



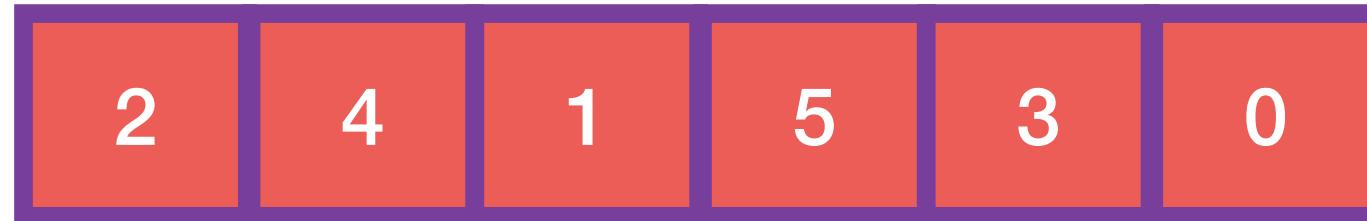
# Constraint Programming

Circuit Constraint + Optimization  
+ Large-Neighborhood Search

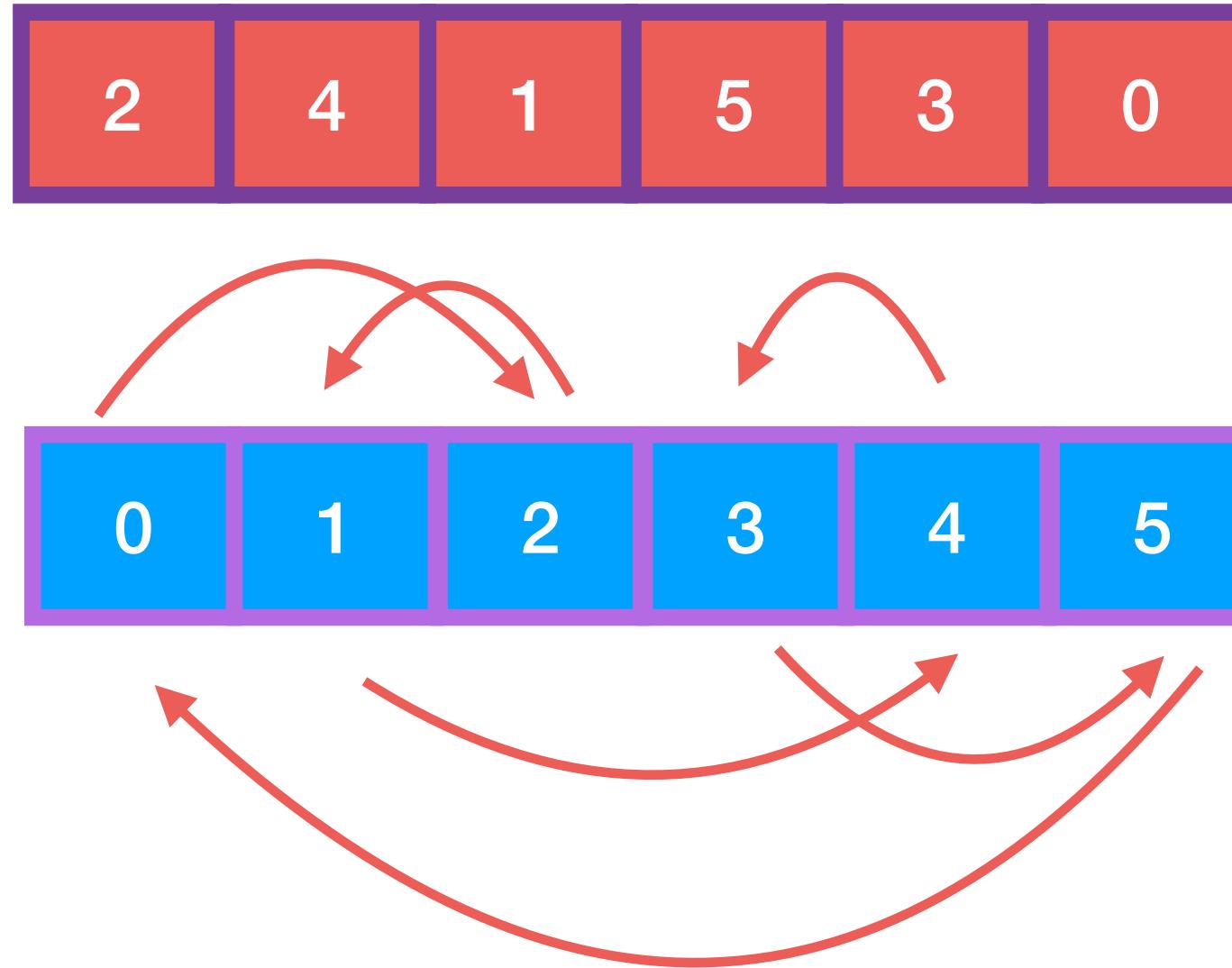
# The Circuit constraint

The Circuit constraint enforces a Hamiltonian cycle on an array of successor variables.

Successors:



Indices



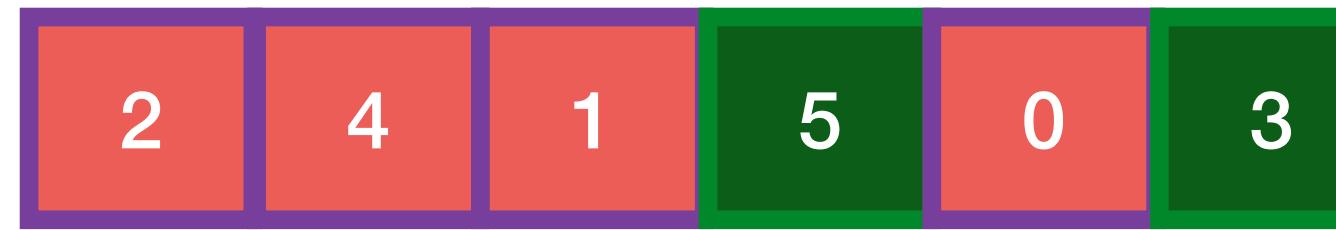
The successors must clearly all be different, but this is not enough!

We must also guarantee that the array forms a proper cycle, without sub-cycles.

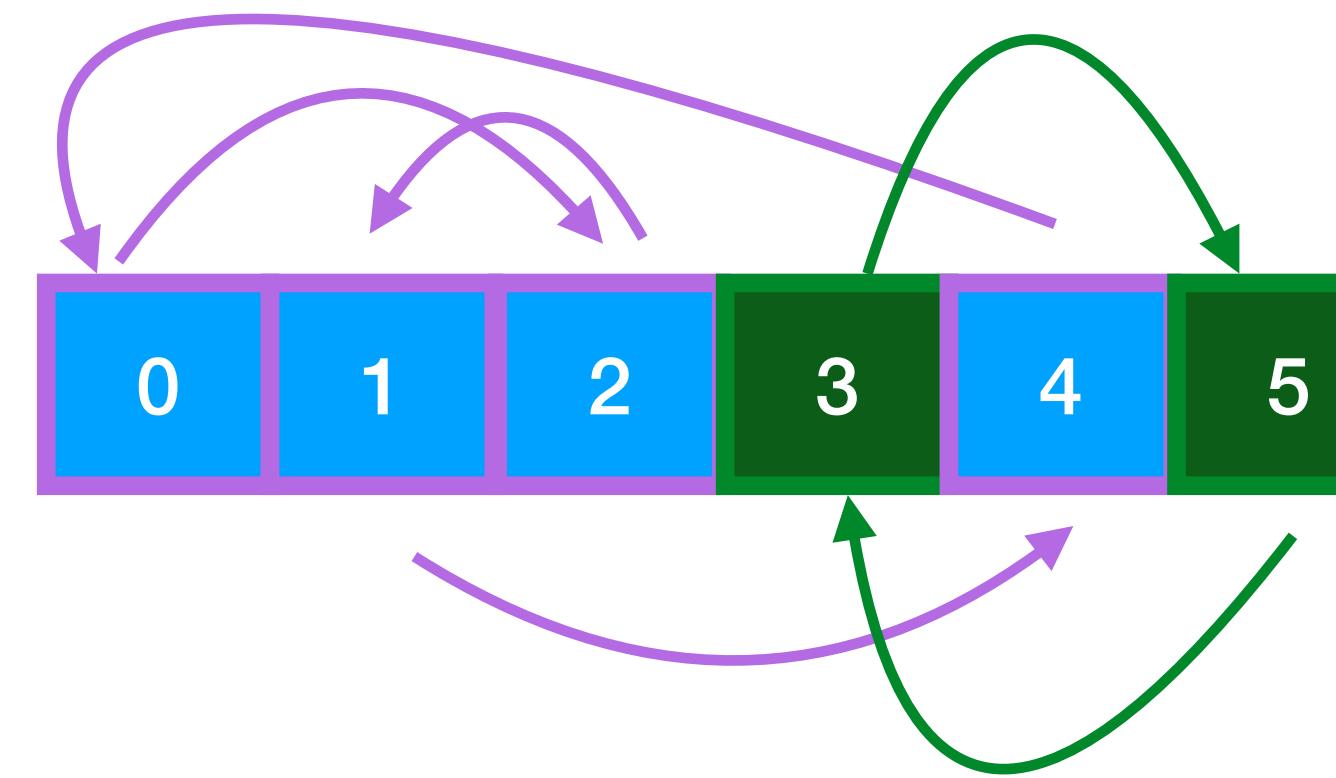
# The Circuit constraint

Example of violation of a Circuit constraint: there are two sub-cycles!

Successors:



Indices



# Application: TSP

```
int n;
int[][] distanceMatrix = reader.getMatrix(n, n);

Solver cp = makeSolver(false);
IntVar[] succ = makeIntVarArray(cp, n, n);
IntVar[] distSucc = makeIntVarArray(cp, n, 1000);

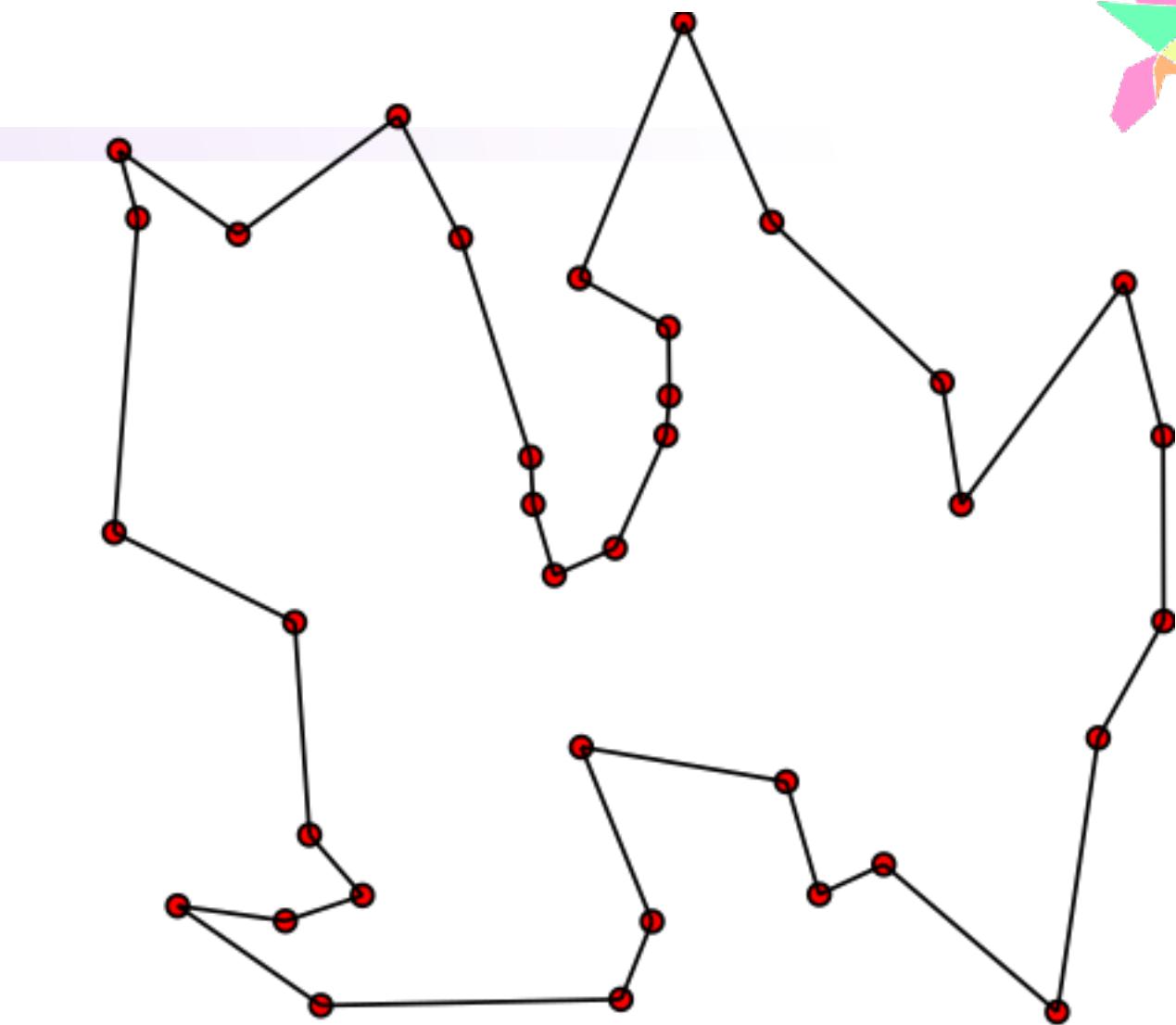
cp.post(new Circuit(succ));

for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
    cp.post(new Element1D(distanceMatrix[i], succ[i], distSucc[i]));
}

IntVar totalDist = sum(distSucc);

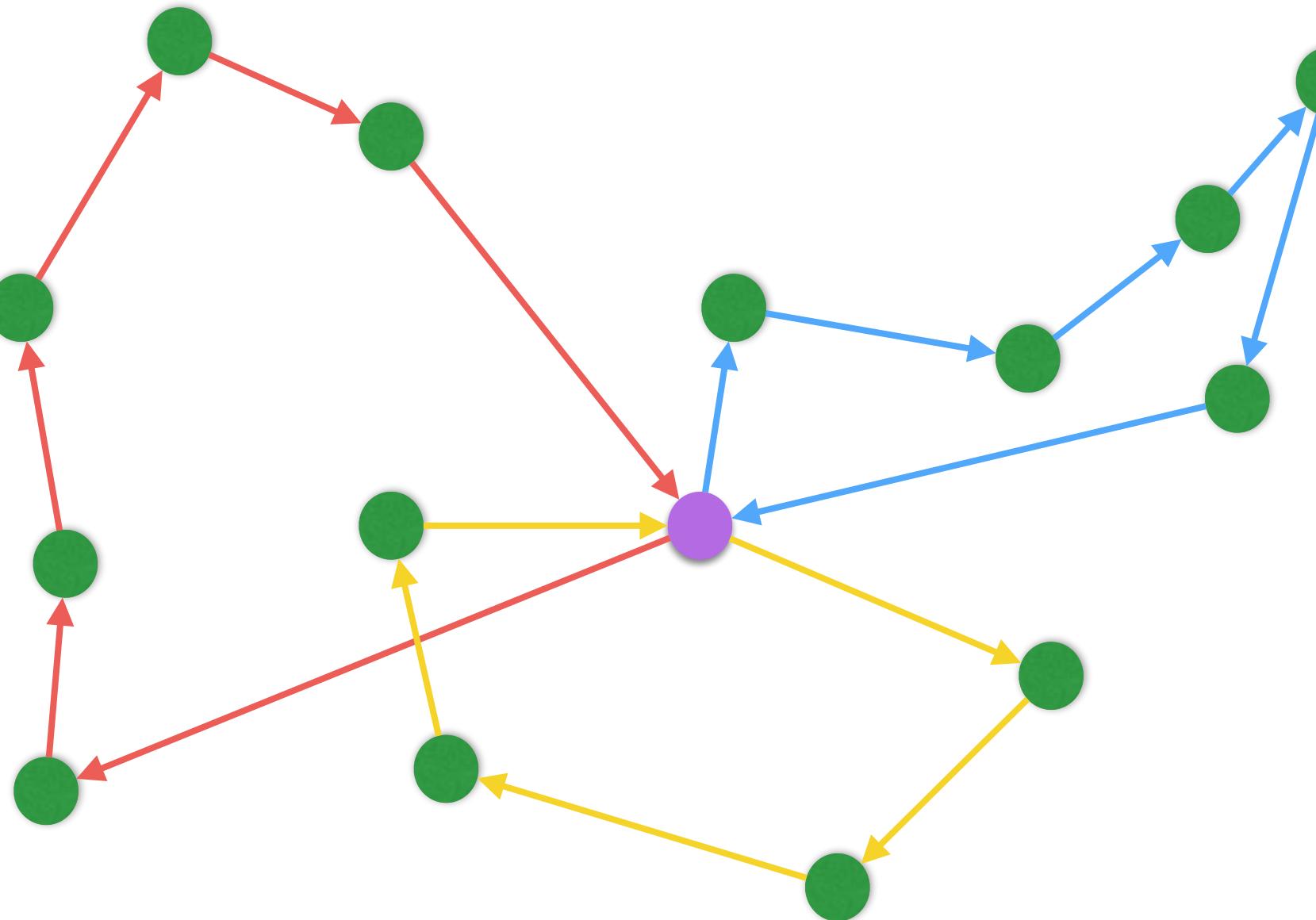
Objective obj = cp.minimize(totalDist);

DFSearch dfs = makeDfs(cp, firstFail(succ));
```



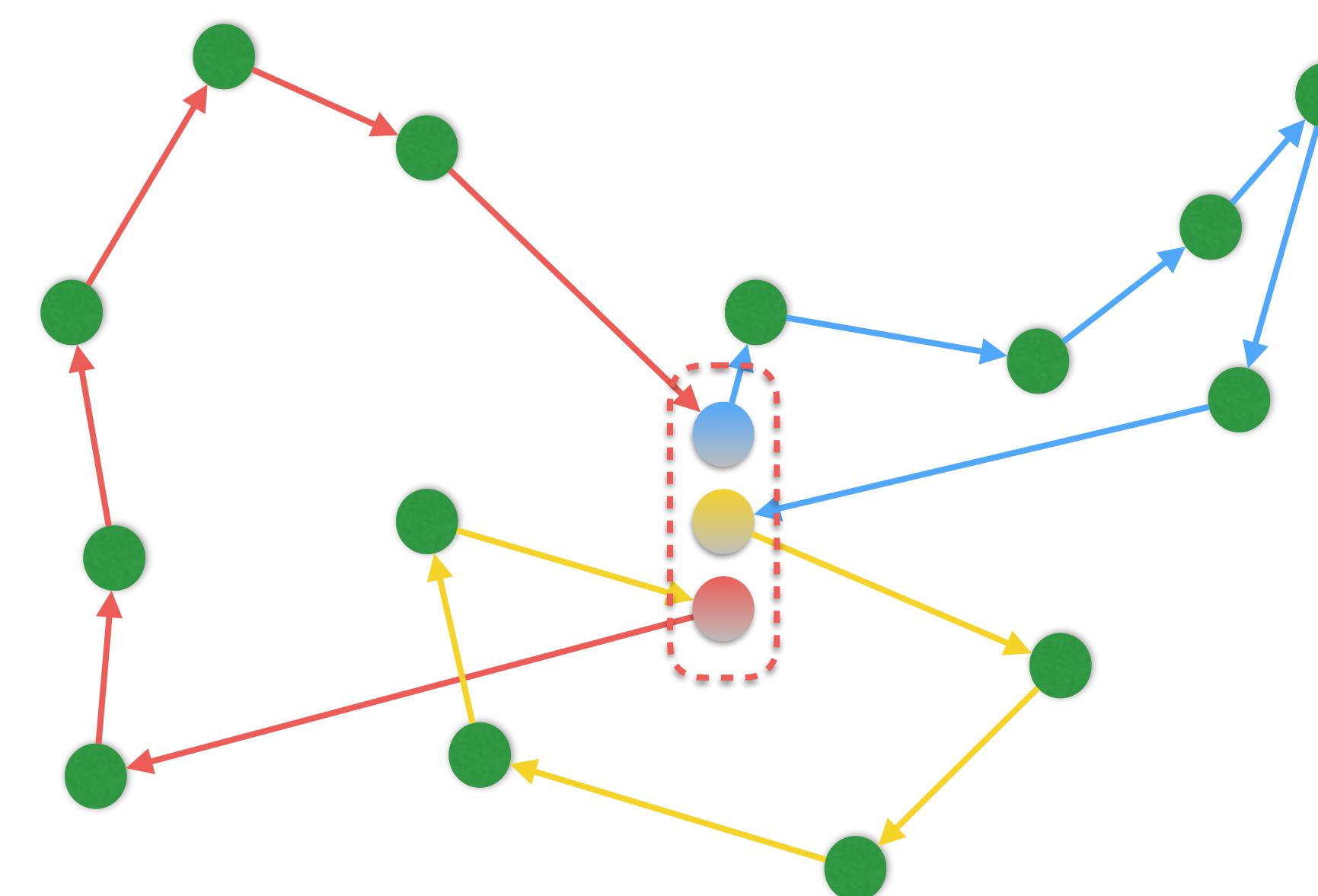
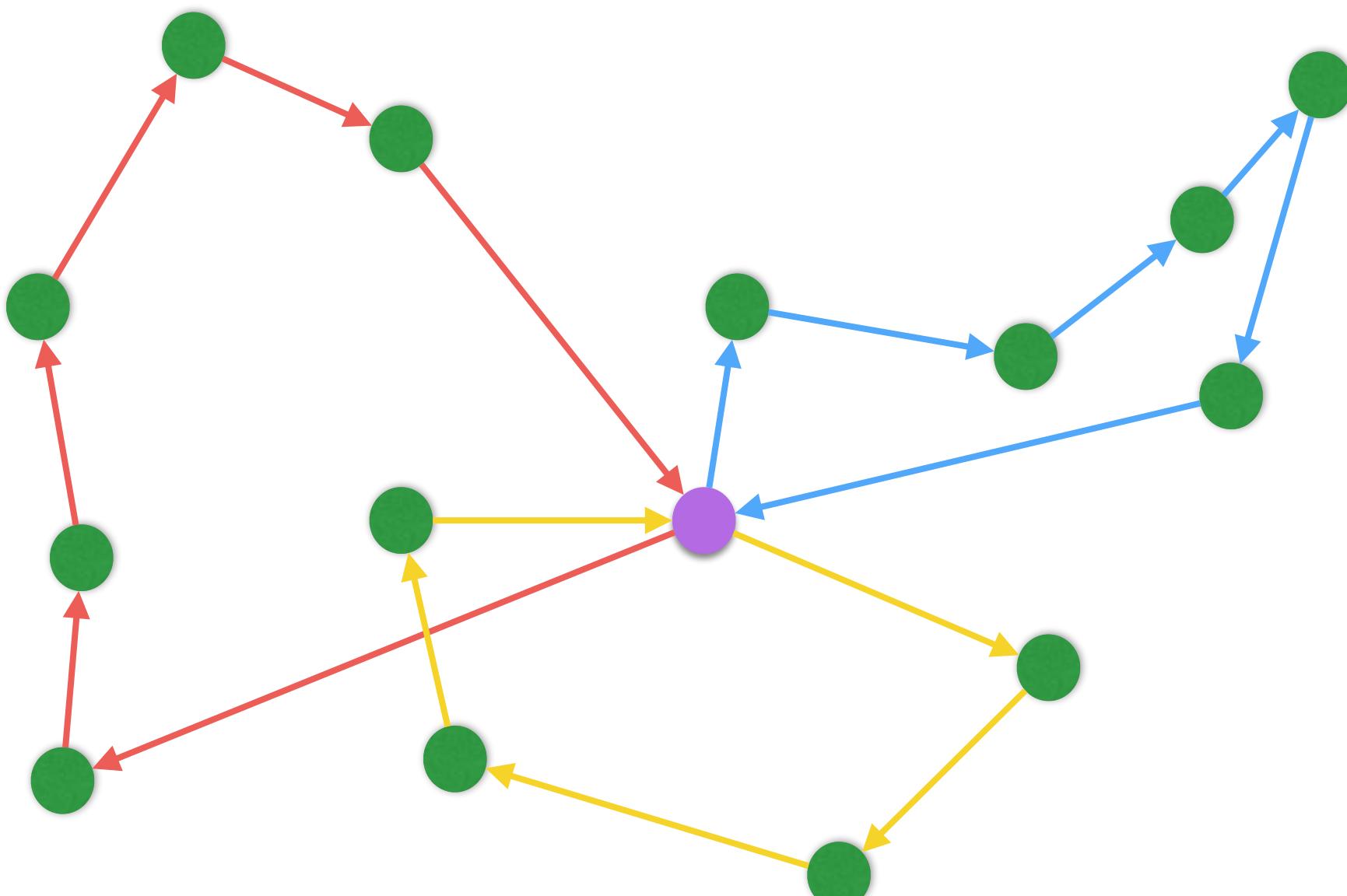
# Application: Vehicle routing

- 1 depot, 3 vehicles, 1 distance matrix.
- Visit all the customers and minimize the total distance.
- How to model this with a Circuit constraint?



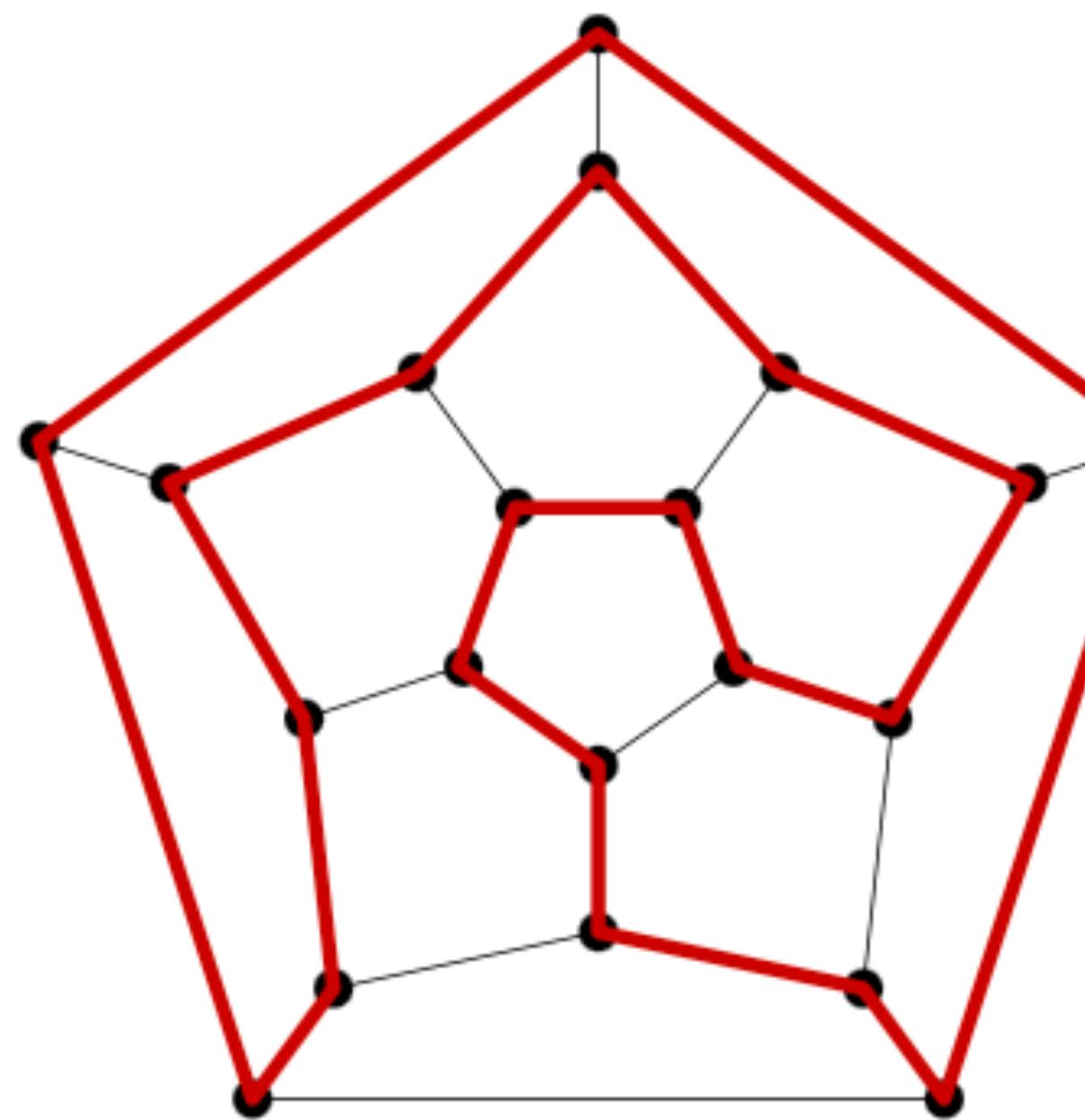
# Application: Vehicle routing

- ▶ Duplicate the depot for every vehicle.
- ▶ Now we can state a Circuit constraint by threading the tours of the vehicles through the depots into a giant tour:



# Hamiltonian-cycle problem

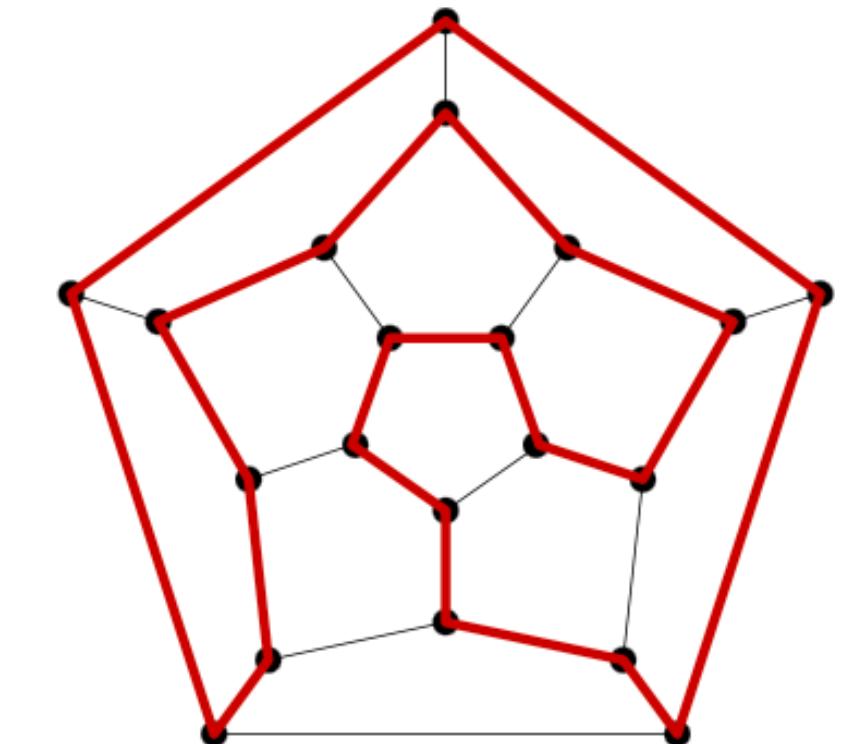
- Find a cycle that visits each node in an undirected graph exactly once



- Determining whether such a cycle exists in a graph is NP-complete

# Achieving domain consistency for Circuit is NP-hard

- Achieving domain consistency for a Circuit constraint is NP-hard
- Reduction from Hamiltonian cycle in an undirected graph  $G=(V,E)$ :
  - Introduce a variable  $\text{succ}_i$  for every node  $i$  in  $V$ , denoting the successor of node  $i$ :  
$$D(\text{succ}_i) = \{ j : (i,j) \text{ in } E \}$$
  - Apply domain-consistent filtering for  $\text{Circuit}(\text{succ}_1, \dots, \text{succ}_n)$ :
    - If no failure: YES! there exists a Hamiltonian cycle in  $G$ .
    - Otherwise: NO! there exists no Hamiltonian cycle in  $G$ .





# Constraint Programming

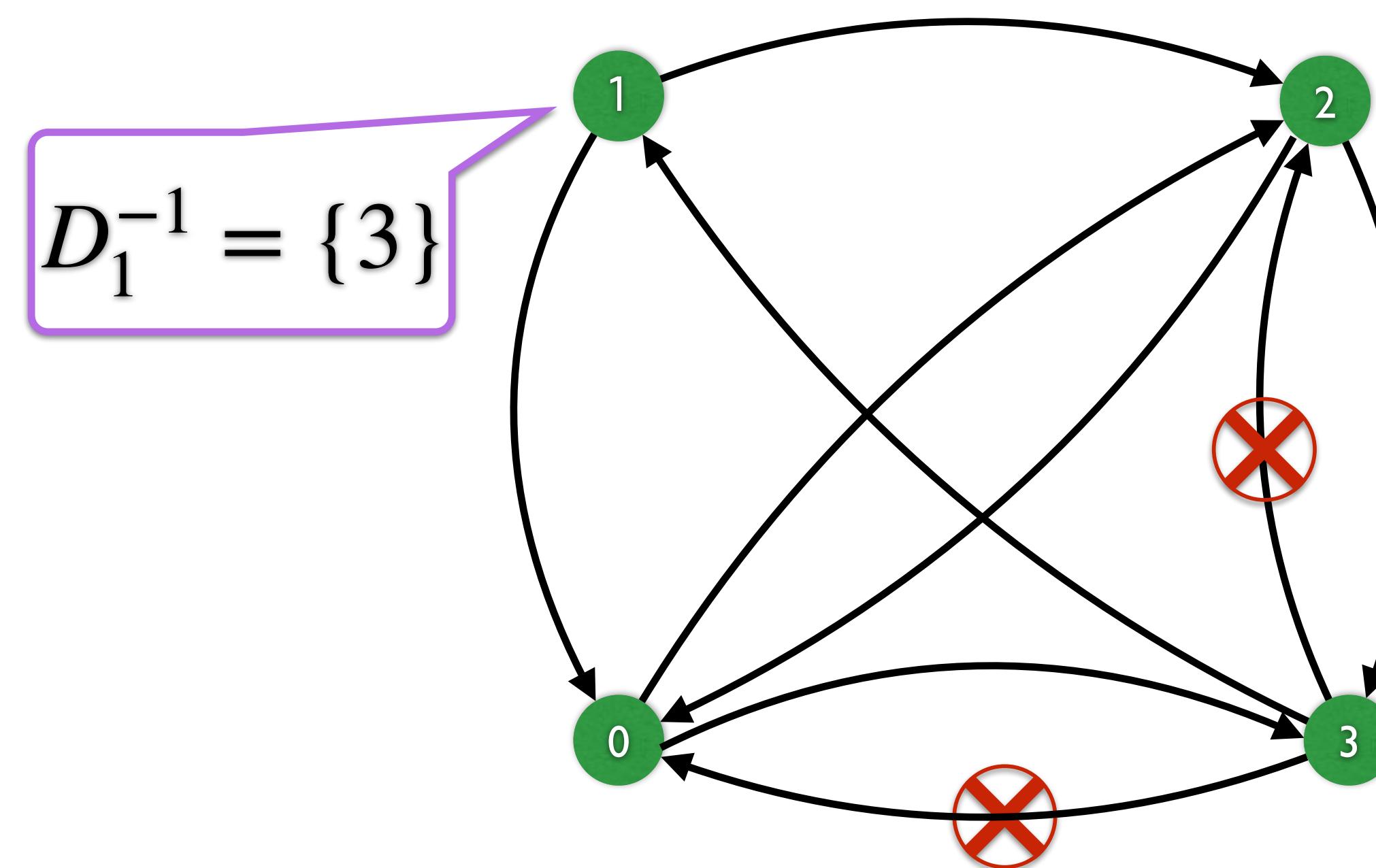
Circuit Filtering: Degree Reasoning

# NP-hard, so we want to relax the filtering

- ▶ Degree-based filtering (weaker than AllDifferent and insufficient)
- ▶ Partial-path-based filtering

# Degree-based filtering

- In a Hamiltonian cycle, the in-degree and out-degree of every node are 1.
- Notation:  $D_j^{-1} = \{i \mid j \in D(\text{succ}[i])\}$   
 (set of indices of the variables with  $j$  as a possible successor)
- If  $D(\text{succ}[i]) = \{j\}$ , then remove  $j$  from  $D(\text{succ}[k])$  for all  $k \neq i$  (forward checking)
- If  $D_j^{-1} = \{i\}$ , then reduce  $D(\text{succ}[i])$  to  $\{j\}$

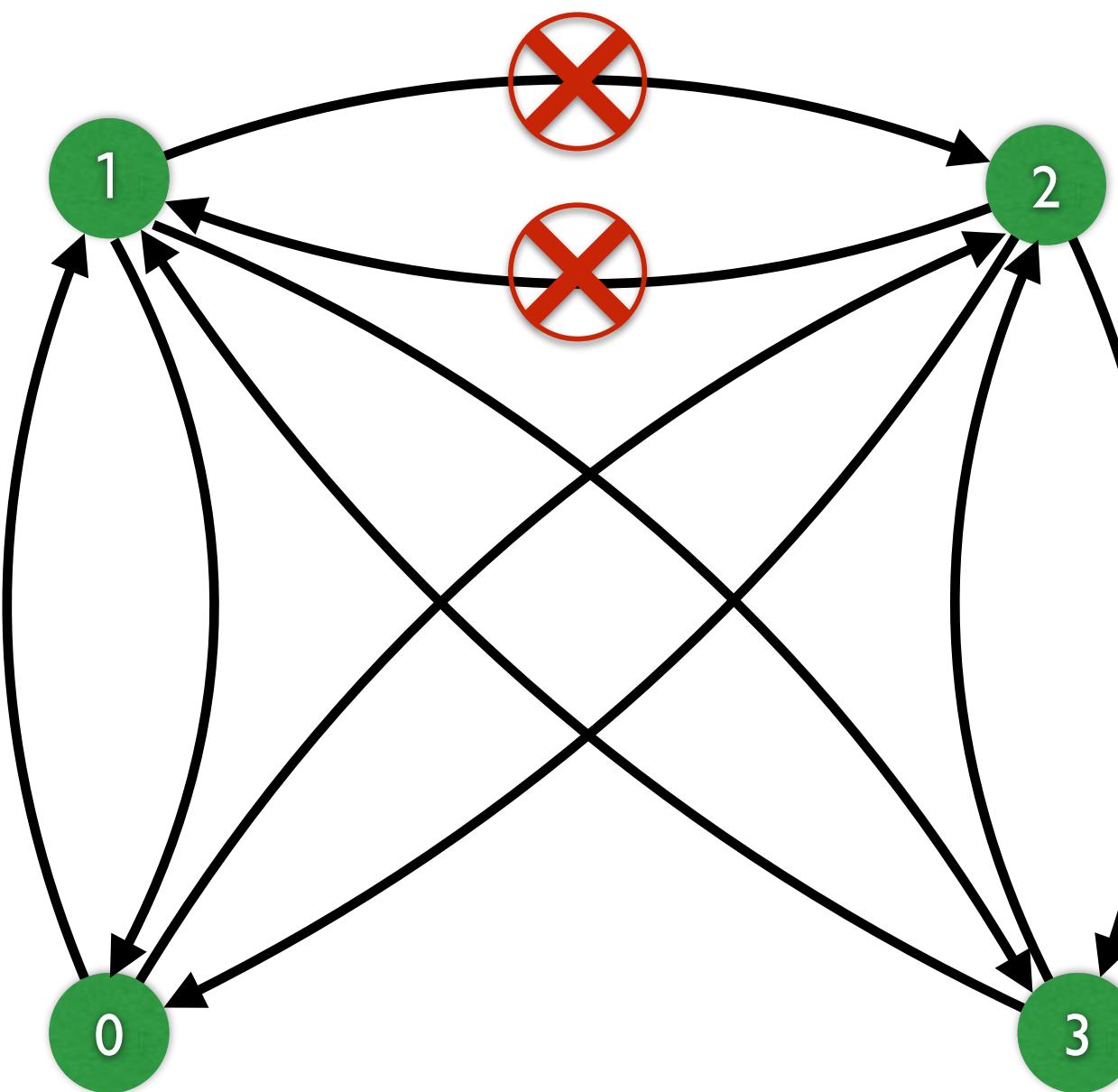


# Degree-based filtering: Implementation

- ▶ If  $D(\text{succ}[i]) = \{ j \}$ , then remove  $j$  from  $D(\text{succ}[k])$  for all  $k \neq i$ 
  - Same as forward-checking filtering for AllDifferent.
  - Make it efficient with a sparse set to split fixed and unfixed variables.
- ▶ If  $D_j^{-1} = \{ i \}$ , then reduce  $D(\text{succ}[i])$  to  $\{ j \}$ 
  - Requires counting for each value  $j$ , the number of  $D(\text{succ}[i])$  with element  $j$
  - Can be done incrementally during the search:
    - Split values into: fixed/unfixed ones (sparse set)
    - Split variables into fixed/unfixed ones (sparse set)
    - Consider values  $j$  and variables  $i$  not yet in the fixed partition for the counting

# Degree-based filtering is weaker than AllDifferent-DC

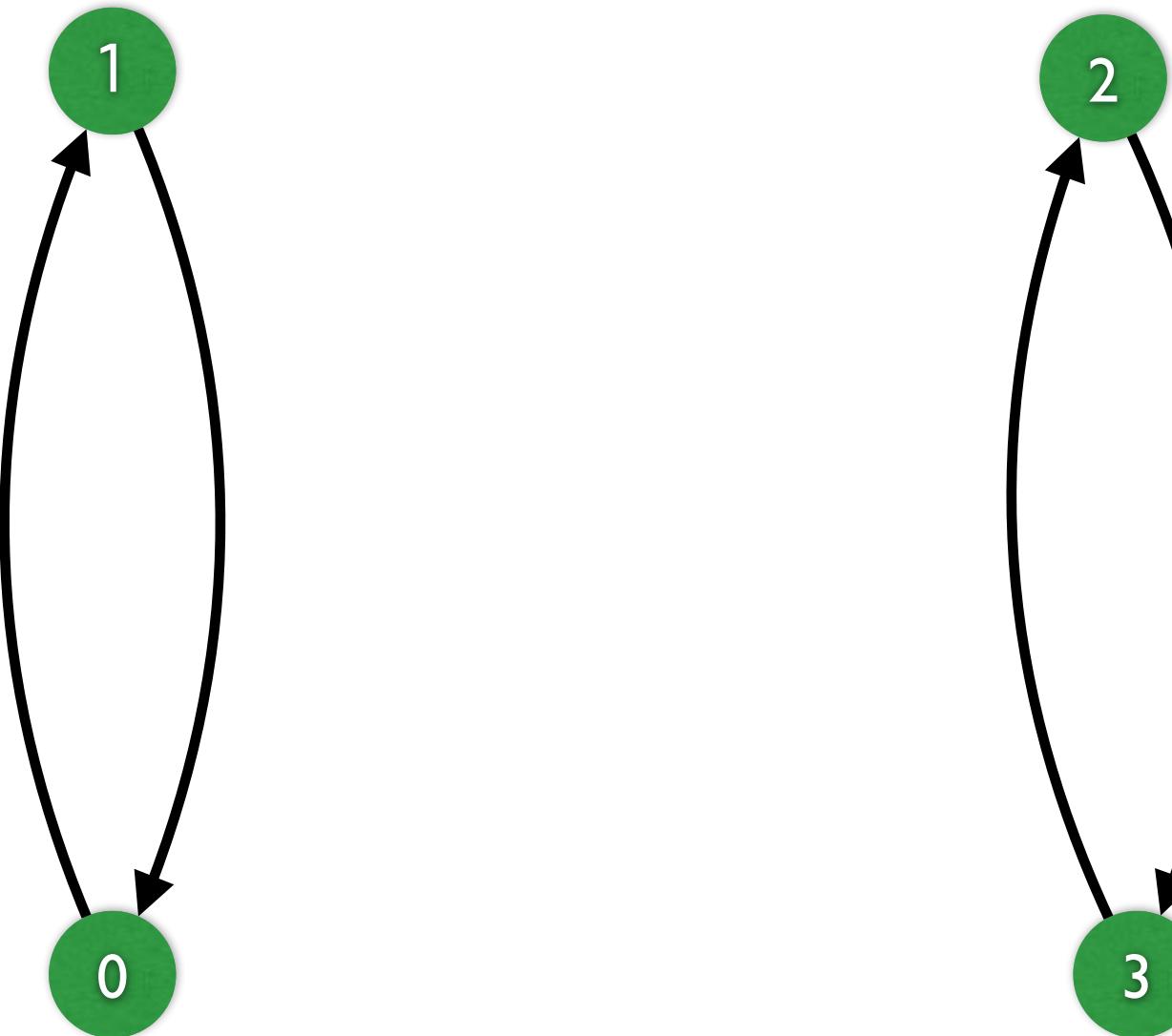
- On the example below, degree-based filtering is not able to detect the possible filtering since all in & out degrees are at least 2
- $D(\text{succ}[0])=\{1,2\}$ ,  $D(\text{succ}[1])=\{0,2,3\}$ ,  $D(\text{succ}[2])=\{0,1,3\}$ ,  $D(\text{succ}[3])=\{1,2\}$



- But degree-based filtering is fast to execute

# Again, AllDifferent-based filtering is not enough

- ▶ Since it does not prevent the creation of sub-cycles
- ▶ The degree-based filtering is also OK with this:





# Constraint Programming

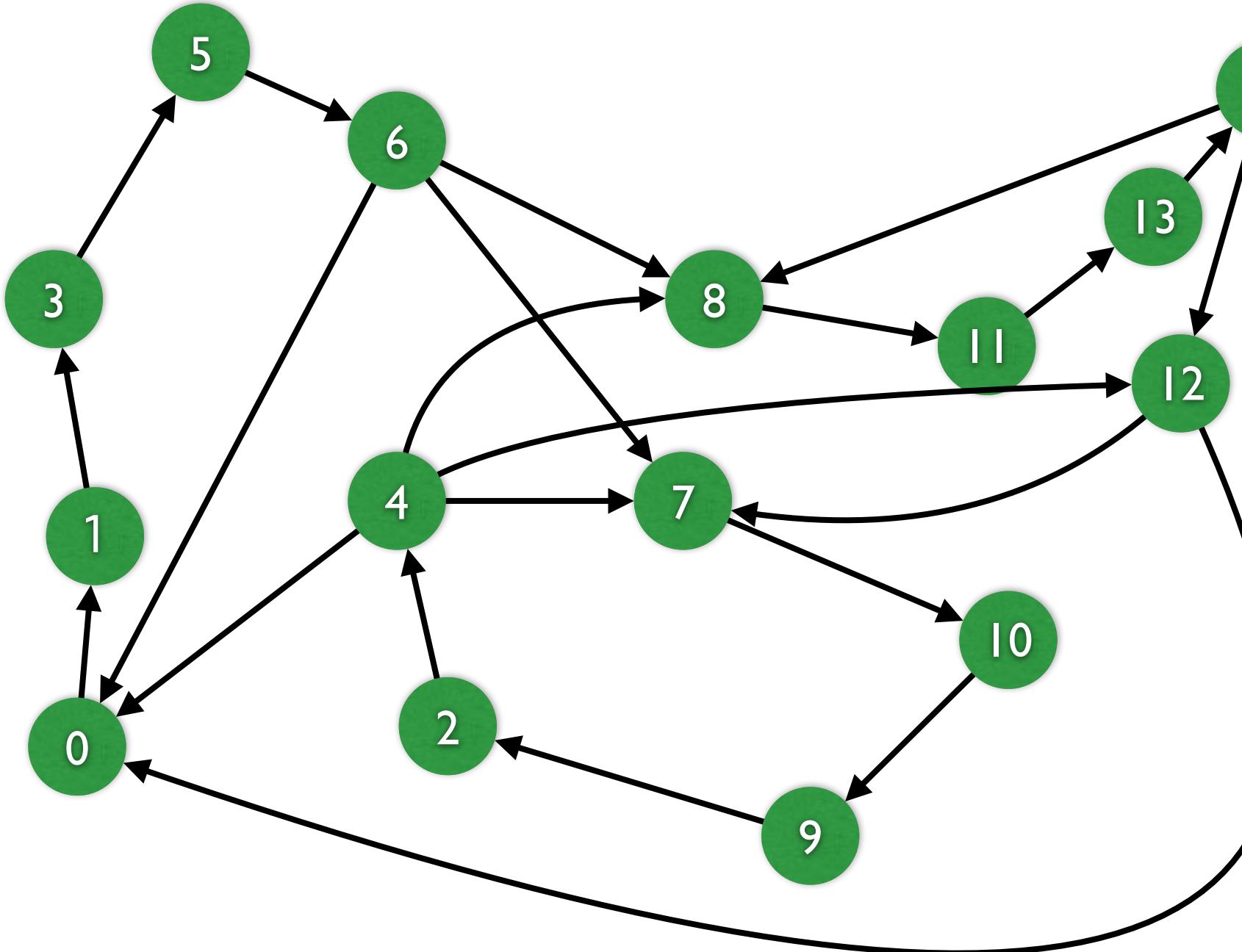
Circuit Filtering: Partial-Path Reasoning

# NP-hard, so we want to relax the filtering

- Degree-based filtering (weaker than AllDifferent and insufficient)
- **Partial-path-based filtering**, together with AllDifferent-DC filtering

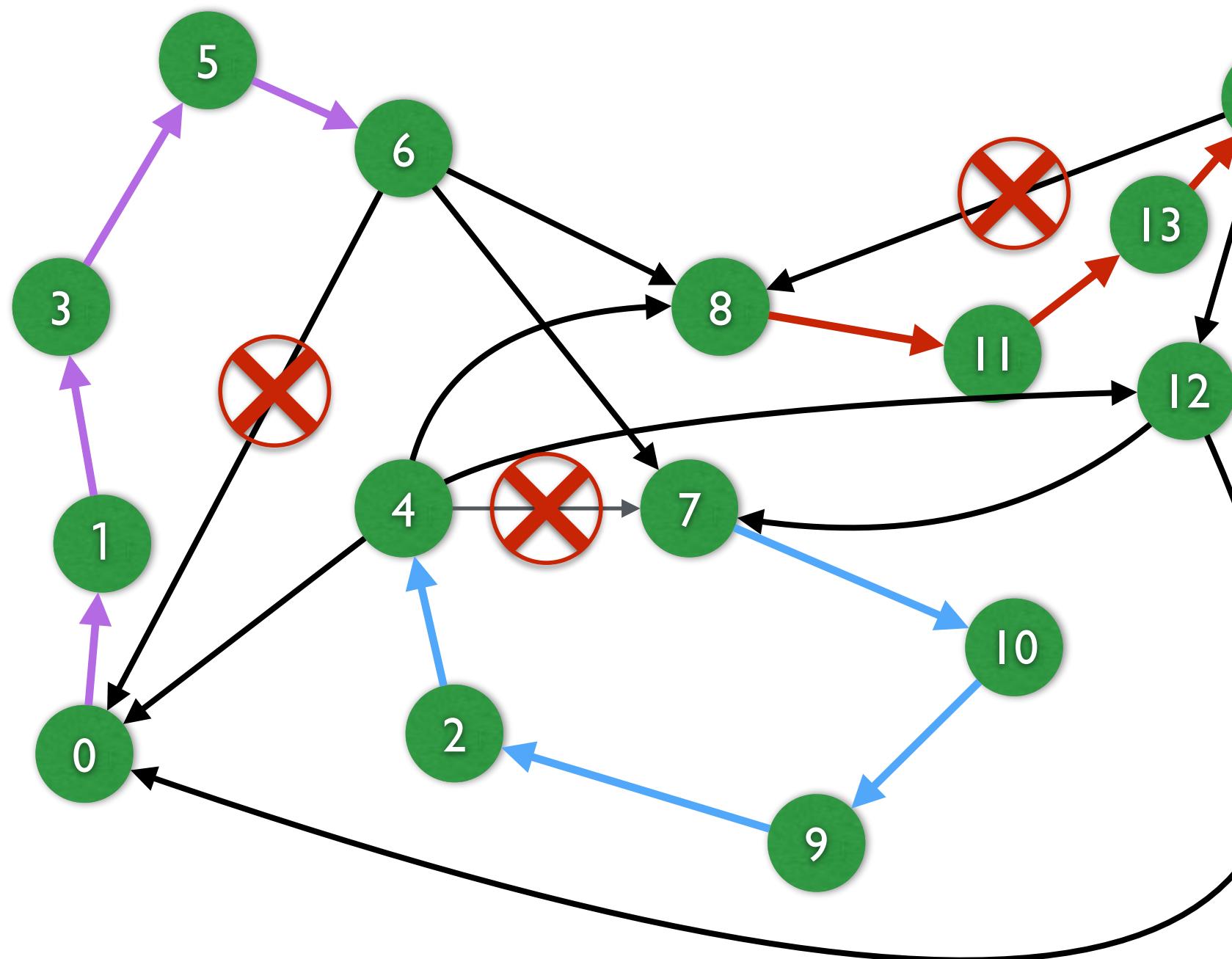
# Partial-path-based filtering

- ▶ Filtering idea: Detect partial paths and prevent them from closing.
- ▶ A *partial path* is a maximal consecutive sequence of nodes (successor variables) with a unique successor (current singleton domains).
- ▶ For example, what are the partial paths in the following graph?



# Partial-path-based filtering

- If a partial path has fewer than  $(n-1)$  edges, where  $n = \# \text{nodes}$ , then it must not be closed, as otherwise we would have a sub-cycle.
- The question is now: How to do this efficiently, in  $O(n)$  time?  
For example, the **crossed** edges below were *already* filtered when the nodes 4, 6, and 14 became the endpoints of their partial paths:

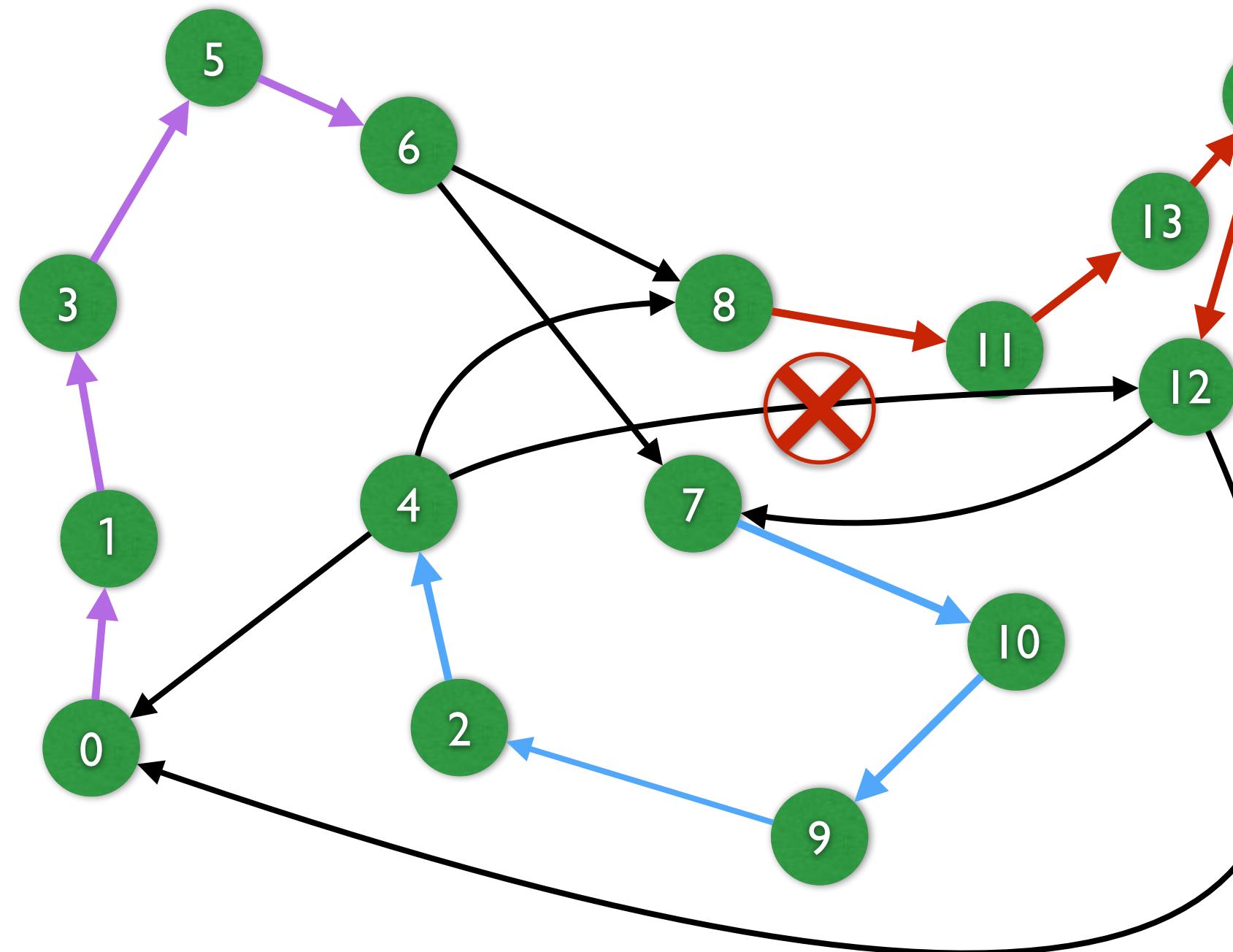


# Partial-path-based filtering

- If a partial path has fewer than  $(n-1)$  edges, where  $n = \# \text{nodes}$ , then it must not be closed, as otherwise we would have a sub-circuit.

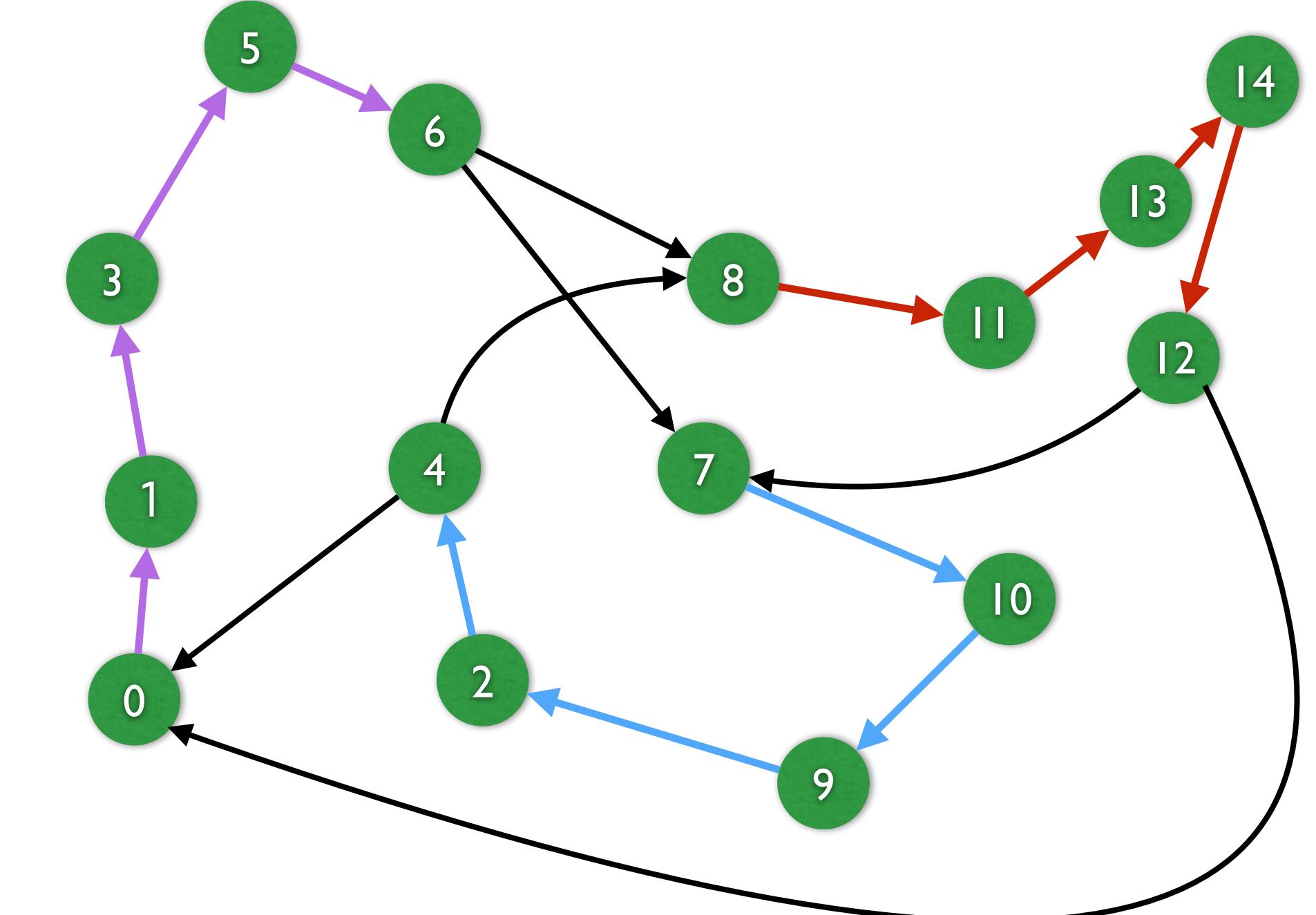
- The question is now: How to do this efficiently, in  $O(n)$  time?

Continuing our example, the successor of 14 then became 12 and the **red partial path** became longer, and **AllDifferent** detects  $\text{succ}[4] \neq 12$ :



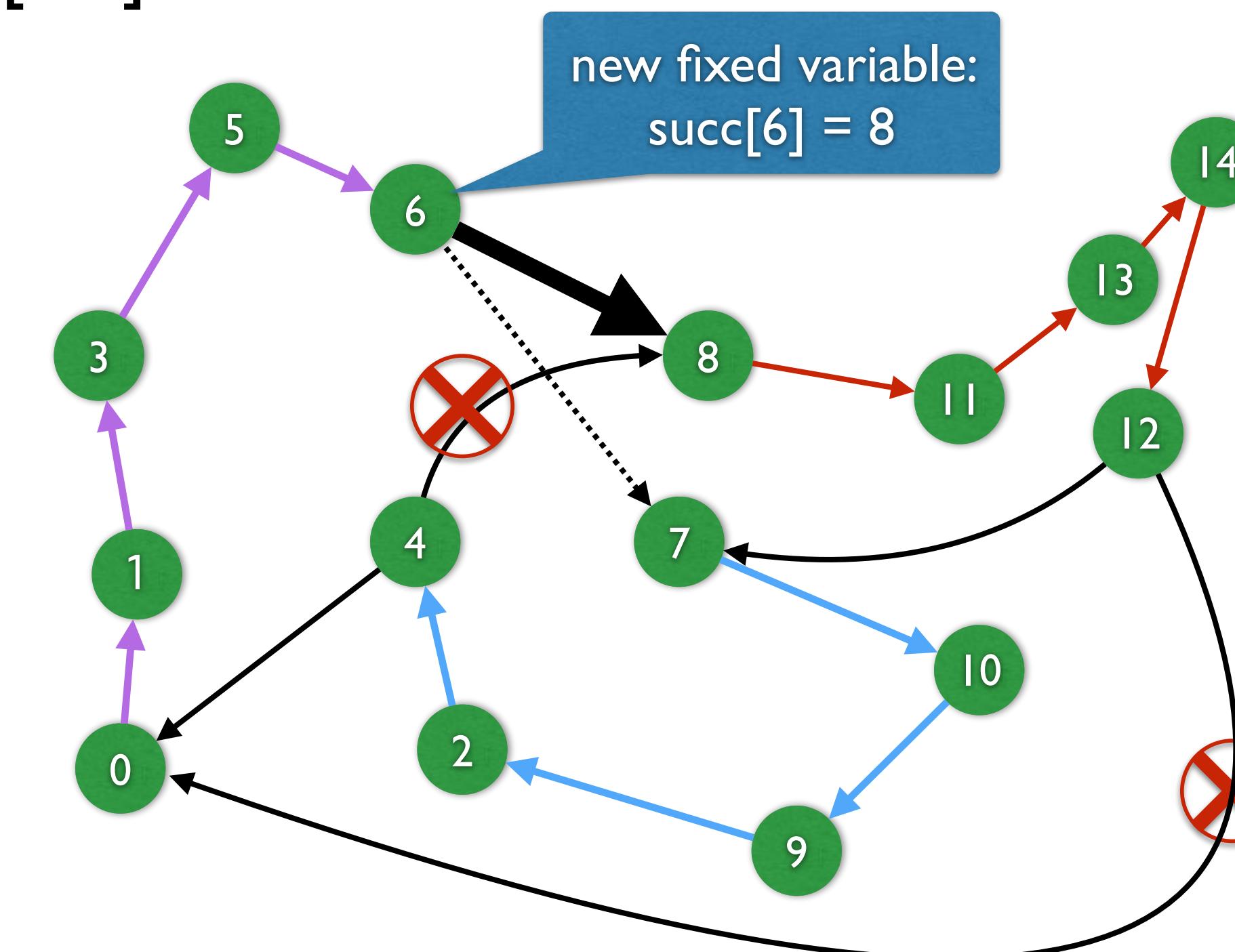
# Data structures

- We store three pieces of information for each node  $i$ :
  - $\text{dest}[i]$  = destination of the partial path starting at  $i$  ( $\text{dest}[i]=i$  if  $\text{succ}[i]$  is not fixed)
  - $\text{orig}[i]$  = origin of the partial path going through  $i$  ( $\text{orig}[i]=i$  if no  $\text{succ}[v]$  is fixed to  $i$ )
  - $\text{lengthToDest}[i]$  = number of edges from  $i$  to  $\text{dest}[i]$
- Examples:
  - $\text{dest}[6]=6$ ,  $\text{orig}[6]=0$ ,  $\text{lengthToDest}[\text{orig}[6]]=4$
  - $\text{dest}[8]=12$ ,  $\text{orig}[12]=8$ ,  $\text{lengthToDest}[8]=4$
  - $\text{dest}[0]=6$ ,  $\text{orig}[3]=0$ ,  $\text{lengthToDest}[3]=2$



# Circuit: Updating the values in $O(1)$ time

- ▶ Assuming the branching decision  $\text{succ}[6] = 8$  (on backtrack:  $\text{succ}[6] = 7$ ), the 3 updates that join the **purple** and **red** partial paths are as follows:
    - $\text{dest}[\text{orig}[6]] := \text{dest}[8]$ , hence:  $\text{dest}[0] = 12$  (but, for example,  $\text{dest}[3]$  remains 6)
    - $\text{orig}[\text{dest}[8]] := \text{orig}[6]$ , hence:  $\text{orig}[12] = 0$
    - $\text{lengthToDest}[\text{orig}[6]] := \text{lengthToDest}[8] + 1$ , hence:  $\text{lengthToDest}[0] = 9$
    - since  $9 < 15 - 1$ , we infer:  $\text{succ}[12] \neq 0$
  - ▶ Hence  $\text{succ}[12] = 7$ , joining the **purple** & **blue** partial paths;  
**AllDifferent**:  $\text{succ}[4] \neq 8$
  - ▶ Hence  $\text{succ}[4] = 0$ , which completes the cycle



# Filtering algorithm (not idempotent!)

```

1: procedure PROPAGATECIRCUIT
2:    $dest[i] \leftarrow i, \forall i$ 
3:    $orig[i] \leftarrow i, \forall i$ 
4:    $lengthToDest[i] \leftarrow 0, \forall i$ 
5:   for  $i = 0$  to  $n - 1$  do
6:     if  $|\mathcal{D}(x_i)| = 1$  then
7:        $j \leftarrow \min(\mathcal{D}(x_i))$ 
8:        $dest[orig[i]] \leftarrow dest[j]$ 
9:        $orig[dest[j]] \leftarrow orig[i]$ 
10:       $lengthToDest[orig[i]] \leftarrow lengthToDest[orig[i]] + lengthToDest[j] + 1$ 
11:      if  $lengthToDest[orig[i]] < n - 1$  then
12:         $x[dest[j]].remove(orig[i])$ 
13:      end if
14:    end if
15:  end for
16: end procedure

```

new partial path = concatenation

# Can we make this algorithm incremental?

```

1: procedure PROPAGATECIRCUIT
2:    $dest[i] \leftarrow i, \forall i$ 
3:    $orig[i] \leftarrow i, \forall i$ 
4:    $lengthToDest[i] \leftarrow 0, \forall i$ 
5:   for  $i = 0$  to  $n - 1$  do
6:     if  $|\mathcal{D}(x_i)| = 1$  then
7:        $j \leftarrow \min(\mathcal{D}(x_i))$ 
8:        $dest[orig[i]] \leftarrow dest[j]$ 
9:        $orig[dest[j]] \leftarrow orig[i]$ 
10:       $lengthToDest[orig[i]] \leftarrow lengthToDest[orig[i]] + lengthToDest[j] + 1$ 
11:      if  $lengthToDest[orig[i]] < n - 1$  then
12:         $x[dest[j]].remove(orig[i])$ 
13:      end if
14:    end if
15:  end for
16: end procedure

```

Store each of these values in a StateInt, so that the partial paths are restored at backtrack

Trigger this code only when  $x_i$  is fixed

Overall complexity =  $O(\text{number of new fixed variables}) < O(n)$

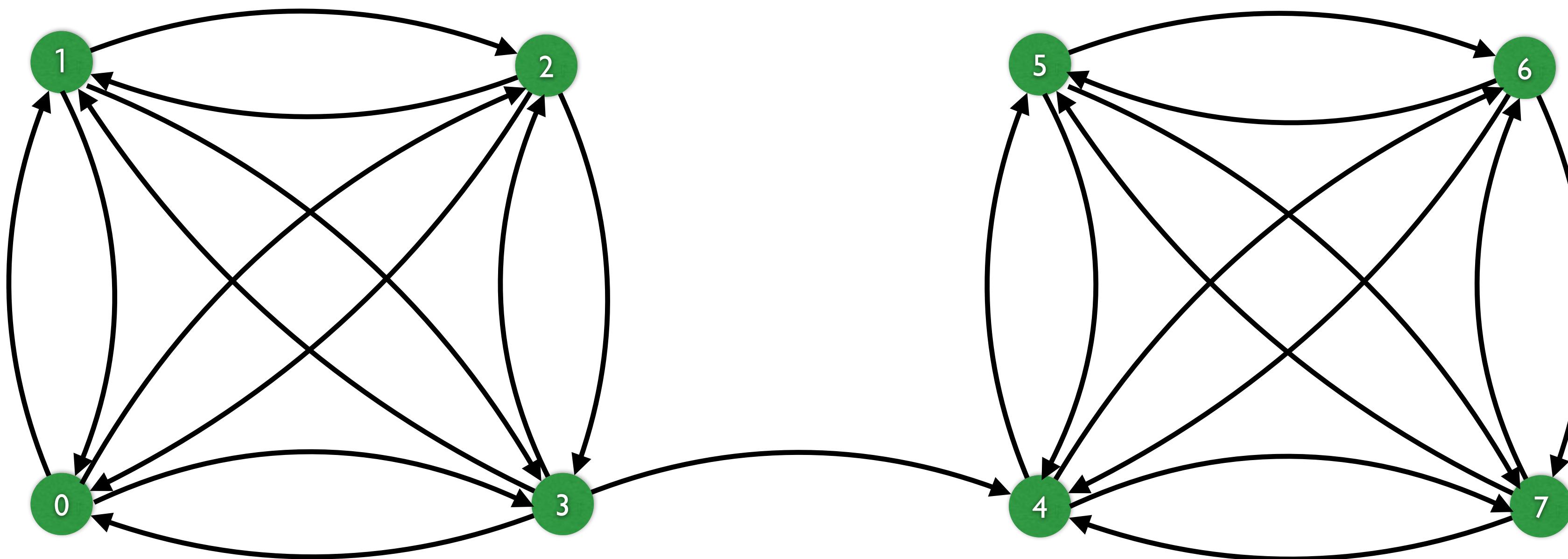


# Constraint Programming

Circuit Constraint: SCC feasibility check

# Feasibility Check

- ▶ Circuit is not feasible if there is more than one strongly connected component (SCC) in the graph induced by the current domains.



- ▶ Compute the SCCs with the Tarjan or Kosaraju algorithm: if there is more than one SCC, then fail.



# Constraint Programming

Optimization of some objective function

# Reminder

- ▶ A CSP is a constraint satisfaction problem:
  - A triplet  $\langle X, D, C \rangle$  where ...
- ▶ A COP is a constrained optimization problem:
  - A quadruplet  $\langle X, D, C, f \rangle$
  - The objective function  $f$  is defined over a subset of the variables  $X$ .
  - Without loss of generality, we assume  $f$  is to be minimized.
- ▶ What we want for a COP:

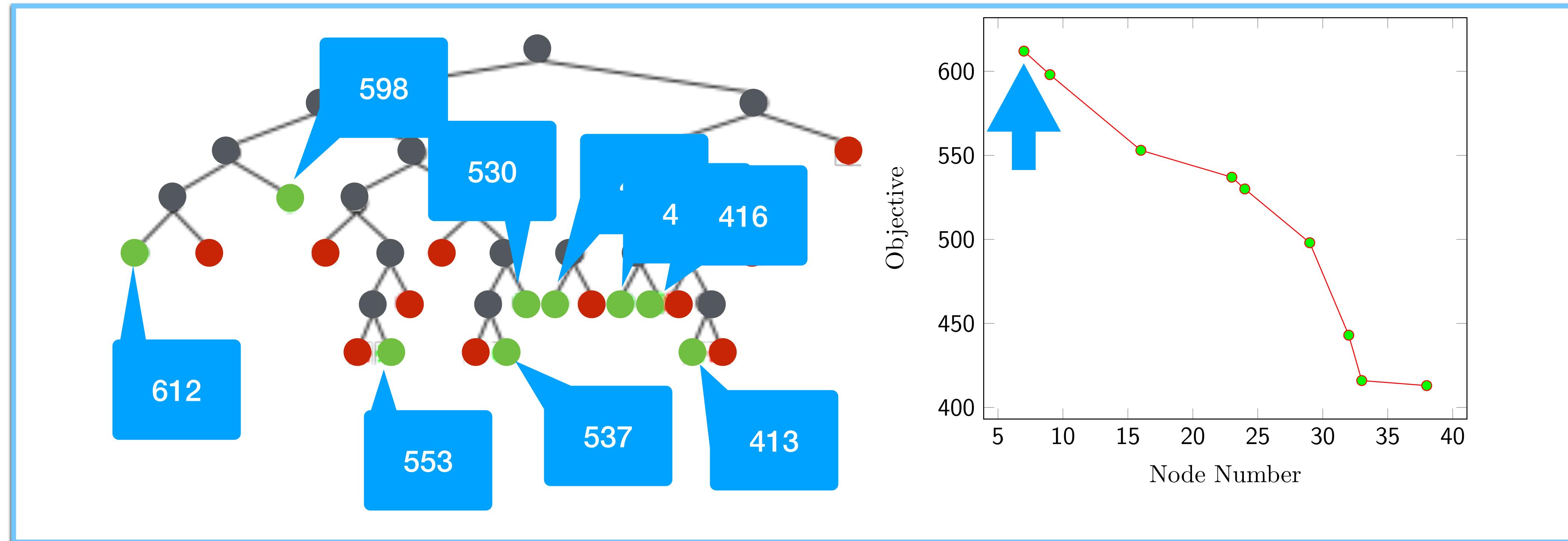
Find among the feasible solutions to  $\langle X, D, C \rangle$ ,  
i.e., in  $\mathcal{S}(\langle X, D, C \rangle)$ , a solution  $\sigma^*$  that minimizes  $f$ .

# How shall we do this?

- ▶ Idea, called branch-and-bound:
  - Step 1: Find a feasible solution  $\sigma_0$  (i.e., the COP is feasible).
  - Step 2: Add the constraint  $c_0 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(\sigma) < f(\sigma_0)$ .
  - Step 3: Continue solving.
  - Step 4: At iteration  $i$ :
    - If we find a feasible solution  $\sigma_i$ , then tighten by adding the “bitterness” constraint  $c_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(\sigma) < f(\sigma_i)$ .
    - If we do not find a feasible solution, then the previous solution,  $\sigma_{i-1}$ , is a global optimum.
  - Process ends when some iteration does not find a feasible solution.
- ▶ Caveats:
  - Solutions are found “deep” in the search tree.
  - The “bitterness” constraints must not disappear when backtracking!

# Example: Minimization Problem

Each time a solution is found, the next one is strictly better.  
Here, 9 solutions were discovered before the last, optimal one.  
Notice that, after the best solution was found,  
we need to continue the search in order to prove its optimality.



# Minimization in MiniCP

Total cost of the QAP denoted by an objective variable

```
IntVar totCost = sum(weightedDist);
```

```
Objective obj = cp.minimize(totCost);
```

Creation of the objective

```
DFSearch dfs = makeDfs(cp, firstFail(x));
```

Creation of the DFS

```
dfs.onSolution( () -> System.out.println("objective:" + totCost.min()));
```

```
SearchStatistics stats = dfs.optimize(obj);
```

Print obj. var. at each solution

Pass the objective to  
DFS branch-and-bound

# In practice

```
public interface Objective {
    void tighten();
}
```

Objective ADT

Called each time a solution is found during the search  
in order to let the tightening of the bound occur  
such that the next-found solution is better

```
public class Minimize implements Objective {
    private int bound = Integer.MAX_VALUE;
    private final IntVar x;

    public Minimize(IntVar x) {
        this.x = x;
        x.getSolver().onFixPoint(() -> x.removeAbove(bound));
    }

    public void tighten() {
        this.bound = x.max() - 1;
    }
}
```

Pruning w.r.t. the bound is done at (the  
start of) every fixpoint computation

Called when finding  $O_i$  to update the bound

# Hookup of the Objective into the Solver

```

public class DFSearch {
    private Supplier<Procedure[ ]> branching;
    private StateManager sm;
    private List<Procedure> solutionListeners = new LinkedList<Procedure>();
    private List<Procedure> failureListeners = new LinkedList<Procedure>();

    public DFSearch(StateManager sm, Supplier<Procedure[ ]> branching) {
        this.sm = sm;
        this.branching = branching;
    }
    public void onSolution(Procedure listener){ solutionListeners.add(listener);}
    public void onFailure(Procedure listener) { failureListeners.add(listener);}
    private void notifySolution() { solutionListeners.forEach(s -> s.call());}
    private void notifyFailure() { failureListeners.forEach(s -> s.call());}

    public SearchStatistics optimize(Objective obj) {
        onSolution(() -> obj.tighten());
        return solve(new SearchStatistics());
    }

    private void dfs(SearchStatistics statistics) { ... }
}

```

Tighten objective when finding  $\sigma_i$

# Minimization: Summary

Minimization is implemented as a regular DFS that enumerates feasible solutions under two listeners:

- `onSolution`: the objective bound is tightened (to the current bound minus 1);
- `onFixPoint`: the objective variable is restricted to be at most the bound.

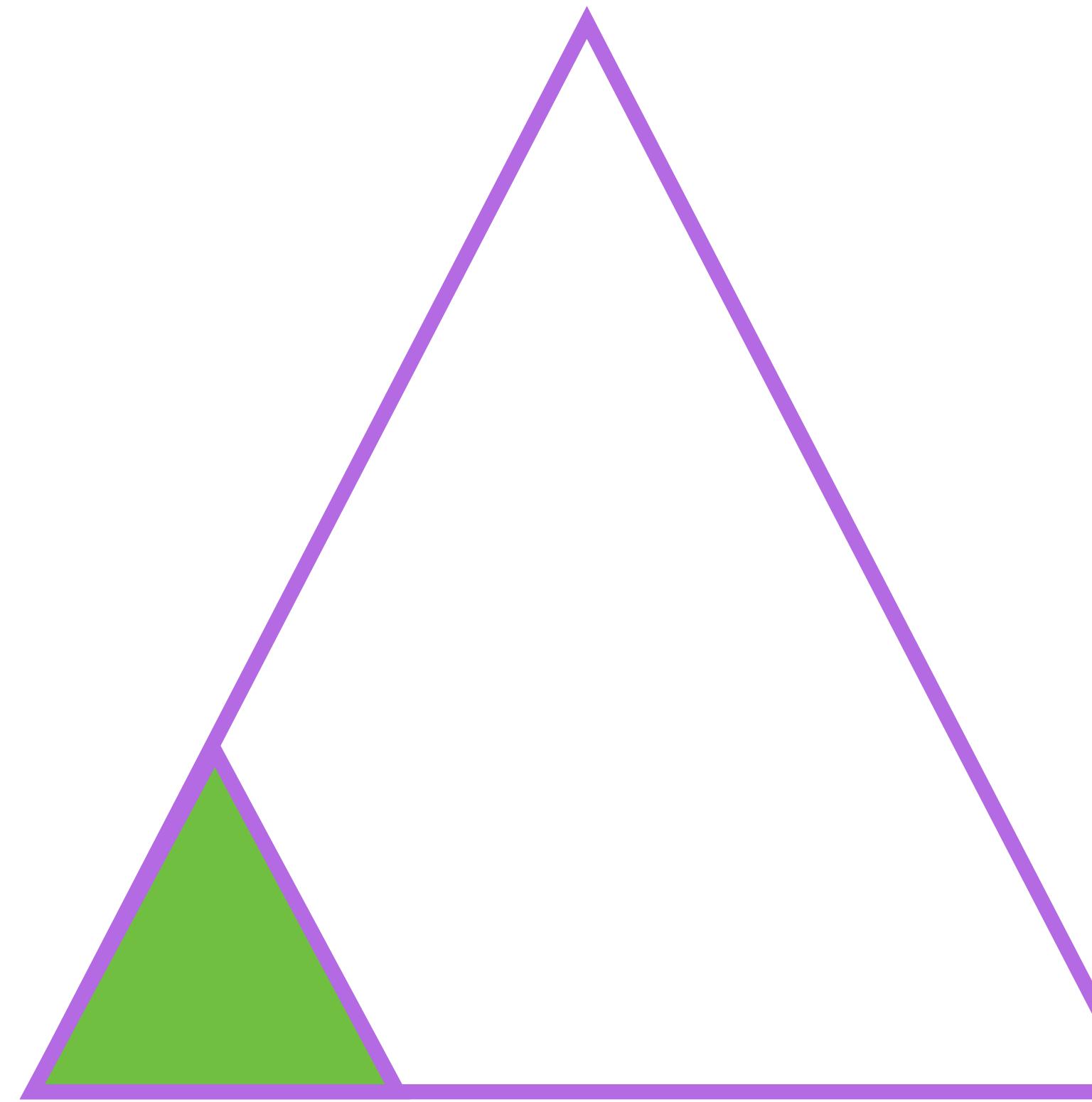


# Constraint Programming

Large-Neighborhood Search

# The Weakness of CP

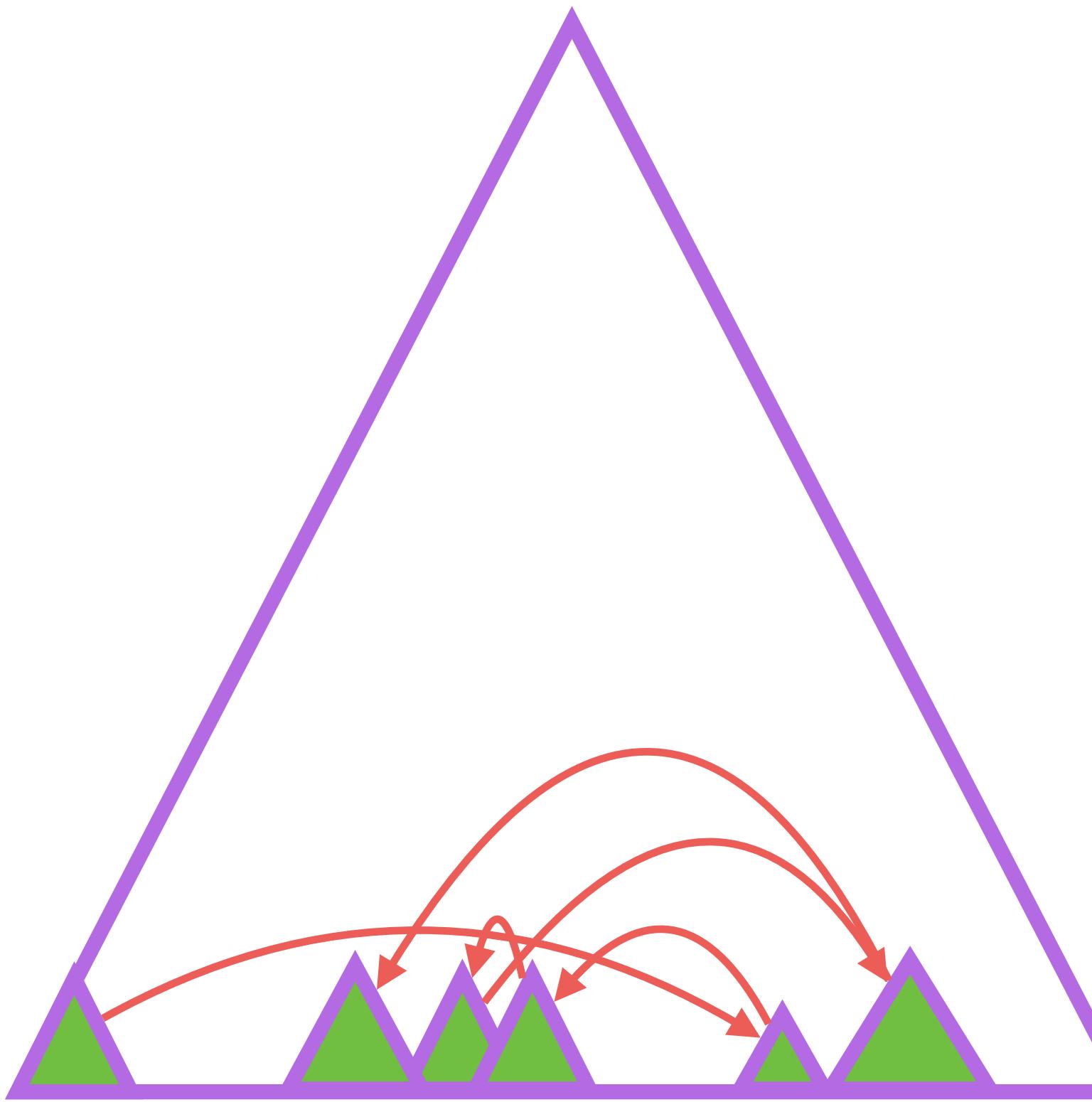
- ▶ Potentially huge search tree for optimization problems.
- ▶ Poor exploration of the search space.



- Some problems are just too hard to solve.
- Solution: Adopt a local search (LS) style to discover good solutions faster.

# How to fix this? By local search!

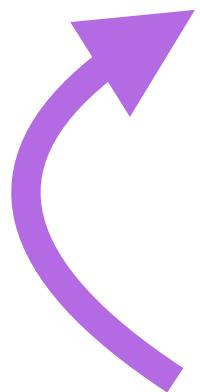
- When solving gets stuck for too long without improving: restart at another place.
- Intensify the search where it looks promising.



# Large-Neighborhood Search (LNS)

LNS = Fix + Relax + Restart

1. Find a first feasible solution  $S^*$ .
2. Randomly relax  $S^*$  and re-optimize under a search limit:  
*relax* = fix some variables to their values in  $S^*$  and unfix the other variables.
3. Replace  $S^*$  by the best solution found



It can be more general than that.  
For example, in scheduling, good practice is:  
*relax* = keep some of the precedences from the best solution.

# Advantages of LNS over classical LS

- ▶ The neighborhood is large:
  - No need for a meta-heuristic in order to avoid local optima.
- ▶ Modeling power of CP (declarative):
  - No need for designing a complex neighborhood.
  - Ease of implementation.
- ▶ Scalability of LS:
  - Very good «any-time» behavior.

# Example: How to solve QAP with LNS?

## Without LNS:

```
int[][] w = new int[n][n]; // Weights
int[][] d = new int[n][n]; // Distance (reading hidden)

Solver cp = makeSolver();
IntVar[] x = makeIntVarArray(cp, n, n);
cp.post(allDifferent(x));
IntVar[] weightedDist = new IntVar[n * n];
int ind = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
    for (int j = 0; j < n; j++)
        weightedDist[ind++] = mul(element(d, x[i], x[j]), w[i][j]);
IntVar totCost = sum(weightedDist);
Objective obj = cp.minimize(totCost);
DFSearch dfs = makeDfs(cp, firstFail(x));
```

# QAP with LNS

```

int[][] w = new int[n][n]; // Weights
int[][] d = new int[n][n]; // Distance (reading hidden)
Solver cp = makeSolver();
IntVar[] x = makeIntVarArray(cp, n, n);
// Constraints and objective ... (hidden)
DFSearch dfs = makeDfs(cp, firstFail(x));
int[] xBest = IntStream.range(0, n).toArray();

dfs.onSolution(() -> {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
        xBest[i] = x[i].min();
});

int nRestarts = 1000;
int failLimit = 100;
Random rand = new java.util.Random(0);
for (int i = 0; i < nRestarts; i++) {
    dfs.optimizeSubjectTo(obj,
        statistics -> statistics.numberOfFailures() >= failLimit, () -> {
            for (int j = 0; j < n; j++)
                if (rand.nextInt(100) < 75)
                    cp.post(equal(x[j], xBest[j])); Fix a random 75% of variables
        }
    );
}
}

```

Store and update current best solution

Fix a random 75% of variables