Artificial Intelligence Chapter 5

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reorganized by L. Aszalós

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Outline

- CSP examples
- Backtracking search for CSPs
- Problem structure and problem decomposition
- 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:
 - \triangleright 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

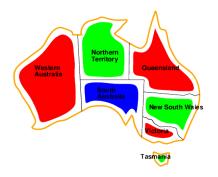
Example: Map-Coloring



- 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
 - lacktriangle (WA, NT) \in {(red, green), (red, blue), (green, red), (green, blue), . . .}

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Example: Map-Coloring contd.

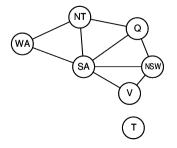


• Solutions are assignments satisfying all constraints, e.g., $\{WA=red,NT=green,Q=red,NSW=green,V=red,SA=blue,T=green\}$

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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!

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Varieties of CSPs

- Discrete variables
 - finite domains; size $d \implies O(d^n)$ 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., $StartJob_1 + 5 \le StartJob_3$
 - ★ 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

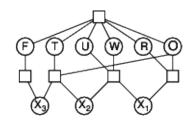
Varieties of constraints

- Unary constraints involve a single variable,
 - e.g., $SA \neq green$
- 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
 - ightharpoonup often representable by a cost for each variable assignment ightarrowconstrained optimization problems

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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:
 - ► *Idiff* (*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, ∅
- Goal test: the current assignment is complete
- 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!!!!

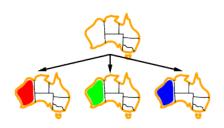
Backtracking search

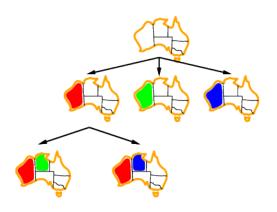
- Variable assignments are commutative,
 - i.e., [WA = red then NT = green] same as [NT = green then WA = red]
- Only need to consider assignments to a single variable at each node
 - \Rightarrow b = d and there are d^n leaves
- Depth-first search for CSPs with single-variable assignments is called backtracking search
- Backtracking search is the basic uninformed algorithm for CSPs
- Can solve *n*-queens for $n \approx 25$

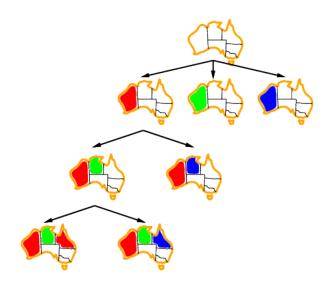
Backtracking search

```
function Backtracking-Search(csp): solution/failure
    return Recursive-Backtracking({ }, csp)
function Recursive-Backtracking(assignment,csp): 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
```









Improving backtracking efficiency

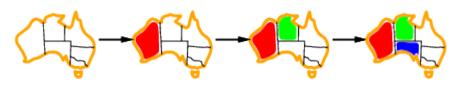
General-purpose methods can give huge gains in speed:

- Which variable should be assigned next?
- In what order should its values be tried?
- Oan we detect inevitable failure early?
- Oan 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:

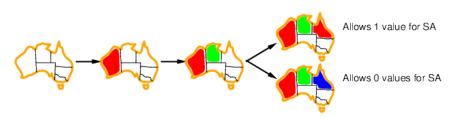
• choose the variable with the most constraints on remaining variables



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

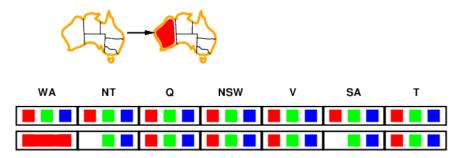
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- Idea: Keep track of remaining legal values for unassigned variables
 - ▶ Terminate search when any variable has no legal values

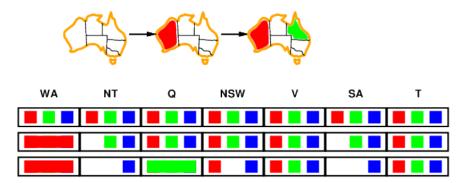




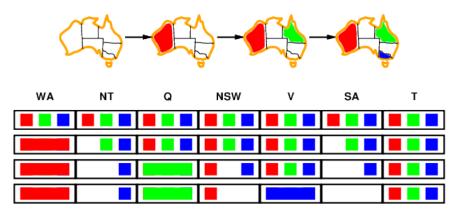
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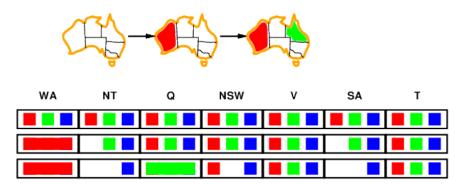


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Constraint propagation

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

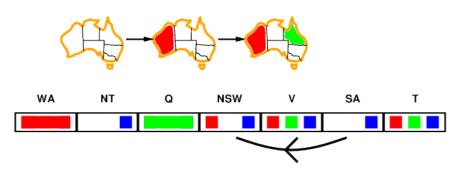


NT and SA cannot both be blue!

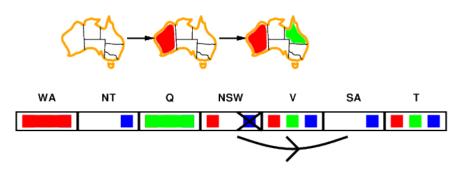
Constraint propagation repeatedly enforces constraints locally

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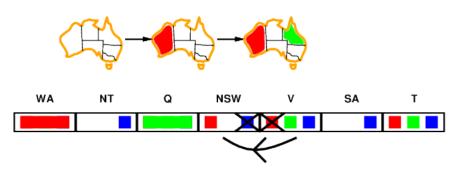
Simplest form of propagation makes each arc *consistent* $X \to Y$ is consistent iff for **every** value x of X there is **some** allowed y



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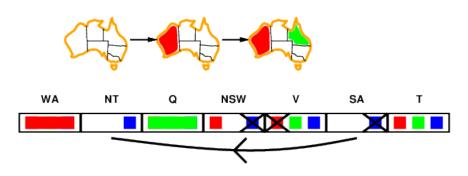
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• If X loses a value, neighbors of X need to be rechecked

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Simplest form of propagation makes each arc *consistent* $X \to Y$ is consistent iff 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

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Arc consistency algorithm

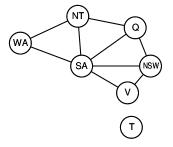
```
function AC-3(csp): the CSP, possibly with reduced domains
    inputs: csp, a binary CSP with variables {X1, X2,...,Xn}
    local var.: queue, a queue of arcs,
                    initially all the arcs in csp
    while queue is not empty do
        (Xi, Xj) := Remove-First(queue)
        if Remove-Inconsistent-Values(Xi, Xj) then
            for each Xk in Neighbors [Xi] do
                add (Xk, Xi) to queue
```

Arc consistency algorithm

 $O(n^2d^3)$, can be reduced to $O(n^2d^2)$ (but detecting all is NP-hard)

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Problem structure

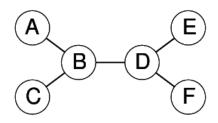


- Tasmania and mainland are independent subproblems
- Identifiable as connected components of constraint graph

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
 - $ightharpoonup 2^{80} = 4$ billion years at 10 million nodes/sec
 - $4 \cdot 2^{20} = 0.4$ seconds at 10 million nodes/sec

Tree-structured CSPs



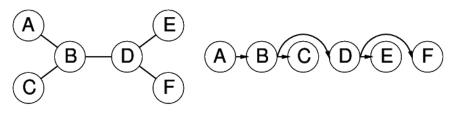
Theorem: if the constraint graph has no loops, the CSP can be solved in $O(n d^2)$ time

- 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.

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Algorithm for tree-structured CSPs

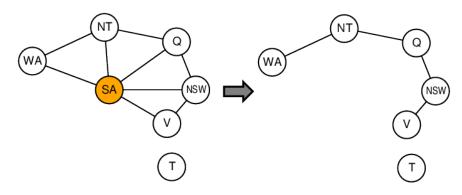
Choose a variable as root, order variables from root to leaves such that every node's parent precedes it in the ordering



- ② For j from n down to 2, apply Removelnconsistent($Parent(X_j), X_j$)
- **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 $c \implies$ 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

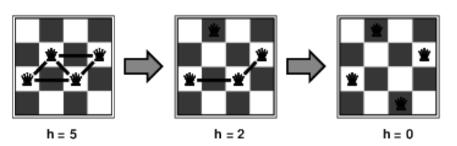
Example: 4-Queens

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

• Operators: move queen in column

• Goal test: no attacks

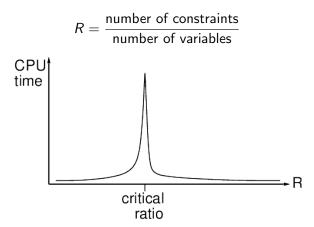
• Evaluation: h(n) = number of attacks



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



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