

Constraint Satisfaction Problems

Chapter 6

Office hours

- Office hours for Assignment 1 (ASB9810 in CSIL):
 - Sep 29th(Fri) 12:00 to 13:30
 - Oct 3rd(Tue) 11:30 to 13:00

Late homework policy

- You get four “late days”. Turning an assignment in late day per day after the due date, rounded up.
- If you run out of late days, -10% grade per day.
- We will post solutions three days after the due date. No submissions will be accepted after that.

Topics

- 1 Introduction and history
- 2 Solving problems by searching. Uninformed search. Informed (heuristic) search, incl. A*.
- 3 Game playing. Adversarial search.
- 4 Constraint satisfaction.
- 5 Logic. Logical agents, propositional logic, first-order logic.
- 6 Planning.
- 7 Uncertainty. Review of probability and probabilistic inference.
- 8 Bayesian networks.
- 9 Learning from examples. Supervised machine learning. Decision trees.
- 10 Neural networks.
- 11 Natural language processing. Vision and image processing.

Outline

Topics:

- CSP examples
- Backtracking search for CSPs
 - Improving backtracking efficiency
- Problem structure and problem decomposition
- Local search for CSPs

Constraint satisfaction problems (CSPs)

Standard search problem:

- A *state* is a “black box” – can be any data structure that supports goal test, eval, successor

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CSP:

- Defined by a set of *variables* X_1, \dots, X_n , and a set of *constraints* C_1, \dots, C_m .
- Each variable X_i has an associated *domain* D_i .
- Each constraint C_i involves some subset of the variables and specifies allowable combinations of values for that subset.
- A *state* is an assignment to some or all of the variable.
- A *solution* is a complete assignment that satisfies all constraints.
(Sometimes: maximize an *objective function*.)

CSPs continued

- This is a simple example of a formal *representation language*
- Allows useful *general-purpose* algorithms with more power than standard search algorithms

Example: Map-Coloring



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

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

Constraints: adjacent regions must have different colours

- e.g., $WA \neq NT$ (if the language allows this), or
- $(WA, NT) \in \{(red, green), (red, blue), (green, red), \dots\}$

Example: Sudoku

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

Variables Numbers in each cell.

Domains $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, 9\}$

Constraints: Each row, column and box must all have different values.

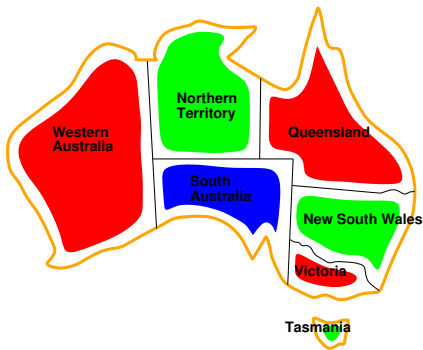
Example: Scheduling jobs in a factory

Variables For each machine, time it starts working on each task.

Domains $[0, \infty]$

Constraints: Each task cannot start before its prerequisites. Each machine can work on only one task at a time.

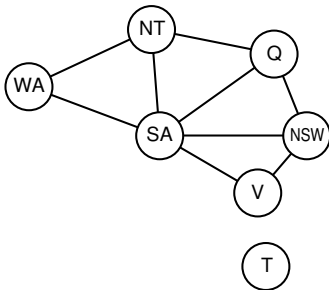
Example: Map-Coloring contd.



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!

Varieties of CSPs

Discrete variables, finite domains:

- n vars, domain size $d \implies O(d^n)$ complete assignments
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- integers, strings, etc.
- e.g., job scheduling, variables are start/end days for each job.
 \implies need a *constraint language*
e.g., $StartJob_1 + 5 \leq StartJob_3$
- *linear* constraints solvable; *nonlinear* undecidable.

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Continuous variables:

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

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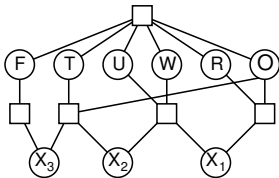
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Preferences (soft constraints):

- e.g., *red* is better than *green*
- Often representable by a cost for each variable assignment.
→ constrained optimization problems

Higher-Order 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* (represented by square boxes):
 - $\text{alldiff}(F, T, U, W, R, O)$
 - $O + O = R + 10 \cdot X_1$, etc.


Higher-order Constraints

Higher-order constraints can be reduced to binary constraints by introducing new auxiliary variables.

- We're not going to cover this.
 - See Exercise 6.6, *3hbfrd* ed. or Exercise 5.11, *2hbfnd* ed. for a hint as to how this can be done.
- But as a result of this, we'll just deal with binary constraints.

Real-world CSPs

- Assignment problems
e.g., who teaches what class
- Timetabling problems
e.g., which class is offered when and where?
- Hardware configuration
- Transportation scheduling
- Factory scheduling
- Floorplanning

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

Naive Search Formulation (Incremental)

- We start with the straightforward, dumb approach, then fix it
- States are defined by the values assigned so far:

Initial state: The empty assignment, \emptyset

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

Naive Search Formulation (Incremental)

Notes:

- 1 This can be used for all CSPs!
- 2 Every solution appears at depth n with n variables
 - use depth-first search

Naive Search Formulation (Incremental)

Notes:

- 1 This can be used for all CSPs!
- 2 Every solution appears at depth n with n variables
 - use depth-first search
- 3 Path is irrelevant
- 4 $b = (n - \ell)d$ at depth ℓ where domain size for all variables is d .
 - there are $n!d^n$ leaves, even though there are only d^n complete assignments!

Backtracking Search

- Problem with the naive formulation:
 - It ignores that variable assignments are *commutative*
 - i.e. $[WA = red \text{ then } NT = green]$
same as $[NT = green \text{ then } WA = red]$
- So just consider assignments to a single variable at each node
 - Obtain: $b = d$ and there are d^n leaves
- Depth-first search for CSPs with single-variable assignments is called *backtracking* search
 - I.e. try assigning values of successive variables, and backtrack when a variable has no legal values to assign.
 - 👉 Backtracking search is the basic uninformed algorithm for CSPs
 - Can solve n -queens for $n \approx 25$

Backtracking search

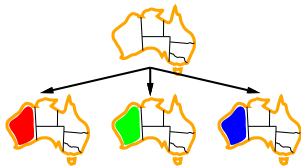
Function **Backtracking-Search**(*csp*) returns solution/failure
return Recursive-Backtracking({ }, *csp*)

Function **Recursive-Backtracking**(*assignment*, *csp*) returns soln/failure
if *assignment* is complete then return *assignment*
var ← *Select-Unassigned-Variable*(*Variables*[*csp*], *assignment*, *csp*)
for each value in *Order-Domain-Values*(*var*, *assignment*, *csp*) do
 if value is consistent with *assignment* given *Constraints*[*csp*] then
 add {*var* = value} to *assignment*
 result ← Recursive-Backtracking(*assignment*, *csp*)
 if *result* ≠ failure then
 return *result*
 remove {*var* = value} from *assignment*
return failure

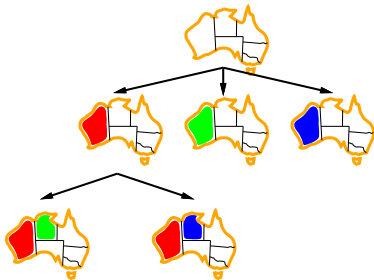
Backtracking example



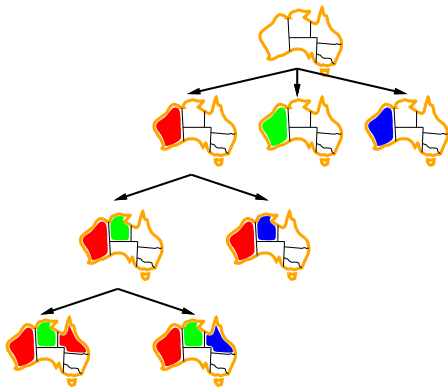
Backtracking example



Backtracking example



Backtracking example



Improving backtracking efficiency

- In Chapter 3 we looked at improving performance of uninformed searches by considering domain-specific information.
- For CSPs, *general-purpose (uninformed)* methods can give huge gains in speed.
- Consider the following questions:
 - 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?

Minimum remaining values

- *Minimum remaining values (MRV)*: Choose the variable with the fewest legal values



- Thus we choose the variable that seems most likely to fail.

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Degree heuristic

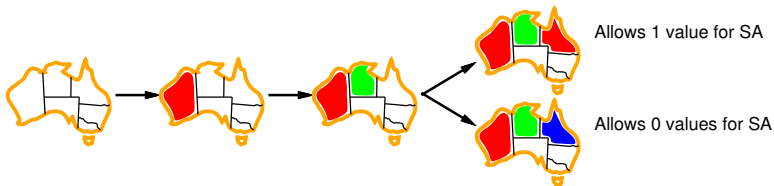
- Tie-breaker among MRV variables
- *Degree heuristic*: Choose the variable with the most constraints on other unassigned variables



- In this case, begin with SA, since it is involved with the greatest number of constraints with unassigned variables.
 - I.e. $\text{Deg}(\text{SA}) = 5$; all others have degree ≤ 3 .

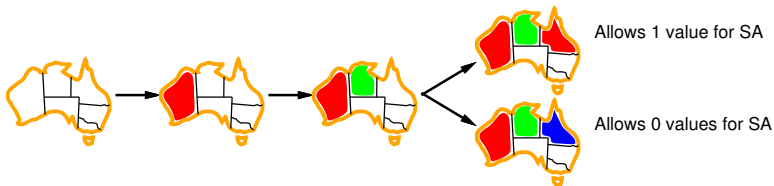
Least constraining value

- Given a variable, have to decide which value to assign.
- Here: Choose the *least constraining value*:
 - i.e. the one that rules out the fewest values in the remaining variables



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- 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



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WA	NT	Q	NSW	V	SA	T		

Forward checking

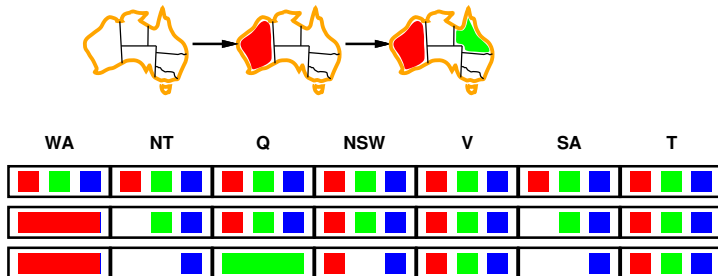
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WA	NT	Q	NSW	V	SA	T
■ ■ ■	■ ■ ■	■ ■ ■	■ ■ ■	■ ■ ■	■ ■ ■	■ ■ ■
■■■■	■ ■	■ ■ ■	■ ■ ■	■ ■ ■	■ ■	■ ■ ■
■■■■	■	■■■■	■ ■	■ ■ ■	■	■ ■ ■
■■■■	■	■■■■	■	■■■■		■ ■ ■

Constraint propagation

- Forward checking propagates information from assigned to unassigned variables.
 - Doesn't provide early detection for all failures.
- E.g., second step in the previous example:



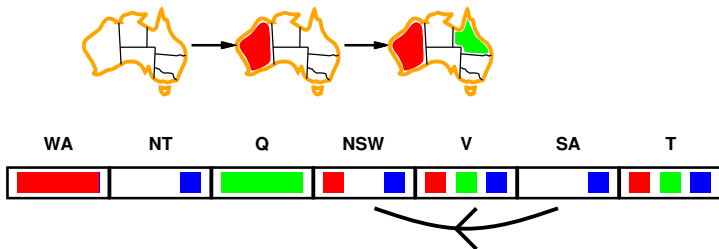
- *NT* and *SA* cannot both be blue!
 - *Constraint propagation* repeatedly enforces constraints locally

Constraint Propagation (cont'd)

- Constraint propagation involves propagating the implications of a constraint on one variable onto other variables.
 - Must be *fast*
 - I.e. it's no good reducing the amount of search if we spend a whole lot of time propagating constraints.

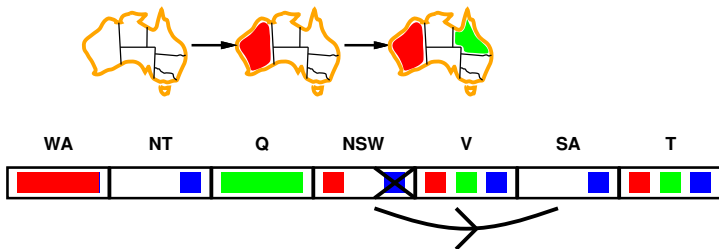
Arc Consistency

- 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 of Y .



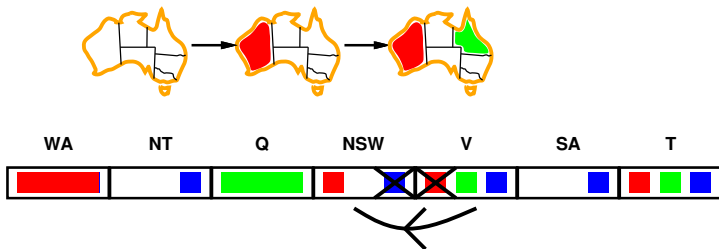
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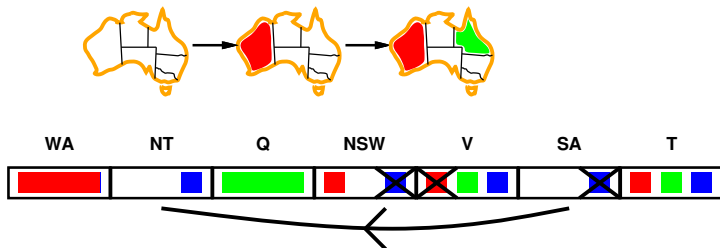
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- If X loses a value, neighbors of X need to be rechecked.
- Arc consistency detects failure earlier than forward checking.
- Can be run as a preprocessor or after each assignment.

Arc Consistency Algorithm

Function **AC-3**(*csp*) returns the CSP, possibly with reduced domains

inputs: *csp* a binary CSP with variables $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$

local variables: *queue* a queue of arcs, initially all the arcs in *csp*

while *queue* is not empty do

$(X_i, X_j) \leftarrow \text{Remove-First}(\textit{queue})$

 if *Remove-Inconsistent-Values*(X_i, X_j) then

 for each X_k in $\text{Neighbors}[X_i]$ do add (X_k, X_i) to *queue*

Function **Remove-Inconsistent-Values**(X_i, X_j) returns removed?

removed? \leftarrow false

for each x in $\text{Domain}[X_i]$ do

 if no $y \in \text{Domain}[X_j]$ allows (x, y) to satisfy the X_i, X_j constraint

 then delete x from $\text{Domain}[X_i]$; removed? \leftarrow true

return removed?

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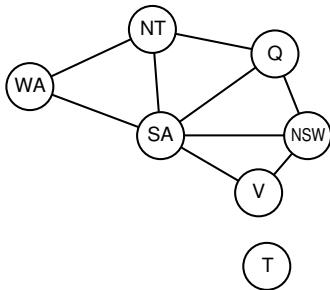
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👉 $O(n^2 d^3)$, can reduce to $O(n^2 d^2)$, but detecting *all* is NP-hard

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 $(n/c) \times d^c$, *linear* in n

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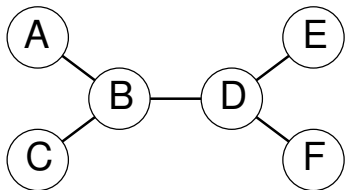
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- E.g., $n = 80$, $d = 2$, $c = 20$
 - $2^{80} = 4$ billion years at 10 million nodes/sec
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☞ So a heuristic to consider is to assign values to variables so as to break a problem into independent subproblems.

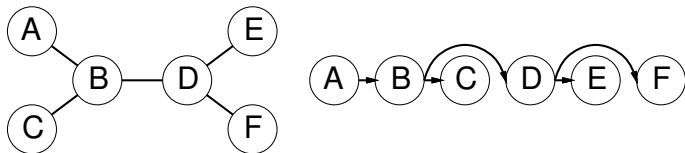
Tree-structured CSPs



- *Theorem*: If the constraint graph is a tree, the CSP can be solved in $O(nd^2)$ 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

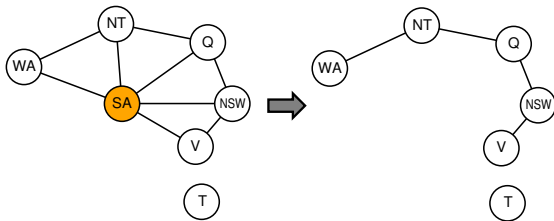
- 1 Choose a variable as root, order variables from root to leaves such that every node's parent precedes it in the ordering



- 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 $Parent(X_j)$

Nearly Tree-Structured CSPs: Cutset Conditioning

- *Conditioning*: Instantiate a variable, prune its neighbors' domains



- *Cycle cutset*: Instantiate (in all ways) a set of variables such that the remaining constraint graph is a tree
- Cutset size $c \implies$ runtime $O(d^c \cdot (n - c)d^2)$
 - 👉 Very fast for small c

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 $h(n)$ = total number of violated constraints.
- Can solve n -queens in almost constant time for arbitrary n with high probability (e.g., $n = 10,000,000$)

Summary

- CSPs are a special kind of problem:
 - States are defined by values of a fixed set of variables.
 - Goal test defined by *constraints* on variable values.
- Backtracking = depth-1st search with one variable assigned per node.
- Var. ordering and value selection heuristics help a great deal.
- 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.