

Advanced Problem Solving and Search

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1 Local-Search

Local-Search has basicly 4 steps:

1. pick solution from the search space
2. evaluate that solution
3. pick a better solution in the neighbourhood if possible
4. repeat until no better solution can be found

1.1 Hill-climbing

- start from any initial point, $=a$
- choose a point in the neighbourhood of a , $=b$
- check if value of a is better then value of b
 - if so $a=b$
 - else choose different point b
- if search space ($N(a)$) is exhausted return

iterated hill-climbing:

basic hill-climbing but you terminate after n steps, good if function is unbounded and has no min/max

1.2 Examples

GSAT

1. randomly assign *True* or *False* to each Variable
2. flip one variable assignment
 - if SAT: return
 - else: continue with 2 till MAX-FLIPS is reached
3. continue with 1 till MAX-TRIES is reached

1.3 Simulated Annealing/Stochastic Hill-Climbing

Improvement to Local-Search to skip over local min/max through new parameter **temperature**

- points in the neighbourhood are selected probabilisticly
- probability depends on the value difference of the current and the neighbouring point as well as the temperature
- higher temperature means less impact of the value difference \rightarrow search is more random
- formula for probability: $\frac{1}{1+e^{\frac{eval(v_c)-eval(v_n)}{T}}}$

- newly selected points can be worse than previous points (so that we can skip local optima)
- for **stochastic hill-climbing** the temperature remains constant
- for **simulated annealing** the temperature decreases over time making it more probable that new points are accepted over time
- also for **simulated annealing** new better valued points are always chosen

1.4 Tabu-Search

- Using a Memory to search new locations in the search space
- recently examined locations are ignored for a certain time period (e.g. five iterations)
- if some solution is much better than the solution before, the tabu can be overridden (**aspiration criteria**)
- long-term memory like **frequency based memory** can be used to choose steps when every next solution is worse than the solution before
→ 20 out of 40 times we went right, so let's move right again
- tabu-search moves to worse locations only if stuck in a local min/max

2 Answer-Set Programming

- declarative problem solving approach
- modeling language
- allows solving problems in NP and NP^{NP}

2.1 Normal Logic Program

- $a_0 \leftarrow a_1, \dots, a_m, \text{not } a_{m+1}, \dots, \text{not } a_n$
 - head
 - body^+
 - body^-
 - $\text{body} = \text{body}^+ \cup \text{body}^-$

- if $\text{body}^- = \emptyset$ its called a *positive program*
- a set of Atoms \mathbf{A} is *closed under* a positive program P iff the Head and body^+ only contains elements of \mathbf{A}
 $\rightarrow X$ corresponds to a model of P
- the *smallest* set of Atoms closed under a positive program P is called $Cn(P)$
 $\rightarrow Cn(P)$ also corresponds to the smallest model of P
- $Cn(P)$ is a *stable model* of P
- *definitive clauses/positive rules*: $a_0 \vee \wedge a_1 \dots \vee \wedge a_m$
(exactly one positive atom in DNF)
- *Horn clauses*: clauses with **at most** one positive atom
 \rightarrow every definite clause is a horn clause

Gelfond-Lifschitz-Reduct P^X

- $P^X = \{\text{head}(r) \rightarrow \text{body}^+ \mid r \in P \text{ and } \text{body}^- \cap X = \emptyset\}$
 $\rightarrow \text{body}^-$ does not contains elements of X
- a set \mathbf{X} of Atoms is a *stable model* of \mathbf{P} , if $Cn(P^X) = X$
 - delete each rule having *not* a in its body with $a \in X$
 - delete negative atoms *not* a from the remaining rules

Variables in Logic Programs

- let P be a logic program with rules r
- \mathcal{T} : set of variable-free terms (Herbrand universe)
- \mathcal{A} : set of atoms constructable from \mathcal{T} (Herbrand base)
- $\text{ground}(r) = \{r\theta \mid \theta : \text{var}(r) \rightarrow \mathcal{T}, \text{var}(r\theta) = \emptyset\}$
- $\text{ground}(P) = \bigcup_{r \in P} \text{ground}(r) \Rightarrow \text{ground instantiation}$

$\text{Ground}(P)$ is the Set of the facts and all the rules of P with each variable replaced by an element of \mathcal{T} , for all possible choices of elements from \mathcal{T}

Syntax

	true	false	if	and	or	iff	default negation	classical negation
source code			:-	$,$	\mid		not	$-$
logic program			\leftarrow	$,$	$;$		<i>not</i>	\neg
formula	\top	\perp	\rightarrow	\wedge	\vee	\leftrightarrow	\sim	\neg

default negation vs. classical negation

default negation	classical negation
only negates if there is evidence that sth. is not true → close-world assumption can be used to express non-monotonicity → more knowledge can lead to less true statements (knowledge can be 'revoked')	False is not the same as Unknown Nothing can be inferred about an object → open-world assumption more statements lead to more knowledge → monotonicity

Complexity:

	X is a stable model of P	a is in the stable model of P
positive normal logic program	P-complete	P-complete
normal logic program	P-complete	NP-complete
normal lp w/ optimization statements	co-NP-complete	Δ_2^P -complete
positive disjunctive lp	co-NP-complete	NP^{NP} -complete
disjunctive lp	co-NP-complete	NP^{NP} -complete
disjunctive lp w/ optimization statements	co- NP^{NP} -complete	Δ_3^P -complete
propositional theory	co-NP-complete	NP^{NP} -complete

3 Constraint Satisfaction Problem

$\mathcal{C} = \langle X, D, C \rangle$, with:

- X... Variables
- D... Domains for each Variable
a domain contains a set of allowed values for each Variable (can be finite or infinite, can be discrete or continuous)
- C... Constraints for Variable values
a tuple $\langle \text{scope}, \text{rel} \rangle$
scope is a tuple of constraint variables
rel defines the possible values (can be a list or an expression etc.)
- other than in regular search in CSP its possible to cut large portions from search space at once using constraint → **constraint propagation**
this can be done in combination with a search or as a pre-processing step
 - Each variable becomes a node
 - Each binary constraint becomes an arc
 - enforcing local consistency:

- * Node consistency: all values in the domain of a Variable satisfy the unary constraints of that Variable
you can remove elements from the domain that do not satisfy the constrain
- * Arc consistency: all values from a domain for a variable satisfy the variables binary constraints. Two Variables are arc consistent if there there is a value in each Variables respective domain s.d. the binary relation is satisfied. If this hold for all variables the CSP is arc consistent
- * Path consistent:

3.1 Example

Coloring of a Map s.d. no two adjacent countries are the same color

- $X =$
{Germany, Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, France, Switzerland, Lichtenstein, Austria, CzechRepublic, Poland, Denmark}
- $D = \{Red, Green, Blue, Yellow\}$
- $C =$
adjacent countries have different colors (may be expressed in an formal language)
- a Solution would be a color assignment for each country s.d. all constraints are satisfied

3.2 Search strategies

- **Standard search formulation (incremental)**
 - initial state: \emptyset
 - states are defined by the values assigned so far
 - step: assign a value to an unassigned variable, (as well as checking for conflicts)
 - goal: current assignment is complete
 - \Rightarrow every solution is at depth n with n Variables
 - \Rightarrow branching factor $b = (n - l)d$ at depth $l \rightarrow n!d^n$ leaves
- **Backtracking search**

- variable assignments are commutative → it doesn't matter if we assign X before Y or Y before X
- branching factor $b = d$ with d^n leaves
- DFS for CSPs with single-variable assignment

4 Evolutionary Algorithms

- instead of modifying an existing solution we now use random variation to search for better solutions in parallel.
- based on natural selection
- each of the individuals within a population can be evaluated by a fitness function
→ fitter individuals win over less fit competitors
- surviving individuals act as seed for the next population
→ genes are passed on
- recombination and mutation allows for new and potentially fitter individuals
- after a certain time the increase in fitness stagnates

5 Trees

- Many CSPs can be solved in P-Time if the problem's treewidth is small
- Solving a bounded width problem includes two steps
 1. generate a (hyper)tree decomposition with small width
 2. solve the problem based on the decomposition with dynamic programming
- *Idea*: decompose main problem into sub-problems of smaller size
- if the constraint graph to a corresponding CSP has no loops the CSP can be solved in $O(nd^2)$ time
(which is much smaller than the usual $O(d^n)$)
- *constraint graph*: Nodes... Variables, Arcs...Constraints

5.1 Tree Decompositions

- $G = (V, E)$
- *tree decomposition* (T, χ)
 - Tree: $T = (I, F)$, I...Nodes, F...Edges
 - $\chi = \{\chi_i : i \in I\}$ with:
 - * $\bigcup_{i \in I} \chi_i = V$
 - * $\forall (v, w) \in E \exists i \in I : v \in \chi_i \text{ and } w \in \chi_i$
 - * $\forall i, j, k \in I : \text{ if } j \text{ is on the path from } i \text{ to } k \text{ in } T,$
then $\chi_i \cap \chi_k \subseteq \chi_j$
- width of a tree decomposition: $\max_{i \in I} |\chi_i| - 1$
- treewidth of a graph G is denoted by $\text{tw}(G)$, its the minimum width over all possible tree decompositions of G
- finding $\text{tw}(G)$ is **NP-hard**