

1- Optimization problems and the search space

- Search space S is a set of possible values for x $S = \mathbb{R}^2$ in the 2d median example.
- can be continuous, discrete, finite or infinite
- S is very BIG (no exhaustive search)
- F is a function which quantifies the quality of an x

$$f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad \text{or a subset of } \mathbb{R}$$

on which there is an order relation

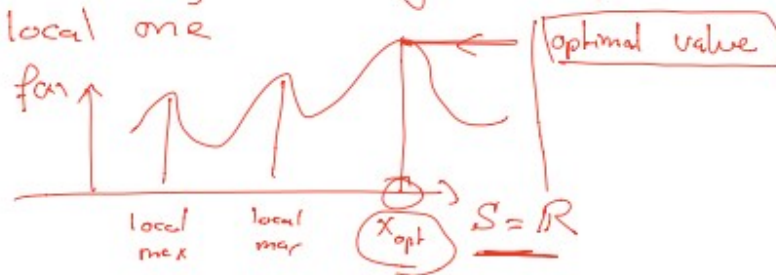
- called objective function, cost function, energy function, fitness (we use fitness)

The optimal solution is $x_{opt} \in S$ such that

$$\begin{cases} f(x_{opt}) \geq f(y) & \forall y \in S \quad (\text{max prob}) \\ f(x_{opt}) \leq f(y) & \forall y \in S \quad (\text{min prob}) \end{cases}$$

$\rightarrow \begin{cases} x_{opt} = \operatorname{argmax}_{y \in S} f(y) \\ x_{opt} = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in S} f(y) \end{cases}$

Note we are looking for a global optimum, not a local one



- Optimal value unique
- Exemple de problems :

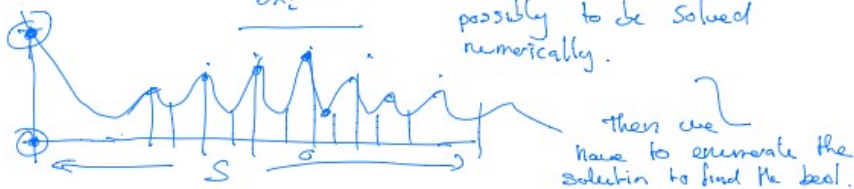
1) $S = \mathbb{R}^n$ $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, f is continuous and differentiable

\Rightarrow continuous optimization problem

Solution is obtained by solving

$$\frac{\partial f(x^*)}{\partial x_i} = 0 \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

possibly to be solved numerically.



2) Linear Programming (standard probl in economics)

$$\begin{aligned} \max \quad z = f(x) &= \sum_{i=1}^n c_i x_i & x &= (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \\ \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ji} x_i &\leq b_j & c_i &\in \mathbb{R} \text{ given.} \\ & & & \text{for } m \text{ given constraints} \\ & & & j = 1 \text{ to } m \\ & & & a_{ij}, b_j \text{ are given.} \end{aligned}$$

The solution are at the edge of a convex polygon.

Algorithm: SIMPLEX

3) Knapsack: we have n objects of size w_i and value p_i

We want to take as much value in the sack, whose capacity is C

$$x_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{I do not take the object} \\ 1 & \text{I take the object} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{maximize } f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i x_i$$

$$\text{subject to } \sum x_i w_i \leq C$$

If n is large this becomes a difficult problem for which metaheuristics may be needed.

4) tsp

5) NK-landscape

2- Main principles of metaheuristics, neighborhood, movements, exploration operator, population metaheuristics

Goal : explore the search space in a clever way, needed for large problems for which exponential algorithm is known

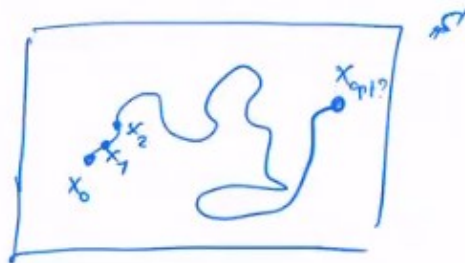
- compromise between cpu time and the quality of the solution
- find a solution, but valid for many different problems
- no guarantee on the quality

Characteristics:

- no hypothesis on the mathematical properties of the fitness function.
 - Require guiding parameters that depend on the problem and specifies how to search in the space.
 - need a starting point
 - need a stopping condition (iteration, no more improvement, time, value etc)
 - inspired by natural processes
 - can be parallelisable
 - most of them are stochastic, use random numbers to guide search
 - based on 2 mechanisms : intensification or diversification and exploration or exploitation
- One is about trying various regions of the search space and the other is about improving locally the quality of the solution.

Main principle:

A metaheuristic is an exploration trajectory in the search space S



To move across S we use the concept of neighborhood all the points that can be reached from a point x .

$x_0 \rightarrow x_1 \in V(x_0) \rightarrow x_2 \in V(x_1) \rightarrow \dots$ until the stopping condition

\uparrow
initial solution

- Voisins trouvés via une transformation élémentaire (changement de bit, échange de valeur ..)

Population metaheuristics

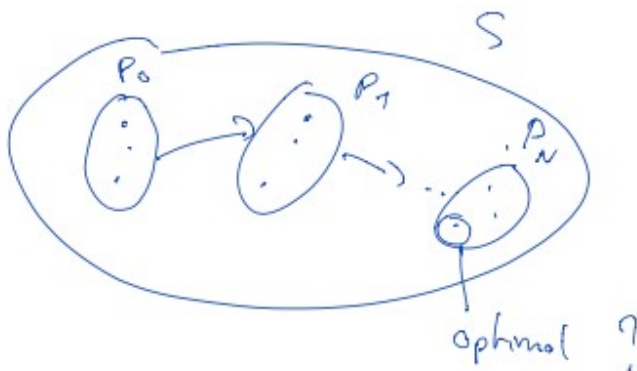
So far we assumed that at each iteration we consider only one possible solution:

$$x_0 \rightarrow x_1 \in V(x_0) \rightarrow x_2 \in V(x_1), \dots$$

But we could also consider a population of solutions:

$$P_0 = \{x_1^{(0)}, x_2^{(0)}, \dots, x_n^{(0)}\}$$

M possible
solution at
iteration 0



3- The space of permutations

4- Complexity and the need for metaheuristics, exploration versus

Exploitation

- 2 mechanisms : diversification and exploration

One is about trying various regions of the search space and the other is about improving locally the quality of the solution.

-To solve an optimisation problème, we need an efficient algorithm in term of exécution time and memory usage

Complexity classes :

Class P : There is an algorithm that solves the problem in a polynomial time $T(n) = O(n^m)$

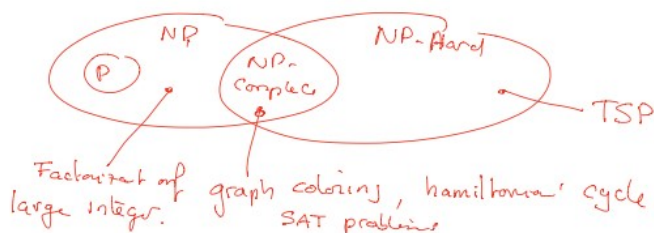
Class NP : Problems for which a solution can be checked in a polynomial time.

Thus $P \subseteq NP$

Class NP-hard : Those are problems whose solution can be used to solve any NP problem up to a polynomial additional time.

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Class NP-complete Are problems that are both in NP and in NP-hard.



Typically NP-hard and NP-complete problems can be solved by exponential algorithms.

-NP-hard and NP-complete problems can be solved by exponential algorithms

-example: Hamilton cycle

Find a path that goes through all nodes once and only once

Can use the tsp (traveling salesman) algo to solve it.

Algo is NP-hard because one cannot check in a polynomial time whether a tour is really the shortest.

We want to find ways to solve NP-hard optimization problems.

5- Random search, random walk, hill climbing

- Random walk: pick a neighbor at random, disregarding its fitness.
- Random search: pick at random a successor in S
- Hill climbing: take the best of the neighbors
- Stochastic hill climbing: pick randomly a neighbor with probability according to fitness value,

6- NK-problems: motivation, definition, goal.

5) NK-Landscape

Inspired by a biological problem: genetic regulatory networks.
S. Kauffman formulate this problem in a mathematical way.

Consider N persons with two possible commercial strategies: $x_i = 0, x_i = 1 \quad i = 1, \dots, N$

The success of these strategies depend of the choice of strategy of the people one is interacting with.
(That is whether people compete or collaborate)

The profit of agent i is some function f_i which depends on x_i and that of its neighbors

$$f_i(\underbrace{x_i, x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \dots}_{\substack{\text{K arguments} \\ \text{neighbors}}})$$

The problem is specified once the f_i are given, as well as K, N

We want to maximize

$$F = \sum_{i=1}^N f_i \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{the profit of} \\ \text{the population.} \end{array}$$

Our main interest with NK-problems is to be able to generate synthetic problems of increasing difficulty. (as N and K increase, it become more and more difficult to solve)

Example MaxOne problem.

Find a chain of N bits that maximize the number of ones.

Obvious solution: $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N) = \overline{\overline{111 \dots 1}}$
 $\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{N \text{ times.}}$

$$f_i(x_i, \dots) = x_i \quad K=1$$

$$F = \sum_{i=1}^N f_i = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$$

$$F = N$$

Another example

$$x = \underline{x_1 x_2} \dots x_N \quad f_i(x_{i-1}, x_i, x_{i+1}) \quad K=3$$

f_i is max for 111 then it is a trivial solent
 But if f_i is large for 101 and small for 010
 then the chain 101010101

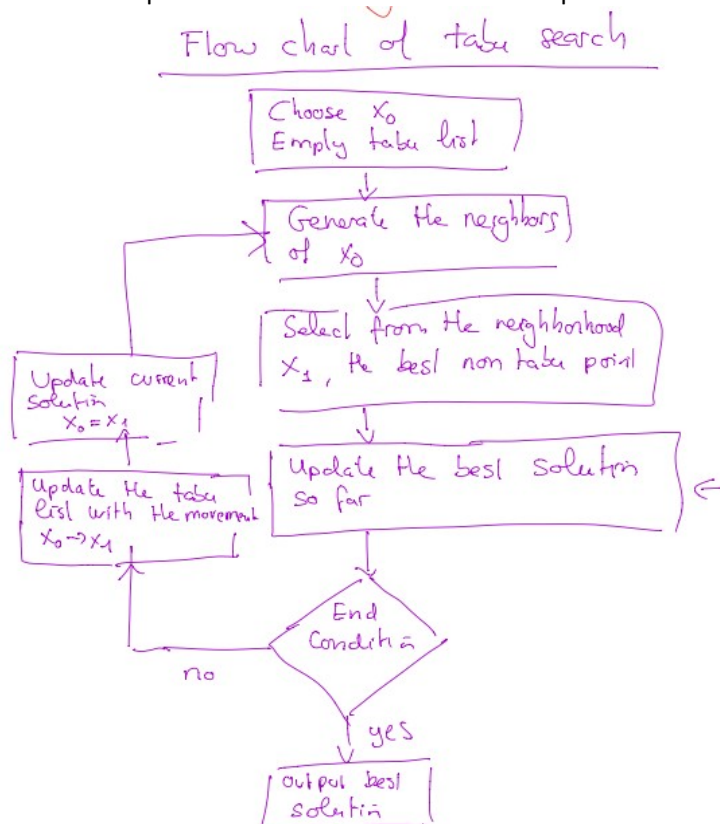
	f
000	x
001	x
010	x
011	x
	⋮
111	

7- Tabu Search: main principles and convergence

- adapted to quadratic assignment problems(QAP)
- explore the space neighbor to neighbor:

$$x_i \rightarrow x_{i+1} \in \mathcal{V}(x_i)$$

- we use the best non tabu x
- if more than one has the best taboo we choose at random
- the actual solution can be worst than the best one
- we use a taboo list to prevent the exploration to return to an already visited point
- taboo list not permanent because we could end up without successors



Convergence :

- is a property to find the global optimum.
- tabu will converge if :
 - S is finite
 - The neighborhood is symmetric x appartenant a $\mathcal{V}(y) \Leftrightarrow y$ appartenant a $\mathcal{V}(x)$
 - Any y appartenant au search space peut être atteint par un nombre fini d'étapes
 - Une recherche tabu qui memorize tout les point dans la tabu list mais qui peut recommencer depuis le point le plus ancien de la liste convergera
- en conclusion tabu search va chercher tout l'espace mais de manière plus efficace.(temps exponentiel attendu)

8- The different ways to implement the tabu list.

-management a short term memory and a long term memory

-short term memory

- use a finite size tabu list and kept the most recent and kick the old ones

- associate a duration to the tabu items(banned time or tenure time)

No known optimal value for the tenure time,determined empirically

-long term memory used to prevent that some movement are never used

Record statistical information on the called movement

-again no known optimal on the way to do it

-short list = exploration

-long list = exploitation

-we can use aspiration(if a neighbor has the best fitness we use it even if it is in the taboo list)

9- Quadratic Assignment Problems

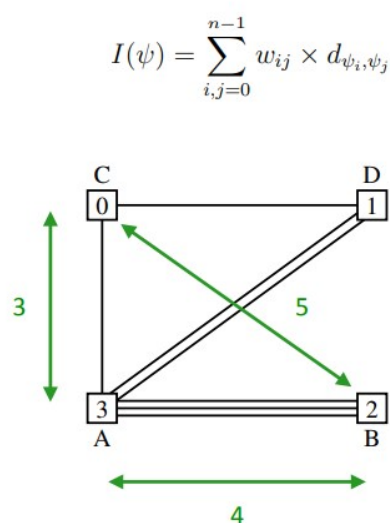
-Definiton: Combinatorial optimizatn problem

-Example: Find the best way to assign a set of n facilities (factories) to a set of n locations (cities) accordingly to distances and flows (amount of things that needs to be moved)

- minimize the sum of products<<distance flow>>

Research space: Permutations \rightarrow Size $n! = n \times (n - 1) \times \dots \times 1$

- **Example:** Find the best location (A, B, C, D) for each facility (0, 1, 2, 3) in order to minimize



distances

$$d_{AB} = d_{CD} = 4$$

$$d_{AC} = d_{BD} = 3$$

$$d_{AD} = d_{BC} = 5$$

flows

$$w_{13} = 2$$

$$w_{01} = w_{03} = 1$$

$$w_{23} = 3$$

Fitness $I(\psi) = w_{01} \times d_{\psi_0 \psi_1} + w_{03} \times d_{\psi_0 \psi_3} + w_{13} \times d_{\psi_1 \psi_3} + w_{23} \times d_{\psi_2 \psi_3}$

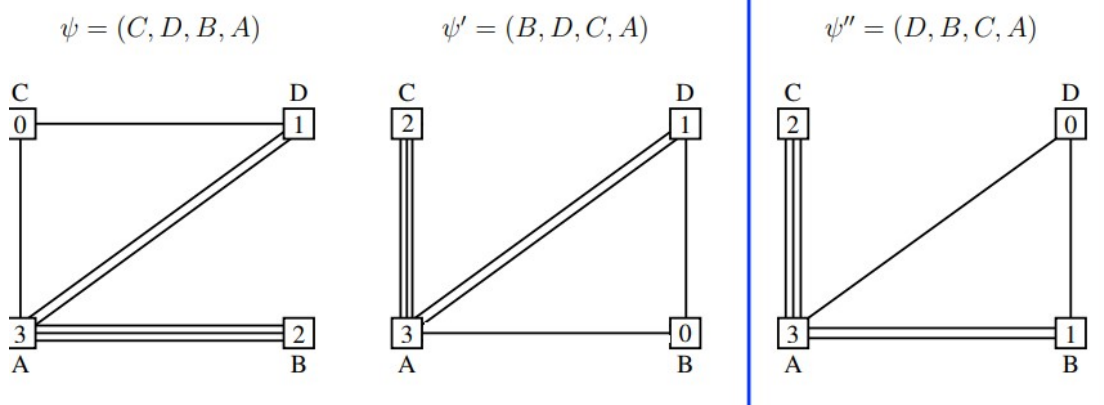
Here $\psi = (C, D, B, A)$

Hence

$$I(\psi) = d_{CD} + d_{AC} + 2d_{AD} + 3d_{AB} = 29$$

- **Neighborhood:** Permutations of two elements (2-swap)

$$\rightarrow n(n-1)/2 \text{ neighbors}$$

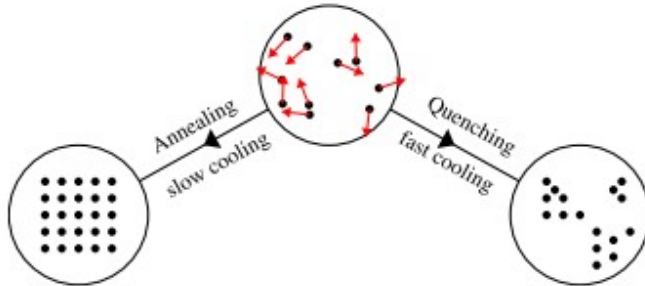


10- Simulated annealing, main principles and the Metropolis rule

-metaheuristique inspired by nature

-annealing is a process by which a sample is cooled down slowly to reach a minimum energy

-Quenching is a quick cooling down-> reaches a local minimum of energy



-We want to find the global minimum of the fitness function

-we have to specify the search space and the neighborhood

-we choose a random initial configuration

-At each iteration :

3. **Elementary Configuration Update:** Randomly transform the solution.

4. **Acceptance/Rejection rule:** Keep the update with the probability given by the metropolis rule (figure 2):

$$P = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \Delta E < 0 \\ e^{-\frac{\Delta E}{T}} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} = \min(1, e^{-\frac{\Delta E}{T}}) \quad (2)$$

5. **Equilibrium conditions:** Consider that equilibrium is achieved if either $12n$ perturbations were accepted or $100n$ perturbations were attempted.

6. **Temperature Reduction:** Use the following simple rule:

$$T_{k+1} = 0.9T_k \quad (3)$$

7. **Freezing conditions:** The system is considered frozen if there were no fitness improvement during the last 3 temperature steps.

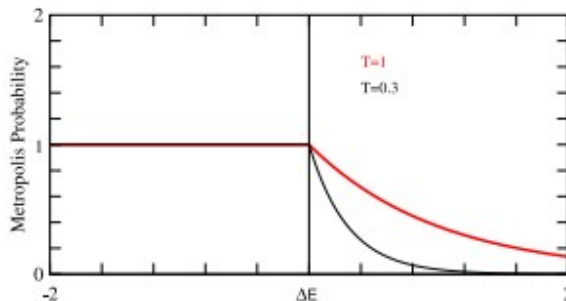


Figure 2: Metropolis rule of equation (2), taken from [1].

11- Simulated annealing, flow chart and choice of parameters

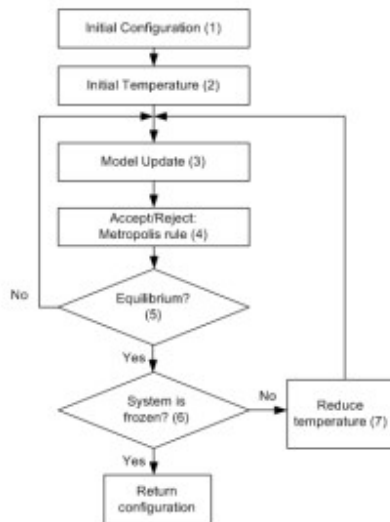


Figure 3: Simulated Annealing (SA) diagram.

- Initial temperature:** Starting from the initial configuration, compute 100 transformations (permuting two cities) and compute the average energy change $\langle |\Delta E| \rangle$, where $\Delta E = E(x_{\text{neighbor}}) - E(x)$. The initial temperature then can be computed using the equation:

$$e^{\frac{-\langle \Delta E \rangle}{T_0}} = 0.5. \quad (1)$$

Choose an initial acceptance rate T_0 of bad solution (depending of fitness)
 Ex : $t_0 = 0.2$ if initial condition is good. Choose 0.5 if poor

-Temperature reduction

We decrease the temperature according to a geometric law

$$T_{k+1} = 0.9T_k$$

-Termination condition

No improvement during the last 3 iterations

-validation

Lancer quelque fois et vérifier si la valeur est constante

12- Convergence of simulated annealing: how to formulate it, how to compute it.

- metaheuristic that can be analysed mathematically
- result converge in probability, it gives a solution arbitrary close to the global optimum with a probability arbitrary close to 1

Conditions:

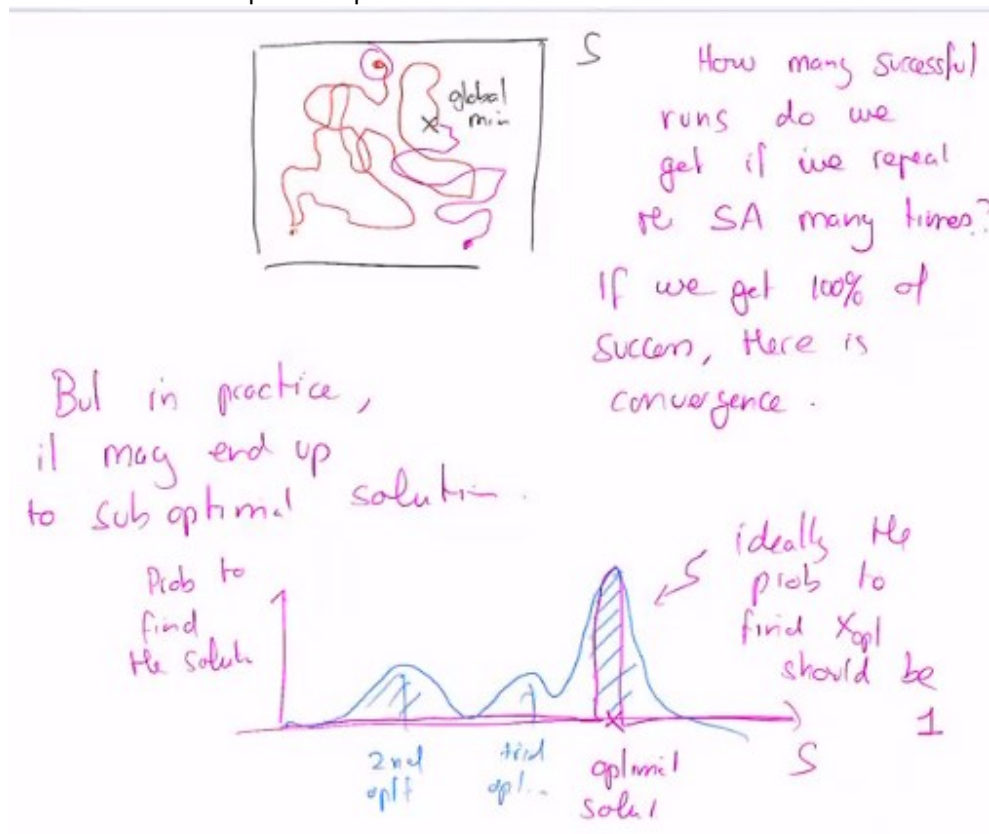
- movements are reversible
- any point in S can be reached in a limited number of movements
- temperature should not decrease too fast

$$T(t) \sim \frac{C}{\log t} \quad \text{for } t \gg 1$$

C is an unknown constant that reflects the variation of E in S

- This schedule of temperature is too slow in practical problem ($\log(t)$)
- in practice change faster with the risk of no converging

Illustration with simple example:



We want to compute the probability $P(L, i)$ that the SA is at point $i \in S$ at iteration t

$$P(t+1, j) = \sum_i P(t, i) \widetilde{W}_{ij}(t)$$



W_{ij} is the transition probability from i to j . Since we have

100 possible values of i and j , W_{ij} is a 100x100 matrix.

↑ ↑

|S| |S|

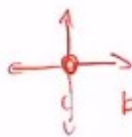
|S| |S|

For SA, we have:

$$W_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } j \text{ is not a neighbor of } i \\ \frac{1}{k_{out}(i)} \times P_{\text{metropolis}}(E_i, E_j, T(t)) & \end{cases}$$

↑
number of neighbors of i

↑
 $\min(e^{-(E_j - E_i)/T(t)})$



$k_{out}(i) = 4$
in our example.

We also add the following

$$W_{ii} = 1 - \sum_{j \text{ neighbor of } i} W_{ij}$$

We want to compute $P(t, k)$ for $k \in S'$ as a function of $P(0, e)$ the initial probability to start the search from $e \in S'$

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(t, k) &= \sum_j P(t-1, j) W_{j,k}(t-1) \\
 &= \sum_{\textcircled{j}} \sum_i \underbrace{P(t-2, i) W_{i,\textcircled{j}}(t-2) W_{\textcircled{j},k}(t-1)}_{\substack{[W(t-2) \times W(t-1)]_{ik} \\ \leftarrow \text{matrix product}}} \\
 &= \sum_i P(t-2, i) [W(t-2) \times W(t-1)]_{ik} \\
 &= \dots P(t-3)
 \end{aligned}$$

In the end we get:

$$P(t, k) = \sum_e P(0, e) \underbrace{\left[\prod_{t'=0}^{t-1} W(t') \right]_{ek}}_{\equiv W(0, t-1)} = \sum_e P(0, e) W(0, t-1)_{ek}$$

we can
compute it
with our example
↓

If $T(t=0)$ is large enough, we observe that all the rows of $W(0, t-1)$ are equal.

$$W(0, t-1)_{\ell k} = W(0, t-1)_{1k} \quad \forall \ell$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus } P(t, k) &= \sum_{\ell} P(0, \ell) W(0, t-1)_{\ell k} \\ &= W(0, t-1)_{1k} \underbrace{\sum_{\ell} P(0, \ell)} \end{aligned}$$

1 because we have to start somewhere.

$$= W(0, t-1)_{1k}$$

Thus $P(t, k)$ does not depend where the search was started: independence of the initial condition.

- we need a big temperature to be independent to the initial condition
- The temper should decrease slowly enough to converge only toward the global minimum

13- Ant-like algorithms: swarm intelligence, the pheromone trail, and observations about real ants.

-ants are able to solve optimization problems such as to find the shortest path between their nest and a food supply

Swarm intelligence : despite a limited individual capability, the collection of all individuals can produce behaviours that are more than the sum of individual capability

- collaboration key of success
- signature of complex systems
- collection of simple entities that interact
- Give the global emergent behavior which cannot be understood from the behavior of a single entity
- large scale spatial and temporal organisation
- no central control

Advantages

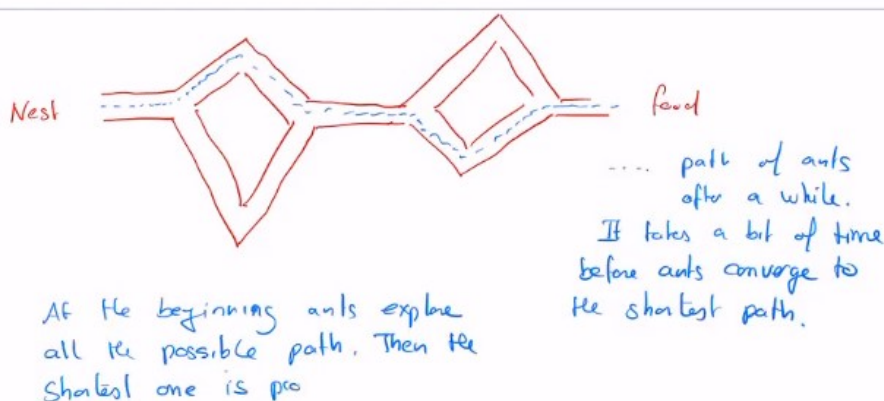
- robust to fault tolerance :
process continues even if an ant disappears or disfunctions
- adaptation to new situations
- natural parallelism

pheromone trail

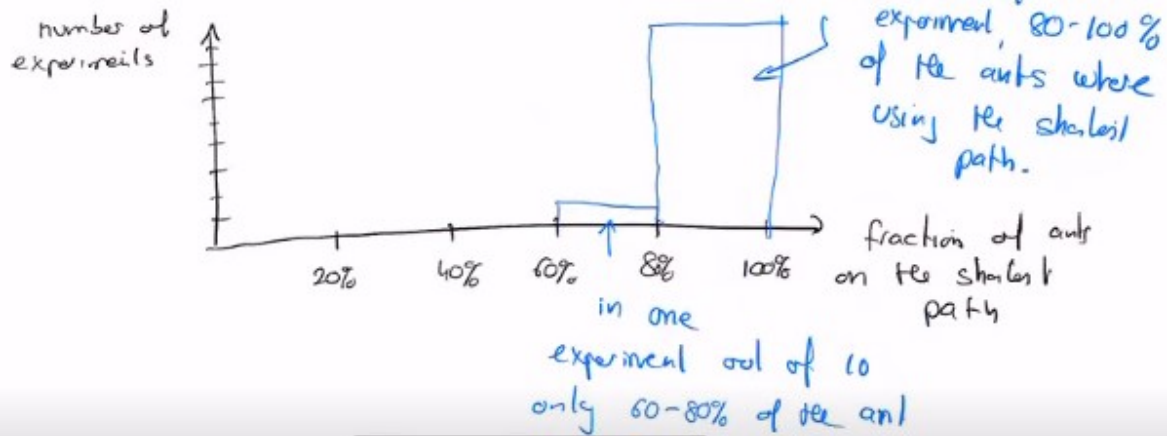
- how they find the shortest path ? pheromones
- attract other ants
- guide ants along paths
- move toward place where the smell is stronger
- evaporate after some time. Must be always used to stay

Experiment by Gross 1984

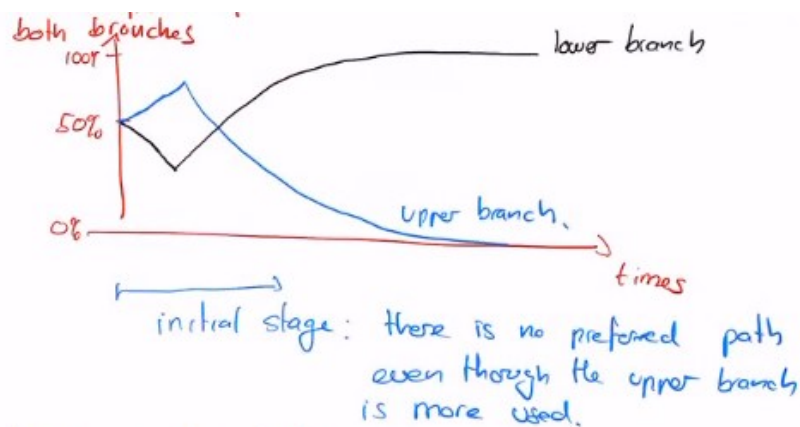
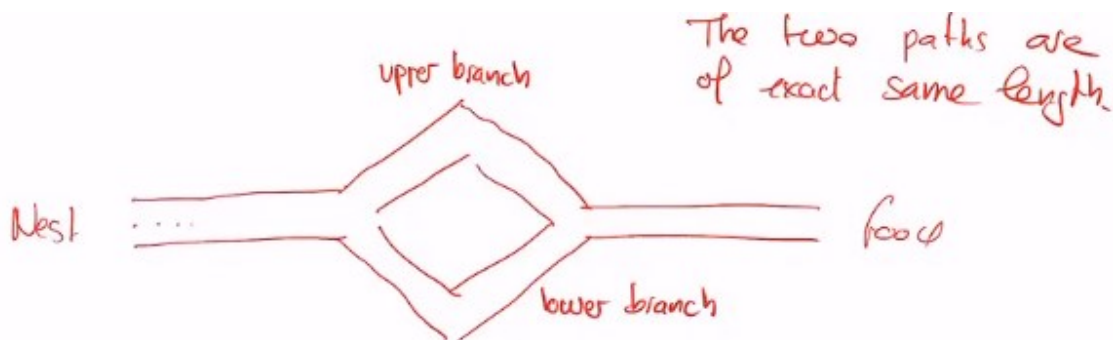
A lab experiment to observe ants find the shortest path



Shortest one is progressively selected.



- we start with a random path
- the lucky one find the food first and come back making the path stronger
- more ants pass and make it stronger
- The other path are gradually weaker



At some time, a fluctuation may reverse the situation and the other path get preferred.

14- Ant System: description of the algorithm for the TSP problem

- Adapt Pheromone Trail to solve TSP
- Visibility: $\eta_{ij} = \frac{1}{d_{ij}}$
- Trail Intensity: $\tau_{ij}(t)$
- m (# of ants)

Algorithm 1

```
1: for all  $t = 1, \dots, t_{max}$  do
2:   for all ant  $k = 1, \dots, m$  do
3:     choose a city at random
4:     while there exists a city not visited do
5:       choose a city  $j$  according to (1)
6:     end while
7:     mark a path according to (3)
8:   end for
9:   update all paths according to (2)
10:  Keep the best of solutions obtained at last iteration
11: end for
```

$$p_{ij}^k(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{(\tau_{ij}(t))^\alpha (\eta_{ij})^\beta}{\sum_{l \in J} (\tau_{il}(t))^\alpha (\eta_{il})^\beta} & \text{if } j \in J \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

$$\tau_{ij}(t+1) = (1 - \rho)\tau_{ij}(t) + \sum_{k=1}^m \Delta\tau_{ij}^k(t) \quad (2)$$

$$\Delta\tau_{ij}^k(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{Q}{L^k(t)} & \text{if ant } k \text{ used edge } (i, j) \text{ in its tour} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

Choice of Parameters

- $\alpha = 1, \beta = 5, \rho = 0.1$
- $Q = L_{nn}, \tau_0 = \frac{1}{L_{nn}}$
- m, t_{max}

15- Ant algorithms: the simple version in $\{0,1\}^N$, and discussion of Performance

(aller directement aux performances)

- Ant colony system : variation of AS
- AS failed to give better answer for large problems (not bigger than oliver30)
- ACS is a different way to choose the next town and update pheromone trail

A new parameter q_0 , whose value is between 0 and 1, is introduced such that in iteration $t + 1$ ant k , having reached city i , chooses the next city j according to the rule

$$j = \begin{cases} \operatorname{argmax}_{\ell \in J} [\tau_{i\ell}(t) \eta_{i\ell}^\beta] & \text{with probability } q_0 \\ u & \text{with probability } 1 - q_0 \end{cases} \quad (5.8)$$

where

$$\operatorname{argmax}_x f(x)$$

The quantity $u \in J$ is a randomly chosen city in the set J of allowed cities which is drawn with probability p_{iu}

$$p_{iu} = \frac{\tau_{iu}(t) \eta_{iu}^\beta}{\sum_{\ell \in J} \tau_{i\ell}(t) \eta_{i\ell}^\beta} \quad (5.9)$$

Thus, with probability q_0 the algorithm *exploits* the known information as it chooses the best edge available. Otherwise, with probability $1 - q_0$, the *exploration* of new paths is privileged.

Pheromone :

- each ant will deposit an amount $\rho \tau_0$ on each link it used
- at the same time an amount $1 - \rho$ of the existing pheromone will evaporate

$$\tau_{ij} = (1 - \phi) \tau_{ij}(t) + \phi \tau_0$$

τ_0 is here an intermediate value.

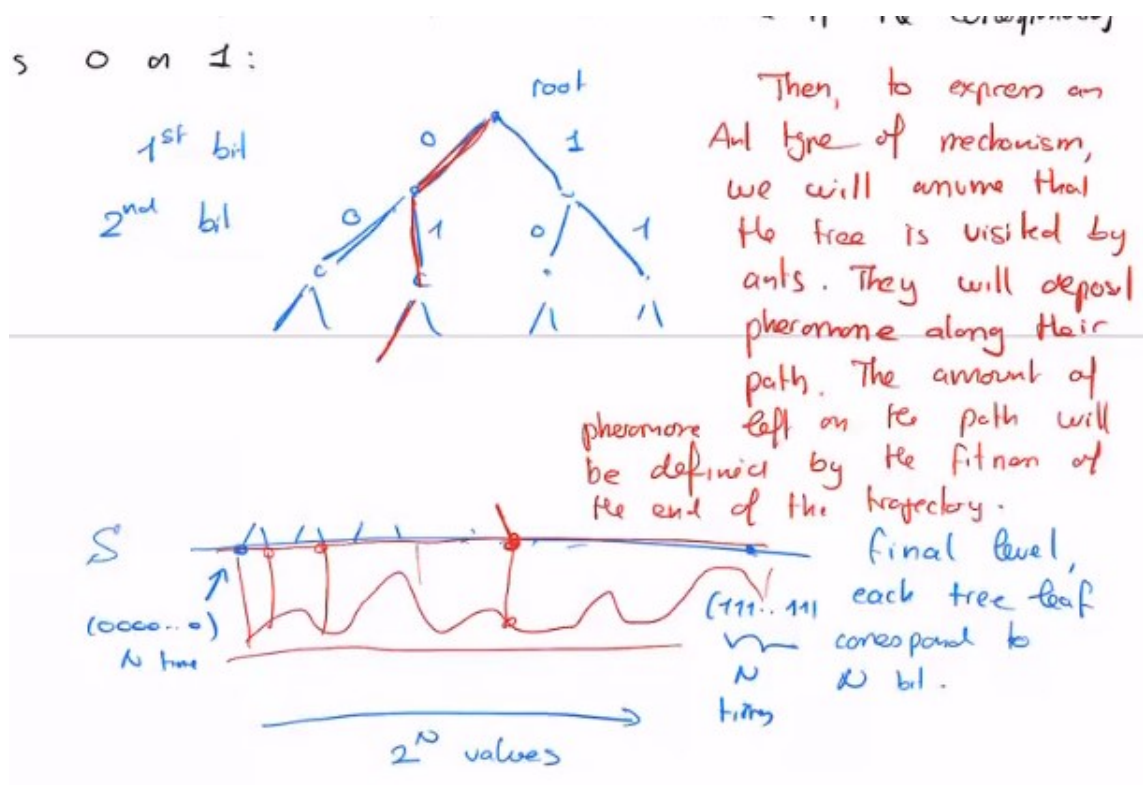
Then, one adds an amount $\Delta\tau = \frac{1}{L_{min}}$ only on the links that belong to the shortest path, of length L_{min} .

$$\tau_{ij}(t+1) = (1 - \rho) \tau_{ij} + \Delta\tau_{ij}$$

ρ is the evaporation, probably for empirical reason.

Version simple

- we consider a simple benchmark
- we propose another version of the algorithm.
- we want to find a bit string which maximize a bit function $S = \{0,1\}^N$
- we explore a search space in the form of a tree structure in which each level we decide if it corresponds to a bit 0 or 1



- comment on decide quelle chemin prendre ? le nombre de féromone a chaque branche
- avec une probabilité q_0 on choisie la meilleur des 2 branches.
- Avec une probabilité $1-q_0$ le choix sera au hasard pae rapport a :

$$P_{left} = \frac{\tau_{left}}{(\tau_{left} + \tau_{right})} \quad P_{right} = 1 - P_{left}.$$

Performance :

Statistiques sur 10 répétitions, chacune avec 6 fourmis, après 6 itérations.

effort computationnel	$6 \times 6 = 36$
taux de succès :	$7/10$
taux de succès à 3% de l'optimum	$9/10$

we explore
36 configurations
← success rate

What about a random search ?

Let us take 36 points of S , at random. What is the probability to find the optimal value within these 36 solutions?

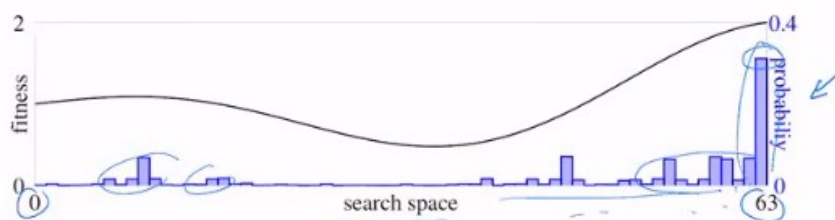
$p = 1/64$ is the prob to find the optimal value at random.
with 36 attempt, the prob to find it is

$$0.43 = 1 - (1-p)^{36} \text{ is the prob to find it at least once.}$$

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Performance de la recherche «Fourmi»

Probabilité d'atteindre chacun des 64 points de S , après 100 itérations.



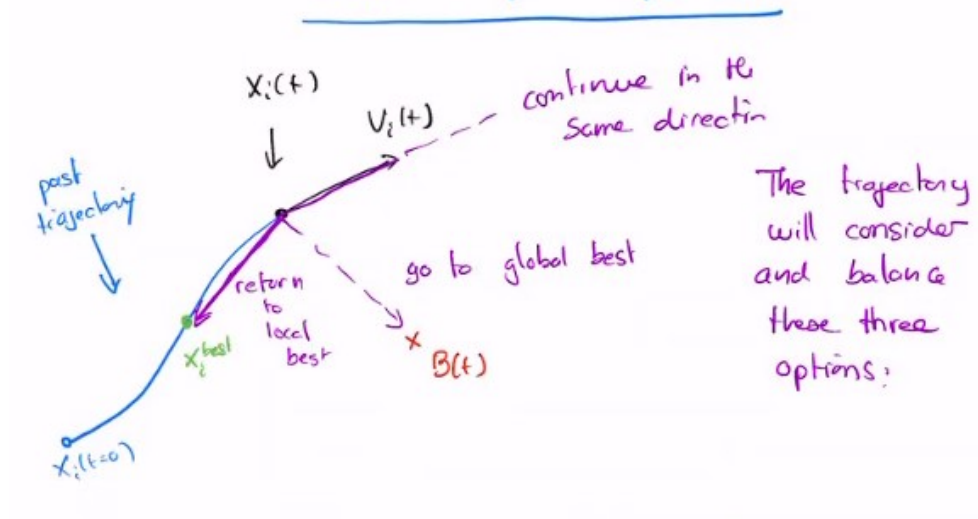
Ici on a pris $m = 6400$ fourmis tout au long des 100 itérations. Les valeurs indiquées de probabilités représentent la fraction des 6400 fourmis qui a atteint chaque point x à l'itération 100.

30% des fourmis ont trouvé l'optimum global

16- Particle Swarm Optimization: algorithm and example

- explore collectively the search space in order to find an optimal solution
- the individuals will follow the one who found the best spot and also trust their personal knowledge and explore zone that they think promising
- on espere que l'on va converger vers l'optimum global

Movement of the particles



$$V_i(t+1) = \omega V_i(t) + c_1 r_1(t+1) [x_i^{best}(t) - x_i(t)]$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} V_i(t+1) = \omega V_i(t) + c_1 r_1(t+1) [x_i^{best}(t) - x_i(t)] \\ \quad + c_2 r_2(t+1) [B(t) - x_i(t)] \\ x_i(t+1) = x_i(t) + V_i(t+1) \end{array} \right.$$

ω is a parameter $0 < \omega < 1$ is an inertia parameter.
How much of the previous velocity we will keep

- C_1 is called the cognitive coefficient as it takes into account the knowledge of the individual.
- C_2 is called the social coefficient as it considers the knowledge of the group, usually: $C_1 = C_2 = 2$
- r_1 and r_2 are random numbers uniformly distributed in $[0, 1]$

In PSO it is common to use a different random number for each component of the equation.

Algorithm 1 PSO algorithm

```

1: Initialize
    $t = 0$ ;
   Initialize randomly the positions  $s_0^i$  in the domain to be explored and
   the velocities  $v_0^i = 0$  for all particles  $i = 1..N$ .
2: Do
   For each particle :
     Calculate its fitness  $J_t^i$ ;
     If  $J_t^i \leq J_{best}^i$  then  $J_{best}^i = J_t^i, b_t^i = s_t^i$ 
   End for
   Calculate  $J_{best}^G = \min_i J_{best}^i$ , update  $b_t^G = b_t^{arg(\min_i J_{best}^i)}$ 
   For each particle :
     Randomly generate  $r_1, r_2$ 
     Update particle velocity by formula (1)
     Update particle position by formula (2)
   End for
    $t = t + 1$ ;
Until (end criteria are met)

```

- on a des boudarie (on peut rebondir ou se téléporter)
- on a une v_{max}
- on doit pouvoir définir la quantité : vitesse, addition, multiplication
- pas bon dans un espace de permutation \rightarrow continuous optimization instead of combinatorial optimization.

17- The Firefly algorithm

- inspired by PSO
- Behaviour of the firefly that emit light
- we play with the intensity of the light
- for continuous optimization but exist for discrete

- chaque luciole occupe une position $X_i(t)$ dans S à l'itération T
- chaque luciole a une solution possible
- plus sa fitness est forte plus elle brille
- l'intensité est :

$$I_i(t) = f(X_i(t))$$

intensity produced by firefly I_i fitness associated with its position

- on attire les lucioles dans les zones à haute fitness
- à chaque itération on considère toutes les paires de lucioles (i,j) avec $1 < i < n$ et $1 < j < n$, où n est le nombre de lucioles
- Si $I_i < I_j$ alors la luciole i bouge vers j .

Si $I_i < I_j$ alors la luciole i bouge vers j .

L'amplitude du mouvement est donnée par l'attractivité perçue, qui dépend essentiellement de la distance entre deux lucioles.

$$a_{ij} = \beta_0 \exp\left(-\frac{r_{ij}^2}{r}\right)$$

où β_0 est un coefficient, r_{ij} la distance euclidienne entre les lucioles i et j , et r un facteur qui dépend du choix de l'unité.

$r_{ij} \uparrow \Rightarrow \text{attractivité} \downarrow$ $r_{ij} = 0 \Rightarrow \text{attractivité} = \beta_0$ et on choisit souvent $\beta_0 = 1$.

Quand $I_j > I_i$ alors le mouvement est

$$X_i(t+1) = X_i + \underbrace{\beta_0 e^{-\frac{r_{ij}^2}{r}}}_{\text{fraction of distance between } i \text{ and } j \text{ which is traveled}} (X_j - X_i) + \underbrace{\alpha (rand_n() - 0.5)}_{\substack{\text{mesure l'amplitude} \\ \text{du mouvement aléatoire} \\ \alpha \in [0,1]}}.$$

α random movement
 $rand_n() \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Pseudo-code

```
Iteration = 0
initialize the position  $x_i$  at  $t=0$ 
intensity of light  $I_i = f(x_i)$ 
while Iteration < maxIter
  for  $i = 1$  to  $n$ 
    for  $j = 1$  to  $n$ 
      if  $I_i < I_j$  then
        firstly  $i$  moves towards  $j$  according to formula above  $x_i(t+1)$ 
        update distances  $r_j$  and  $I_i$ 
      end if
    end for
  end for
  end while
  Iteration + 1
```

18- Genetic algorithms: inspiration and algorithm.

- inspiré de l'évolution de darwin
- on représente les individus dans s par des chromosomes ou son patrimoine génétique
- le degré d'adaptation est donné par la fitness
- la population évolue de génération en génération
- elitisme : on remplace les moins bons individus par le meilleur
- la taille de la population est constante

Pseudo-code

```
generation = 0
initialize population (at random)
while (not end-condition)
    generation ++
    compute fitness of all individuals
    selection of best individuals
    crossover
    mutation
    insert best * keep the best in far
end while
output best
```

- condition d'arrêt itération ou plus d'amélioration

Soit $P(t)$ la population à génération t . On visualise l'évolution ainsi :

$$P(t) \xrightarrow{\text{selection}} P'(t) \xrightarrow{\text{crossover}} P''(t) \xrightarrow{\text{mutation}} P(t+1)$$

P, P', P'' et P''' de taille n constante.

- selection : on choisie les meilleur elements
- mutation : on applique une mutation aléatoire(exploration
- crossover : is considered as fovoring diversity althrough it act as intesification

19- The different selection operators

Selection proportionnel a la fitness :

-On tire n individus et on en tire avec la probabilité p_i :

$$p_i = \frac{f_i}{\sum_{j=1}^n f_j}$$

proportionnel a la fitness

-implique que l'on veut maximiser f

-ne sais pas si certains f sont négatifs (corrigé si on ajoute a toutes les valeurs la fitness $f^* > 0$ tq $f_i + f^* > 0$)

-tend a prendre les fitness semblables car p_i très peu sélective et donc tous les individus ont les mêmes chances d'être choisis

-rajoute de la sélection avec :

$$\bar{f}_i = f_i - \min_{j \in P(t)} f_j$$

Sélection par rang (stochastique)

On trie les individus selon la qualité de leur fitness, du meilleur au pire.

La sélection va alors choisir plus volontiers les individus de rang élevé, indépendamment de la valeur de fitness. Les avantages de cette méthode sont :

- Cela fonctionne pour tout les problèmes de minimisation et maximisation.
- Cela fonctionne si $f_i < 0$ et/ou $f_i > 0$
- Cela donne toujours une différence entre le meilleur individu et pire individu

Sélection par rang linéaire : (stochastique)

La probabilité de choisir un individu dépend linéairement de son rang.

La solution générale qui donne p_i est

$$p_i = \frac{1}{n} \left[\beta - 2(\beta-1) \frac{i-1}{n-1} \right], \quad i=1, \dots, n$$

$$p_1 = \frac{\beta}{n} \leq 1, \beta < 1$$

$$p_n = \frac{2-\beta}{n} \leq 1, \beta \leq 2$$

$$0 \leq p_i \leq 1 \quad 1 \leq \beta \leq 2$$

β est le nombre de copies attendu du meilleur individu dans P' et est un paramètre libre, avec contrainte p_1 et p_n .

ex: $\beta = n \times p_1$ (soit) après n tirages aléatoires avec remise, le nombre de copies de 1

Il est aussi possible de faire une sélection par rang logarithmique.

-Sélection par tournois

20- The takeover time in genetic algorithms: goal, definition, value for tournament selection.

-on veut savoir encombien de génération le processus de selction aura trouvé le meilleur individue
-takeover time : temps pour lequel le meilleur individue envahisse toute la population dans le ca sou le crossover et la mutation sont arrêtées.mesure l'efficacité de la selection et aussi la perte de densité

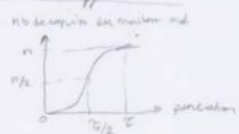
dans le cas ou le crossover et la mutation sont arrêtés

de la sélection et aussi de la perte de diversité

On note τ le takeover time. Si τ petit, la sélection est de forte intensité.

τ long, la diversité reste longtemps donc donne plus d'opportunité pour l'exploration.

τ short, convergence prématurée.



The graph shows the takeover time τ on the x-axis and the number of copies of the best individual n on the y-axis. A sigmoid curve starts at the origin and approaches n as τ increases. The curve passes through the point $(\tau/2, n/2)$.

-nous somme intéressé par la relation entre le takeover time et la taille de la population

On verra que souvent τ est proportionnel à $\log n$. Si on veut décrire l'évolution du nombre de copies du meilleur individu $m(t)$, on peut écrire la fonction logistique:

$$\frac{dm}{dt} = \alpha \frac{m}{n} \left(1 - \frac{m}{n}\right)$$

$n = \frac{m}{\frac{m}{n}}$ nb individus

$\frac{dm}{dt}$ probabilité de choisir meilleur individu

$\left(1 - \frac{m}{n}\right)$ La probabilité qu'il y ait encore de la place pour augmenter le nombre de copies

$\tau \sim \log n$

Cette équation peut être trouvée avec la sélection proportionel et le tournois

• Sélection par tournois:

La probabilité de ne pas choisir le meilleur individu : $1 - m/n$

La probabilité de ne pas avoir le meilleur individu dans un tournoi de taille k : $(1 - m/n)^k$

\Rightarrow Probabilité que le meilleur individu soit présent dans le tournoi : $1 - (1 - m/n)^k$

Donc $m(t+1) = n (1 - (1 - m/n)^k) \geq n (1 - (1 - m/n)^2)$ si souvent sélection $k \geq 2$ $(m/n)^k \leq (m/n)^2$

$$= n [1 - 1 + 2m/n - m^2/n^2]$$

$$= 2m + m^2/n$$

Avec n le nombre de tournois, on a :

$$m(t+1) \geq m(t) + \frac{m^2(t)}{n} = m(t) \left[1 + \frac{m(t)}{n}\right] \leadsto \frac{dm}{dt} = m(1 - m/n) \text{ with } \alpha = 1$$

$\Rightarrow \tau = \ln(n-1) / \alpha$, τ max quand $\alpha=1$ que $\alpha = \Delta/f_1 \leq 1$

Plus lent que proportionnelle fitness même si les deux sont $O(\log n)$

21- Genetic Programming: goal, fitness evaluation, function and terminal

Sets

- on applique le principe de l'évolution génétique avec des programmes informatiques
- on veut trouver un programme qui résolve un problème donné
- on a une population de programmes que l'on va sélectionner, croiser et muter.
- on a un training sur lequel les input output souhaités sont connus
- langage robuste aux langages génétiques 2 choix : en arbre ou en stack
- qualité déterminée sur un ensemble d'apprentissages

$$A = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_k, y_k)\} \quad \text{training set}$$

Alors, la fitness f est $f(p) = \sum_{i=1}^k (p(x_i) - y_i)^2$ qu'on souhaite minimiser

Si on calcule la fitness comme le nombre de réponses correctes dans l'ensemble A , alors on maximise.

Function set et terminal set : L'espace de programmes qu'on peut construire est spécifié par deux ensembles :

- F : l'ensemble de noeuds fonctions ex: $\{+, -, \times, /, \{AND, OR, NOT\}\}$
- T : l'ensemble de noeuds terminaux (les feuilles : variables et constantes) ex: $\{A, B, C, D, \text{bool}, 2.71\}$

$$\rightarrow A = \{(A_1, B_1, C_1, D_1), y_1, \dots, (A_k, B_k, C_k, D_k), y_k, \dots\}$$

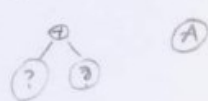
22- Genetic Programming: tree representation, initialization, crossover, mutation, and bloat.

-population initial choisie au hasard

-on choisie au hasard soit dans T soit dans F

• Si on a F, il faut tirer de la même façon autant de nouveaux éléments dans F ou T qu'il y a d'augment

• Si on a T, la branche s'arrête



-on tire un élément F avec probabilité p et on tire un élément t avec une probabilité $1-p$

- p affecte la profondeur de l'arbre

-On peut faire dépendre p de la valeur dans laquelle on se trouve

-Crossover : on échange les sous arbres choisis au hasard dans chacun des parents

-mutation : on choisie un nœud au hasard et on reconstruit aléatoirement le sous-arbre qui y est attaché

-probabilité de sélection pour mutation peut être choisie selon la profondeur du nœud pour éviter que les nœuds feuille soient majoritairement choisis

Bloat : Mutation et crossover ont tendance à créer des programmes de plus en plus grands.

Bloat est déhimental du point de vue efficacité CPU (plus bgs à évaluer) et mémoire.

Complexité ainsi créée n'est pas toujours bénéfique. Certains sous-arbres compliqués ont des outputs simples.

On peut forcer une profondeur maximum et couper ce qui dépasse de interdire des mutations/crossover qui augmentent la taille.

Il est souvent nécessaire de simplifier les arbres pour éliminer les parties inutiles.

23- Genetic Programming: the stack-based, instruction-driven representation.

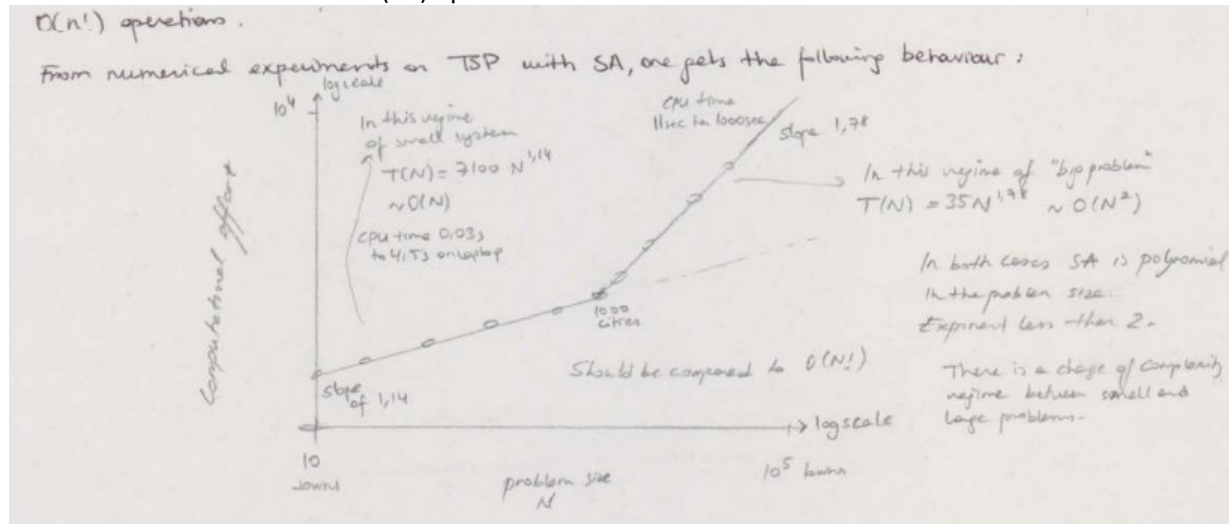
24- Evolution Strategy: individual and population versions.

25- Performance of metaheuristics: examples, specificities of the performance evaluation, metrics, approach, "No Free Lunch" theorem.

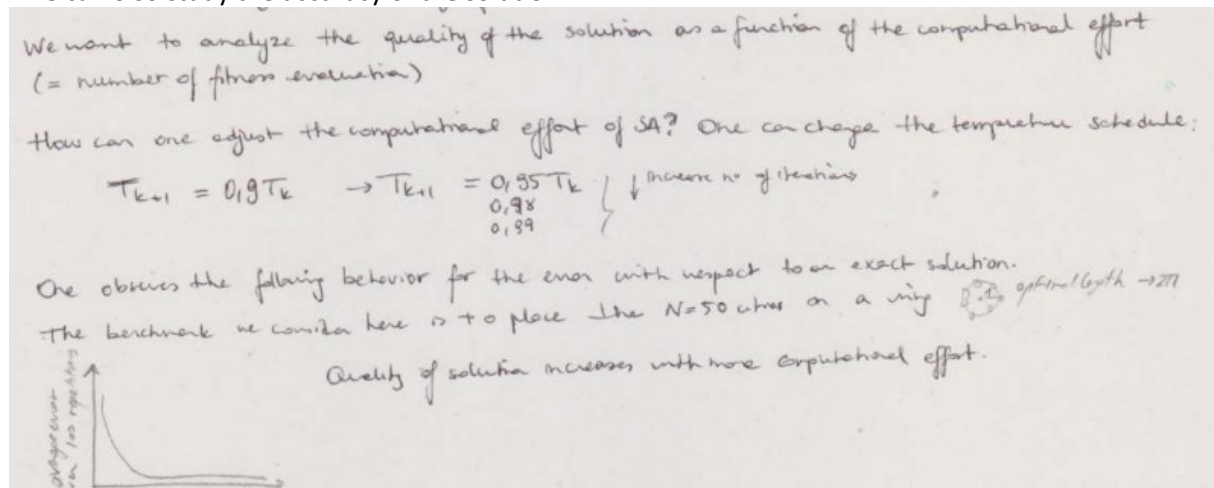
- no exact, no guarantee quality of the solution
- stochastic and do not have twice the same behaviour

Ex :TSP with SA

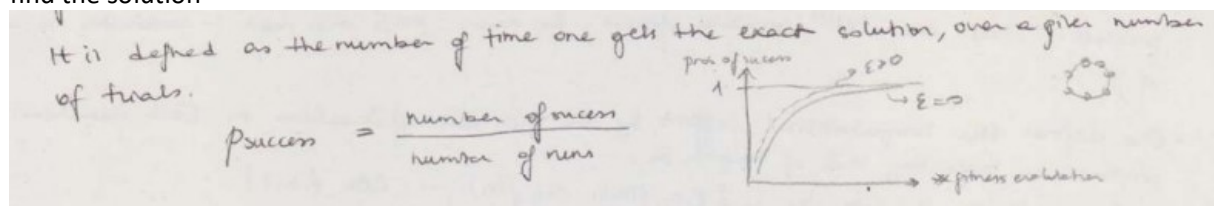
- first question the computation with the problem size
- Sa give an answer after no improvement after 3 change of temperature
- exhaustive search would take $O(n!)$ opé



- We can also study the accuracy of the solution



-the average the error we can also be use the probability of success as a métríc of the capability of SA to find the solution



Principle of evaluation :

-need a benchmark : real problem or synthetic one

-different metaheuristic extracted

-metrics :

Metric : - Computational effort : CPU time, or preferably the work done : \propto fitness evaluation
- Quality of the solution : average error or a probability of success at a given accuracy
- Complexity measures : we hope that the metaheuristic is not exponentially slow.
Statistics : evaluation should be done on several repetition : $N \in [100, 1000]$
When comparing two metaheuristics, one needs statistical test to determine the relevance of the difference of performance.

No free lunch theorem :

Quel est la meilleur métaheuristique ?

Peu on dire que un metaheuristique A étant meilleur que B dans un problème veut dire que A est tout simplement meilleur ?

Le théorème indique :

-Une metaheuristique ne peut pas être meilleur qu'une autre dans tous les problèmes possibles

-si les performances sont composées de toutes les fonctions de fitness possible alors aucune metaheuristique ne gagne

-si A est bon dans un problème y il sera moins bon dans un problème z

-Hypothèses

-on a une fonction de fitness $f: S \rightarrow Y$ dans R mais Y est fini

• One considers fitness function $f: S \rightarrow Y \subseteq R$ but Y is finite too.
• All possible problems in S can be specified by selecting one fitness function among the possible. There are $|Y|^{|S|}$ possible fitness : for each $x \in S$ one needs to associate a value of Y
• One defines the computational effort by the number of iterations m . Each metaheuristic produces a trajectory in S of length m .
It gives a series of points $dm = \{x_1, f(x_1), x_2, f(x_2), \dots, x_m, f(x_m)\}$
• Let $P(dm | f, m, A)$ be the probability that dm contains the optimal solution of f using metaheuristic A .

Then the theorem states that :

$$\sum_f P(dm | f, m, A) = \sum_f P(dm | f, m, B) \quad \text{globally the performance of A and B are the same.}$$

So in theory no metaheuristic can be better than any other, if all possible problems are equally likely.

But in practice, not all possible problems are equally likely, and we still may think that some metaheuristics is better for a class of problem.

26- Phase transition in optimization problems: problem description and properties.

27- Phase transition in optimization problems: the RWSAT algorithm and its behavior.

0.3. Metaheuristics

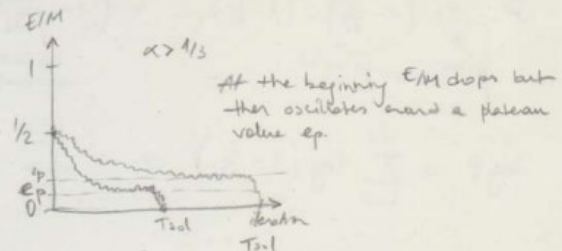
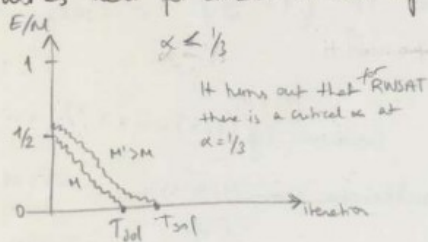
We consider a simple metaheuristics, called RWSAT for Random Walk SAT, to solve a k -XESAT problem, and we will analyze its behaviour as a function of the difficulty parameter α . We will see that there are critical values of α (for abrupt change in behavior). But these critical values are not α_c and α_d from theory. The metaheuristics fail much earlier.

RWSAT

- Initialize all variables at random.
- Compute E (how many eq. are not satisfied)
- $t = 0$
- while ($E > 0$ and $t \leq t_{max}$)
 - choose at random a non satisfied equation.
 - choose at random one of the 3 variable in this equation
 - change its value to its complement. \rightarrow by this change the equation is now satisfied.
 - compute E - $t = t + 1$
- end while
- print E, t

30

This works well for small values of α :



After a while, there might be a ~~difficult~~ fluctuation which is large enough to take E/M to zero, which ends the process.

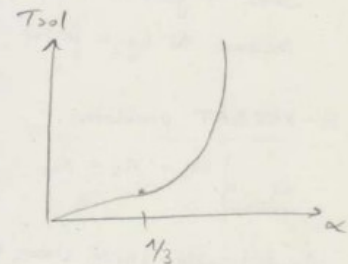
So we observe the following behavior:

- $\alpha < \alpha_c = 1/3$
 - \rightarrow constant which increases with α .
 - $\langle T_{sol} \rangle = N t_{sol} = O(N)$
 - average value to find solution

RWSAT has a linear time to solution

- $\alpha > \alpha_c = 1/3$
 - \rightarrow constant that increases with α .
 - $\langle T_{sol} \rangle = \exp(N t_{sol})$

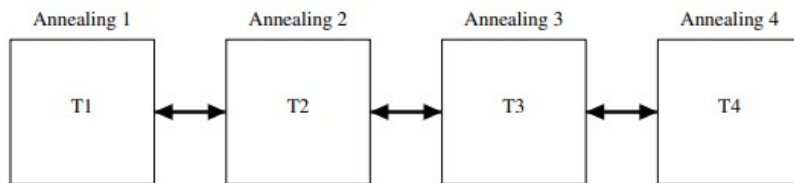
RWSAT is exponentially slow, no better than exhaustive search.



There is a phase transition in the complexity of RWSAT at $\alpha = \alpha_c$ (linear complexity to exponential complexity)

28- The parallel tempering.

- Parallel version of SA
- Come from physic
- we have several replicas of SA



- Each replica has a constant temperature
- all run in parallel and interact by exchanging configuration
- temperature chosen as : $t_1 < t_2 < t_3 < t_4 < \dots < t_h$
- neighboring systems can exchange their current solution according to a probability law
- with 2 temperatures with 2 different solutions c , we exchange solution with probability :

$$p_{ij} = \min(1, e^{-\Delta_{ij}})$$

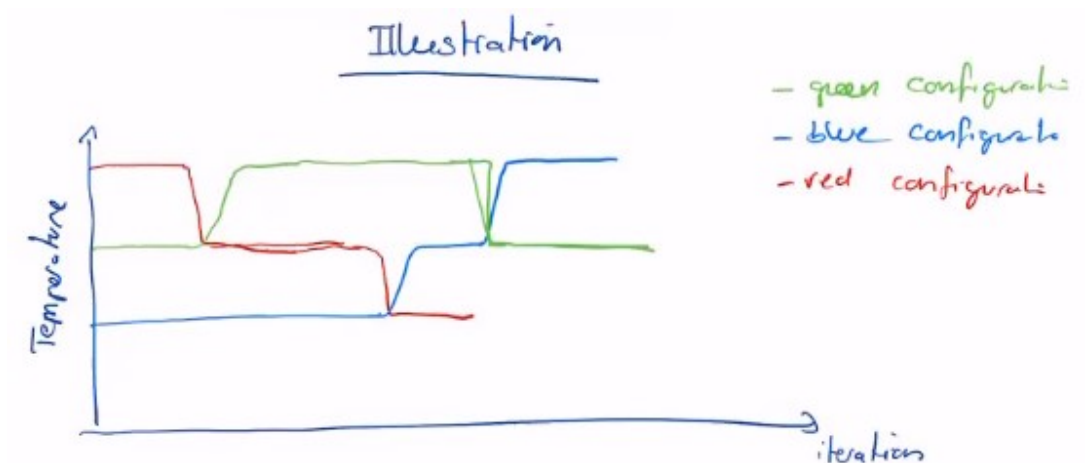
where

$$\Delta_{ij} = (E_i - E_j) \left(\frac{1}{T_j} - \frac{1}{T_i} \right)$$

- both systems see the same exchange probability

$$\text{If } T_i < T_j \text{ and } E_i > E_j, \Delta_{ij} \text{ is negative and } p_{ij} = 1$$

- means that good solution at high T will always exchange with a less good solution at lower temperature.
- inverse also possible
- the temperature schedule is distributed across replicas instead of iteration
- high temperatures explore other solutions and search space, low temperatures exploit one solution



Guiding parameters :

- How many sa ? usually $M = \sqrt{N}$ where N = problem size
- frequency of exchange config ? for instance when both systems have reached an equilibrium
- range of temperature ? t_1 small enough to allow convergence, t_n big enough to allow exploration

• These temperature can be fine tuned :

- if the exchange rate is too large ($> 2\%$)

one increase the temperature ^{between all systems} (difference)

by $\Delta T = 0.1 (T_{i+1} - T_i)$

- if the exchange rate is too low (less than $\frac{1}{2}\%$)
- all ΔT are decreased, by the same rule.