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**Using Hierarchical Constraint Satisfaction  
for Lathe-Tool Selection in a  
CIM Environment**

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Director

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# Using Hierarchical Constraint Satisfaction for Lathe-Tool Selection in a CIM Environment

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## Abstract

In this paper we shall discuss how to treat the automatic selection of appropriate lathe tools in a computer-aided production planning (CAPP) application as a constraint satisfaction problem (CSP) over hierarchically structured finite domains. Conceptually it is straightforward to formulate lathe-tool selection in terms of a CSP, however the choice of constraint and domain representations and of the order in which the constraints are applied is nontrivial if a computationally tractable system design is to be achieved. Since the domains appearing in technical applications often can be modeled as a hierarchy, we investigate how constraint satisfaction algorithms can make use of this hierarchical structure. Moreover, many real-life problems are formulated in a way that no optimal solution can be found which satisfies all the given constraints. Therefore, in order to bring AI technology into real-world applications, it becomes very important to be able to cope with conflicting constraints and to relax the given CSP until a (suboptimal) solution can be found. For these reasons, the constraint system CONTAX has been developed, which incorporates an extended hierarchical arc-consistency algorithm together with discrete constraint relaxation and has been used to implement the lathe-tool selection module of the ARC-TEC planning system.

**Area of application:** computer-integrated manufacturing, computer-aided production planning

**AI techniques:** hierarchical constraint satisfaction, constraint relaxation



# 1 Introduction

The rapid development of manufacturing and computer technologies has generated new problems. To solve these problems modern tools and techniques are required. Artificial Intelligence (AI) is one of the most appropriate techniques for solving complex industrial problems [Kusiak, 1988].

The ARC-TEC project at DFKI constitutes an AI approach to implement the idea of computer-integrated manufacturing (CIM). Along with conceptual solutions, it provides a continuous sequence of software tools for the **A**cquisition, **R**epresentation, and **C**ompilation of **TE**chnical knowledge (cf. [Bernardi *et al.*, 1991]). This shell combines the KADS knowledge-acquisition methodology, the KL-ONE representation theory [Brachman and Schmolze, 1985], and WAM compilation [Hein and Meyer, 1992] and constraint-handling technologies [Meyer *et al.*, 1992]. For its evaluation, an expert system for production planning has been developed.

The input to the production planning system is a very low-level description of a rotational-symmetric workpiece as it comes from a CAD system. Geometrical description of the workpiece's surfaces and topological neighborhood relations are the central parts of this representation. If possible at all, production planning with these data starting from (nearly) first principles would require very complex algorithms. Thus, planning strategies on such a detailed level are neither available nor do they make sense. Instead human planners [Schmalhofer *et al.*, 1991] have a library of skeletal plans in their minds. Each of these plans is associated with a more or less abstract description of a (part of a) workpiece, which are called workpiece features [Klauck *et al.*, 1991]. Such a feature is defined by its association to a corresponding manufacturing method. The generation of an abstract feature description of the workpiece is the first step of the production planning process. The obtained features characterize the workpiece with respect to its production. In a second step the skeletal plans (associated to the features) are retrieved and merged resulting in an abstract NC program, which is then transformed into code for the concrete CNC machine.

The planning system has been developed using COLAB [Boley *et al.*, 1991], a hybrid-knowledge compilation laboratory which integrates the power of forward and backward reasoning, constraint propagation, and taxonomic classification. The focus is not on an integrated smooth system, but on exemplifying methodologies for the use of hybrid formalisms at certain subtasks. These various subtasks require a number of specialized reasoning mechanisms integrated in COLAB: Feature aggregation is performed by the forward reasoning component, FORWARD<sup>1</sup>,

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<sup>1</sup>FORWARD [Hinkelmann, 1992] is a declarative rule-based system with Horn clauses as its basic representation scheme, which is tightly coupled with RELFUN to achieve bidirectional reasoning. It offers two different implementations: The first interprets bottom-up rules directly using a magic set transformation for goal-directed reasoning. The second transforms bottom-up and bidirectional rules to RELFUN Horn clauses which are finally compiled into code for an extended WAM with a special forward code area.



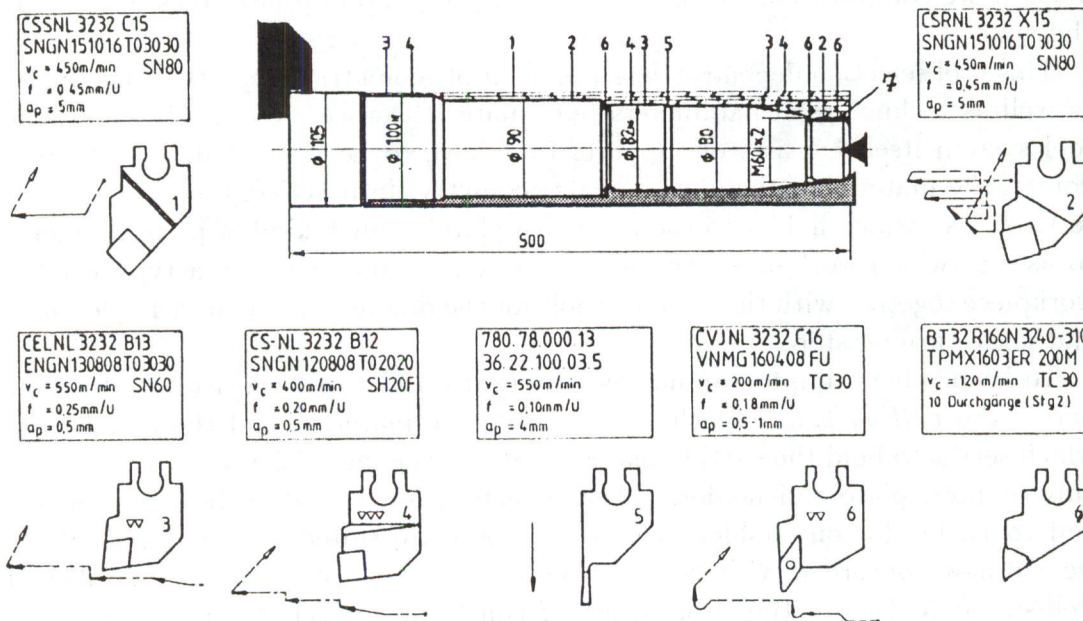


Figure 1: An example workpiece with its selected lathe tools

together with the terminological component, TAXON<sup>2</sup>. The derived features are finally collected by a program written in RELFUN [Boley, 1990], the backward reasoning component of COLAB. The abstract NC program is then generated from the classified workpiece by parameterized retrieval of skeletal plans using RELFUN and selecting the appropriate lathe tools via CONTAX, the constraint propagation component of COLAB.

## 2 The lathe-tool selection problem

The application problem we are dealing with for the rest of this paper will be to find appropriate lathe tools to manufacture the workpiece. According to the shape, the material and other attributes of the lathe part to be manufactured, the work-plan consists of a number of different steps. A typical work-plan may provide one step for roughing, another step for finishing and a third (facultative) step for doing the fine finishing of the lathe part. However, a work-plan can be

<sup>2</sup>TAXON [Baader and Hanschke, 1991] is a KL-ONE-like knowledge representation system. It provides two subformalisms: one to define and reason about terminologies, called Tbox, and another (called Abox) to reason about assertional knowledge. A terminology consists of a set of intensional concept definitions, which are arranged in a *subsumption hierarchy* (actually a directed acyclic graph) by the *classification service*. In the Abox the concepts can be instantiated by individuals. The individuals have attributes and belong to concepts. This assertional knowledge is used to determine the most specific concepts in the subsumption hierarchy to which the individuals belong (*realization service*).



much more complicated. For each processing step, appropriate tools have to be chosen.

This tool selection depends heavily on a lot of geometrical (e.g. the edge-angle) as well as technological parameters (e.g. material, process etc.). Moreover, the tool system itself consists of subparts that have to be combined, e.g. the tool holder, the material of the plate and its geometry. In practice, there are a lot of restrictions, 'which holder to use for which plate', 'which kind of plate geometry to use for which workpiece' contour and so on. Figure 1 shows a typical lathe workpiece together with the selected tools for the different manufacturing features and lathe-turning steps.

To keep things simple, we may assume that a lathe tool consists of two basic parts: the *cutting plate*, which actually cuts the material, and the *tool holder*, which serves to hold the cutting plates. We can exchange either the cutting plate only or both plate and holder. There is a functional relation between holders and tools, i.e. for one holder, only a few tools are suited. In our application, we are now concerned with finding a well-suited tool—or rather: a number of well-suited tools—starting from a set of constraints which describe the actual problem, i.e. information about the process to be performed, about the lathe part to be processed, and internal information about the compatibility of holders and cutting-plates as well as about holder and plate geometries. Lathe-tool selection will then result in a set of possible holder/tool combinations for each skeletal plan or manufacturing feature. Using this information, the planning layer formalized in RELFUN will finally perform the optimizations necessary to obtain a (sub)optimal work-plan.

### 3 Formalizing the lathe-tool selection problem as CSP

When formalizing the tool selection problem as a CSP, the first thing we have to do is to restrict the number of input parameters, which crucially determines the complexity of the problem, since each parameter corresponds to a variable in the constraint net. For our small example we will use the following variables:

- **Holder:** This variable denotes the tool holder. In the beginning, it ranges over the domain of all holders. During constraint propagation, it will be restricted to the set of holders which can currently be chosen.
- **Plate:** This variable denotes the cutting plate to be chosen. Analogously to the holder variable, it ranges over the set of all cutting plates and will be restricted subsequently.
- **Process:** This variable corresponds to the actual kind of processing.
- **WP-material:** This variable contains the material of the lathe workpiece.



- **Beta-max:** This variable denotes the maximal angle  $\beta$  appearing within the range of one feature of the workpiece.<sup>3</sup>
- **Edge-Angle:** This variable embodies the most important geometrical attribute of a cutting-plate, its edge-angle  $\epsilon$ .
- **TC-Edge-Angle:** The tool cutting edge-angle  $\chi$  is a geometrical characteristic of the tool holder. It denotes the angle between the horizontal cutting direction and the marginal cutting axis of the holder.

Figure 2 gives a better understanding of the geometrical items introduced above.

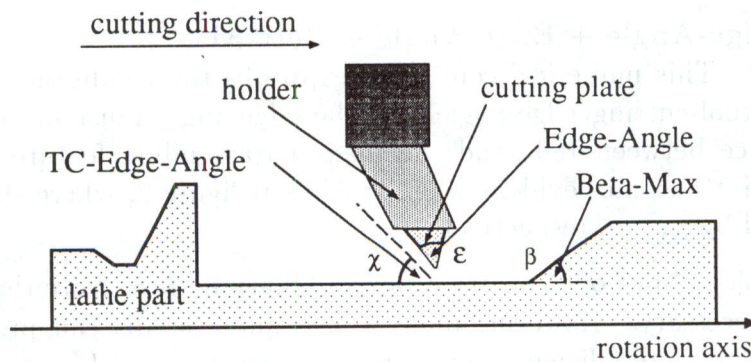


Figure 2: The Angle Constraint

Having identified the problem variables, the constraints can be put on the variables. In the following, we will consider only the most important constraints:

- **holder\_tcea(Holder, TC-Edge-Angle):** This constraint describes the functional relation between a holder and its tool-cutting edge-angle. It is represented as a primitive or database constraint by enumerating all the possible combinations.
- **plate\_ea(Plate, Edge-Angle):** This constraint is a database-constraint, too. It denotes the fact that each plate has its own edge-angle<sup>4</sup>.
- **compatible(Holder, Plate):** This constraint expresses the compatibility condition between tool holders and cutting plates.

<sup>3</sup>In general, each of these features corresponds to a single working process.

<sup>4</sup>Of course, we could have implemented the plate as a more complex data structure containing its edge-angle as an attribute. For the sake of uniformity, we implemented it as a constraint, just as we did with the **holder\_tcea** constraint.



- **hard\_enough(Plate, WP-Material)**: For materials with different degrees of hardness, different cutting-plates have to be used. Processing hardened steel, e.g., may require ceramic or even diamond cutting plates, whereas aluminum can be cut with other, cheaper plates. Note, however, that hardness is just one of many attributes of a material which are important in order to choose the right cutting plate.
- **process\_holder(Process, Holder)**: For the different steps of processing, different types of holders are appropriate. Well-suited for the purpose of roughing, e.g., are holders of the CSSNL class.
- **process\_edge\_angle(Process, Edge-Angle)**: This constraint expresses a rule of thumb which says that for roughing, plates with big edge-angles should be chosen, whereas for finishing, smaller edge-angles are appropriate.
- **TC-Edge-Angle + Edge-Angle + Beta-Max < 180°**: This numerical constraint expresses the condition that the sum of the tool-cutting edge-angle and the edge-angle must be less than the difference between 180° and the maximal ascending feature-angle. This constraint becomes evident when looking at figure 2, where the angles are denoted by  $\chi, \varepsilon, \beta$ , respectively.

In our example, all but one constraint are of binary nature. Note that in general this is not necessary. However, many constraint systems can process binary constraints in a more efficient way than  $n$ -ary constraints. Figure 3 shows the resulting constraint net for our application example.

## 4 The constraint system CONTAX

Various approaches and algorithms have been developed to tackle the constraint satisfaction problem (CSP). The computational complexities of these algorithms heavily depend on the level of consistency they compute (cf. [Mackworth and Freuder, 1985]). To reduce the complexity, terminological knowledge can be used to structure the domains of the variables occurring in the CSP.

The constraint system CONTAX supports constraint propagation methods for computing locally or globally consistent assignments of values from the given domains to the variables of the CSP. Especially, CONTAX provides a mechanism for solving constraints over hierarchically structured domains which can be defined using the terminological language TAXON.

### 4.1 Constraint satisfaction and local consistency

Given a set of  $n$  variables, each with an associated domain and a set of constraining relations each involving a subset of the variables, a constraint satisfaction problem can informally be defined as to find all possible  $n$ -tuples such that

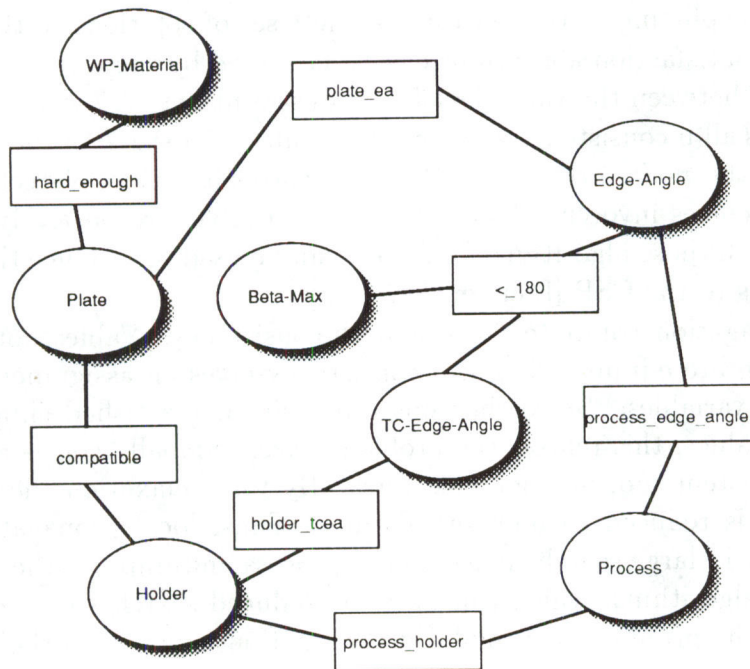


Figure 3: The Exemplary Constraint Net

each  $n$ -tuple is an instantiation of the  $n$  variables satisfying the relations. The constraining relations are called *constraints*. Constraints may be of any arity, whereas many constraint systems restrict them to be unary or binary. The variables of the CSP together with the constraints defined over them can be regarded as a constraint graph or *constraint net*. More formally, the general constraint satisfaction problem can be defined as follows:

**Definition 1 (CSP)**

Assume a finite set of variables  $V = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ , a finite set  $D = D_1 \cup \dots \cup D_n$  (domains), and a finite set  $R$  of relations  $R_i$  are given, such that  $R_i \subseteq D_{i_1} \times \dots \times D_{i_{k_i}}$ , where  $D_i \subseteq D$  and  $k_i$  is the arity of  $R_i$ . The constraint satisfaction problem is to find an assignment  $\sigma : V \rightarrow D$  for the variables such that all constraints are satisfied simultaneously.

A common example of a constraint satisfaction problem is the graph-coloring problem. Since graph-coloring is an NP-complete CSP, it is most unlikely that a polynomial time algorithm exists for solving general CSPs. However, a number of algorithms based on local propagation have been developed. These algorithms do not necessarily solve a CSP completely but they eliminate, once and for all, local inconsistencies that cannot participate in any global solution. These inconsistencies would otherwise have been repeatedly discovered by any backtracking solution. Hence local consistency algorithms can play the role of a preprocessor



for subsequent backtracking search, or they can be coupled with case analysis or simple domain splitting to recover the complete set of solutions to the CSP.

Constraint satisfaction algorithms can be classified by the level of consistency they establish between the variables of the constraint net. A  $k$ -consistency algorithm removes all inconsistencies involving all subsets of size  $k$  of the  $n$  variables. For example, the *node*, *arc*, and *path* consistency algorithms detect and eliminate inconsistencies involving  $k = 1, 2$ , and  $3$  variables, respectively. Freuder's generalization of those algorithms for  $k \rightarrow n$  can be used to produce the complete set of solutions to the CSP [Freuder, 1978].

Local propagation computes arc- or path-consistency. Values not appearing in any solution are eliminated. Local consistency gives an assignment of sets of values to the variables. Since the constraints are not satisfied simultaneously by the same values, this relaxes the problem. Every globally consistent solution is locally consistent too, but not vice-versa. By that relaxation the complexity of algorithms is reduced to polynomial time. Thus, local propagation can be used efficiently in large search spaces to pre-process and improve the behavior of backtracking algorithms, which run over the reduced search space afterwards.<sup>5</sup> Nevertheless, the pruning effect by local propagation depends on the kind of the problem: local propagation does not necessarily reduce the search space at all. On the other hand, some special instances of the CSP can be solved without any backtracking, provided there is some additional information about the structure of the constraint net [Meseguer, 1989].

## 4.2 Hierarchically structured domains and hierarchical arc-consistency

In many real-world applications, objects can be clustered and grouped to classes according to some of their properties. These classes often form a hierarchy, which can be described by a subclass-superclass relation, also called *isa*-relation. Knowledge representation using *isa*-hierarchies enables efficient use of attributes and properties of the considered domains. The transitivity of the *isa*-relation guarantees the inheritance of properties from super- to subclasses; subclasses can be seen as specializations. Any arbitrary domain can be transformed into a directed acyclic graph (*DAG*), which describes the domain as a hierarchy—in the worst case only consisting of nodes. In principle, the algorithms for solving any CSP, especially those dealing with large domains and hence large search spaces, can make use of structuring the domains.

The class hierarchy can be defined directly by enumerating the *isa*-links between classes. Moreover, the classes may declaratively be defined in terms of concept definitions in the sense of terminological languages like KL-ONE, which

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<sup>5</sup>The algorithm AC-3 [Mackworth, 1977] for achieving arc-consistency has a time complexity of  $O(ea^3)$ . Its space complexity is  $O(e + na)$ , with  $e$  constraints (arcs),  $n$  variables (nodes) and a cardinality of  $a$  for all domains.



then are classified to get the subsumption hierarchy. For this purpose, CONTAX employs the terminological language TAXON and its classification algorithms to structure the domains. The classifier does usually not build a tree, since one concept may be a subconcept of more than one other. More likely, the resulting hierarchy describing the domain of some constraint variables becomes a DAG representing this lattice.

To exploit the hierarchical structure of domains, the propagation algorithms had to be extended to deal with concepts instead of elements of a domain. The main aim is to reduce the complexity measured by the number of evaluations of the constraining relations. Therefore, CONTAX provides an extended and improved version of the hierarchical arc-consistency algorithm (*HAC*) presented in [Mackworth *et al.*, 1985]. It uses two new predicates, which evaluate the constraints between arbitrary concepts by using inheritance mechanisms. Since the concepts represent a large number of elements at once, this improves the efficiency of the propagation algorithm.

In [Mackworth *et al.*, 1985] some assumptions about the constraints and hierarchies are made. The HAC algorithm only deals with binary constraints over binary, singly rooted, strict trees as domains. For any real-world CSP the restrictions made by HAC seem to be inappropriate. In addition to that, it is useful—especially for large domains—to allow definitions of constraints between arbitrary concepts. Since the hierarchies are seen as structured inheritance networks, we have to make clear what inheritance means for constraints:

**Definition 2 (inheritance of constraints)**

Let  $R_j \subseteq D_1 \times \dots \times D_i \times \dots \times D_k$  be a constraint,  $(d_1, \dots, d_i, \dots, d_k) \in R_j$  be a tuple in  $R_j$ . Then for all  $\tilde{d}_i \in D_i$  the tuple  $(d_1, \dots, \tilde{d}_i, \dots, d_k) \in R_j$  iff  $\text{isa}(\tilde{d}_i, d_i)$ .

A locally consistent value assignment can be defined in terms of hierarchical arc-consistency. For simplicity reasons, we only give the definition for binary constraints here.<sup>6</sup> However, the actual CONTAX implementation uses an extended notion dealing with  $n$ -ary constraints:

**Definition 3 (arc-consistency)**

A value assignment  $\sigma : V \rightarrow 2^D$  of a set of values to each variable of the constraint net with  $\sigma(X_i) = \tilde{D}_i \subseteq D_i$  is **arc-consistent** iff for all variable pairs  $(\tilde{X}_i, \tilde{X}_j)$  and for all constraints  $R_{i,j}$  defined over them it holds that for each  $d \in \tilde{D}_i$  there exists at least one  $\tilde{d} \in \tilde{D}_j$  such that the pair  $(d, \tilde{d})$  satisfies the constraint  $R_{i,j}$ , that is  $R_{i,j}(d, \tilde{d})$  holds.

The image  $\tilde{D}$  of the value assignment  $\sigma$  only includes the most universal concepts that establish arc-consistency.

Hierarchical arc-consistency can now be defined based on the inheritance of constraints through **isa**-links:

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<sup>6</sup>Since any  $n$ -ary relation can be expressed as a set of binary relations, this is no serious restriction in theory.

**Definition 4 (hierarchical arc-consistency)**

A value assignment  $\sigma : V \rightarrow 2^D$  with  $\sigma(X_i) = \tilde{D}_i \subseteq D_i$  is **hierarchically arc-consistent**, if it is arc-consistent and most universal, i.e. for all  $d \in \tilde{D}_i$  there does not exist a more general concept  $q \in D_i, q \neq d$  and  $\text{isa}(d, q)$  such that the assignment

$$\tilde{\sigma}(X_k) = \begin{cases} (\tilde{D}_k \setminus d) \cup \{q\} & \text{if } k = i \\ \sigma(X_k) & \text{if } k \neq i \end{cases}$$

is arc-consistent, too.

The hierarchical constraint satisfaction problem (HCSP) is then to compute a hierarchical arc-consistent value assignment which can then using backtracking be further restricted towards a globally consistent value assignment satisfying all constraints simultaneously.

### 4.3 The User's View on CONTAX

Using CONTAX to formalize and solve a constraint satisfaction problem in principle involves the following steps:

- identifying the variables and constraints that constitute the given problem and defining the domains over which the variables range,
- defining the problem constraints,
- connecting variables and constraints to build the constraint net, and
- finally propagating some initial value assignments through the constraint net to restrict the domains of the variables and to achieve a solution for the underlying HCSP.

#### 4.3.1 Defining domains

In its simplest form, plain domains can be defined by simply enumerating all the elements belonging to the domain. For example, the statement

```
(def-domain alloy-steel
  (low-alloy-steel high-alloy-steel))
```

introduces a new domain of some workpiece materials. Using the hierarchical structure of the domain, a statement like

```
(def-domain steel
  (building-steel alloy-steel
   stainless-steel))
```



defines the hierarchical domain `steel` to be the union of some more specialized domains which have been defined before as plain or even hierarchical domains.

If some considered domain relates to a terminology defined using the KL-ONE-like terminological reasoning system TAXON, the terminology along with all its concepts can be imported and used by CONTAX, e.g. via a statement

```
(import-terminology workpiece-materials).
```

The classified concepts (i.e., the subsumption dag) can directly be used as the domain hierarchy for CONTAX, where the TAXON Abox individuals serve as leaves.

To be usable in real-life applications, CONTAX also supports variables ranging over intervals of integers. Such interval domains, e.g. the domain of angles defined by

```
(def-intdomain angle (0 90)),
```

can directly be mapped to hierarchical domains.

#### 4.3.2 Defining constraints

CONTAX provides different types of constraints: primitive (or extensional), predicative and compound constraints. All constraint types may be defined over any number of variables.

Primitive constraints are defined by enumerating all the tuples satisfying the constraint. This kind of constraint can also be regarded as a *database constraint*. One step towards a more comfortable definition of constraints is to make use of non-leaf concepts when enumerating the relations. Consider, for example, the following constraint defining compatibility between workpiece material and cutting-plates:

```
(def-primitive-constraint compatible
  :interface (material plate)
  :domains (material plate)
  :tuples
    ((cast cnmm) ...
     (alloy-steel dnmm-41) ...
     (steel dnmm-71) ...))
```

Here the fact that all kinds of `steel` are compatible with the `dnmm-71` plate are expressed by simply including the 'abstract' tuple `(steel dnmm-71)` instead of all the tuples for different kinds of `steel`.

Some constraints occurring in a real-world application are difficult or even impossible to be explicitly enumerated as primitive constraints. This is true, for example, for numerical constraints which should be evaluated by the underlying LISP system. Therefore, constraints can also be defined by providing a LISP function or lambda-expression (as argument to the `:predicate` keyword) which then

will be evaluated to test a given tuple for membership in the relation. Consider, for example, the <\_180 constraint in the lathe-tool application:<sup>7</sup>

```
(def-lisp-constraint <_180
  :interface
    (beta-max tc-edge-angle edge-angle)
  :predicate
    (lambda (beta-max tcea edge-angle)
      (< (+ beta-max tcea edge-angle)
         180)))
```

Other constraints may be defined by a RELFUN procedure. In this case, for each tuple which has to be tested for membership in the relation, the appropriate RELFUN goal is evaluated.

Often it may happen that the same constraint subnet occurs many times between different variables of the entire CSP. Therefore, it becomes very useful to define this subnet as a compound constraint which itself represents an entire constraint net. *Local variables* of the constraint subnet that only serve to connect local constraints need not to occur in the `:interface` list. For example, the exemplary constraint net in Figure 3 can be defined as a single compound constraint named `tool_sel`. The local variable `edge_angle` is determined by the variable `plate` and therefore need not to be visible from outside the `tool_sel` constraint:

```
(def-compound-constraint tool_sel
  :interface
    (holder plate process wp-material
     beta-max tc-edge-angle)
  :constraints
    ((holder_tcea holder tc-edge-angle)
     (plate_ea plate edge-angle)
     (<_180 tc-edge-angle
           edge-angle
           beta-max)
     (compatible holder plate)
     (hard_enough plate wp-material)
     (process_holder process holder)
     (process_edge_angle process
                          edge-angle)))
```

---

<sup>7</sup>Although the variables `beta-max`, `edge-angle`, and `tc-edge-angle` range over finite discrete domains and it therefore would be possible to explicitly enumerate all tuples satisfying the <\_180 constraint, in practice it is much more comfortable and even more efficiently computable to define this constraint as a predicative constraint using the underlying LISP system.



### 4.3.3 Building the constraint net

Since CONTAX is implemented in an object-oriented fashion based on CLOS, variables and constraints are realized as CLOS objects. Therefore, the constraint net is simply built by creating instances of the variable and constraint objects. Variable instances are created by e.g.

```
(make-variable :name MVAR
              :domain material)
(make-variable :name PVAR
              :domain plate)
```

After having created all needed instances of the problem variables, they can be linked by creating the constraint instances, e.g. an instance of the `compatible` constraint:

```
(make-constraint :name C1
                :type compatible
                :material MVAR
                :plate PVAR
                :weight hard)
```

### 4.3.4 Providing information for constraint relaxation

Many real-life problems are *over-specified*, that is, they are formulated in such a way that no single optimal solution satisfying all the given constraints can be found. In order to bring AI technology into real-world applications it becomes very important to be able to cope with conflicting constraints and to provide a mechanism to relax the given CSP until a (suboptimal) solution can be found.

Therefore, CONTAX allows to specify additional information to be used if the constraint problem turns out to be over-specified and the constraint solver detects an inconsistency:

- First, constraints can be weighted. That is, each constraint can be attached to a weight out of the discrete set of five weights ranging from `soft` to `hard`. By default, CONTAX regards all constraints to be `hard` constraints which cannot be relaxed.<sup>8</sup>
- Second, the tuples constituting primitive constraints can be weighted, too. The tuples listed as argument for the `:tuples` keyword in the constraint definition form the minimum definition of the relation. For relaxation purposes the relation can be extended by including additional tuples. These

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<sup>8</sup>It has been shown, e.g. by [Descotte and Latombe, 1985], that in general only a small number of discrete weights is necessary to represent the user's knowledge about priorities between constraints. Providing a larger or even an infinite set of weights would violate the declarative style of knowledge processing using constraints, since the user would then be able to directly code control information into the priorities of the constraints.

*relaxation tuples* are also given a weight ranging over the discrete set from `relax1` to `relax5`. Obviously, this results in a more fine-grain relaxation behavior than weighting entire constraints only.

By this means, CONTAX offers a very declarative and natural way to specify, for example, that the plate `dnmm-41` may also be used for `stainless-steel` if other (better) combinations cannot be used for some reason:

```
(def-primitive-constraint compatible
  :interface (mat pl)
  :domains (material plate)
  :tuples
    ((cast cnmm) ...
     (alloy-steel dnmm-41) ...
     (steel dnmm-71) ... )
  :relax1
    ((stainless-steel dnmm-41)))
```

#### 4.3.5 Computing a hierarchical arc-consistent value assignment

After having defined all variables, constraints, and their connections forming a constraint net, CONTAX is ready to perform its real job, namely to propagate value restrictions through the constraint net in order to compute a hierarchical arc-consistent value assignment.

The basic idea of the CONTAX constraint propagation algorithm is first to start with the mostly relaxed problem, to check whether a hierarchical arc-consistent value assignment can be computed, and then to strengthen the problem step by step until it either becomes equal to the `hard` problem formulation (without using any relaxation tuples) or an inconsistency occurs, in which case the most previously computed hierarchical arc-consistent value assignment is returned:

1. All constraints are relaxed as far as possible, i.e. all relaxation tuples and all `hard` constraints are taken into account. The relaxation value assignment  $\sigma_r$  is set to be the empty assignment  $\sigma_{\perp} : V \rightarrow \perp$ . All constraints are pushed onto a queue  $Q$  of constraints that have to be revised, that is, checked for hierarchical arc-consistency.
2. A constraint  $C(X_1, \dots, X_n) \in Q$  is selected to get revised and is deleted from  $Q$ . The domains of the variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are then checked for hierarchical arc-consistency w.r.t.  $C$ .
3. If the domain of some variable becomes empty, an inconsistency has been detected and the relaxation value assignment  $\sigma_r$  is returned as the hierarchical arc-consistent value assignment for the (relaxed) HCSP.

**Otherwise**, if the domain of some variable  $X$  has been restricted due to the application of some constraint, all other constraints  $C_1, \dots, C_m$  connected with  $X$  have to be revised again:  $Q \leftarrow Q \cup \{C_1, \dots, C_m\}$



4. **If** the constraint queue  $Q$  is not empty, the process continues with step 2. **Otherwise**, the current value assignment  $\sigma$  is hierarchical arc-consistent and is stored as new relaxation value assignment  $\sigma_r$ .
5. **If** there are no more constraints that can be strengthened, i.e. all constraints and no relaxation tuples are currently taken into account,  $\sigma_r$  is returned as the value assignment satisfying the entire CSP. **Otherwise**, the CSP is strengthened in some aspect, i.e. some set of relaxation tuples is removed or some constraint is added that has not yet been taken into account. The constraint queue  $Q$  is set to hold the newly strengthened constraints and the process continues with step 2.

Step 2 contains the very heart of the constraint *propagation* algorithm, which is how to select the next constraint from  $Q$  to revise. Here, a set of heuristics are used, for example, to prefer the constraint with the mostly restricted domains of its variables.

Step 5 incorporates the very heart of the *relaxation* procedure, i.e. the selection of the next strengthening step. Again, this selection is also based on heuristics guided by the discrete weights of the relaxation tuples and the constraints themselves.

#### 4.3.6 Implementation issues

The CONTAX system has been implemented in Common Lisp and runs on a variety of hardware platforms including Symbolics UX1200 Lisp boards. In order to develop an open system which can easily be extended towards other types of domains, the mechanisms like dispatching on type and the use of generic functions as provided by the Common Lisp Object System (CLOS) have been used intensively.

Besides being integrated in COLAB, there also exists a stand-alone version of CONTAX with a programmer interface to LISP [Meyer and Steinle, 1992] that enables any LISP-based application to use CONTAX as its own constraint-reasoning formalism.

## 5 Using CONTAX for lathe-tool selection

The constraint system CONTAX presented so far has been used to formalize and solve the lathe-tool selection problem as it occurs in a real-life process planning application. The principal approach how to formalize the lathe-tool selection problem as a CSP has been given before using a small example. However, in our real-life application we have to deal with a considerably larger set of constraints on some more variables ranging over much larger domains.

The current implementation of the lathe-tool selection module [Tolzmann, 1992] covers 59 different cutting plates, 62 holders, and 22 different materials. The



problem constraints determining the tool selection include technological 'rules' like

**If** the workpiece is stable (a criterion depending on the length/diameter ratio) and the **edge-angle** is of class **large** or **medium**,  
**then** prefer a medium tool-cutting edge-angle (**tc-edge-angle**)

as well as economical ones like

**If** the current process is rough-turning the workpiece,  
**then** a quadratic plate should be preferred to a triangular one whenever possible. Quadratic plates can be used more often in a process since they have one more tip.

Due to the compact notation of concepts (or classes) representing subsets of the domains, together with the ability to define constraints over abstract concepts and making use of inheriting properties from superconcepts to subconcepts, the increasing domain sizes of more than 400 elements in total poses no real efficiency problems. Since variables and constraints are compiled into CLOS objects, the most time-consuming task has been the generation of the constraint network. Thus, as in our concrete application all constraints and variables that have to be generated are known in advance, the constraint net can be built up when loading the whole planning system; the constraint-solving process itself can then be performed very efficiently.

Moreover, as expected, the problem formulation acquired from human experts as well as from text-books turned out to be contradictory. Thus, constraints had to be weighted in order to cope with such implicit contradictions. The ability of CONTAX to relax the problem step by step until it becomes solvable, has been essential for the success of our approach. Trying to formulate the problem using other constraint systems, would have required a complete problem reformulation.

## 6 Conclusion

In this paper we have shown how the notion of hierarchical arc-consistency introduced by [Mackworth *et al.*, 1985] can serve as a basis for developing a constraint system over hierarchically structured finite domains.

The application of lathe-tool selection motivated the development of a constraint relaxation procedure, which enables the system to cope with over-specified constraint problems.

Both extensions of classical constraint systems, exploiting hierarchically structured domains and incorporating constraint relaxation methods, have been essential for our approach to use constraint propagation for lathe-tool selection in a real-life application.



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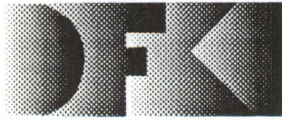
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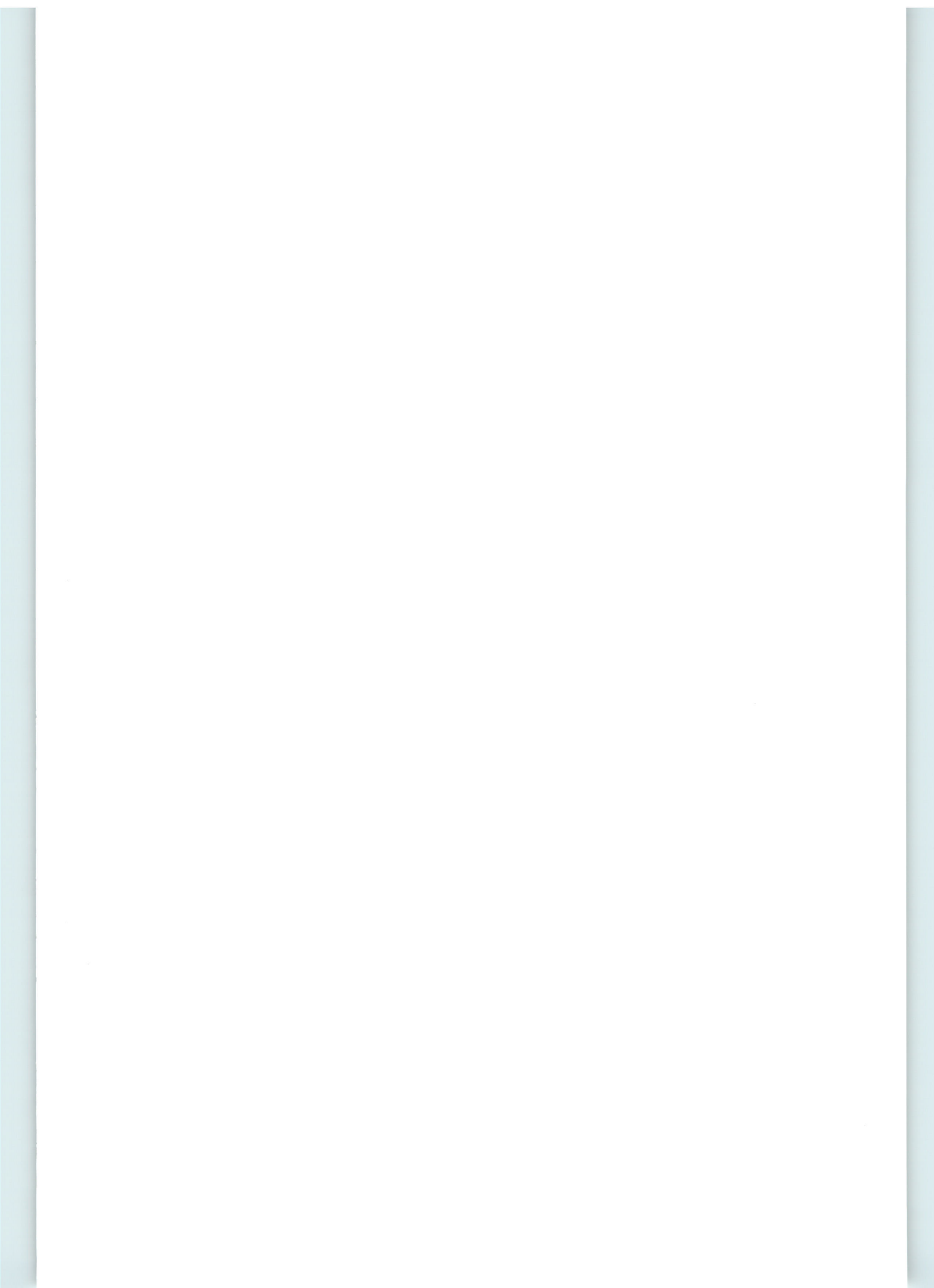
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