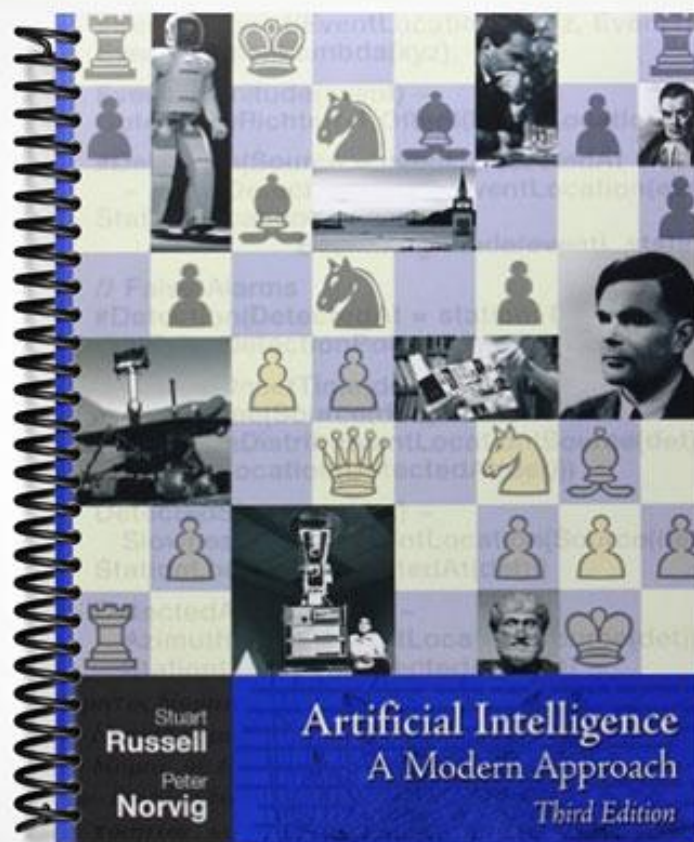


# SOLUTIONS MANUAL



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**Russell**  
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**Norvig**

**Artificial Intelligence**  
**A Modern Approach**  
*Third Edition*

*Instructor's Manual:*  
*Exercise Solutions (Chapters 1–6)*  
*for*  
**Artificial Intelligence**  
A Modern Approach  
*Third Edition*

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# Preface

This Instructor's Solution Manual provides solutions (or at least solution sketches) for almost all of the 400 exercises in *Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach (Third Edition)*. We only give actual code for a few of the programming exercises; writing a lot of code would not be that helpful, if only because we don't know what language you prefer.

In many cases, we give ideas for discussion and follow-up questions, and we try to explain *why* we designed each exercise.

There is more supplementary material that we want to offer to the instructor, but we have decided to do it through the medium of the World Wide Web rather than through a CD or printed Instructor's Manual. The idea is that this solution manual contains the material that must be kept secret from students, but the Web site contains material that can be updated and added to in a more timely fashion. The address for the web site is:

`http://aima.cs.berkeley.edu`

and the address for the online Instructor's Guide is:

`http://aima.cs.berkeley.edu/instructors.html`

There you will find:

- Instructions on how to join the **aima-instructors** discussion list. We strongly recommend that you join so that you can receive updates, corrections, notification of new versions of this Solutions Manual, additional exercises and exam questions, etc., in a timely manner.
- Source code for programs from the text. We offer code in Lisp, Python, and Java, and point to code developed by others in C++ and Prolog.
- Programming resources and supplemental texts.
- Figures from the text, for making your own slides.
- Terminology from the index of the book.
- Other courses using the book that have home pages on the Web. You can see example syllabi and assignments here. Please *do not* put solution sets for AIMA exercises on public web pages!
- AI Education information on teaching introductory AI courses.
- Other sites on the Web with information on AI. Organized by chapter in the book; check this for supplemental material.

We welcome suggestions for new exercises, new environments and agents, etc. The book belongs to you, the instructor, as much as us. We hope that you enjoy teaching from it, that these supplemental materials help, and that you will share your supplements and experiences with other instructors.



# *Solutions for Chapter 1*

## Introduction

### 1.1

- a. Dictionary definitions of **intelligence** talk about “the capacity to acquire and apply knowledge” or “the faculty of thought and reason” or “the ability to comprehend and profit from experience.” These are all reasonable answers, but if we want something quantifiable we would use something like “the ability to apply knowledge in order to perform better in an environment.”
- b. We define **artificial intelligence** as the study and construction of agent programs that perform well in a given environment, for a given agent architecture.
- c. We define an **agent** as an entity that takes action in response to percepts from an environment.
- d. We define **rationality** as the property of a system which does the “right thing” given what it knows. See section 2.2.1 for a more formal counterpart. Both describe perfect rationality, however; see Section 27.3.
- e. We define **logical reasoning** as the deductive inference of new sentences from old.

### 1.2 See the solution for exercise 26.1 for some discussion of potential objections.

The probability of fooling an interrogator depends on just how unskilled the interrogator is. One entrant in the 2002 Loebner prize competition (which is not quite a real Turing Test) did fool one judge, although if you look at the transcript, it is hard to imagine what that judge was thinking. There certainly have been examples of a chatbot or other online agent fooling humans. For example, see See Lenny Foner’s account of the Julia chatbot at [foner.www.media.mit.edu/people/foner/Julia/](http://foner.www.media.mit.edu/people/foner/Julia/). We’d say the chance today is something like 10%, with the variation depending more on the skill of the interrogator rather than the program. In 50 years, we expect that the entertainment industry (movies, video games, commercials) will have made sufficient investments in artificial actors to create very credible impersonators.

**1.3** Yes, they are rational, because slower, deliberative actions would tend to result in more damage to the hand. If “intelligent” means “applying knowledge” or “using thought and reasoning” then it does not require intelligence to make a reflex action.

**1.4** No. IQ test scores correlate well with certain other measures, such as success in college, but only if they’re measuring fairly normal humans. The IQ test doesn’t measure everything.

A program that is specialized only for IQ tests (and specialized further only for the analogy part) would very likely perform poorly on other measures of intelligence. See *The Mismeasure of Man* by Stephen Jay Gould, Norton, 1981 or *Multiple intelligences: the theory in practice* by Howard Gardner, Basic Books, 1993 for more on IQ tests, what they measure, and what other aspects there are to “intelligence.”

**1.5** In order of magnitude figures, the computational power of the computer is 100 times larger.

**1.6** Just as you are unaware of all the steps that go into making your heart beat, you are also unaware of most of what happens in your thoughts. You do have a conscious awareness of some of your thought processes, but the majority remains opaque to your consciousness. The field of psychoanalysis is based on the idea that one needs trained professional help to analyze one’s own thoughts.

### **1.7**

- Although bar code scanning is in a sense computer vision, these are not AI systems. The problem of reading a bar code is an extremely limited and artificial form of visual interpretation, and it has been carefully designed to be as simple as possible, given the hardware.
- In many respects. The problem of determining the relevance of a web page to a query is a problem in natural language understanding, and the techniques are related to those we will discuss in Chapters 22 and 23. Search engines like Ask.com, which group the retrieved pages into categories, use clustering techniques analogous to those we discuss in Chapter 20. Likewise, other functionalities provided by a search engines use intelligent techniques; for instance, the spelling corrector uses a form of data mining based on observing users’ corrections of their own spelling errors. On the other hand, the problem of indexing billions of web pages in a way that allows retrieval in seconds is a problem in database design, not in artificial intelligence.
- To a limited extent. Such menus tends to use vocabularies which are very limited – e.g. the digits, “Yes”, and “No” — and within the designers’ control, which greatly simplifies the problem. On the other hand, the programs must deal with an uncontrolled space of all kinds of voices and accents.

The voice activated directory assistance programs used by telephone companies, which must deal with a large and changing vocabulary are certainly AI programs.

- This is borderline. There is something to be said for viewing these as intelligent agents working in cyberspace. The task is sophisticated, the information available is partial, the techniques are heuristic (not guaranteed optimal), and the state of the world is dynamic. All of these are characteristic of intelligent activities. On the other hand, the task is very far from those normally carried out in human cognition.

**1.8** Presumably the brain has evolved so as to carry out this operations on visual images, but the mechanism is only accessible for one particular purpose in this particular cognitive task of image processing. Until about two centuries ago there was no advantage in people (or animals) being able to compute the convolution of a Gaussian for any other purpose.

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The really interesting question here is what we mean by saying that the “actual person” can do something. The person can see, but he cannot compute the convolution of a Gaussian; but computing that convolution is *part* of seeing. This is beyond the scope of this solution manual.

**1.9** Evolution tends to perpetuate organisms (and combinations and mutations of organisms) that are successful enough to reproduce. That is, evolution favors organisms that can optimize their performance measure to at least survive to the age of sexual maturity, and then be able to win a mate. Rationality just means optimizing performance measure, so this is in line with evolution.

**1.10** This question is intended to be about the essential nature of the AI problem and what is required to solve it, but could also be interpreted as a sociological question about the current practice of AI research.

A *science* is a field of study that leads to the acquisition of empirical knowledge by the scientific method, which involves falsifiable hypotheses about what is. A pure *engineering* field can be thought of as taking a fixed base of empirical knowledge and using it to solve problems of interest to society. Of course, engineers do bits of science—e.g., they measure the properties of building materials—and scientists do bits of engineering to create new devices and so on.

As described in Section 1.1, the “human” side of AI is clearly an empirical science—called cognitive science these days—because it involves psychological experiments designed out to find out how human cognition actually works. What about the the “rational” side? If we view it as studying the abstract relationship among an arbitrary task environment, a computing device, and the program for that computing device that yields the best performance in the task environment, then the rational side of AI is really mathematics and engineering; it does not require any empirical knowledge about the *actual* world—and the *actual* task environment—that we inhabit; that a given program will do well in a given environment is a *theorem*. (The same is true of pure decision theory.) In practice, however, we are interested in task environments that do approximate the actual world, so even the rational side of AI involves finding out what the actual world is like. For example, in studying rational agents that communicate, we are interested in task environments that contain humans, so we have to find out what human language is like. In studying perception, we tend to focus on sensors such as cameras that extract useful information from the actual world. (In a world without light, cameras wouldn’t be much use.) Moreover, to design vision algorithms that are good at extracting information from camera images, we need to understand the actual world that generates those images. Obtaining the required understanding of scene characteristics, object types, surface markings, and so on is a quite different kind of science from ordinary physics, chemistry, biology, and so on, but it is still science.

In summary, AI is definitely engineering but it would not be especially useful to us if it were not also an empirical science concerned with those aspects of the real world that affect the design of intelligent systems for that world.

**1.11** This depends on your definition of “intelligent” and “tell.” In one sense computers only do what the programmers command them to do, but in another sense what the programmers



consciously tells the computer to do often has very little to do with what the computer actually does. Anyone who has written a program with an ornery bug knows this, as does anyone who has written a successful machine learning program. So in one sense Samuel “told” the computer “learn to play checkers better than I do, and then play that way,” but in another sense he told the computer “follow this learning algorithm” and it learned to play. So we’re left in the situation where you may or may not consider learning to play checkers to be a sign of intelligence (or you may think that learning to play in the right way requires intelligence, but not in this way), and you may think the intelligence resides in the programmer or in the computer.

**1.12** The point of this exercise is to notice the parallel with the previous one. Whatever you decided about whether computers could be intelligent in 1.11, you are committed to making the same conclusion about animals (including humans), *unless* your reasons for deciding whether something is intelligent take into account the mechanism (programming via genes versus programming via a human programmer). Note that Searle makes this appeal to mechanism in his Chinese Room argument (see Chapter 26).

**1.13** Again, the choice you make in 1.11 drives your answer to this question.

**1.14**

- a. (ping-pong) A reasonable level of proficiency was achieved by Andersson’s robot (Andersson, 1988).
- b. (driving in Cairo) No. Although there has been a lot of progress in automated driving, all such systems currently rely on certain relatively constant clues: that the road has shoulders and a center line, that the car ahead will travel a predictable course, that cars will keep to their side of the road, and so on. To our knowledge, none are able to avoid obstacles or other cars or to change lanes as appropriate; their skills are mostly confined to staying in one lane at constant speed. Driving in downtown Cairo is too unpredictable for any of these to work.
- c. (shopping at the market) No. No robot can currently put together the tasks of moving in a crowded environment, using vision to identify a wide variety of objects, and grasping the objects (including squishable vegetables) without damaging them. The component pieces are nearly able to handle the individual tasks, but it would take a major integration effort to put it all together.
- d. (shopping on the web) Yes. Software robots are capable of handling such tasks, particularly if the design of the web grocery shopping site does not change radically over time.
- e. (bridge) Yes. Programs such as GIB now play at a solid level.
- f. (theorem proving) Yes. For example, the proof of Robbins algebra described on page 360.
- g. (funny story) No. While some computer-generated prose and poetry is hysterically funny, this is invariably unintentional, except in the case of programs that echo back prose that they have memorized.

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- h. (legal advice) Yes, in some cases. AI has a long history of research into applications of automated legal reasoning. Two outstanding examples are the Prolog-based expert systems used in the UK to guide members of the public in dealing with the intricacies of the social security and nationality laws. The social security system is said to have saved the UK government approximately \$150 million in its first year of operation. However, extension into more complex areas such as contract law awaits a satisfactory encoding of the vast web of common-sense knowledge pertaining to commercial transactions and agreement and business practices.
  - i. (translation) Yes. In a limited way, this is already being done. See Kay, Gawron and Norvig (1994) and Wahlster (2000) for an overview of the field of speech translation, and some limitations on the current state of the art.
  - j. (surgery) Yes. Robots are increasingly being used for surgery, although always under the command of a doctor.

### 1.15

The progress made in this contests is a matter of fact, but the impact of that progress is a matter of opinion.

- **DARPA Grand Challenge for Robotic Cars** In 2004 the Grand Challenge was a 240 km race through the Mojave Desert. It clearly stressed the state of the art of autonomous driving, and in fact no competitor finished the race. The best team, CMU, completed only 12 of the 240 km. In 2005 the race featured a 212km course with fewer curves and wider roads than the 2004 race. Five teams finished, with Stanford finishing first, edging out two CMU entries. This was hailed as a great achievement for robotics and for the Challenge format. In 2007 the Urban Challenge put cars in a city setting, where they had to obey traffic laws and avoid other cars. This time CMU edged out Stanford. The competition appears to have been a good testing ground to put theory into practice, something that the failures of 2004 showed was needed. But it is important that the competition was done at just the right time, when there was theoretical work to consolidate, as demonstrated by the earlier work by Dickmanns (whose VaMP car drove autonomously for 158km in 1995) and by Pomerleau (whose Navlab car drove 5000km across the USA, also in 1995, with the steering controlled autonomously for 98% of the trip, although the brakes and accelerator were controlled by a human driver).
- **International Planning Competition** In 1998, five planners competed: Blackbox, HSP, IPP, SGP, and STAN. The result page (<ftp://ftp.cs.yale.edu/pub/mcdermott/aipscomp-results.html>) stated “all of these planners performed very well, compared to the state of the art a few years ago.” Most plans found were 30 or 40 steps, with some over 100 steps. In 2008, the competition had expanded quite a bit: there were more tracks (satisficing vs. optimizing; sequential vs. temporal; static vs. learning). There were about 25 planners, including submissions from the 1998 groups (or their descendants) and new groups. Solutions found were much longer than in 1998. In sum, the field has progressed quite a bit in participation, in breadth, and in power of the planners. In the 1990s it was possible to publish a Planning paper that discussed

only a theoretical approach; now it is necessary to show quantitative evidence of the efficacy of an approach. The field is stronger and more mature now, and it seems that the planning competition deserves some of the credit. However, some researchers feel that too much emphasis is placed on the particular classes of problems that appear in the competitions, and not enough on real-world applications.

- **Robocup Robotics Soccer** This competition has proved extremely popular, attracting 407 teams from 43 countries in 2009 (up from 38 teams from 11 countries in 1997). The robotic platform has advanced to a more capable humanoid form, and the strategy and tactics have advanced as well. Although the competition has spurred innovations in distributed control, the winning teams in recent years have relied more on individual ball-handling skills than on advanced teamwork. The competition has served to increase interest and participation in robotics, although it is not clear how well they are advancing towards the goal of defeating a human team by 2050.
- **TREC Information Retrieval Conference** This is one of the oldest competitions, started in 1992. The competitions have served to bring together a community of researchers, have led to a large literature of publications, and have seen progress in participation and in quality of results over the years. In the early years, TREC served its purpose as a place to do evaluations of retrieval algorithms on text collections that were large for the time. However, starting around 2000 TREC became less relevant as the advent of the World Wide Web created a corpus that was available to anyone and was much larger than anything TREC had created, and the development of commercial search engines surpassed academic research.
- **NIST Open Machine Translation Evaluation** This series of evaluations (explicitly not labelled a “competition”) has existed since 2001. Since then we have seen great advances in Machine Translation quality as well as in the number of languages covered. The dominant approach has switched from one based on grammatical rules to one that relies primarily on statistics. The NIST evaluations seem to track these changes well, but don’t appear to be driving the changes.

Overall, we see that whatever you measure is bound to increase over time. For most of these competitions, the measurement was a useful one, and the state of the art has progressed. In the case of ICAPS, some planning researchers worry that too much attention has been lavished on the competition itself. In some cases, progress has left the competition behind, as in TREC, where the resources available to commercial search engines outpaced those available to academic researchers. In this case the TREC competition was useful—it helped train many of the people who ended up in commercial search engines—and in no way drew energy away from new ideas.