Topic 17: Constraint-Based Local Search¹ (Version of 18th January 2019)

Pierre Flener

Optimisation Group
Department of Information Technology
Uppsala University
Sweden

Course 1DL441:

Combinatorial Optimisation and Constraint Programming, whose part 1 is Course 1DL451: Modelling for Combinatorial Optimisation

¹Based on an early version by Magnus Ågren (2008)



(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Example: The COMET System

Hvbrid

Methods

Bibliography

1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Functions

Probing Functions Comparison with CP

3. Example: The COMET System

4. Hybrid Methods



(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Example: The COMET System

Methods

Hvbrid

Bibliography

1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics

- Example 1: Graph Partitioning
- Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

- 3. Example: The COMET System
- 4. Hybrid Methods
- 5. Bibliography



(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics

Example 1: Grap
Partitioning

Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Mota-Houristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search Local Search

Heuristics

- Example 1: Graph Partitioning
- Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with CP

- 3. Example: The COMET System
- 4. Hybrid Methods
- 5. Bibliography



Local Search

Heuristics
Example 1: Grap
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

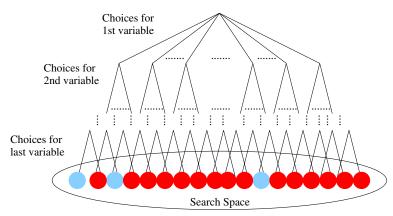
Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

So Far: Inference + Systematic Search

- The variables become fixed 1-by-1.
- Stop when solution or unsatisfiability proof is obtained.
- Search space from a systematic-search viewpoint:





Now: Inference + Local Search

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics
Example 1: Grap
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Function

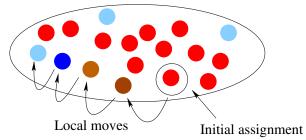
Example:

System Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Each variable is fixed all the time.

- Search proceeds by moves: each move modifies the values of a few variables in the current assignment, and is selected upon probing the cost impacts of several candidate moves, called the neighbourhood.
- Stop when a good enough assignment has been found, or when an allocated resource has been exhausted, such as time spent or iterations made.





Local Search

Example 1: Gra Partitioning Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (BIBD: AED assignment after *i* moves)

	plot1	plot2	plot3	plot4	plot5	plot6	plot7
barley	√	1	✓	_	_	_	_
corn	√	_	_	✓	_	✓	_
millet	✓	_	_	-	_	✓	✓
oats	_	1	_	✓	✓	-	_
rye	_	1	_	-	✓	-	✓
spelt	_	_	✓	✓	_	-	✓
wheat	_	_	✓	_	✓	✓	_

- 1 Equal growth load: Every plot grows 3 grains. Currently satisfied: zero violation.
- Equal sample size: Every grain is grown in 3 plots. Satisfied by initial assignment and each move: implicit.
- Balance: Every grain pair is grown in 1 common plot. But, e.g., oats & rye are grown in 2 > 1 common plots.



Local Search

Example 1: Gra Partitioning Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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	plot1	plot2	plot3	plot4	plot5	plot6	plot7
barley	√	✓	✓	_	_	_	_
corn	√	_	_	1	_	✓	_
millet	✓	-	_	_	_	✓	1
oats	_	✓	_	1	√	_	_
rye	_	✓	_	_	✓	-	1
spelt	_	-	✓	1	_	-	✓
wheat	_	l	✓	_	✓	\	_

- Equal growth load: Every plot grows 3 grains. Currently satisfied: zero violation.
- Equal sample size: Every grain is grown in 3 plots. Satisfied by initial assignment and each move: implicit.
- Balance: Every grain pair is grown in 1 common plot. But, e.g., oats & rye are grown in 2 > 1 common plots.

Selected move: let plot6 instead of plot5 grow oats.



Local Search

Example 1: Gra Partitioning Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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corn	✓	-	_	✓	_	✓	_
millet	✓	-	_	-	_	✓	✓
oats	_	✓	_	✓	_	\	_
rye	_	√	_	-	✓	-	✓
spelt	_	-	✓	✓	_	-	✓
wheat	_	-	✓	-	✓	\	_

- 1 Equal growth load: Every plot grows 3 grains. Currently satisfied: zero violation.
- Equal sample size: Every grain is grown in 3 plots. Satisfied by initial assignment and each move: implicit.
- Balance: Every grain pair is grown in 1 common plot. But, e.g., oats & rye are grown in 2 > 1 common plots.

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Local Search

Example 1: Gra Partitioning Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (BIBD: AED assignment after i + 1 moves)

	plot1	plot2	plot3	plot4	plot5	plot6	plot7
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corn	√	_	_	1	_	√	_
millet	✓	_	_	_	_	√	✓
oats	_	1	_	1	_	✓	_
rye	_	1	_	_	✓	-	✓
spelt	_	_	✓	1	_	-	✓
wheat	_	_	✓	_	✓	✓	_

- Equal growth load: Every plot grows 3 grains.

 But plot5 grows 2 < 3 grains; plot6 grows 4 > 3 grains.
- 2 Equal sample size: Every grain is grown in 3 plots. Satisfied by initial assignment and each move: implicit.
- Balance: Every grain pair is grown in 1 common plot. But, e.g., corn & oats are grown in 2 > 1 common plots.



Local Search

Example 1: Gra Partitioning Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Methods

Hvbrid

Bibliography

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corn	✓	-	_	✓	_	√	_
millet	✓	-	_	-	_	✓	✓
oats	_	✓	_	✓	_	√	_
rye	_	√	_	-	✓	-	✓
spelt	_	-	✓	✓	_	-	✓
wheat	_	-	✓	-	✓	\	_

- Equal growth load: Every plot grows 3 grains.

 But plot5 grows 2 < 3 grains; plot6 grows 4 > 3 grains.
- 2 Equal sample size: Every grain is grown in 3 plots. Satisfied by initial assignment and each move: implicit.
- Balance: Every grain pair is grown in 1 common plot. But, e.g., corn & oats are grown in 2 > 1 common plots.

Selected move: let plot5 instead of plot6 grow corn.



Local Search

Example 1: Gra Partitioning Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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corn	√	_	_	1	√	_	_
millet	✓	-	_	_	_	✓	✓
oats	_	✓	_	1	_	✓	_
rye	_	✓	_	_	1	-	1
spelt	_	_	✓	1	_	_	✓
wheat	_	_	✓	_	✓	✓	_

- Equal growth load: Every plot grows 3 grains.

 But plot5 grows 2 < 3 grains; plot6 grows 4 > 3 grains.
- 2 Equal sample size: Every grain is grown in 3 plots. Satisfied by initial assignment and each move: implicit.
- Balance: Every grain pair is grown in 1 common plot. But, e.g., corn & oats are grown in 2 > 1 common plots.

Selected move: let plot5 instead of plot6 grow corn.



Local Search

Example 1: Gra Partitioning Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (BIBD: AED assignment after i + 2 moves)

	plot1	plot2	plot3	plot4	plot5	plot6	plot7
barley	√	1	✓	_	_	_	_
corn	√	_	_	1	✓	-	_
millet	√	_	_	_	_	✓	✓
oats	_	1	_	1	_	✓	_
rye	_	1	_	_	✓	-	✓
spelt	_	_	✓	1	_	-	✓
wheat	_	_	✓	_	✓	✓	_

- 1 Equal growth load: Every plot grows 3 grains. Currently satisfied: zero violation.
- Equal sample size: Every grain is grown in 3 plots. Satisfied by initial assignment and each move: implicit.
- 3 Balance: Every grain pair is grown in 1 common plot. Currently satisfied: zero violation.

Stop search: All constraints are satisfied.



Terminology and Choices

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics
Example 1: Grap
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Function Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Consider a constraint problem with constraints $\{c_1, \ldots, c_n\}$ and optionally an objective function f, which is here to be minimised, without loss of generality:

Definition

A satisfying (or feasible) assignment maps all decision variables to domain values that satisfy all the constraints c_i .

Property: A satisfying assignment actually is a solution to a constraint satisfaction problem (CSP), but it may be sub-optimal for a constrained optimisation problem (COP).

Assume function Cost gives the cost of an assignment s:

- CSP: Cost(s) = $\sum_{i=1}^{n} Violation(c_i, s)$
- COP: Cost(s) = $\alpha \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} \text{Violation}(c_i, s) + \beta \cdot f(s)$

for problem-specific VIOLATION and parameters α and β .



Local Search

Example 1: Gra Partitioning Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Functions Probing Functions Comparison with CF

Example: The COMET System

Hvbrid

Methods

Bibliography

Definition

A soft constraint c has a function VIOLATION(c, s) that returns zero if c is satisfied under the assignment s, else a positive value depending on the level of violation.

Example: VIOLATION $(x \le y, s) = \text{if } s(x) \le s(y) \text{ then } 0 \text{ else } s(x) - s(y)$

Definition

A one-way constraint is kept satisfied during search, as one of its variables is defined by a total function on the others.

Example: For $p = x \cdot y$: if x or y is reassigned by a move to assignment s, then s(p) is to be set to $s(x) \cdot s(y)$.

Definition

A violating variable in a constraint c unsatisfied, or violated, under assignment s can be reassigned, not necessarily within its domain, so that VIOLATION(c,s) decreases.



Local Search

Example 1: Graphartitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions
Probing Functions

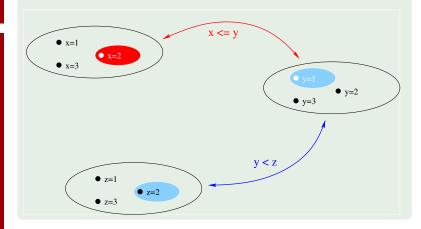
Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example $(x, y, z \in \{1, 2, 3\} \land x \le y \land y < z)$

Unsatisfying assignment (the constraint $x \le y$ is violated; the decision variables x and y are violating wrt $x \le y$):





Local Search

Example 1: Grap Partitioning Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions
Probing Functions

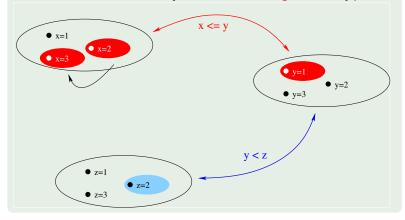
Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example $(x, y, z \in \{1, 2, 3\} \land x \le y \land y < z)$

Candidate move x := 3, reaching another unsatisfying assignment (the constraint $x \le y$ is still violated; the decision variables x and y are still violating wrt $x \le y$):





Local Search

Example 1: Graph Partitioning Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions
Probing Functions

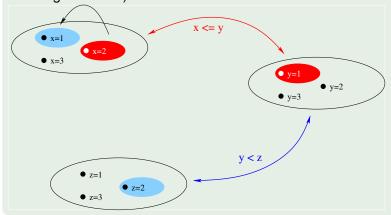
Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example $(x, y, z \in \{1, 2, 3\} \land x \le y \land y < z)$

Another candidate move x := 1, reaching a satisfying assignment (there are no more violated constraints or violating variables):





Local Search

Example 1: Grap Partitioning Example 2: Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions
Probing Functions

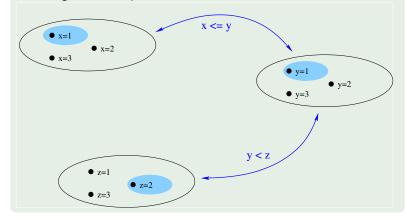
Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example $(x, y, z \in \{1, 2, 3\} \land x \le y \land y < z)$

Another candidate move x := 1, reaching a satisfying assignment (there are no more violated constraints or violating variables):





Local Search

Heuristics
Example 1: Grap
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Systematic Search (as in SAT, SMT, MIP, CP):

- + Will find an (optimal) solution, if one exists.
- + Will give a proof of unsatisfiability, otherwise.
- May take a long time to complete.
- Sometimes does not scale well to large instances.
- May need a lot of tweaking: search strategies, ...

Local Search: (Hoos and Stützle, 2004)

- + May find an (optimal) solution, if one exists.
- Can rarely give a proof of unsatisfiability, otherwise.
- Can rarely guarantee that a found solution is optimal.
- + Often scales much better to large instances.
- May need a lot of tweaking: heuristics, parameters, . . .

Local search trades completeness and quality for speed!



(Meta-)

Heuristics

Travelling

Heuristics for Local Search

Outline

1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics

- Example 1: Graph Partitioning
- Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with CP

- 3. Example: The COMET System
- 4. Hybrid Methods
- 5. Bibliography

Meta-Heuristics ConstraintBased Local

Based Local Search Modelling

Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Methods Bibliography

Hvbrid



Local-Search Heuristics: Outline

(Meta-)
Heuristics for
Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling

Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

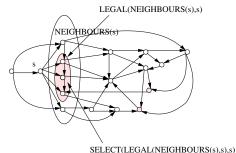
Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

- Start from an initial assignment.
- Iteratively move to a neighbour assignment.
- Aim for a satisfying assignment minimising Cost.
- Main operation: Move from the current assignment to a selected assignment among its legal neighbours:





Local-Search Heuristics: Generic Algorithm

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Heuristics

Example 1: Gra
Partitioning

Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

return s*

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

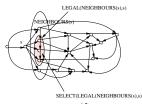
Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

$$\begin{split} s &\coloneqq \mathsf{INITIALASSIGNMENT}() \\ k &\coloneqq 0; s^* \coloneqq s \qquad /\!\!/ s^* \text{ is the so far best assignment} \\ \mathbf{while} \ \sum_{i=1}^n \mathsf{VIOLATION}(c_i, s) &> 0 \ \mathbf{and} \ k < \mu \ \mathbf{do} \\ k &\coloneqq k+1; s \coloneqq \mathsf{SELECT}(\mathsf{LEGAL}(\mathsf{NEIGHBOURS}(s), s), s) \\ \mathbf{if} \ \mathsf{COST}(s) &< \mathsf{COST}(s^*) \ \mathbf{then} \ s^* \coloneqq s \end{split}$$

where (may need a meta-heuristic to escape local optima):

- Neighbours (s) returns the neighbours of s.
- LEGAL(N, s) returns the legal neighbours in N w.r.t. s.
- Select(M, s) returns a selected element of M w.r.t. s.





Local Search

Heuristics

Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Search

Modelling

Violation Function

Probing Functions
Comparison with

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Examples (LEGAL)

 $\begin{aligned} \mathsf{Improving}(N,s) &= \{n \in N \mid \mathsf{COST}(n) < \mathsf{COST}(s)\} \\ \mathsf{NonWorsening}(N,s) &= \{n \in N \mid \mathsf{COST}(n) \leq \mathsf{COST}(s)\} \\ \mathsf{ViolatingVar}(N,s) &= \\ \{n \in N \mid n(x) \neq s(x) \text{ for a violating variable } x\} \\ \mathsf{All}(N,s) &= N \end{aligned}$

Examples (SELECT)

First(M, s) =the first element in M

$$\mathsf{Best}(M,s) = \mathsf{random}\left(\left\{n \in M \mid \mathsf{COST}(n) = \min_{t \in M} \mathsf{COST}(t)
ight\}
ight)$$

RandomImproving(M, s) =

let n = random(M) in if Cost(n) < Cost(s) then n else s



Local Search: Sample Heuristics

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics
Example 1: 0

Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Examples (Heuristics for Select o Legal)

Systematic (partial) exploration of the neighbourhood:

- First improving neighbour: First(Improving(N, s), s)
- Steepest / Gradient descent: Best(Improving(N, s), s)
- Min-conflict: Best(ViolatingVar(N, s), s)
- **.** . . .

Random walk (pick a neighbour and decide on selecting it):

- Random improvement: RandomImproving(All(N, s), s)
- **.**..



1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Functions Probing Functions Comparison with CF

3. Example: The COMET System

4. Hybrid Methods

5. Bibliography

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning

Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Methods Bibliography

Hvbrid



Local Search Heuristics

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

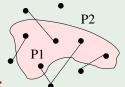
Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (Graph Partitioning)

- **Problem:** Given a graph G = (V, E), find a balanced partition $\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle$ of V that minimises the number of edges with end-points in both P_1 and P_2 .
- **Definition:** A balanced partition $\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle$ of V satisfies $P_1 \cup P_2 = V$, $P_1 \cap P_2 = \emptyset$, and $-1 \le |P_1| |P_2| \le 1$.



Example:

We will now come up with a greedy local-search algorithm for this problem.



Example (Graph Partitioning: Choices)

We must define:

1 The initial assignment (INITIALASSIGNMENT).

2 The **cost** of an assignment (COST).

3 The neighbourhood function (NEIGHBOURS).

4 The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL).

5 The **neighbour selection function** (SELECT).

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods



Example (Graph Partitioning: Choices)

We must define:

- The initial assignment (INITIALASSIGNMENT). \square A balanced partition $\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle$ of G = (V, E).
- The cost of an assignment (Cost).

The neighbourhood function (NEIGHBOURS).

4 The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL).

5 The **neighbour selection function** (SELECT).

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods



Example (Graph Partitioning: Choices)

We must define:

- The initial assignment (INITIALASSIGNMENT). \triangle A balanced partition $\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle$ of G = (V, E).
- The cost of an assignment (Cost).

 The number of edges with one end-point in each set:
- The neighbourhood function (NEIGHBOURS).

4 The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL).

5 The **neighbour selection function** (SELECT).

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with Cl

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods



Local Search

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (Graph Partitioning: Choices)

We must define:

- The initial assignment (INITIALASSIGNMENT). \blacksquare A balanced partition $\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle$ of G = (V, E).
- 2 The **cost** of an assignment (COST).

 The number of edges with one end-point in each set: $COST(\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle) = f(\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle) = |\{(a, b) \in E \mid a \in P_1 \land b \in P_2\}|$
- The neighbourhood function (NEIGHBOURS).

The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL).

5 The neighbour selection function (SELECT).



Local Search

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (Graph Partitioning: Choices)

We must define:

- The initial assignment (INITIALASSIGNMENT). \blacksquare A balanced partition $\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle$ of G = (V, E).
- The **cost** of an assignment (COST).

 The number of edges with one end-point in each set: $COST(\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle) = f(\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle) = |\{(a, b) \in E \mid a \in P_1 \land b \in P_2\}|$
- The neighbourhood function (NEIGHBOURS).
 - Swapping two vertices:
- 4 The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL).

5 The **neighbour selection function** (SELECT).



Local Search

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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We must define:

- The initial assignment (INITIALASSIGNMENT). \blacksquare A balanced partition $\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle$ of G = (V, E).
- 2 The **cost** of an assignment (COST). Solution The number of edges with one end-point in each set: $COST(\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle) = f(\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle) = |\{(a, b) \in E \mid a \in P_1 \land b \in P_2\}|$
- The neighbourhood function (NEIGHBOURS). Swapping two vertices: NEIGHBOURS($\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle$) = $\{\langle P_1 \setminus \{a\} \cup \{b\}, P_2 \setminus \{b\} \cup \{a\} \rangle \mid a \in P_1 \land b \in P_2\}$
- 4 The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL).

5 The neighbour selection function (SELECT).



Local Search Heuristics

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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 The improving neighbours:
- 5 The neighbour selection function (SELECT).



Local Search

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with Cl

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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Local Search

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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- 5 The neighbour selection function (SELECT).

 □ A random best legal neighbour:



Local Search Heuristics

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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- The neighbour selection function (SELECT). \bigcirc A random best legal neighbour: \triangle SELECT(M, s) = Best(M, s)



(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Searc

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Search Modelling

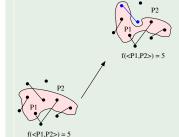
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with CF

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods







(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Sean

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

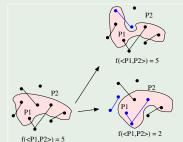
Search Modelling

Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods





Heuristics for Local Search

(Meta-)

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

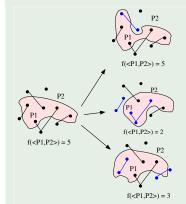
Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Functions Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods





and 22 other probed neighbours $\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle$, but none of which with $f(\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle) < 2$

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Sear

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristi

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Function
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods



(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Searc

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

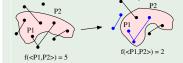
Search Modelling

Violation Functions Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid

Hybrid Methods





(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristin

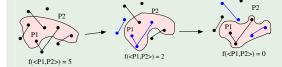
Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Function

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography



and 24 other probed neighbours $\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle$, obviously none of which with $f(\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle) < 0$: the trivial lower bound was reached, so search can stop, with proven optimality (this is rare)!



Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Function Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Methods Bibliography

Example (Graph Partitioning)

Fundamental property of the chosen neighbourhood: If an assignment *s* is a balanced partition, then each partition in NEIGHBOURS(*s*) is also balanced.

- Only satisfying assignments are considered, including the generated initial assignment.
- The balance constraints are **not** modelled explicitly.
- This is a common and often crucial technique:
 some constraints are explicit (either soft or one-way),
 while other constraints are implicit, in the sense that
 they are satisfied by the generated initial assignment
 and kept satisfied during search by the neighbourhood.
 Constraints are hard (either implicit or one-way) or soft.
- The size of the neighbourhood is $\left(\frac{|V|}{2}\right)^2$.
- The search space is connected: any optimal solution can be reached from any assignment.



Outline

1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics

- Example 1: Graph Partitioning
- Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Functions Probing Functions Comparison with CF

- 3. Example: The COMET System
- 4. Hybrid Methods
- 5. Bibliography

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

(Meta-)

Heuristics for Local Search

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The Comet System

Methods Bibliography

Hvbrid



Heuristics
Example 1: G

Example 1: 6 Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling

Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local

Search Modelling

Violation Function
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

COCP / M4CO

Example (Travelling Salesperson)

- **Problem:** Given a set of cities with connecting roads, find a tour (a Hamiltonian circuit) that visits each city exactly once, with the minimum travel distance.
- Representation: We see the set of cities as vertices V and the set of roads as edges E in a (not necessarily complete) undirected graph G = (V, E).



■ Example:

We now design a local-search heuristic for this problem.



Example (Travelling Salesperson: Choices)

We must define:

- 1 The initial assignment (INITIALASSIGNMENT).
- The cost of an assignment (COST).

The neighbourhood function (NEIGHBOURS).

4 The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL).

5 The neighbour selection function (SELECT).

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

ocal Search Heuristics Example 1: Grap

Example 2: Travelling Salespersor

Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods



ocal Search leuristics Example 1: Gra

Example 2: Travelling Salespersor

Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Bibliograp

Example (Travelling Salesperson: Choices)

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- The cost of an assignment (Cost).

The neighbourhood function (NEIGHBOURS).

4 The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL).



(Meta-) Heuristics for

Local Search
Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph

Example 2: Travelling Salespersor

Mota-Hourietic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Functions Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (Travelling Salesperson: Choices)

We must define:

- The initial assignment (INITIALASSIGNMENT).
 An edge set $s \subseteq E$ so that TOUR(s): NP-hard!
- 3 The neighbourhood function (NEIGHBOURS).

4 The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL).



Local Search Heuristics Example 1: Gra

Example 2: Travelling

Salespers

Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Functions Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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- 2 The **cost** of an assignment (COST). The sum of all distances on the tour: $COST(s) = f(s) = \sum Distance(a, b)$

$$COST(s) = f(s) = \sum_{(a,b) \in s} Distance(a,b)$$

3 The neighbourhood function (NEIGHBOURS).

4 The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL).



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Gra

Example 2: Travelling

Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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 The sum of all distances on the tour:

$$COST(s) = f(s) = \sum_{(a,b) \in s} Distance(a,b)$$

- The neighbourhood function (NEIGHBOURS).

 Replace two edges on the tour by two other edges:
- 4 The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL).



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Grap

Example 2: Travelling Salespersor

Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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$$Cost(s) = f(s) = \sum_{(a,b) \in s} Distance(a,b)$$

- The neighbourhood function (NEIGHBOURS).

 Replace two edges on the tour by two other edges:

 NEIGHBOURS(s) = { $s \setminus \{g, h\} \cup \{i, j\} \mid g, h \in s \land i, j \in E \setminus s$ }
- 4 The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL).



Heuristics
Example 1: 6

Partitioning Example 2:

Travelling Salesperso

Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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- The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL).

 The improving neighbours that define a tour:
- **5** The **neighbour selection function** (SELECT).



We must define:

- 1 The initial assignment (INITIAL ASSIGNMENT). \square An edge set $s \subseteq E$ so that Tour(s): NP-hard!
- 2 The **cost** of an assignment (Cost). The sum of all distances on the tour: $Cost(s) = f(s) = \sum Distance(a, b)$

Example (Travelling Salesperson: Choices)

$$Cost(s) = f(s) = \sum_{(a,b) \in s} Distance(a,b)$$

- The neighbourhood function (NEIGHBOURS). Replace two edges on the tour by two other edges: $\mathsf{NEIGHBOURS}(s) = \{ s \setminus \{g, h\} \cup \{i, j\} \mid g, h \in s \land i, j \in E \setminus s \}$
- 4 The legal-neighbour selection function (LEGAL). The improving neighbours that define a tour: $LEGAL(N, s) = \{n \in N \mid COST(n) < COST(s) \land TOUR(n)\}$
- 5 The neighbour selection function (SELECT).

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Example 2: Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modellina

Example: The COMET System

Hvbrid Methods



Example (Travelling Salesperson: Choices)

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- 5 The neighbour selection function (SELECT).

 R A random best legal neighbour:

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Example 1: Partitioning Example 2: Travelling

Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with Cl

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods



Example 2: Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modellina

Example: The COMET System

Hvbrid Methods

Bibliography

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- 5 The neighbour selection function (SELECT). A random best legal neighbour: SELECT(M, s) = Best(M, s)



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

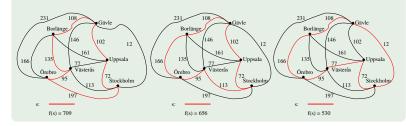
Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (Travelling Salesperson: Sample Run)

Three consecutive improving satisfying assignments:





Heuristics Example 1: 0

Example 2: Travelling

Mate Hermital

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (Travelling Salesperson)

Fundamental property of the chosen neighbourhood: Not all neighbours are satisfying assignments.

- The TOUR constraint must be modelled explicitly, for example in the LEGAL function (as above), or by allowing moves to unsatisfying assignments (as discussed in the next section).
- This neighbourhood is called 2-swap, since we swap two edges on the tour.
- It generalises to k-swap, for $k \ge 2$.
- The size of the neighbourhood is $\binom{|s|}{k} \cdot \binom{|E \setminus s|}{k}$:
 - 210 neighbours for our instance and k = 2.
 - 350 neighbours for our instance and k = 3.



Outline

1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics

- Example 1: Graph Partitioning
- Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions

Probing Functions
Comparison with CP

- 3. Example: The COMET System
- 4. Hybrid Methods
- 5. Bibliography

Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Functions Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Methods Bibliography

Hvbrid



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling

Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

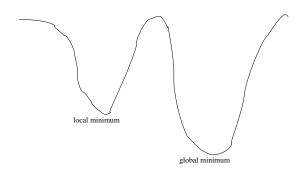
Bibliography

Heuristics drive the search to (good enough) solutions:

- Which decision variables are modified in a move?
- Which new values do they get in the move?

Metaheuristics drive the search to global optima of COST:

- Avoid cycles of moves & escape local optima of Cost.
- Explore many parts of the search space.
- Focus on promising parts of the search space.





Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling

Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with CF

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Examples (Metaheuristics)

- Tabu search (1986): forbid recent moves from being done again.
- Simulated annealing (1983): perform random moves and accept degrading ones with a probability that decreases over time.
- Genetic algorithms (1975): use a pool of candidate solutions and cross them.



Tabu Search (Glover and Laguna, 1997)

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling

Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Functions Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

- In order to escape local optima, we must be able to accept worse assignments, that is assignments that increase the value of Cost.
- To avoid ending up in cycles, tabu search remembers the last λ assignments in a tabu list and makes them tabu (or taboo): moves in this list cannot be chosen, even if this implies increasing the value of COST.

COCP / M4CO



Tabu Search

```
s := INITIALASSIGNMENT()
(Meta-)
                 k := 0: s^* := s
                                     // s^* is the so far best assignment
Heuristics for
Local Search
                 \tau := [s]
                                                              // initialise the tabu list
                 while \sum_{i=1}^{n} V_{i}OLATION(c_{i}, s) > 0 \land k < \mu do
                     k := k + 1; s := Best(NonTabu(NEIGHBOURS(s), \tau), \tau)
 Travelling
                                         // but keep only the last \lambda assignments
                     \tau \coloneqq \tau :: \mathbf{S}
Meta-Heuristics
                     if COST(s) < COST(s^*) then
Constraint-
Based Local
```

```
function NonTabu(N, \tau) return \{n \in N \mid n \notin \tau\}
```

 $s^* := s$

return s*

Methods Bibliography

Example: The COMET

System

Hvbrid

Search Modelling



Outline

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modellina

Example: The COMET System Hvbrid

Methods Bibliography

1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

- Example 1: Graph Partitioning
- Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Functions **Probing Functions** Comparison with CP

- 3. Example: The COMET System
- 4. Hybrid Methods
- 5. Bibliography



Evaluation of Local Search

We have seen local-search algorithms for two problems:

- It is hard to reuse (parts of) a local-search algorithm of one problem for other problems.
- We want reusable software components!

In constraint-based local search (CBLS) (Van Hentenryck and Michel, 2005):

- A problem is modelled as a conjunction of constraints, whose predicates declaratively encapsulate inference algorithms specific to common combinatorial substructures and are thus reusable.
- A master search algorithm operates on the model, guided by user-indicated/designed (meta-)heuristics.

CBLS by itself makes no contributions to the design of local-search (meta-)heuristics, but it eases their formulation and improves their reusability.

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Grapl
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with CP

Example: The COMET System

Methods

Hvbrid



Outline

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Search Modelling

Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with CP

3. Example: The COMET System

4. Hybrid Methods



Definition

Each constraint predicate has a violation function: the violation of a constraint is zero if it is satisfied, else a positive value proportional to its dissatisfaction.

Example

Definition

For a <= b, let α and β be the current values of a and b: define the violation to be $\alpha - \beta$ if $\alpha \not\leq \beta$, and 0 otherwise.

Sased Local Search Modelling

A constraint with violation is explicit in a CBLS model and soft: it can be violated during search but ought to be satisfied in a solution.

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Comparison with

Example:
The COMET

System
Hybrid

Methods Bibliography

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COCP / M4CO



Definition

A one-way constraint is explicit in a CBLS model and hard: it is kept satisfied during search.

Example

For p = a * b, whenever the value α of a or the value β of b is modified by a move, the value of p is automatically modified by the solver so as to remain equal to $\alpha \cdot \beta$.

CBLS solvers offer a syntax for one-way constraints, such as p <== a * b in OscaR.cbls, but Gecode and MiniZinc do not make such a distinction.

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modellina

Example: The COMET System

Hvbrid Methods



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Grap
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions Probing Functions Comparison with CF

Example: The COMET System

Hvbrid

Methods

Bibliography

Definition

An implicit constraint is not in a CBLS model but hard: it is kept satisfied during search by choosing a satisfying initial candidate solution and only making satisfaction-preserving moves, by the use of a constraint-specific neighbourhood.

Example

For all_different (...), the initial candidate solution has distinct values for all variables, and the neighbourhood only has moves that swap the values of two variables, assuming the number of variables is equal to the number of values.

When building a CBLS model, a MiniZinc backend must:

- Aptly assort the otherwise all explicit & soft constraints.
- Add a suitable heuristic and meta-heuristic.

This is much more involved than just flattening and solving.



Local Sea

Example 1: Gra

Example 2: Travelling

Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

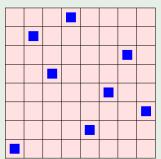
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens)



Place 8 queens on a chess board such that no two queens attack each other:

- 40 -



Local Sea

Example 1: Grap Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions
Probing Functions

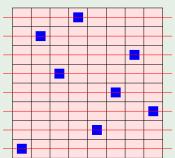
Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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Example (8 Queens)



Place 8 queens on a chess board such that no two queens attack each other:

1 No two queens are on the same row.



Local Sea

Example 1: Grap Partitioning

Travelling Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions
Probing Functions

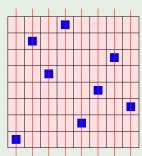
Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Ribliograph

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens)



Place 8 queens on a chess board such that no two queens attack each other:

- 1 No two queens are on the same row.
- 2 No two queens are on the same column.



Local Search Heuristics

Example 1: Grap Partitioning Example 2: Travelling

Salesperson
Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Probing Functions

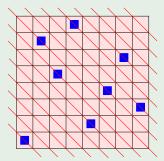
Comparison with CP

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens)



Place 8 queens on a chess board such that no two queens attack each other:

- 1 No two queens are on the same row.
- 2 No two queens are on the same column.
- 3 No two queens are on the same down-diagonal.



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning

Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristic

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Probing Functions

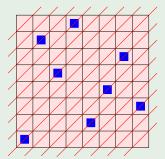
Comparison with CP

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens)



Place 8 queens on a chess board such that no two queens attack each other:

- 1 No two queens are on the same row.
- 2 No two queens are on the same column.
- 3 No two queens are on the same down-diagonal.
- 4 No two queens are on the same up-diagonal.



Example (8 Queens: CBLS Models)

Let variable R[i] represent the row of the queen in col. i:

1 No two queens are on the same row:

No two queens are on the same column:

3 No two queens are on the same down-diagonal:

4 No two queens are on the same up-diagonal:

Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example:

System Hybrid Methods



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Grap
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: CBLS Models)

Let variable R[i] represent the row of the queen in col. i:

1 No two queens are on the same row:

$$\forall i, j \in 1..8$$
 where $i < j : R[i] \neq R[j]$, that is distinct([$R[1], \dots, R[8]$])

- 2 No two queens are on the same column:
- 3 No two queens are on the same down-diagonal:

4 No two queens are on the same up-diagonal:



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Grap
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with CR

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: CBLS Models)

Let variable R[i] represent the row of the queen in col. i:

No two queens are on the same row:

$$\forall i, j \in 1..8$$
 where $i < j : R[i] \neq R[j]$, that is distinct($[R[1], \dots, R[8]]$)

- No two queens are on the same column: Guaranteed by the choice of the decision variables.
- 3 No two queens are on the same down-diagonal:

No two queens are on the same up-diagonal:



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Grap
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: CBLS Models)

Let variable R[i] represent the row of the queen in col. i:

- No two queens are on the same row:
 - $\forall i, j \in 1..8$ where $i < j : R[i] \neq R[j]$, that is distinct([$R[1], \dots, R[8]$])
- No two queens are on the same column:
 Guaranteed by the choice of the decision variables.
- No two queens are on the same down-diagonal: $\forall i, j \in 1..8$ where $i < j : R[i] i \neq R[j] j$, that is distinct([R[1] 1, ..., R[8] 8])
- No two gueens are on the same up-diagonal:



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Grap
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Fi

Probing Functions

Comparison with CP

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: CBLS Models)

Let variable R[i] represent the row of the queen in col. i:

- 1 No two queens are on the same row:
 - $\forall i, j \in 1..8$ where $i < j : R[i] \neq R[j]$, that is distinct([R[1],...,R[8]])
- 2 No two queens are on the same column: Guaranteed by the choice of the decision variables.
- No two queens are on the same down-diagonal: $\forall i, j \in 1..8$ where $i < j : R[i] i \neq R[j] j$, that is distinct([R[1] 1, ..., R[8] 8])
- No two queens are on the same up-diagonal: $\forall i, j \in 1..8$ where $i < j : R[i] + i \neq R[j] + j$,

that is distinct(
$$[R[1] + 1, ..., R[8] + 8]$$
)



Local Search Heuristics Example 1: Grap Partitioning Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with CP

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: CBLS Models)

Let variable R[i] represent the row of the queen in col. i:

No two queens are on the same row:

$$\forall i, j \in 1..8$$
 where $i < j : R[i] \neq R[j]$, that is distinct([$R[1], \dots, R[8]$])

- 2 No two queens are on the same column: Guaranteed by the choice of the decision variables.
- No two queens are on the same down-diagonal: $\forall i, j \in 1..8$ where $i < j : R[i] i \neq R[j] j$, that is distinct([R[1] 1, ..., R[8] 8])
- No two queens are on the same up-diagonal: $\forall i, j \in 1...8$ where $i < j : R[i] + i \neq R[j] + j$, that is distinct([R[1] + 1, ..., R[8] + 8])

Better model: Make the row constraint implicit, by using a random permutation of 1..8 as initial assignment and using a neighbourhood that keeps the row constraint satisfied.



Outline

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling

Meta-Heuristics

ConstraintBased Loca

Based Local Search

Violation Functions

Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions

Probing Functions
Comparison with CF

3. Example: The COMET System

4. Hybrid Methods



Constraint Predicates in Local Search

Every predicate of a soft constraint *c* is equipped with:

- A constraint violation function VIOLATION(c, s), which estimates how much c is violated under the current assignment s: VIOLATION(c, s) = 0 if and only if c is satisfied, and VIOLATION(c, s) > 0 otherwise.
- A variable violation function VIOLATION(c, s, x), which estimates how much a suitable change of the value of the decision variable x can decrease VIOLATION(c, s).
- (to be continued)

At the constraint-system level:

- The system constraint violation under s of a constraint system $\{c_1, \ldots, c_n\}$ is $\sum_{i=1}^n VIOLATION(c_i, s)$.
- The system variable violation under s of a variable x in a system $\{c_1, \ldots, c_n\}$ is $\sum_{i=1}^n \text{VIOLATION}(c_i, s, x)$.

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with CF

Example: The COMET System Hybrid

Methods



Violations

Example $(x \neq y)$

- When x = 4 and y = 4:
 - The constraint violation is 1: the constraint is violated.
 - The variable violations of *x* and *y* are both 1.
- When x = 4 and y = 5:
 - The constraint violation is 0: the constraint is satisfied.
 - The variable violations of x and y are both 0.

Example (distinct($[x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4]$))

- When $x_1 = 5$, $x_2 = 5$, $x_3 = 5$, $x_4 = 6$, with domain D:
 - The constraint violation is 2, since at least two variables must be changed to reach a satisfying assignment: $VIOLATION = \sum_{v \in D} \max(occ[v] 1, 0)$, where occ[v] stores the current number of occurrences of value v.
 - The variable violations of x_1 , x_2 , x_3 are 1, and 0 for x_4 .

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with CP

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods



Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

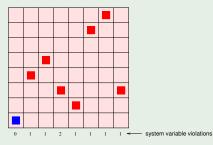
Violation Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hvbrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: Violations)



- \blacksquare distinct([$R[1], \ldots, R[8]$])
- distinct([R[1] 1, ..., R[8] 8])
- distinct([R[1] + 1, ..., R[8] + 8])



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions

Comparison with

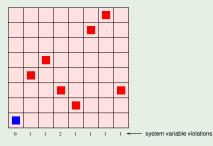
Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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Example (8 Queens: Violations)



- distinct([R[1],...,R[8]])
 The violation of distinct([8,5,4,6,7,2,1,6]) is 1.
- distinct([R[1] 1, ..., R[8] 8])
- distinct([R[1] + 1, ..., R[8] + 8])



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions

Comparison with (

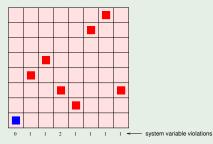
Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

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Example (8 Queens: Violations)



■ distinct([R[1],...,R[8]])
The violation of distinct([8,5,4,6,7,2,1,6]) is 1.

■ distinct([R[1] - 1, ..., R[8] - 8]) The violation of distinct([7, 3, 1, 2, 2, -4, -6, -2]) is 1.

- 45 -

■ distinct([R[1] + 1, ..., R[8] + 8])



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions

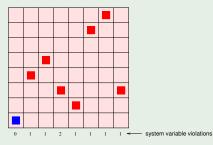
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: Violations)



- distinct([R[1],...,R[8]]) The violation of distinct([8,5,4,6,7,2,1,6]) is 1.
- distinct([R[1] 1, ..., R[8] 8])
 The violation of distinct([7, 3, 1, 2, 2, -4, -6, -2]) is 1.
- distinct([R[1] + 1, ..., R[8] + 8])
 The violation of distinct([9, 7, 7, 10, 12, 8, 8, 14]) is 2.



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions

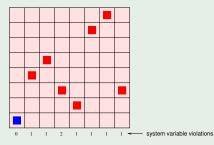
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Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: Violations)



- distinct([R[1],...,R[8]]) The violation of distinct([8,5,4,6,7,2,1,6]) is 1.
- distinct([R[1] 1, ..., R[8] 8])
 The violation of distinct([7, 3, 1, 2, 2, -4, -6, -2]) is 1.
- distinct([R[1] + 1, ..., R[8] + 8])
 The violation of distinct([9, 7, 7, 10, 12, 8, 8, 14]) is 2.

The system constraint violation is 1 + 1 + 2 = 4.



Outline

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling

Meta-Heuristics

ConstraintBased Local

Based Local Search Modelling

Probing Functions

Comparison with CI

Example: The Comet System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Sear

Heuristics

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Violation Functions

Probing Functions

Comparison with CP

3. Example: The COMET System

4. Hybrid Methods



Constr. Predicates in Local Search (cont'd)

Every predicate of a soft constraint *c* is also equipped with:

- An assignment delta function Delta(c, s, x := v), which estimates the increase of Violation(c, s) upon a probed x := v assignment move for variable x and its domain value v.
- A swap delta function Delta(c, s, x :=: y), which estimates the increase of Violation(c, s) upon a probed x :=: y swap move for two variables x and y.

The more negative a delta the better! At the constraint-system level:

■ The system assignment delta under s of x := v in a system $\{c_1, \ldots, c_n\}$ is $\sum_{i=1}^n \mathsf{DELTA}(c_i, s, x := v)$.

- 47 -

■ The system swap delta under s of x :=: y in a system $\{c_1, \ldots, c_n\}$ is $\sum_{i=1}^n \mathsf{DELTA}(c_i, s, x :=: y)$.

Other kinds of moves can be added.

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search Modelling

Probing Functions
Comparison with CP

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modellina

Probing Functions

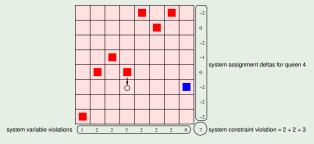
Probling Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: Computing Deltas in $\mathcal{O}(1)$ Time)



- \blacksquare distinct([$R[1], \ldots, R[4], \ldots, R[8]$])
- distinct([R[1] 1, ..., R[4] 4, ..., R[8] 8])
- \blacksquare distinct([R[1] + 1, ..., R[4] + 4, ..., R[8] + 8])



(Meta-) Heuristics for

Local Search Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

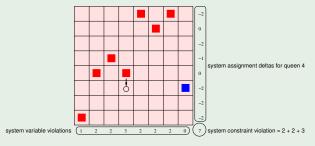
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hvbrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: Computing Deltas in $\mathcal{O}(1)$ Time)



- distinct([R[1], ..., R[4], ..., R[8]]) Delta of R[4] := 6 in distinct([8, 5, 4, 5, 1, 2, 1, 6]) is ± 0 .
- distinct([R[1] 1, ..., R[4] 4, ..., R[8] 8])
- \blacksquare distinct([R[1] + 1, ..., R[4] + 4, ..., R[8] + 8])



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

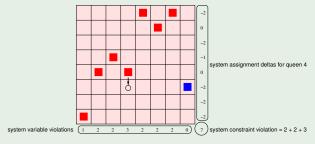
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: Computing Deltas in $\mathcal{O}(1)$ Time)



- distinct([R[1], ..., R[4], ..., R[8]])
 Delta of R[4] := 6 in distinct([8, 5, 4, 5, 1, 2, 1, 6]) is ± 0 .
- distinct([R[1] 1, ..., R[4] 4, ..., R[8] 8])
 Delta of R[4] := 6 in distinct([7, 3, 1, 1, -4, -4, -6, -2]) is -1.
- \blacksquare distinct([R[1] + 1,..., R[4] + 4,..., R[8] + 8])



Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search Modelling

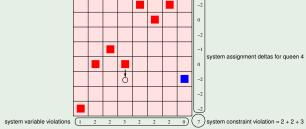
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hvbrid Methods

Bibliography

-2



Example (8 Queens: Computing Deltas in $\mathcal{O}(1)$ Time)

- distinct([R[1], ..., R[4], ..., R[8]]) Delta of R[4] := 6 in distinct([8, 5, 4, 5, 1, 2, 1, 6]) is ± 0 .
- distinct([R[1] 1, ..., R[4] 4, ..., R[8] 8]) Delta of R[4] := 6 in distinct([7, 3, 1, 1, -4, -4, -6, -2]) is -1.
- \blacksquare distinct([R[1] + 1, ..., R[4] + 4, ..., R[8] + 8]) Delta of R[4] := 6 in distinct([9, 7, 7, 9, 6, 8, 8, 14]) is -1.



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

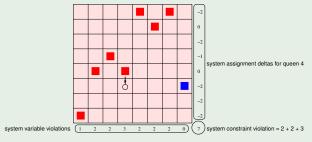
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: Computing Deltas in $\mathcal{O}(1)$ Time)



- distinct([R[1], ..., R[4], ..., R[8]])
 Delta of R[4] := 6 in distinct([8, 5, 4, 5, 1, 2, 1, 6]) is ± 0 .
- distinct([R[1] 1, ..., R[4] 4, ..., R[8] 8])
 Delta of R[4] := 6 in distinct([7, 3, 1, 1, -4, -4, -6, -2]) is -1.
- distinct([R[1] + 1, ..., R[4] + 4, ..., R[8] + 8])
 Delta of R[4] := 6 in distinct([9, 7, 7, 9, 6, 8, 8, 14]) is -1.

The system assignment delta of R[4] := 6 is 0 + (-1) + (-1) = -2.



Outline

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Function

Comparison with CP

Example: The COMET System Hybrid

Methods

Bibliography

1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Comparison with CP

3. Example: The COMET System

4. Hybrid Methods



Constraint Predicates in Local Search (end)

- The functions equipping a constraint predicate can be used to guide the local search:
 - The constraint violation function helps to select promising constraint(s) in order to select promising decision variable(s) to reassign in a move.
 - The variable violation function helps to select promising decision variable(s) to reassign in a move.
 - The delta functions help to select a move in a good direction for a variable, constraint, or constraint system.
- The violation functions are the counterpart of the subsumption checking of systematic CP-style solving.
- The probing functions are the counterpart of the propagators of systematic CP-style solving.
- These functions must be implemented for highest time and space efficiency, as they may be queried in the probing of the neighbourhood at each search iteration.

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search Modelling

Probing Functions
Comparison with CP

Example: The COMET System

Methods

Hvbrid



Modelling for Local Search

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Function

Comparison with CP

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

When solving combinatorial problems by local search, the idea is often to exploit the presence of symmetries by doing nothing, rather than by making the search space smaller as with CP / MIP / SAT / SMT-style systematic search.

COCP / M4CO



Outline

(Meta-) Heuristics for

Local Search

Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Example: The COMET System

Hvbrid Methods

Bibliography

1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

- Example 1: Graph Partitioning
- Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Violation Functions Comparison with CP

3. Example: The COMET System

- 4. Hybrid Methods
- 5. Bibliography



The COMET System

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

COMET was a language and a tool for the modelling and solving of constraint problems.

COMET had a CBLS back-end (Van Hentenryck and Michel, 2005), as well as CP (systematic search with propagation) and MIP (mixed integer linear programming) back-ends:

- High-level software components (constraint predicates) for formulating constraint models of problems.
- High-level constructs for specifying search algorithms.
- An open architecture allowing user-defined extensions.

COMET was free of charge for academic purposes. It inspired, among others, the CBLS back-end of OSCAR, available for free at http://oscarlib.org.



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Grap
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: COMET CBLS Model)

```
import cotls;
Solver<LS> m();
int n = 8;
range Size = 1..n;
UniformDistribution distr(Size);
var{int} R[Size] (m, Size) := distr.get();
ConstraintSystem<LS> S(m);
S.post(alldifferent(R));
S.post(alldifferent(all(i in Size) R[i]-i));
S.post(alldifferent(all(i in Size) R[i]+i));
m.close();
```

Define an array \mathbb{R} of 8 variables and initialise each variable with a random (possibly repeated) value in the domain 1..8.

Better: Make the row constraint implicit, by using a random permutation of 1..8 as initial assignment.



Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: COMET CBLS Search)

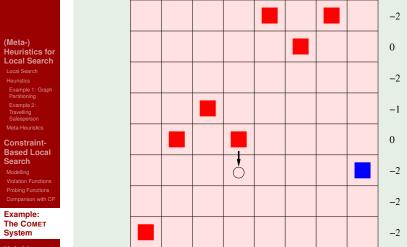
```
int iter = 0;
while (S.violations() > 0 && iter < 50 * n) {
   selectMax(i in Size)(S.violations(R[i]))
     selectMin(r in Size)(S.getAssignDelta(R[i]
        R[i] := r;
   iter++;
}</pre>
```

In words:

while there are a violated constraint in system \mathtt{S} and iterations left do select a variable $\mathtt{R}[\mathtt{i}]$ with the maximum violation in system \mathtt{S} select a value \mathtt{r} with the minimum assignment delta for $\mathtt{R}[\mathtt{i}]$ in \mathtt{S} assign value \mathtt{r} to decision variable $\mathtt{R}[\mathtt{i}]$ increment the iteration counter

Better: Keep the row constraint satisfied by a neighbourhood of swap moves R[i] :=: R[i].





2

3

2

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

2

2

2

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(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

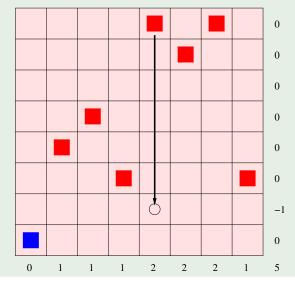
Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Grap
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Function
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods





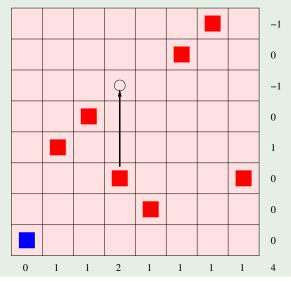
(Meta-)
Heuristics for
Local Search
Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelle 2:

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Function
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods





Heuristics
Example 1: Graph

Example 2: Travelling

Constraint-

Based Local Search

Violation Functions
Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

Example (8 Queens: Sample Run)

... and so on, until ...





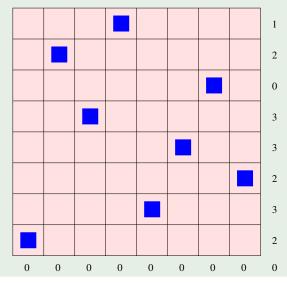
Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Grap
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions

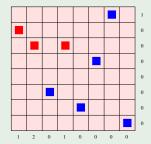
Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods





Example (8 Queens: Local Minimum)



- Queen 2 is selected, as the only most violating queen.
- Queen 2 is placed on one of rows 2 to 8, as the system violation will increase by 1 if she is placed on row 1.
- Queen 2 remains the only most violating queen!
- Queen 2 is selected over and over again.

A meta-heuristic is needed to escape this local minimum.

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Grap
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with C

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods



Outline

(Meta-) Heuristics for

Local Search

Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods

Bibliography

1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

• Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Violation Functions

Comparison with CP

3. Example: The COMET System

4. Hybrid Methods



Hybridising Systematic and Local Search

Compare with the generic algorithm of slide 16:

Example (Large Neighbourhood Search (Shaw, 1998))

```
p := the CSP where all variables have their full domains
s := First(Solutions(p))
                                       // systematic search
                        // s^* is the so far best assignment
k := 0: s^* := s
```

while $k < \mu$ do

k := k + 1

p :=the COP where some variables are frozen (e.g., fixed to their values in s^*), the other variables are thawed (e.g., have their full domains), and the objective function is strictly bounded by $f(s^*)$

 $s := SELECT(Solutions(p), _)$ // limited syst. search

if s exists then $s^* := s$

return s*

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Travelling

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modellina

Example: The COMET System

Hybrid Methods



Outline

(Meta-) Heuristics for

Local Search
Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Graph

Example 1: Grap Partitioning Example 2: Travelling Salesperson Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling Violation Functions Probing Functions

Example: The COMET System Hybrid

Methods Bibliography 1. (Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search

Heuristics

Example 1: Graph Partitioning

Example 2: Travelling Salesperson

Meta-Heuristics

2. Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with CP

- 3. Example: The COMET System
- 4. Hybrid Methods
- 5. Bibliography



Reference

(Meta-) Heuristics for Local Search

Local Search
Heuristics
Example 1: Gray
Partitioning
Example 2:
Travelling
Salesperson
Meta-Heuristics

Constraint-Based Local Search

Modelling
Violation Functions
Probing Functions
Comparison with CF

Example: The COMET System Hybrid

Methods
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