

Set 5: Constraint Satisfaction Problems

ICS 271 Fall 2013

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Outline

- **The constraint network model**
 - Variables, domains, constraints, constraint graph, solutions
- **Examples:**
 - graph-coloring, 8-queen, cryptarithmic, crossword puzzles, vision problems, scheduling, design
- **The search space and naive backtracking,**
- **The constraint graph**
- **Consistency enforcing algorithms**
 - arc-consistency, AC-1, AC-3
- **Backtracking strategies**
 - Forward-checking, dynamic variable orderings
- **Special case: solving tree problems**
- **Local search for CSPs**

Constraint satisfaction problems (CSPs)

Standard search problem:

state is a “black box”—any old data structure
that supports goal test, eval, successor

CSP:

state is defined by *variables* X_i with *values* from *domain* D_i

goal test is a set of *constraints* specifying
allowable combinations of values for subsets of variables

Simple example of a *formal representation language*

Allows useful *general-purpose* algorithms with more power
than standard search algorithms

Constraint Satisfaction

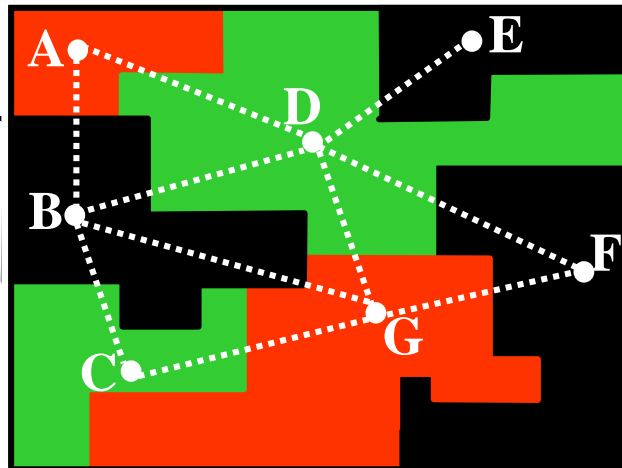
Example: map coloring

Variables - countries (A,B,C,etc.)

Values - colors (e.g., red, green, yellow)

Constraints: $A \neq B$, $A \neq D$, $D \neq E$, etc.

A	B
red	green
red	yellow
green	red
green	yellow
yellow	green
yellow	red



Example: Map-Coloring



Variables WA, NT, Q, NSW, V, SA, T

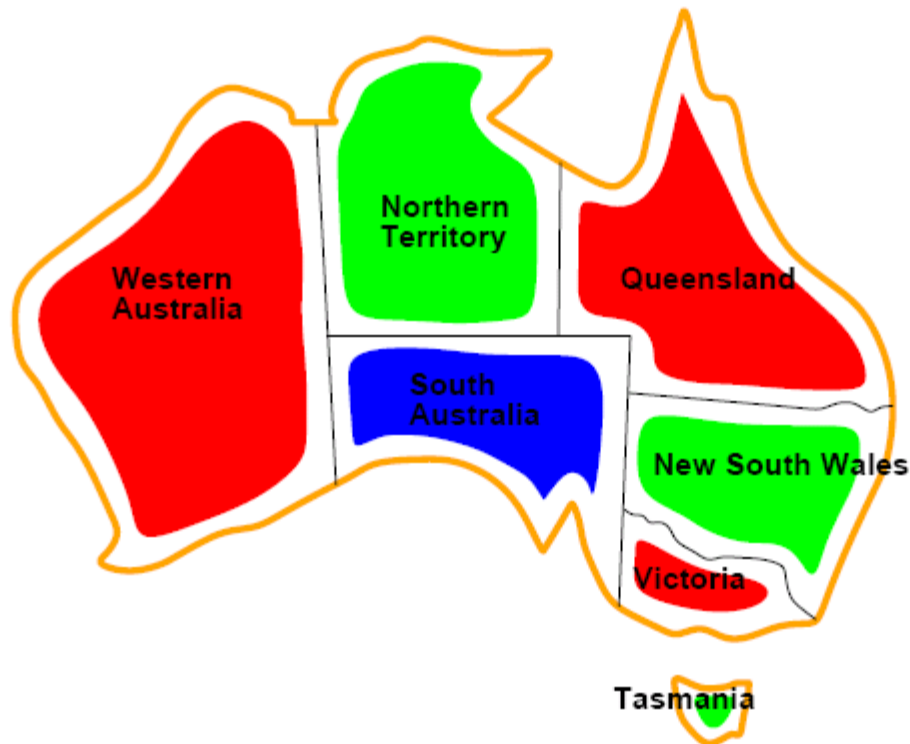
Domains $D_i = \{red, green, blue\}$

Constraints: adjacent regions must have different colors

e.g., $WA \neq NT$ (if the language allows this), or

$(WA, NT) \in \{(red, green), (red, blue), (green, red), (green, blue), \dots\}$

Example: Map-Coloring contd.

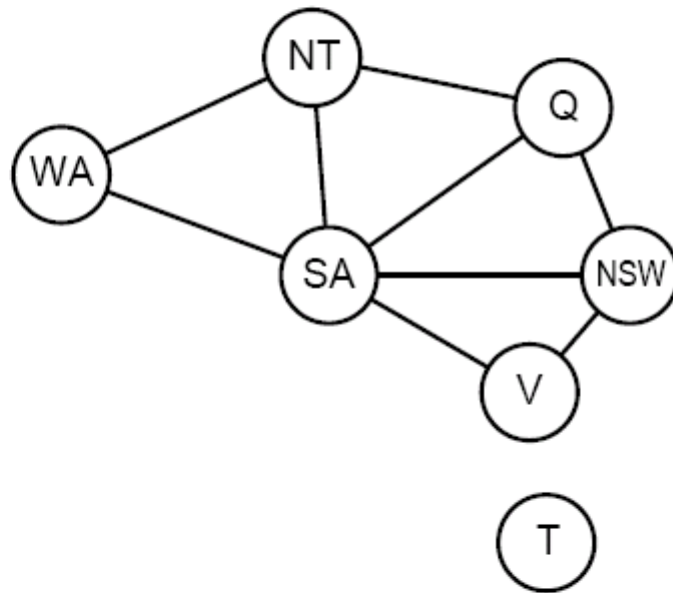


Solutions are assignments satisfying all constraints, e.g.,
 $\{WA = red, NT = green, Q = red, NSW = green, V = red, SA = blue, T = green\}$

Constraint graph

Binary CSP: each constraint relates at most two variables

Constraint graph: nodes are variables, arcs show constraints



General-purpose CSP algorithms use the graph structure to speed up search. E.g., Tasmania is an independent subproblem!

Sudoku

		2	4		6			
8	6	5	1			2		
	1				8	6		9
9				4		8	6	
	4	7				1	9	
	5	8		6				3
4		6	9				7	
		9			4	5	8	1
			3		2	9		

Each row, column and major block must be all different

“Well posed” if it has unique solution: **27 constraints**

Sudoku

		2	4		6			
8	6	5	1			2		
	1				8	6		9
9				4		8	6	
	4	7				1	9	
	5	8		6				3
4		6	9				7	2
		9			4	5	8	1
			3		2	9		

•**Variables:** 81 slots

•**Domains** =
 $\{1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9\}$

•**Constraints:**
 •27 not-equal

**Constraint
propagation**

Each row, column and major block must be all different

“Well posed” if it has unique solution: **27 constraints**

Varieties of CSPs

Discrete variables

finite domains; size $d \Rightarrow O(d^n)$ complete assignments

- ◇ e.g., Boolean CSPs, incl. Boolean satisfiability (NP-complete)

infinite domains (integers, strings, etc.)

- ◇ e.g., job scheduling, variables are start/end days for each job
- ◇ need a **constraint language**, e.g., $StartJob_1 + 5 \leq StartJob_3$
- ◇ **linear** constraints solvable, **nonlinear** undecidable

Continuous variables

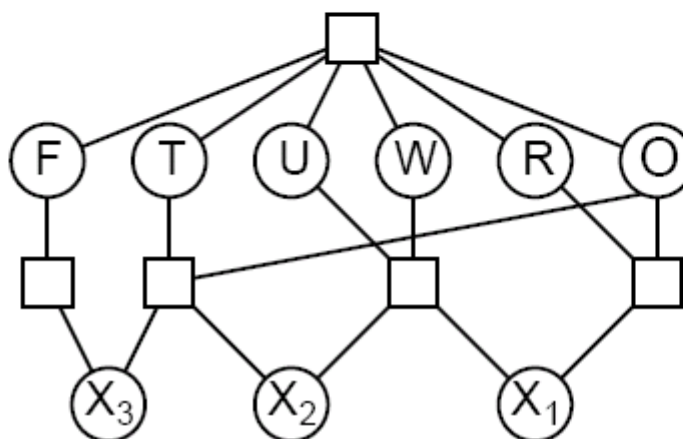
- ◇ e.g., start/end times for Hubble Telescope observations
- ◇ linear constraints solvable in poly time by LP methods

Varieties of constraints

- **Unary** constraints involve a single variable,
 - e.g., $SA \neq \text{green}$
 -
- **Binary** constraints involve pairs of variables,
 - e.g., $SA \neq WA$
 -
- **Higher-order** constraints involve 3 or more variables,
 - e.g., cryptarithmic column constraints
 -

Example: Cryptarithmic

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{TWO} \\
 + \text{TWO} \\
 \hline
 \text{FOUR}
 \end{array}$$



Variables: $F\ T\ U\ W\ R\ O\ X_1\ X_2\ X_3$

Domains: $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$

Constraints

$\text{alldiff}(F, T, U, W, R, O)$

$O + O = R + 10 \cdot X_1$, etc.

Real-world CSPs

Assignment problems

e.g., who teaches what class

Timetabling problems

e.g., which class is offered when and where?

Hardware configuration

Spreadsheets

Transportation scheduling

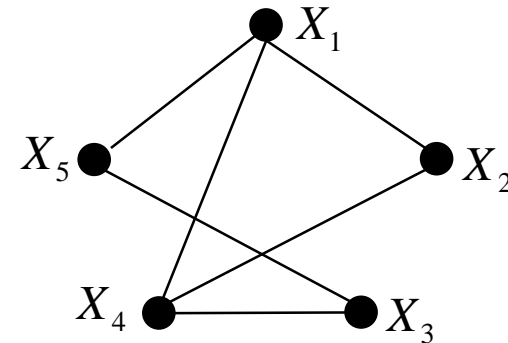
Factory scheduling

Floorplanning

Notice that many real-world problems involve real-valued variables

A network of binary constraints

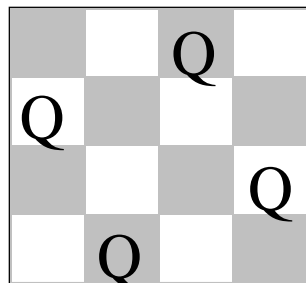
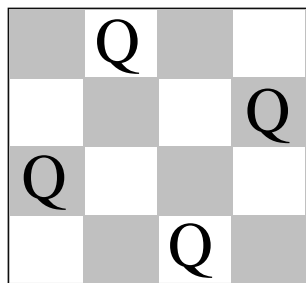
- **Variables**
 - X_1, \dots, X_n
- **Domains**
 - of discrete values: D_1, \dots, D_n
- **Binary constraints:**
 - R_{ij} which represent the list of allowed pairs of values, R_{ij} is a subset of the Cartesian product: $D_i \times D_j$.
- **Constraint graph:**
 - A node for each variable and an arc for each constraint
- **Solution:**
 - An assignment of a value from its domain to each variable such that no constraint is violated.
- **A network of constraints represents the relation of all solutions.**



$$sol = \{ (x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid (x_i, x_j) \in R_{ij}, x_i \in D_i, x_j \in D_j \}$$

Example 1: The 4-queen problem

Place 4 Queens on a chess board of 4x4 such that no two queens reside in the same row, column or diagonal.



Standard CSP formulation of the problem:

- **Variables:** each row is a variable.

	1	2	3	4
X_1			Q	
X_2	Q			
X_3				Q
X_4		Q		

- **Domains:** $D_i = \{1,2,3,4\}$.

- **Constraints:** There are $\binom{4}{2} = 6$ constraints involved:

$$R_{12} = \{(1,3)(1,4)(2,4)(3,1)(4,1)(4,2)\}$$

$$R_{13} = \{(1,2)(1,4)(2,1)(2,3)(3,2)(3,4)(4,1)(4,3)\}$$

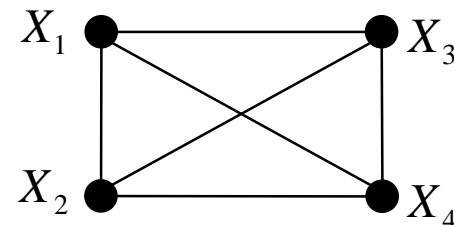
$$R_{14} = \{(1,2)(1,3)(2,1)(2,3)(2,4)(3,1)(3,2)(3,4)(4,2)(4,3)\}$$

$$R_{23} = \{(1,3)(1,4)(2,4)(3,1)(4,1)(4,2)\}$$

$$R_{24} = \{(1,2)(1,4)(2,1)(2,3)(3,2)(3,4)(4,1)(4,3)\}$$

$$R_{34} = \{(1,3)(1,4)(2,4)(3,1)(4,1)(4,2)\}$$

- **Constraint Graph :**



Standard search formulation (incremental)

Let's start with the straightforward, dumb approach, then fix it

States are defined by the values assigned so far

- ◇ **Initial state**: the empty assignment, $\{ \}$
 - ◇ **Successor function**: assign a value to an unassigned variable that does not conflict with current assignment.
⇒ fail if no legal assignments (not fixable!)
 - ◇ **Goal test**: the current assignment is complete
- 1) This is the same for all CSPs!
 - 2) Every solution appears at depth n with n variables
⇒ use depth-first search
 - 3) Path is irrelevant, so can also use complete-state formulation
 - 4) $b = (n - \ell)d$ at depth ℓ , hence $n!d^n$ leaves!!!!

Backtracking search

Variable assignments are **commutative**, i.e.,

$[WA = red \text{ then } NT = green]$ same as $[NT = green \text{ then } WA = red]$

Only need to consider assignments to a single variable at each node

$\Rightarrow b = d$ and there are d^n leaves

Depth-first search for CSPs with single-variable assignments
is called **backtracking** search

Backtracking search is the basic uninformed algorithm for CSPs

Can solve n -queens for $n \approx 25$

The search space

- **Definition:** given an ordering of the variables X_1, \dots, X_n
 - **a state:**
 - is an assignment to a subset of variables that is consistent.
 - **Operators:**
 - add an assignment to the next variable that does not violate any constraint.
 - **Goal state:**
 - a consistent assignment to **all** the variables.

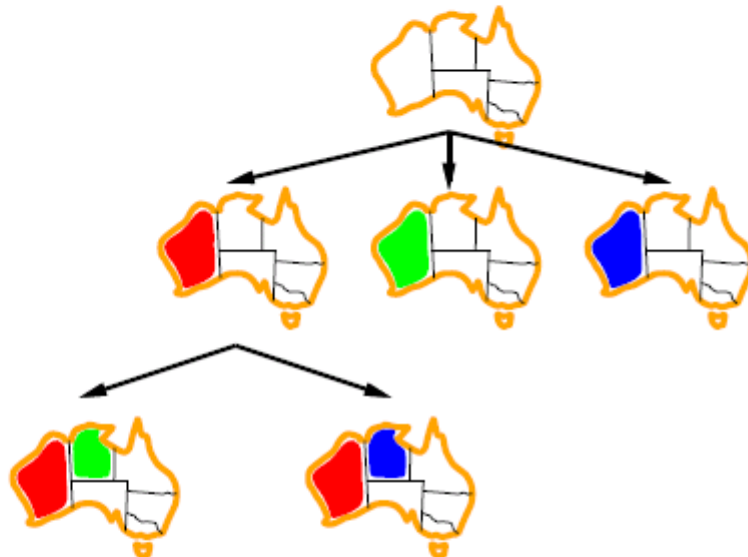
Backtracking example



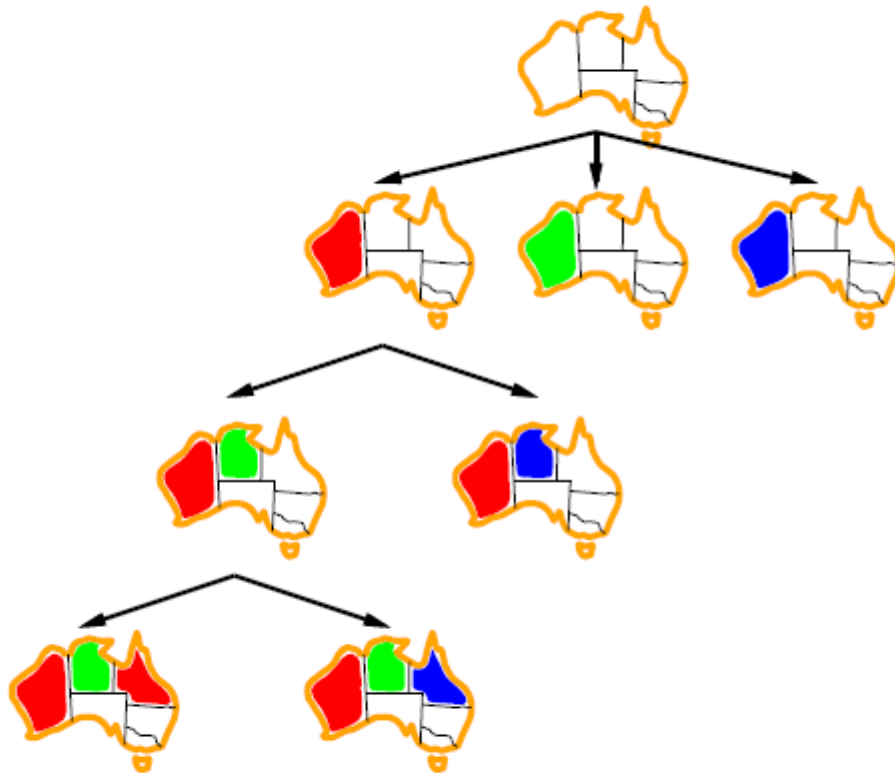
Backtracking example



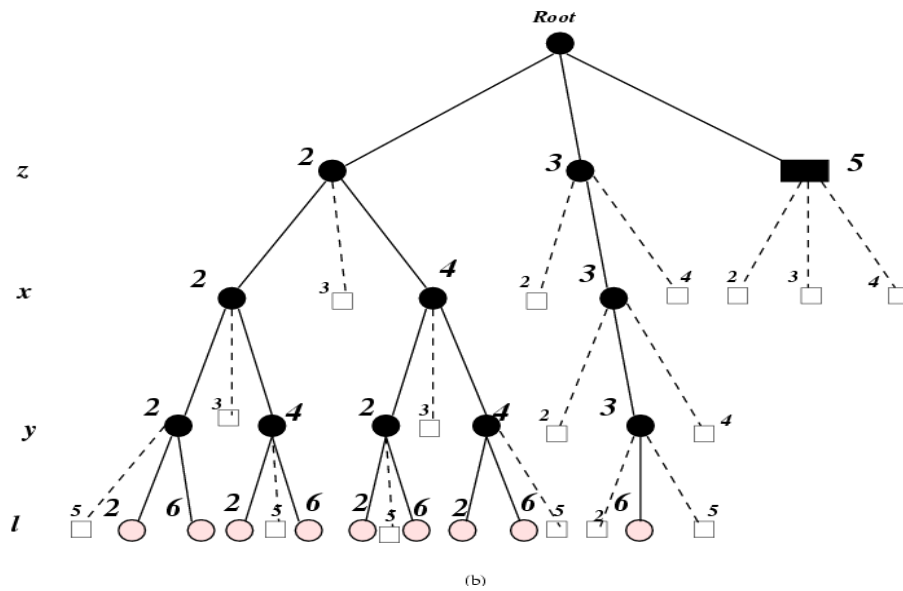
Backtracking example



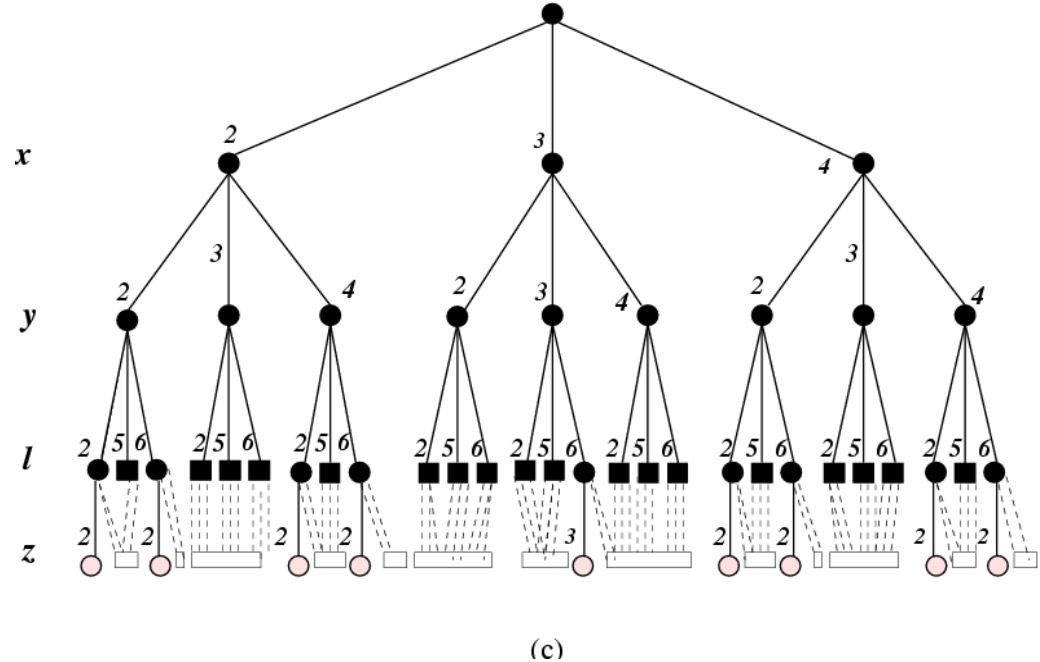
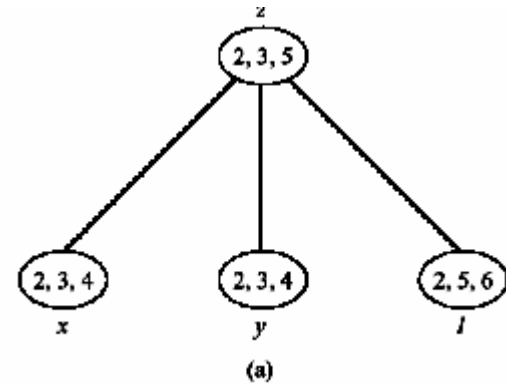
Backtracking example



The effect of variable ordering



z divides x, y and t



Backtracking

```
procedure BACKTRACKING
Input: A constraint network  $P = (X, D, C)$ .
Output: Either a solution, or notification that the network is inconsistent.

   $i \leftarrow 1$                                 (initialize variable counter)
   $D'_i \leftarrow D_i$                         (copy domain)
  while  $1 \leq i \leq n$ 
    instantiate  $x_i \leftarrow \text{SELECTVALUE}$ 
    if  $x_i$  is null                            (no value was returned)
       $i \leftarrow i - 1$                     (backtrack)
    else
       $i \leftarrow i + 1$                     (step forward)
       $D'_i \leftarrow D_i$ 
    end while
  if  $i = 0$ 
    return "inconsistent"
  else
    return instantiated values of  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ 
  end procedure

subprocedure SELECTVALUE (return a value in  $D'_i$  consistent with  $\vec{a}_{i-1}$ )

  while  $D'_i$  is not empty
    select an arbitrary element  $a \in D'_i$ , and remove  $a$  from  $D'_i$ 
    if  $\text{CONSISTENT}(\vec{a}_{i-1}, x_i = a)$ 
      return  $a$ 
    end while
  return null                                (no consistent value)
end procedure
```

Figure 5.4: The backtracking algorithm.

- **Complexity of extending a partial solution:**
 - **Complexity of consistent:** $O(e \log t)$, t bounds #tuples, e bounds #constraints
 - **Complexity of selectvalue:** $O(e k \log t)$, k bounds domain size

A coloring problem

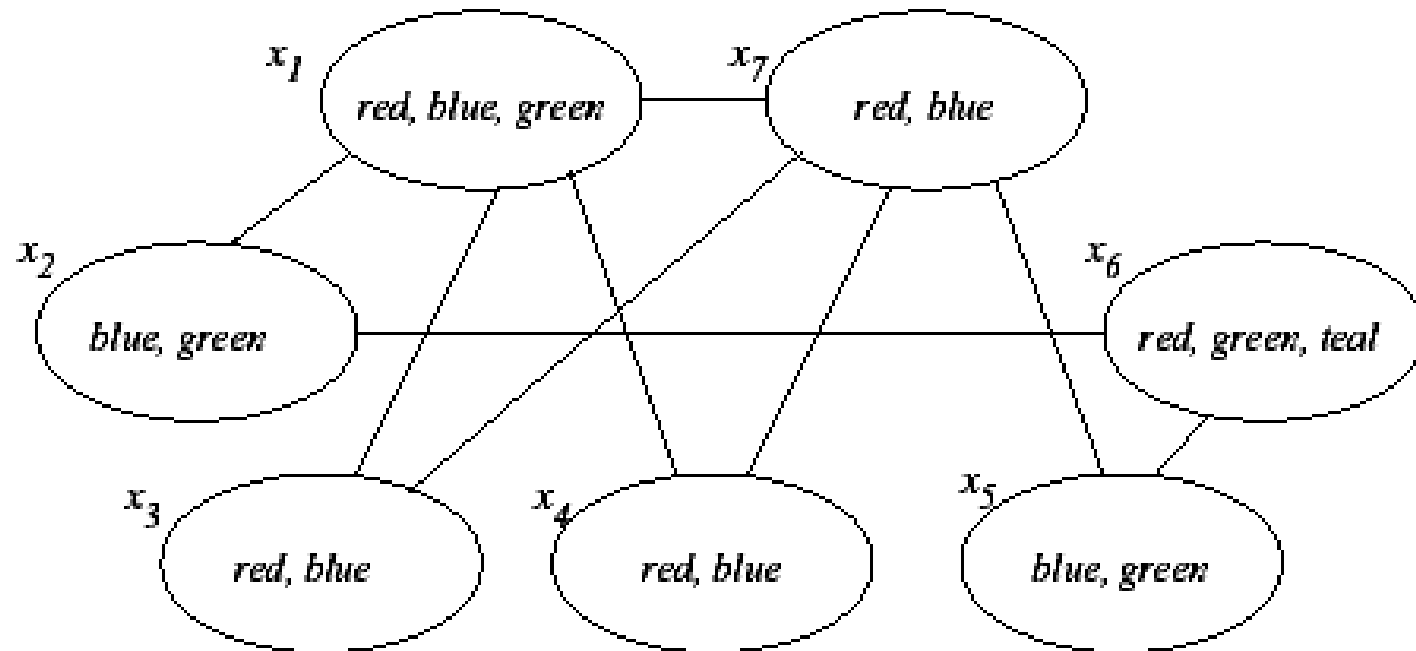
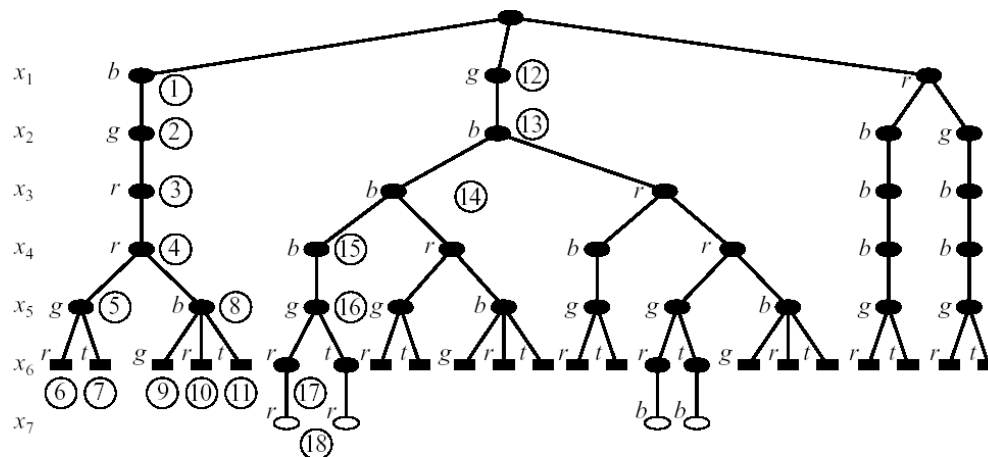
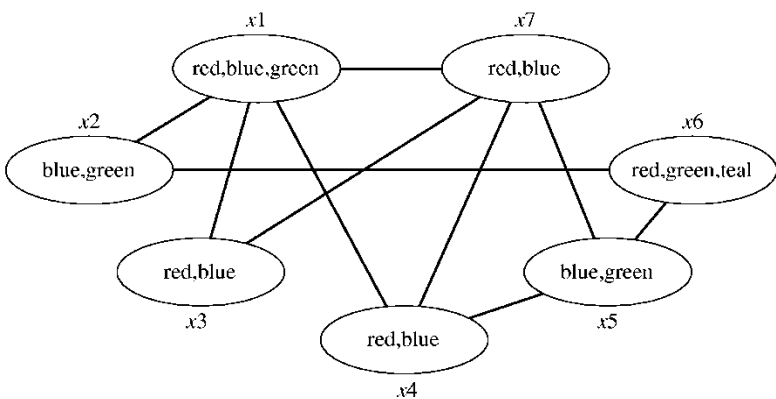
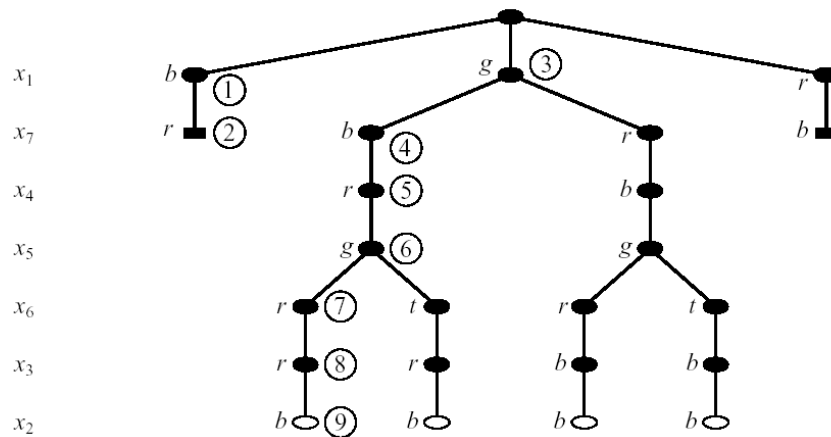


Figure 5.3: A coloring problem with variables (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_7) . The domain of each variable is written inside the corresponding node. Each arc represents the constraint that the two variables it connects must be assigned different colors.

Backtracking Search for a Solution

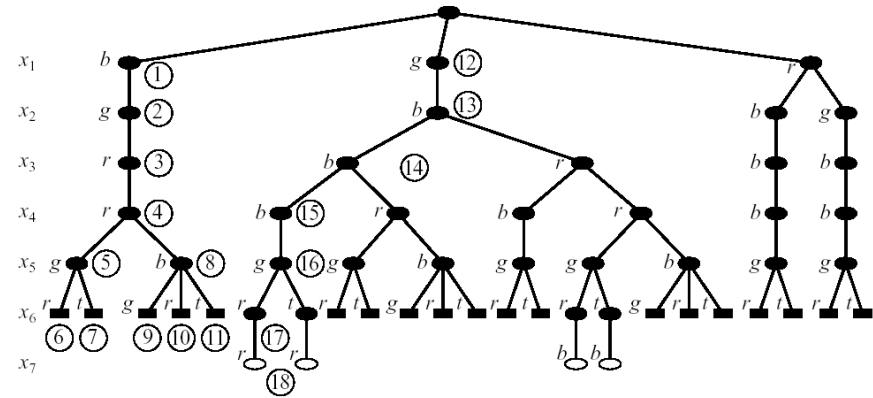
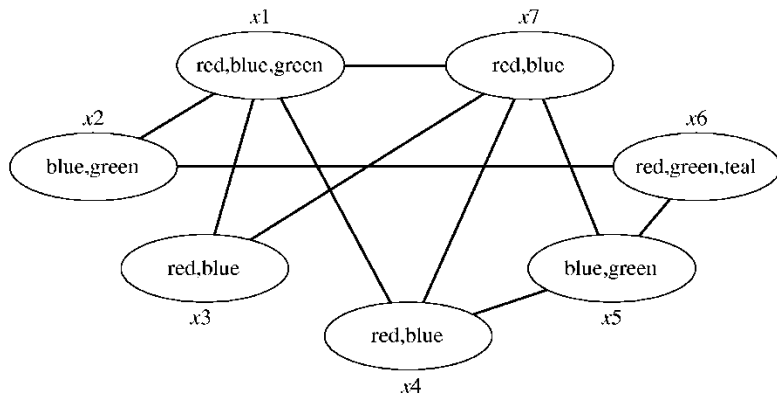


(a)

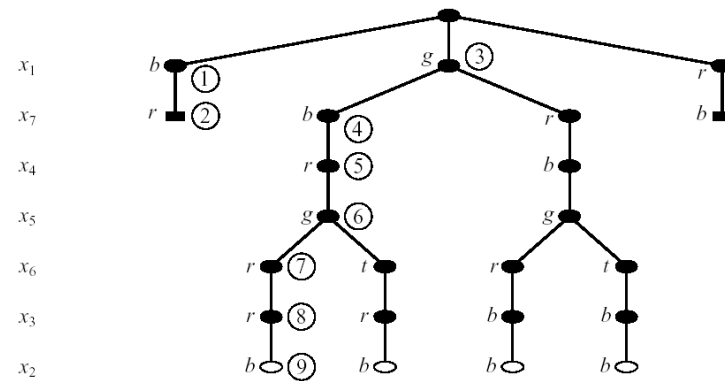


(b)

Backtracking Search for a Solution

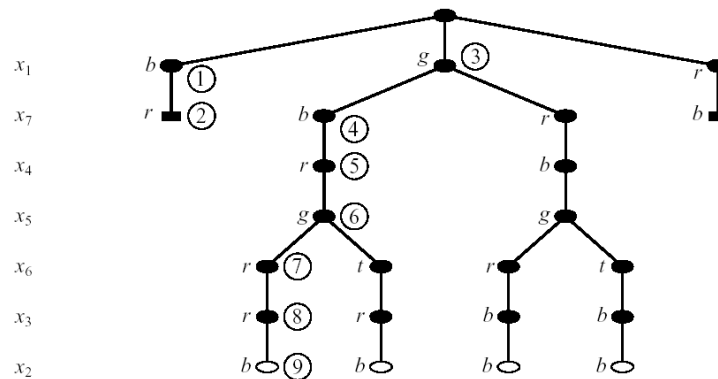
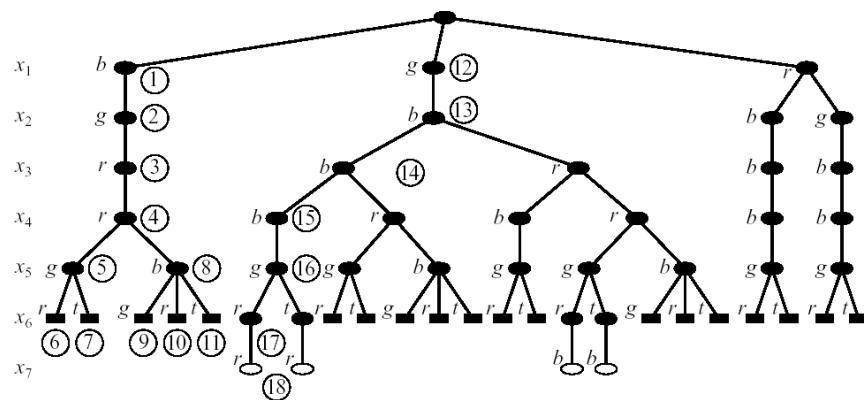
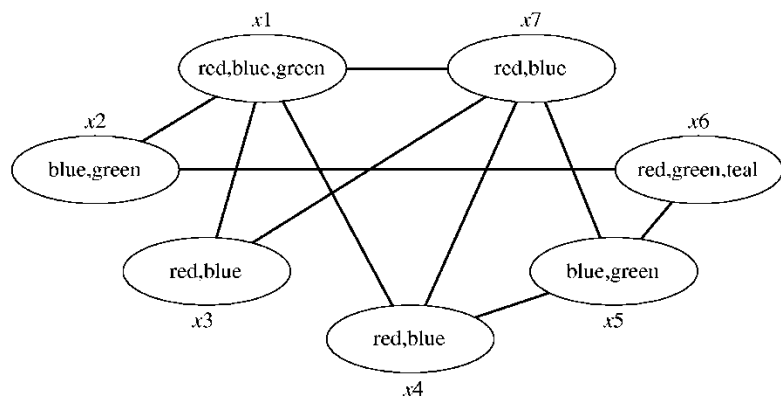


(a)



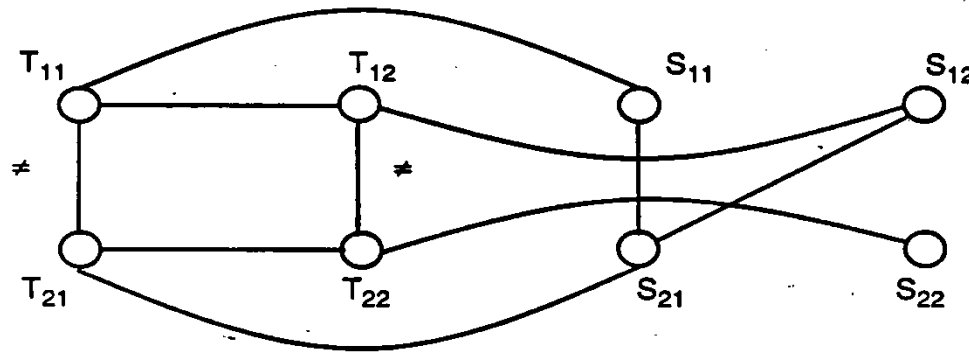
(b)

Backtracking Search for **All** Solutions



Class scheduling/Timetabling

- Teachers, Subjects, Classrooms, Time-slots.
- Constraints:
 - A teacher teaches a subset of subjects,
 - Subjects are taught at certain classrooms,
 - A teacher prefers teaching in the morning.
- Task: Assign a teacher and a subject to each class at each time slot, s.t. teachers' happiness is maximized.

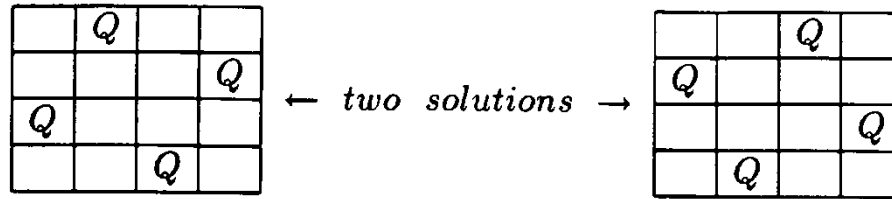


T_{ij} - teacher at class C_i at time t_j $D(T_{ij}) = \text{teacher}$

S_{ij} - subject taught at class C_i at time t_j
 Domain: subjects

The Minimal network:

Example: the 4-queen problem



		1	2	3	4
X_1	→		Q		
X_2	→				Q
X_3	→	Q			
X_4	→			Q	

$$R_{12} = \{ (1, 3) (1, 4) (2, 4) (3, 1) (4, 1) (4, 2) \}$$

$$R_{13} = \{ (1, 2) (1, 4) (2, 1) (2, 3) (3, 2) (3, 4) (4, 1) (4, 3) \}$$

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$$R_{34} = \{ (1, 3) (1, 4) (2, 4) (3, 1) (4, 1) (4, 2) \}$$

$$\text{the solution } \rho = \left(\begin{array}{c|cccc} X_1 & X_2 & X_3 & X_4 \\ \hline 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 4 & 2 \end{array} \right)$$

$$M_\rho = \text{proj}(\rho) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} M_{12} = \{ (2, 4) (3, 1) \} \\ M_{13} = \{ (2, 1) (3, 4) \} \\ M_{14} = \{ (2, 3) (3, 2) \} \\ M_{23} = \{ (1, 4) (4, 1) \} \\ M_{24} = \{ (1, 2) (4, 3) \} \\ M_{34} = \{ (1, 3) (4, 2) \} \end{array} \right\}$$

Approximation algorithms

- **Arc-consistency (Waltz, 1972)**
- **Path-consistency (Montanari 1974, Mackworth 1977)**
- **I-consistency (Freuder 1982)**
- **Transform the network into smaller and smaller networks.**

Arc-consistency

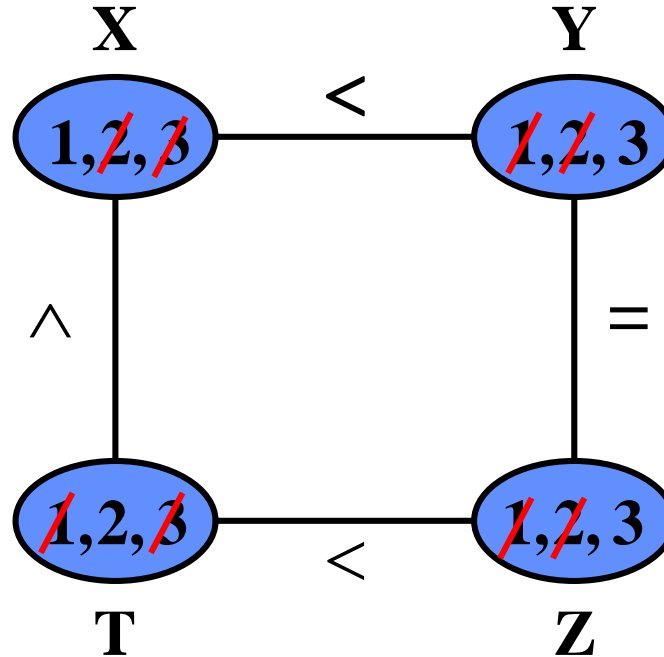
$$1 \leq X, Y, Z, T \leq 3$$

$$X < Y$$

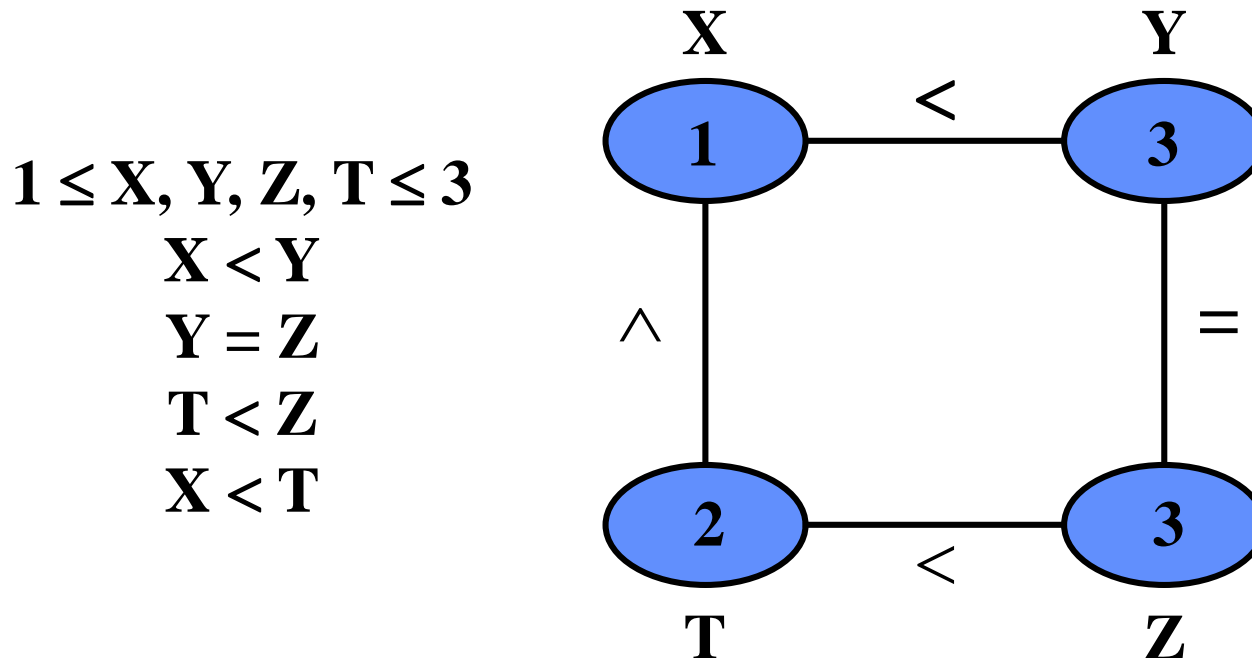
$$Y = Z$$

$$T < Z$$

$$X < T$$



Arc-consistency

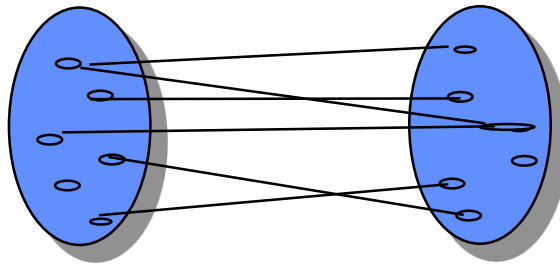


- Incorporated into backtracking search
- Constraint programming languages powerful approach for modeling and solving combinatorial optimization problems.

Arc-consistency algorithm

domain of x

domain of y



Arc (X_i, X_j) is arc-consistent if for any value of X_i there exist a matching value of X_j

Algorithm Revise (X_i, X_j) makes an arc consistent

Begin

1. For each **a** in D_i if there is no value **b** in D_j that is consistent with **a** then delete **a** from the D_i .

End.

Revise is $O(k^2)$, k is the number of values in each domain.

Algorithm AC-3

- **Begin**

- 1. $Q \leftarrow$ put all arcs in the queue in both directions
- 2. While Q is not empty do,
- 3. Select and delete an arc (X_i, X_j) from the queue Q
 - 4. Revise (X_i, X_j)
 - 5. If Revise causes a change then add to the queue all arcs that touch X_i (namely (X_i, X_m) and (X_b, X_i)).
- 6. end-while

- **End**

- **Complexity:**

- Processing an arc requires $O(k^2)$ steps
- The number of times each arc can be processed is $2 \cdot k$
- Total complexity is $O(ek^3)$

Sudoku

		2	4		6			
8	6	5	1			2		
	1				8	6		9
9				4		8	6	
	4	7				1	9	
	5	8		6				3
4		6	9				7	2
		9			4	5	8	1
			3		2	9		

•Variables: 81 slots

•Domains =
{1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9}

•Constraints:
•27 not-equal

**Constraint
propagation**

Each row, column and major block must be all different

“Well posed” if it has unique solution: **27 constraints**

Sudoku

		2	1	5				6
			3	6	8		1	
6	1	8			2			4
		5		2				3
	9	3				5	4	
1				3		6		
3			8			4		7
	8		6	4	3			
5				1	7	9		

Path-consistency or
3-consistency

4-consistency and
i-consistency in general

Each row, column and major block must be all different

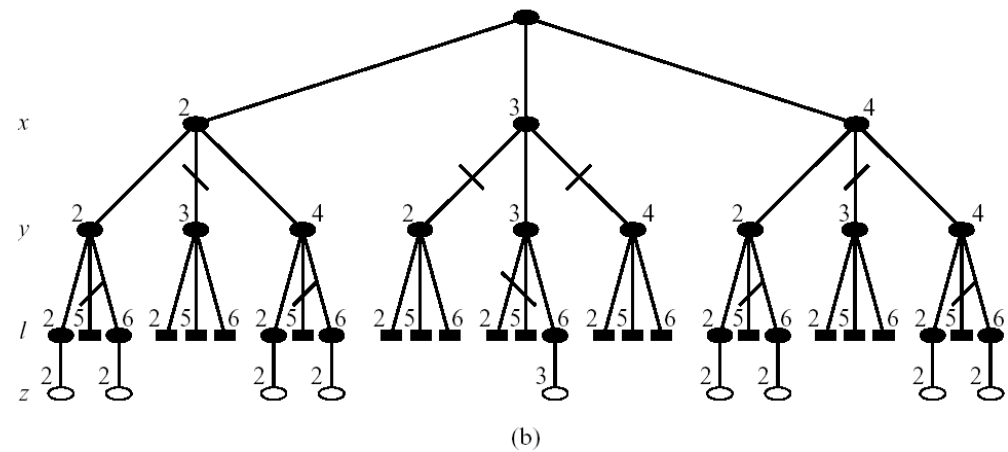
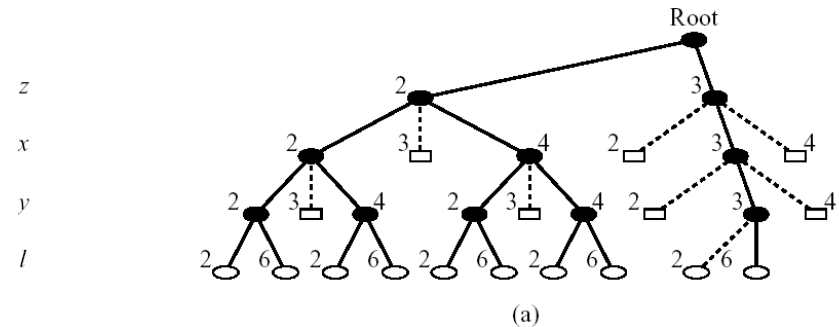
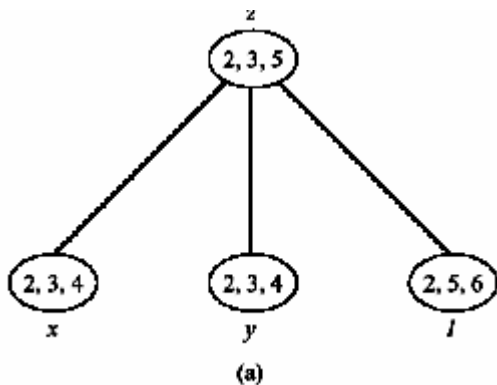
“Well posed” if it has unique solution

The Effect of Consistency Level

- After arc-consistency $z=5$ and $l=5$ are removed

- After path-consistency

- R'_{zx}
- R'_{zy}
- R'_{zl}
- R'_{xy}
- R'_{xl}
- R'_{yl}



Tighter networks yield smaller search spaces

Improving Backtracking $O(\exp(n))$

- **Before search: (reducing the search space)**
 - Arc-consistency, path-consistency, i-consistency
 - Variable ordering (fixed)
- **During search:**
 - **Look-ahead schemes:**
 - Value ordering/pruning (*choose a least restricting value*),
 - Variable ordering (***Choose the most constraining variable***)
 - **Look-back schemes:**
 - Backjumping
 - Constraint recording
 - Dependency-directed backtracking

Improving backtracking efficiency

General-purpose methods can give huge gains in speed:

1. Which variable should be assigned next?
2. In what order should its values be tried?
3. Can we detect inevitable failure early?
4. Can we take advantage of problem structure?

Look-ahead: Variable and value orderings

- **Intuition:**
 - Choose **value** least likely to yield a dead-end
 - Choose a **variable** that will detect failures early
 - Approach: apply propagation at each node in the search tree
- **Forward-checking**
 - check each unassigned variable separately
- **Maintaining arc-consistency (MAC)**
 - apply full arc-consistency

Most constrained variable

Most constrained variable:

choose the variable with the fewest legal values



Most constraining variable

Tie-breaker among most constrained variables

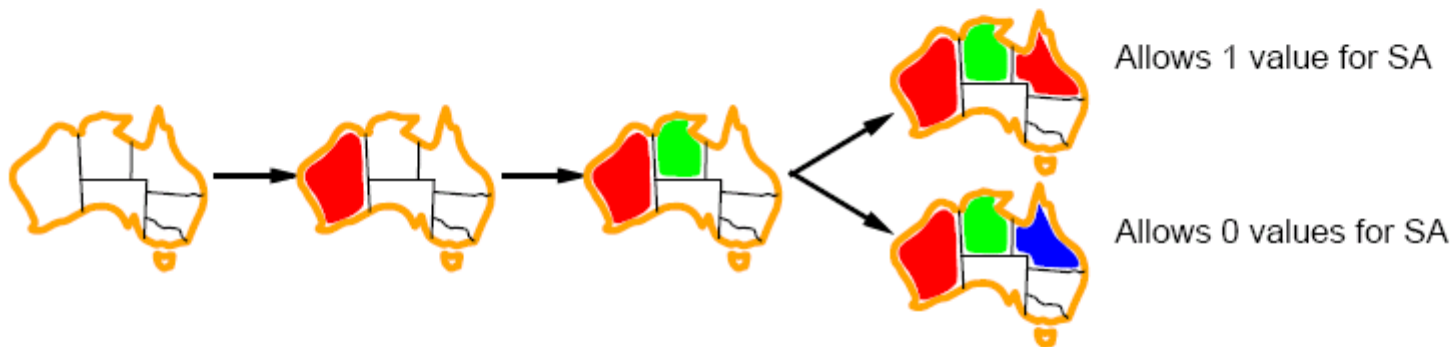
Most constraining variable:

choose the variable with the most constraints on remaining variables



Least constraining value

Given a variable, choose the least constraining value:
the one that rules out the fewest values in the remaining variables



Combining these heuristics makes 1000 queens feasible

Forward checking

Idea: Keep track of remaining legal values for unassigned variables
Terminate search when any variable has no legal values



WA

NT

Q

NSW

V

SA

T



Forward checking

Idea: Keep track of remaining legal values for unassigned variables
Terminate search when any variable has no legal values



WA	NT	Q	NSW	V	SA	T
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Forward checking

Idea: Keep track of remaining legal values for unassigned variables
 Terminate search when any variable has no legal values



WA	NT	Q	NSW	V	SA	T
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Forward checking

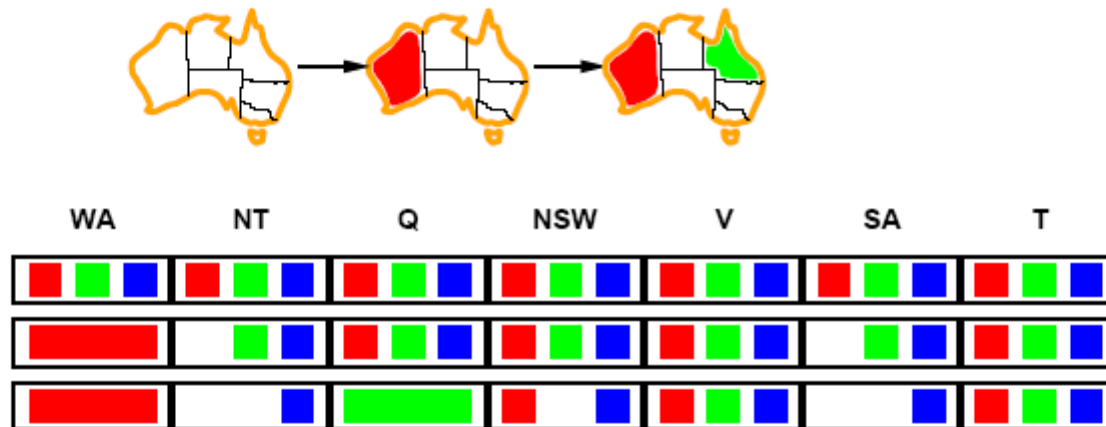
Idea: Keep track of remaining legal values for unassigned variables
 Terminate search when any variable has no legal values



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Constraint propagation

Forward checking propagates information from assigned to unassigned variables, but doesn't provide early detection for all failures:



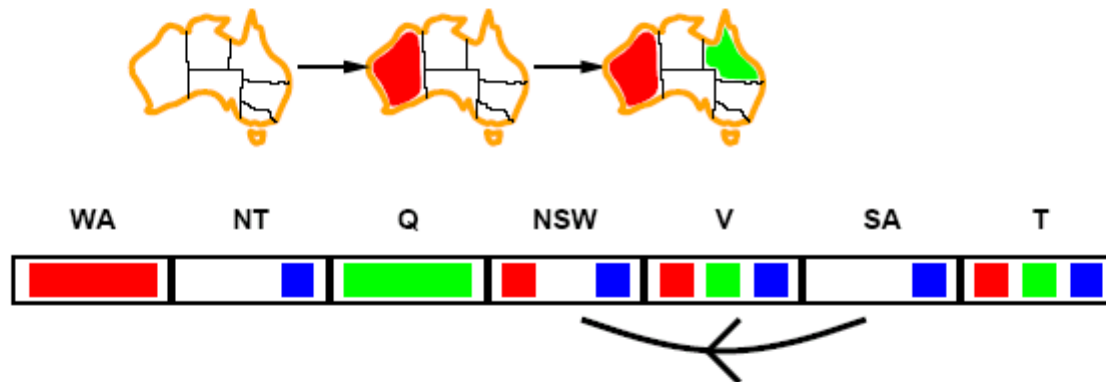
NT and *SA* cannot both be blue!

Constraint propagation repeatedly enforces constraints locally

Arc consistency

Simplest form of propagation makes each arc **consistent**

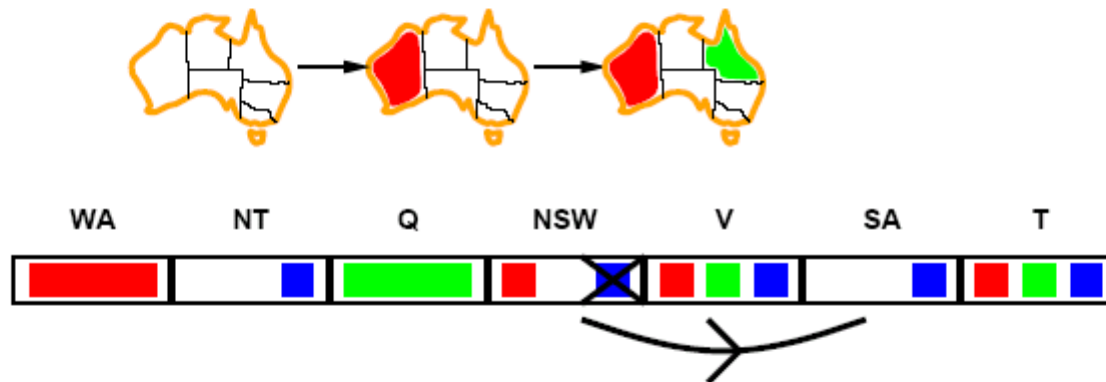
$X \rightarrow Y$ is consistent iff
for *every* value x of X there is *some* allowed y



Arc consistency

Simplest form of propagation makes each arc **consistent**

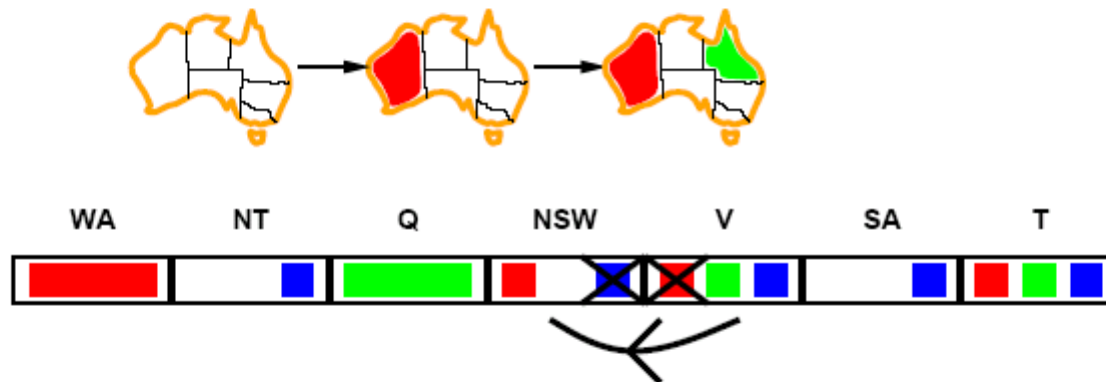
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Simplest form of propagation makes each arc **consistent**

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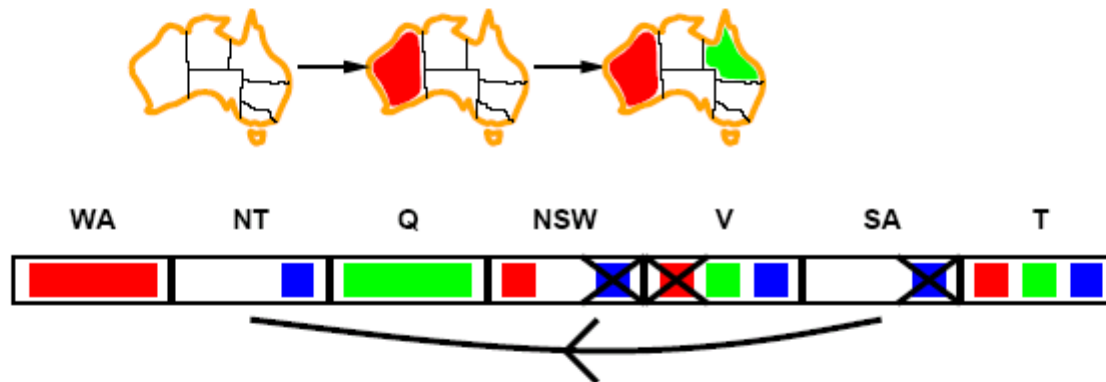


If X loses a value, neighbors of X need to be rechecked

Arc consistency

Simplest form of propagation makes each arc **consistent**

$X \rightarrow Y$ is consistent iff
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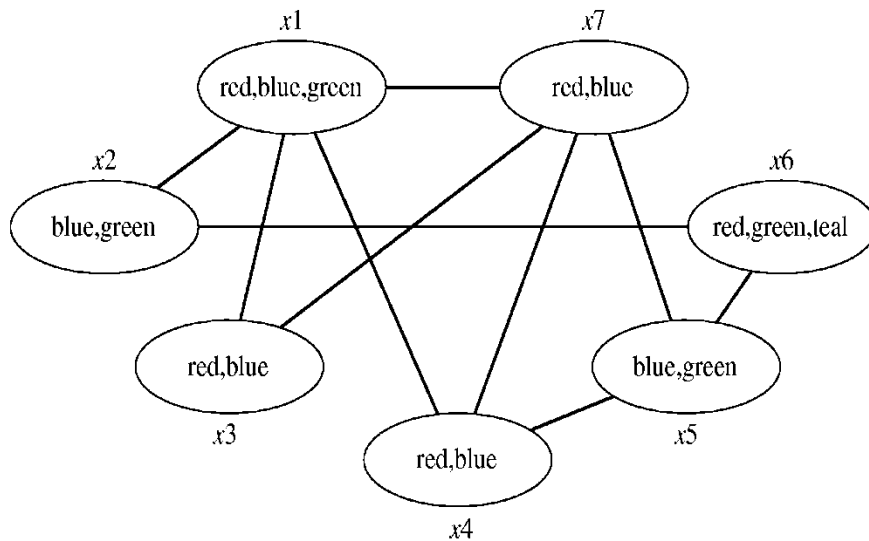


If X loses a value, neighbors of X need to be rechecked

Arc consistency detects failure earlier than forward checking

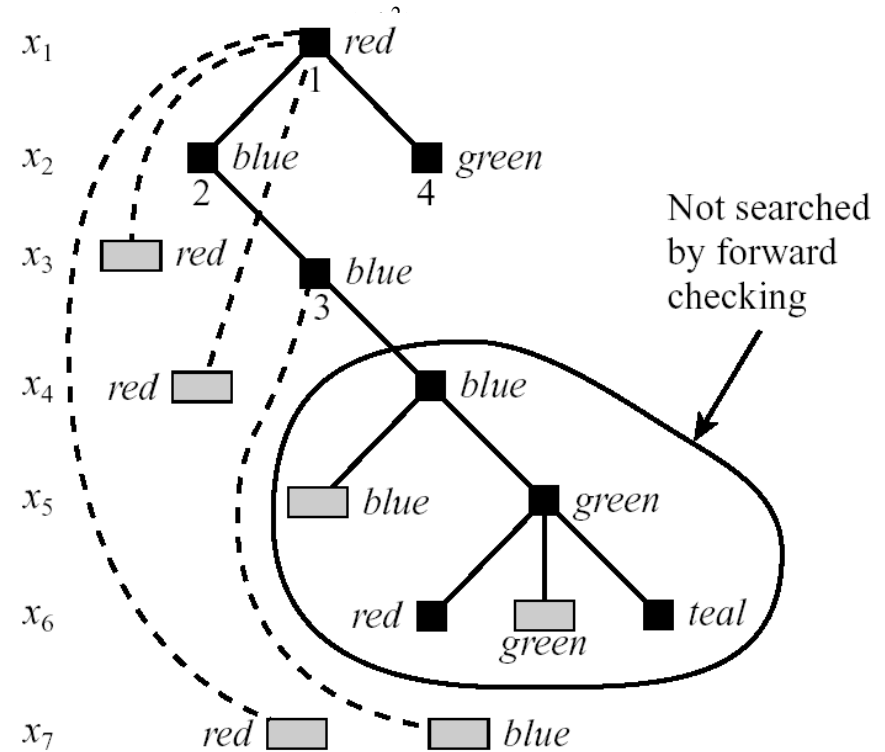
Can be run as a preprocessor or after each assignment

Forward-checking on Graph-coloring



FW overhead: $O(ek^2)$

MAC overhead: $O(ek^3)$



Algorithm DVO (DVFC)

procedure DVFC

Input: A constraint network $\mathcal{R} = (X, D, C)$

Output: Either a solution, or notification that the network is inconsistent.

```
   $D'_i \leftarrow D_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$     (copy all domains)
   $i \leftarrow 1$                         (initialize variable counter)
     $s = \min_{i < j \leq n} |D'_j|$  (find future var with smallest domain)
     $x_{i+1} \leftarrow x_s$  (rearrange variables so that  $x_s$  follows  $x_i$ )
  while  $1 \leq i \leq n$ 
    instantiate  $x_i \leftarrow \text{SELECTVALUE-FORWARD-CHECKING}$ 
    if  $x_i$  is null                      (no value was returned)
      reset each  $D'$  set to its value before  $x_i$  was last instantiated
       $i \leftarrow i - 1$                 (backtrack)
    else
      if  $i < n$ 
         $i \leftarrow i + 1$               (step forward to  $x_s$ )
         $s = \min_{i < j \leq n} |D'_j|$  (find future var with smallest domain)
         $x_{i+1} \leftarrow x_s$  (rearrange variables so that  $x_s$  follows  $x_i$ )
         $i \leftarrow i + 1$               (step forward to  $x_s$ )
    end while
    if  $i = 0$ 
      return "inconsistent"
    else
      return instantiated values of  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ 
  end procedure
```

Figure 5.12: The DVFC algorithm. It uses the SELECTVALUE-FORWARD-CHECKING sub-procedure given in Fig. 5.8.

Propositional Satisfiability

Example: party problem

- If Alex goes, then Becky goes: $A \rightarrow B$ (or, $\neg A \vee B$)
- If Chris goes, then Alex goes: $C \rightarrow A$ (or, $\neg C \vee A$)
- Query:

Is it possible that Chris goes to the party but Becky does not?



Is propositional theory

$\varphi = \{ \neg A \vee B, \neg C \vee A, \neg B, C \}$ satisfiable?

Unit Propagation

- **Arc-consistency for cnfs.**
- **Involve a single clause and a single literal**
- **Example:** $(A, \neg B, C) \wedge B \longrightarrow (A, C)$

Look-ahead for SAT

(Davis-Putnam, Logeman and Laveland, 1962)

DPLL(φ)

Input: A cnf theory φ

Output: A decision of whether φ is satisfiable.

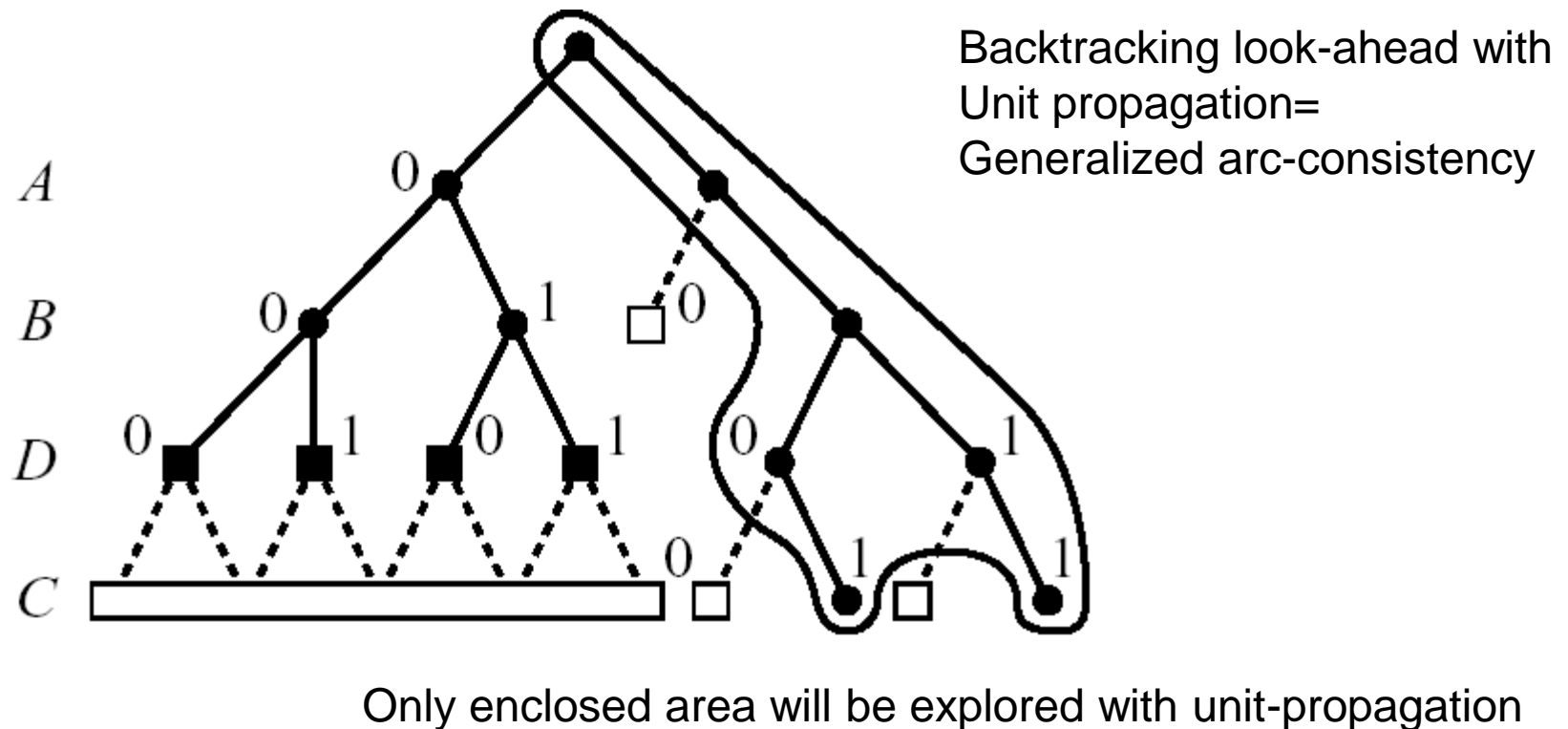
1. Unit_propagate(φ);
2. If the empty clause is generated, return(*false*);
3. Else, if all variables are assigned, return(*true*);
4. Else
5. Q = some unassigned variable;
6. return(DPLL($\varphi \wedge Q$) \vee
 DPLL($\varphi \wedge \neg Q$))

Figure 5.13: The DPLL Procedure

Look-ahead for SAT: DPLL

example: $(\sim AVB)(\sim CVA)(AVBVD)(C)$

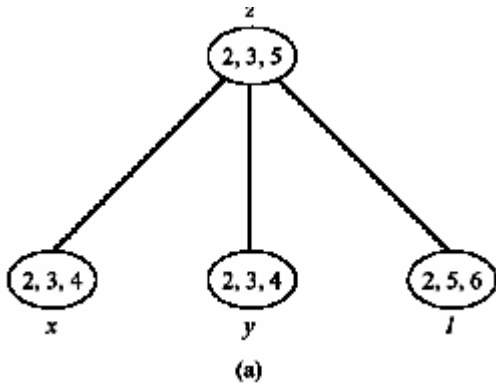
(Davis-Putnam, Logeman and Laveland, 1962)



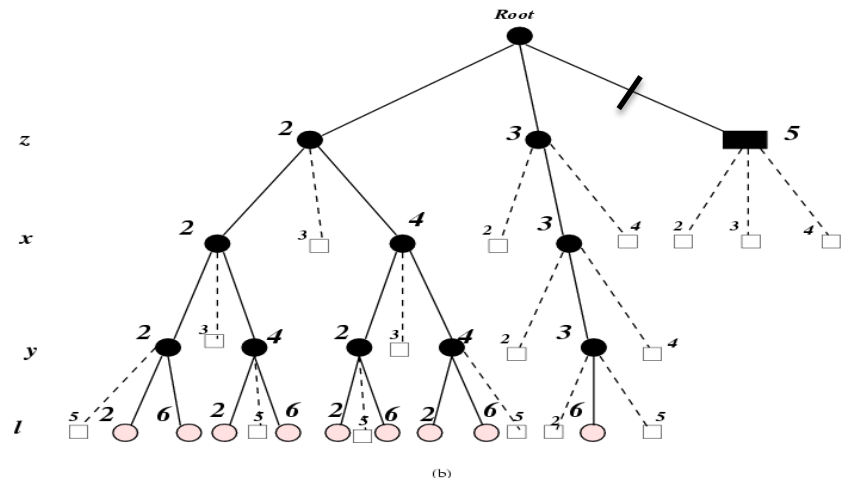
Summary so far

- **Constraint Satisfaction Problems : X, D, C**
- **CSPs as search : start with $\{\}$, instantiate $X_i=x_i$ until all C satisfied**
 - Backtracking search (DFS)
 - Ordering of variables can have big effect
- **Preprocessing by local consistency :**
 - arc(2)-consistency, k-consistency
 - Derive implying information; make the problem tighter -> smaller search space
 - Minimal networks
- **During search**
 - Look ahead schemes:
 - Variable ordering – choose most constrained variable
 - Value ordering – choose a least restricting value
 - Interleaving search and inference
 - Forward checking
 - MAC (Maintaining Arc Consistency)
 - Tradeoff btwn complexity (overhead) and benefit of inference
- **Propositional Satisfiability**
 - Unit propagation as arc-consistency for CNFs

The Effect of Consistency Level

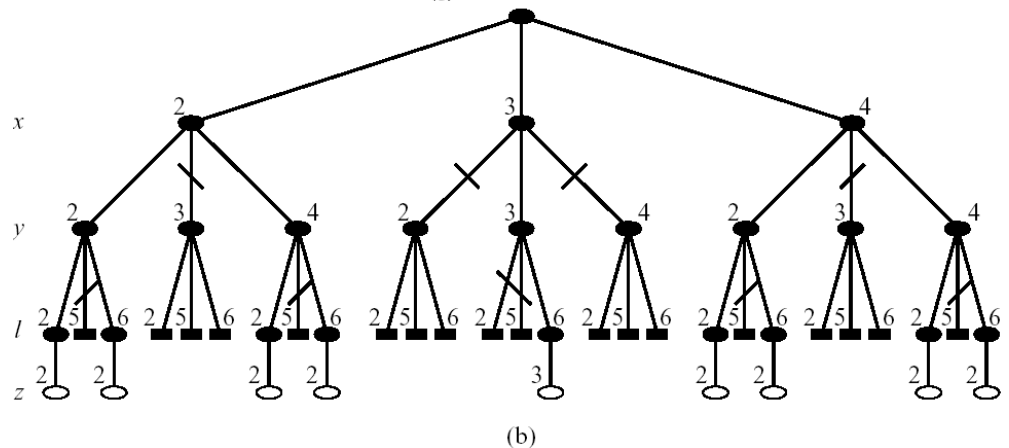


- After arc(2)-consistency $z=5$ and $l=5$ are removed



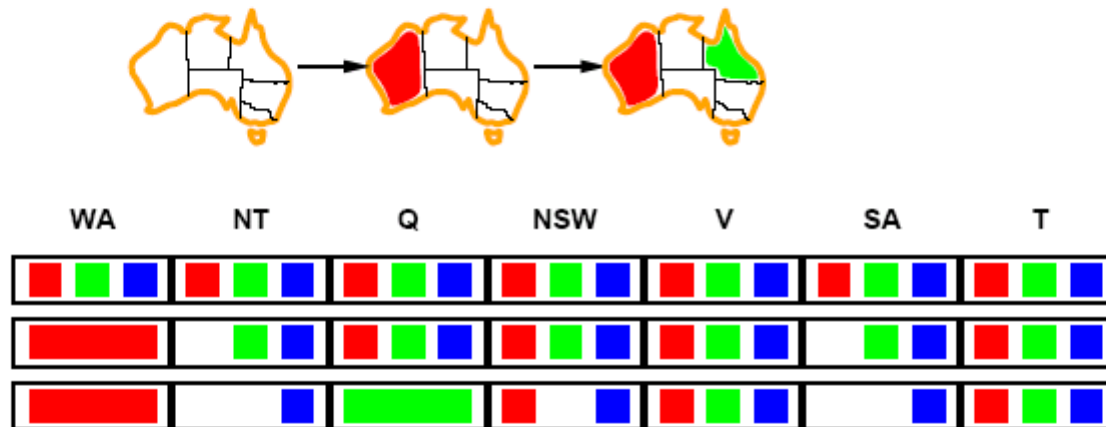
- After path(3)-consistency

- R'_{zx}
- R'_{zy}
- R'_{zl}
- R'_{xy}
- R'_{xl}
- R'_{yl}



Constraint propagation

Forward checking propagates information from assigned to unassigned variables, but doesn't provide early detection for all failures:



NT and *SA* cannot both be blue!

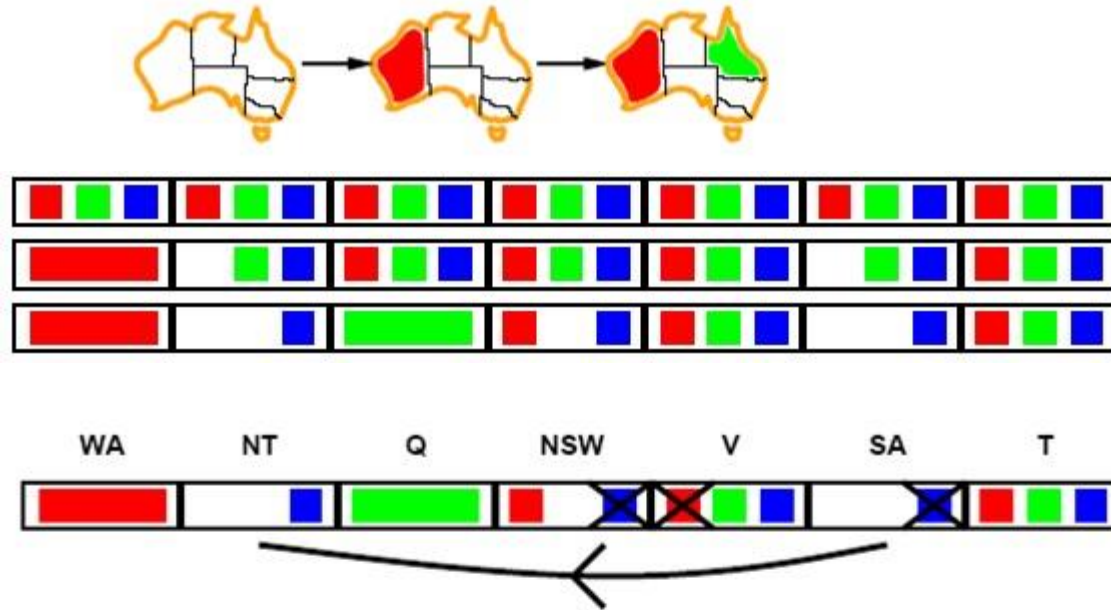
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Simplest form of propagation makes each arc **consistent**

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for **every** value x of X there is **some** allowed y



If X loses a value, neighbors of X need to be rechecked

Arc consistency detects failure earlier than forward checking

Can be run as a preprocessor or after each assignment

Look-back: Backjumping / Learning

- **Backjumping:**
 - In deadends, go back to the most recent culprit.
- **Learning:**
 - constraint-recording, no-good recording.
 - good-recording

Backjumping

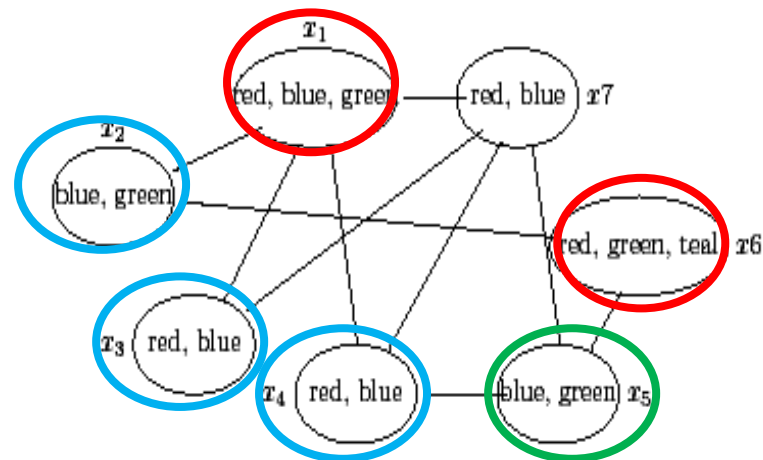
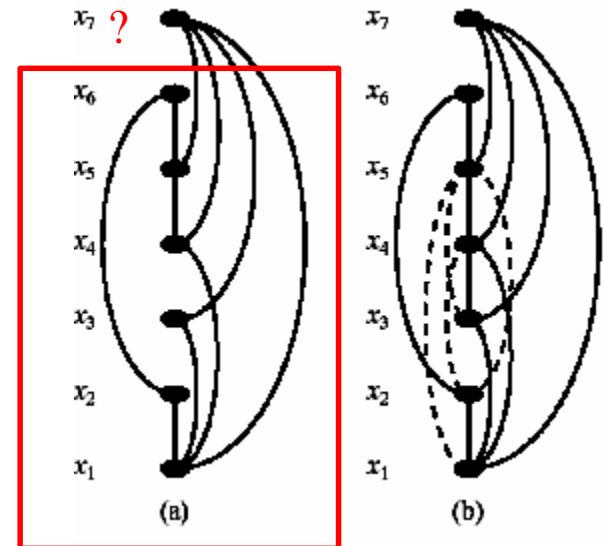


Figure 6.1: A modified coloring problem.

- $(X_1=r, X_2=b, X_3=b, X_4=b, X_5=g, X_6=r, X_7=\{r, b\})$
- (r, b, b, b, g, r) **conflict set** of x_7
- $(r, -, b, b, g, -)$ c.s. of x_7
- $(r, -, b, -, -, -)$ **minimal conflict-set**
- **Leaf deadend:** (r, b, b, b, g, r)
- Every conflict-set is a **no-good**



Example of Gaschnig's backjump

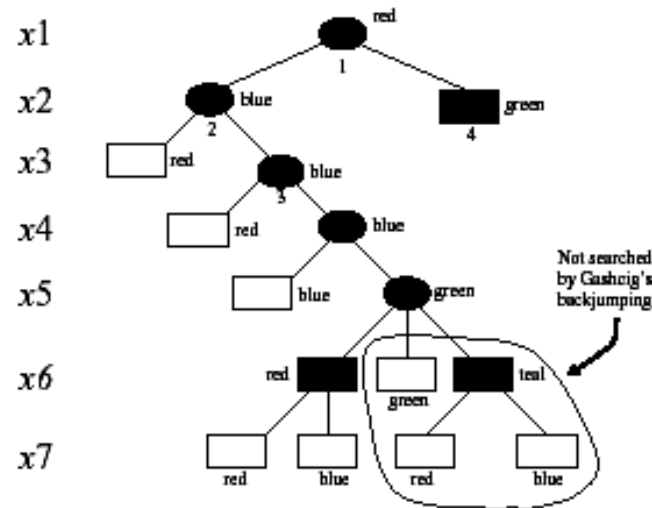
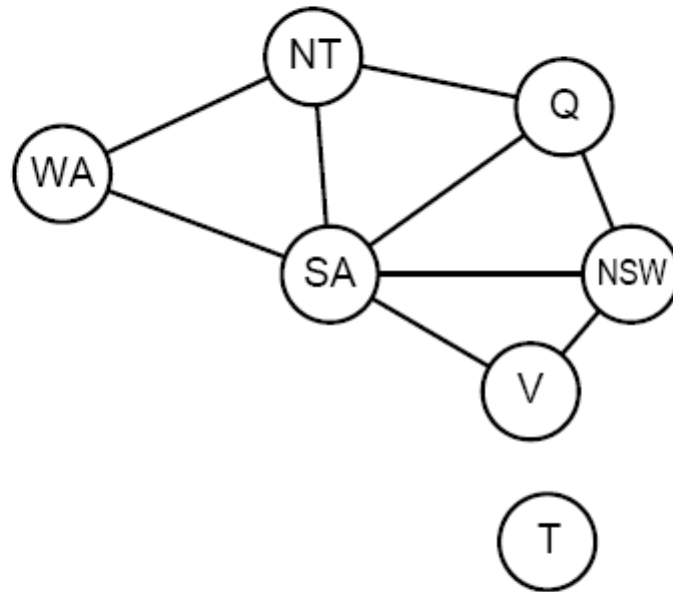


Figure 6.2: Portion of the search space explored by Gaschnig's backjumping, on the example network in Figure 6.1 under $x_1 = \text{red}$. The nodes circled are explored by backtracking but not by Gaschnig's backjumping. Notice that unlike previous examples we explicitly display leaf dead-end variables although they are not legal states in the search space.

Example 6.2.3 Consider the problem in Figure 6.1 and the order d_1 . At the dead-end for x_7 that results from the partial instantiation $\langle x_1, \text{red} \rangle, \langle x_2, \text{blue} \rangle, \langle x_3, \text{blue} \rangle, \langle x_4, \text{blue} \rangle, \langle x_5, \text{green} \rangle, \langle x_6, \text{red} \rangle$, $\text{latest}_7 = 3$, because $x_7 = \text{red}$ was ruled out by $\langle x_1, \text{red} \rangle$, $x_7 = \text{blue}$ was ruled out by $\langle x_3, \text{blue} \rangle$, and no later variable had to be examined. On returning to x_3 , the algorithm finds no further values to try ($D'_3 = \emptyset$). Since $\text{latest}_3 = 2$, the next variable examined will be x_2 . Thus we see the algorithm's ability to backjump at leaf dead-ends. On subsequent dead-ends, as in x_3 , it goes back to its preceding variable only. An example of the algorithm's practice of pruning the search space is given in Figure 6.2. \square

Problem structure



Tasmania and mainland are **independent subproblems**

Identifiable as **connected components** of constraint graph

Problem structure contd.

Suppose each subproblem has c variables out of n total

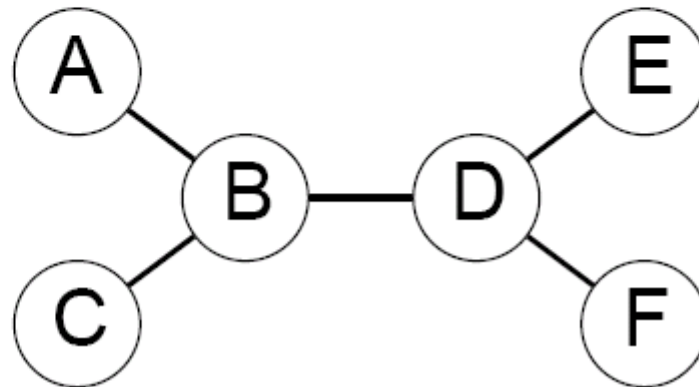
Worst-case solution cost is $n/c \cdot d^c$, *linear* in n

E.g., $n = 80$, $d = 2$, $c = 20$

$2^{80} = 4$ billion years at 10 million nodes/sec

$4 \cdot 2^{20} = 0.4$ seconds at 10 million nodes/sec

Tree-structured CSPs



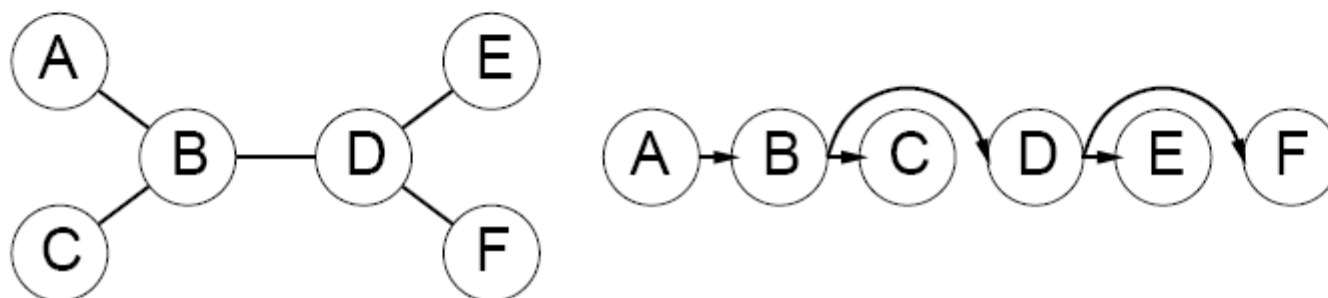
Theorem: if the constraint graph has no loops, the CSP can be solved in $O(n d^2)$ time

Compare to general CSPs, where worst-case time is $O(d^n)$

This property also applies to logical and probabilistic reasoning:
an important example of the relation between syntactic restrictions
and the complexity of reasoning.

Algorithm for tree-structured CSPs

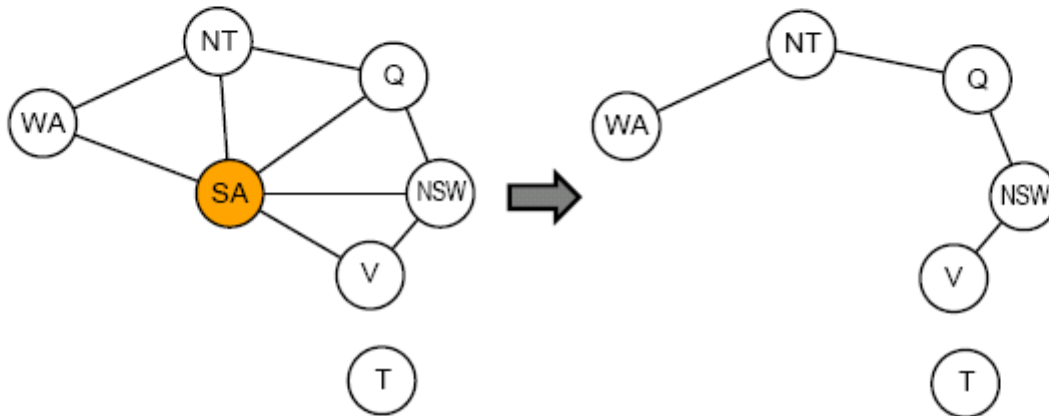
1. Choose a variable as root, order variables from root to leaves such that every node's parent precedes it in the ordering



2. For j from n down to 2, apply $\text{REMOVEINCONSISTENT}(Parent(X_j), X_j)$
3. For j from 1 to n , assign X_j consistently with $Parent(X_j)$
4. Arc-consistency in tree-structured CSPs makes search backtrack-free

Nearly tree-structured CSPs

Conditioning: instantiate a variable, prune its neighbors' domains



Cutset conditioning: instantiate (in all ways) a set of variables such that the remaining constraint graph is a tree

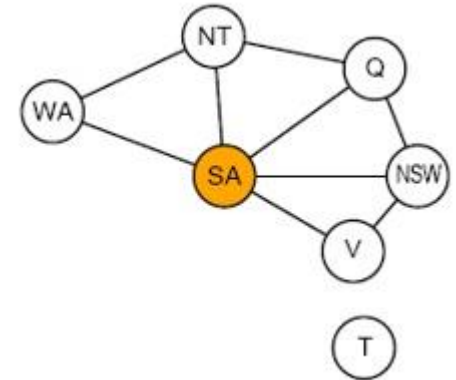
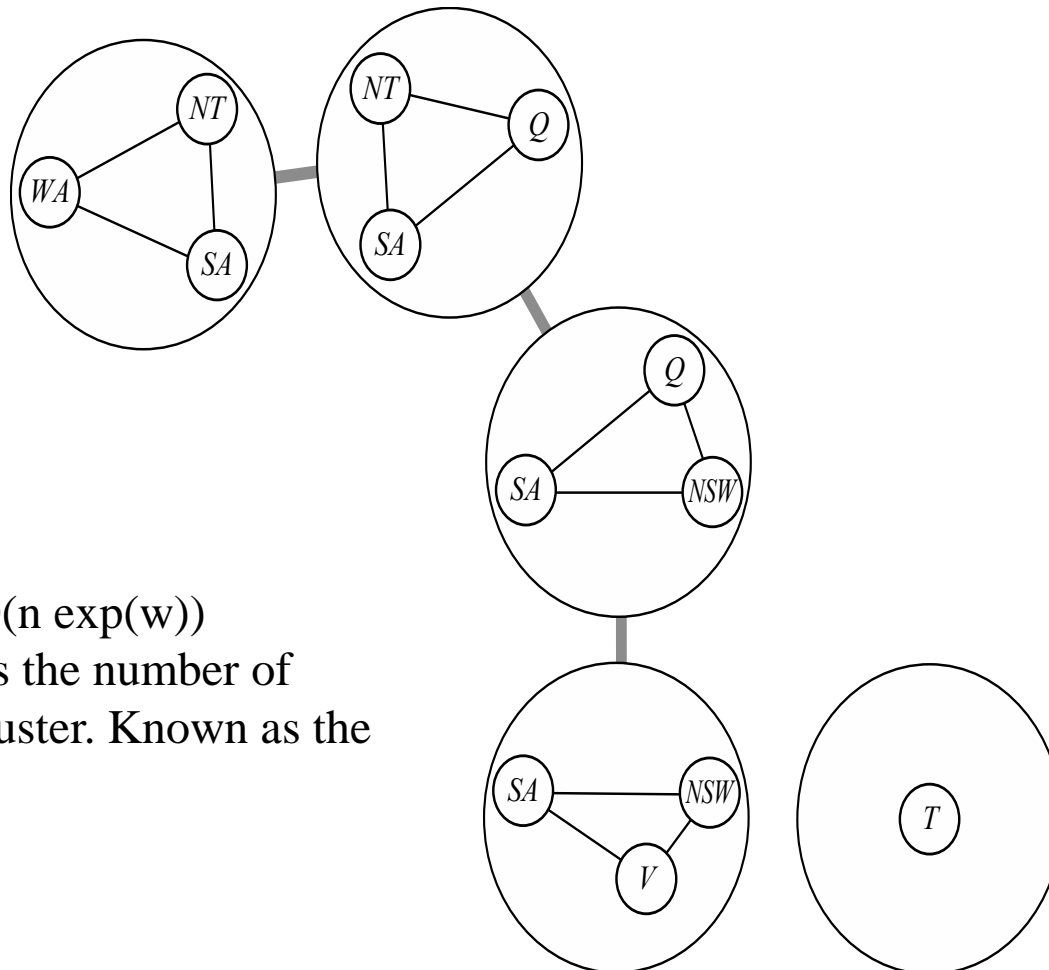
Cutset size $c \Rightarrow$ runtime $O(d^c \cdot (n - c)d^2)$, very fast for small c

The cycle-cutset method

- An instantiation can be viewed as blocking cycles in the graph
- Given an instantiation to a set of variables that cut all cycles (a cycle-cutset) the rest of the problem can be solved in linear time by a tree algorithm.
- Complexity (n number of variables, k the domain size and C the cycle-cutset size):

$$O(nk^C k^2)$$

Tree Decomposition



Complexity is $O(n \exp(w))$

Where w bounds the number of Variables in a cluster. Known as the treewidth

Iterative algorithms for CSPs

Hill-climbing, simulated annealing typically work with “complete” states, i.e., all variables assigned

To apply to CSPs:

- allow states with unsatisfied constraints
- operators *reassign* variable values

Variable selection: randomly select any conflicted variable

Value selection by *min-conflicts* heuristic:

- choose value that violates the fewest constraints
- i.e., hillclimb with $h(n) = \text{total number of violated constraints}$

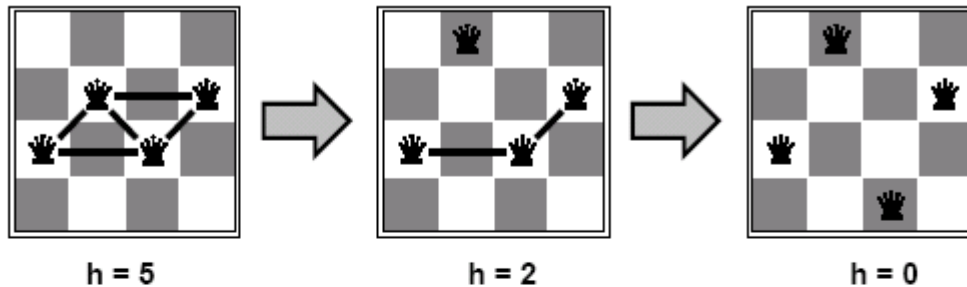
Example: 4-Queens

States: 4 queens in 4 columns ($4^4 = 256$ states)

Operators: move queen in column

Goal test: no attacks

Evaluation: $h(n) = \text{number of attacks}$

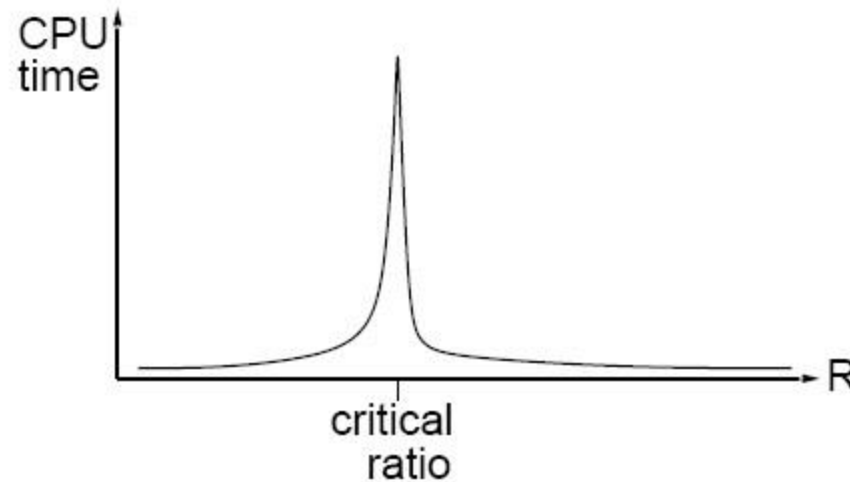


Problem Hardness

Given random initial state, can solve n -queens in almost constant time for arbitrary n with high probability (e.g., $n = 10,000,000$)

The same appears to be true for any randomly-generated CSP
except in a narrow range of the ratio

$$R = \frac{\text{number of constraints}}{\text{number of variables}}$$



GSAT – local search for SAT

(Selman, Levesque and Mitchell, 1992)

1. **For i=1 to MaxTries**
2. **Select a random assignment A**
3. **For j=1 to MaxFlips**
4. **if A satisfies all constraint, return A**
5. **else flip a variable to maximize the score**
6. **(number of satisfied constraints; if no variable**
7. **assignment increases the score, flip at random)**
8. **end**
9. **end**

Greatly improves hill-climbing by adding
restarts and **sideway moves**

WalkSAT

(Selman, Kautz and Cohen, 1994)

Adds random walk to GSAT:

With probability p

random walk – flip a variable in some unsatisfied constraint

With probability $1-p$

perform a hill-climbing step

Randomized hill-climbing often solves
large and hard satisfiable problems

More Stochastic Search: Simulated Annealing, reweighting

- **Simulated annealing:**
 - A method for overcoming local minimas
 - Allows bad moves with some probability:
 - With some probability related to a temperature parameter T the next move is picked randomly.
 - Theoretically, with a slow enough cooling schedule, this algorithm will find the optimal solution. But so will searching randomly.
- **Breakout method (Morris, 1990): adjust the weights of the violated constraints**

Summary

CSPs are a special kind of problem:

- states defined by values of a fixed set of variables

- goal test defined by *constraints* on variable values

Backtracking = depth-first search with one variable assigned per node

Variable ordering and value selection heuristics help significantly

Forward checking prevents assignments that guarantee later failure

Constraint propagation (e.g., arc consistency) does additional work to constrain values and detect inconsistencies

The CSP representation allows analysis of problem structure

Tree-structured CSPs can be solved in linear time

Iterative min-conflicts is usually effective in practice