Why Is Scheduling Difficult?
A CSP Perspective

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Abstract

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Scheduling differs from planning in that it assigns resources over time, and in the presence of constraints, to activities selected by a planner. This paper formulates the scheduling problem as an N- Castle CSP problem so that the relevance of CSP problem solving techniques can be determined. Problems with this formulation arise due to scheduling's infinite temporal domain, it being an optimization problem, and the need for constraint relaxation to find feasible solutions. Alternative heuristics for variable and value ordering are described based on measures of contention, reliance and survivability.

1. Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to acquaint the reader with the scheduling problem, show why it is a difficult problem to solve, and therefore worthy of our attention. Since the 1960s, the planning problem has captured the interest of many AI researchers. Planning selects and sequences activities such that they achieve one or more goals and satisfy a set of domain constraints. But it was only in the early 1980s that scheduling came under serious scrutiny, and more recently has garnered the attention of a significant minority of researchers, primarily in the domains of manufacturing and space. 2. Scheduling selects among alternative plans, and assigns resources and times for each activity so that they obey the temporal restrictions of activities and the capacity limitations of a set of shared resources. It follows from these definitions that scheduling can be viewed as subclass of planning, with the focus being on the allocation of resources over time. The recency of the field's focus on scheduling is somewhat odd, given that one of the earlier papers on planning explicitly pointed out the problem of allocating resources over time [Simon 72]. On the other hand, the sterile world of blocks never forced the issues that arise in scheduling; it took a return to the "real world" for these issues to reappear.

From a computational complexity perspective, we know that both planning and scheduling are difficult problems; they have both been proven to be NP-Hard [Chapman 87, Garey & Johnson 79]. But more problems are NP, so that does not provide

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Footnote 2: There is even a conference on the topic, "Exper Systems in Production Operations at Management"); and workshops on the topic have been held at AAAI.
insight into their solution. It is the intent of this paper to provide a different perspective on the the scheduling problem so that the methods being developed in AI can be applied more easily.

In earlier work, we have shown that one can view scheduling as a constraint optimization problem [Fox 83, Fox 86]. This earlier work solved the scheduling problem by using constraints to heuristically direct search in the problem space [Fox & Smith 84, Ow & Smith 85, Fox 90]. The approach was synthetic in that it incrementally constructed a subset of partial schedules until one was found to be acceptable. Recently, a reductionist approach to scheduling, based on Constraint Satisfaction (CSP) techniques, has been explored. Techniques for constructing satisficing schedules [Eleby et al. 88, Keng et al. 88, Keng & Yun 89], and optimizing schedules [Sadah & Fox 88, Sadah & Fox 89, Fox et al. 89] have been demonstrated.

Viewing the scheduling problem from a CSP perspective can be useful. CSP is one of the few areas of AI where significant amounts of problem classification and complexity analysis has co-occurred [Mackworth 77, Haralick & Elliott 80, Freuder 82, Nudel 83, Purdom 83, Davis 87, Dechter & Pearl 87, Nadel 89]. Consequently, by reducing the scheduling problem to CSP, we can apply these results. On the other hand, as will be shown later, the scheduling problem extends beyond the current capabilities of CSP, providing for the carry over of methods from the scheduling domain.

In the following the complexity of the scheduling problem is explored through a series of factory scheduling problems. For each problem, an equivalent CSP formulation is provided. Finally, the difficulty of scheduling is analyzed and approaches to solving them are briefly described.

2. Constraint Satisfaction Perspective of Scheduling

CSP takes a reductionist approach to problem solving [Simon 73]; a super set of solutions are successively reduced to a solution set. A constraint satisfaction problem is defined by a set of variables \( V=\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\} \), each having a corresponding domain \( D=\{d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_m\} \), and a set of constraints \( C=\{c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_s\} \). A variable's domain \( d_i \) can be infinite, for example in the temporal domain, but is usually discrete and small. A constraint \( c_p \) is an m-tuple that specifies a consistent assignment to the variables that it constrains, i.e., \( c_p \subseteq d_1 \times d_2 \times \cdots \times d_m \). The process of solving a CSP is comprised of the following steps:

1. select a variable for instantiation,
2. select a value to assign to the variable, and then
3. determine whether the assignment is consistent with all the constraints. If not, then backtrack, otherwise iterate.

Research has focused on heuristics for selecting variables and values.

In the reminder of this section a series of factory scheduling problems are described and their CSP analog is formulated.

2.1. Single Resource Scheduling

The simplistic factory that one could imagine scheduling contains a single machine and produces a single product that requires a single operation. The scheduling goal is to assign each order for a product to an available time slot on the machine.

Equivalently, this can be stated more generally as a resource allocation problem where a single, indivisible resource, is to be allocated over time to \( n \) activities, but at any time to at most one activity. The activities are unrelated (i.e., no precedence relations among them) and are of equal duration.

From a CSP perspective, this is equivalent to what I call the \( N \)-Castle Problem. Given an \( n \times n \) chess board, the problem is

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\(^3\)This view is not unique; Operations Research has also formulated scheduling as an optimization problem and has applied various mathematical programming techniques, such as integer programming. See [Fox 91] for a comparison of AI and OR approaches.
to place n castles such that they do not interfere according to chess rules. Unlike the N-Queens problem, more than one castle may occupy the same diagonal, but not the same row and column. Each castle, which occupies a separate row, corresponds to a separate activity and each column of the chess board corresponds to a unique, equal duration time slot that the activity can use the single resource.

2.2. Scheduling with Due Dates

To bring some realism to the scheduling problem, we impose the constraint that each activity $A_i$ must be completed before a “due date” $d_i$. Each activity’s due date is independent of the due dates of other activities. This is the same as “mutilating” the N-Castle chess board by removing squares at the end of each row. Assuming that each column is numbered from 1 to n, then if an activity $A_i$ is due on date 5, then squares 6 through n in the activity’s corresponding row $i$ are unavailable for placing the castle.

Figure 2-1: N-Castle Problem

More formally, given $n$ activities $A_i$ with domains $A_i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, assign a value to each subject to the following constraints:

$$\forall i \forall j ((i \neq j) \Rightarrow (A_i \neq A_j))$$

No two distinct activities may occupy the same column.

The constraint graph, whose nodes are activities, is completely connected by inequality constraints that assure that no activities occupy the same column/time slot. This problem is simpler than the N-Queens, and can be solved in polynomial time [Garey & Johnson 79].

Figure 2-2: Mutilated N-Castle Problem

More formally, given $n$ activities $A_i$ with domains $A_i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, and due dates $d_i$. Assign a value to each subject to the following constraints

4Depending on how close the due dates are to each other, there may not exist sufficient time slots for all activities to be performed before or on their due dates.
with precedence is defined as given \( n \) activities \( A_i \):

- with domains \( A_i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \),
- due dates \( d_i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \), and
- a precedence matrix \( P_{ij} \) where \( P_{ij} = 1 \) if \( A_i \) must precede \( A_j \),

assign a value to each subject to the following constraints:

\[ \forall ij [(i \neq j) \implies (A_i \neq A_j)] \]

No two distinct activities may occupy the same column.

\[ \forall i [A_i \leq d_i] \]

An activity must end on or before its due date.

\[ \forall ij [(P_{ij} = 1) \implies (A_i < A_j)] \]

Activities with precedence must be sequenced.

Initially, the constraint graph had all of the activity nodes connected together with inequalities, denoting that no castle/activity may occupy the same position. Precedence adds another layer of inter-activity constraints, as denoted by the \( P_{ij} \) precedence matrix.

### 2.4. Multiple Alternative Resources

To make the factory a little more realistic, more resources can be added. Now, each activity \( A_i \) may choose one of \( m \) resources to use, thus increasing the complexity of the task.

From a CSP perspective, the N-Castle problem can be further refined by extending the \( n \times n \) chess board into a third dimension, each plane representing an alternative resource (figure 2-4). No two castles may occupy the same column within the same plane.

More formally, given \( n \) activities \( A_i \) and \( m \) alternative resources to choose from, with:

- activities having domains \( A_i \in \{<T_i, R_i>|1 \leq T_i \leq n, 1 \leq R_i \leq m\} \) where \( T_i \) is the time or column position of the activity and \( R_i \) is the resource or plane selected,
- due dates \( d_i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \), and
2.5. Interfering Activities

The formulation provided so far is general enough to specify a flow shop (and actually a job shop) where each product goes through the same sequence of activities. Now consider an assembly line, a type of flow shop, where a small number of product types are sequenced to be released to the line. Each type of product has a different set of component parts, or "options". The assembly line is balanced so that no two products of the same type can be within $b_i$ positions of each other. Otherwise, the line would have to be temporally halted so that more time is available to complete the activities.

This is equivalent to our latest version of the N-Castle problem, where castles can be of different colors, and the lines of interference are defined as regions. That is, there cannot be castles of the same color within a region centered at a castle, in the same plane.

Formally, given $n$ activities $A_i$, and $m$ alternative resources to choose from, with:

- activities having domains $A_i \in \{<T_i, R_i> | 1 \leq T_i \leq n, 1 \leq R_i \leq m\}$ where $T_i$ is the time or column position of the activity and $R_i$ is the resource or plane selected,
- due dates $d_i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$,
- a precedence matrix $P_{ij}$ where $P_{ij} = 1$ if $A_i$ precedes $A_j$,
- an activity type $AT_i \in \{1, \ldots, o\}$, that is, it is one of $o$ types, and
- a neighborhood around a castle of type $t$ of size $B(t)$,

assign a value to each subject to the following constraints:

Nodes in the constraint graph are now 2-tuples; significantly enlarging the space of alternative potential solutions.
∀i \left( T_i \leq d \right)

An activity must end on or before its due date.

∀ij \left[ \left( P_{ij} = 1 \right) \rightarrow \left( T_i < T_j \right) \right]

If precedence exists among activities i and j, then activity i must be assigned a position before activity j.

∀ij \left[ \left( i \neq j \right) \land \left( R_i = R_j \right) \right] \rightarrow \left( T_i \neq T_j \right)

No two distinct activities using the same resource may occupy the same time slot.

∀ij \left[ \left( \left( AT_i = AT_j \right) \land \left( R_i = R_j \right) \right) \rightarrow \left( \left( T_i - T_j \right) > B \left( AT_i \right) \right) \right]

If activities i and j are of the same type and use the same resource, the "distance" between them should be greater than specified by its type.

The delineation of regions around types of activities complicates the assignment problem. Poor initial assignments of activities may not leave open regions large enough for subsequent activities of the same type. Therefore assigning activities with the largest regions first would appear to be a good idea, and the smaller activities could be inserted among them.

2.6. Non-Uniform Durations

Factories produce more than one product. Each product may have a different sequence of activities, the number of activities in a sequence may vary, and the duration of each activity may vary. It is the last point that complicates the scheduling problem further.

To accommodate this last point, the N-Castle problem is modified so that a castle may occupy more than one square, and the number of squares each castle occupies may differ.

Formally, given n activities A_i and m alternative resources to choose from, with

- activities having domains \( A_i \in \left( \{ T_i, R_i \} \mid 1 \leq T_i \leq n, 1 \leq R_i \leq m \right) \) where \( T_i \) is the time or column position of the activity and \( R_i \) is the resource or plane selected,
- due dates \( d_i \in \{ 1, \ldots, n \} \),
- a precedence matrix \( P_{ij} \) where \( P_{ij} = 1 \) if \( A_i \) precedes \( A_j \),
- an activity type \( AT_i \in \{ 1, \ldots, o \} \), that is, it is one of \( o \) types, and
- the number of squares occupied by the \( i \)th activity is defined by \( S_i \),

assign a value to each subject to the following constraints:

∀i \left[ \left( T_i + S_i - 1 \right) \leq d_i \right]

An activity must end on or before its due date.

∀ij \left[ \left( P_{ij} = 1 \right) \rightarrow \left( \left( T_i + S_i - 1 \right) < T_j \right) \right]

If the \( i \)th activity must precede the \( j \)th activity, then the \( i \)th activity must end before the \( j \)th begins.

∀ij \left[ \left( R_i = R_j \right) \rightarrow \left( \left( \left( T_i + S_i - 1 \right) \land \left( T_j > \left( T_i + S_i - 1 \right) \right) \right) \right) \right]

If two activities use the same resource, then they must not overlap in time.

With non-uniform durations, choices of where to place an activity can have an enormous impact. If assignments do not leave gaps large enough for subsequent assignments, then significant amounts of backtracking can arise. One would think then that you would assign activities with the largest durations first\(^5\).

2.7. Multiple Resources and Variable Durations

The scheduling problem can be generalized further to a job shop without assemblies, defined as follows:

- The factory produces two or more different products, where similar products are grouped into families.
- Each product requires one or more

\(^5\)Operations research has studied a variety of heuristics, such as shortened processing time or earliest due date. Both are appropriate under different conditions (Baker 74).
operations to produce it, where the operations sequentially transform basic materials into the final product.

- The sequence of operations required to produce a product is defined to be its process plan. Process plans differ for each product.
- Each operation specifies one or more resources that are required during its performance.
- Durations for operations are specified apriori but may be contracted if orders for products in the same family follow each other on the same resource.
- Products are produced on demand, that is on the receipt of orders.
- There are multiple orders in production at any time. Contention usually exists for a subset of resources.
- Lead times for the delivery of orders can vary from zero days to multiples of the actual manufacturing lead time.

The job shop complicates the scheduling problem because (1) activities may use more than one resource, thereby increasing the degree of interference with other activities, and (2) the sequencing of activities at a specific resource may result in an expansion or contraction in the amount of time an operation will use one or more resources. Another way of viewing context dependent operation durations is that each operation can be viewed as a set of alternative operations, with different durations, and constraints that limit their selection based on the operation that precedes it at the same resource. That is, if the prior abutting operation is in the same family, then the operation with the reduced duration can be selected.

Formally, given \( n \) activities \( A_i \) and \( m \) alternative resources to choose from, with

- activities having domains \( A_i \in \{ T_i, R_i, V_i \} | 1 \leq T_i \leq n, R_i \in \text{Powers} \)
- \( T_i \) is the time or column position of the activity, \( R_i \) is the set of resources selected, and \( V_i \) is the version of the activity whose choice is constrained by the activity that precedes it,
- \( V_i \) specifying the version of activity \( j \) if preceded by activity \( i \),
- due dates \( d_i \in \{ 1, \ldots, n \} \),
- a precedence matrix \( P \) where \( P_{ij} = 1 \) if \( A_i \) precedes \( A_j \),
- an activity type \( AT_i \in \{ 1, \ldots, o \} \), that is, it is one of \( o \) types, and
- the number of squares occupied by the \( i \)th activity is defined by \( S_i \) (note that the amount depends on the version of the activity chosen),

assign a value to each activity subject to the following constraints:

\[
\forall i \ ( (T_i + S_i - 1) \leq d_i )
\]

An activity must end on or before its due date.

\[
\forall ij \ ([P_{ij} = 1] \Rightarrow (T_i + S_i - 1) < T_j)
\]

If the \( i \)th activity must precede the \( j \)th activity, then the \( i \)th activity must end before the \( j \)th begins.

\[
\forall ij \ ( (R_i \cap R_j) \neq \emptyset ) \Rightarrow
\]

\[
( (T_i + S_i - 1) < T_j ) \vee (T_j > (T_i + S_i - 1))
\]

If two activities use the same resource, then they must not overlap in time.

\[
\forall j \exists i \ ( \text{Directly-Precedes}(ij) \Rightarrow \\
\ ( V_i = \text{Version}_j ) )
\]

If there exists an activity \( i \) that directly precedes activity \( j \), where Directly-Precedes is a predicate, then the activities version is specified by the matrix Version.

With activities requiring more than one resource at a time, the degree of interference among activities continues to increase. Secondly, with durations being variable, it becomes more difficult to predict the impact of an assignment on subsequent assignments.

The job shop can be complicated further by extending process plans from chains to graphs; any path through the process plan graph defines a legal means of producing the product. A formal specification of this
version of the scheduling problem is left to the reader!

3. Why Is Scheduling So Difficult?

3.1. Temporal Complexity

Schedules are constructed to span a temporal horizon, that is, detailed schedules are produced over some time interval. The length of the horizon depends upon the lead time with which resources, to be used in the production of the order, have to be planned and sourced. In some cases it may be weeks, and in other cases it may be years. Over the temporal horizon, schedules must describe activities to a particular temporal granularity, perhaps to a day, shift, hour or minute. The temporal granularity of a schedule depends upon the duration of the activities and the degree of uncertainty in the environment; that is, to what extent schedules can be followed due to stochastic events such as resource unavailability. Depending on the granularity the number of start times for each activity to choose from can be large.

Consider the simple scheduling problem with uniform durations and alternative resources. An upperbound on the number of solutions to this problem for the case of 100 activities, with 100 time slots, each having the choice of one of 100 resources is determined as follows. By restricting each activity/castle to a plane, each activity has at most $10^4$ positions to choose from. Given that there are $10^2$ activities, then the cross product of all these activities is $10^{400}$.

For extended horizons or more precise granularities, the number of starting times is enormous. Consequently, the N-castle formulation is only an abstraction of the real problem. Experience has shown that a change is required to an interval representation of time. In systems such as ISIS [Smith 83] and Deviser [Vere 83] have used variants of Allen's temporal relations [Allen 83] to identify scheduling intervals.

3.2. Optimization

The CSP perspective is that any variable assignment that satisfies the set of constraints is equally acceptable. That is not the case in the scheduling domain. Due dates may be extended indefinitely into the future and there may exist many solutions to a scheduling problem, some which are better than others. Scheduling is really an optimization problem, the goal being to optimize criteria, such as:

- **Lateness**: Minimize the amount of time between when an activity is completed and its due date.
- **Flow Time**: Minimize the amount of time it takes for a product to complete its activities; that is, how much time the product spends being worked on in the factory.
- **Cost**: Minimize the amount of money spent on producing the product.

The consequence of this is that CSP definition is not sufficient to encompass the entire set of scheduling problems. Instead, a second class of problems, called Constrained Optimization Problems (COP) [Fox et al. 89] is defined similar to CSPs, but has, in addition, an objective function, that provides a numerical prioritization of proposed solutions. How the objective function is used during search is an interesting problem (see [Sadeh & Fox 88] for one approach).

3.3. Feasibility and Relaxation

Up till now we have taken for granted that a feasible solution exists to the aforementioned variations of the N-Castle problem. This is not often the case in factory settings. Due to the costs involved, resources are not available at levels that are sufficient to satisfy the temporal requirements imposed by due date and precedence constraints. Consequently, there may not exist a feasible solution.

In the factory scheduling domain it is not acceptable to just recognize that there does not exist a solution. Rather, as good a solution as possible must be found, even if a subset of the constraints are not satisfied. The question then is what subset of constraints are to be relaxed and how. Often, within a domain there is a clear weighting of constraints, and in some cases relaxations are specifiable. Some should not be relaxed, such as capacity constraints, but others can
be relaxed, such as cost or due dates. This information may be utilized in the process of relaxation. In ISIS, OPIS, and CORTES, relaxations and their utilities are defined explicitly as part of the constraint representation. A variety of techniques have been explored for deciding when and where to relax a constraint [Fox 90]. Alternatively, Operations Research would view a due date not as a constraint but as part of the objective function with the intent to minimize the difference between an activity's actual completion time and its due date. A third approach within the CSP framework randomly chooses constraints to remove from the problem [Freuder 89].

In order to address the issue of achieving feasibility via relaxation, the COP constraint graph has to be extended to include information, such as the following:

- Relative weightings of constraints.
- Explicit specifications of relaxations of constraints.
- Utilities of relaxations.

Such representations have arisen in the constraint directed scheduling techniques discussed above, and in relaxation labelling techniques [Zucker 76].

3.4. Variable and Value Ordering Heuristics

How would we solve the scheduling problem with a CSP approach? First, let's ignore the issues of optimization and relaxation.

Some preprocessing of the constraint network can be performed to reduce the domains of the activities. For example, the satisfaction of temporal constraints, such as due dates and precedence, will reduce the start times of activities to a set of intervals. But the main effort is in the variable and value selection.

The most widely accepted heuristic for selecting the next variable is to choose one with the smallest remaining domain [Bittner & Reingold 75]. It has been shown that this technique can greatly reduce search complexity [Purdom 83]. The question is whether it is sufficient for scheduling. It has been shown experimentally that simple heuristics are not sufficient [Sad]. If an activity has only a few start time resources relative to other activities' backtracking, but as you will see later is not always the case. But this is not due to sue. For most activities, there will be time and resources available, thus domain size will be approximately equal. The issue is how to distinguish between a large number of what appear indistinguishable activities? Instead, activities that should be scheduled first: the activities with a large proportion of possible reservations that are expected to become unavailable if other activities scheduled earlier.

For value selection, the concept of goodness has been proposed [Dechter Pearl 87]. That is, choose a value that participates in the largest number of solutions. Since generating all possible solutions is feasible, Dechter and Pearl proposed using tree-like relaxation of the problem to approximate value goodness. For the scheduling problem we have found that there is a good tree-like relaxation, other relaxations have been explored and are described in the next section.

4. The CORTES Approach

CORTES is a factory scheduling system [Fox & Sycara 90] that solves resource location COP's using Constrained Heuristic Search (CHS) [Fox et al. 89]. Under CORTES's approach to solving resource location COP's is a generalization and formalization of what is known in the scheduling literature as bottleneck scheduling. That is, in order to optimize a schedule, first optimize the scheduling of bottleneck resources.

For a particular scheduling problem, CORTES constructs a constraint graph that differs from a CSP constraint graph in number of ways. First, if determining if bottleneck resources is critical to making scheduling decisions, then a typical constraint graph with activities as nodes hide this information. In order to determine the degree of contention for a resource, a redundant version of original constraint graph i
needed. In this constraint graph there are two types of nodes, activity and resource nodes. Rather than burying the resource in the activity node, the demands for each resource are represented explicitly by capacity demand constraints linking activities to resources. A second change to the constraint graph is to include relaxations and their utilities. Rather than specifying a single due date, a set of alternative dates with associated utilities are specified.

Scheduling using this constraint graph follows the following process:

1. Temporal preferences such as reducing tardiness and inventory are propagated across the temporal constraints [Sadeh & Fox 88, Sadeh & Fox 90].
2. The resulting preferences are further propagating across the capacity demand constraints while accounting for possible resource preferences.
3. The resulting demand profiles provide measures for resource contention as a function of time.
4. Highly contended resource/time intervals help identify critical activities. More specifically, the activity whose demand relies most on the contended resource/time intervals is selected to be scheduled next.
5. A reservation (start time and a set of resources) is selected for this activity by accounting for its direct contribution to the objective function (local preferences) and its likelihood to survive the contention of other unscheduled activities.

The contention metric is a heuristic approximation of the more general notion of constraint tightness. Constraint tightness manifests itself in the scheduling problem around the available resource capacity over time, i.e., the capacity constraints. By accounting for contention in an activity's criticality, we obtain a more precise indicator of the importance of selecting an activity than provided by previous variable ordering heuristics.

A detailed description of this approach can be found in [Sadeh & Fox 90].

5. Conclusion

Constraint Satisfaction research has made great strides in understanding the power of heuristics in solving large systems of constraints. But the continued focus on N-Queens and satisfiability problems has led CSP research to ignore additional problem characteristics and rich constraint structure that arise in specific classes problems. Our experience in the scheduling domain has demonstrated both the relevance and limitations of CSP techniques. What makes scheduling a difficult problem to solve from a CSP perspective is:

1. Scheduling is an optimization problem in a very large combinatorial space. Therefore a good solution must be found as quickly as possible.
2. In most scheduling problems there exists a plethora of constraints. It is often the case that the problem is infeasible, requiring that one or more constraints be relaxed in order to find a solution.
3. CSP representations have insufficiently represented the role of domain values. That is, in scheduling problems, the degree to which resources are contended for and activities rely upon them are important factors in making variable and value ordering decisions.

Our work on CORTES describes how many of these shortcomings can be addressed in solving resource constrained optimization problems.

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