

# L13 – Informed Search and Reward-based Formulation

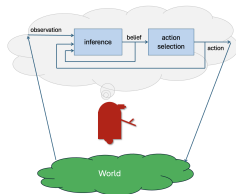
AIMA4e: Required: 3.1–3.4; 3.5.1–4; 3.6.1–2; 5.4

# What you should know after this lecture

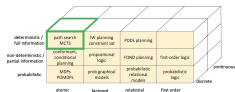
- State-space search
  - Minimizing additive path cost
  - Importance of avoiding redundant paths
- Informed search methods: GBFS and A\*
- Heuristics and where to find them
- Reward-formulation problems; relation to min-cost-path
- Intro to Monte-Carlo Tree Search

# Decision making!

- Given a current belief about the world
- And some objective
- What action should the agent take next?
- Apply the principle of rationality: select actions that will maximize your expected future utility



# First problem setting: fully observable, deterministic



## Atomic, discrete

- Agent knows:
  - State set:  $\mathcal{S}$
  - Initial state:  $s_0$
  - Action set:  $\mathcal{A}$
  - Transition model:  $T : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$
  - Goal set:  $G \subset \mathcal{S}$
  - Cost function  $C : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- We need to find next action to take
- Find plan  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m$  from  $s_0$  to some state in  $G$  such that  $T(s_0, \alpha_1) = s_1, \dots, T(s_{m-1}, \alpha_m) = s_m$  and  $s_m \in G$
- Usually we try to minimize

$$\sum_i C(s_i, \alpha_i, s_{i+1})$$

If path costs are not additive, then many algorithmic tricks don't apply and problem is much harder.

# Measuring problem-solving performance

- **Completeness:** If there is a solution to your problem, is the algorithm guaranteed to find it?
- **Cost optimality:** If there is a solution, is the algorithm guaranteed to find the solution with the lowest cost?
- **Computational complexity:** As the size of the problem grows, how do the computation and time and space requirements grow? The answer to this depends on how we encode the input!
  - In CS algorithms tradition, problems are described as *graph search* problems, and complexity is characterized in terms of the number of vertices (states) and edges in the graph; usually nearly linear in the size of the input.
  - In our applications, we will often have a huge or even infinite  $S$  but it is not input to the algorithm. Instead, we provide  $s_0$  and  $T$ , and incrementally expose the graph as we search. Characterize complexity in terms of branching factor  $|A|$  and depth (also called “horizon” or “plan-length.”) Usually exponential in the horizon.

# Best-first search framework

- Critical to make a distinction between state (element of  $\mathcal{S}$ ) and node of the search tree, which represents a path from  $s_0$  to some state  $s$ . (Every search node has an associated state. It is possible to have multiple nodes with the same state (representing different paths to reach that state).)
- This framework takes a priority function  $f$ . Different values of  $f$  will yield different search algorithms.

# Best-first search framework

BEST-FIRST-SEARCH( $\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, s_0, T, G, C, f$ )

```
1  n = NODE(s0)
2  frontier = PRIORITYQUEUE(f)
3  frontier.ADD(n)
4  reached = {s0 : n}
5  while not frontier.EMPTY():
6      n = frontier.POP()           // Get node with lowest f value
7      s = n.s
8      if s ∈ G: return n
9      for a ∈ A:                   // Expand s
10         s' = T(s, a)
11         path_cost = n.path_cost + C(s, a, s')
12         if not s' ∈ reached or path_cost < reached[s'].path_cost:
13             n' = NODE(s', n, a, path_cost)
14             reached[s'] = n'     // visit s'
15             frontier.ADD(n')
```

# Redundant Paths

- Stupidest possible algorithm (SPA): enumerate all legal paths and pick the first one that reaches a goal state.
- There can be exponentially more paths than states!
- The *reached* data structure (sometimes called a visited list) and test in line 12 ensures that we never consider a path to a state that is higher in cost than the best one we've already found.
- In most of the searches we'll consider, in fact, we can prove that the first time we pop some path to a state off the frontier, we will have done so via a least-cost path, and so we never expand (consider the successor of) a state more than once.



# Breadth-First Search

- Best-first with  $f(n) = \mathbf{\text{number of steps in path } n}$
- First path found to  $s$  has fewest steps
- Can actually move the goal test earlier (from  $s$  in line 8 to  $s'$  just after line 10)
- Complete and optimal (in number of steps)
- Worst case time (and space) complexity  $O(|\mathcal{A}|^d)$  where  $d$  is the length of the shortest path to the goal. This happens when there are no redundant paths.
- Note independence of  $|\mathcal{S}|$
- But, complexity is also bounded by  $O(|\mathcal{S}||\mathcal{A}|)$  which in some problems is smaller than  $|\mathcal{A}|^d$ .

# Uniform Cost Search

- Best-first search with  $f(n) = n.path\_cost$
- Assume costs are all positive.
- Like breadth-first, but pushes out frontier in equal-path-cost contours
- First path to  $s$  expanded has least cost.
- First path to  $s$  visited **does not necessarily have** least cost. See text for example of this, and why we cannot move the goal test earlier.
- Worst case time (and space) complexity

$$O(|\mathcal{A}|^{1+\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil})$$

where  $C^*$  is the cost of the least-cost path and  $\epsilon$  is the cost of the least-cost action.

- Sometimes called Dijkstra's Algorithm (although Dijkstra's is often used to compute shortest paths to all vertices in a given finite graph.)
- As with BFS, complexity is also bounded by  $O(|\mathcal{S}||\mathcal{A}| \log |\mathcal{S}|)$ .

# Informed state-space search methods

- Without any hints at all about how to make progress toward a goal state, we can't do better than uniform-cost search.
- A heuristic function  $h : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  provides an estimate of the cost of the least-cost path from a state  $s$  to a goal state. (In AIMA, defined on nodes  $n$ , but really just applies to  $n.s$ ).
- Standard example: Euclidean distance from  $s$  to a target destination in a route-finding problem.

# Greedy best-first search (GBFS)

- BEST-FIRST-SEARCH where

$$f(n) = h(n.s)$$

- Always take the path out of *frontier* that we estimate has gotten closest to the goal.
- Not guaranteed to find the least-cost path!
- Often finds a satisficing (goal-reaching) path much more quickly than uniform-cost search.

# A\*

- BEST-FIRST-SEARCH where

$$f(n) = n.path\_cost + h(n.s)$$

- Always take the path out of *frontier* that we estimate has the cheapest sum of the length of the path so far and our estimate of how far from here to the goal.
- Guaranteed to find a least-cost path if  $h$  is admissible.
- Heuristic  $h$  is admissible iff

$$h(s) \leq h^*(s) \quad \text{for all } s \in \mathcal{S},$$

where  $h^*(s)$  is the actual least path cost from  $s$  to a goal state.

- Heuristic  $h$  is consistent iff

$$h(s) \leq c(s, a, s') + h(s')$$

## More about A\*

- Search contours are “stretched” in the direction of goal states.
- Let  $C^*$  be cost of optimal solution path:
  - A\* expands all nodes reachable from  $s_0$  on a path where every node on the path has  $f(n) < C^*$
  - A\* expands no nodes with  $f(n) > C^*$
- If  $h(s) = h^*(s)$  then A\* will not expand any nodes that are not on an optimal path.
- If  $h(s)$  is close to  $h^*(s)$  then there will generally not be many nodes for which  $f(n) \leq C^*$ .
- If  $h(s) = 0$  then  $h$  is admissible; in this case, A\* degenerates into UCS.

# Heuristic Functions

- A heuristic function, ideally, is:
  - Admissible and consistent
  - Close to  $h^*$
  - Efficient to compute
- A good source of heuristics is problem relaxation: make your problem “easier” in two ways:
  - Solutions have lower cost in relaxed problem
  - Solutions are faster to find in relaxed problem
- Examples:
  - Relax problem of finding a path on a road-map to finding one that can go off-road.
  - Relax problem of finding a driving route that lets you keep the car fueled to one in which you ignore fuel.
- Another strategy: learn  $h$  (perhaps in the form of a neural network) using supervised or reinforcement-learning based on previous experience solving related problems.

# Reward-maximization formulation

Some problems are easier to formulate in terms of maximizing an amount of reward that gets accumulated over a trajectory of a fixed number of steps (horizon)  $H$ .

- Problem:  $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, T, R, H, s_0)$
- Reward instead of cost:  $R : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- We want to find a length  $H$  path that maximizes

$$\sum_{t=0}^{H-1} R(s_t, a_t, s_{t+1})$$

- We can relax this fixed-horizon assumption later in the course, with a probabilistic model of termination.



## Reduction from reward maximization to min-cost-path problem

Given reward maximization problem  $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, T, R, H, s_0)$  we can generate min-cost-path problem  $(\mathcal{S}', \mathcal{A}', T', G, C, s'_0)$  so that solution to the min-cost-path problem is a solution to the original reward-maximization problem.

- $\mathcal{S}' = \mathcal{S} \times \{0, \dots, H\}$
- $\mathcal{A}' = \mathcal{A}$
- $s'_0 = (s_0, H)$  second component is “steps to go”
- $T'((s, t), a) = (T(s, a), t - 1)$
- $G = \{(s, t) \mid t = 0\}$
- $C(s, a) = R_{\max} - R(s, a)$  where  $R_{\max} = \max_{s, a} R(s, a)$

Note that costs are always non-negative.

We can solve using uniform-cost search!

Very hard to come up with a heuristic, since in principle, it might be possible for all the rest of your actions to pay off with  $R_{\max}$  which would have a  $C$  of 0, meaning to be admissible, we need  $h = 0$ .

# Reduction from min-cost-path to reward maximization

Given a min-cost-path problem  $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, T, G, C, s_0)$  we can generate a reward maximization problem  $(\mathcal{S}', \mathcal{A}', T', R, H, s'_0)$  so that solution to the min-cost-path problem is a solution to the original reward-maximization problem.

- $\mathcal{S}' = \mathcal{S} \times \{over\}$
- $\mathcal{A}' = \mathcal{A}$
- $s'_0 = s_0$
- 

$$T'(s, a) = \begin{cases} T(s, a) & \text{if } s \notin G \text{ and } s \neq over \\ over & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- $R(s, a, s') = -C(s, a, s')$  if  $s' \neq over$  else 0

Setting H is tricky:

- Could keep trying to re-solve with increasing H.
- You can do MCTS (or some other solution methods) on indefinite horizon problems, where instead of having a fixed horizon H, there are states marked as terminal and the “rollout” ends when one is reached (but you *still* need a max horizon in practice).

# Monte-Carlo Tree Search

Another strategy for search guidance is to “learn” from your current search.

- Rather than systematically growing the tree, consider whole paths from  $s_0$  to horizon
- Assumes a type of smoothness: paths with the same first action(s) will tend to have similar values
- If your problem is smooth, and, so far, paths starting with  $a_1$  have had higher total reward than paths starting with  $a_2$ , then spend more time investigating paths starting with  $a_1$ !
- Particularly useful when no other heuristic is available and/or action space (hence branching factor) is very large.
- Used in games and probabilistic problems, as well.
- Assumes rewards in range  $[0, 1]$ . (Optimal policy is unchanged if we scale current rewards linearly to be in this range.)

# Upper confidence bounds

Consider a situation in which you are trying to select among  $K$  actions,  $a_1, \dots, a_k$ . Assume:

- You have, so far, executed  $N$  total actions
- You have, so far, executed action  $k$  for  $N_k$  trials
- The total utility you got for executing action  $k$  is  $U_k$

What is an optimistic but realistic upper bound on the value of executing action  $k$ ?

$$\text{UCB}(N, N_k, U_k) = \begin{cases} \frac{U_k}{N_k} + C \sqrt{\frac{\log N}{N_k}} & \text{if } N_k > 0 \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

If individual utility values are in range  $[0, 1]$  then a reasonable choice is  $C = 1.4$ . (Lots of interesting theory behind this!)

# Simple MCTS example

- We first pick  $\alpha_1$  and get value 0.9:

$$UCB(s_0, \alpha_1) = .9 + \sqrt{\log 1/1} \approx 0.9 \quad UCB(s_0, \alpha_2) = \infty$$

- Pick  $\alpha_2$  and get value 0.1:

$$UCB(s_0, \alpha_1) = .9 + \sqrt{\log 2/1} \approx 1.73 \quad UCB(s_0, \alpha_2) = .1 + \sqrt{\log 2/1} \approx .93$$

- Pick  $\alpha_1$  and get value 0.9 again:

$$UCB(s_0, \alpha_1) = .9 + \sqrt{\log 3/2} \approx 1.64 \quad UCB(s_0, \alpha_2) = .1 + \sqrt{\log 3/1} \approx 1.15$$

- Pick  $\alpha_1$  and get value 0.9 again:

$$UCB(s_0, \alpha_1) = .9 + \sqrt{\log 4/3} \approx 1.58 \quad UCB(s_0, \alpha_2) = .1 + \sqrt{\log 4/1} \approx 1.28$$

- Pick  $\alpha_1$  and get value 0.9 again:

$$UCB(s_0, \alpha_1) = .9 + \sqrt{\log 5/4} \approx 1.53 \quad UCB(s_0, \alpha_2) = .1 + \sqrt{\log 5/1} \approx 1.37$$

- Pick  $\alpha_1$  and get value 0.9 again:

$$UCB(s_0, \alpha_1) = .9 + \sqrt{\log 6/5} \approx 1.50 \quad UCB(s_0, \alpha_2) = .1 + \sqrt{\log 6/1} \approx 1.44$$

- Pick  $\alpha_1$  and get value 0.9 again:

$$UCB(s_0, \alpha_1) = .9 + \sqrt{\log 7/6} \approx 1.47 \quad UCB(s_0, \alpha_2) = .1 + \sqrt{\log 7/1} \approx 1.49$$

- Woo hoo! Pick  $\alpha_2$ ! Maybe it's awesome!

# Monte-Carlo Tree Search

MCTS( $s_0, (\mathcal{A}, T, R, H), iters$ )

```
1  root = NODE( $s_0, horizon = H, parent = \mathbf{None}, children = \{ \}, U = 0, N = 0$ )
2  for iter  $\in \{1, \dots, iters\}$ :
3      leaf = SELECT(root)
4      child = EXPAND(leaf,  $\mathcal{A}, T$ )
5      value = SIMULATE(child,  $\mathcal{A}, T, R$ )
6      BACKUP(child, value)
7  max_child = max(root.children, key =  $\lambda n. n.U/n.N$ )
8  return root.children[max_child]           // Returns the associated action
```

SELECT( $n$ )

// Follow optimistically best path through tree

```
1  if n.children
2      return SELECT(max(n.children, key =  $\lambda c. UCB(n.N, c.N, c.U)$ ))
3  else
4      return n
```

# Monte-Carlo Tree Search (Cont)

EXPAND( $n, \mathcal{A}, T$ )

*// Unless remaining horizon is 0, add child nodes and return one*

```
1 if  $n$ .horizon = 0:  
2     return  $n$   
3 else  
4     for  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ :  
5          $s' = T(n.s, a)$   
6          $n' = \text{NODE}(s', n.horizon - 1, \text{parent} = n, \text{children} = \{ \}, U = 0, N = 0)$   
7          $n.children[n'] = a$   
8     return RANDOM_CHOICE( $n.children$ )
```

SIMULATE( $n, \mathcal{A}, T, R$ )

*// Randomly finish path and return cumulative reward*

```
1  $s = n.s$ ;  $total\_reward = 0$   
2 for  $h \in (n.horizon, \dots, 1)$ :  
3      $a = \text{RANDOM\_CHOICE}(\mathcal{A})$   
4      $s' = T(s, a)$   
5      $total\_reward += R(s, a, s')$   
6      $s = s'$   
7 return  $total\_reward$ 
```

## Monte-Carlo Tree Search (Cont)

BACKUP( $n, v\_below$ )

// Add value  $v$  to  $n$ 's statistics and pass it up

1  $n.N += 1$

2 **if**  $n.parent$ :

3      $a = n.parent.children[n]$

// Action that led to  $n$

4      $v = v\_below + R(n.parent.s, a, n.s)$  // Value of executing  $a$  in parent

5      $n.U += v$

6     BACKUP( $n.parent, v$ )



# MCTS properties

- Guaranteed to (eventually) find optimal strategy with probability 1, for appropriate choice of  $C$
- Instead of random “rollouts”, you can use a semi-smart strategy, or a (learned) heuristic value function
- This is (roughly) what Alpha-Go does
- Can have poor short-term performance in cases where value function is not smooth (or short-term experience is misleading). See From Bandits to Monte-Carlo Tree Search: The Optimistic Principle Applied to Optimization and Planning, Rémi Munos, Foundations and Trends in Machine Learning, 2014.