

Artificial Intelligence

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Constraint Satisfaction

So far we assumed the world states as blackboxes (no internal structure was assumed) accessed via:

- successor function
- goal test
- heuristic function (distance to goal)

Today we will look inside the states:

- representing problems as **constraint satisfaction problems (CSPs)**
 - state has a structure that can be exploited during problem solving
- general **constraint satisfaction techniques**
 - depth-first search combined with inference via constraint propagation



Logic-based puzzle, whose goal is to enter digits 1-9 in cells of 9×9 table in such a way, that no digit appears twice or more in every row, column, and 3×3 sub-grid.

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

A bit of history

1979: first published in New York under the name „Number Place“

1986: became popular in Japan

Sudoku – from Japanese "Sudji wa dokushin ni kagiru"
"the numbers must be single" or "the numbers must occur once"

2005: became popular in the western world

recognised puzzle arrived in a magazine in the late 1970s. It was called Latin Squares and was published in the Japanese magazine "Number Place". It may have originated in India under the name "Sudoku". It may have originated in either symmetrical or squares thought geometrical. People may argue that it was invented by another, but differences in "carries" make solving each type of Sudoku are squares had fewer "carries". Sudoku with no "carries" is easier when they are square. The identification is critical as there is greater patterns draw to create challenging and aspect of the brain Sudoku puzzles. Unlike a challenge to this, Sudoku puzzles encourages you solve, rendering any layout obsolete.

SUDOKU

Complete the grid so that every row, column and every three-by-three box contains the digits 1 to 9. Solve the puzzle by logic and reasoning alone, with no maths involved.

Difficult

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

More Sudoku at: sudokusolver.com

How to find out which digit to fill in?

x	x	6		1	3			
3	9	x						1
2	1	8			4			

- Use information that each digit appears exactly once in each row and column.

What if this is not enough?

- Look at columns or combine information from rows and columns

		6	x	1	3			
3	9		x	x	2			1
2	1	8	x	x	x	4		

8	7		2					
8	6	1						
			7		4	9		

3				7		8		
4					2	5		
9	2					3		

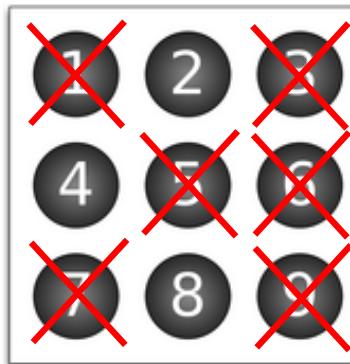
		6		1	3	2	*	2
3	9			2	*	1	*	
2	1	8			4	*	*	
8	7	2						
	8	6	1					
		7		4	9			
	3			7	8			
4				2	5			
	9	2		3				

If neither rows nor columns provide enough information, we can note allowed digits in each cell.

The position of a digit can be inferred from positions of other digits and restrictions of Sudoku that each digit appears once in a column (row, sub-grid).

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

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



Each cell can be represented as a **variable** with values taken from a **domain** $\{1, \dots, 9\}$.

All pairs of variables in a row, in a column, and in a sub-grid are connected by inequality **constraints**.

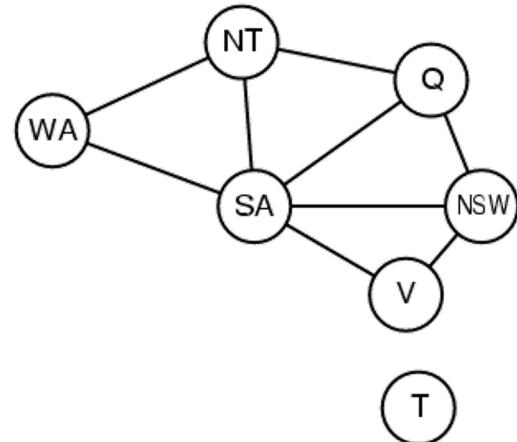
Values violating any constraint are **filtered out**.

Such a formulation of problem is called a **constraint satisfaction problem**.

Constraint satisfaction problem consists of:

- a finite set of **variables**
 - describe some features of the world state that we are looking for, for example position of queens at a chessboard
- **domains** – finite sets of values for each variable
 - describe “options” that are available, for example the rows for queens
 - sometimes, there is a single common “superdomain” and domains for particular variables are defined via unary constraints
- a finite set of **constraints**
 - a constraint is a relation over a subset of variables for example $\text{rowA} \neq \text{rowB}$
 - a constraint can be defined in extension (a set of tuples satisfying the constraint) or using a formula (see above)

Find colours for states (red, blue, green) such that no neighbours are coloured by the same colour.



Constraint model

- variables: {WA, NT, Q, NSW, V, SA, T}
- superdomain: {r, b, g}
- constraints: WA ≠ NT, WA ≠ SA ...

Can also be represented as a **constraint network** (nodes = variables, arc = constraints)

Problem solution

WA = r, NT = g, Q = r, NSW = g,
V = r, SA = b, T = g





State is a partial assignment of values to variables.

A **consistent state** is an assignment that does not violate any constraint.

A **complete state** is a state where each variable is assigned to some value.

The goal is a complete consistent state.

Sometimes, there is an **objective function** defined over the variables that evaluates the goal states by assigning them real numbers.

Then we are looking for an **optimal goal state**, that is, a goal state with the minimal (or maximal) value of the objective function.

So far we know various **search algorithms**, so we can apply them to CSPs too.

- **the initial state**: an empty assignment
- **applicable actions**: assigning a value to a certain variable such that no constraint is violated
- **the goal**: a complete consistent assignment

Some notes:

- the same solving approach for all CSPs
- the goal state is always at depth **n**, where **n** is the number of variables
 - We can use DFS even without checking cycles!
- the order of actions is not important to reach the goal (a CSP is a **commutative problem**)
 - $\langle WA=r, NT=g \rangle$ is the same as $\langle NT=g, WA=r \rangle$
 - we can also use local search techniques
- it is possible to use different branching schemes to solve CSPs, for example domain splitting

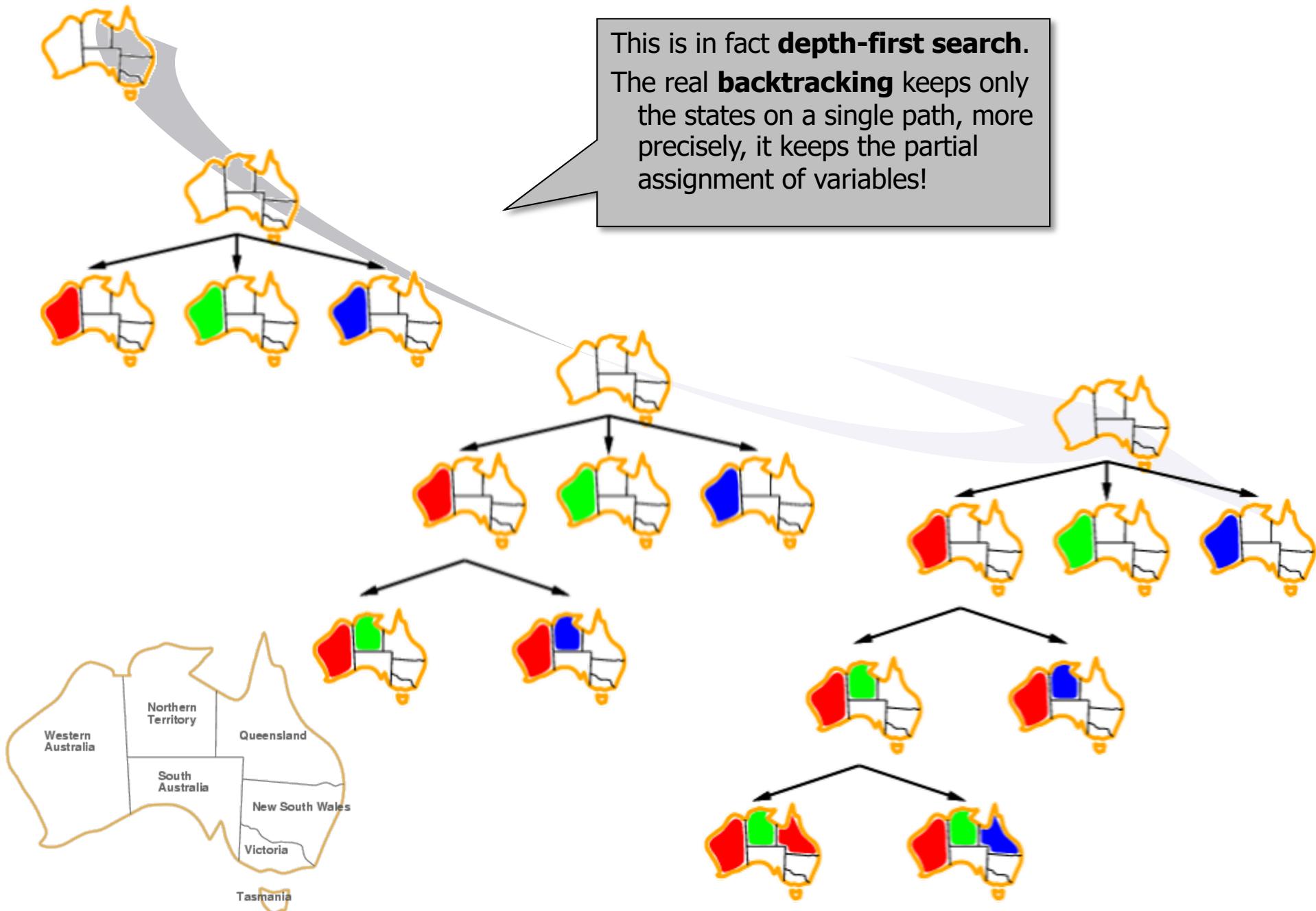
The core uninformed algorithm to solve a CSP:

- gradually assigns values to variables
- if no value can be assigned to a variable then goes back to the previous variable and tries an alternative value for that variable

```
function BACKTRACKING-SEARCH(csp) returns a solution or failure
    return BACKTRACK(csp, {})

function BACKTRACK(csp, assignment) returns a solution or failure
    if assignment is complete then return assignment
    var  $\leftarrow$  SELECT-UNASSIGNED-VARIABLE(csp, assignment)
    for each value in ORDER-DOMAIN-VALUES(csp, var, assignment) do
        if value is consistent with assignment then
            add {var = value} to assignment
            inferences  $\leftarrow$  INFERENCE(csp, var, assignment)
            if inferences  $\neq$  failure then
                add inferences to csp
                result  $\leftarrow$  BACKTRACK(csp, assignment)
                if result  $\neq$  failure then return result
                remove inferences from csp
                remove {var = value} from assignment
    return failure
```

Backtracking: an example





How to influence efficiency of search?

- **the choice of variable for assignment**

- at the end, we need to assign values to all the variables, but the order of variables influences the size of the search tree
 - problem independent heuristics (such as fail-first)

- **assigning the “right” values**

- this is usually problem dependent

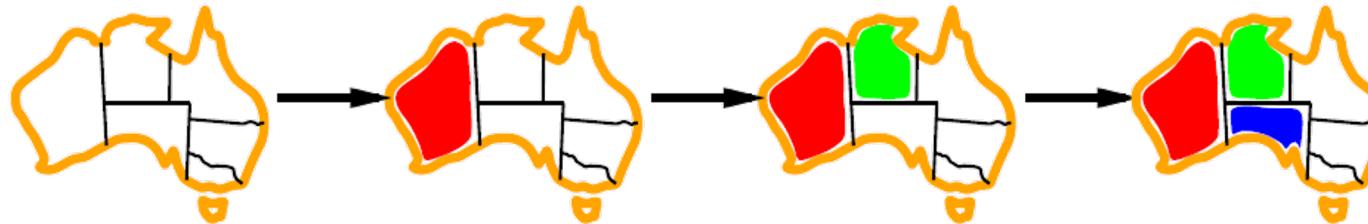
- **early detection of “wrong” branches**

- deducing extra information (for example via constraint propagation)

- **exploiting a problem structure**

- some problems can be solved using backtrack-free search (for example tree-structured CSPs)

- **The most restricted** variable first
 - a variable with the smallest number of actions
 - i.e. variable with the smallest current domain
 - so called **dom heuristic**



- **The most constrained** variable first
 - participates in the largest number of constraints
 - so called **deg heuristic**
 - frequently used when dom heuristic does not select a single variable
(dom+deg heuristic)

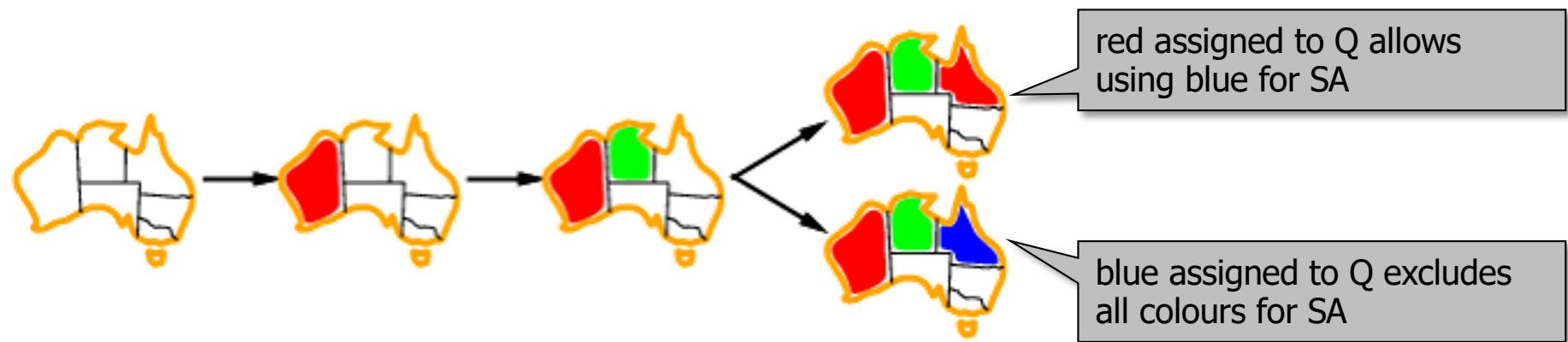


These are instances of the **fail-first principle** – assign first a variable whose assignment will probably lead to a failure.

When selecting a value for the variable, we prefer values belonging to a solution with a high chance – a **succeed-first principle**.

How to recognize such a value?

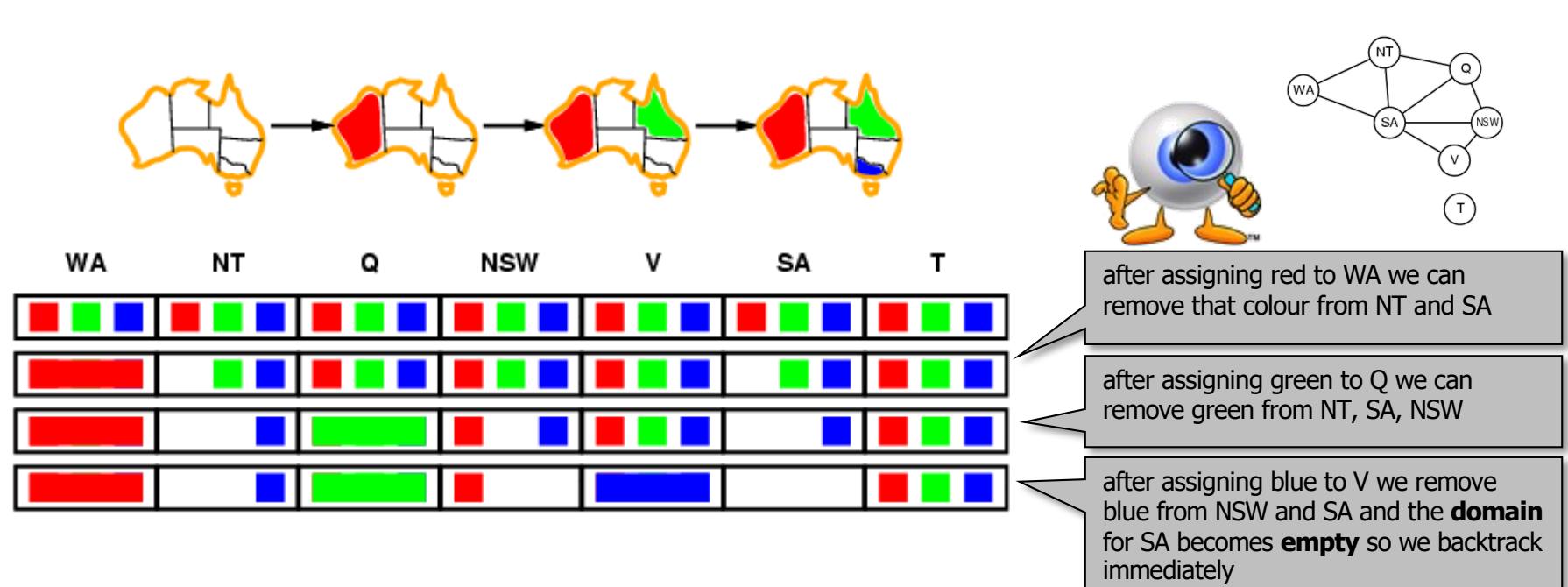
- for example a value that **restricts least the other variables** (keeps the largest flexibility in the problem)



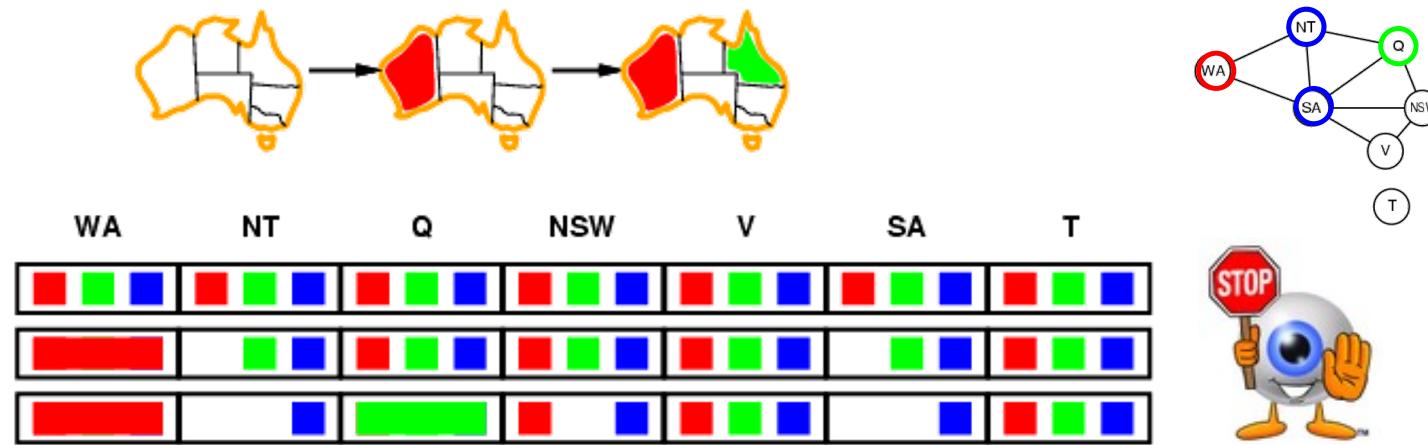
- the value can also be found by relaxing the problem, finding the solution of the relaxed problem, and using values from this solution (recall construction of heuristics)
- finding the generally best value is frequently computationally expensive and hence **problem-dependent heuristics** are usually preferred

Can we guess in advance that a given path does not lead to the goal?

- After assigning a value to the variable we can check the future constraints – constraints between the current variable and not-yet instantiated variables – **forward checking**.
- constraint check = remove values violating the constraint

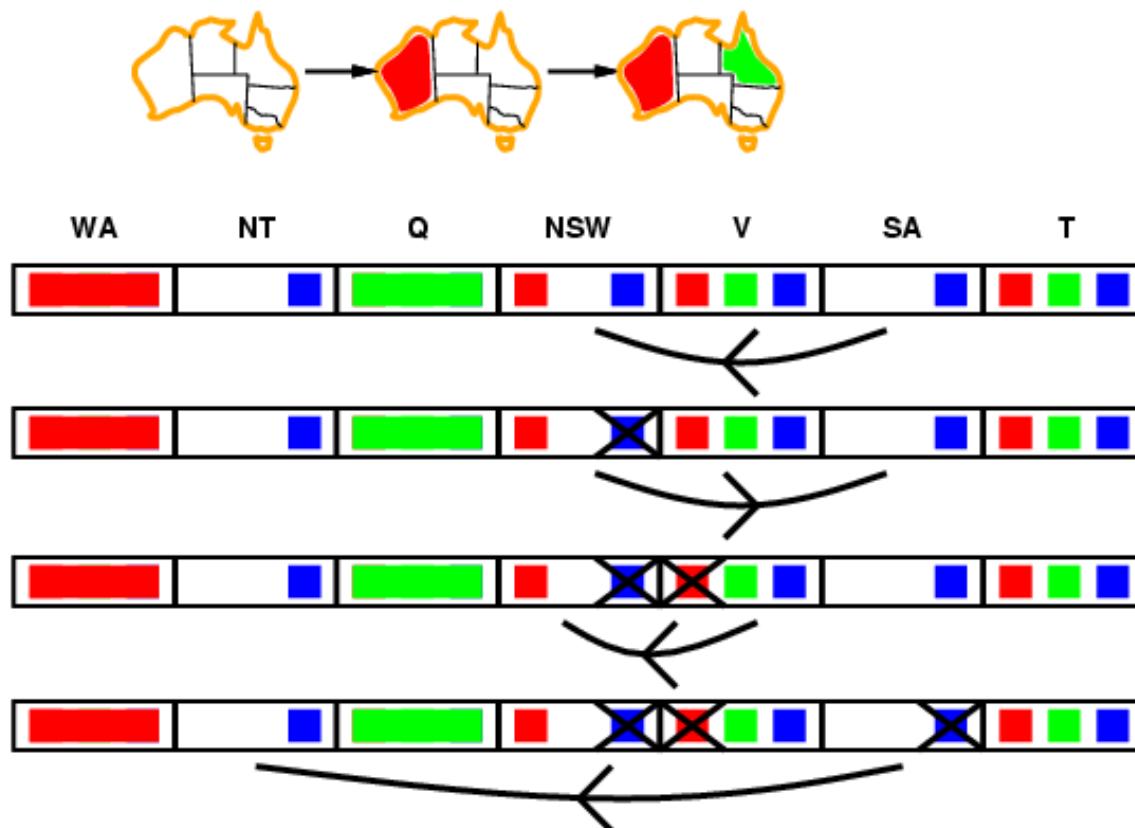


Can we exploit the constraints even more?



- we can check the constraints even between the future variables; then we can find that blue cannot be used for NT and SA and this is the only colour in their domains
- because the assigned value is propagated through the constraints, this method is called **constraint propagation** or **look ahead**
- this is implemented via maintaining **consistency of constraints**

- each constraint is used to filter out values that violate the constraint
- usually implemented in a directional way – remove values from the domain of X that have no support (a consistent value) in the domain of Y for the binary constraint (X,Y); of course do it also in the reverse direction



- domain filtering in X is done each time the domain of Y changes
- filtering is repeated while the domains are changing until reaching a fixed point or emptying some domain

```
function AC-3(csp) returns false if an inconsistency is found and true otherwise
  queue  $\leftarrow$  a queue of arcs, initially all the arcs in csp
```

```
while queue is not empty do
```

```
  (Xi, Xj)  $\leftarrow$  POP(queue)
```

```
  if REVISE(csp, Xi, Xj) then
```

```
    if size of Di = 0 then return false
```

```
    for each Xk in Xi.NEIGHBORS - {Xj} do
```

```
      add (Xk, Xi) to queue
```

```
return true
```

The algorithm can be applied incrementally during search – when *X* is instantiated put all constraints related to *X* to the queue.

If the domain of variable *X_i* changed then verify all arcs (constraints) leading to the variable except the arc from the variable *X_j*.

```
function REVISE(csp, Xi, Xj) returns true iff we revise the domain of Xi
```

```
revised  $\leftarrow$  false
```

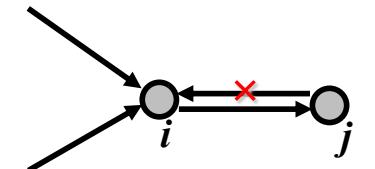
```
for each x in Di do
```

```
  if no value y in Dj allows (x,y) to satisfy the constraint between Xi and Xj then
```

```
    delete x from Di
```

```
    revised  $\leftarrow$  true
```

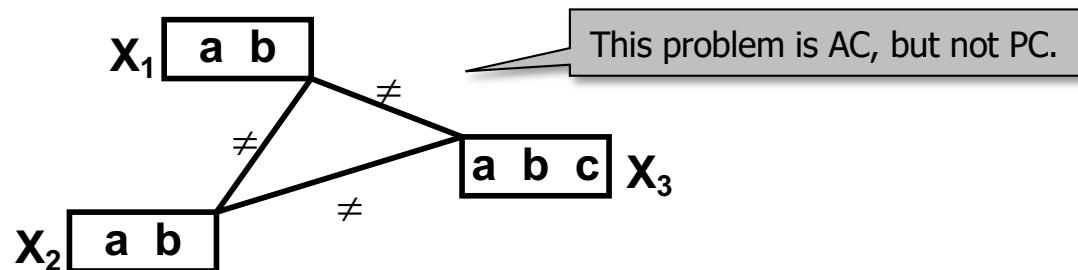
```
return revised
```



Domain filtering for variable *X_i* removes values that have no support in the variable *X_j*, also, if any value is deleted this information is passed to the calling procedure. Knowing constraint semantics can speedup constraint checking (for example *X < Y*).

Time complexity of AC-3 is $O(ed^3)$, where *e* is the number of constraints and *d* is the size of domain – we need to repeatedly (ed) check the constraints (d^2). This is not optimal, we can remember the result of consistency checks - AC-4, AC-3.1, AC-2001 with time complexity $O(ed^2)$.

- We can generally define **k-consistency**, as the consistency check where for a consistent assignment of $(k-1)$ variables we require a consistent value in one more given variable.
 - arc consistency (AC) = 2-consistency
 - path consistency (PC) = 3-consistency



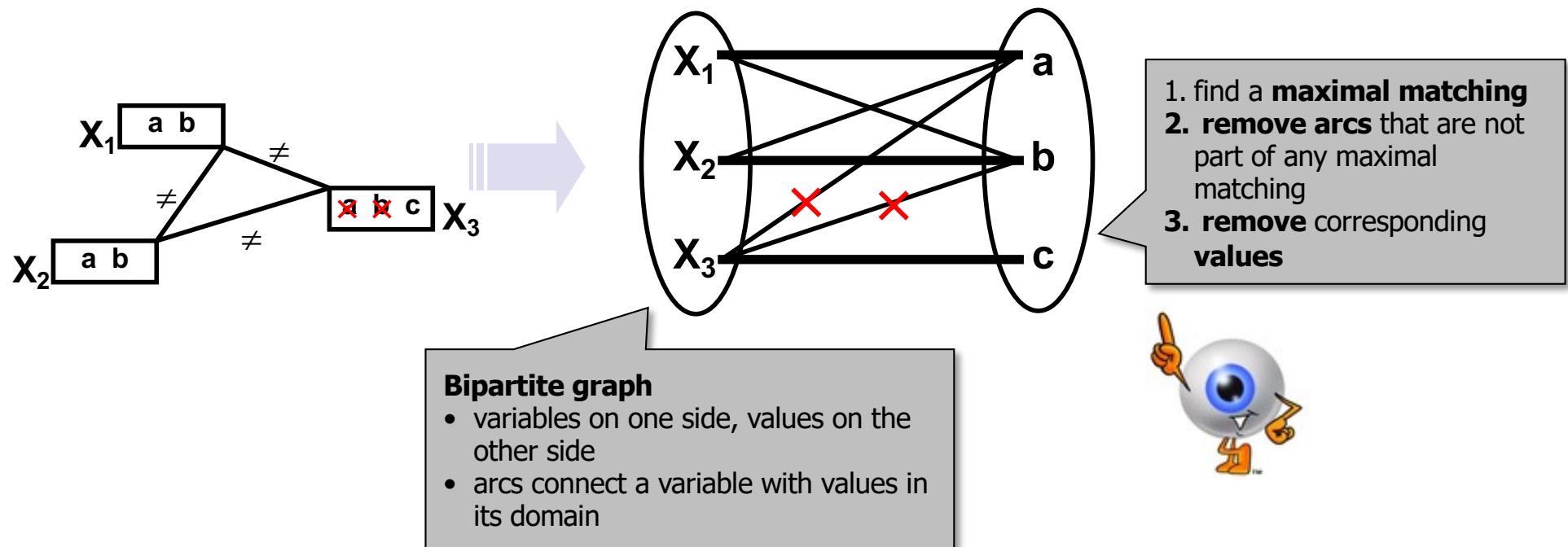
- If the problem is i-consistent $\forall i=1,\dots,n$ (n is the number of variables), then we can solve it in a backtrack-free way.
 - DFS can always find a value consistent with the assignment of previous variables
- Unfortunately, the time complexity of k-consistency is exponential in k .

Instead of stronger consistency techniques (expensive) usually **global constraints** are used – a global constraint encapsulates a sub-problem with a specific structure that can be exploited in the ad-hoc domain filtering procedure.

Example:

global constraint **all_different({X₁,..., X_k}**)

- encapsulates a set of binary inequalities $X_1 \neq X_2, X_1 \neq X_3, \dots, X_{k-1} \neq X_k$
- **all_different({X₁,..., X_k}**) = { $(d_1, \dots, d_k) \mid \forall i \ d_i \in D_i \ \& \ \forall i \neq j \ d_i \neq d_j$ }
- the filtering procedure is based on matching in bipartite graphs



A declarative approach to problem solving

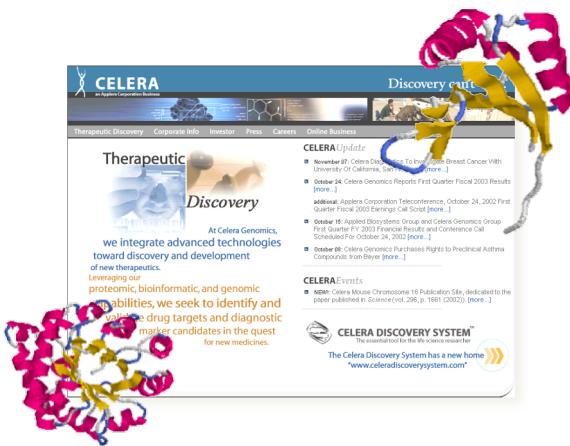
- construct a **model** (variables, domains, constraints)
- use a **general constraint solver**

Possible extensions

- **optimisation problems**
 - applying branch-and-bound
- **soft constraints**
 - constraints describe preferences rather than restrictions
 - optimisation methods are applied there

Other solving approaches

- **local search** (the path to the goal is not important)
- integer programming (for linear constraints)



Bioinformatics

- DNA sequencing
- determining 3D structures of proteins



Planning

- autonomous action planning for space probes
(Deep Space 1)



Manufacturing scheduling

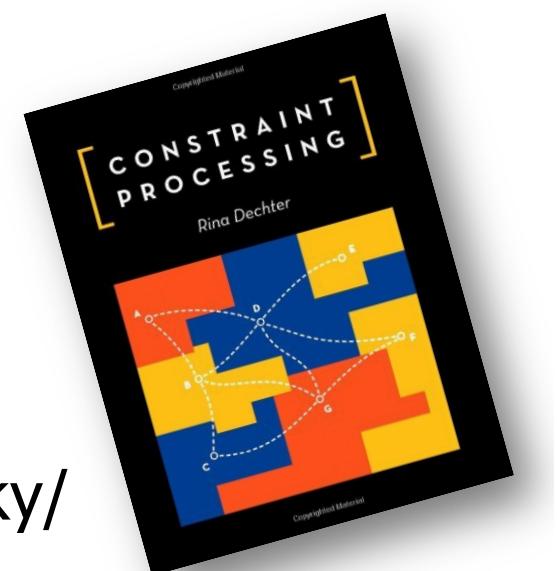
- savings after applying CSP:
US\$ 0.2-1 million per day

Constraint Solvers

- SICStus Prolog (available in labs)
- SWI Prolog
- ECLiPSe (Open Source, <http://eclipse.crosscoreop.com/>)
- GECODE (Open Source C++, <http://www.gecode.org/>)
- Choco (Open Source Java, <http://www.emn.fr/z-info/choco-solver/>)
- CP Optimizer
- ...

Course **Constraint Programming**

- also taught in English
- Winter term
- <http://ktiml.mff.cuni.cz/~bartak/podminky/>





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