**NEURAL RUBIK’S – SOLVING RUBIK’S CUBE USING NEURAL NETWORK (HEURISTIC LEARNING)**

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### Research Background

Neural networks have already proven to be able to cope with noisy and unstructured data like hand-written texts, images, sounds, classification of real-world objects based on incomplete description, and many others.

Recently, they also succeeded in several purely combinatorial domains like the game of AlphaGo. Nowadays, the program AlphaGo (D.Silver, 2016) that utilizes a deep neural net can beat top-class human players which was impossible just two years ago. No other approach is currently known to be able to play AlphaGo on such level. Neural Networks are also a key component of the best Poker engine DeepStack (Matej Moravcˇík, 2017) and several attempts have been made to use them for solving instances of Travelling Salesman Problem and other combinatorial problems (HieuPham, 2017).

In development, the machine learning approaches are already being used in several ways, for example to select the best search algorithm, preprocess the problem or to promote searching of promising areas.

Some attention has also been dedicated to heuristic learning, where the task is to automatically induce a heuristic function from training samples using a machine learning model. Models typically used in this area are very simple and are not finetuned for the specific problem. In most cases, they are only used as a black box.

With recent rapid development of deep learning models, many new possibilities are now available in this area. Learning algorithms now exist for efficient training of deep feed-forward networks and also many other types of Neural Networks have been developed and successfully used. For instance, there are Deep Recurrent Networks like Long Short – Term Memory (LSTM) (Francisco Javier Ordóñez,2016), Deep Convolutional Networks, and Neural Turing Machines (Ariel Felner, 2017).

### Motivation

Xxxxxnljhdlqhdjqhdlhjqe;wqufewqufhewqufhewlufwekufwqkufwlkflkwje;lfknjewqflkewjf

### Research Problem

* Implementing heuristic learning to solve a given instance Rubik’s cube problem.
* Minimal number of prediction of moves to solve a given instance Rubik’s cube.

### Objective

* Using heuristic learning to construct a automatically solve a given instance Rubik’s cube problem.
* Train neural network to predict a minimal number of moves required to solve a given case of Rubik’s cube.
* Trained neural network as a heuristic distance estimator with a standard forward-search algorithm and compare the results with other heuristics.

### Research Question

* This research and experiment will show that the neural network, heuristic learning approach is competitive with state-of-the-art and might be the best choice in some use-case scenarios.

### Research Delivery

* To prove this research and experiment of neural network using heuristic learning is the best choice in some use-case scenarios to solve Rubik’s Cube.

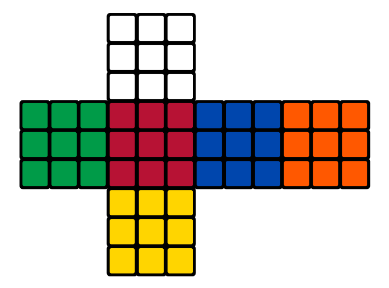
### Research Signification

* Train a neural network to predict a minimal number of moves required to solve a given example of Rubik's cube. At that point utilize the trained system as a heuristic distance estimator with a standard forward-search algorithm and compare the results with other heuristics.

# CHAPTER 2

## LITERATURE RIVIEW

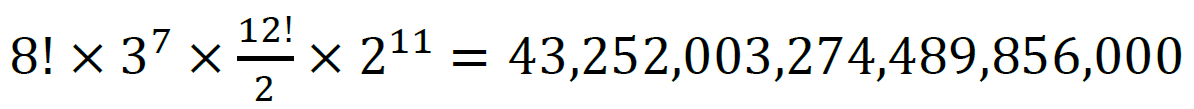
1. Introduction



**Figure 1.1: Rubik’s Cube in 2 – Dimensional View.**

Rubik’s cube, the famous puzzle, may serve as an example of a planning problem as its task is to find a sequence of actions leading form given initial state to specified goal state.

From a search perspective, the number of unique states of the standard 3x3x3 cube is ([(8! x 38) x (12! x 212)]/12), which are over 43 quintillion legal positions of the Rubik’s Cube.



**Figure 1.2 Rubik’s Cube Formula**

At approximate 26 quarter-moves, every state can be solved optimally. There is a single goal state and the branching factor is 12 when using a symmetry breaking representation. We consider a model utilizing quarter-move meaning that it is permitted to turn layers just by 90◦. The half-move representation allows sides to be rotated by 180◦ in a single move.

To be able to describe some different properties of the cube, we first need to define a couple of extra thoughts. The 3x3x3 solid shape comprises of 27 little blocks which is known as cubies. Some faces of these cubies are colored, or more precisely they carry colored stickers. In the goal state, all faces of the large cube contains only stickers of the same color.

In the event that we dismantled the cube square, we would get 8 corner- cubies, each of which carrying 3 colored stickers, 12 edge- cubies, each with 2 stickers on them and 6 central-cubies each having 1 color.

A cube of any size can easily be solved sub optimally using a simple algorithm that runs in time Θ (n2), where n is the size of the cube. Finding optimal solutions seems to be substantially harder, in spite of the fact that the complexity class of this task has long been unknown. It has only recently demonstrated that unravelling Rubik’s cube optimally is certainly NP- hard (M. Rudoy, 2017). Current state-of-the-art approaches for finding ideal or close ideal frequently utilize forward state space search using a pattern database as a heuristic (Nathan R.Sturtevant, 2014).

1. Pattern Database Learning

Pattern databases (PDBs) are precomputed answers for littler issues which are made from the first by abstracting-away some of its features. For instance, in the event that I just consider the 8 corner cubies of a standard 3x3x3 cube, I will be getting a cube’s which is considerable easier to solve. The entire state space of this smaller issue might be listed, solved optimally for each state and stored in a database. For each state of the standard cube, its will be able for me extend it on the example by ignoring everything except the corners, look-up this state in the database and use its evaluation as a lower bound on the length of the plan. The set of features that were consider in the smaller problem is called pattern and features that that are excluded in the pattern are ignored.

A single pattern never contains all cubies. Utilizing it as a heuristic lead to a state where all cubies contained in the pattern are effectively set however others are most certainly not. In such states, the heuristic value is 0 and the algorithm experiences considerable difficulties finding the goal state since it has no further guidance. For efficient searching it is necessary to combine several PDBs with different patterns or to combine PDB with other types of heuristics. There are many ways of combining the heuristics, from simple ones, like taking maximum, to more complex ones like additive PDBs or cost partitioning (Florian Pommerening, 2016).

1. Baseline Learning

Baseline method, neural network architecture for the weak learner. All architectures tested were trained on the task of predicting the correct move sequence when given a sequence of cube states. To encode each cube state, I use a one-hot encoding of sticker colours. There are 54 colors, and each can be one of 6 colors. Indicator variable *X*i,j is 1 if the *i*th sticker is the *j*th color, and 0 otherwise. This gives a total of 54 × 6 = 324 features.

An alternative representation, I did not try was representing the cube by the position and orientation of the 8 corner cubes and 12 edge cubes. The sticker-based representation was easier to implement, and initial results were promising enough to continue further work. Nevertheless, a cube representation may be worth pursuing.

Every baseline architecture used ends with 12 outputs, corresponding to the 12 possible face turns - each of the 6 faces can be rotated clockwise or anti-clockwise.

Different architecture choices (fully connected and recurrent) were tested while keeping the number of parameters in the model constant. The best results were achieved with LSTMs. (Kociemba, Herbert, 2016)

1. Boosting Learning

Boosting algorithms are a general class of ensemble methods that convert several weak learners into a single strong one. They have theoretical guarantees on convergence rates for error, but occasionally fail in practice. (Bengio, Yoshua, 2009)

They start by reviewing boosting algorithms from the literature, before proposing and testing their own variant. For the rest of this paper, *f*t denotes the weak learner for the *t*th iteration, *D*t is the distribution over data that ft is trained on, and *F*t is the strong learner at the end of the *t*th iteration. They also use standard classification notation, where *X* is the data space and *Y* is the label space. (Alexander Irpan, 2016)

1. Heuristic Learning

The task of heuristic learning is to consequently create a heuristic function for given problem based on some training data. The learning is normally completed a priory, where the training data are provided before the search. Heuristic can likewise be learned on-the-fly, where previous attempts to solve the problem serve as training data to learn future search strategy (Springer-Verlag, 2012).

Several attempts have been done to utilize NNs for the heuristic learning task (Austin Dionne, 2011). In the typical setting, an arrangement of features is computed for each state in the training set as well as the optimal distance-to-go to the nearest goal state, and the network is then used to learn a mapping from features to distance estimate. After the learning procedure is done, the system is utilized as a heuristic distance estimator together with an informed forward search algorithm like A\* or IDA\*.

Heuristics that are learned in this way provide no guarantees on admissibility. The objective of learning is with the goal that the heuristic would be close to the real value but not necessarily always admissible. For example, smaller than the real distance-to-go. Since search with an inadmissible heuristic doesn’t typically guarantee finding optimal solutions, this approach is just reasonable in situations where close-to- optimal solutions are sufficient. It is however possible to guarantee optimality even with an inadmissible heuristic by modifying the search strategy (Erez Karpas and Carmel Domshlak, 2012).

From the complexity perspective, the task of heuristic learning in general is hard. It is known that the task of finding ideal answers to some planning problems like generalized 15-puzzle, Sokoban, and many more is NP-hard or even harder. It is also known that with an accurate-enough heuristic, the search time may be polynomial. To be specific, if ∀x : (h∗(x) − h(x)) ∈ O(log(h∗(x))) where x are states, h is heuristic and h∗ is the real goal distance, then the search time is polynomial (Stuart J. Russell and Peter Norvig, 2010). It is therefore obvious that such heuristic cannot be computed in polynomial time unless some complexity classes collapse. The learned heuristic will most likely not have the capability to solve large problems optimally in polynomial time, but it may still outperform classic human-designed heuristics.

1. Comparation of the Learnings

**Table 1.2: Comparation of the Learnings**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Learnings** | **Pattern Database** | **Baseline** | **Boosting** | **Heuristic** |
| **Difference** | A pattern is the partial specification of a permutation (or state); that is, the tiles occupying certain locations are unspecified. | A baseline prediction algorithm provides a set of predictions that you can evaluate as you would any predictions for the problem. | Boosting is a general method for enhancing the performance of a learning algorithm. It is a method for finding an exceptionally precise classifier on the preparation set, by joining "weak hypotheses”, every one of which needs just to be decently exact on the preparation set. | A heuristic is a general dependable guideline, normally created through understanding, that is joined into basic leadership process keeping in mind the end goal to tackle an issue. Numerous chart look calculations, for example, A∗, utilize heuristic-based pursuit. |

# CHAPTER 3

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

###### Quantitative Research

Quantitative research methods are research methods dealing with numbers and anything that is measurable in a systematic way of investigation of phenomena and their relationships. It is applied when a question is answered based on relationships within measurable variables with an intention to explain, predict and control a phenomenon (Leedy 1993).

An entire quantitative study usually ends with confirmation or disconfirmation of the hypothesis tested. Researchers using the quantitative method identify one or a few variables that they intend to use in their research work and proceed with data collection related to those variables.

Using a scientific approach, quantitative methods often deal with results computation and system analysis in the field of Information Technology (IT). The objective of quantitative method is to develop and employ models based on mathematical approach, hypotheses and theories pertaining to the nature of an IT phenomenon. The process of measurement is the focus on quantitative method due to its connectivity between empirical observation and mathematical expression of quantitative relationships, which is also known as iterative process where evidence is evaluated, and hypotheses and theories are refined with some technical advances, leveraging on statistical approach.

Data collection based on a hypothesis or theory and continues with application of descriptive or inferential statistics is where quantitative method typically begins. Surveys and observations are some examples that been used widely with statistical association.

For an example, when a researcher is interested to investigate the “*effectiveness of expert system for managing an application in open source environment*”, the researcher will formulate the research question such as, “*How effective is the expert system in comparison to case-based reasoning for an application module development*”.

###### Informed Search Algorithm

It is not difficult to see that uninformed search will pursue options that lead away from the goal as easily as it pursues options that lead towards the goal. For any but the smallest problems this leads to searches that take unacceptable amounts of time and/or space. Informed search tries to reduce the amount of search that must be done by making intelligent choices for the nodes that are selected for expansion. This implies the existence of some way of evaluating the likelihood that a given node is on the solution path. In general, this is done using a **heuristic** function.

The strategies used in this project design is admissible heuristics with different heuristics, and machine-learned estimators.

**Table 1.2: Strategies used in observation studies**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **No.** | **Strategies** | |
| 1 | Informed Search | Admissible Heuristics |
| 2 | Inadmissible Heuristics |
| 3 | Learning | Approximate Function |
| 4 | Generating Data |
| 5 | Compare the results | |

* + 1. **Admissible Heuristics**

*A heuristic function h(n) is called* ***admissible*** *if for all nodes one has h(n) < k(n) where k(n) is the actual distance to the goal from n. Both of the heuristics given above are admissible.*

*If all the costs are positive and the heuristic is admissible then A\* terminates and finds the shortest path. Like breadth first search A\* can use a lot of memory. If we combine the iterative deepening idea with A\* one gets an algorithm called IDA\* (for iterative deepening A\*). The space is searched depth first for successively larger bounds on the heuristic function f(n).*

* + 1. **Inadmissible Heuristics**

fregrehgrehte

###### Train the model

1. **Approximate Function**

gfregregewrg

1. **Generating Data**

frwqgfrewqgfrewq

###### Compare the results

Frewgfregf3r3gfr3

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