



Backtracking

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- We use **backtracking**
 - Commonly used to make a sequence of decisions to build a recursively defined solution satisfying given constraints
 - In each recursive call we make **exactly one** decision which is consistent with all the previous decisions
 - Example:

```

algorithm RECKNAPSACK( $i, C, n, p, w$ ):   (handle the  $i$ -th object)
  if  $i > n$  then return  $(0, \langle \rangle)$ 
  else
     $(p_-, X_-) \leftarrow$  RECKNAPSACK( $i + 1, C, n, p, w$ )   (do not pick item  $i$ )
    if  $w_i \leq C$  then
       $(p_+, X_+) \leftarrow$  RECKNAPSACK( $i + 1, C - w_i, n, p, w$ )   (pick item  $i$  if we can)
    else
       $(p_+, X_+) \leftarrow (0, \langle \rangle)$ 
    return MAXFST( $\{(p_-, \langle 0 \rangle + X_-), (p_+ + w_i, \langle 1 \rangle + X_+)\}$ )
  
```

- Alternative to backtracking: **brute force**
 - Generate all possible complete sequences of decisions one by one and check if they yield a solution
 - Backtracking has a **chance** of doing better since it stops when a sequence is hopeless
 - Example: Generate all n -digits in lexicographic order, check that each such a number yields the optimal 0/1 Knapsack solution

n -QUEENS



- Given an $n \times n$ chess board, and n queens, place each i -th queen on the i -th row so that no two queens check each other
 - Intermediate result: $\langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i \rangle, i \leq n$
 - Constraints: x_i and $x_k, j \neq k$ are neither the same nor on the same diagonal
 - Decision: placement of one more queen
- Brute force: generate and then check all the possible sequences $\langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \rangle \rightarrow \Theta(n^{n+1})$ time

Backtracking:

```

algorithm QUEENS( $\langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i \rangle$ ):
  if  $i = n$  then return  $\langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \rangle$ 
  else
    for  $j = 1$  to  $n$  do
      if PROMISING( $\langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i, j \rangle$ )
        then
          QUEENS( $\langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i, j \rangle$ )
  
```

```

algorithm PROMISING( $\langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i \rangle$ ):
   $k \leftarrow 1$ 
  safe  $\leftarrow$  TRUE
  while  $k < i \wedge$  safe do
    if  $x_i = x_k \vee |x_i - x_k| = i - k$  then
      safe  $\leftarrow$  FALSE
     $k \leftarrow k + 1$ 
  return safe
  
```

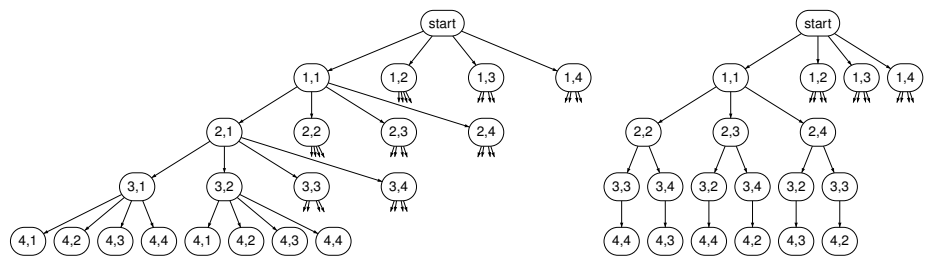
Common patterns:

- Traverse tree of **states** (aka **state space**)
 - Different decisions yield different next states
- Carry over enough information between recursive calls to check feasibility

n -QUEENS (CONT'D)



- Whole state space ($n = 4$): $4^4 = 256$ leaves and $1 + 4 + 4^2 + 4^3 + 4^4 = 341$ nodes
 - Slight optimization of the state space: no two queens can be on the same column ($1 + 4 + 4 \times 3 + 4 \times 3 \times 2 + 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 65$ nodes)
 - Backtracking expands only 61 nodes



- For $n = 8$ we have 19,173,961 nodes overall, 109,601 optimized, and 15,721 expanded by backtracking



$$A_{i,j} = \begin{cases} p_i \text{ (root } i) & \text{if } i = j \\ \min_{i \leq k \leq j} (A_{i,k-1} + A_{k+1,j} + \sum_{m=i}^j p_m) \text{ (root } k) & \text{if } i < j \end{cases}$$

- Brute force: generate all possible trees, retain the optimal one
- Backtracking for the optimal cost: • Backtracking for the optimal BST:

```

algorithm COSTBST(i, j):
  if i = j then return pi
  else if i > j then return 0
  else
    m ← ∞
    for k = i to j do
      b ← COSTBST(i, k - 1)
      c ← COSTBST(k + 1, j)
      a ← b + c + ∑m=ij pm
      if a < m then
        m ← a
    return m

```

```

algorithm OPTBST(i, j):
  if i = j then return (pi, NODE(i))
  else if i > j then return (0, NULL)
  else
    m ← (∞, NULL)
    for k = i to j do
      (b, l) ← OPTBST(i, k - 1)
      (c, r) ← OPTBST(k + 1, j)
      a ← b + c + ∑m=ij pm
      if a < m then
        m ← (a, NODE(k, l, r))
    return m

```

- When we solve a problem using backtracking we effectively solve a whole family of related problems



- Brute force: try all the permutations, retain the one with minimal cost
- Backtracking: With $g(i, S)$ the length of the shortest path starting at i and going through all the vertices in S back to 1,

$$g(i, S) = \begin{cases} \min_{(i,j) \in E} (w(i, j)) & \text{if } S = \emptyset \\ \min_{j \in S} (w((i, j)) + g(j, S \setminus \{j\})) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

```

algorithm TS(i, S):
  if S = ∅ then
    return min(i,j) ∈ E (w(i, j))
  else
    m ← ∞
    forall j ∈ S do
      a ← w((i, j)) + TS(j, S \ {j})
      if a < m then
        m ← a
    return m

```

```

algorithm TSX(i, S):
  if S = ∅ then
    return (min(i,j) ∈ E (w(i, j)), j)
  else
    (m, k) ← (∞, 0)
    forall j ∈ S do
      (a, b) ← w((i, j)) + TSX(j, S \ {j})
      if a < m then
        (m, k) ← (a, b)
    return (m, k)

```



```

algorithm GENERICBKT(v):
  if v is a solution then
    Return solution
  else
    foreach child u of v do
      if PROMISING(u) then
        GENERICBKT(u)

```

Effectively implements a **depth-first traversal** of the state space of the given problem

- Possibly pruning the state space using PROMISING
- Improvement over the brute force
- However, the call to PROMISING may be missing for some problems
 - In this case backtracking offers no advantage run time-wise over brute force



- The **graph m -colorability problem**: Given an undirected graph G and an integer m , can the vertices of G be coloured with at most m colours such that no two adjacent vertices have the same colour
 - The smallest possible m is called the **chromatic number of G**
 - The maximum chromatic number of a planar graph is 4

```

algorithm COLOURS((c1, ..., ci), G = (V, E)):
  if i = n then return (c1, ..., cn)
  else
    for c = 1 to m do
      if PROMISING((c1, ..., ci, c)) then
        COLOURS((c1, ..., ci, c))

```

```

algorithm PROMISING((c1, ..., ci)):
  j ← 1
  safe ← TRUE
  while j < i ∧ safe do
    if (i, j) ∈ E ∧ ci = cj then
      safe ← FALSE
    j ← j + 1
  return safe

```

BETTER BACKTRACKING FOR OPTIMIZATION PROBLEMS



- In optimization problems we can keep track of the best solution found so far and avoid expanding nodes if they would lead to a worse solution:

```

algorithm GENERICBKTOPT(v):
  if v is a solution then Return solution
  else if VALUE(v) is better than bestsofar then bestsofar ← VALUE(v)
  else if PROMISING(v) then
    foreach child u of v do GENERICBKTOPT(u)
    
```

- VALUE(*v*) is an upper/lower bound for all the solutions below *v*
- bestsofar* is a global variable maintained between different branches
- PROMISING must reject nodes of less value than *bestsofar*
- Case in point: 0/1 Knapsack revisited
 - The state space is binary (left child = pick item, right child = do not pick item)
 - Each state stores three values
 - accumulated profit
 - accumulated weight
 - the upper bound VALUE() = the profit that can be made if the problem was fractional Knapsack
 - A node is not promising if either
 - The accumulated weight is larger than the capacity *C*, or
 - The upper bound is less than the maximum profit made so far

0/1 KNAPSACK REVISITED



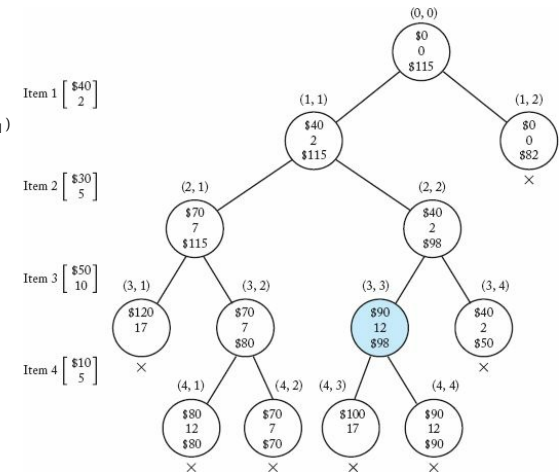
Obj:	1	2	3	4
<i>p</i>	40	30	50	10
<i>w</i>	2	5	10	5
<i>p/w</i>	20	6	5	2
<i>C</i> = 16				

```

algorithm KNAPSACK():
  bestsofar ← 0
  for i = 1 to n do resulti ← FALSE
  KNAPSACKREC(0, 0, 0)
  return (bestsofar, bestset)

algorithm KNAPSACKREC(i, profit, weight):
  if weight ≤ C ∧ profit > bestsofar then
    bestsofar ← profit
    bestset ← result
  if PROMISING(i) then
    resulti+1 ← TRUE
    KNAPSACKREC(i+1, profit+pi+1, weight+wi+1)
    resulti+1 ← FALSE
    KNAPSACKREC(i+1, profit, weight)

algorithm PROMISING(i):
  if weight ≥ C then return FALSE
  else
    j ← i + 1
    bound ← profit
    W ← weight
    while j ≤ n ∧ W + wj ≤ C do
      W ← W + wj
      bound ← bound + pj
      j ← j + 1
    if k ≤ n then
      bound ← bound + (C - W) × pj / wj
    return bound > profit
    
```



BRANCH & BOUND



- Similar to backtracking, but only for optimization problems
- Every time a state is considered its "value" is compared with the best solution candidate obtained so far
- Also changes the order of evaluation from depth first to
 - Breadth-first branch & bound
 - Best-first branch & bound where each node is associated a bound that denotes how "good" that node is

```

algorithm BRANCH&BOUND(v, bestsofar):
  open ← {}
  ENQUEUE(v, open)
  bestsofar ← VALUE(v)
  while open ≠ {} do
    u ← DEQUEUE(open)
    foreach child u of v do
      if VALUE(u) > bestsofar then
        bestsofar ← VALUE(u)
      if BOUND(u) > bestsofar then
        ENQUEUE(u, open)
    
```

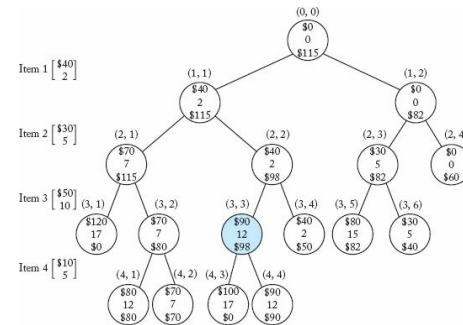
- open* = queue → breadth-first branch & bound
- open* = priority queue with key VALUE → best-first branch & bound

BRANCH & BOUND (CONT'D)



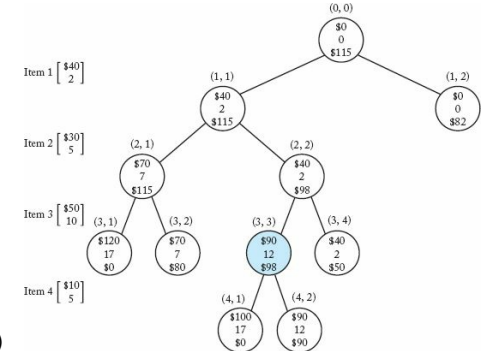
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<i>C</i> = 16				

• Breadth-first



When it is time to enqueue (2,3) its bound (82) is larger than *bestsofar* (70) so we enqueue and later expand. However, by the time we dequeue it *bestsofar* has already changed to 98.

• Best-first



Substantially smaller tree than in the case of breadth-first branch & bound.