Introduction to Artificial Intelligence

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Chapter 3 Solving Problems by Searching

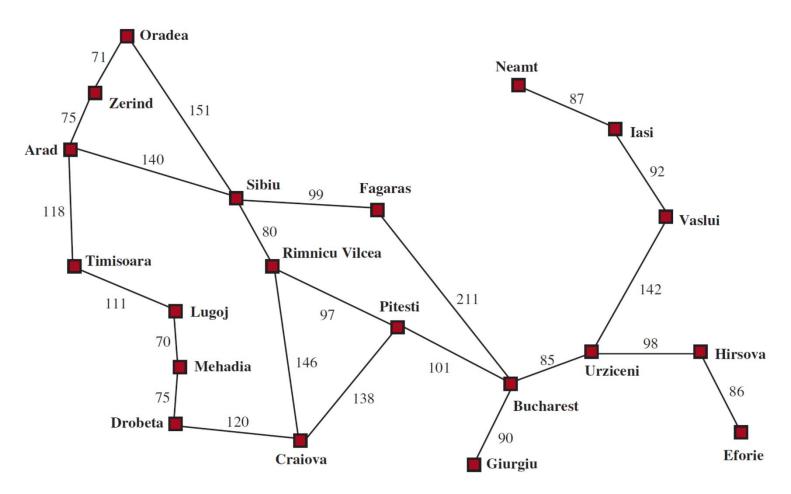
Outline

- Problem-solving agents
- Problem formulation
- Search for solutions
- Uninformed search strategies
- Avoiding repeated states
- Search with partial information
- Problem difficulty

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Example: Romania



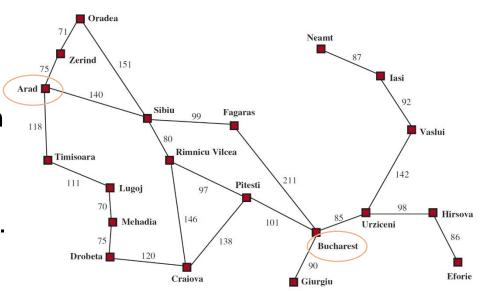
A simplified road map of part of Romania, with road distances in miles.

Example: Romania

On holiday in Romania

Currently in Arad; flight leaves from Bucharest tomorrow

- Formulate goal
 - Be in Bucharest
- Formulate problem
 - States: various cities
 - Actions: drive between cities
- Find solution
 - Sequence of cities e.g. Arad, Sibiu, Fagaras, Bucharest, ...



Problem-Solving Agent

- A kind of goal-based agent
 - Goal: solve the problem
- Four general steps in problem solving:
 - Goal formulation
 - What are the successful world states
 - Problem formulation
 - What actions and states to consider given the goal
 - Search
 - Determine the possible sequence of actions that lead to the states of known values and then choosing the best sequence
 - Execute
 - Give the solution perform the actions

Problem-Solving Agent

```
function SIMPLE-PROBLEM-SOLVING-AGENT(percept)
returns an action
 static: seq, an action sequence
        state, a description of the current world state
        goal, a goal
        problem, a problem formulation
 state ← UPDATE-STATE (state, percept)
 if seq is empty then do
   goal ← FORMULATE-GOAL(state)
   problem ← FORMULATE-PROBLEM(state, goal)
   seq \leftarrow SEARCH(problem)
 action \leftarrow FIRST(seq)
 seq \leftarrow REST(seq)
 return action
```

Problem Types

- Deterministic, fully observable → single state problem
 - · Agent knows exactly which state it will be in
 - Solution is a sequence

Goal Formulation

- Determine what success means
- Perhaps the most important fundamental question

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Problem Formulation

A problem is defined by:

- Initial state, e.g. Arad
- Successor function S(X) = set of <action,state> pairs
 - e.g. S(Arad)={<Arad → Zerind, Zerind>, < , >, ...}
 - Initial state + successor function = state space
- Goal test, can be
 - Explicit, e.g. x='at Bucharest'
 - Implicit, e.g. checkmate(x)
- Path cost (additive)
 - e.g. sum of distances, number of actions executed, ...
 - c(x,a,y) is the step cost, assumed to be >= 0
 - A solution is a sequence of actions from initial to goal state.
 - Optimal solution has the lowest path cost.

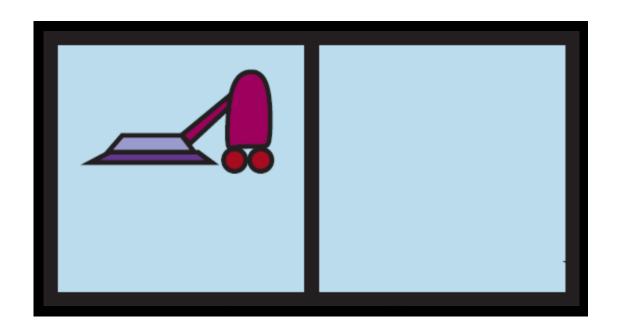
State Space

Real world is absurdly complex

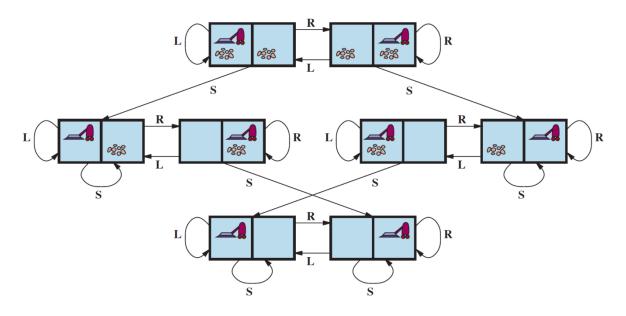
- State space must be abstracted for problem solving
- (Abstract) state = set of real states
- (Abstract) action = complex combination of real actions
 - e.g. Arad → Zerind represents a complex set of possible routes, detours, rest stops, etc.
 - The abstraction is valid if the path between two states is reflected in the real world
 - Each abstract action should be "easier" than the real problem
- (Abstract) solution = set of real paths that are solutions in the real world

Example: Vacuum World

Consider an environment with two cells and one vacuum

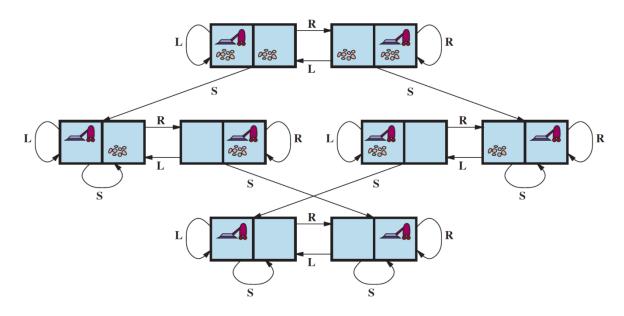


Example: Vacuum World



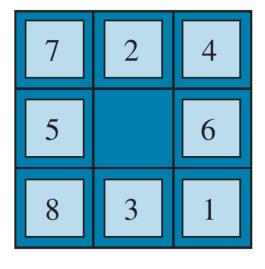
- States?
- Initial state?
- Actions?
- Goal test?
- Path cost?

Example: Vacuum World

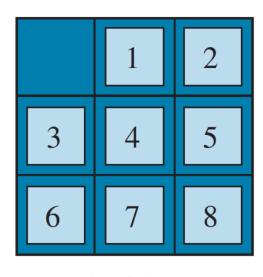


- States? (vacuum, dust)
- Initial state? Any
- Actions? L = Left, R = Right, S = Suck.
- Goal test? Check if no dust exists.
- Path cost? Number of actions to reach goal.

Example: 8-Puzzle



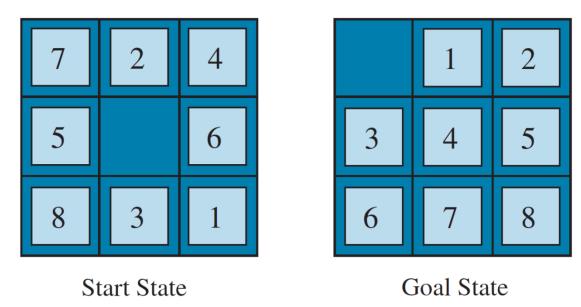
Start State



Goal State

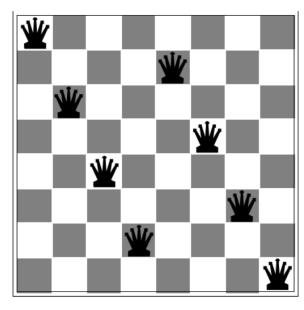
- States?
- Initial state?
- Actions?
- Goal test?
- Path cost?

Example: 8-Puzzle



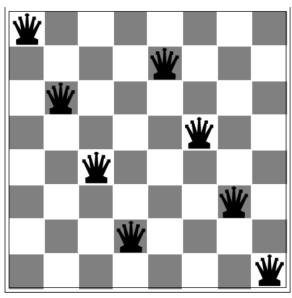
- States? Integer location of each tile. How many of them?
- Initial state? Any state
- Actions? (tile, direction)
 where direction is one of {Left, Right, Up, Down}
- Goal test? Check whether goal configuration is reached
- Path cost? Number of actions to reach goal

Example: 8 queens problem



- Incremental vs. complete state formulation
 - Incremental formulation starts with an empty state and involves operators that augment the state description
 - A complete state formulation starts with all 8 queens on the board and moves them around

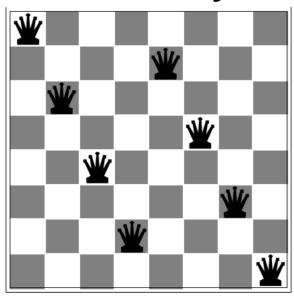
8 queens problem: representation is key



Incremental Formulation

- States? Any arrangement of 0 to 8 queens
- Initial state? No queens
- Actions? Add queen in empty square
- Goal test? 8 queens on board and none attacked
- Path cost? None but 64*63*...*57 ~ 3E14 states

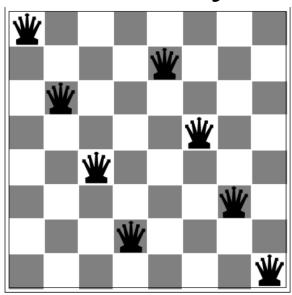
8 queens problem: a better representation is key



Another Incremental Formulation

- States? n queens on the board n left-most columns
- Initial state? No queens
- Actions? Add queen in leftmost empty column
- Goal test? 8 queens on board and none attacked
- Path cost? None but 2057 states

8 queens problem: a better representation is key



Complete-state Formulation

- States? Position of 8 queens
- Initial state? Any possible positions
- Actions? Move a queen to another place
- Goal test? 8 queens on board and none attacked
- Path cost? #movements

n queens problem

- A solution is a goal node, not a path to this node (typical of design problem)
- Number of states in state space:
 - 8-queens \rightarrow 2,057
 - 100-queens \rightarrow 10⁵²
- But techniques exist to solve n-queens problems efficiently for large values of n

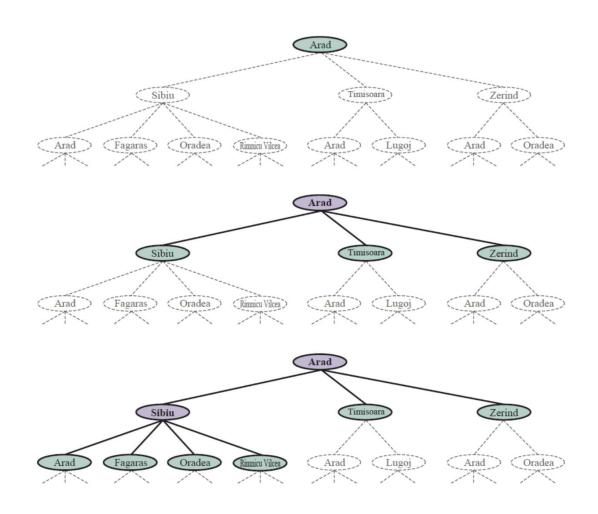
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Basic Search Algorithms

- How do we find the solutions of previous problems?
 - Search the state space
 - Remember complexity of space depends on state representation
 - Here: search through explicit tree generation
 - ROOT= initial state
 - Expand current state
 - Generate new set of states (nodes and leafs) by applying successor function to current state
 - Search strategy chooses which state to expand
 - More generally, search generates a graph
 - Same state through multiple paths

Simple Tree Search Example



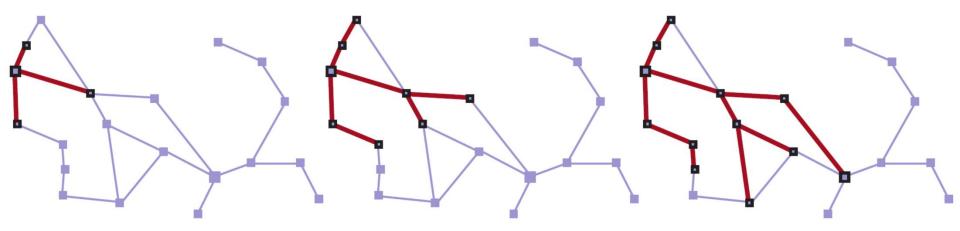
Simple Tree Search Example

function TREE-SEARCH(*problem*, *strategy*) **returns** a solution or failure

initialize search tree using the initial state loop do

if no candidates for expansion return failure
 choose leaf node for expansion as per strategy
 if node contains goal state then return solution
 else expand the node and add resulting nodes to the search tree

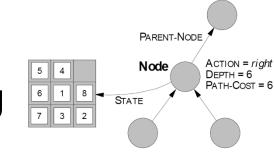
Simple Tree Search Example



A sequence of search trees generated by a graph search on the Romania problem

State Space vs. Search Tree

- A state is a (representation of) a physical configuration
- A node is a data structure belong to a search tree



- A node has a parent, children, ... and includes path cost, depth, ...
- Here node =
 <state, parent-node, action, path-cost, depth>
- FRINGE = contains generated nodes which are not yet expanded

Tree Search Algorithm

```
function TREE-SEARCH(problem, fringe) returns a solution or
failure

fringe ← INSERT(MAKE-NODE(INITIAL-STATE[problem]), fringe)

loop do

if EMPTY(fringe) then return failure

node ← REMOVE-FIRST(fringe)

if GOAL-TEST[problem] applied to STATE[node] succeeds

then return SOLUTION(node)

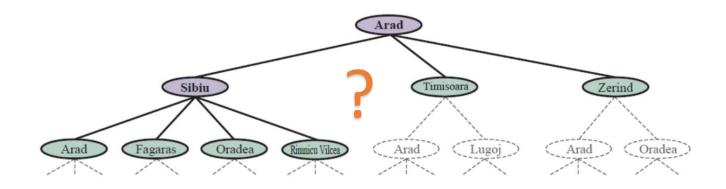
fringe ← INSERT-ALL(EXPAND(node, problem), fringe)
```

Tree Search Algorithm.

```
function EXPAND(node, problem) returns a set of nodes
  successors ← the empty set
  for each <action, result> in SUCCESSORFN[problem](STATE[node]) do
    s \leftarrow a \text{ new NODF}
    STATE[s] \leftarrow result
    PARENT-NODE[s] \leftarrow node
   ACTION[s] \leftarrow action
   PATH-COST[s] \leftarrow PATH-COST[node] +
                       STEP-COST(STATE[node], action, result)
    DEPTH[s] \leftarrow DEPTH[node] + 1
    add s to successors
return successors
```

Search Strategies

- A strategy is defined by picking the order of node expansion
 - Should consider performance



Search Strategies (cont'd)

- Problem-solving performance is measured in four ways:
 - Completeness
 - Does it always find a solution if one exists?
 - Optimality
 - Does it always find the least-cost (optimal) solution?
 - (Is what it found always the least-cost (optimal) solution?)
 - Time Complexity
 - Number of nodes generated/expanded?
 - Space Complexity
 - Number of nodes stored in memory during search?

Search Strategies.

- Time and space complexity are measured in terms of problem difficulty defined by:
 - b: branching factor or maximum #successors of any node
 - d: depth of the shallowest goal node
 - m: maximum depth of the state space (may be ∞)

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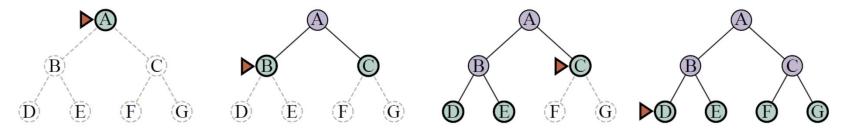
Uninformed Search Strategies

Uninformed search

- a.k.a. blind search
- Uses only information available in problem definition
 - When strategies can determine whether one non-goal state is better than another → informed or heuristic search
- Categories defined by expansion algorithm:
 - Breadth-first search
 - Uniform-cost search
 - Depth-first search
 - Depth-limited search
 - Iterative deepening search
 - Bidirectional search

Expand shallowest unexpanded node

- Implementation: fringe is a FIFO queue
- E.g. breadth-first search on a simple binary tree
 - At each stage, the node to be expanded next is indicated by the triangular marker



Completeness:

- Does it always find a solution if one exists?
- YES
 - If shallowest goal node is at some finite depth d
 - Condition: If b is finite (maximum number of successive nodes is finite)

Optimality:

- Does it always find the least-cost (optimal) solution?
- In general, YES
 - unless actions have different cost (i.e. path cost is a decreasing function)

Time complexity:

- Assume a state space where every state has b successors
 - Root has b successors
 - each node at the next level has again b successors (total b²)
 - -...
 - Assume solution is at depth d
 - Worst case: expand all but the last node (goal) at depth d
 - Total #nodes generated: $b + b^2 + b^3 + \dots + b^d + (b^{d+1} - b) = O(b^{d+1})$

Space complexity:

• Idem $O(b^{d+1})$ if each node is retained in memory

Two lessons

- Memory requirements are a bigger problem than its execution time
- Exponential complexity search problems cannot be solved by uninformed search for any but the smallest instances
 - e.g. b=10; 10,000 nodes/s; 1000 bytes/node

DEPTH	NODES	TIME	MEMORY	
2	1100	0.11 seconds	1 megabyte	
4	111100	11 seconds	11 seconds 106 megabytes	
6	10 ⁷	19 minutes	es 10 gigabytes	
8	10 ⁹	31 hours	1 terabyte	
10	10 ¹¹	129 days 101 terabyte		
12	10 ¹³	35 years 10 petabytes		
14	10 ¹⁵	3523 years	1 exabyte	

Uniform-Cost Search (UCS)

Extension of BFS

- Expand node with lowest path cost
- UCS is the same as BFS when all step-costs are equal
- Implementation: Fringe = queue ordered by path cost

Uniform-Cost Search (UCS)

Completeness:

- Does it always find a solution if one exists?
- YES, if step-cost > ε (small positive constant) (why?)
 - The search will get stuck in a infinite loop if a node has a zero-cost action leading back to the same state

Optimality:

- Does it always find the least-cost (optimal) solution?
- YES, if complete
 - Nodes expanded in order of increasing path cost

Uniform-Cost Search (UCS)

Time complexity:

- Assume C* the cost of the optimal solution
- Assume that every action costs at least ε
- Worst-case: $O(b^{1+C^*/\varepsilon})$

Space complexity:

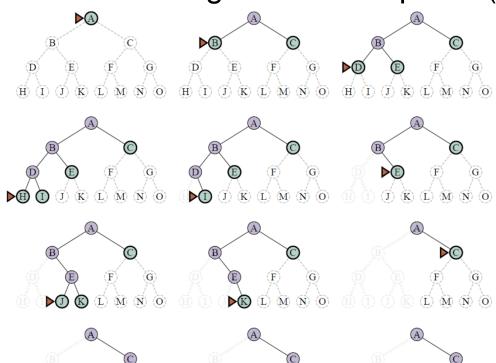
Idem to time complexity

Depth-First Search (DFS)

Expand deepest unexpanded node

Implementation: fringe is a LIFO queue (=stack)





A dozen steps in the progress of a DFS on a binary tree from start state A to goal M

Depth-First Search (DFS)

Completeness:

- Does it always find a solution if one exists?
- No
 - e.g. the left subtree is unbounded depth but no solution
 - DFS is complete only if search space is finite and no loops

Optimality:

- Does it always find the least-cost (optimal) solution?
- No
 - e.g. Assume nodes J and C contain goal states (But only C is optimal)

Depth-First Search (DFS)

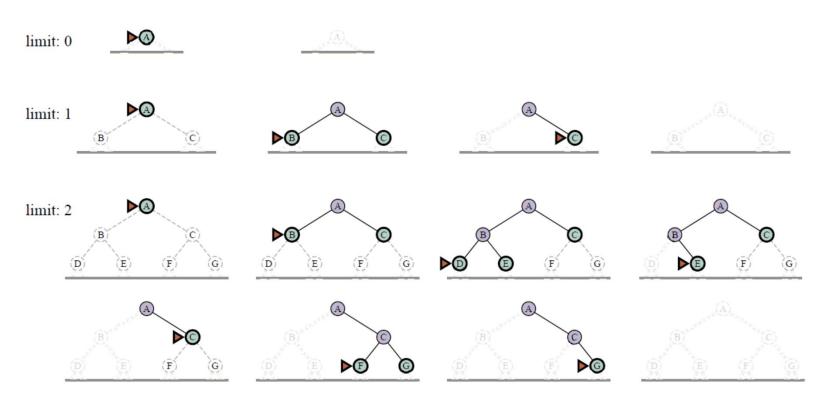
- Time complexity: $O(b^m)$
 - Terrible if m (max. depth) is much larger than d (depth of optimal solution)
 - But if many solutions, then faster than BFS
- Space complexity: O(bm)
 - Backtracking search uses even less memory
 - One successor instead of all b
 - DFS' advantage over BFS: $O(b^{d+1})$

Depth-Limited Search

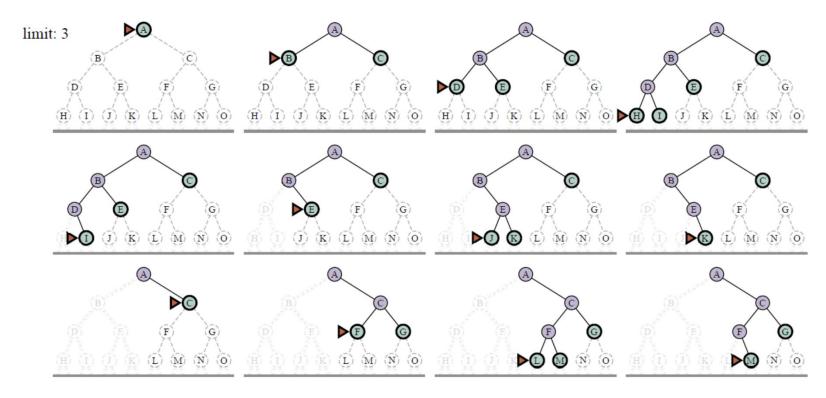
- Limits the search depth of DFS to l
 - Solves the infinite-path problem
 - i.e. nodes at depth *l* have no successors
 - If l < d then incompleteness results
 - If l > d still can be not optimal (why?)
 - Problem knowledge can be used
- Time complexity: $O(b^l)$
- Space complexity: O(bl)

- A general strategy to find best depth limit I
 - Goals is found at depth d, the shallowest goal-node depth
 - Often used in combination with DFS
- Combines benefits of DFS and BFS

```
function ITERATIVE_DEEPENING_SEARCH(problem)
return a solution or failure
inputs: problem, a problem
for depth ← 0 to ∞ do
    result ← DEPTH-LIMITED_SEARCH(problem, depth)
    if result ≠ cuttoff then return result
```



Four iterations of iterative deepening search for goal M on a binary tree, with the depth limit varying from 0 to 3.



Four iterations of iterative deepening search for goal M on a binary tree, with the depth limit varying from 0 to 3.

Completeness:

YES (no, if infinite paths)

Optimality:

- YES
- Can be extended to iterative lengthening search
 - Same idea as uniform-cost search
 - Increases overhead

- Time complexity: $O(b^d)$
 - Algorithm seems costly due to repeated generation of certain states
 - Node generation:
 - Level 1: d
 - Level 2: d − 1
 - ...
 - Level d-1: 2
 - Level d: 1
 - e.g. b=10 and d=5

$$N(IDS) = db + (d - 1)b^{2} + ... + b^{d}$$

$$N(BFS) = b + b^{2} + ... + b^{d} + (b^{d+1} - b)$$

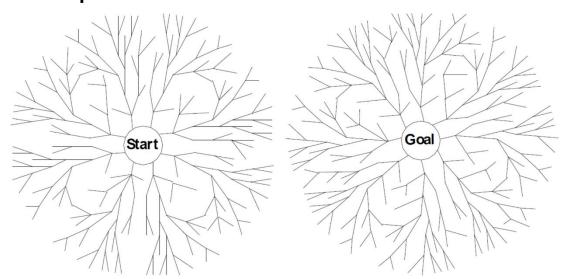
$$N(IDS) = 5 * 10 + 4 * 10^2 + 3 * 10^3 + 4 * 10^4 + 1 * 10^5 = 123450$$

 $N(BFS) = 10 + 10^2 + 10^3 + 10^4 + 10^5 + (10^6 - 10) = 1111100$

- Space complexity: O(bd)
 - cf. DFS: *O*(*bm*)

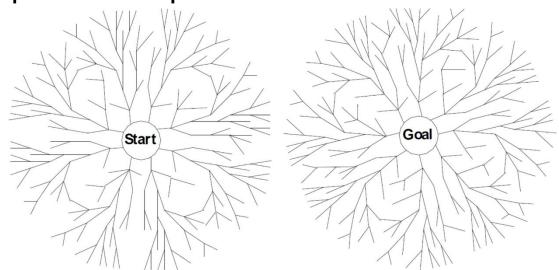
Bidirectional Search

- Two simultaneous searches from start and goal
 - Motivation: $b^{d/2} + b^{d/2} < b^d$ (BFS)
 - Check whether the node belongs to the other fringe before expansion



Bidirectional Search

- The predecessor of each node should be efficiently computable
 - When actions are easily reversible
 - Space complexity is the most significant weakness
 - Complete and optimal if both searches are BFS



Summary of Algorithms

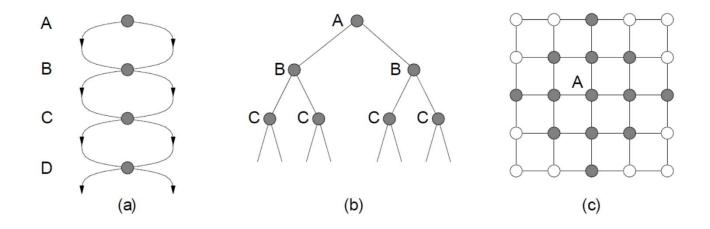
Criterion	Breadth- First	Uniform- cost	Depth- First	Depth- limited	Iterative deepening	Bidirec- tional
Complete	YES*	YES*	NO	YES, if $l \ge d$	YES	YES*
Time	b ^{d+1}	b ^{C*/e}	b ^m	b ¹	þď	b ^{d/2}
Space	b ^{d+1}	b ^{C*/e}	bm	Ы	bd	b ^{d/2}
Optimal	YES*	YES*	NO	NO	YES	YES

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Repeated States

 Failure to detect repeated states can turn a solvable problems into unsolvable ones



Graph-Search

Closed list stores all expanded nodes

```
function GRAPH-SEARCH(problem, fringe) return a solution or
failure
 closed ← an empty set
 fringe ← INSERT(MAKE-NODE(INITIAL-STATE[problem]), fringe)
 loop do
   if EMPTY(fringe) then return failure
   node ← REMOVE-FIRST(fringe)
   if GOAL-TEST[problem] applied to STATE[node] succeeds then
     return SOLUTION(node)
   if STATE[node] is not in closed then
     add STATE[node] to closed
   fringe ← INSERT-ALL(EXPAND(node, problem), fringe)
```

Graph-Search

Optimality:

- When detecting a repeated state, i.e. matching a node on closed list, GRAPH-SEARCH discard newly discovered paths
 - This may result in a sub-optimal solution
 - If the new one is shorter
 - Won't happen when using uniform-cost search or BFS with constant step cost

Graph-Search

Time and space complexity:

- Proportional to the size of the state space
 - May be much smaller than O(bd)
 - On problem with many repeated states, GRAPH-SEARCH is much more efficient than TREE-SEARCH
- DFS and IDS with closed list require more than linear space
 - Since all nodes are stored in closed list!

Fundamental tradeoff between **time** and **space**: Algorithms that forget their history are doomed to repeat it!

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Search with Partial Information

- Previous assumption:
 - Environment is *fully observable*
 - Environment is deterministic
 - Agent knows the effects of its actions
- What if knowledge of states or actions is incomplete or uncertain?

Search with Partial Information

Partial knowledge of states and actions

- Sensorless or conformant problem
 - Non-observable
 - Agent may have no idea where it is; solution (if any) is a sequence
- Contingency problem
 - Nondeterministic and/or partially observable
 - Percepts provide new information about current state; solution is a tree or policy; often interleave search and execution
 - If uncertainty is caused by actions of another agent
 → adversarial problem
- Exploration problem
 - Unknown state space
 - When states and actions of the environment are unknown.

Search with Partial Information

Single-state problem:

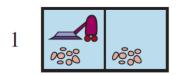
- Q: Single state, starting in #5. Solution?
- A: [Right, Suck]

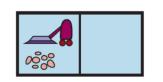
Sensorless problem:

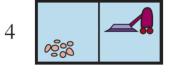
Q: Start in {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8}
 e.g. Right goes to {2,4,6,8}.
 Solution?

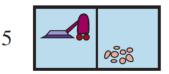
Contingency:

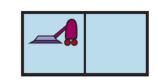
Q: Start in {1,3}.
 Assume Murphy's law, Suck can dirty a clean carpet and local sensing: [location, dirt] only. Solution?



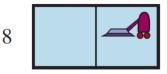




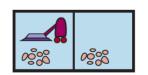


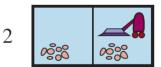


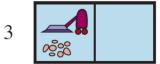


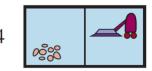


Sensorless Problems¹



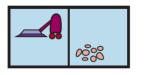


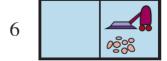


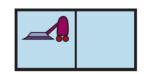


e.g. Vacuum world

- Q: Start in {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8}
 e.g. Right goes to {2,4,6,8}.
 Solution?
- A: [Right, Suck, Left, Suck]









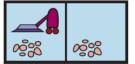
When the world is not fully observable:

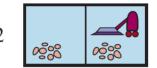
- reason about a set of states that might be reached
 - → belief state
 - If fully observable, each belief state contains only one physical state

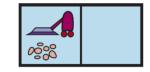
Sensorless Problems

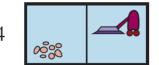
Search space of belief states

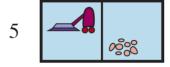
- Search the space of belief states rather than physical states
- Solution = a path to a belief state, all of whose members are goal states

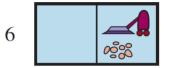


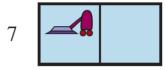






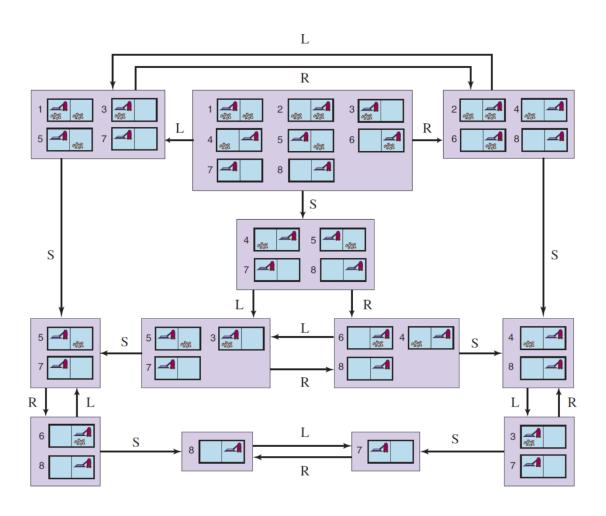








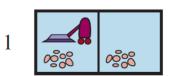
Belief-state of Vacuum World

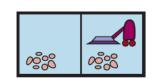


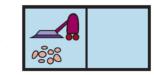
Contingency Problems

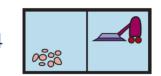
e.g. Vacuum world

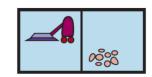
- Start in {1,3},
 Murphy's law: Suck can dirty a clean carpet Local sensing: dirt, location
 - Percept = [L,Dirty] ={1,3}
 - $[Suck] = \{5,7\}$
 - $[Right] = \{6,8\}$
 - [Suck] in {6}={8} (Success)
 - BUT [Suck] in {8} may return {6} (Murphy's law)
- Solution??
 - Belief-state: no fixed action sequence guarantees solution



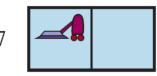














Contingency Problems

Relax requirement

 If don't insist on fixed action sequence, then a solution:

[Suck, Right, if [R,dirty] then Suck]

- Select actions based on contingencies arising during execution
- Most real-world problems are contingency problems, because exact prediction is impossible

Outline

- Problem-solving agents
- Problem formulation
- Search for solutions
- Uninformed search strategies
- Avoiding repeated states
- Search with partial information
- Problem difficulty

Reasons of Difficult Problems

- Huge search space
 - Exhaustive search for the best answer is forbidden
- Complicated
 - Result from the simplified models is useless
- Dynamic
 - The evaluation function is noisy or varies with time
 - Thereby needs not just a single solution but a series of ones
- Constrained
 - Even on e feasible answer is difficult, let alone the optimum
- Multiple objectives
 - Conflict between objectives

Size of Search Space

Satisfiability problem (SAT)

- Given a logic formula in CNF, the problem is to determine if the formula is satisfiable
 - E.g. 100-variable SAT: $f(\vec{x}) = (x_1 \lor x_5 \lor \neg x_3) \land (x_6) \land (\neg x_4 \lor x_2)$
- For a n-variable SAT, the size of search space is 2ⁿ
 - E.g. $|S| = 2^{100} \approx 10^{30}$ For a computer that can test 1000 strings/sec, from Big Bang to now (15 billion years), we'd have examined < 1%
- Evaluation function is another issue
 - Evaluation function guides us the quality of solution
 - What if SAT?

Size of Search Space

Traveling salesman problem (TSP)

- Find the shortest path to visit each city exactly
 - Symmetric and asymmetric
- The size of search space is n!/2n = (n-1)!/2
 - E.g. 50-city TSP: $|S| = 49!/2 \approx 10^{62}$
 - 100-city TSP: $|S| \approx 4.67 \times 10^{155}$
 - 500-city TSP: $|S| \approx 1.22 \times 10^{1131}$
 - 3000-city TSP: $|S| \approx 6.91 \times 10^{9126}$



Size of Search Space

Nonlinear problem (NLP)

Find the global maximum of function G2

$$G_2(\vec{x}) = \left| \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \cos^4(x_i) - 2 \prod_{i=1}^n \cos^2(x_i)}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n i x_i^2}} \right|$$
s.t. $\prod_{i=1}^n x_i \ge 0.75$, $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \le 7.5n$

- Nonlinear
- Constraints: 1 non-linear, 1 linear
- Search space
 - Infinitely large due to real
 - Depends on resolution
 - E.g. precision guaranteed 6 digits each dimension has 10⁷ values search space = 10⁷ⁿ

- Solving a problem means we are in reality only find the solution to a model of the problem
- Process
 - Create a model of the problem
 - Use the model to generate a solution



- E.g. SAT, TSP, NLP are canonical models
 - SAT: model checking
 - TSP: die bonding, factory scheduling
 - NLP: function optimization
- However, there is always a compromise on precision between model and solution

Example

- Suppose a company has n warehouses that store paper supplies in reams
- These supplies are to be delivered to k distribution centers
- The transportation cost between warehouse i and distribution center j is f_{ij} :

$$f_{ij}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x = 0\\ 4 + 3.33x & 0 < x \le 3\\ 19.5 & 3 < x \le 6\\ 0.5 + 10\sqrt{x} & 6 < x \end{cases}$$

 The problem is to minimize the transportation cost of all:

$$\min \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{k} f_{ij}(x_i) \quad s.t. \sum_{j=1}^{k} x_{ij} \leq warehouse(i), \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij} \geq distribution(j), x_{ij} \geq 0$$

- Example (cont'd)
 - The transportation cost serves as an evaluation function
 - Discontinuous → cannot use gradient-based methods
 - Two options
 - Simplify the model so that traditional optimizers might return better answers:
 - $Problem \rightarrow Model_a \rightarrow Solution_p(Model_a)$
 - Keep the model but use non-traditional approach to find a near-optimum solution:
 - $Problem \rightarrow Model_p \rightarrow Solution_a(Model_p)$
 - Difficult to obtain precise solution since we have to approximate either the model or the solution

Change over Time

Problem (environment) changes

- Before you model it
- While you are deriving a solution
- After you execute your solution

• E.g.

- TSP: the cost changes over time
- Game: your competitors are trying to defeat your solution

Constraints

- During search, we need to move from one solution to the next:
 - Feasible?
 - Improved?
- Hard constraints
 - Must be absolutely satisfied in order to have a feasible solution
- Soft constraints
 - We hope to accomplish but are NOT mandatory

Any solution that meets the hard constraints is feasible, but not necessary optimal in light of soft constraints.

Constraints

Deal with infeasible solutions

- Discard
 - Diversity
- Repair
 - Diversity
 - Computational cost
- Prevent
 - Devise variation operators that never corrupt a feasible solution into an infeasible
 - Not always achievable

Multiple Objectives

Presence of multiple conflicting objectives

- Buying a car: speed vs. price vs. reliability
- Engineering design: lightness vs. strength
- Factors are conflicting and the final decision bears a compromise, a trade-off

Two part problem

- Finding set of good solutions
- Choice of the best for particular application

Multiple Objectives

Methods

- Aggregation (scalarization)
 - Use weights to integrate into a single objective
 - Disadvantages?
- Evolutionary algorithms
 - Good at solving MOP
 - Returns a set of solutions
 - NSGA2, PEAS, MOEA, etc.

