

# CS 343H: Honors Artificial Intelligence

## CSPs II + Local Search

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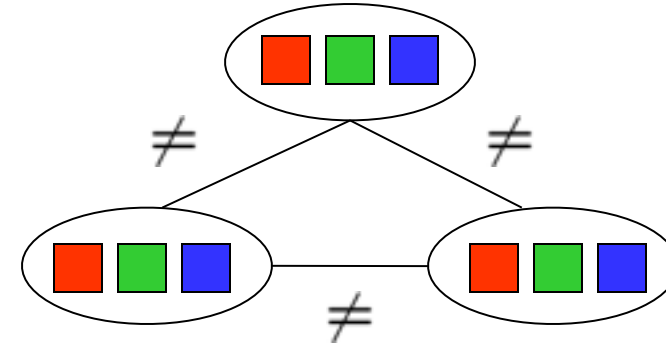
The University of Texas at Austin



# Last time: CSPs

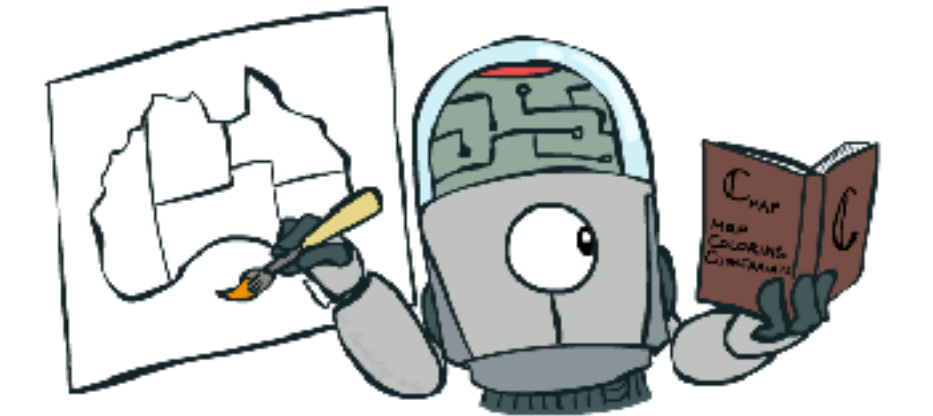
## ■ CSPs:

- Variables
- Domains
- Constraints
  - Implicit (provide code to compute)
  - Explicit (provide a list of the legal tuples)
  - Unary / Binary / N-ary

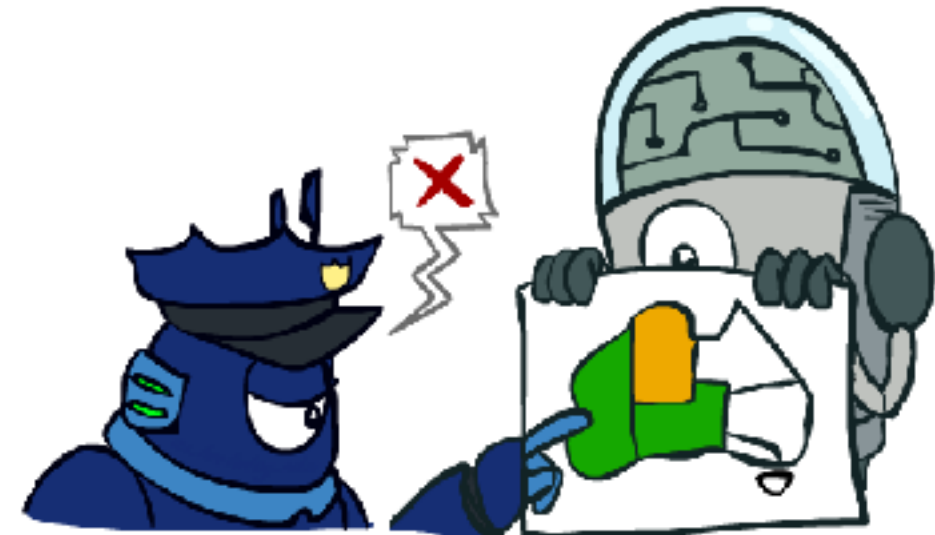
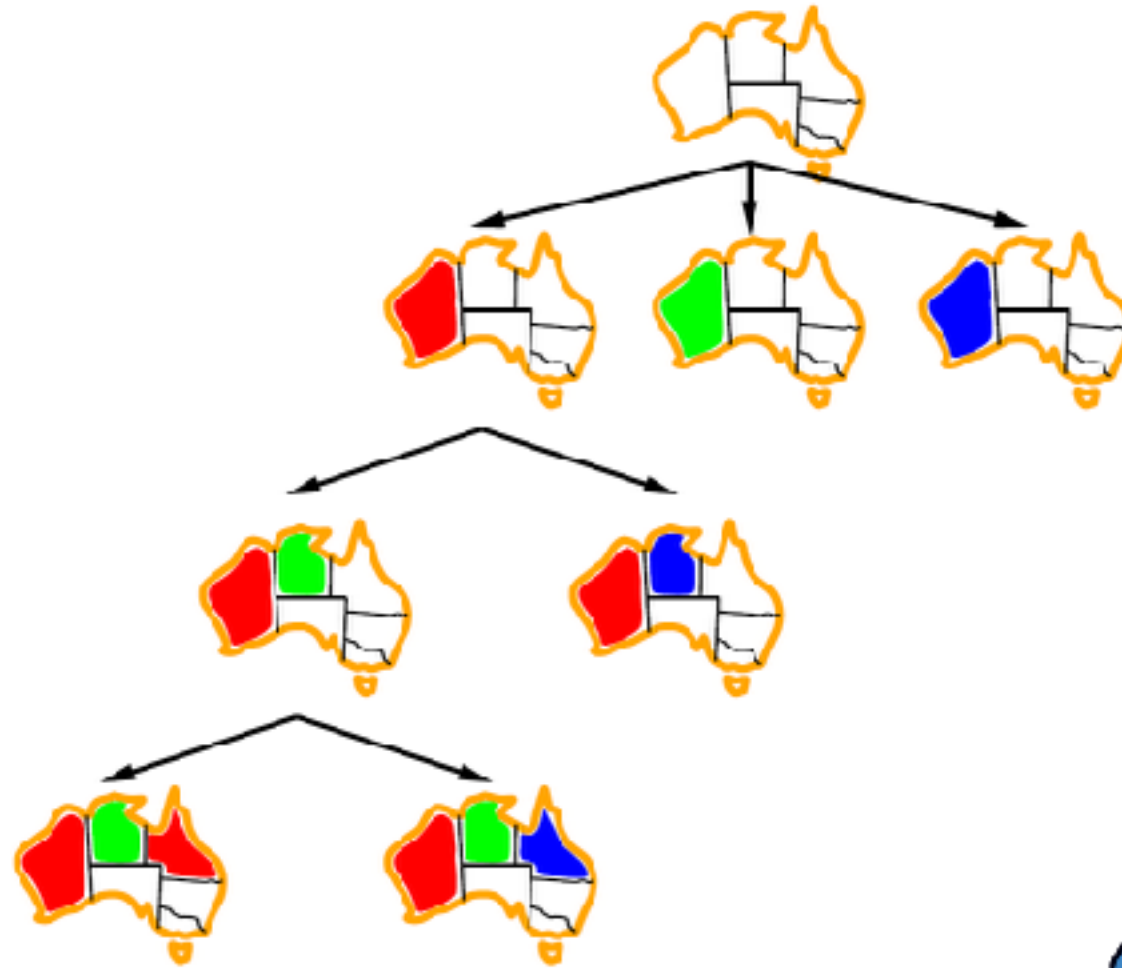


## ■ Goals:

- Here: find any solution
- Also: find all, find best, etc.

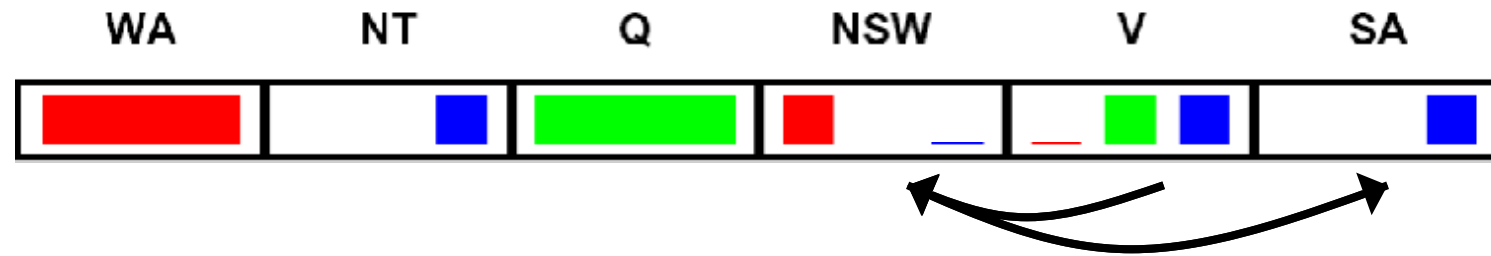
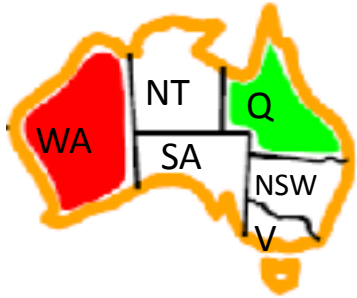


# Last time: Backtracking



# Last time: Arc Consistency of an Entire CSP

- A simple form of propagation makes sure **all** arcs are consistent:



- Important: 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
- What's the downside of enforcing arc consistency?

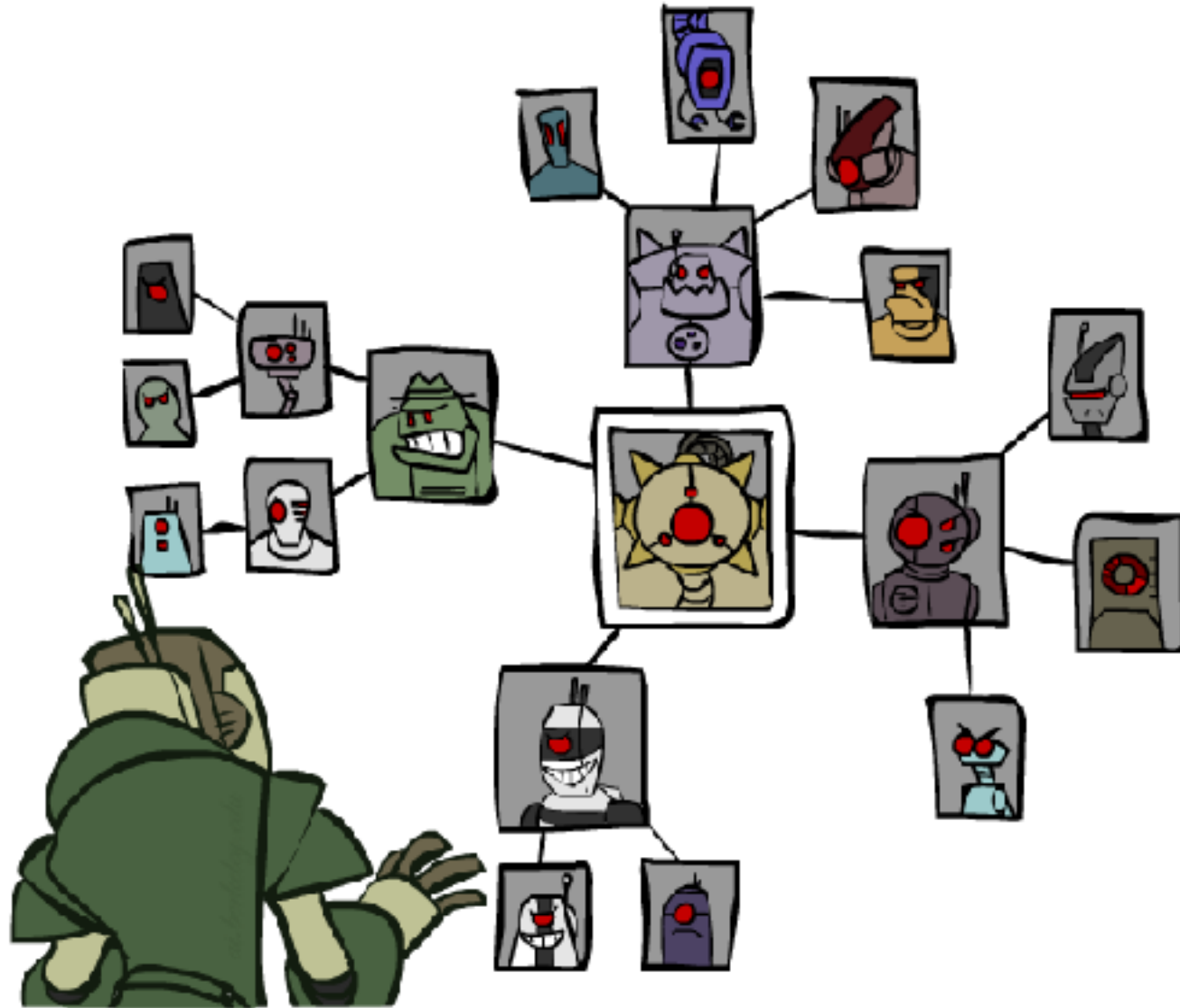
*Remember: Delete from the tail!*

# Improving Backtracking

- General-purpose ideas give huge gains in speed
  - ... but it's all still NP-hard
- Filtering: Can we detect inevitable failure early?
- Ordering:
  - Which variable should be assigned next? (MRV)
  - In what order should its values be tried? (LCV)
- Structure: Can we exploit the problem structure?

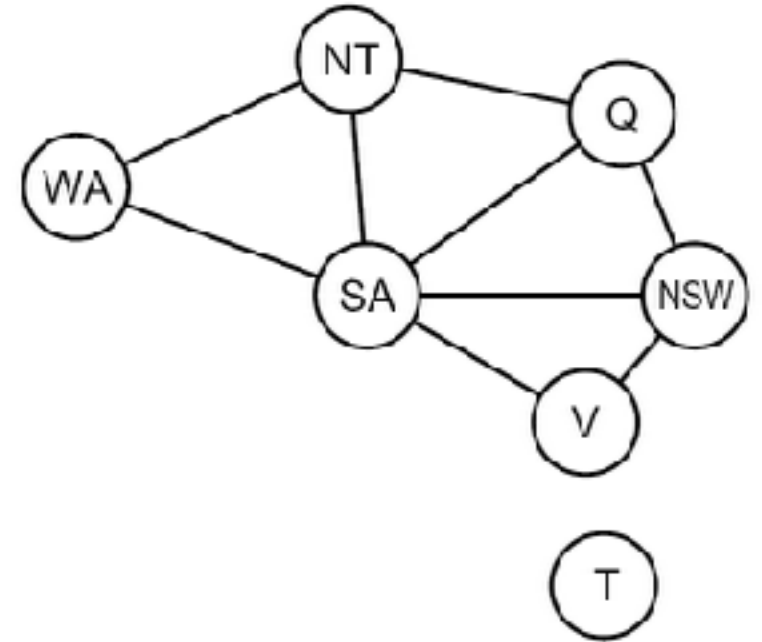


# Structure

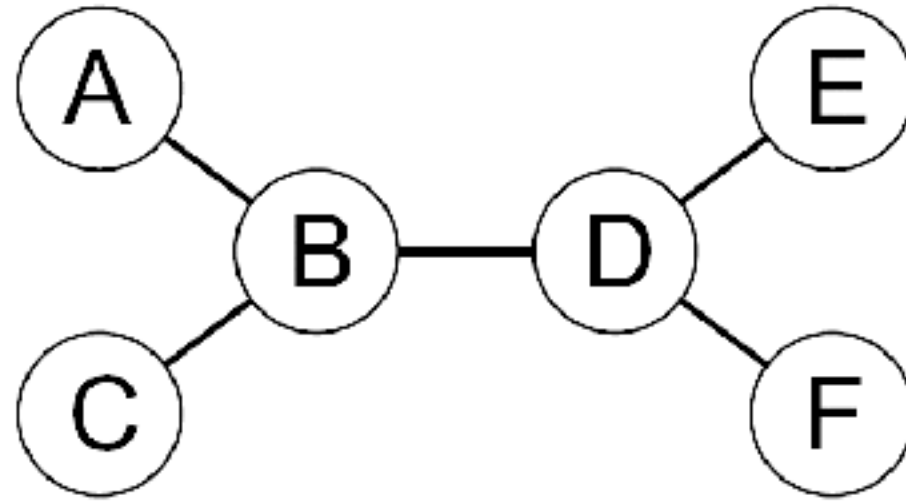


# Problem Structure

- Extreme case: independent subproblems
  - Example: Tasmania and mainland do not interact
- Independent subproblems are identifiable as connected components of constraint graph
- Suppose a graph of  $n$  variables can be broken into subproblems of only  $c$  variables:
  - Worst-case solution cost is  $O((n/c)(d^c))$ , linear in  $n$
  - E.g.,  $n = 80$ ,  $d = 2$ ,  $c = 20$
  - $2^{80} = 4$  billion years at 10 million nodes/sec
  - $(4)(2^{20}) = 0.4$  seconds at 10 million nodes/sec



# Tree-Structured CSPs



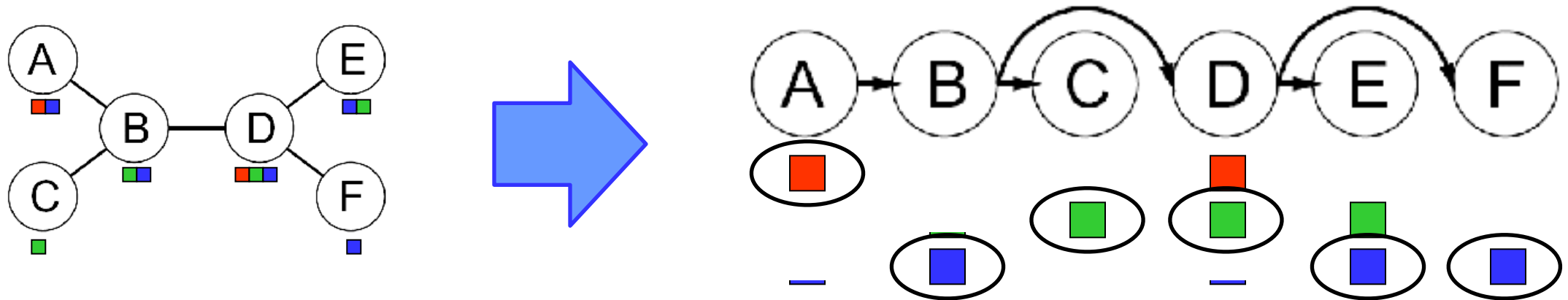
- Theorem: if the constraint graph has no loops, the CSP can be solved in  $O(n d^2)$  time
  - Compare to general CSPs, where worst-case time is  $O(d^n)$
- This property also applies to probabilistic reasoning (later): an example of the relation between syntactic restrictions and the complexity of reasoning



# Tree-Structured CSPs

- Algorithm for tree-structured CSPs:

- Order: Choose a root variable, order variables so that parents precede children



- Remove backward: For  $i = n : 2$ , apply  $\text{RemoveInconsistent}(\text{Parent}(X_i), X_i)$
  - Assign forward: For  $i = 1 : n$ , assign  $X_i$  consistently with  $\text{Parent}(X_i)$
- Runtime:  $O(n d^2)$  (why?)

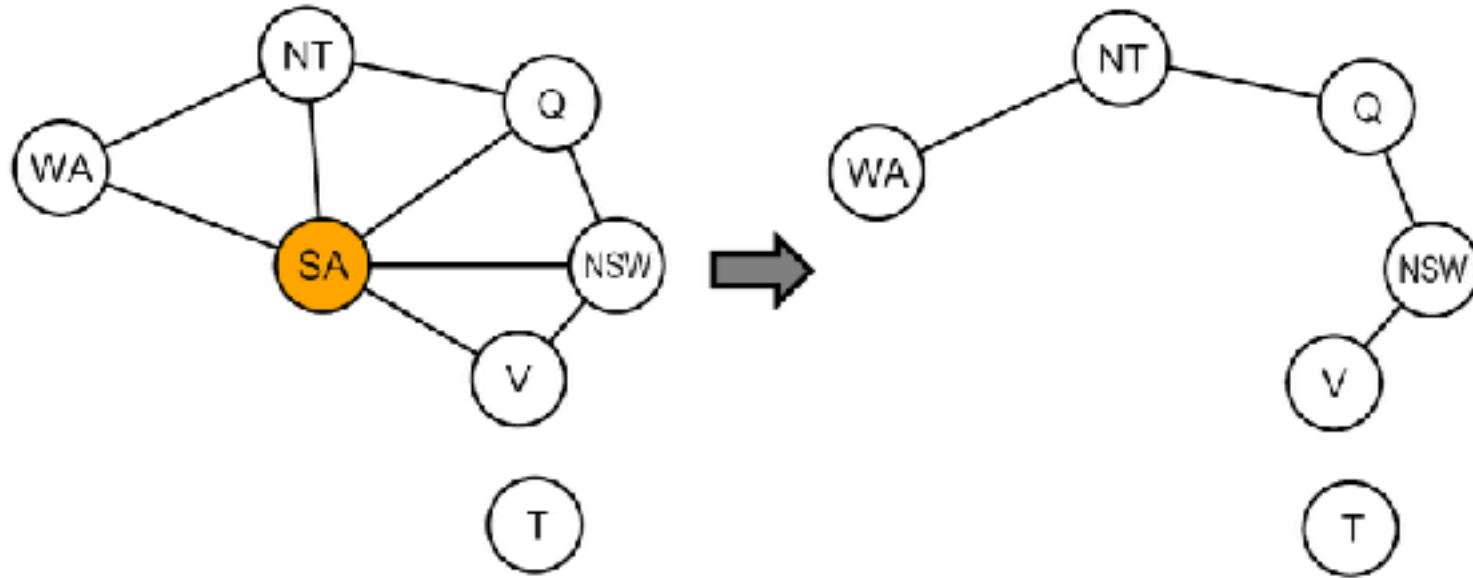
# Tree-Structured CSPs

- Claim 1: After backward pass, all root-to-leaf arcs are consistent
- Proof: Each  $X \rightarrow Y$  was made consistent at one point and  $Y$ 's domain could not have been reduced thereafter (because  $Y$ 's children were processed before  $Y$ )



- Claim 2: If root-to-leaf arcs are consistent, forward assignment will not backtrack
- Proof: Induction on position
- Why doesn't this algorithm work with cycles in the constraint graph?
- Note: we'll see this basic idea again with Bayes' nets

# 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  $c$  gives runtime  $O(d^c (n-c) d^2)$ , very fast for small  $c$

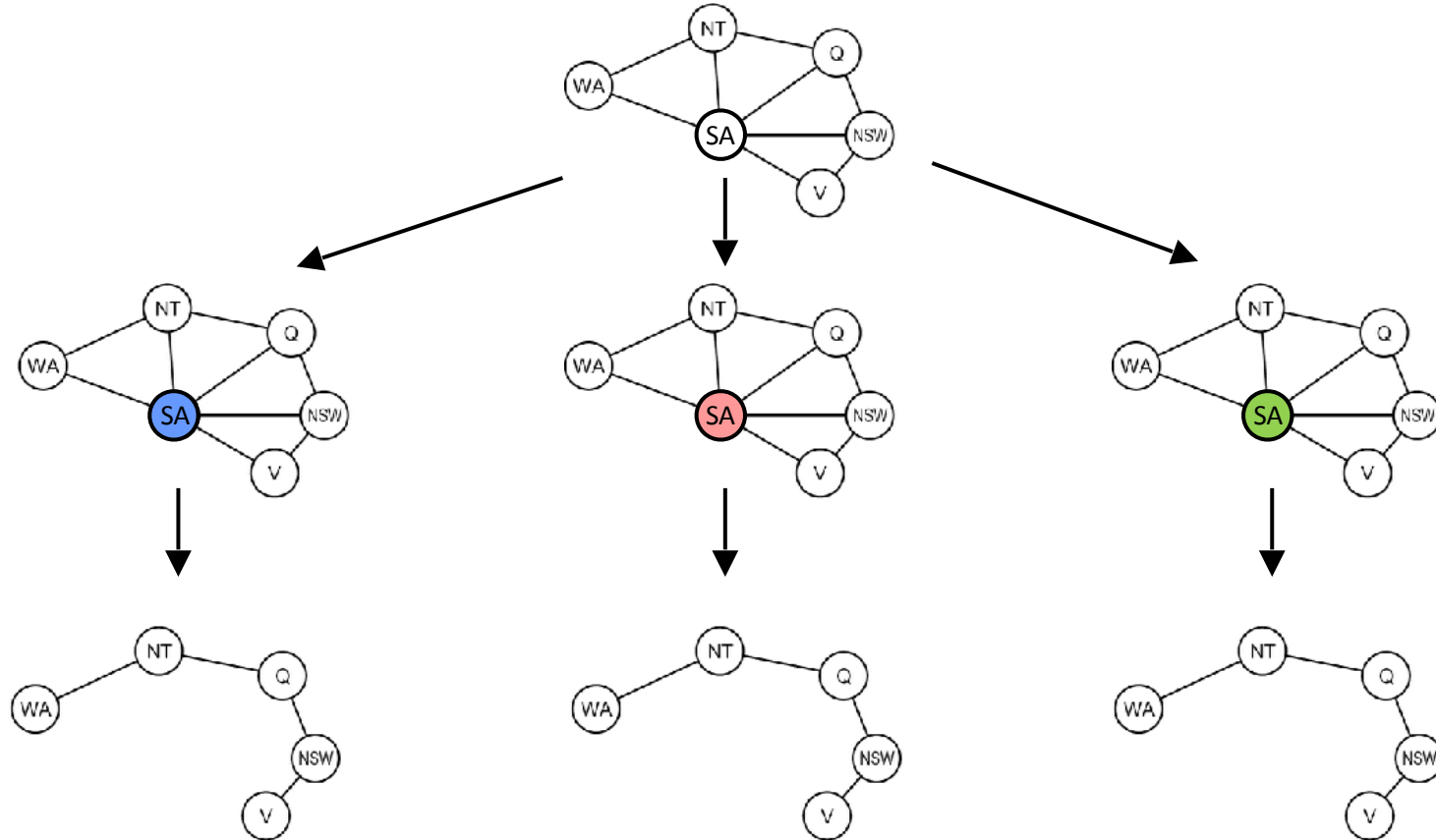
# Cutset Conditioning

Choose a cutset

Instantiate the cutset  
(all possible ways)

Compute residual CSP  
for each assignment

Solve the residual CSPs  
(tree structured), removing any  
inconsistent domain values w.r.t.  
cutset assignment

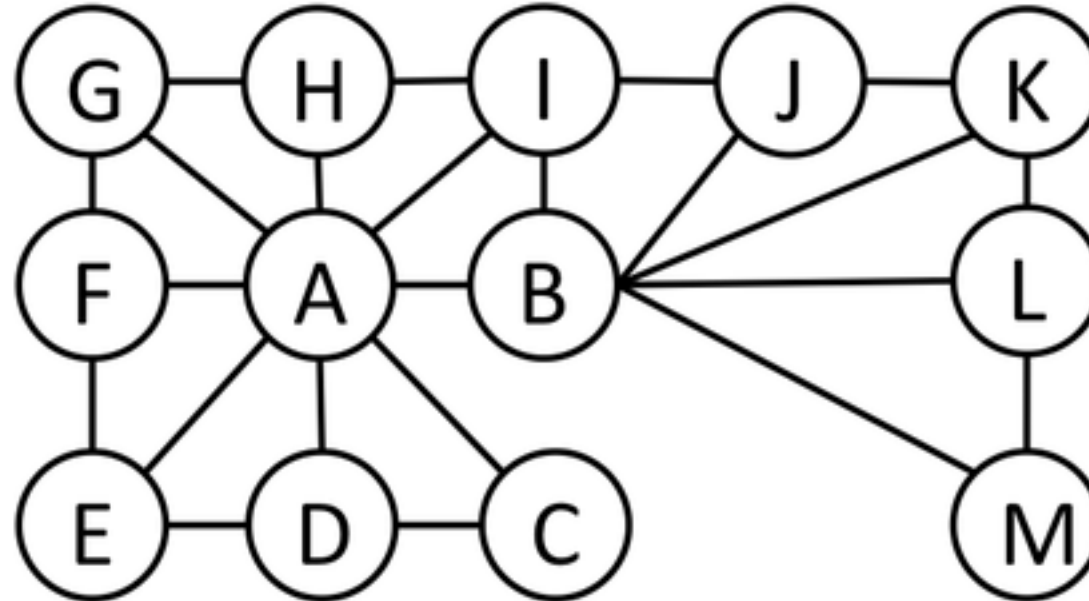


$d^c$

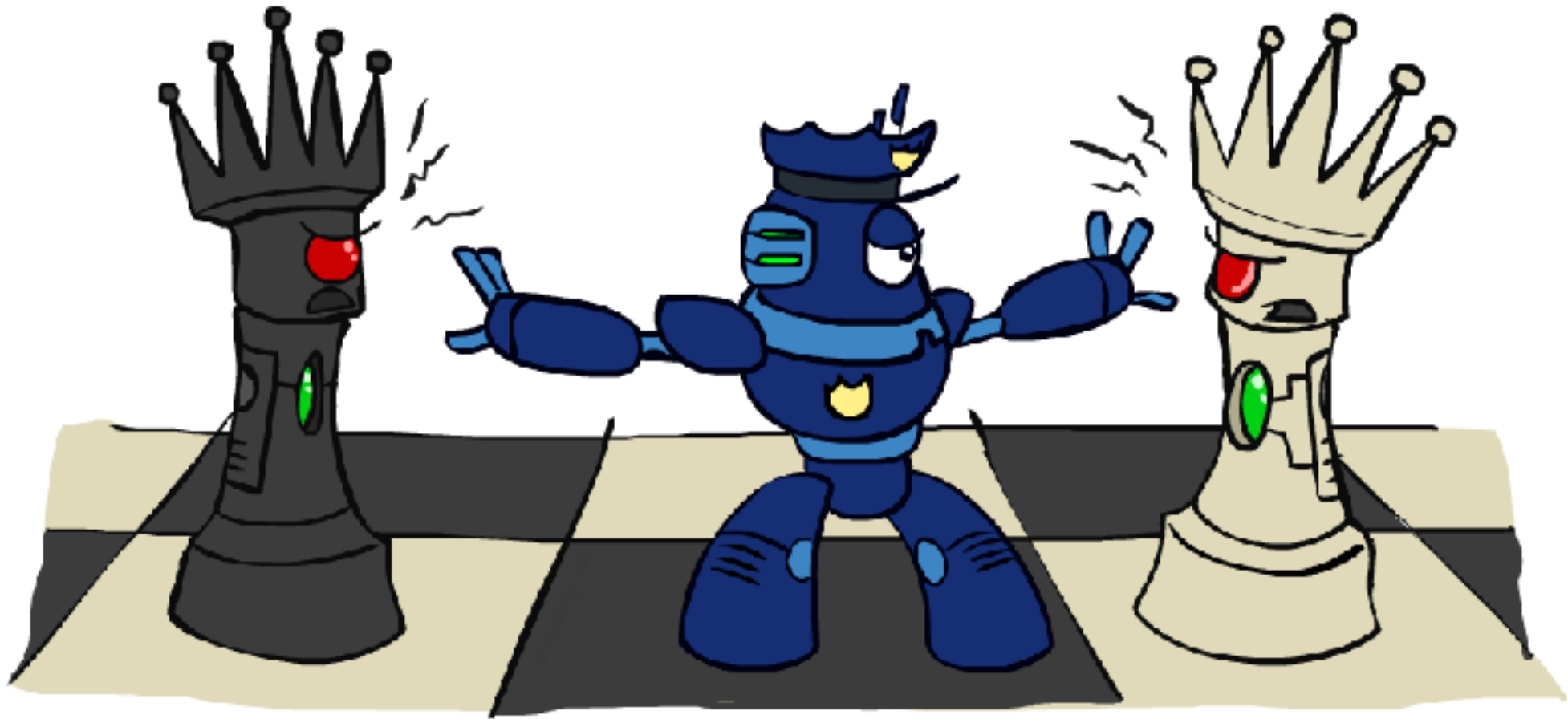
$(n-c)d^2$

# Cutset Quiz

- Find the smallest cutset for the graph below.

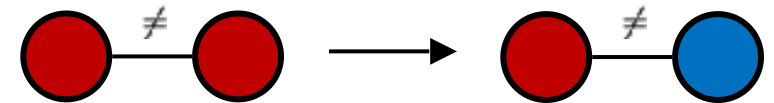


# Iterative Improvement

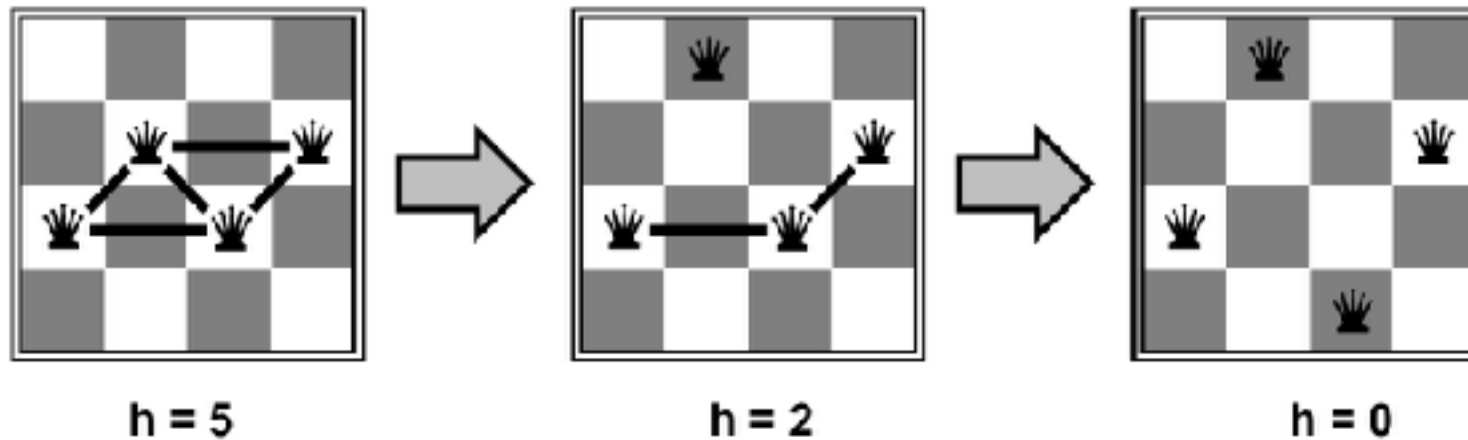


# Iterative Algorithms for CSPs

- Local search methods typically work with “complete” states, i.e., all variables assigned
- To apply to CSPs:
  - Take an assignment with unsatisfied constraints
  - Operators *reassign* variable values
  - No fringe! Live on the edge.
- Algorithm: While not solved,
  - Variable selection: randomly select any conflicted variable
  - Value selection: min-conflicts heuristic:
    - Choose a value that violates the fewest constraints
    - I.e., hill climb with  $h(n)$  = total number of violated constraints
- Can get stuck in local minima (we’ll come back to this idea in a few slides)



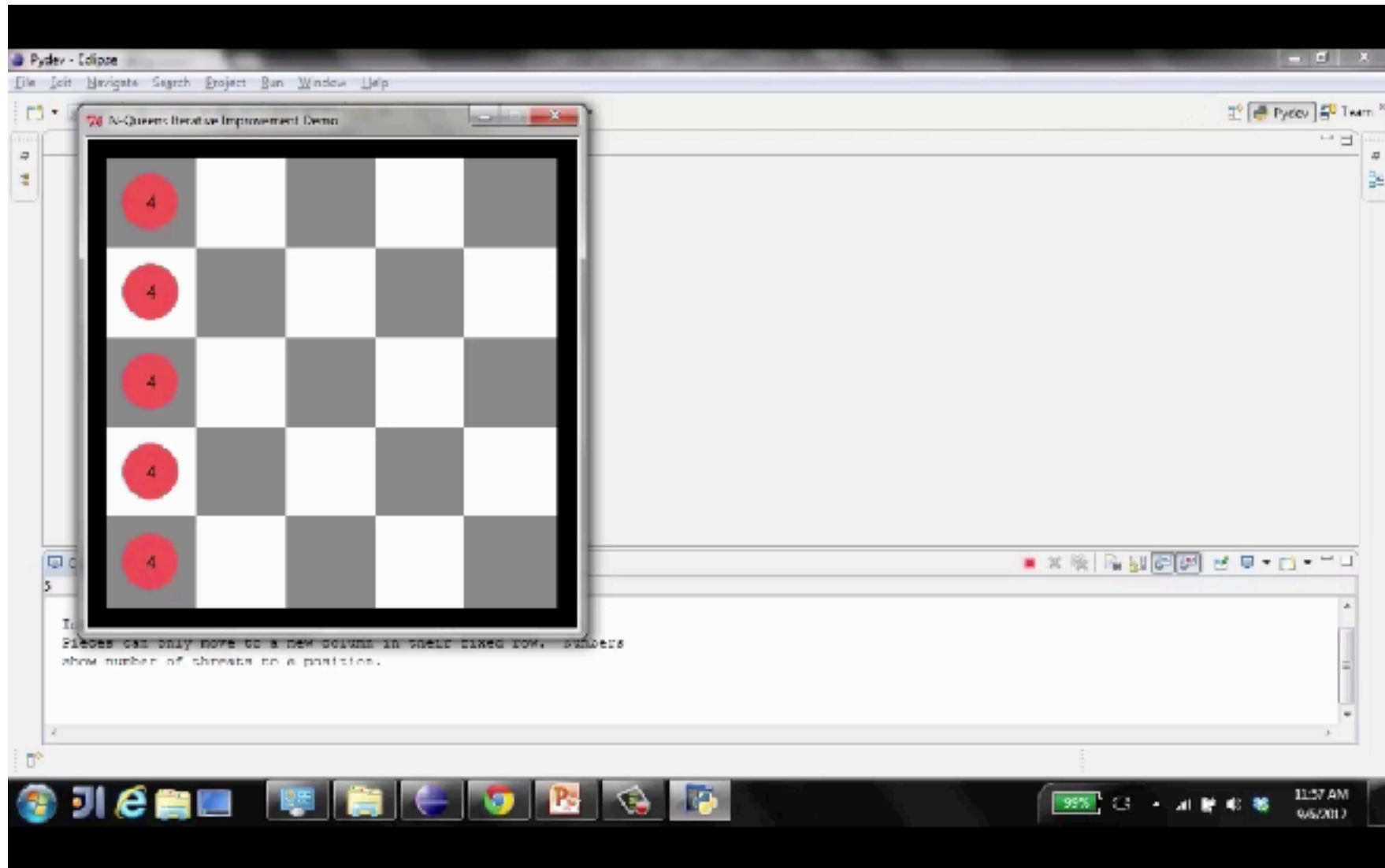
# Example: 4-Queens



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

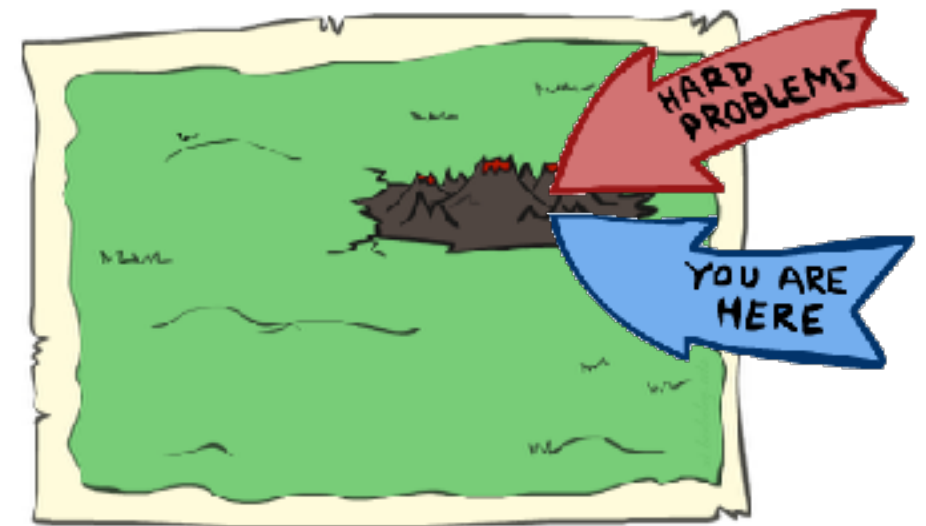
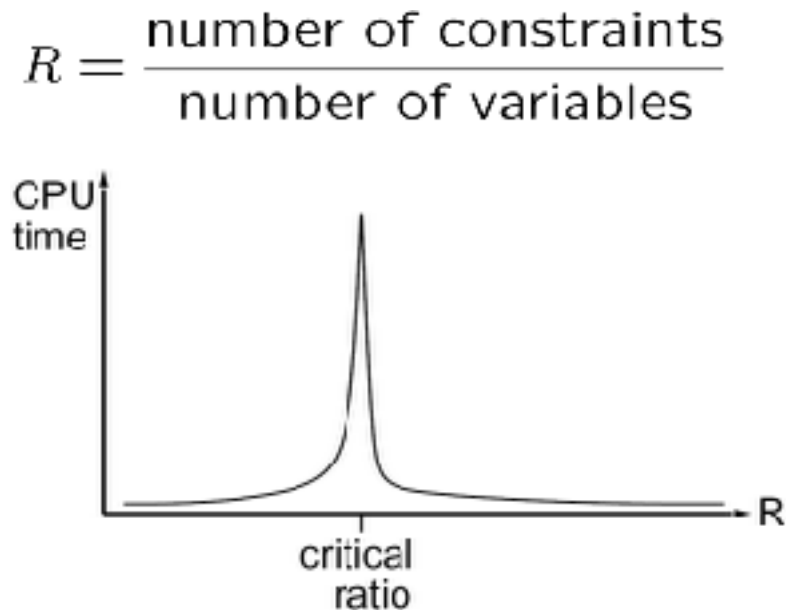


# Video of Demo Iterative Improvement – n Queens



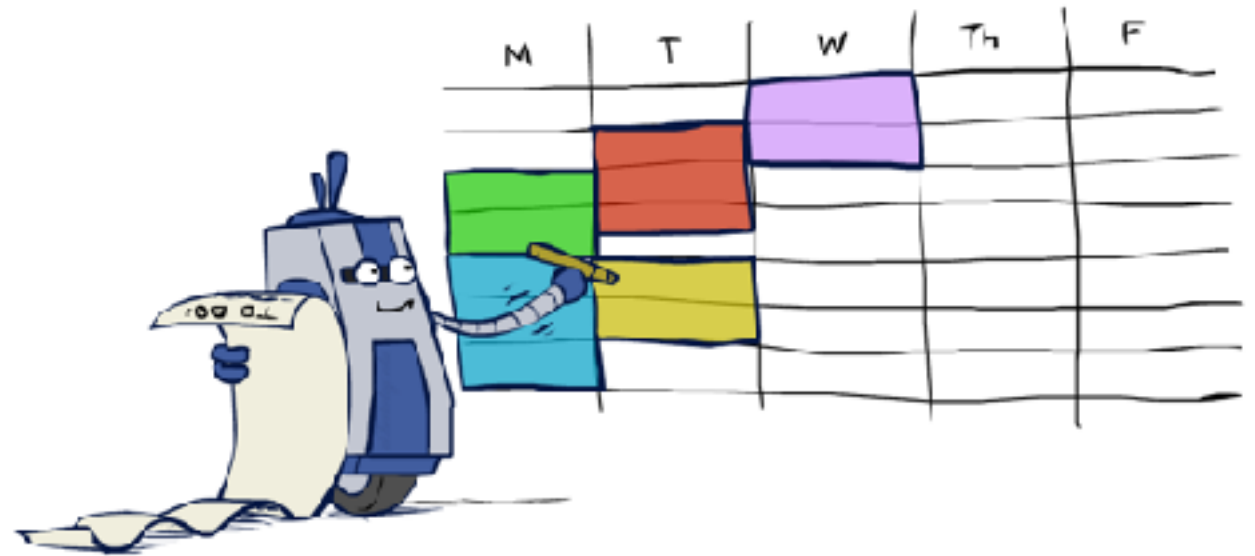
# Performance of Min-Conflicts

- Runtime of min-conflicts is on n-queens is **roughly independent of problem size!**
  - Why?? Solutions are densely distributed in state space
- Given random initial state, can solve n-queens in almost constant time for arbitrary n with high probability (e.g., n = 10,000,000) in ~50 steps!
- The same appears to be true for any randomly-generated CSP *except* in a narrow range of the ratio



# Summary: CSPs

- CSPs are a special kind of search problem:
  - States are partial assignments
  - Goal test defined by constraints
- Basic solution: backtracking search
- Speed-ups:
  - Ordering
  - Filtering
  - Structure
- Iterative min-conflicts is often effective in practice



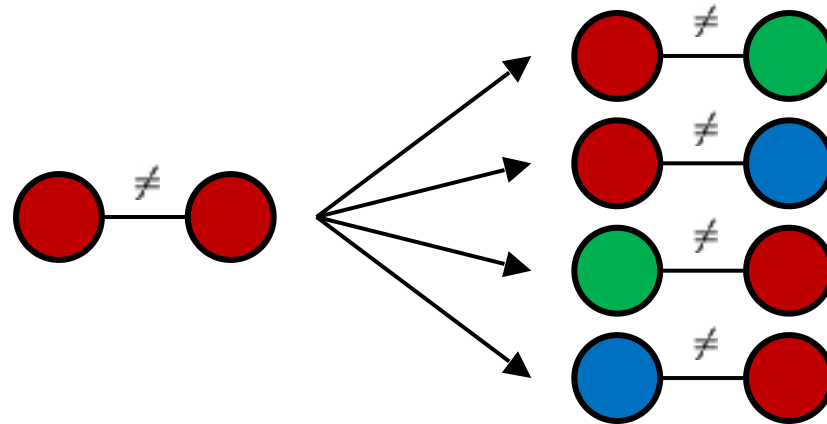
# Local Search

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# Local Search

- Tree search keeps unexplored alternatives on the fringe (ensures completeness)
- Local search: improve a single option until you can't make it better (no fringe!)
- New successor function: local changes



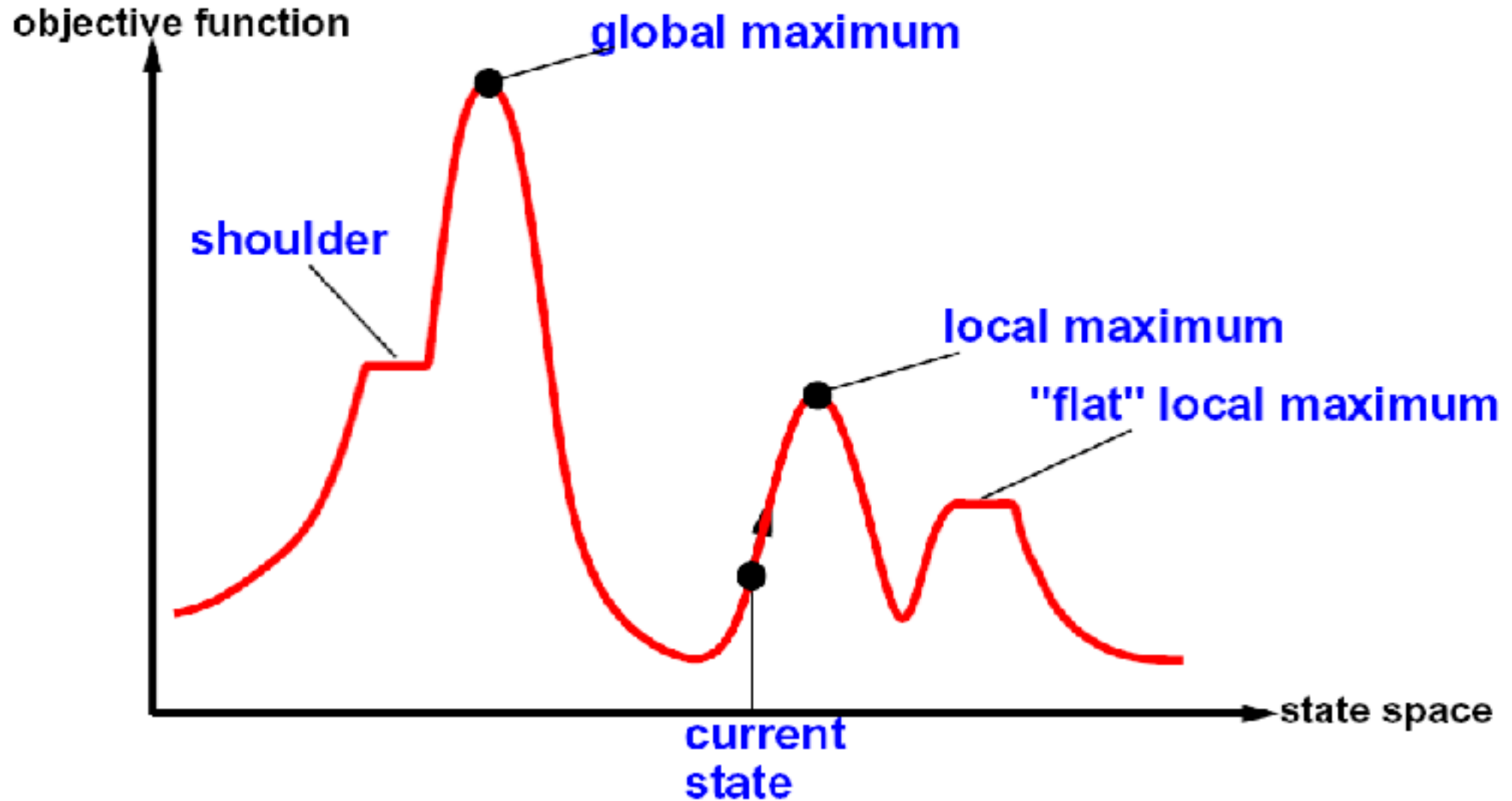
- Generally much faster and more memory efficient (but incomplete and suboptimal)

# Hill Climbing

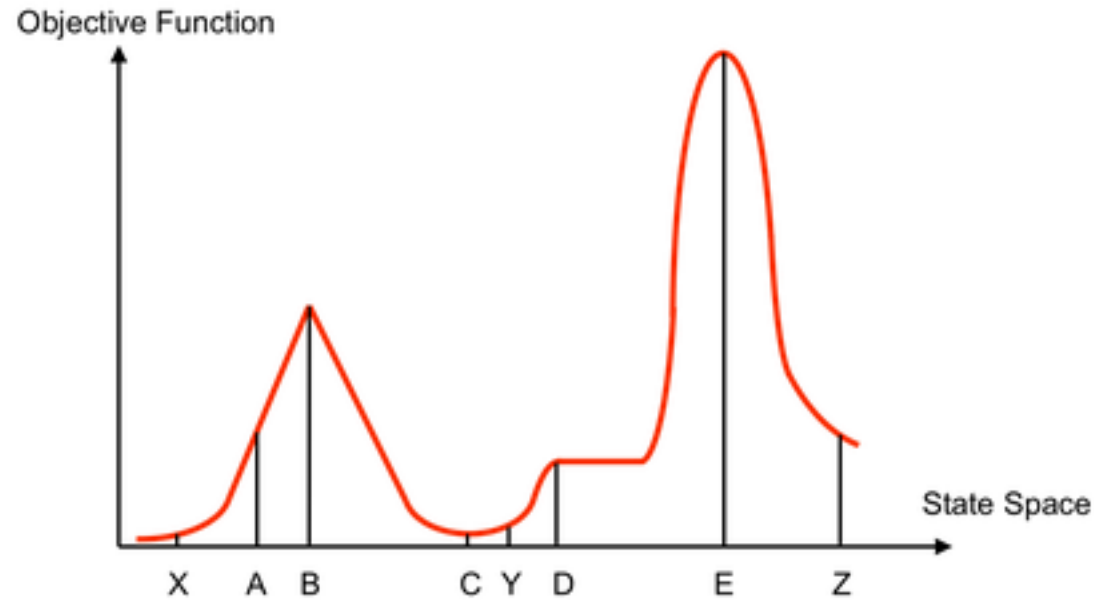
- Simple, general idea:
  - Start wherever
  - Repeat: move to the best neighboring state
  - If no neighbors better than current, quit
- What's bad about this approach?
  - Complete?
  - Optimal?
- What's good about it?



# Hill Climbing Diagram



# Hill Climbing Quiz



Starting from X, where do you end up ?

Starting from Y, where do you end up ?

Starting from Z, where do you end up ?

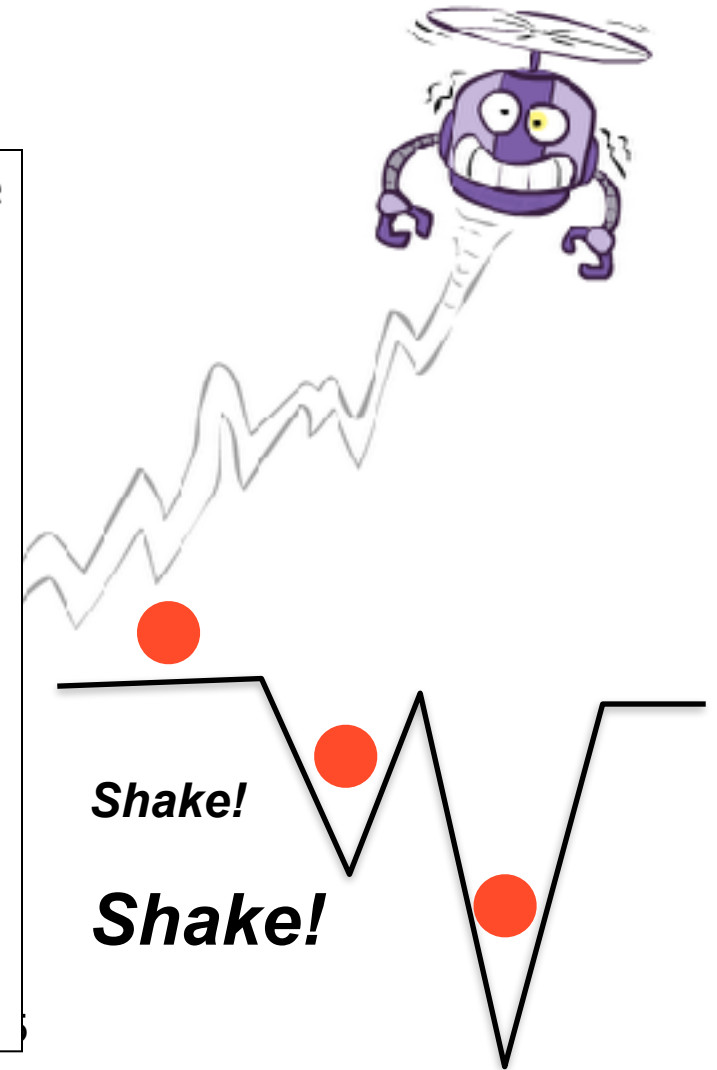


# Simulated Annealing

- Idea: Escape local maxima by allowing downhill moves
  - But make them rarer as time goes on

```
function SIMULATED-ANNEALING(problem, schedule) returns a solution state
  inputs: problem, a problem
           schedule, a mapping from time to "temperature"
  local variables: current, a node
                   next, a node
                   T, a "temperature" controlling prob. of downward steps

  current ← MAKE-NODE(INITIAL-STATE[problem])
  for t ← 1 to ∞ do
    T ← schedule[t]
    if T = 0 then return current
    next ← a randomly selected successor of current
     $\Delta E \leftarrow \text{VALUE}[\textit{next}] - \text{VALUE}[\textit{current}]$ 
    if  $\Delta E > 0$  then current ← next
    else current ← next only with probability  $e^{\Delta E / T}$ 
```



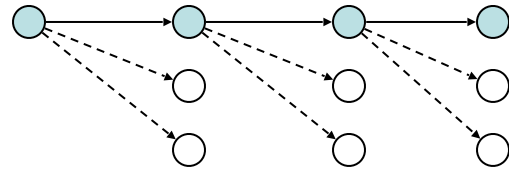
# Simulated Annealing

- Theoretical guarantee:
  - If  $T$  decreased slowly enough, will converge to optimal state!
- Is this an interesting guarantee?
- Sounds like magic, but reality is reality:
  - The more downhill steps you need to escape a local optimum, the less likely you are to ever make them all in a row

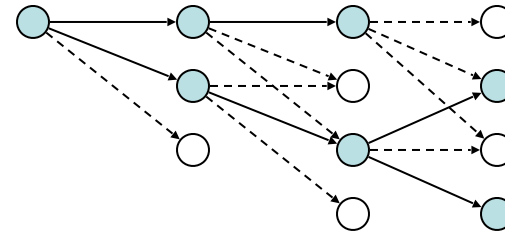


# Beam Search

- Like greedy hillclimbing search, but keep K states at all times:



Greedy Search



Beam Search

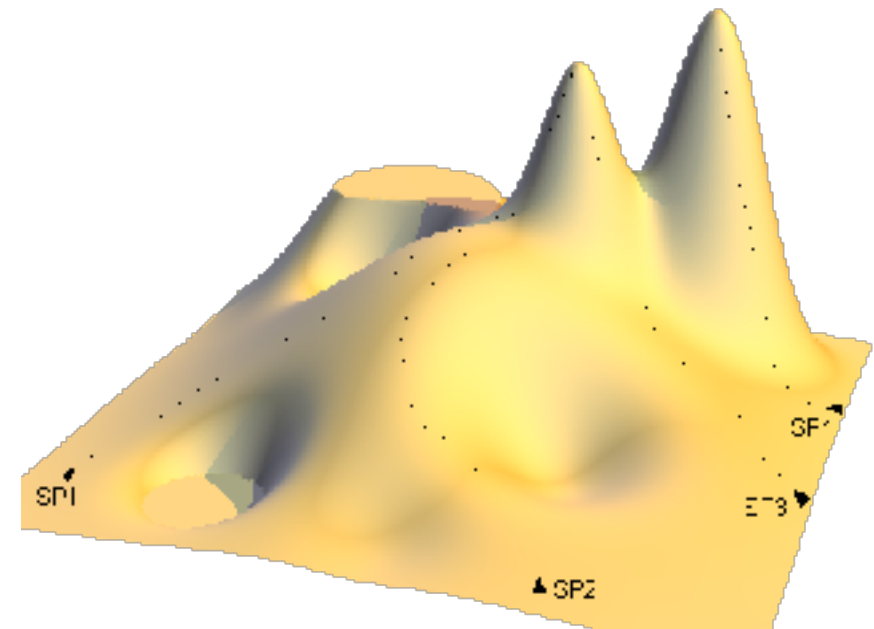
- Variables: beam size, encourage diversity?
- The best choice in MANY practical settings
- Complete? Optimal?
- Why do we still need optimal methods?

# Gradient Methods

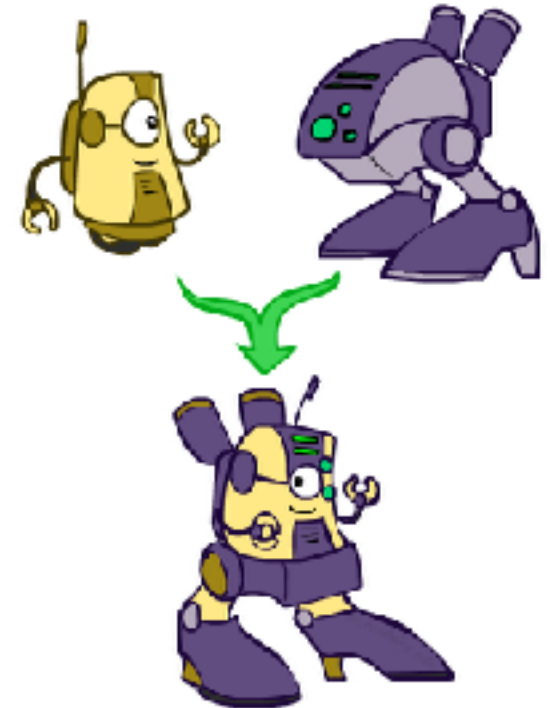
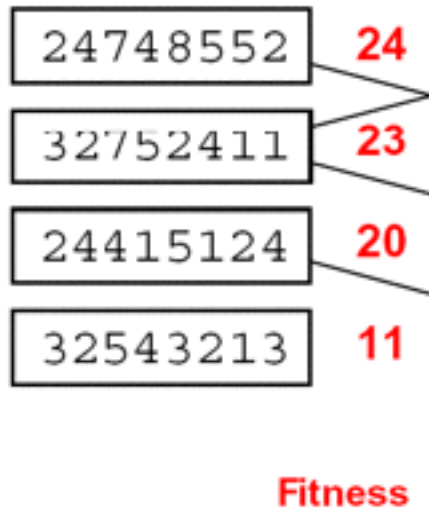
- Continuous state spaces
  - Problem! Cannot select optimal successor
- Discretization or random sampling
  - Choose from a finite number of choices
- Continuous optimization: Gradient ascent
  - Take a step along the gradient (vector of partial derivatives)
- What if you can't compute gradient?
  - i.e. maybe you can only sample the function
  - Estimate gradient from samples!
  - “Stochastic gradient descent”
  - We will return to this in neural networks / deep learning

$$\nabla f = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_2}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_3}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_3} \right)$$

$$x \leftarrow x + \alpha \nabla f(x)$$

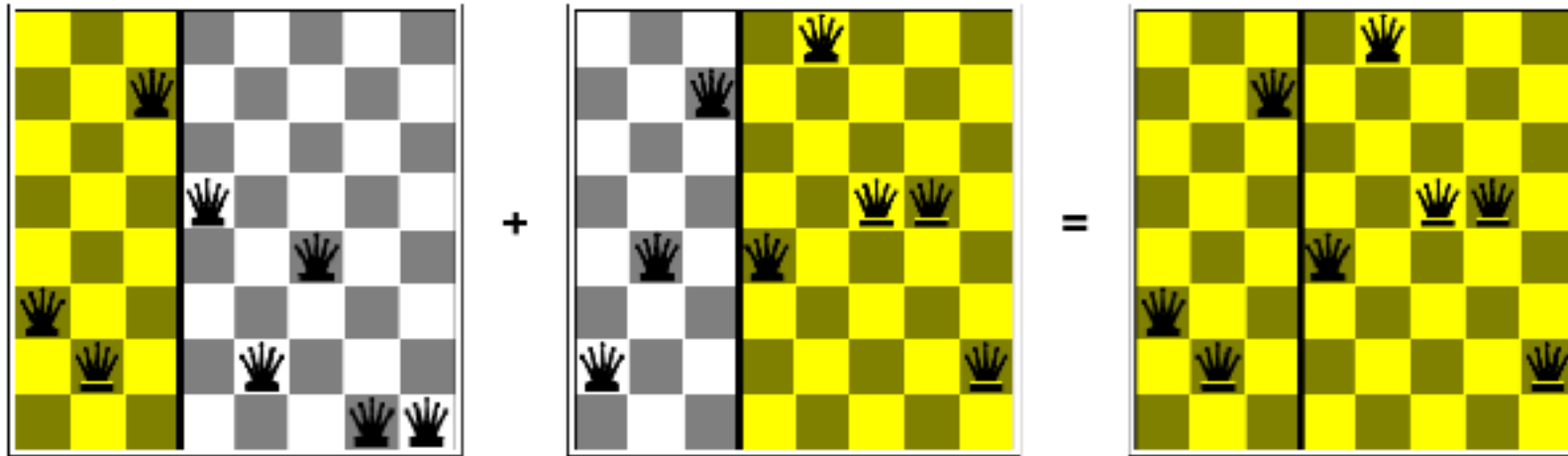


# Genetic Algorithms



- Genetic algorithms use a natural selection metaphor
  - Keep best N hypotheses at each step (selection) based on a fitness function
  - Also have pairwise crossover operators, with optional mutation to give variety
- Possibly the most misunderstood, misapplied (and even maligned) technique around

# Example: N-Queens



- Why does crossover make sense here?
- When wouldn't it make sense?
- What would mutation be?
- What would a good fitness function be?

# Next Time: Adversarial Search!

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