

Constraint Satisfaction Problems

Chapter 5





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

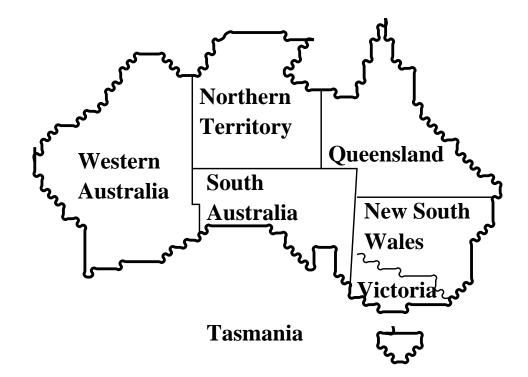
Constraint satisfaction problems (CSPs)

- Standard search problem: state is a "black box"—any old data structure that supports goal test, eval, successor
- SP:

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

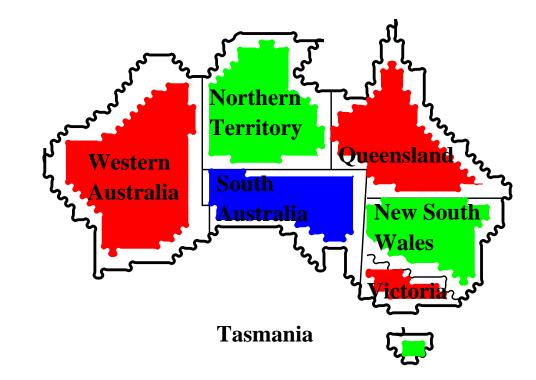
- Simple example of a formal representation language
- Allows useful general-purpose algorithms with more power than standard search algorithms

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

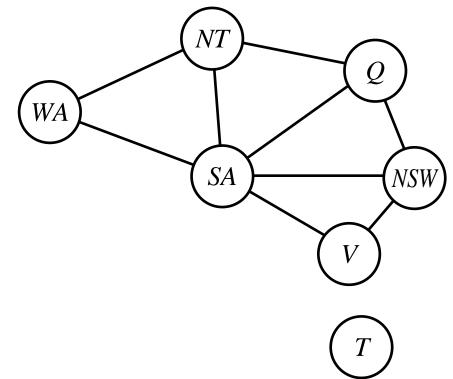
Example: Map-Coloring (cont'd)



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



- 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

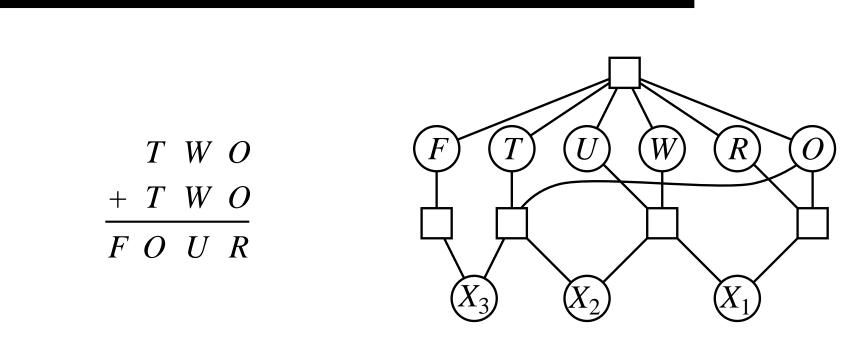
- Discrete variables
 - finite domains; size $d \implies O(d^n)$ complete assignments e.g., Boolean CSPs, incl. Boolean satisfiability (NP-complete)
 - infinite domains (integers, strings, etc.)
 e.g., job scheduling, variables are start/end days for each job
 need a constraint language, e.g.,
 StartJob₁ + 5 ≤ StartJob₃
 - linear constraints solvable, nonlinear undecidable
- Continuous variables
 e.g., start/end times for Hubble Telescope

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

 \rightarrow constrained optimization problems

Example: Cryptarithmetic



(b)

(a)

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 alldiff (F T U W R O)

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

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, Ø Successor function: assign a value to an unassigned variable

that does not conflict with current assignment.

 \implies fail if no legal assignments (not fixable!) Goal test: the current assignment is complete

Standard search formulation (incremental)

- This is the same for all CSPs!
- Every solution appears at depth n with n variables \implies use depth-first search
- Path is irrelevant, so can also use complete-state formulation
- ▶ $b = (n \ell)d$ at depth ℓ , hence $n!d^n$ leaves!!!!

Backtracking search

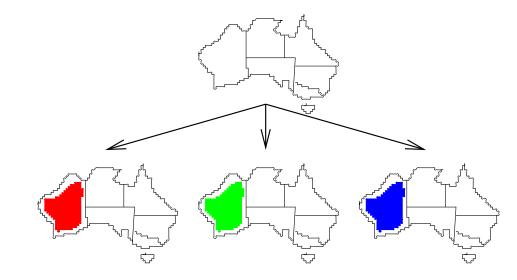
- Variable assignments are commutative, i.e.,
 [WA = red then NT = green] same as
 [NT = green then WA = red]
- Only need to consider assignments to a single variable at each node

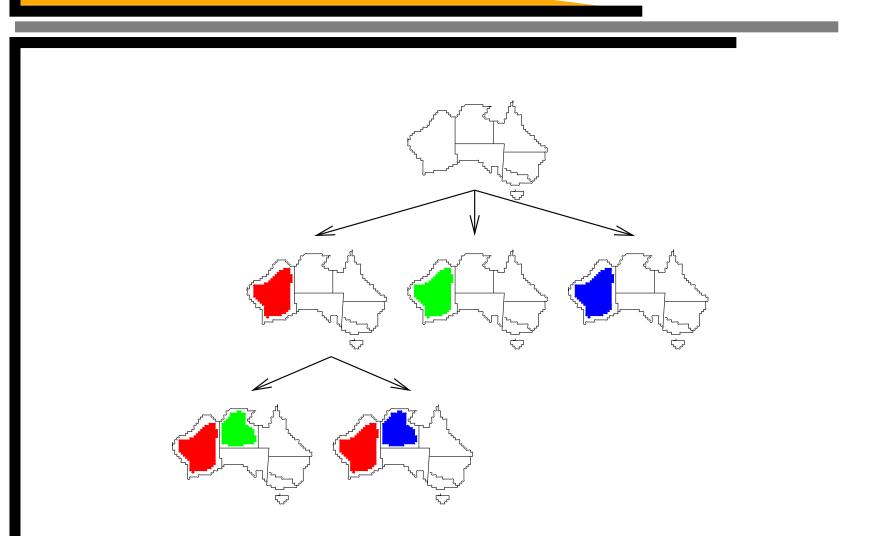
 $\implies b = d$ and there are d^n leaves

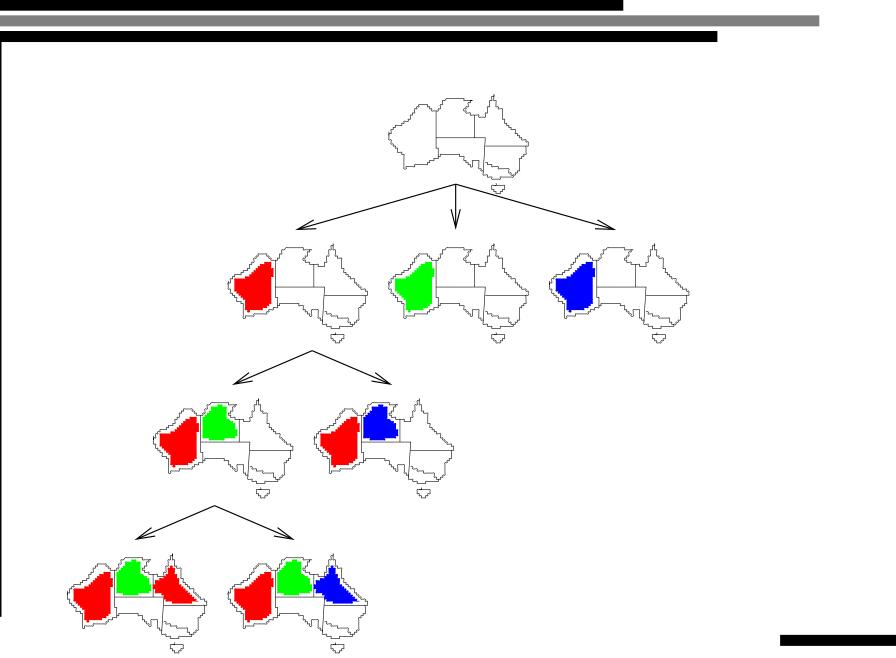
- Depth-first search for CSPs with single-variable assignments is called *backtracking* search
- Backtracking search is the basic uninformed algorithm for CSPs
- Can solve *n*-queens for $n \approx 25$

```
function BACKTRACKING-SEARCH (CSP)
returns a solution, or failure
 return RECURSIVE-BACKTRACKING({ }, CSP)
function RECURSIVE-BACKTRACKING (assignment, csp)
returns a solution, or failure
 if assignment is complete then return assignment
  var \leftarrow SELECT-UNASSIGNED-VAR(VARIABLES[csp], assignment,csp)
 for each value in ORDER-DOMAIN-VARS(var, assignment, csp) do
   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
```







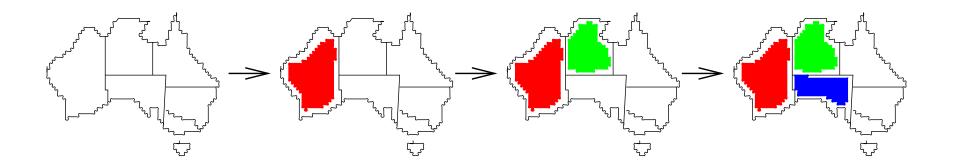


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General-purpose methods can give huge gains in speed:

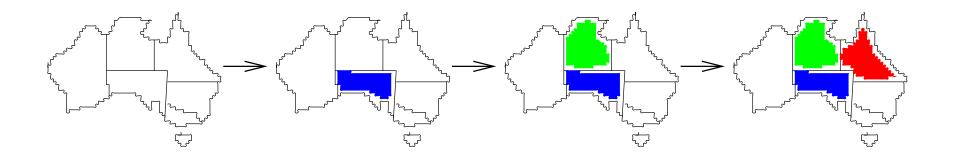
- 1. Which variable should be assigned next?
- 2. In what order should its values be tried?
- 3. Can we detect inevitable failure early?
- 4. Can we take advantage of problem structure?

Most constrained variable: choose the variable with the fewest legal values

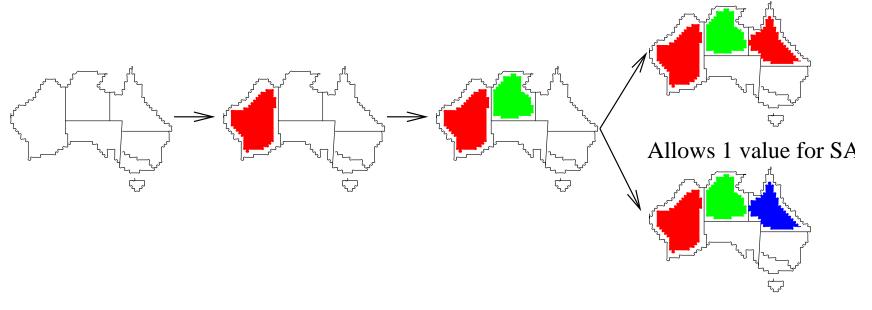


Tie-breaker among most constrained variables

Most constraining variable: choose the variable with the most constraints on remaining variables

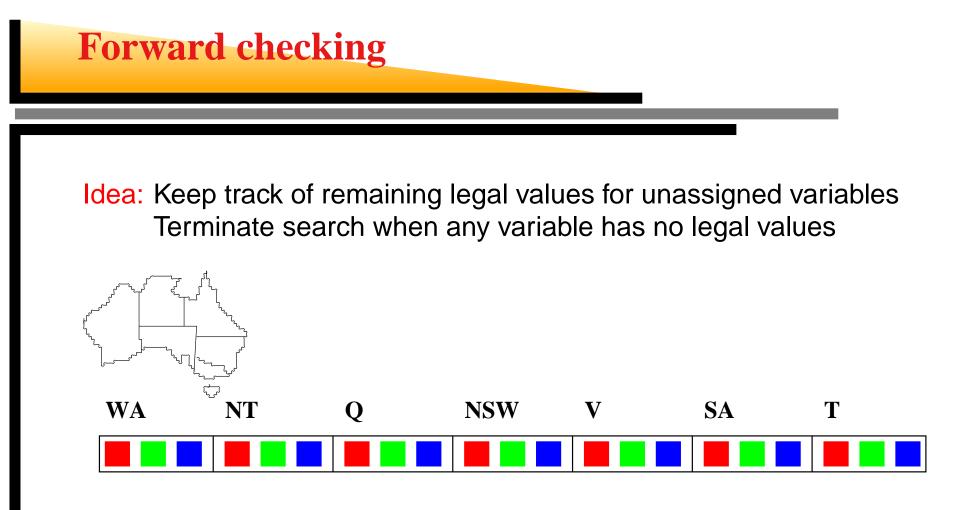


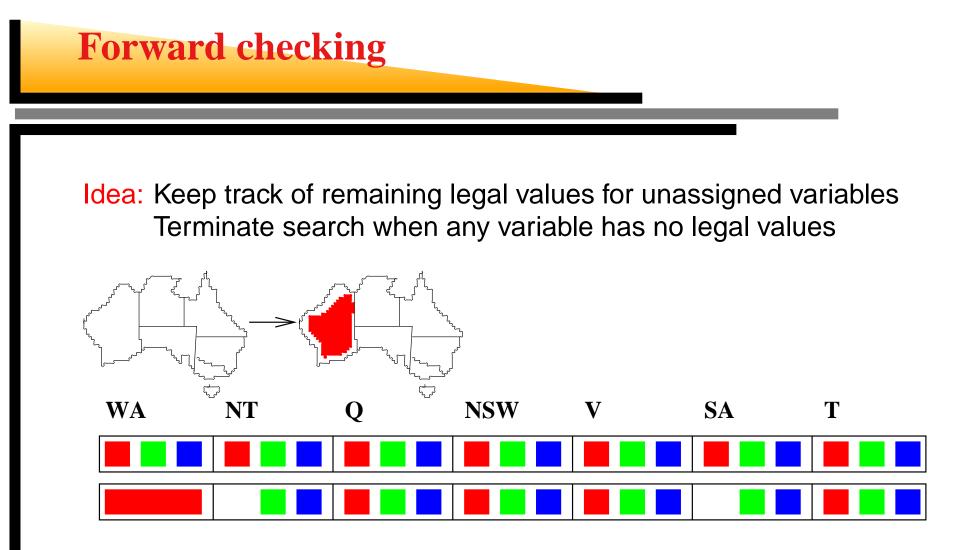
Given a variable, choose the least constraining value: the one that rules out the fewest values in the remaining variables

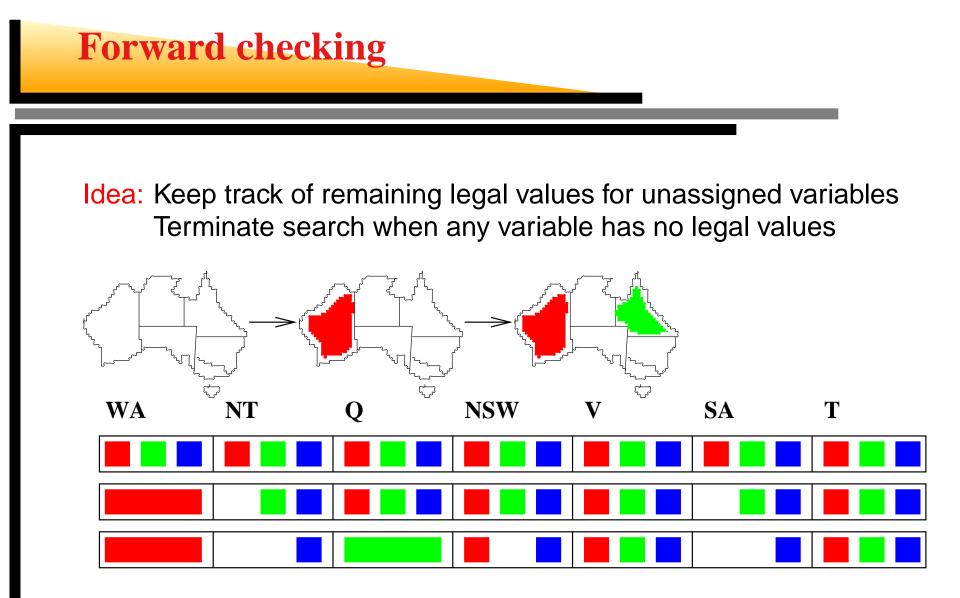


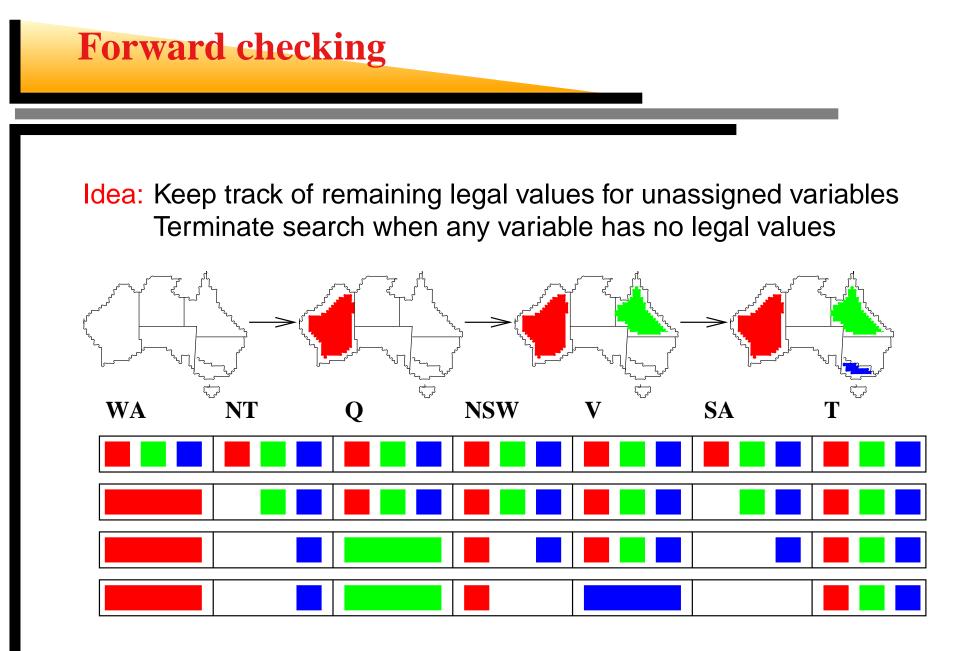
Allows 0 value for SA

Combining these heuristics makes 1000 queens feasible

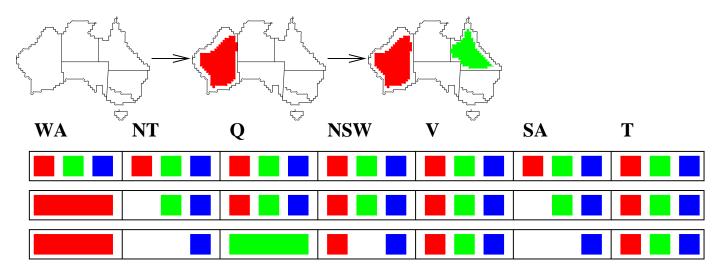








Forward checking propagates information from assigned to unassigned variables, but doesn't provide early detection for all failures:

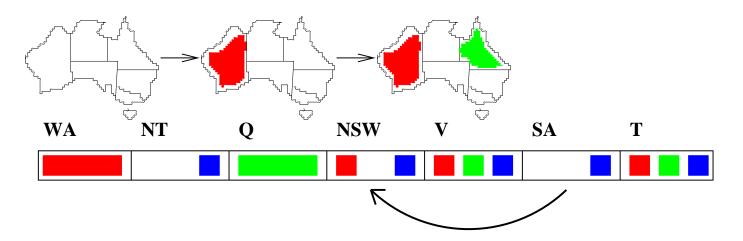


NT and *SA* cannot both be blue!

Constraint propagation repeatedly enforces constraints locally

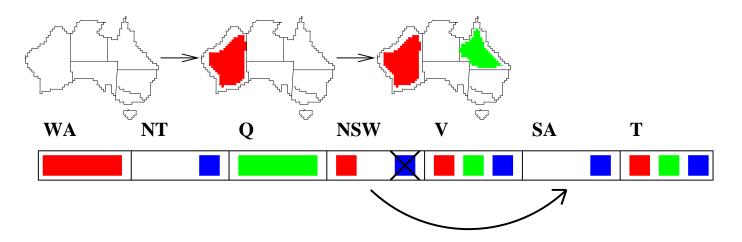


 $X \rightarrow Y$ is consistent iff for every value x of X there is some allowed y



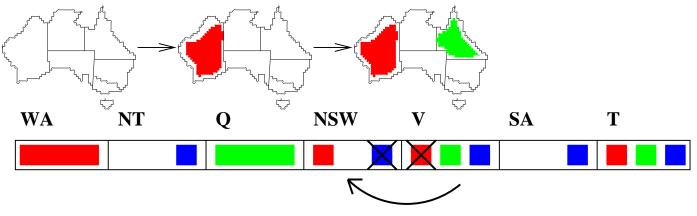


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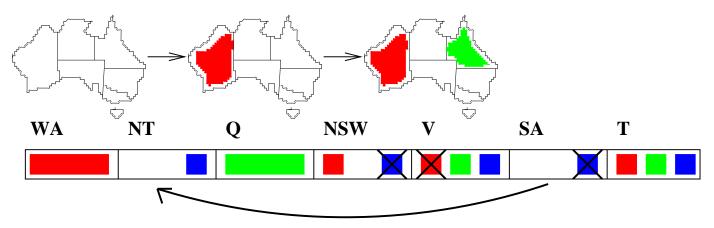


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If X loses a value, neighbors of X need to be rechecked

 $X \rightarrow Y$ 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

```
function AC-3 (csp)

returns the CSP, with possibly reduced domains

inputs: csp, a binary CSP with variables \{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}

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

while queue is not empty do

(X_i, X_j) \leftarrow \text{REMOVEFIRST}(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 iff we remove a value

```
removed \leftarrow false

for each x in DOMAIN[X<sub>i</sub>] do

if no value in DOMAIN[X<sub>j</sub>] allows (x, y) to satisfy the

constraint between X<sub>i</sub> and X<sub>j</sub>

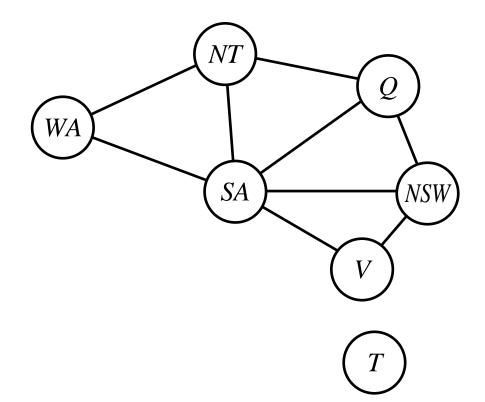
then delete x from DOMAIN[X<sub>i</sub>];

removed \leftarrow true

return removed
```

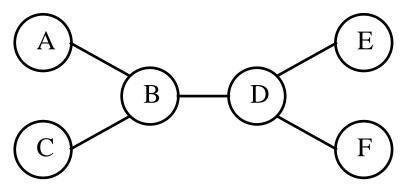
 $O(n^2d^3)$, can be reduced to $O(n^2d^2)$ but cannot detect all failures in poly time!

Problem structure



Tasmania and mainland are *independent subproblems* Identifiable as *connected components* of constraint graph Suppose each subproblem has c variables out of n total Worst-case solution cost is $n/c \cdot d^c$, linear in nE.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



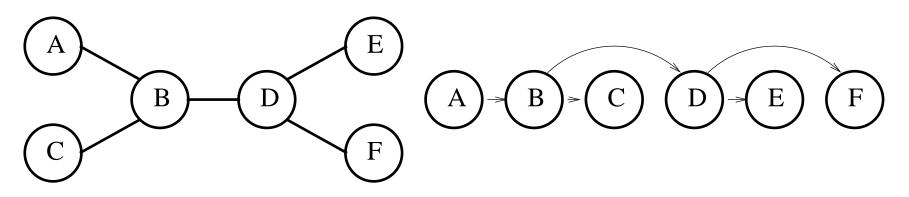
Theorem: if the constraint graph has no loops, the CSP can be solved in $O(n d^2)$ time

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

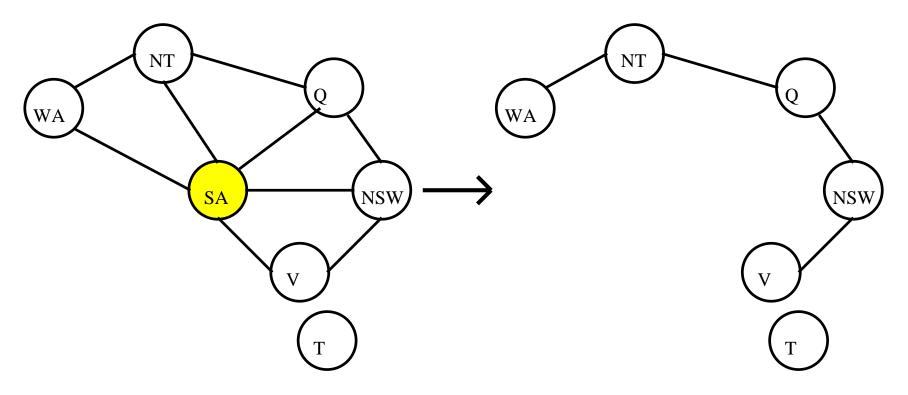
This property also applies to logical and probabilistic reasoning:

an important example of the relation between syntactic restrictions and the complexity of reasoning.

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 REMOVEINCONSISTENT($Parent(X_j), X_j$) 3. For *j* from 1 to *n*, assign X_j consistently with $Parent(X_j)$ Conditioning: instantiate a variable, prune its neighbors' domains

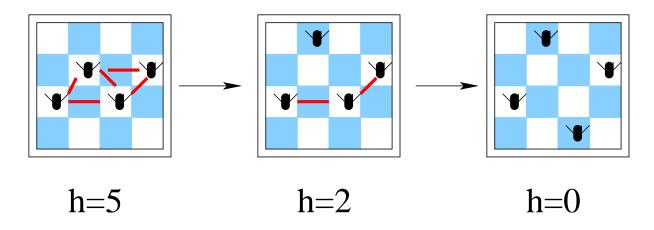


Cutset conditioning: instantiate (in all ways) a set of variables such that the remaining constraint graph is a tree

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

- 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

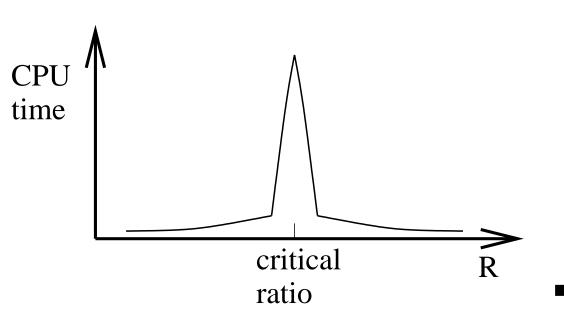
States: 4 queens in 4 columns ($4^4 = 256$ states) Operators: move queen in column Goal test: no attacks Evaluation: h(n) = number of attacks



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

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





- 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