

CONSTRAINT SATISFACTION PROBLEM

CHAPTER 5

Outline

- ◊ CSP examples
- ◊ Backtracking search for CSPs
- ◊ Problem structure and problem decomposition
- ◊ Local search for CSPs

Constraint satisfaction problems (CSP)

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

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

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

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

Example: Map-Coloring contd.

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

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; 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 tasks
 - ◊ need a constraint language, e.g., $StartJob_1 + 5 \leq EndJob_2$
 - ◊ 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., $SA \neq green$

Binary constraints involve pairs of variables,
e.g., $SA \neq WA$

Higher-order constraints involve 3 or more variables,
e.g., cryptarithmetic column constraints

Preferences (soft constraints), e.g., *red* is better than *green*
often representable by a cost for each variable assignment
→ constrained optimization problems

Example: Cryptarithmetic

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.

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.,

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

Only need to consider assignments to a single variable at each

$\Rightarrow b = d$ 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 CSP

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
    if assignment is complete then return assignment
    var  $\leftarrow$  SELECT-UNASSIGNED-VARIABLE(VARIABLES[csp], assignment)
    for each value in ORDER-DOMAIN-VALUES(var, assignment, csp)
        if value is consistent with assignment given CONSTRAINTS[csp]
            add  $\{var = value\}$  to assignment
            result  $\leftarrow$  RECURSIVE-BACKTRACKING(assignment, csp)
            if result  $\neq$  failure then return result
            remove  $\{var = value\}$  from assignment
    return failure
```

Backtracking example

Backtracking example

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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?

Minimum remaining values

Minimum remaining values (MRV):
choose the variable with the fewest legal values

Degree heuristic

Tie-breaker among MRV variables

Degree heuristic:

choose the variable with the most constraints on remaining

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

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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

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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 domain
  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
     $(X_i, X_j) \leftarrow \text{REMOVE-FIRST}(\text{queue})$ 
    if REMOVE-INCONSISTENT-VALUES( $X_i, X_j$ ) then
      for each  $X_k$  in NEIGHBORS[ $X_i$ ] do
        add  $(X_k, X_i)$  to queue

  function REMOVE-INCONSISTENT-VALUES( $X_i, X_j$ ) returns true/false
    removed  $\leftarrow \text{false}$ 
    for each  $x$  in DOMAIN[ $X_i$ ] do
      if no value  $y$  in DOMAIN[ $X_j$ ] allows  $(x,y)$  to satisfy the constraint
        then delete  $x$  from DOMAIN[ $X_i$ ]; removed  $\leftarrow \text{true}$ 
    return removed
```

$O(n^2d^3)$, can be reduced to $O(n^2d^2)$ (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 $n/c \cdot d^c$, 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 $O(n d^2)$ 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 CSI

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 $\text{REMOVEINCONSISTENT}(Parent(X_j))$
 3. For j from 1 to n , assign X_j consistently with $Parent(X_j)$

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

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

Example: 4-Queens

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

Operators: move queen in column

Goal test: no attacks

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

Performance of min-conflicts

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

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

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