state space.

Terminal-Test(s): Terminal test is true if the game is over, else it is false at any case. The state where the game ends is called terminal states.

Utility(s, p): A utility function gives the final numeric value for a game that ends in terminal states s for player p. It is also called payoff function. For Chess, the outcomes are a win, loss, or draw and its payoff values are +1, 0, ½. And for tic-tac-toe, utility values are +1, -1, and 0.

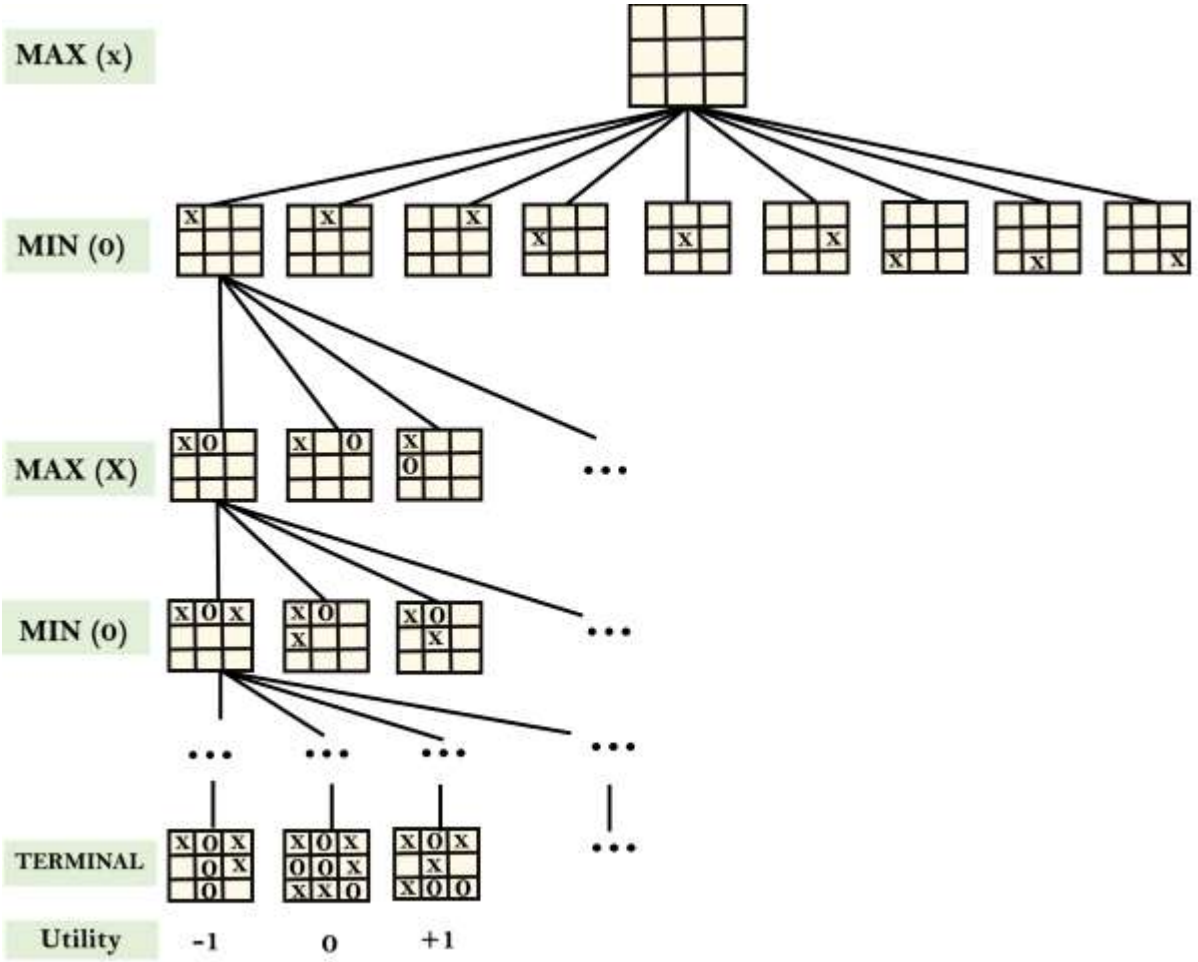
Game tree:

A game tree is a tree where nodes of the tree are the game states and Edges of the tree are the moves by players. Game tree involves initial state, actions function, and result Function.

Example: Tic-Tac-Toe game tree:

The following figure is showing part of the game-tree for tic-tac-toe game. Following are some key points of the game:

- There are two players MAX and MIN.
- Players have an alternate turn and start with MAX.
- MAX maximizes the result of the game tree
- MIN minimizes the result.



Example Explanation:

- From the initial state, MAX has 9 possible moves as he starts first. MAX place x and MIN place o, and both player plays alternatively until we reach a leaf node where one player has three in a row or all squares are filled.
- Both players will compute each node, minimax, the minimax value which is the best achievable utility against an optimal adversary.
- Suppose both the players are well aware of the tic-tac-toe and playing the best play. Each player is doing his best to prevent another one from winning. MIN is acting against Max in the game.
- So in the game tree, we have a layer of Max, a layer of MIN, and each layer is called as Ply. Max place x, then MIN puts o to prevent Max from winning, and this game continues until the terminal node.
- In this either MIN wins, MAX wins, or it's a draw. This game-tree is the whole search space of possibilities that MIN and MAX are playing tic-tac-toe and taking turns alternately.

Hence adversarial Search for the minimax procedure works as follows:

- It aims to find the optimal strategy for MAX to win the game.
- It follows the approach of Depth-first search.
- In the game tree, optimal leaf node could appear at any depth of the tree.
- Propagate the minimax values up to the tree until the terminal node discovered.

In a given game tree, the optimal strategy can be determined from the minimax value of each node, which can be written as MINIMAX(n). MAX prefer to move to a state of maximum value and MIN prefer to move to a state of minimum value then:

For a state S MINIMAX(s) =

$$\begin{cases} \text{UTILITY}(s) & \text{If TERMINAL-TEST}(s) \\ \max_{a \in \text{Actions}(s)} \text{MINIMAX}(\text{RESULT}(s, a)) & \text{If PLAYER}(s) = \text{MAX} \\ \min_{a \in \text{Actions}(s)} \text{MINIMAX}(\text{RESULT}(s, a)) & \text{If PLAYER}(s) = \text{MIN}. \end{cases}$$

Mini-Max Algorithm

- Mini-max algorithm is a recursive or backtracking algorithm which is used in decision-making and game theory. It provides an optimal move for the player assuming that opponent is also playing optimally.
- Mini-Max algorithm uses recursion to search through the game-tree.
- Min-Max algorithm is mostly used for game playing in AI. Such as Chess, Checkers, tic-tac-toe, go, and various tow-players game. This Algorithm computes the minimax decision for the current state.
- In this algorithm two players play the game, one is called MAX and other is called MIN.
- Both the players fight it as the opponent player gets the minimum benefit while they get the maximum benefit.
- Both Players of the game are opponent of each other, where MAX will select the maximized value and MIN will select the minimized value.
- The minimax algorithm performs a depth-first search algorithm for the exploration of the complete game tree.
- The minimax algorithm proceeds all the way down to the terminal node of the tree, then backtrack the tree as the recursion.

Pseudo-code for MinMax Algorithm:

```
function minimax(node, depth, maximizingPlayer) is
if depth ==0 or node is a terminal node then
return static evaluation of node

if MaximizingPlayer then      // for Maximizer Player
maxEva= -infinity
 for each child of node do
 eva= minimax(child, depth-1, false)
```

```
        maxEva= max(maxEva,eva)        //gives Maximum of the values
        return maxEva

        else                    // for Minimizer player
         minEva= +infinity
         for each child of node do
         eva= minimax(child, depth-1, true)
         minEva= min(minEva, eva)        //gives minimum of the values
         return minEva
```

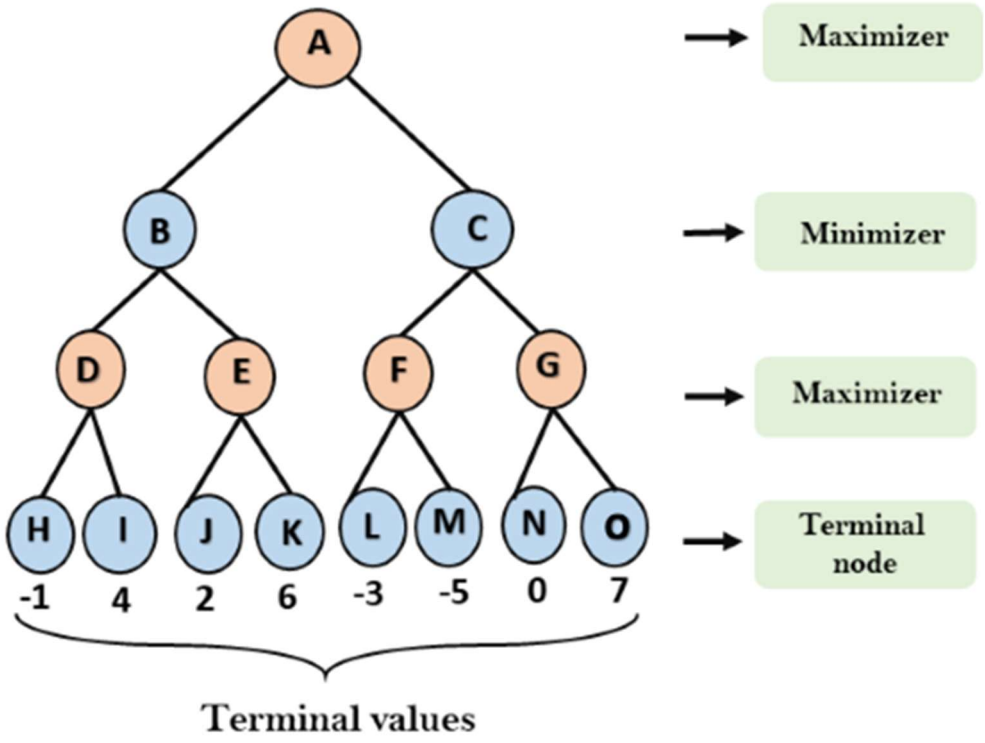
Initial call:

Minimax(node, 3, true)

Working of Min-Max Algorithm:

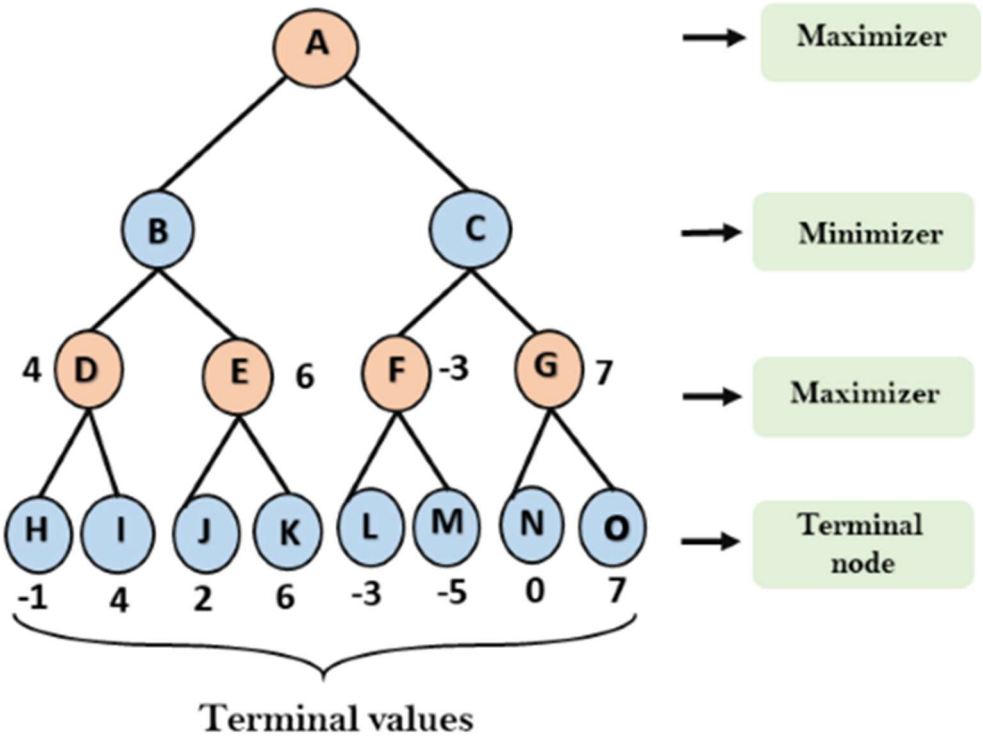
- The working of the minimax algorithm can be easily described using an example. Below we have taken an example of game-tree which is representing the two-player game.
- In this example, there are two players one is called Maximizer and other is called Minimizer.
- Maximizer will try to get the Maximum possible score, and Minimizer will try to get the minimum possible score.
- This algorithm applies DFS, so in this game-tree, we have to go all the way through the leaves to reach the terminal nodes.
- At the terminal node, the terminal values are given so we will compare those value and backtrack the tree until the initial state occurs. Following are the main steps involved in solving the two-player game tree:

Step-1: In the first step, the algorithm generates the entire game-tree and apply the utility function to get the utility values for the terminal states. In the below tree diagram, let's take A is the initial state of the tree. Suppose maximizer takes first turn which has worst-case initial value =- infinity, and minimizer will take next turn which has worst-case initial value = +infinity.



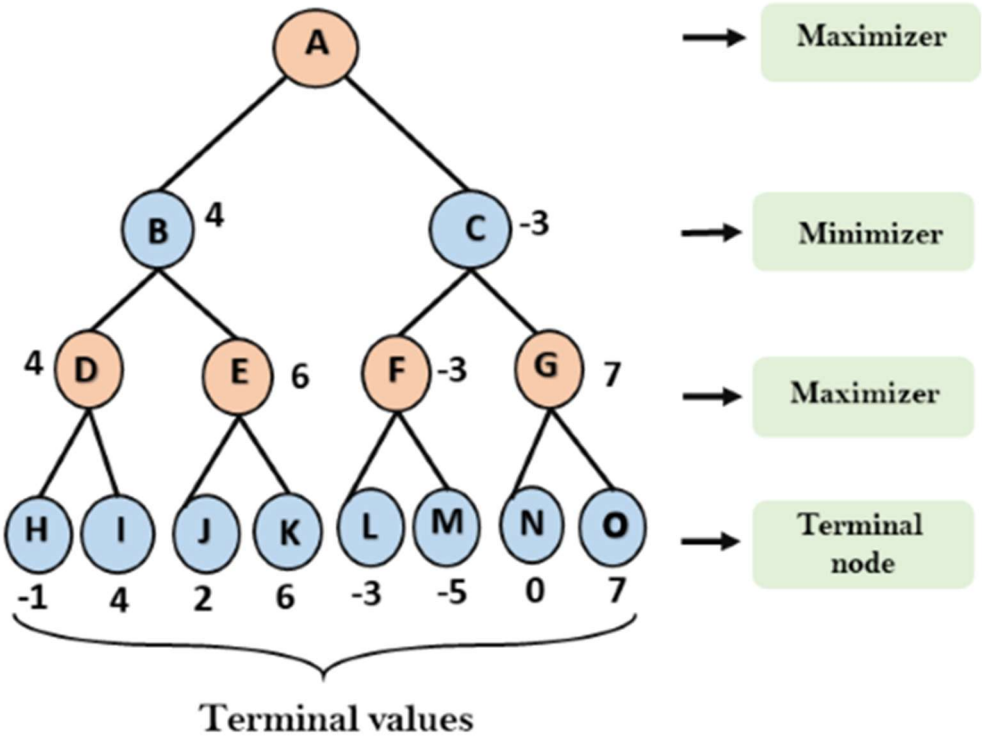
Step 2: Now, first we find the utilities value for the Maximizer, its initial value is -∞, so we will compare each value in terminal state with initial value of Maximizer and determines the higher nodes values. It will find the maximum among the all.

- For node D max(-1,- -∞) => max(-1,4)= 4
- For Node E max(2, -∞) => max(2, 6)= 6
- For Node F max(-3, -∞) => max(-3,-5) = -3
- For node G max(0, -∞) = max(0, 7) = 7



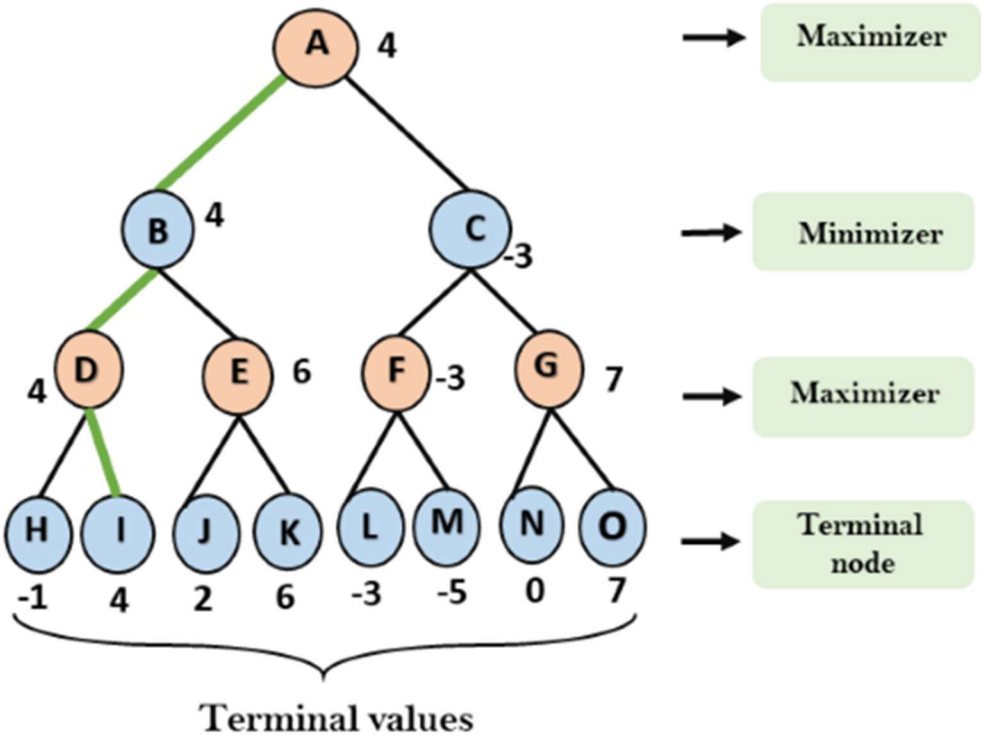
Step 3: In the next step, it's a turn for minimizer, so it will compare all nodes value with +∞, and will find the 3rd layer node values.

- For node B= min(4,6) = 4
- For node C= min (-3, 7) = -3



Step 4: Now it's a turn for Maximizer, and it will again choose the maximum of all nodes value and find the maximum value for the root node. In this game tree, there are only 4 layers, hence we reach immediately to the root node, but in real games, there will be more than 4 layers.

- For node A max(4, -3)= 4



It is the complete workflow of the minimax two player game

Properties of Mini-Max algorithm:

- Complete- Min-Max algorithm is Complete. It will definitely find a solution (if exist), in the finite search tree.
- Optimal- Min-Max algorithm is optimal if both opponents are playing optimally.
- Time complexity- As it performs DFS for the game-tree, so the time complexity of Min-Max algorithm is $O(b^m)$, where b is branching factor of the game-tree, and m is the maximum depth of the tree.
- Space Complexity- Space complexity of Mini-max algorithm is also similar to DFS which is O(bm).

Limitation of the minimax Algorithm:

The main drawback of the minimax algorithm is that it gets really slow for complex games such as Chess, go, etc. This type of games has a huge branching factor, and the player has lots of choices to decide. This limitation of the minimax algorithm can be improved from alpha-beta pruning.

Alpha-Beta Pruning

- Alpha-beta pruning is a modified version of the minimax algorithm. It is an optimization technique for the minimax algorithm.

- As we have seen in the minimax search algorithm that the number of game states it has to examine are exponential in depth of the tree. Since we cannot eliminate the exponent, but we can cut it to half. Hence there is a technique by which without checking each node of the game tree we can compute the correct minimax decision, and this technique is called pruning. This involves two threshold parameter Alpha and beta for future expansion, so it is called alpha-beta pruning. It is also called as Alpha-Beta Algorithm.
- Alpha-beta pruning can be applied at any depth of a tree, and sometimes it not only prune the tree leaves but also entire sub-tree.
- The two-parameter can be defined as:
    - Alpha: The best (highest-value) choice we have found so far at any point along the path of Maximizer. The initial value of alpha is -∞.
    - Beta: The best (lowest-value) choice we have found so far at any point along the path of Minimizer. The initial value of beta is +∞.
- The Alpha-beta pruning to a standard minimax algorithm returns the same move as the standard algorithm does, but it removes all the nodes which are not really affecting the final decision but making algorithm slow. Hence by pruning these nodes, it makes the algorithm fast.

Condition for Alpha-beta pruning:

The main condition which required for alpha-beta pruning is:

$\alpha >= \beta$

Key points about alpha-beta pruning:

- The Max player will only update the value of alpha.
- The Min player will only update the value of beta.
- While backtracking the tree, the node values will be passed to upper nodes instead of values of alpha and beta.
- We will only pass the alpha, beta values to the child nodes.

Pseudo-code for Alpha-beta Pruning:

```
function minimax(node, depth, alpha, beta, maximizingPlayer) is
if depth ==0 or node is a terminal node then
return static evaluation of node

if MaximizingPlayer then      // for Maximizer Player
  maxEva= -infinity
  for each child of node do
  eva= minimax(child, depth-1, alpha, beta, False)
 maxEva= max(maxEva, eva)
 alpha= max(alpha, maxEva)
  if beta<=alpha
 break
```

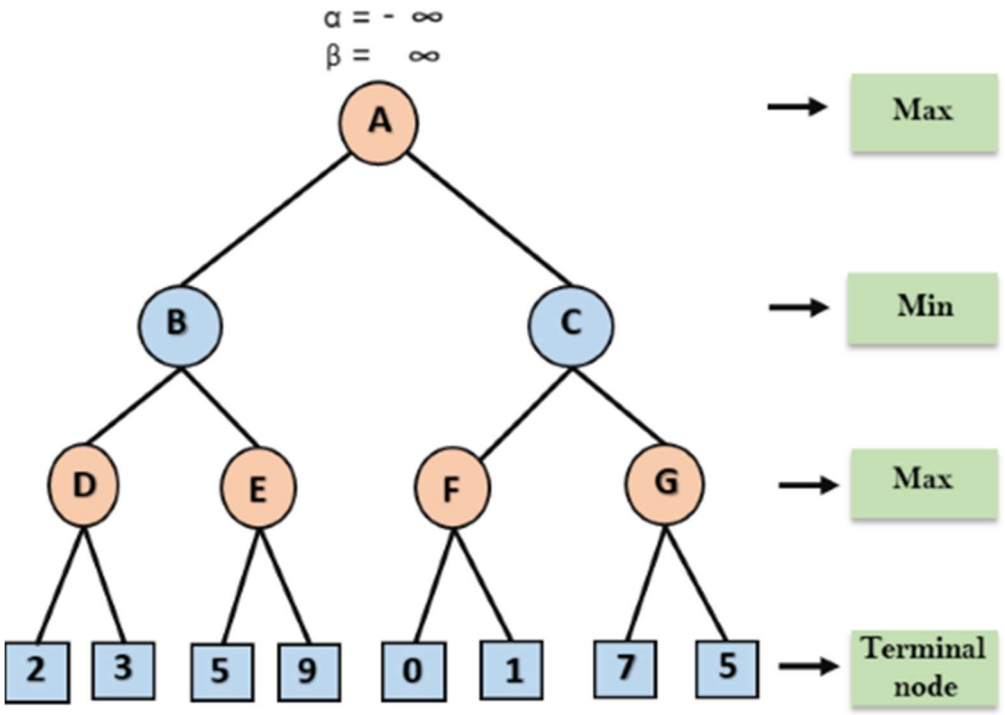
```
return maxEva

else                    // for Minimizer player
  minEva= +infinity
  for each child of node do
  eva= minimax(child, depth-1, alpha, beta, true)
  minEva= min(minEva, eva)
  beta= min(beta, eva)
   if beta<=alpha
 break
return minEva
```

Working of Alpha-Beta Pruning:

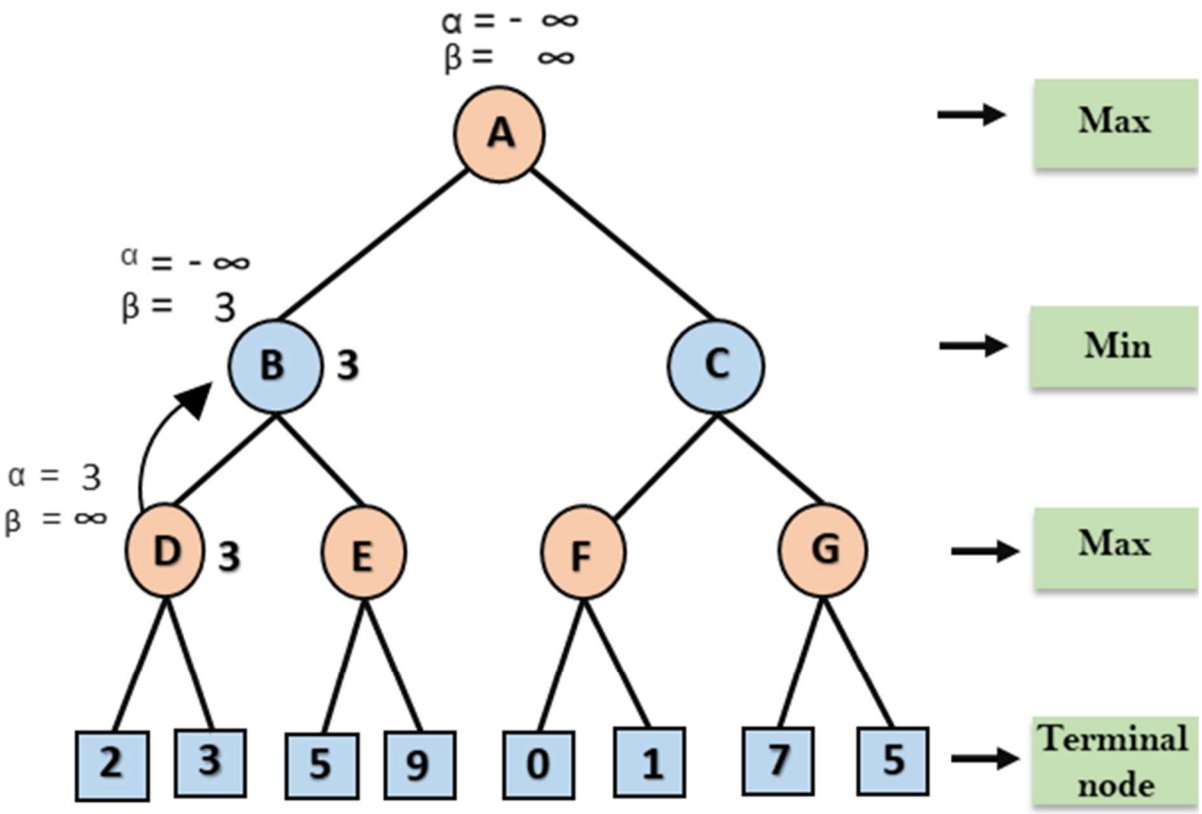
Example of two-player search tree to understand the working of Alpha-beta pruning

Step 1: At the first step the, Max player will start first move from node A where α= -∞ and β= +∞, these value of alpha and beta passed down to node B where again α= -∞ and β= +∞, and Node B passes the same value to its child D.



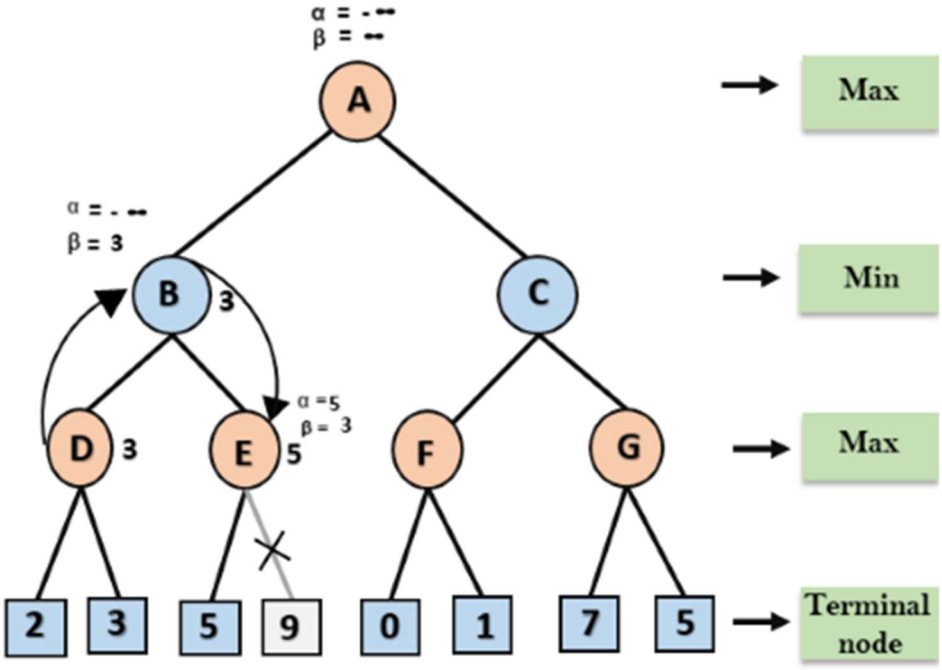
Step 2: At Node D, the value of α will be calculated as its turn for Max. The value of α is compared with firstly 2 and then 3, and the max (2, 3) = 3 will be the value of α at node D and node value will also 3.

Step 3: Now algorithm backtrack to node B, where the value of β will change as this is a turn of Min, Now β= +∞, will compare with the available subsequent nodes value, i.e. min (∞, 3) = 3, hence at node B now α= -∞, and β= 3.



In the next step, algorithm traverse the next successor of Node B which is node E, and the values of α= -∞, and β= 3 will also be passed.

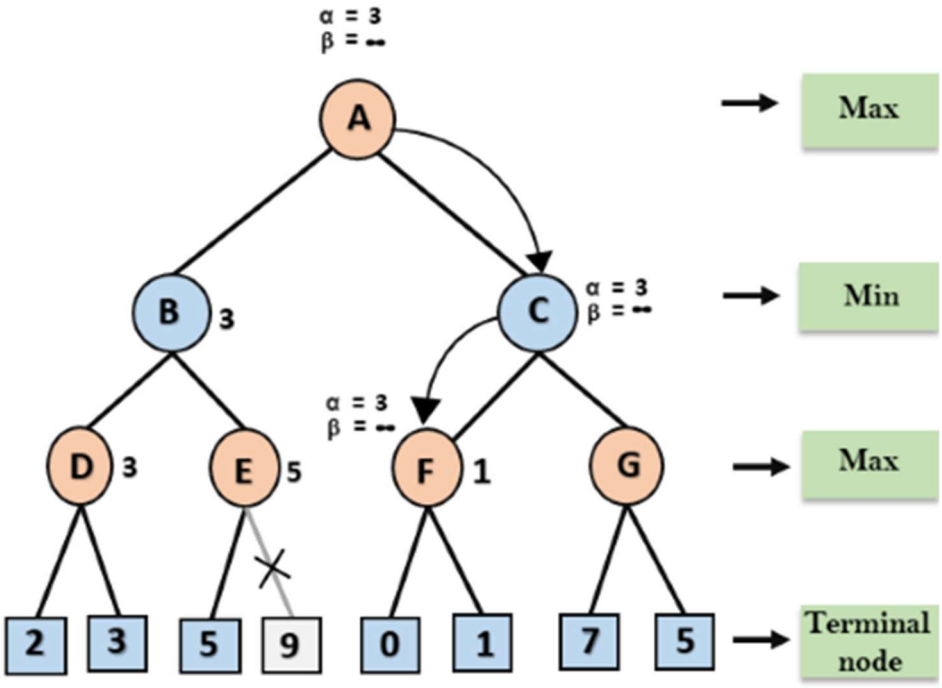
Step 4: At node E, Max will take its turn, and the value of alpha will change. The current value of alpha will be compared with 5, so max (-∞, 5) = 5, hence at node E α= 5 and β= 3, where α>=β, so the right successor of E will be pruned, and algorithm will not traverse it, and the value at node E will be 5.



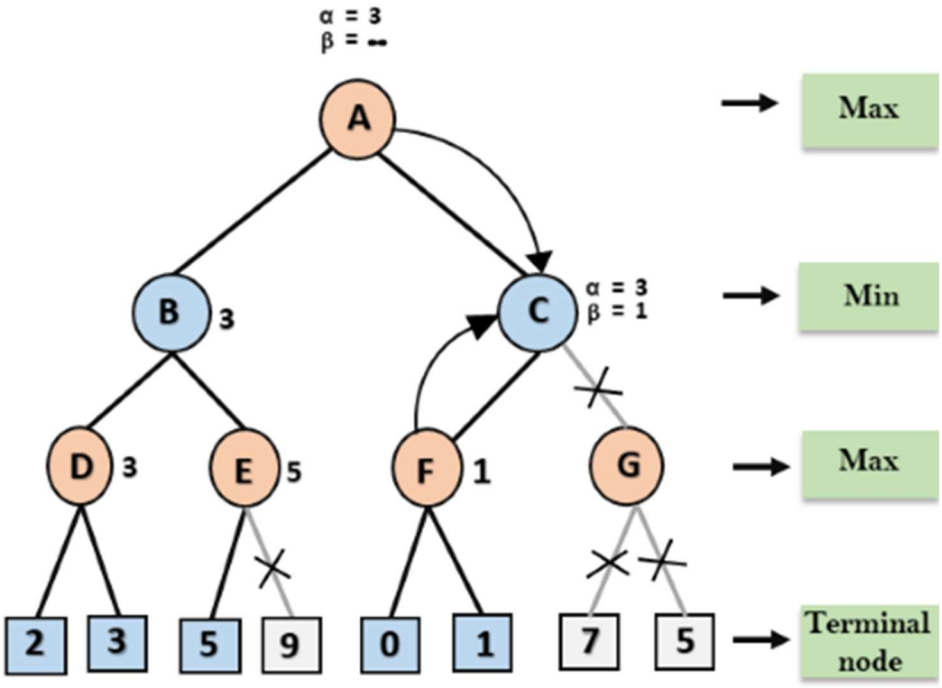
Step 5: At next step, algorithm again backtrack the tree, from node B to node A. At node A, the value of alpha will be changed the maximum available value is 3 as max (-∞, 3)= 3, and β= +∞, these two values now passes to right successor of A which is Node C.

At node C, α=3 and β= +∞, and the same values will be passed on to node F.

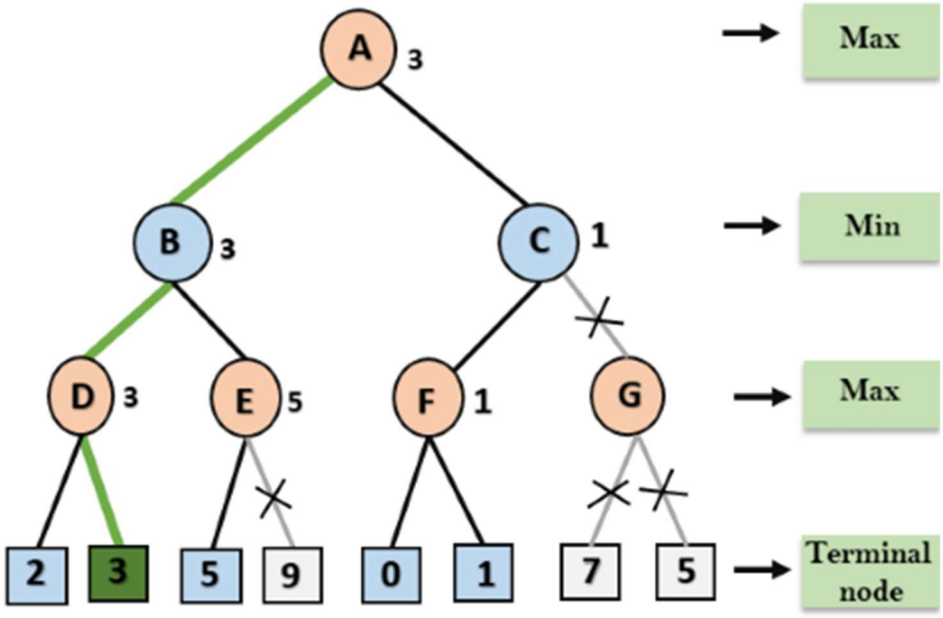
Step 6: At node F, again the value of α will be compared with left child which is 0, and max(3,0)= 3, and then compared with right child which is 1, and max(3,1)= 3 still α remains 3, but the node value of F will become 1.



Step 7: Node F returns the node value 1 to node C, at C α= 3 and β= +∞, here the value of beta will be changed, it will compare with 1 so min (∞, 1) = 1. Now at C, α=3 and β= 1, and again it satisfies the condition α>=β, so the next child of C which is G will be pruned, and the algorithm will not compute the entire sub-tree G.



Step 8: C now returns the value of 1 to A here the best value for A is max (3, 1) = 3. Following is the final game tree which is the showing the nodes which are computed and nodes which has never computed. Hence the optimal value for the maximizer is 3 for this example.



Move Ordering in Alpha-Beta pruning:

The effectiveness of alpha-beta pruning is highly dependent on the order in which each node is examined. Move order is an important aspect of alpha-beta pruning.

It can be of two types:

- Worst ordering: In some cases, alpha-beta pruning algorithm does not prune any of the leaves of the tree, and works exactly as minimax algorithm. In this case, it also consumes more time because of alpha-beta factors, such a move of pruning is called worst ordering. In this case, the best move occurs on the right side of the tree. The time complexity for such an order is $O(b^m)$.
- Ideal ordering: The ideal ordering for alpha-beta pruning occurs when lots of pruning happens in the tree, and best moves occur at the left side of the tree. We apply DFS hence it first search left of the tree and go deep twice as minimax algorithm in the same amount of time. Complexity in ideal ordering is $O(b^{m/2})$.

Rules to find good ordering:

Following are some rules to find good ordering in alpha-beta pruning:

- Occur the best move from the shallowest node.
- Order the nodes in the tree such that the best nodes are checked first.
- Use domain knowledge while finding the best move. Ex: for Chess, try order: captures first, then threats, then forward moves, backward moves.

- We can bookkeep the states, as there is a possibility that states may repeat.

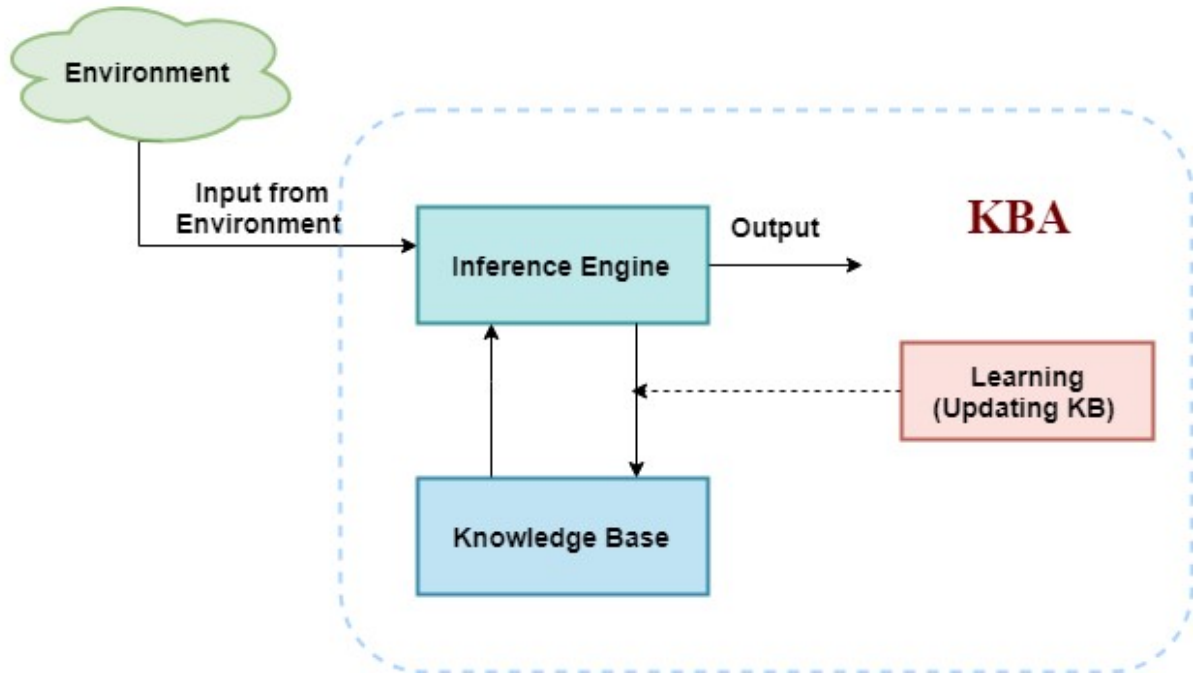
KNOWLEDGE-BASED AGENT

- An intelligent agent needs knowledge about the real world for taking decisions and reasoning to act efficiently.
- Knowledge-based agents are those agents who have the capability of maintaining an internal state of knowledge, reason over that knowledge, update their knowledge after observations and take actions. These agents can represent the world with some formal representation and act intelligently.
- Knowledge-based agents are composed of two main parts:
    - Knowledge-base and
    - Inference system.

A knowledge-based agent must able to do the following:

- An agent should be able to represent states, actions, etc.
- An agent Should be able to incorporate new percepts
- An agent can update the internal representation of the world
- An agent can deduce the internal representation of the world
- An agent can deduce appropriate actions.

The architecture of knowledge-based agent:



The above diagram is representing a generalized architecture for a knowledge-based agent. The knowledge-based agent (KBA) take input from the environment by perceiving the environment. The input is taken by the inference engine of the agent and which also communicate with KB to decide as per the knowledge store in KB. The learning element of KBA regularly updates the KB by learning new knowledge.

Knowledge base: Knowledge-base is a central component of a knowledge-based agent, it is also known as KB. It is a collection of sentences (here 'sentence' is a technical term and it is not identical to sentence in English). These sentences are expressed in a language which is called a knowledge representation language. The Knowledge-base of KBA stores fact about the world.

Use of a knowledge base:

Knowledge-base is required for updating knowledge for an agent to learn with experiences and take action as per the knowledge.

Inference system

Inference means deriving new sentences from old. Inference system allows us to add a new sentence to the knowledge base. A sentence is a proposition about the world. Inference system applies logical rules to the KB to deduce new information.

Inference system generates new facts so that an agent can update the KB. An inference system works mainly in two rules which are given as:

- Forward chaining
- Backward chaining

Operations Performed by KBA

Following are three operations which are performed by KBA in order to show the intelligent behavior:

- TELL: This operation tells the knowledge base what it perceives from the environment.
- ASK: This operation asks the knowledge base what action it should perform.
- Perform: It performs the selected action.

A generic knowledge-based agent:

Following is the structure outline of a generic knowledge-based agents program:

```
function KB-AGENT(percept):
persistent: KB, a knowledge base
        t, a counter, initially 0, indicating time
TELL(KB, MAKE-PERCEPT-SENTENCE(percept, t))
Action = ASK(KB, MAKE-ACTION-QUERY(t))
TELL(KB, MAKE-ACTION-SENTENCE(action, t))
 t = t + 1
 return action
```

The knowledge-based agent takes percept as input and returns an action as output. The agent maintains the knowledge base, KB, and it initially has some background knowledge of the real world. It also has a counter to indicate the time for the whole process, and this counter is initialized with zero.

Each time when the function is called, it performs its three operations:

- Firstly it TELLs the KB what it perceives.

- Secondly, it asks KB what action it should take
- Third agent program TELLS the KB that which action was chosen.

The MAKE-PERCEPT-SENTENCE generates a sentence as setting that the agent perceived the given percept at the given time.

The MAKE-ACTION-QUERY generates a sentence to ask which action should be done at the current time.

MAKE-ACTION-SENTENCE generates a sentence which asserts that the chosen action was executed.

Various levels of knowledge-based agent:

A knowledge-based agent can be viewed at different levels which are given below:

1. Knowledge level

Knowledge level is the first level of knowledge-based agent, and in this level, we need to specify what the agent knows, and what the agent goals are. With these specifications, we can fix its behavior. For example, suppose an automated taxi agent needs to go from a station A to station B, and he knows the way from A to B, so this comes at the knowledge level.

2. Logical level:

At this level, we understand that how the knowledge representation of knowledge is stored. At this level, sentences are encoded into different logics. At the logical level, an encoding of knowledge into logical sentences occurs. At the logical level we can expect to the automated taxi agent to reach to the destination B.

3. Implementation level:

This is the physical representation of logic and knowledge. At the implementation level agent perform actions as per logical and knowledge level. At this level, an automated taxi agent actually implement his knowledge and logic so that he can reach to the destination.

Approaches to designing a knowledge-based agent:

There are mainly two approaches to build a knowledge-based agent:

1. Declarative approach: We can create a knowledge-based agent by initializing with an empty knowledge base and telling the agent all the sentences with which we want to start with. This approach is called Declarative approach.

2. Procedural approach: In the procedural approach, we directly encode desired behavior as a program code. Which means we just need to write a program that already encodes the desired behavior or agent.

However, in the real world, a successful agent can be built by combining both declarative and procedural approaches, and declarative knowledge can often be compiled into more efficient procedural code.

Propositional logic in Artificial intelligence

Propositional logic (PL) is the simplest form of logic where all the statements are made by propositions. A proposition is a declarative statement which is either true or false. It is a technique of knowledge representation in logical and mathematical form.

Example:

a) It is Sunday.
b) The Sun rises from West (False proposition)
c) 3+3= 7(False proposition)
d) 5 is a prime number.

Following are some basic facts about propositional logic:

- Propositional logic is also called Boolean logic as it works on 0 and 1.
- In propositional logic, we use symbolic variables to represent the logic, and we can use any symbol for a representing a proposition, such A, B, C, P, Q, R, etc.
- Propositions can be either true or false, but it cannot be both.
- Propositional logic consists of an object, relations or function, and logical connectives.
- These connectives are also called logical operators.
- The propositions and connectives are the basic elements of the propositional logic.
- Connectives can be said as a logical operator which connects two sentences.
- A proposition formula which is always true is called tautology, and it is also called a valid sentence.
- A proposition formula which is always false is called Contradiction.
- A proposition formula which has both true and false values is called
- Statements which are questions, commands, or opinions are not propositions such as "Where is Rohini", "How are you", "What is your name", are not propositions.

Syntax of propositional logic:

The syntax of propositional logic defines the allowable sentences for the knowledge representation. There are two types of Propositions:

- Atomic Propositions
- Compound propositions
  - Atomic Proposition: Atomic propositions are the simple propositions. It consists of a single proposition symbol. These are the sentences which must be either true or false.

Example:

a) 2+2 is 4, it is an atomic proposition as it is a **true** fact.

b) "The Sun is cold" is also a proposition as it is a **false** fact.

- Compound proposition: Compound propositions are constructed by combining simpler or atomic propositions, using parenthesis and logical connectives.

Example:

a) "It is raining today, and street is wet."

b) "Ankit is a doctor, and his clinic is in Mumbai."

First-Order Logic

In the topic of Propositional logic, we have seen that how to represent statements using propositional logic. But unfortunately, in propositional logic, we can only represent the facts, which are either true or false. PL is not sufficient to represent the complex sentences or natural language statements. The propositional logic has very limited expressive power. Consider the following sentence, which we cannot represent using PL logic.

- "Some humans are intelligent", or
- "Sachin likes cricket."

To represent the above statements, PL logic is not sufficient, so we required some more powerful logic, such as first-order logic.

First-Order logic:

- First-order logic is another way of knowledge representation in artificial intelligence. It is an extension to propositional logic.
- FOL is sufficiently expressive to represent the natural language statements in a concise way.
- First-order logic is also known as Predicate logic or First-order predicate logic. First-order logic is a powerful language that develops information about the objects in a more easy way and can also express the relationship between those objects.
- First-order logic (like natural language) does not only assume that the world contains facts like propositional logic but also assumes the following things in the world:
    - Objects: A, B, people, numbers, colors, wars, theories, squares, pits, wumpus, ...
    - Relations: It can be unary relation such as: red, round, is adjacent, or n-any relation such as: the sister of, brother of, has color, comes between
    - Function: Father of, best friend, third inning of, end of, ...
- As a natural language, first-order logic also has two main parts:
    a. Syntax
    b. Semantics

Syntax of First-Order logic:

The syntax of FOL determines which collection of symbols is a logical expression in first-order logic. The basic syntactic elements of first-order logic are symbols. We write statements in short-hand notation in FOL.

Basic Elements of First-order logic:

Following are the basic elements of FOL syntax:

Constant	1, 2, A, John, Mumbai, cat,....
Variables	x, y, z, a, b,....
Predicates	Brother, Father, >,....
Function	sqrt, LeftLegOf, ...
Connectives	∧, ∨, ¬, ⇒, ⇔
Equality	==
Quantifier	∀, ∃

Atomic sentences:

Atomic sentences are the most basic sentences of first-order logic. These sentences are formed from a predicate symbol followed by a parenthesis with a sequence of terms.

We can represent atomic sentences as Predicate (term1, term2, ..., term n).

Example: Ravi and Ajay are brothers: => Brothers(Ravi, Ajay).

Chinky is a cat: => cat (Chinky).

Complex Sentences:

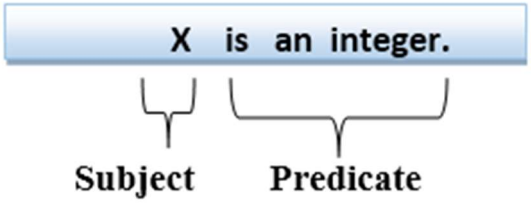
- Complex sentences are made by combining atomic sentences using connectives.

First-order logic statements can be divided into two parts:

- Subject: Subject is the main part of the statement.
- Predicate: A predicate can be defined as a relation, which binds two atoms together in a statement.

Consider the statement:

"x is an integer.", it consists of two parts, the first part x is the subject of the statement and second part "is an integer," is known as a predicate.



Quantifiers in First-order logic:

- A quantifier is a language element which generates quantification, and quantification specifies the quantity of specimen in the universe of discourse.
- These are the symbols that permit to determine or identify the range and scope of the variable in the logical expression. There are two types of quantifier:
  - Universal Quantifier, (for all, everyone, everything)
  - Existential quantifier, (for some, at least one).

Universal Quantifier:

Universal quantifier is a symbol of logical representation, which specifies that the statement within its range is true for everything or every instance of a particular thing.

The Universal quantifier is represented by a symbol ∀, which resembles an inverted A.

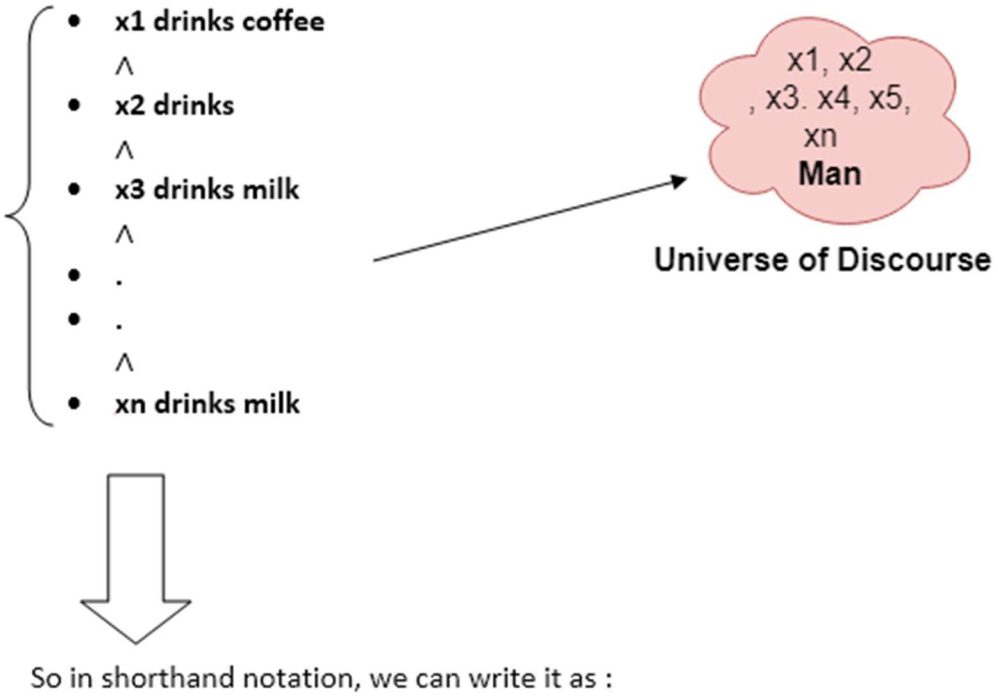
If x is a variable, then ∀x is read as:

- For all x
- For each x
- For every x.

Example:

All man drink coffee.

Let a variable x which refers to a cat so all x can be represented in UOD as below:



So in shorthand notation, we can write it as :

∀x man(x) → drink (x, coffee).

It will be read as: There are all x where x is a man who drink coffee.

Existential Quantifier:

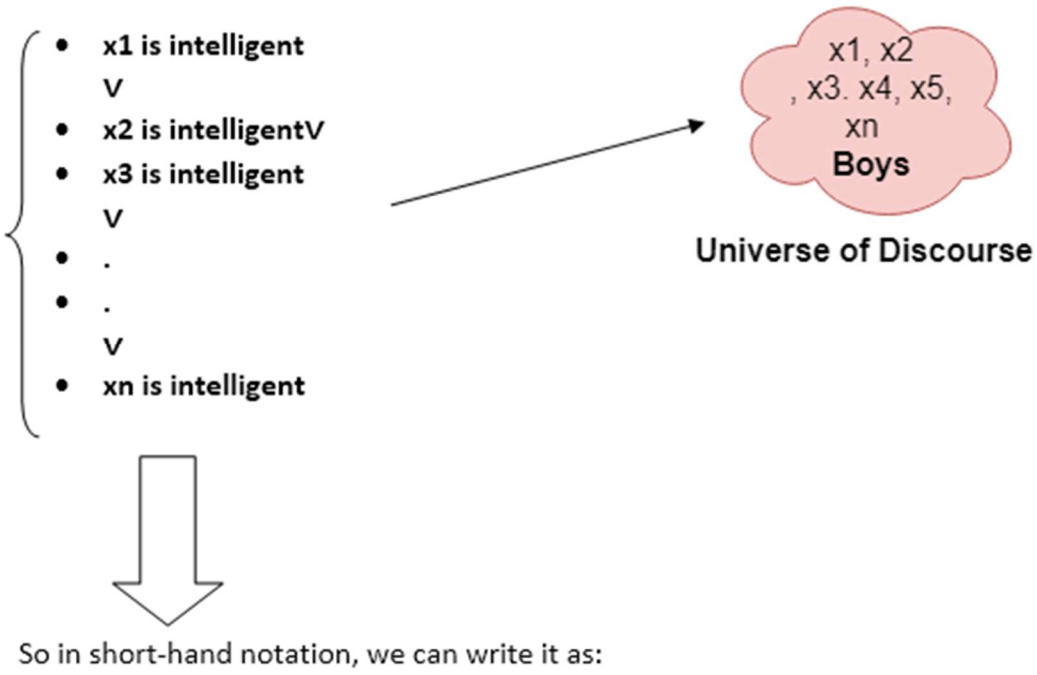
Existential quantifiers are the type of quantifiers, which express that the statement within its scope is true for at least one instance of something.

It is denoted by the logical operator ∃, which resembles as inverted E. When it is used with a predicate variable then it is called as an existential quantifier.

If x is a variable, then existential quantifier will be ∃x or ∃(x). And it will be read as:

- There exists a 'x.'
- For some 'x.'
- For at least one 'x.'

Example:



∃x: boys(x) ∧ intelligent(x)

It will be read as: There are some x where x is a boy who is intelligent.

Points to remember:

- The main connective for universal quantifier ∀ is implication →.
- The main connective for existential quantifier ∃ is and ∧.

Properties of Quantifiers:

- In universal quantifier, ∀x∀y is similar to ∀y∀x.
- In Existential quantifier, ∃x∃y is similar to ∃y∃x.

- ∃x∀y is not similar to ∀y∃x.

Some Examples of FOL using quantifier:

1. All birds fly.

In this question the predicate is "fly(bird)."

And since there are all birds who fly so it will be represented as follows.

∀x bird(x) →fly(x).

2. Every man respects his parent.

In this question, the predicate is "respect(x, y)," where x=man, and y= parent.

Since there is every man so will use ∀, and it will be represented as follows:

∀x man(x) → respects (x, parent).

3. Some boys play cricket.

In this question, the predicate is "play(x, y)," where x= boys, and y= game. Since there are some boys so we will use ∃, and it will be represented as:

∃x boys(x) → play(x, cricket).

4. Not all students like both Mathematics and Science.

In this question, the predicate is "like(x, y)," where x= student, and y= subject.

Since there are not all students, so we will use ∀ with negation, so following representation for this:

¬∀ (x) [student(x) → like(x, Mathematics) ∧ like(x, Science)].

5. Only one student failed in Mathematics.

In this question, the predicate is "failed(x, y)," where x= student, and y= subject.

Since there is only one student who failed in Mathematics, so we will use following representation for this:

∃(x) [student(x) → failed (x, Mathematics) ∧∀ (y) [¬(x==y) ∧ student(y) → ¬failed (x, Mathematics)].

Free and Bound Variables:

The quantifiers interact with variables which appear in a suitable way. There are two types of variables in First-order logic which are given below:

Free Variable: A variable is said to be a free variable in a formula if it occurs outside the scope of the quantifier.

Example: ∀x ∃(y)[P (x, y, z)], where z is a free variable.

Bound Variable: A variable is said to be a bound variable in a formula if it occurs within the scope of the quantifier.

Example: ∀x [A (x) B(y)], here x and y are the bound variables.

Forward Chaining and backward chaining

In artificial intelligence, forward and backward chaining is one of the important topics, but before understanding forward and backward chaining lets first understand that from where these two terms came.

Inference engine:

The inference engine is the component of the intelligent system in artificial intelligence, which applies logical rules to the knowledge base to infer new information from known facts. The first inference engine was part of the expert system. Inference engine commonly proceeds in two modes, which are:

- Forward chaining
- Backward chaining

Horn Clause and Definite clause:

Horn clause and definite clause are the forms of sentences, which enables knowledge base to use a more restricted and efficient inference algorithm. Logical inference algorithms use forward and backward chaining approaches, which require KB in the form of the first-order definite clause.

Definite clause: A clause which is a disjunction of literals with exactly one positive literal is known as a definite clause or strict horn clause.

Horn clause: A clause which is a disjunction of literals with at most one positive literal is known as horn clause. Hence all the definite clauses are horn clauses.

Example: (¬ p V ¬ q V k). It has only one positive literal k.

It is equivalent to p ∧ q → k.

A. Forward Chaining

Forward chaining is also known as a forward deduction or forward reasoning method when using an inference engine. Forward chaining is a form of reasoning which start with atomic sentences in the knowledge base and applies inference rules (Modus Ponens) in the forward direction to extract more data until a goal is reached.

The Forward-chaining algorithm starts from known facts, triggers all rules whose premises are satisfied, and add their conclusion to the known facts. This process repeats until the problem is solved.

Properties of Forward-Chaining:

- It is a down-up approach, as it moves from bottom to top.
- It is a process of making a conclusion based on known facts or data, by starting from the initial state and reaches the goal state.
- Forward-chaining approach is also called as data-driven as we reach to the goal using available data.
- Forward -chaining approach is commonly used in the expert system, such as CLIPS, business, and production rule systems.

Consider the following example which we will use in both approaches:

Example:

"As per the law, it is a crime for an American to sell weapons to hostile nations. Country A, an enemy of America, has some missiles, and all the missiles were sold to it by Robert, who is an American citizen."

Prove that "Robert is criminal."

To solve the above problem, first, we will convert all the above facts into first-order definite clauses, and then we will use a forward-chaining algorithm to reach the goal.

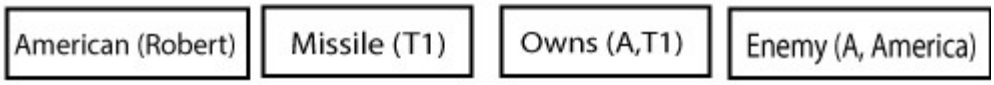
Facts Conversion into FOL:

- It is a crime for an American to sell weapons to hostile nations. (Let's say p, q, and r are variables)
  American (p) ∧ weapon(q) ∧ sells (p, q, r) ∧ hostile(r) → Criminal(p) ...(1)
- Country A has some missiles. **?p Owns(A, p) ∧ Missile(p)**. It can be written in two definite clauses by using Existential Instantiation, introducing new Constant T1.
  Owns(A, T1) .....(2)
  Missile(T1) .....(3)
- All of the missiles were sold to country A by Robert.
  ?p Missiles(p) ∧ Owns (A, p) → Sells (Robert, p, A) .....(4)
- Missiles are weapons.
  Missile(p) → Weapons (p) .....(5)
- Enemy of America is known as hostile.
  Enemy(p, America) →Hostile(p) .....(6)
- Country A is an enemy of America.
  Enemy (A, America) .....(7)
- Robert is American
  American(Robert). .....(8)

Forward chaining proof:

Step-1:

In the first step we will start with the known facts and will choose the sentences which do not have implications, such as: American(Robert), Enemy(A, America), Owns(A, T1), and Missile(T1). All these facts will be represented as below.



Step-2:

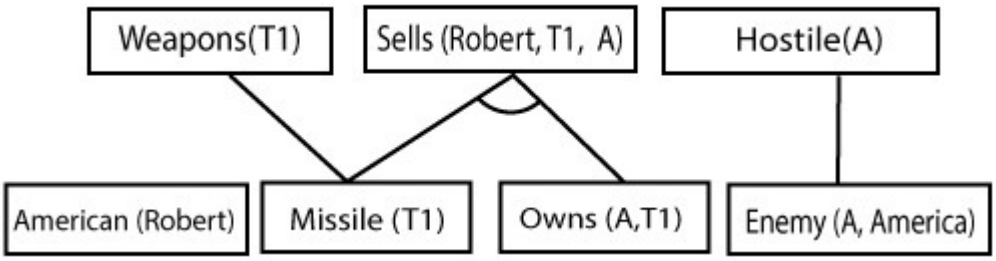
At the second step, we will see those facts which infer from available facts and with satisfied premises.

Rule-(1) does not satisfy premises, so it will not be added in the first iteration.

Rule-(2) and (3) are already added.

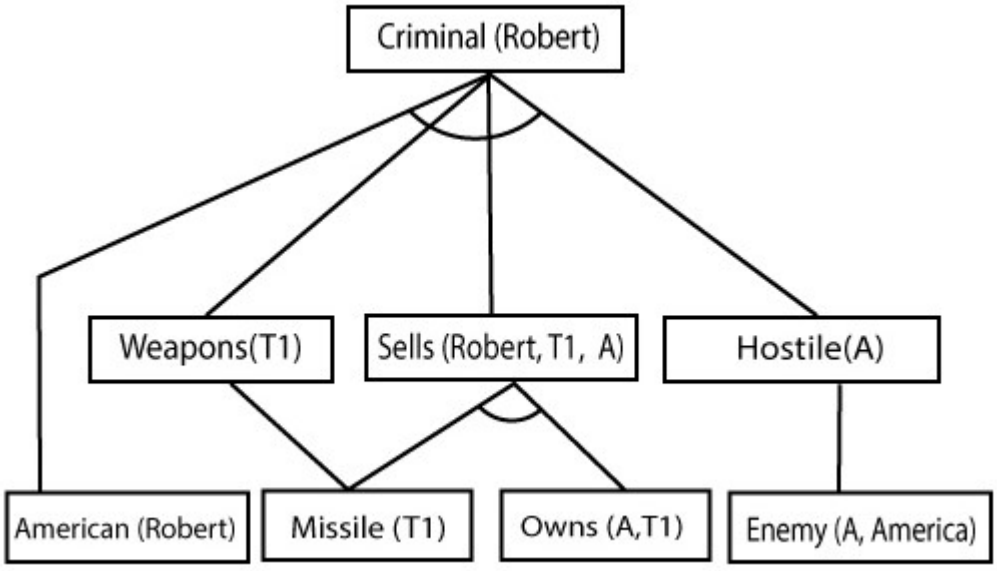
Rule-(4) satisfy with the substitution {p/T1}, so Sells (Robert, T1, A) is added, which infers from the conjunction of Rule (2) and (3).

Rule-(6) is satisfied with the substitution(p/A), so Hostile(A) is added and which infers from Rule-(7).



Step-3:

At step-3, as we can check Rule-(1) is satisfied with the substitution {p/Robert, q/T1, r/A}, so we can add Criminal(Robert) which infers all the available facts. And hence we reached our goal statement.



Hence it is proved that Robert is Criminal using forward chaining approach.

B. Backward Chaining:

Backward-chaining is also known as a backward deduction or backward reasoning method when using an inference engine. A backward chaining algorithm is a form of reasoning, which starts with the goal and works backward, chaining through rules to find known facts that support the goal.

Properties of backward chaining:

- It is known as a top-down approach.
- Backward-chaining is based on modus ponens inference rule.
- In backward chaining, the goal is broken into sub-goal or sub-goals to prove the facts true.
- It is called a goal-driven approach, as a list of goals decides which rules are selected and used.
- Backward -chaining algorithm is used in game theory, automated theorem proving tools, inference engines, proof assistants, and various AI applications.
- The backward-chaining method mostly used a depth-first search strategy for proof.

Example:

In backward-chaining, we will use the same above example, and will rewrite all the rules.

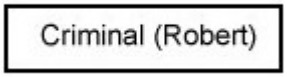
1. **American (p) ∧ weapon(q) ∧ sells (p, q, r) ∧ hostile(r) → Criminal(p) ...(1)**
2. **Owns(A, T1) .....(2)**
3. **Missile(T1)**
4. **?p Missiles(p) ∧ Owns (A, p) → Sells (Robert, p, A) .....(4)**
5. **Missile(p) → Weapons (p) .....(5)**
6. **Enemy(p, America) →Hostile(p) .....(6)**
7. **Enemy (A, America) .....(7)**
8. **American(Robert). .....(8)**

Backward-Chaining proof:

In Backward chaining, we will start with our goal predicate, which is Criminal(Robert), and then infer further rules.

Step-1:

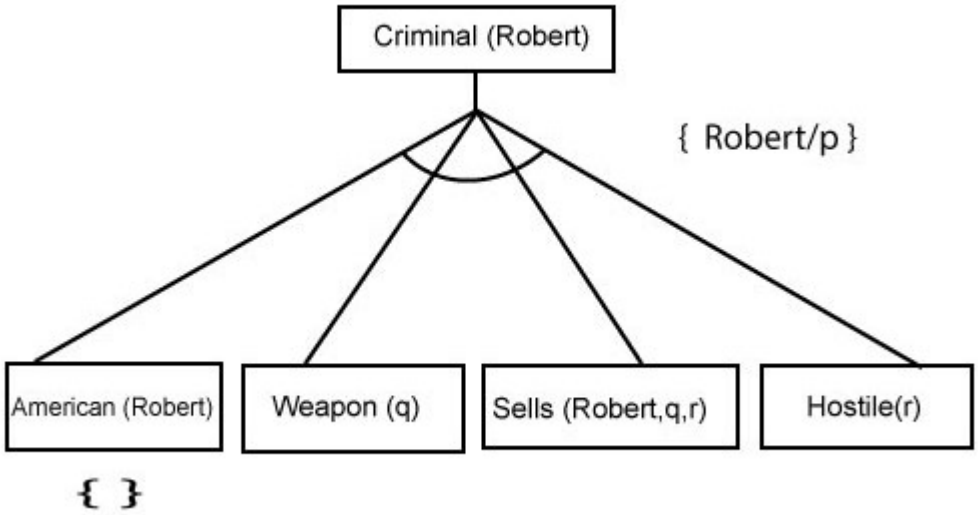
At the first step, we will take the goal fact. And from the goal fact, we will infer other facts, and at last, we will prove those facts true. So our goal fact is "Robert is Criminal," so following is the predicate of it.



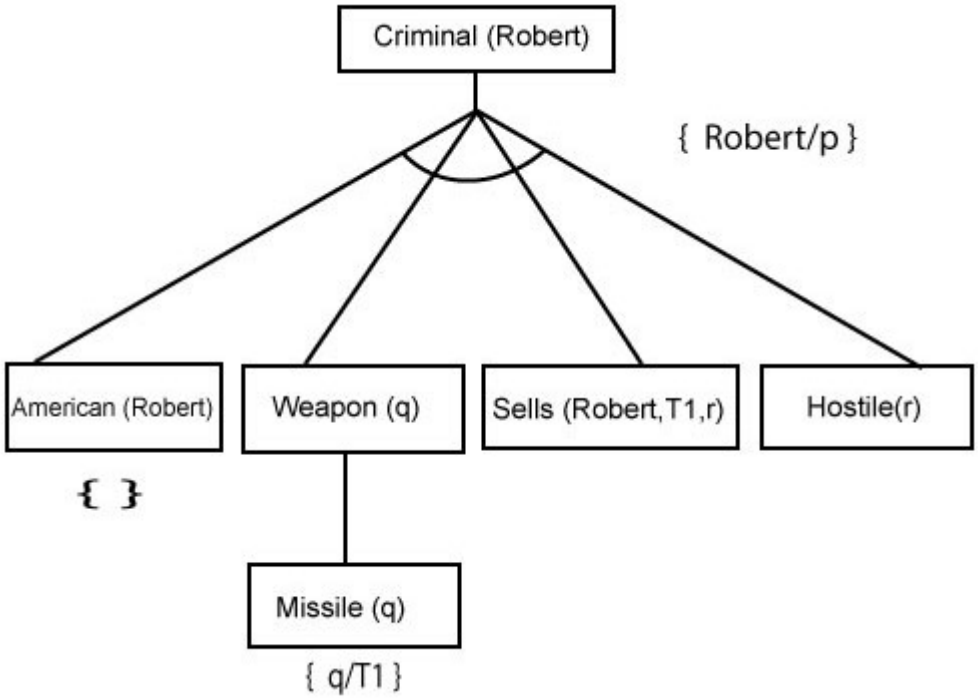
Step-2:

At the second step, we will infer other facts form goal fact which satisfies the rules. So as we can see in Rule-1, the goal predicate Criminal (Robert) is present with substitution {Robert/P}. So we will add all the conjunctive facts below the first level and will replace p with Robert.

Here we can see American (Robert) is a fact, so it is proved here.

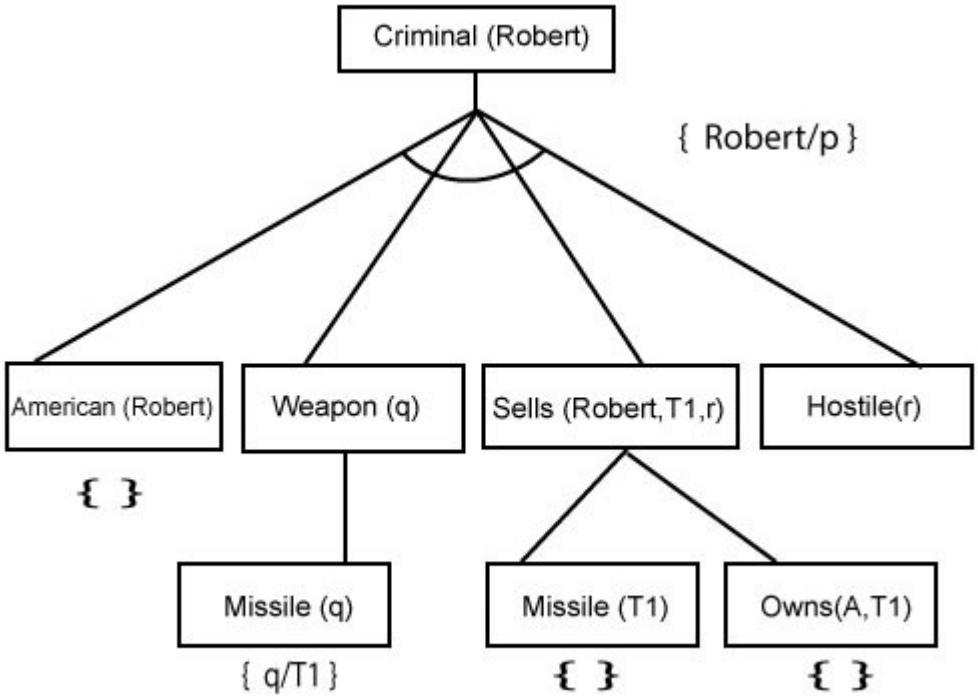


Step-3:t At step-3, we will extract further fact Missile(q) which infer from Weapon(q), as it satisfies Rule-(5). Weapon (q) is also true with the substitution of a constant T1 at q.



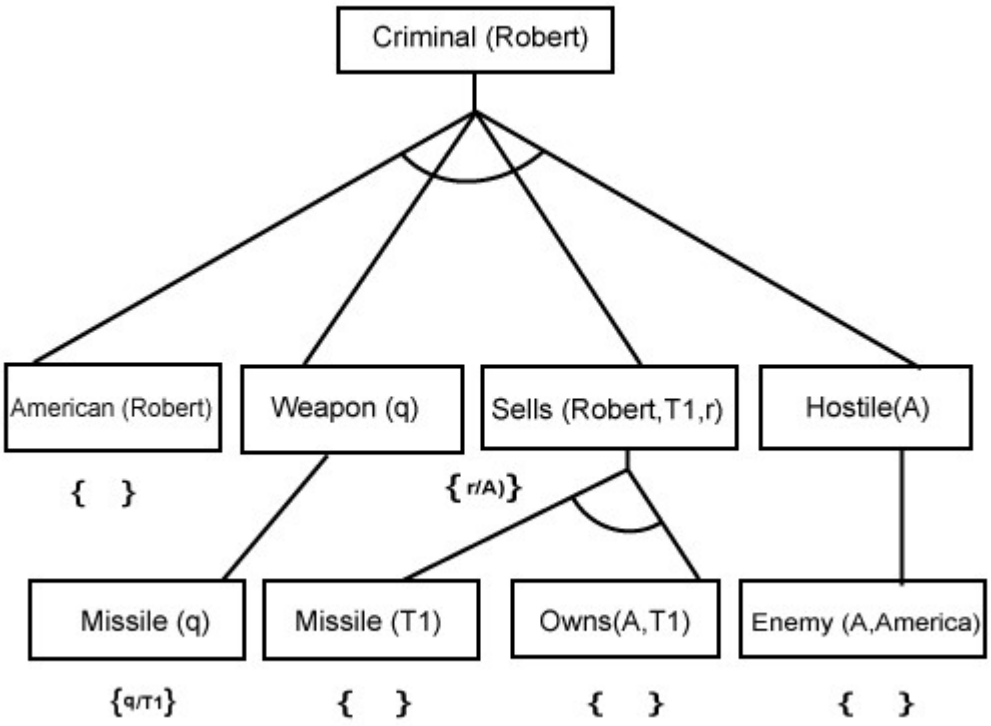
Step-4:

At step-4, we can infer facts Missile(T1) and Owns(A, T1) form Sells(Robert, T1, r) which satisfies the Rule- 4, with the substitution of A in place of r. So these two statements are proved here.



Step-5:

At step-5, we can infer the fact Enemy(A, America) from Hostile(A) which satisfies Rule- 6. And hence all the statements are proved true using backward chaining.



Probabilistic reasoning

Uncertainty:

Till now, it is understood about knowledge representation using first-order logic and propositional logic with certainty, which means we were sure about the predicates. With this knowledge representation, we might write A→B, which means if A is true then B is true, but consider a situation where we are not sure about whether A is true or not then we cannot express this statement, this situation is called uncertainty.

So to represent uncertain knowledge, where we are not sure about the predicates, we need uncertain reasoning or probabilistic reasoning.

Causes of uncertainty:

Following are some leading causes of uncertainty to occur in the real world.

- Information occurred from unreliable sources.
- Experimental Errors
- Equipment fault
- Temperature variation
- Climate change**.**

Probabilistic reasoning:

Probabilistic reasoning is a way of knowledge representation where we apply the concept of probability to indicate the uncertainty in knowledge. In probabilistic reasoning, we combine probability theory with logic to handle the uncertainty.

We use probability in probabilistic reasoning because it provides a way to handle the uncertainty that is the result of someone's laziness and ignorance.

In the real world, there are lots of scenarios, where the certainty of something is not confirmed, such as "It will rain today," "behavior of someone for some situations," "A match between two teams or two players." These are probable sentences for which we can assume that it will happen but not sure about it, so here we use probabilistic reasoning.

Need of probabilistic reasoning in AI:

- When there are unpredictable outcomes.
- When specifications or possibilities of predicates becomes too large to handle.
- When an unknown error occurs during an experiment.

In probabilistic reasoning, there are two ways to solve problems with uncertain knowledge:

- Bayes' rule
- Bayesian Statistics

As probabilistic reasoning uses probability and related terms, so before understanding probabilistic reasoning, let's understand some common terms:

Probability: Probability can be defined as a chance that an uncertain event will occur. It is the numerical measure of the likelihood that an event will occur. The value of probability always remains between 0 and 1 that represent ideal uncertainties.

$0 \le P(A) \le 1$, where P(A) is the probability of an event A.

$P(A) = 0$, indicates total uncertainty in an event A.

$P(A) = 1$, indicates total certainty in an event A.

We can find the probability of an uncertain event by using the below formula.

$$\text{Probability of occurrence} = \frac{\text{Number of desired outcomes}}{\text{Total number of outcomes}}$$

- P(¬A) = probability of a not happening event.
- P(¬A) + P(A) = 1.

Event: Each possible outcome of a variable is called an event.

Sample space: The collection of all possible events is called sample space.

Random variables: Random variables are used to represent the events and objects in the real world.

Prior probability: The prior probability of an event is probability computed before observing new information.

Posterior Probability: The probability that is calculated after all evidence or information has taken into account. It is a combination of prior probability and new information.

Conditional probability:

Conditional probability is a probability of occurring an event when another event has already happened.

Let's suppose, we want to calculate the event A when event B has already occurred, "the probability of A under the conditions of B", it can be written as:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \wedge B)}{P(B)}$$

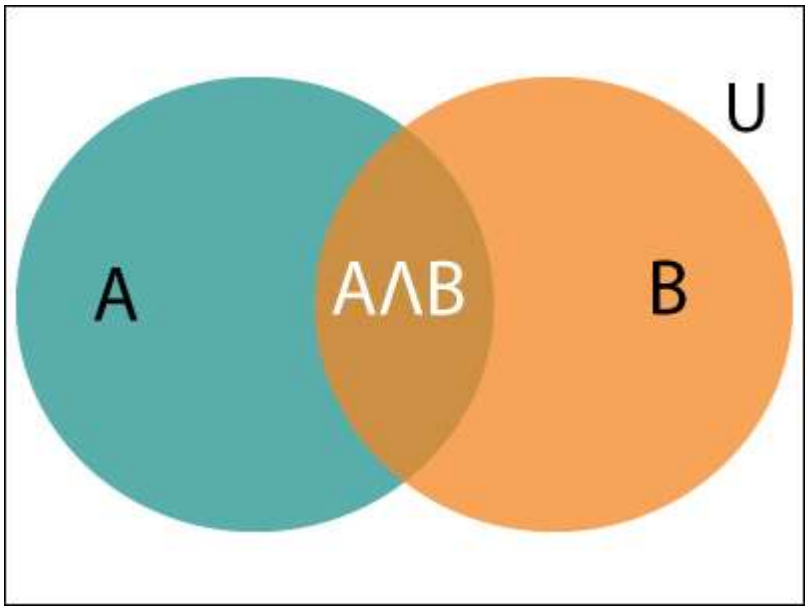
Where $P(A \wedge B)$ = Joint probability of a and B

P(B)= Marginal probability of B.

If the probability of A is given and we need to find the probability of B, then it will be given as:

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \wedge B)}{P(A)}$$

It can be explained by using the below Venn diagram, where B is occurred event, so sample space will be reduced to set B, and now we can only calculate event A when event B is already occurred by dividing the probability of **P(A∧*B*) by P(B)**.



Example:

In a class, there are 70% of the students who like English and 40% of the students who likes English and mathematics, and then what is the percent of students those who like English also like mathematics?

Solution:

Let, A is an event that a student likes Mathematics

B is an event that a student likes English.

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \wedge B)}{P(B)} = \frac{0.4}{0.7} = 57\%$$

Hence, 57% are the students who like English also like Mathematics.

Bayes' theorem:

Bayes' theorem is also known as Bayes' rule, Bayes' law, or Bayesian reasoning, which determines the probability of an event with uncertain knowledge.

In probability theory, it relates the conditional probability and marginal probabilities of two random events.

Bayes' theorem was named after the British mathematician Thomas Bayes. The Bayesian inference is an application of Bayes' theorem, which is fundamental to Bayesian statistics.

It is a way to calculate the value of P(B|A) with the knowledge of P(A|B).

Bayes' theorem allows updating the probability prediction of an event by observing new information of the real world.

Example: If cancer corresponds to one's age then by using Bayes' theorem, we can determine the probability of cancer more accurately with the help of age.

Bayes' theorem can be derived using product rule and conditional probability of event A with known event B:

As from product rule we can write:

$P(A \wedge B) = P(A|B)\, P(B)$ or

Similarly, the probability of event B with known event A:

$P(A \wedge B) = P(B|A)\, P(A)$

Equating right hand side of both the equations, we will get:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)\, P(A)}{P(B)} \quad \text{....(a)}$$

The above equation (a) is called as Bayes' rule or Bayes' theorem. This equation is basic of most modern AI systems for probabilistic inference.

It shows the simple relationship between joint and conditional probabilities. Here,

P(A|B) is known as posterior, which we need to calculate, and it will be read as Probability of hypothesis A when we have occurred an evidence B.

P(B|A) is called the likelihood, in which we consider that hypothesis is true, then we calculate the probability of evidence.

P(A) is called the prior probability, probability of hypothesis before considering the evidence

P(B) is called marginal probability, pure probability of an evidence.

In the equation (a), in general, we can write P (B) = P(A)*P(B|Ai), hence the Bayes' rule can be written as:

$$P(A_i|B) = \frac{P(A_i)*P(B|A_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} P(A_i)*P(B|A_i)}$$

Where A_1, A_2, A_3,....., A_n is a set of mutually exclusive and exhaustive events.

Applying Bayes' rule:

Bayes' rule allows us to compute the single term P(B|A) in terms of P(A|B), P(B), and P(A). This is very useful in cases where we have a good probability of these three terms and want to determine the fourth one. Suppose we want to perceive the effect of some unknown cause, and want to compute that cause, then the Bayes' rule becomes:

$$\mathbf{P(cause|effect) = \frac{P(effect|cause)\,P(cause)}{P(effect)}}$$

Example-1:

Question: what is the probability that a patient has diseases meningitis with a stiff neck?

Given Data:

A doctor is aware that disease meningitis causes a patient to have a stiff neck, and it occurs 80% of the time. He is also aware of some more facts, which are given as follows:

- The Known probability that a patient has meningitis disease is 1/30,000.
- The Known probability that a patient has a stiff neck is 2%.

Let a be the proposition that patient has stiff neck and b be the proposition that patient has meningitis. , so we can calculate the following as:

P(a|b) = 0.8

P(b) = 1/30000

P(a)= .02

$$\mathbf{P(b|a)} = \frac{P(a|b)P(b)}{P(a)} = \frac{0.8*(\frac{1}{30000})}{0.02} = 0.001333333.$$

Hence, we can assume that 1 patient out of 750 patients has meningitis disease with a stiff neck.

Example-2:

Question: From a standard deck of playing cards, a single card is drawn. The probability that the card is king is 4/52, then calculate posterior probability P(King|Face), which means the drawn face card is a king card.

Solution:

$$\mathbf{P(king|face)} = \frac{P(Face|king)*P(King)}{P(Face)} \quad .....(i)$$

P(king): probability that the card is King= 4/52= 1/13

P(face): probability that a card is a face card= 3/13

P(Face|King): probability of face card when we assume it is a king = 1

Putting all values in equation (i) we will get:

$$P(king|face) = \frac{1*(\frac{1}{13})}{(\frac{3}{13})} = \mathbf{1/3,}\ \textbf{it is a probability that a face card is a king card.}$$

Application of Bayes' theorem in Artificial intelligence:

Following are some applications of Bayes' theorem:

1. It is used to calculate the next step of the robot when the already executed step is given.
2. Bayes' theorem is helpful in weather forecasting.
3. It can solve the Monty Hall problem.

UNIT III

Advanced Knowledge Representation and Reasoning: Knowledge Representation Issues, Non-monotonic Reasoning, Other Knowledge Representation Schemes Reasoning Under Uncertainty: Basic probability, Acting Under Uncertainty, Bayes' Rule, Representing Knowledge in an Uncertain Domain, Bayesian Networks

Knowledge Representation:

- **Artificial intelligence** is a system that is concerned with the study of understanding, designing and implementing the ways, associated with knowledge representation to computers.
- In any intelligent system, representing the knowledge is supposed to be an important technique to encode the knowledge.
- The main objective of AI system is to design the programs that provide information to the computer, which can be helpful to interact with humans and solve problems in various fields which require human intelligence.

Knowledge

- Knowledge is a useful term to judge the understanding of an individual on a given subject.
- In intelligent systems, domain is the main focused subject area. So, the system specifically focuses on acquiring the domain knowledge.

Types of knowledge in AI

Depending on the type of functionality, the knowledge in AI is categorized as:

1. Declarative knowledge

- The knowledge which is based on concepts, facts and objects, is termed as 'Declarative Knowledge'.
- It provides all the necessary information about the problem in terms of simple statements, either true or false.

2. Procedural knowledge

- Procedural knowledge derives the information on the basis of rules, strategies, agendas and procedure.
- It describes how a problem can be solved.
- Procedural knowledge directs the steps on how to perform something.

For example: Computer program.

3. Heuristic knowledge

- Heuristic knowledge is based on thumb rule.
- It provides the information based on a thumb rule, which is useful in guiding the reasoning process.
- In this type, the knowledge representation is based on the strategies to solve the problems through the experience of past problems, compiled by an expert. Hence, it is also known as Shallow knowledge.

4. Meta-knowledge

- This type gives an idea about the other types of knowledge that are suitable for solving problem.
- Meta-knowledge is helpful in enhancing the efficiency of problem solving through proper reasoning process.

5. Structural knowledge

- Structural knowledge is associated with the information based on rules, sets, concepts and relationships.
- It provides the information necessary for developing the knowledge structures and overall mental model of the problem.

Issues in knowledge representation

The main objective of knowledge representation is to draw the conclusions from the knowledge, but there are many issues associated with the use of knowledge representation techniques.

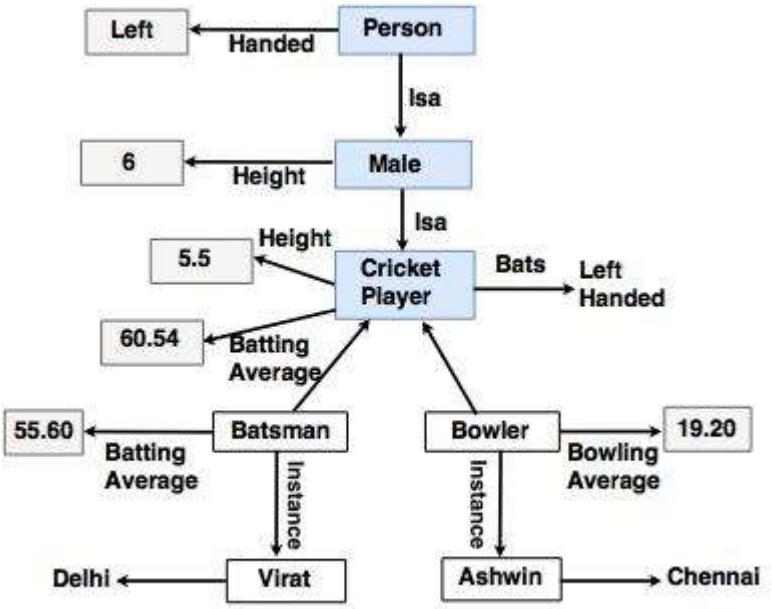


Fig: Inheratable Knowledge Representation

1. Important attributes

There are two attributes shown in the diagram, instance and isa. Since these attributes support property of inheritance, they are of prime importance.

2. Relationships among attributes

Basically, the attributes used to describe objects are nothing but the entities. However, the attributes of an object do not depend on the encoded specific knowledge.

3. Choosing the granularity of representation

While deciding the granularity of representation, it is necessary to know the following:

i. What are the primitives and at what level should the knowledge be represented?

ii. What should be the number (small or large) of low-level primitives or high-level facts?

High-level facts may be insufficient to draw the conclusion while Low-level primitives may require a lot of storage.

For example: Suppose that we are interested in following facts:

John spotted Alex.

Now, this could be represented as "Spotted (agent(John), object (Alex))"

Such a representation can make it easy to answer questions such as: Who spotted Alex?

Suppose we want to know : "Did John see Sue?"

Given only one fact, user cannot discover that answer.

Hence, the user can add other facts, such as "Spotted (x, y) → saw (x, y)"

4. Representing sets of objects.

There are some properties of objects which satisfy the condition of a set together but not as individual;

Example: Consider the assertion made in the sentences:

"There are more sheep than people in Australia", and "English speakers can be found all over the world."

These facts can be described by including an assertion to the sets representing people, sheep, and English.

5. Finding the right structure as needed

To describe a particular situation, it is always important to find the access of right structure. This can be done by selecting an initial structure and then revising the choice.

While selecting and reversing the right structure, it is necessary to solve following problem statements.

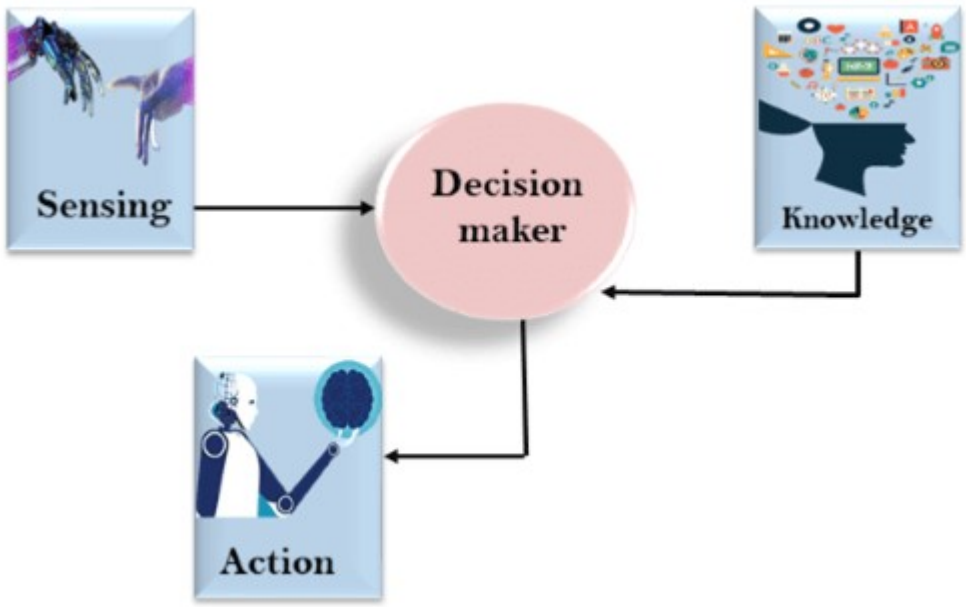
- Select an initial appropriate structure.
- Fill the necessary details from the current situations.
- Determine a better structure if the initially selected structure is not appropriate to fulfill other conditions.
- Find the solution if none of the available structures is appropriate.
- Create and remember a new structure for the given condition.
- There is no specific way to solve these problems, but some of the effective knowledge representation techniques have the potential to solve them.

The relation between knowledge and intelligence:

Knowledge of real-worlds plays a vital role in intelligence and same for creating artificial intelligence. Knowledge plays an important role in demonstrating intelligent behavior in AI agents. An agent is only able to accurately act on some input when he has some knowledge or experience about that input.

Let's suppose if you met some person who is speaking in a language which you don't know, then how you will able to act on that. The same thing applies to the intelligent behavior of the agents.

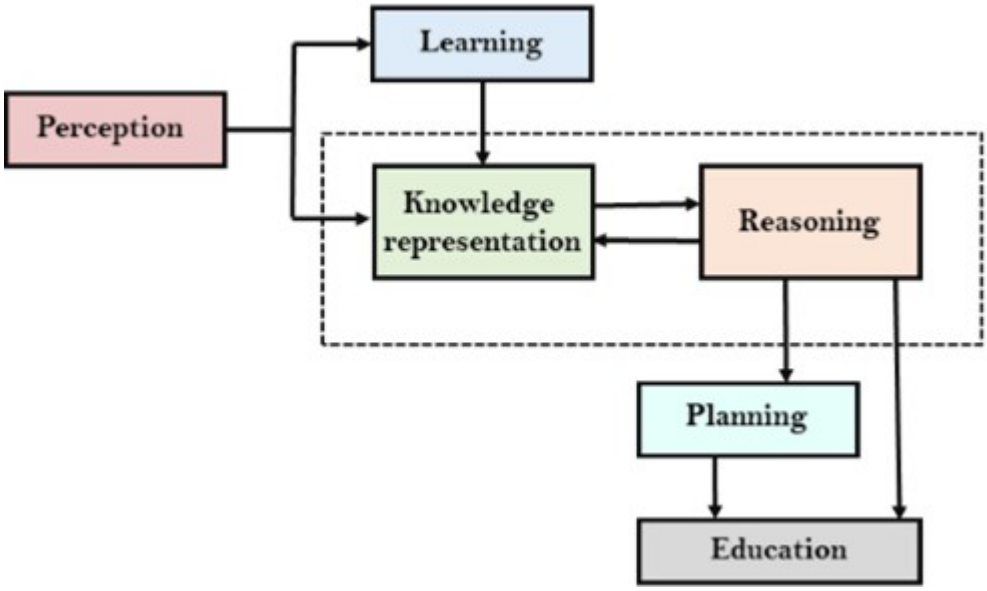
As we can see in below diagram, there is one decision maker which act by sensing the environment and using knowledge. But if the knowledge part will not present then, it cannot display intelligent behavior.



AI knowledge cycle:

An Artificial intelligence system has the following components for displaying intelligent behavior:

- Perception
- Learning
- Knowledge Representation and Reasoning
- Planning
- Execution



The above diagram is showing how an AI system can interact with the real world and what components help it to show intelligence. AI system has Perception component by which it retrieves information from its environment. It can be visual, audio or another form of sensory input. The learning component is responsible for learning from data captured by Perception comportment. In the complete cycle, the main components are knowledge representation and Reasoning. These two components are involved in showing the intelligence in machine-like humans. These two

components are independent with each other but also coupled together. The planning and execution depend on analysis of Knowledge representation and reasoning.

Approaches to knowledge representation:

There are mainly four approaches to knowledge representation, which are given below:

1. Simple relational knowledge:

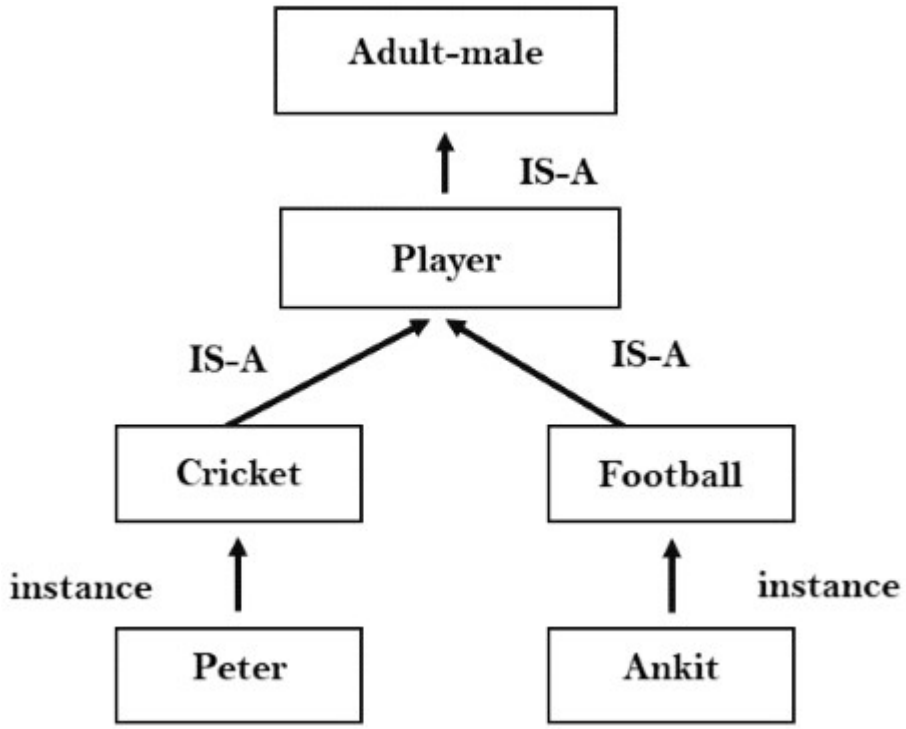
- It is the simplest way of storing facts which uses the relational method, and each fact about a set of the object is set out systematically in columns.
- This approach of knowledge representation is famous in database systems where the relationship between different entities is represented.
- This approach has little opportunity for inference.

Example: The following is the simple relational knowledge representation.

Player	Weight	Age
Player1	65	23
Player2	58	18
Player3	75	24

2. Inheritable knowledge:

- In the inheritable knowledge approach, all data must be stored into a hierarchy of classes.
- All classes should be arranged in a generalized form or a hierarchal manner.
- In this approach, we apply inheritance property.
- Elements inherit values from other members of a class.
- This approach contains inheritable knowledge which shows a relation between instance and class, and it is called instance relation.
- Every individual frame can represent the collection of attributes and its value.
- In this approach, objects and values are represented in Boxed nodes.
- We use Arrows which point from objects to their values.
- **Example:**



3. Inferential knowledge:

- Inferential knowledge approach represents knowledge in the form of formal logics.
- This approach can be used to derive more facts.
- It guaranteed correctness.
- **Example**: Let's suppose there are two statements:
  - Marcus is a man
  - All men are mortal

  Then it can represent as;

  man(Marcus)
  ∀x = man (x) ----------> mortal (x)s

4. Procedural knowledge:

- Procedural knowledge approach uses small programs and codes which describes how to do specific things, and how to proceed.
- In this approach, one important rule is used which is If-Then rule.
- In this knowledge, we can use various coding languages such as LISP language and Prolog language.
- We can easily represent heuristic or domain-specific knowledge using this approach.
- But it is not necessary that we can represent all cases in this approach.

Requirements for knowledge Representation system:

A good knowledge representation system must possess the following properties.

1. Representational Accuracy:

KR system should have the ability to represent all kind of required knowledge.

2. Inferential Adequacy:

KR system should have ability to manipulate the representational structures to produce new knowledge corresponding to existing structure.

3. Inferential Efficiency:

The ability to direct the inferential knowledge mechanism into the most productive directions by storing appropriate guides.

4. Acquisitional efficiency- The ability to acquire the new knowledge easily using automatic methods.

Reasoning:

The reasoning is the mental process of deriving logical conclusion and making predictions from available knowledge, facts, and beliefs. Or we can say, "Reasoning is a way to infer facts from existing data." It is a general process of thinking rationally, to find valid conclusions.

In artificial intelligence, the reasoning is essential so that the machine can also think rationally as a human brain, and can perform like a human.

Types of Reasoning

1. Deductive reasoning
2. Inductive reasoning
3. Abductive reasoning
4. Common Sense Reasoning
5. Monotonic Reasoning
6. Non-monotonic Reasoning

1. Deductive reasoning:

Deductive reasoning is deducing new information from logically related known information. It is the form of valid reasoning, which means the argument's conclusion must be true when the premises are true.

Deductive reasoning is a type of propositional logic in AI, and it requires various rules and facts. It is sometimes referred to as top-down reasoning, and contradictory to inductive reasoning.

In deductive reasoning, the truth of the premises guarantees the truth of the conclusion.

Deductive reasoning mostly starts from the general premises to the specific conclusion, which can be explained as below example.

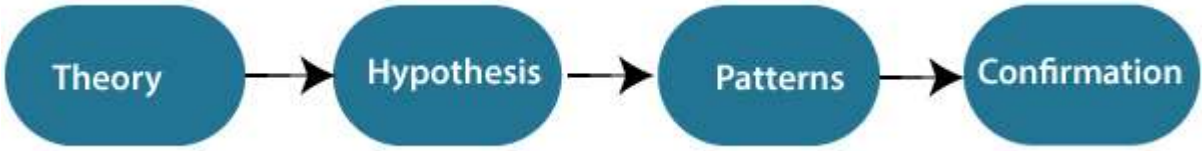
Example:

Premise-1: All the human eats veggies

Premise-2: Suresh is human.

Conclusion: Suresh eats veggies.

The general process of deductive reasoning is given below:



2. Inductive Reasoning:

Inductive reasoning is a form of reasoning to arrive at a conclusion using limited sets of facts by the process of generalization. It starts with the series of specific facts or data and reaches to a general statement or conclusion.

Inductive reasoning is a type of propositional logic, which is also known as cause-effect reasoning or bottom-up reasoning.

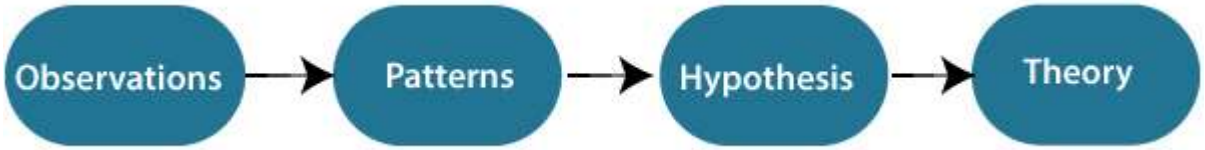
In inductive reasoning, we use historical data or various premises to generate a generic rule, for which premises support the conclusion.

In inductive reasoning, premises provide probable supports to the conclusion, so the truth of premises does not guarantee the truth of the conclusion.

Example:

Premise: All of the pigeons we have seen in the zoo are white.

Conclusion: Therefore, we can expect all the pigeons to be white.



3. Abductive reasoning:

Abductive reasoning is a form of logical reasoning which starts with single or multiple observations then seeks to find the most likely explanation or conclusion for the observation.

Abductive reasoning is an extension of deductive reasoning, but in abductive reasoning, the premises do not guarantee the conclusion.

Example:

Implication: Cricket ground is wet if it is raining

Axiom: Cricket ground is wet.

Conclusion: It is raining.

4. Common Sense Reasoning

Common sense reasoning is an informal form of reasoning, which can be gained through experiences.

Common Sense reasoning simulates the human ability to make presumptions about events which occurs on every day.

It relies on good judgment rather than exact logic and operates on heuristic knowledge and heuristic rules.

Example:

1. One person can be at one place at a time.
2. If I put my hand in a fire, then it will burn.

The above two statements are the examples of common sense reasoning which a human mind can easily understand and assume.

5. Monotonic Reasoning:

In monotonic reasoning, once the conclusion is taken, then it will remain the same even if we add some other information to existing information in our knowledge base. In monotonic reasoning, adding knowledge does not decrease the set of prepositions that can be derived.

To solve monotonic problems, we can derive the valid conclusion from the available facts only, and it will not be affected by new facts.

Monotonic reasoning is not useful for the real-time systems, as in real time, facts get changed, so we cannot use monotonic reasoning.

Monotonic reasoning is used in conventional reasoning systems, and a logic-based system is monotonic.

Any theorem proving is an example of monotonic reasoning.

Example:

- Earth revolves around the Sun.

It is a true fact, and it cannot be changed even if we add another sentence in knowledge base like, "The moon revolves around the earth" Or "Earth is not round," etc.

Advantages of Monotonic Reasoning:

- In monotonic reasoning, each old proof will always remain valid.
- If we deduce some facts from available facts, then it will remain valid for always.

Disadvantages of Monotonic Reasoning:

- We cannot represent the real world scenarios using Monotonic reasoning.
- Hypothesis knowledge cannot be expressed with monotonic reasoning, which means facts should be true.
- Since we can only derive conclusions from the old proofs, so new knowledge from the real world cannot be added.

6. Non-monotonic Reasoning

In Non-monotonic reasoning, some conclusions may be invalidated if we add some more information to our knowledge base.

Logic will be said as non-monotonic if some conclusions can be invalidated by adding more knowledge into our knowledge base.

Non-monotonic reasoning deals with incomplete and uncertain models.

"Human perceptions for various things in daily life, "is a general example of non-monotonic reasoning.

Example: Let suppose the knowledge base contains the following knowledge:

- Birds can fly
- Penguins cannot fly
- Pitty is a bird

So from the above sentences, we can conclude that Pitty can fly.

However, if we add one another sentence into knowledge base "Pitty is a penguin", which concludes "Pitty cannot fly", so it invalidates the above conclusion.

Advantages of Non-monotonic reasoning:

- For real-world systems such as Robot navigation, we can use non-monotonic reasoning.
- In Non-monotonic reasoning, we can choose probabilistic facts or can make assumptions.

Disadvantages of Non-monotonic Reasoning:

- In non-monotonic reasoning, the old facts may be invalidated by adding new sentences.
- It cannot be used for theorem proving.

Categories of Knowledge Representation Schemes:

1. Logical Representation Scheme:

This class of representation uses expressions in formal logic to represent a knowledge base. Inference rules and proof procedures apply this knowledge to problem solving. First order predicate calculus is the most widely used logical representation scheme, and PROLOG is an ideal programming language for implementing logical representation schemes.

2. Procedural Representation Scheme:

Procedural scheme represents knowledge as a set of instructions for solving a problem. In a rule-based system, for example, an if then rule may be interpreted as a procedure for searching a goal in a problem domain: to arrive at the conclusion, solve the premises in order. Production systems are examples of a procedural representation scheme.

3. Network Representation Scheme:

Network representation captures knowledge as a graph in which the nodes represent objects or concepts in the problem domain and the arcs represent relations or associations between them. Examples of network representations include semantic network, conceptual dependencies and conceptual graphs.

4. Structured Representation Scheme:

Structured representation languages extend networks by allowing each node to be a complex data structure consisting of named slots with attached values. These values may be simple numeric or complex data, such as pointers to other frames, or even procedures.

Reasoning Under Uncertainty:

Uncertainty:

Its discussed previously about the knowledge representation using first-order logic and propositional logic with certainty, which means it was sure about the predicates. With this knowledge representation, we might write A→B, which means if A is true then B is true, but consider a situation where we are not sure about whether A is true or not then we cannot express this statement, this situation is called uncertainty.

So to represent uncertain knowledge, where we are not sure about the predicates, we need uncertain reasoning or probabilistic reasoning.

Causes of uncertainty:

Following are some leading causes of uncertainty to occur in the real world.

- Information occurred from unreliable sources.
- Experimental Errors
- Equipment fault
- Temperature variation
- Climate change.

Probabilistic reasoning:

Probabilistic reasoning is a way of knowledge representation where we apply the concept of probability to indicate the uncertainty in knowledge. In probabilistic reasoning, we combine probability theory with logic to handle the uncertainty.

We use probability in probabilistic reasoning because it provides a way to handle the uncertainty that is the result of someone's laziness and ignorance.

In the real world, there are lots of scenarios, where the certainty of something is not confirmed, such as "It will rain today," "behavior of someone for some situations," "A match between two teams or two players." These are probable sentences for which we can assume that it will happen but not sure about it, so here we use probabilistic reasoning.

Need of probabilistic reasoning in AI:

- When there are unpredictable outcomes.
- When specifications or possibilities of predicates becomes too large to handle.
- When an unknown error occurs during an experiment.

In probabilistic reasoning, there are two ways to solve problems with uncertain knowledge:

- Bayes' rule
- Bayesian Statistics

As probabilistic reasoning uses probability and related terms, so before understanding probabilistic reasoning, let's understand some common terms:

Probability: Probability can be defined as a chance that an uncertain event will occur. It is the numerical measure of the likelihood that an event will occur. The value of probability always remains between 0 and 1 that represent ideal uncertainties.

$0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$, where P(A) is the probability of an event A.

$P(A) = 0$, indicates total uncertainty in an event A.

$P(A) = 1$, indicates total certainty in an event A.

We can find the probability of an uncertain event by using the below formula.

$$\text{Probability of occurrence} = \frac{\text{Number of desired outcomes}}{\text{Total number of outcomes}}$$

- $P(\neg A)$ = probability of a not happening event.
- $P(\neg A) + P(A) = 1$.

Event: Each possible outcome of a variable is called an event.

Sample space: The collection of all possible events is called sample space.

Random variables: Random variables are used to represent the events and objects in the real world.

Prior probability: The prior probability of an event is probability computed before observing new information.

Posterior Probability: The probability that is calculated after all evidence or information has taken into account. It is a combination of prior probability and new information.

Conditional probability:

Conditional probability is a probability of occurring an event when another event has already happened.

Let's suppose, we want to calculate the event A when event B has already occurred, "the probability of A under the conditions of B", it can be written as:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \wedge B)}{P(B)}$$

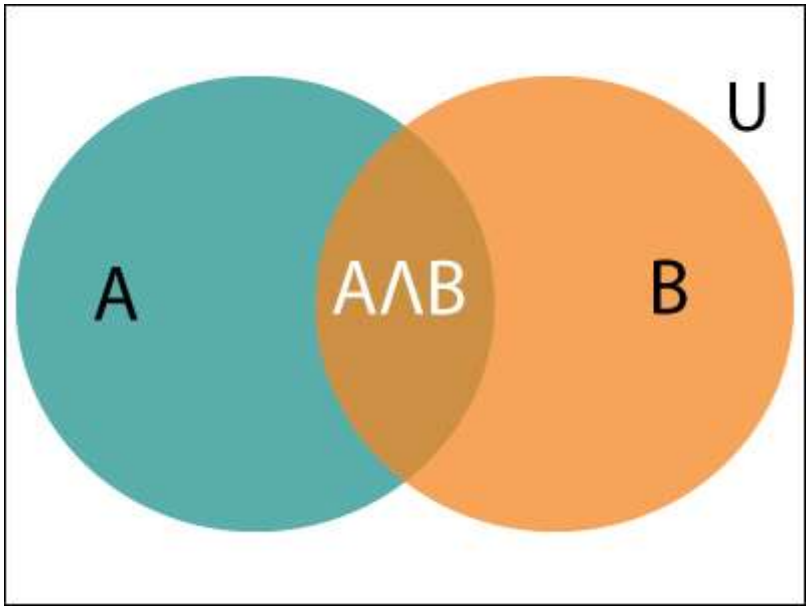
Where P(A∧B)= Joint probability of a and B

P(B)= Marginal probability of B.

If the probability of A is given and we need to find the probability of B, then it will be given as:

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \wedge B)}{P(A)}$$

It can be explained by using the below Venn diagram, where B is occurred event, so sample space will be reduced to set B, and now we can only calculate event A when event B is already occurred by dividing the probability of P(A∧B) by P(B).



Example:

In a class, there are 70% of the students who like English and 40% of the students who likes English and mathematics, and then what is the percent of students those who like English also like mathematics?

Solution:

Let, A is an event that a student likes Mathematics

B is an event that a student likes English.

Probabilistic reasoning in Artificial intelligence

Hence, 57% are the students who like English also like Mathematics.

Bayesian Belief Network in artificial intelligence

Bayesian belief network is key computer technology for dealing with probabilistic events and to solve a problem which has uncertainty. We can define a Bayesian network as:

"A Bayesian network is a probabilistic graphical model which represents a set of variables and their conditional dependencies using a directed acyclic graph."

It is also called a Bayes network, belief network, decision network, or Bayesian model.

Bayesian networks are probabilistic, because these networks are built from a probability distribution, and also use probability theory for prediction and anomaly detection.

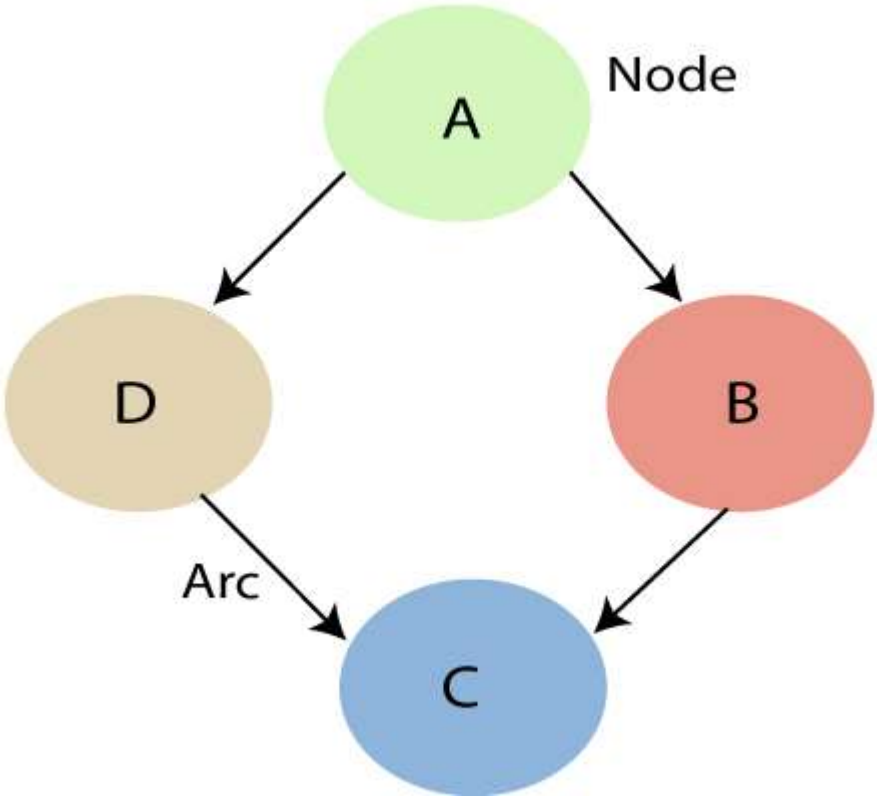
Real world applications are probabilistic in nature, and to represent the relationship between multiple events, we need a Bayesian network. It can also be used in various tasks including prediction, anomaly detection, diagnostics, automated insight, reasoning, time series prediction, and decision making under uncertainty.

Bayesian Network can be used for building models from data and experts opinions, and it consists of two parts:

- Directed Acyclic Graph
- Table of conditional probabilities.

The generalized form of Bayesian network that represents and solve decision problems under uncertain knowledge is known as an Influence diagram.

A Bayesian network graph is made up of nodes and Arcs (directed links), where:



- Each node corresponds to the random variables, and a variable can be continuous or discrete.
- Arc or directed arrows represent the causal relationship or conditional probabilities between random variables. These directed links or arrows connect the pair of nodes in the graph.These links represent that one node directly influence the other node, and if there is no directed link that means that nodes are independent with each other
    - In the above diagram, A, B, C, and D are random variables represented by the nodes of the network graph.
    - If we are considering node B, which is connected with node A by a directed arrow, then node A is called the parent of Node B.
    - Node C is independent of node A.

The Bayesian network has mainly two components:

- Causal Component
- Actual numbers

Each node in the Bayesian network has condition probability distribution P(Xi |Parent(Xi)), which determines the effect of the parent on that node.

Bayesian network is based on Joint probability distribution and conditional probability. So let's first understand the joint probability distribution:

Joint probability distribution:

If we have variables x1, x2, x3,....., xn, then the probabilities of a different combination of x1, x2, x3.. xn, are known as Joint probability distribution.

$P[x_1, x_2, x_3,....., x_n]$, it can be written as the following way in terms of the joint probability distribution.

$= P[x_1| x_2, x_3,....., x_n]P[x_2, x_3,....., x_n]$

$= P[x_1| x_2, x_3,....., x_n]P[x_2|x_3,....., x_n]....P[x_{n-1}|x_n]P[x_n]$.

In general for each variable Xi, we can write the equation as:

$P(X_i|X_{i-1}, ..., X_1) = P(X_i |Parents(X_i))$

Explanation of Bayesian network:

Let's understand the Bayesian network through an example by creating a directed acyclic graph:

Example: Harry installed a new burglar alarm at his home to detect burglary. The alarm reliably responds at detecting a burglary but also responds for minor earthquakes. Harry has two neighbors David and Sophia, who have taken a responsibility to inform Harry at work when they hear the alarm. David always calls Harry when he hears the alarm, but sometimes he got confused with the phone ringing and calls at that time too. On the other hand, Sophia likes to listen to high music, so sometimes she misses to hear the alarm. Here we would like to compute the probability of Burglary Alarm.

Problem:

Calculate the probability that alarm has sounded, but there is neither a burglary, nor an earthquake occurred, and David and Sophia both called the Harry.

Solution:

- The Bayesian network for the above problem is given below. The network structure is showing that burglary and earthquake is the parent node of the alarm and directly affecting the probability of alarm's going off, but David and Sophia's calls depend on alarm probability.
- The network is representing that our assumptions do not directly perceive the burglary and also do not notice the minor earthquake, and they also not confer before calling.
- The conditional distributions for each node are given as conditional probabilities table or CPT.
- Each row in the CPT must be sum to 1 because all the entries in the table represent an exhaustive set of cases for the variable.
- In CPT, a boolean variable with k boolean parents contains 2K probabilities. Hence, if there are two parents, then CPT will contain 4 probability values

List of all events occurring in this network:

- Burglary (B)
- Earthquake(E)
- Alarm(A)
- David Calls(D)
- Sophia calls(S)

We can write the events of problem statement in the form of probability: **P[D, S, A, B, E]**, can rewrite the above probability statement using joint probability distribution:

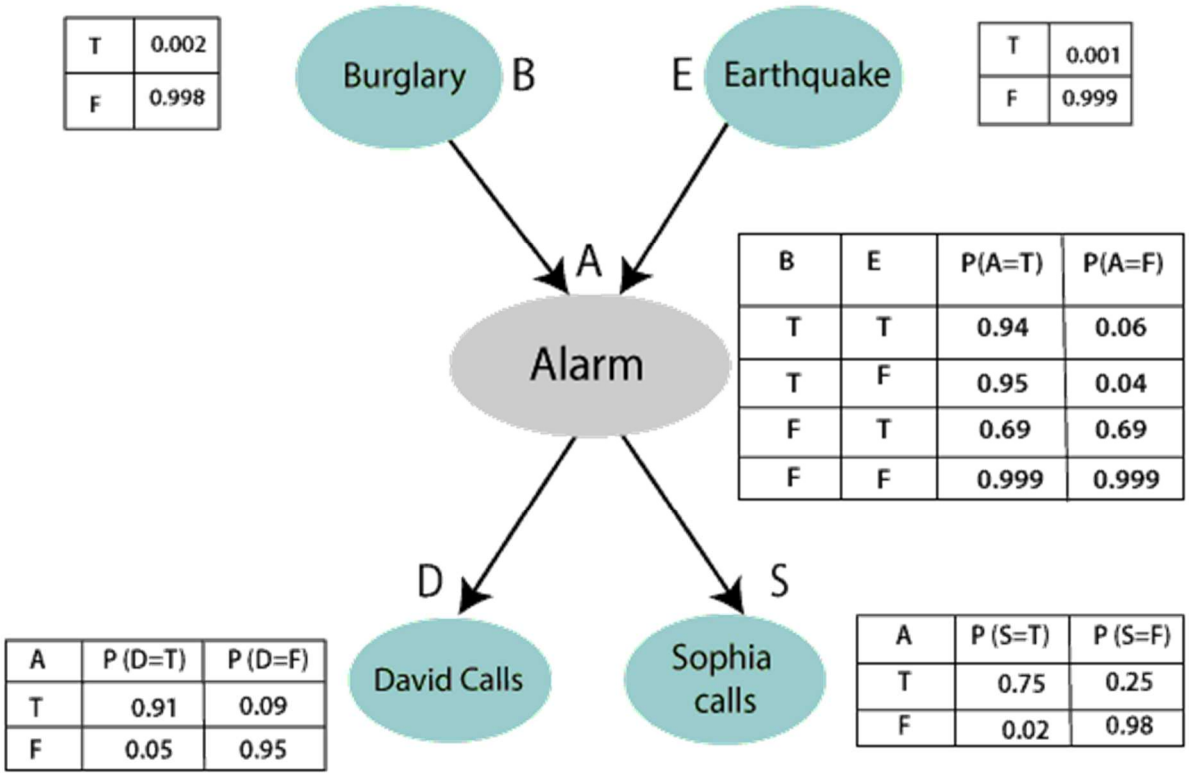
P[D, S, A, B, E]= P[D | S, A, B, E]. P[S, A, B, E]

=P[D | S, A, B, E]. P[S | A, B, E]. P[A, B, E]

= P [D| A]. P [S| A, B, E]. P[A, B, E]

= P[D | A]. P[S | A]. P[A| B, E]. P[B, E]

= P[D | A]. P[S | A]. P[A| B, E]. P[B |E]. P[E]



T	0.002
F	0.998

T	0.001
F	0.999

B	E	P(A=T)	P(A=F)
T	T	0.94	0.06
T	F	0.95	0.04
F	T	0.69	0.69
F	F	0.999	0.999

A	P (D=T)	P (D=F)
T	0.91	0.09
F	0.05	0.95

A	P (S=T)	P (S=F)
T	0.75	0.25
F	0.02	0.98

Let's take the observed probability for the Burglary and earthquake component:

P(B= True) = 0.002, which is the probability of burglary.

P(B= False)= 0.998, which is the probability of no burglary.

P(E= True)= 0.001, which is the probability of a minor earthquake

P(E= False)= 0.999, Which is the probability that an earthquake not occurred.

We can provide the conditional probabilities as per the below tables:

Conditional probability table for Alarm A:

The Conditional probability of Alarm A depends on Burglar and earthquake:

B	E	P(A= True)	P(A= False)
True	True	0.94	0.06
True	False	0.95	0.04
False	True	0.31	0.69
False	False	0.001	0.999

Conditional probability table for David Calls:

The Conditional probability of David that he will call depends on the probability of Alarm.

A	P(D= True)	P(D= False)
True	0.91	0.09
False	0.05	0.95

Conditional probability table for Sophia Calls:

The Conditional probability of Sophia that she calls is depending on its Parent Node "Alarm."

A	P(S= True)	P(S= False)
True	0.75	0.25
False	0.02	0.98

From the formula of joint distribution, we can write the problem statement in the form of probability distribution:

P(S, D, A, ¬B, ¬E) = P (S|A) *P (D|A)*P (A|¬B ^ ¬E) *P (¬B) *P (¬E).

= 0.75* 0.91* 0.001* 0.998*0.999

= 0.00068045.

Hence, a Bayesian network can answer any query about the domain by using Joint distribution.

The semantics of Bayesian Network:

There are two ways to understand the semantics of the Bayesian network, which is given below:

1. To understand the network as the representation of the Joint probability distribution.

It is helpful to understand how to construct the network.

2. To understand the network as an encoding of a collection of conditional independence statements.

It is helpful in designing inference procedure.