



中山大學  
SUN YAT-SEN UNIVERSITY

# Lecture 12

# Optimization Algorithms

## (I)

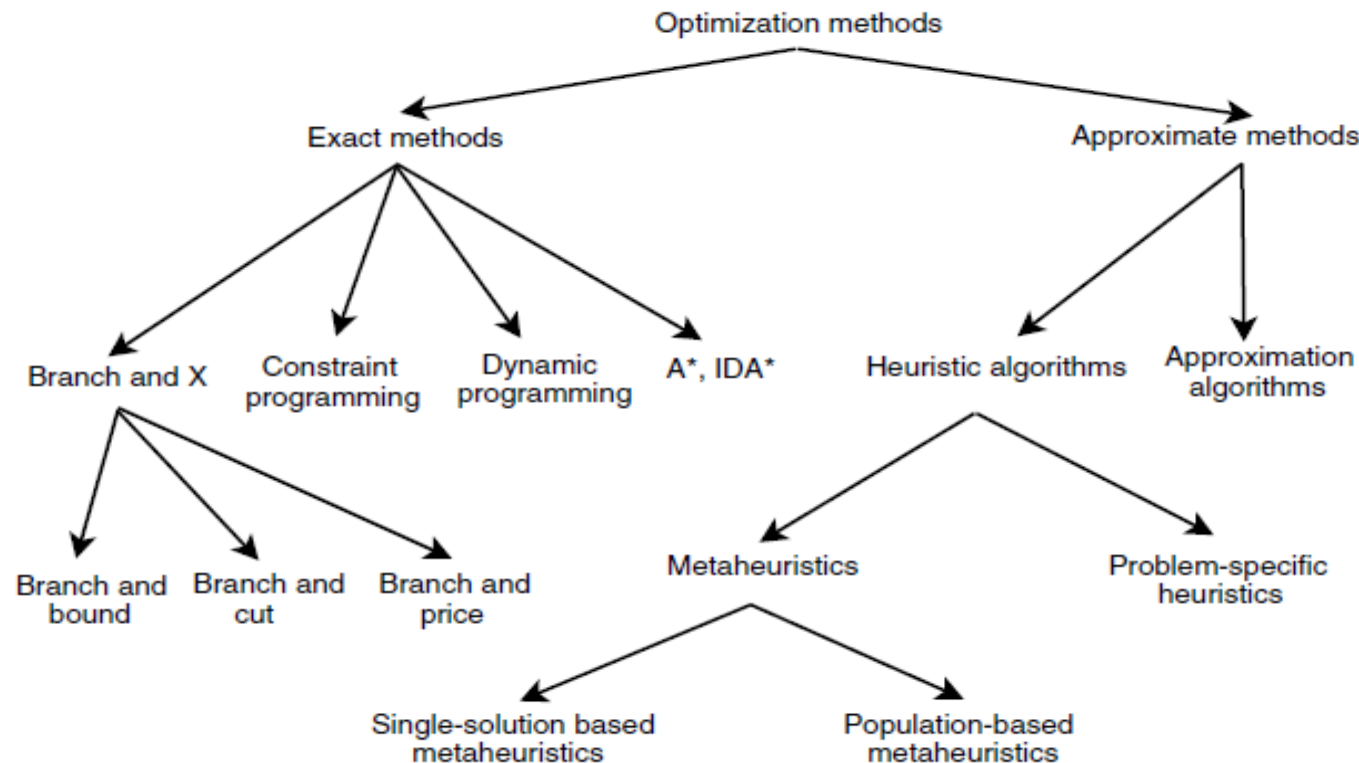
Algorithm Design

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# Classical Optimization Methods

- Exact methods obtain optimal solutions and guarantee their optimality.
- Approximate (or heuristic) methods generate high-quality solutions in reasonable time for practical use, but there is no guarantee of finding a global optimal solution.



# Approximate Methods

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- *Heuristics* find reasonably “good” solutions in a reasonable time.
- *Approximation algorithms* provide provable solution quality and provable run-time bounds.
- **Example**—Approximation for the bin packing problem.
  - [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bin\\_packing\\_problem](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bin_packing_problem)
  - Given a set of objects of different size and a finite number of bins of a given capacity.
  - The problem consists in packing the set of objects so as to minimize the number of used bins.

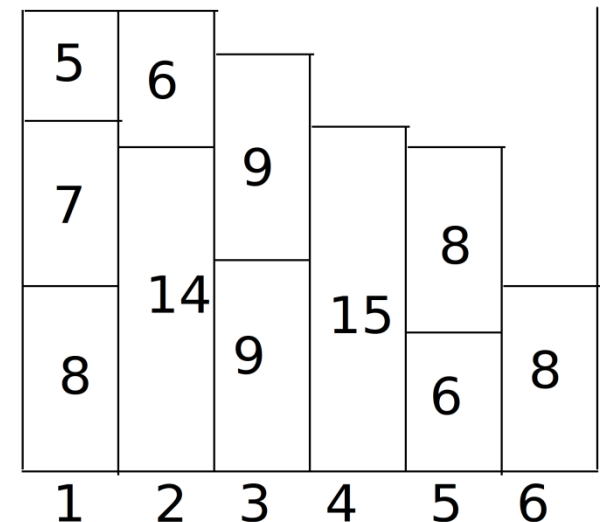
# Approximation for the bin packing problem

- The first fit (FF) approximation algorithm
  - places each item into the first bin in which it will fit.
  - If no bin is found, it opens a new bin and puts the item within the new bin.
  - has a time complexity of  $\Theta(n \cdot \log(n))$
  - has a worst bound of  $17 \cdot \text{opt}/10 + 2$

- Example

- Pack the following items in bins of size 20:

- 8 7 14 9 6 9 5 15 6 7 8



# Approximation factor

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- Prove: FF has an approximation factor of 2.
- Idea
  - If we have  $B$  bins, at least  $B - 1$  bins are more than half full.
  - Therefore, we have  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i > \frac{B-1}{2}V$
  - Because  $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i}{V}$  is a lower bound of the optimum value  $OPT$ , we get that  $B - 1 < 2OPT$  and therefore  $B \leq 2OPT$ .

# Approximation for the bin packing problem

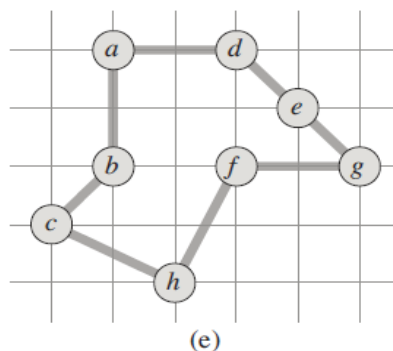
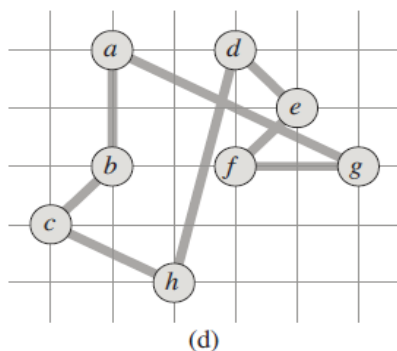
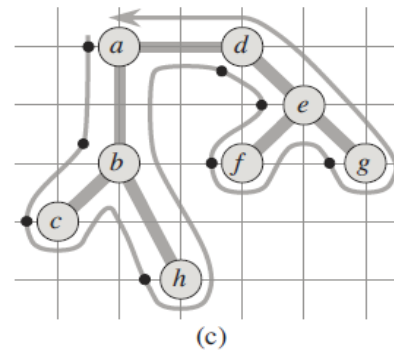
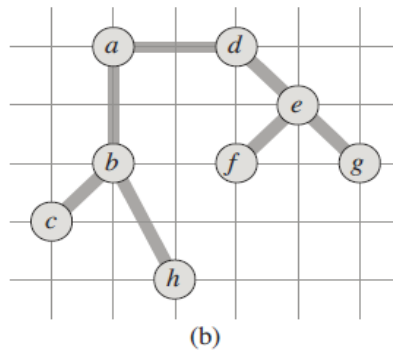
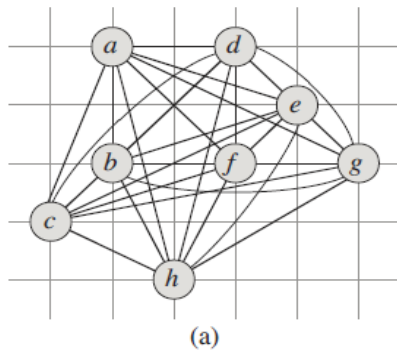
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- The first fit descending (FFD) approximation algorithm
  - first sorts the objects into decreasing order by size
  - places each item into the first bin in which it will fit
  - If no bin is found, it opens a new bin and puts the item within the new bin.
  - has a time complexity of  $\Theta(n \cdot \log(n))$
  - has a worst bound of  $11 \cdot \text{opt}/9 + 2$

# Approximation for the traveling salesman problem

APPROX-TSP-TOUR( $G, c$ )

- 1 select a vertex  $r \in G.V$  to be a “root” vertex
- 2 compute a minimum spanning tree  $T$  for  $G$  from root  $r$   
using MST-PRIM( $G, c, r$ )
- 3 let  $H$  be a list of vertices, ordered according to when they are first visited  
in a preorder tree walk of  $T$



# Approximation factor

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- Prove: APPROX-TSP-TOUR has an approximation factor of 2.
- Idea
  - Let  $H^*$  denote an optimal tour for the given set of vertices.
  - $T$  is the minimum spanning tree.
  - $C(T) \leq C(H^*)$
  - $W$  is the full walk traversing every edge of  $T$  exactly twice.
  - $C(W) = 2C(T) \leq 2C(H^*)$
  - Let  $H$  be the cycle corresponding to this preorder walk.
  - $C(H) \leq C(W) \leq 2C(H^*)$



# Heuristic vs. Metaheuristic

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- ***Heuristic***

- is origin in the old Greek word *heuriskein*, which means the art of discovering new strategies (rules) to solve problems.

- ***Meta***

- A Greek word, means ``upper level methodology’’.

- ***Meta-heuristic*** (元启发式)

- can be defined as upper level general methodologies that can be used as guiding strategies in designing underlying heuristics to solve specific optimization problems.

# Metaheuristics

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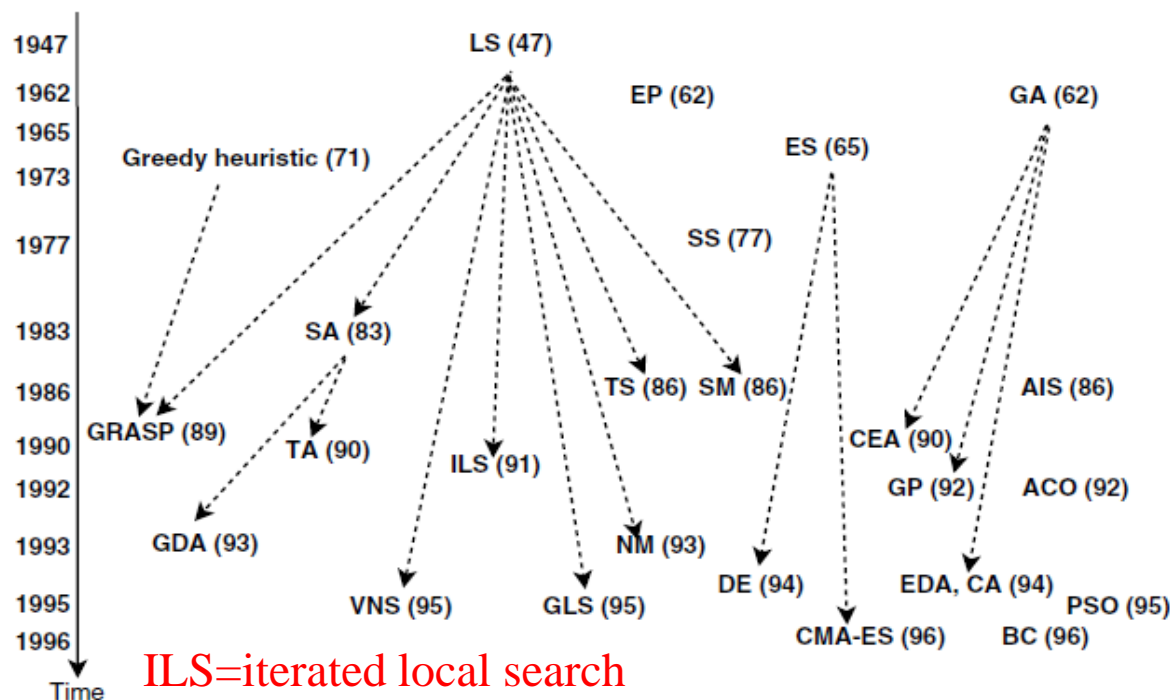
- Metaheuristics are able to tackle large-size problem instances by delivering satisfactory solutions in a reasonable time.
- There is no guarantee to find global optimal solutions or even bounded solutions.
- Metaheuristics are efficient and effective to solve large and complex problems.

# Application of metaheuristics

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- Application of metaheuristics falls into a large number of areas; some of them are:
  - Engineering design, topology optimization and structural optimization in electronics and VLSI, aerodynamics, fluid dynamics, telecommunications, automotive, and robotics.
  - Machine learning and data mining in bioinformatics and computational biology, and finance.
  - System modeling, simulation and identification in chemistry, physics, and biology; control, signal, and image processing.
  - Planning in routing problems, robot planning, scheduling and production problems, logistics and transportation, supply chain management, environment, and so on.

# Genealogy (家谱) of Metaheuristics



ILS=iterated local search

NM=noisy method

PSO=particle swarm optimization

SA=simulated annealing

SM=smoothing method

SS=scatter search

TA=threshold accepting

TS=tabu search

ACO=ant colonies optimization

AIS=artificial immune systems

BC=bee colony

CA=cultural algorithms

CEA=coevolutionary algorithms

CMA-ES=covariance matrix

adaptation evolution strategy

DE=differential evolution

EDA=estimation of distribution algorithms

EP=evolutionary programming

ES=evolution strategies

GA=genetic algorithms

GDA=great deluge

GLS=guided local search

GP =genetic programming

GRASP=greedy adaptive search procedure

VNS =variable neighborhood search

# Classification of Metaheuristics

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- **Nature inspired versus non-nature inspired:**
  - evolutionary algorithms and artificial immune systems from biology;
  - ants, bees colonies, and particle swarm optimization from swarm intelligence into different species;
  - and simulated annealing from physics.

# Classification of Metaheuristics

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- **Deterministic versus stochastic:**
  - A deterministic metaheuristic solves an optimization problem by making deterministic decisions (e.g., local search, tabu search).
  - In stochastic metaheuristics, some random rules are applied during the search (e.g., simulated annealing, evolutionary algorithms).
  - In deterministic algorithms, using the same initial solution will lead to the same final solution, whereas in stochastic metaheuristics, different final solutions may be obtained from the same initial solution.

# Classification of Metaheuristics

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- **Population-based search versus single-solution based search:**
  - Single-solution based algorithms (e.g., local search, simulated annealing) manipulate and transform a single solution during the search while in population-based algorithms (e.g., particle swarm, evolutionary algorithms) a whole population of solutions is evolved.
  - These two families have complementary characteristics: single-solution based metaheuristics are exploitation oriented; they have the power to intensify the search in local regions. Population-based metaheuristics are exploration oriented; they allow a better diversification in the whole search space.

# Classification of Metaheuristics

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- **Iterative versus greedy:**
  - In iterative algorithms, we start with a complete solution (or population of solutions) and transform it at each iteration using some search operators.
  - Greedy algorithms start from an empty solution, and at each step a decision variable of the problem is assigned until a complete solution is obtained.
  - Most of the metaheuristics are iterative algorithms.



# Main Concepts for Metaheuristics

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- The representation of solutions and the definition of the objective function
- **Representation**
  - Designing any iterative metaheuristic needs an **encoding** (representation) of a solution.
  - The encoding plays a major role in the efficiency and effectiveness of any metaheuristic and constitutes an essential step in designing a metaheuristic.
  - The encoding must be suitable and relevant to the tackled optimization problem.
  - The efficiency of a representation is also related to the **search operators**.

# Example: 0-1 Knapsack Problem

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- **Binary encoding for knapsack problem.** For a 0/1-knapsack problem of  $n$  objects, a vector  $s$  of binary variables of size  $n$  may be used to represent a solution:

$$\forall i, s_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if object } i \text{ is in the knapsack} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

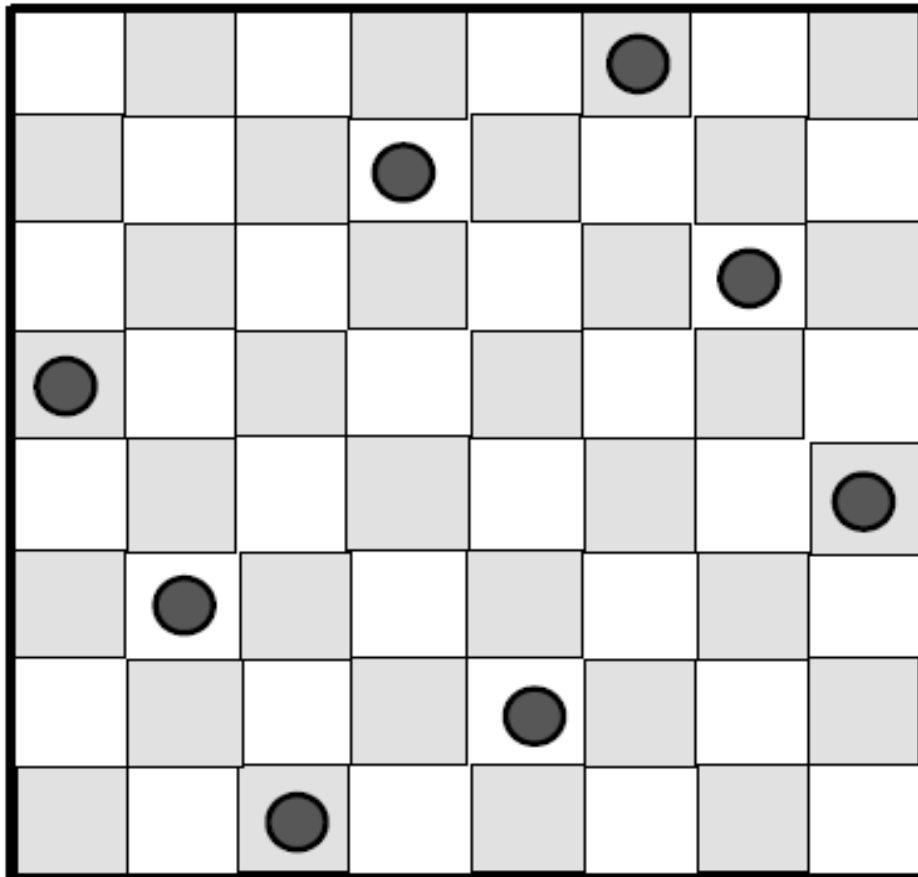
# Example: TSP

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- **Permutation encoding for the traveling salesman problem.**
  - For a TSP problem with  $n$  cities, a tour may be represented by a permutation of size  $n$ .
  - Each permutation decodes a unique solution.
  - The solution space is represented by the set of all permutations.
  - Its size is  $|S| = (n - 1)!$  if the first city of the tour is fixed.

# Example: 8-Queen Problem

- A solution for the 8-Queens problem represented by the permutation (6,4,7,1,8,2,5,3).



# Main Concepts for Metaheuristics

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- A representation must have the following characteristics:
  - **Completeness:** all solutions associated with the problem must be represented.
  - **Connexity:** A search path must exist between any two solutions of the search space. Any solution of the search space, especially the global optimum solution, can be attained.
  - **Efficiency:** The representation must be easy to manipulate by the search operators. The time and space complexities of the operators dealing with the representation must be reduced.

# Objective Function

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- The objective function  $f$  formulates the goal to achieve.
- It associates with each solution of the search space a real value that describes the **quality** or the **fitness** of the solution,  $f: S \rightarrow R$ .
- From the representation space of the solutions  $R$ , some **decoding functions**  $d$  may be applied,  $d: R \rightarrow S$ , to generate a solution that can be evaluated by the function  $f$ .
- The objective function is an important element in designing a metaheuristic.
- It will **guide** the search toward “good” solutions of the search space.

# Self-sufficient Objective Functions

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## ● Example

- In many routing problems such as TSP and vehicle routing problems, the formulated objective is to minimize a given global distance.
- For instance, the objective corresponds to the total distance of the Hamiltonian tour:

$$f(s) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} d_{\pi(i), \pi(i+1)} + d_{\pi(n), \pi(1)}$$

where  $\pi$  represents a permutation encoding a tour and  $n$  is the number of cities.

# Guiding Objective Functions

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- The objective function will guide the search in a more efficient manner.
- Example—Objective function to  $k$ -satisfiability problems ( $k$ -SAT).
  - We are given a function  $F$ , composed of  $m$  clauses  $C_i$  of  $k$  Boolean variables.

$$F = (x_1 \vee \overline{x_4}) \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee \overline{x_2} \vee x_3) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_3 \vee x_4) \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee x_2) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_4) \\ \wedge (x_2 \vee \overline{x_4}) \wedge (\overline{x_2} \vee \overline{x_3})$$

- The objective of the problem is to find an assignment of the  $k$  Boolean variables such that the value of the function  $F$  is *true*.



# Guiding Objective Functions

- A solution for the problem may be represented by a vector of  $k$  binary variables. A straightforward objective function is to use the original  $F$  function:

$$f = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if is } F \text{ false} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- If one considers two solutions  $s_1 = (1, 0, 1, 1)$  and  $s_2 = (1, 1, 1, 1)$ , they will have the same objective function ([what's that?](#)).

$$F = (x_1 \vee \overline{x_4}) \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee \overline{x_2} \vee x_3) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_3 \vee x_4) \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee x_2) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_4) \\ \wedge (x_2 \vee \overline{x_4}) \wedge (\overline{x_2} \vee \overline{x_3})$$

- The drawback of this objective function is that it has a poor differentiation between solutions.

# Guiding Objective Functions

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- A more interesting objective function to solve the problem will be to count the number of satisfied clauses.
- Hence, the objective will be to maximize the number of satisfied clauses.
- This function is better in terms of guiding the search toward the optimal solution.
- In this case, the solution  $s_1$  (resp.  $s_2$ ) will have a value of 5 (resp. 6)

$$F = (x_1 \vee \overline{x_4}) \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee \overline{x_2} \vee x_3) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_3 \vee x_4) \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee x_2) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_4) \\ \wedge (x_2 \vee \overline{x_4}) \wedge (\overline{x_2} \vee \overline{x_3})$$

# Constraint Handling

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- **Reject Strategies**

- Only feasible solutions are kept during the search and then infeasible solutions are automatically discarded.
- Good if the portion of infeasible solutions of the search space is very small.
- Do not exploit infeasible solutions.

- **However,**

- Feasible regions of the search space may be discontinuous.
- A path between two feasible solutions exists if it is composed of infeasible solutions.

# Constraint Handling

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- **Penalizing Strategies**

- Infeasible solutions are considered during the search process.
- The objective function is extended by a penalty function that will penalize infeasible solutions.
- The objective function  $f$  may be penalized in a linear manner:

$$f'(s) = f(s) + \lambda c(s),$$

where  $c(s)$  represents the cost of the constraint violation and  $\lambda$  is a weight. (e.g., knapsack problem)

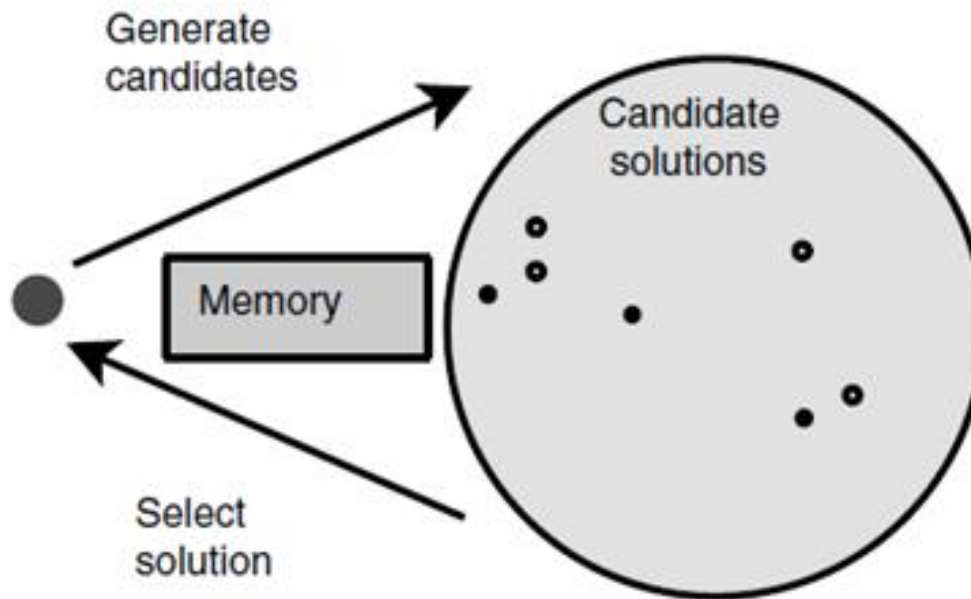
# Single-Solution Based Metaheuristics

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- Common Concepts
- Local Search
- Simulated Annealing
- Tabu Search
- Iterated Local Search
- Variable Neighborhood Search
- GRASP

# Common Concepts

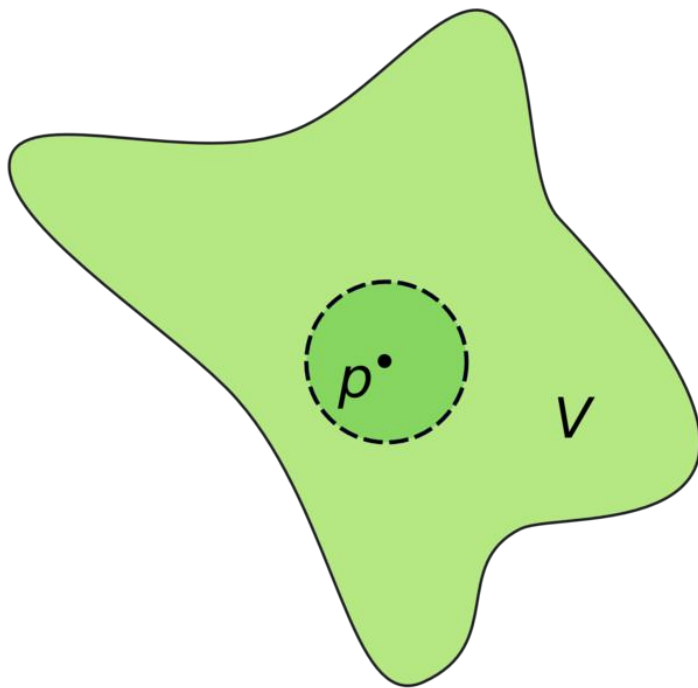
- Single-metaheuristics iteratively apply the *generation* and *replacement* procedure from the current single solution.



# Common Concepts

## ● Neighborhood

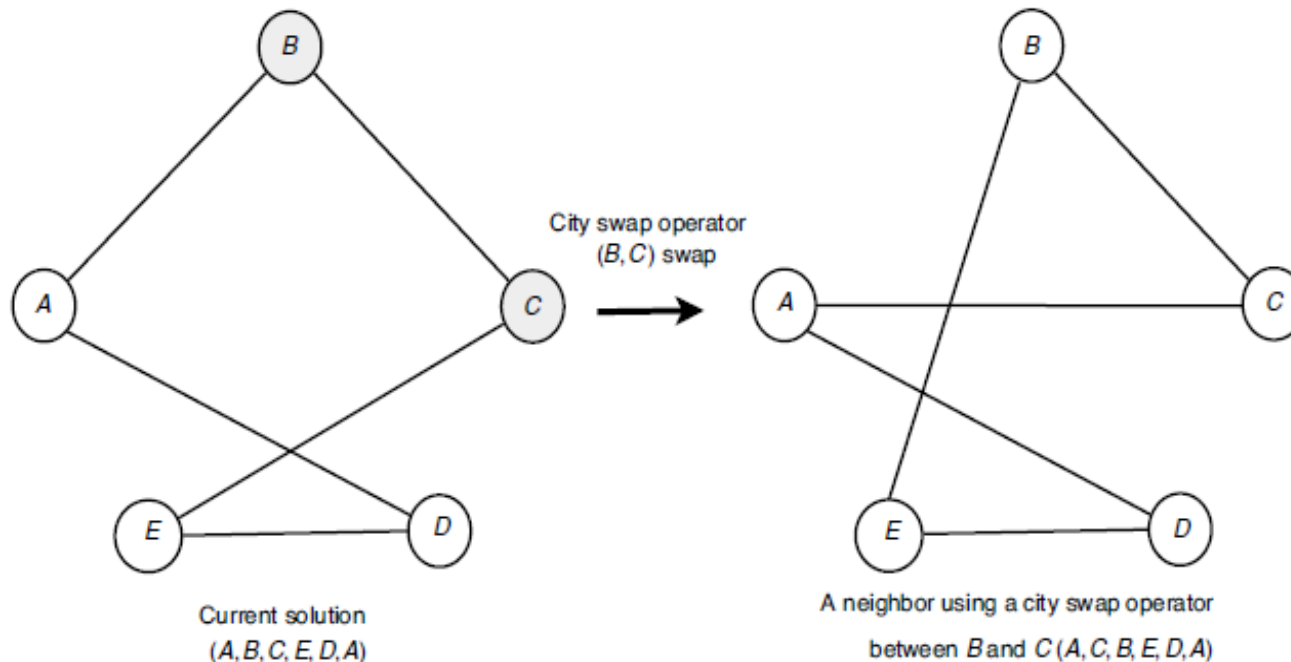
- plays a crucial role in the performance of a single-metaheuristic.



- A solution in the neighborhood is called a *neighbor*.
- A neighbor  $s'$  is generated by modifying the current solution  $s$ .
- The area of the neighborhood is relied on the *operator* employed. (operators can be regarded the ways or rules of modifying  $s$ .)

# Neighborhood Operators

- For permutation problems, such as the TSP, single machine scheduling problem and  $N$  queens problem, the **exchange operator** (swap operator) may be used.

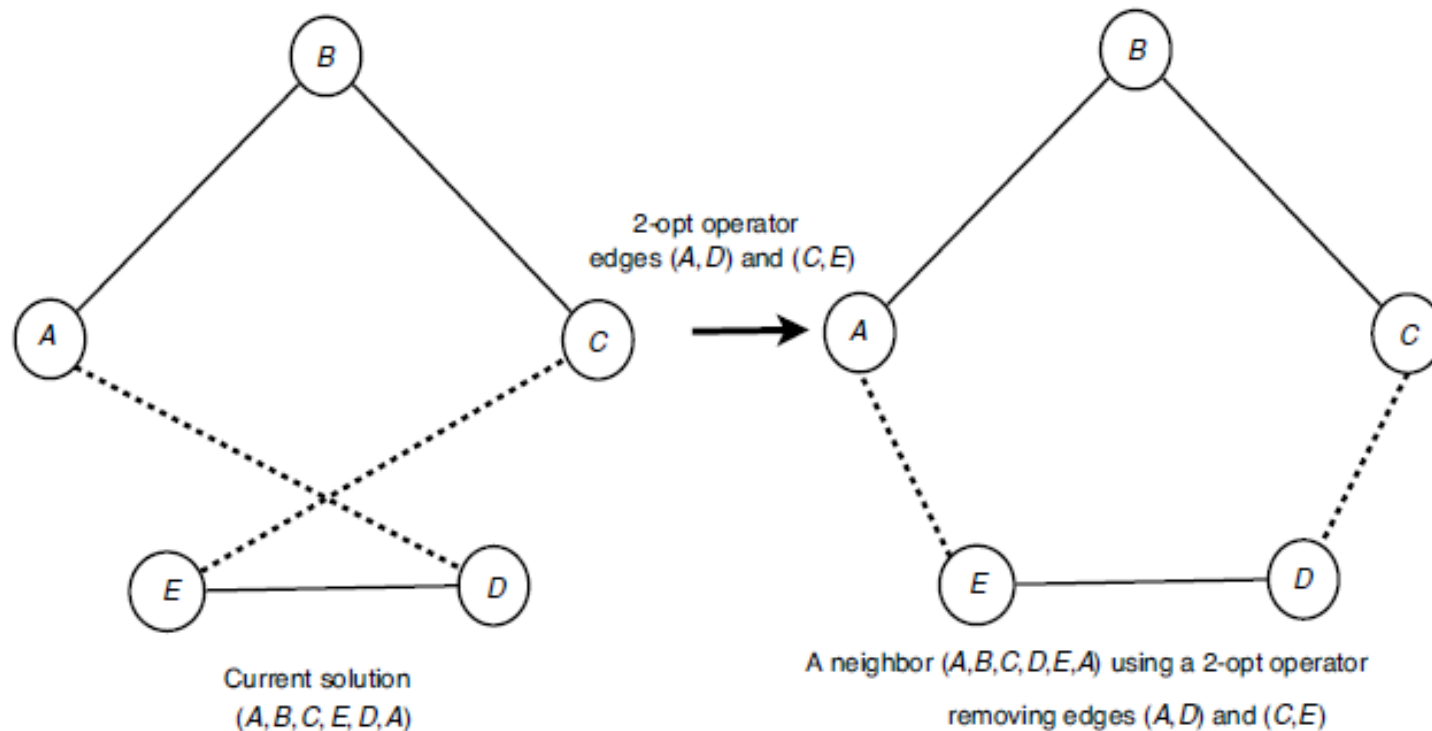


The size of this neighborhood is  $n(n-1)/2$ ,  
where  $n$  is the number of cities.



# Neighborhood Operators

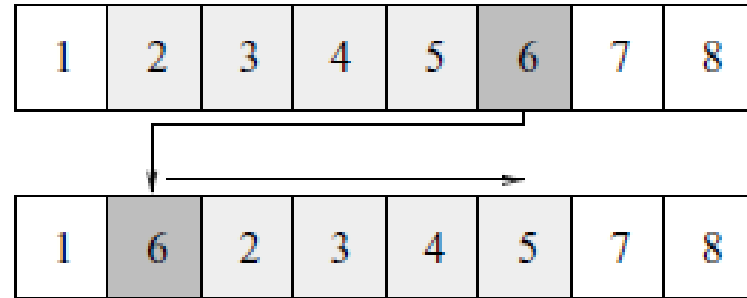
- 2-opt operator



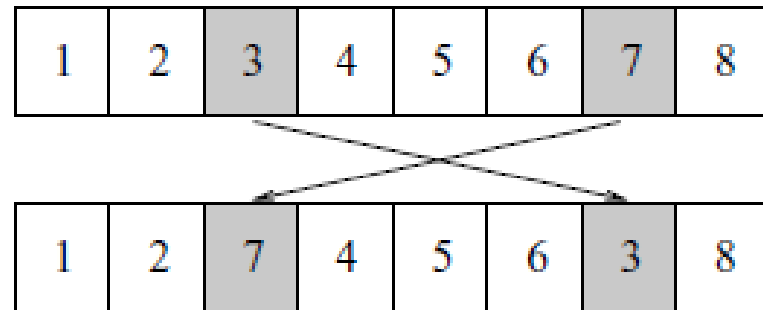
The size of the neighborhood for the 2-opt operator is  $[(n(n-1)/2) - n]$ ; All pairs of edges are concerned except the adjacent pairs.

# Neighborhood Operators

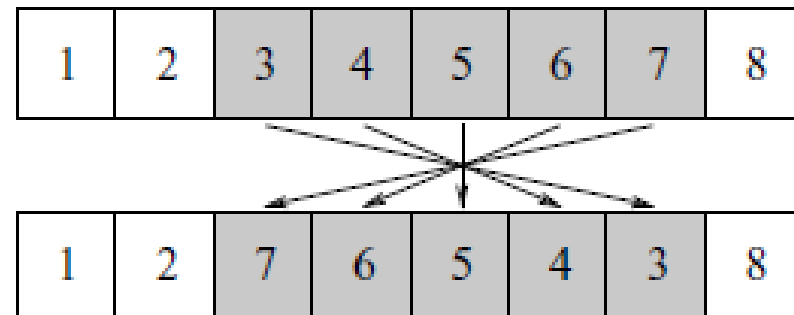
**Insertion operator**



**Exchange operator**



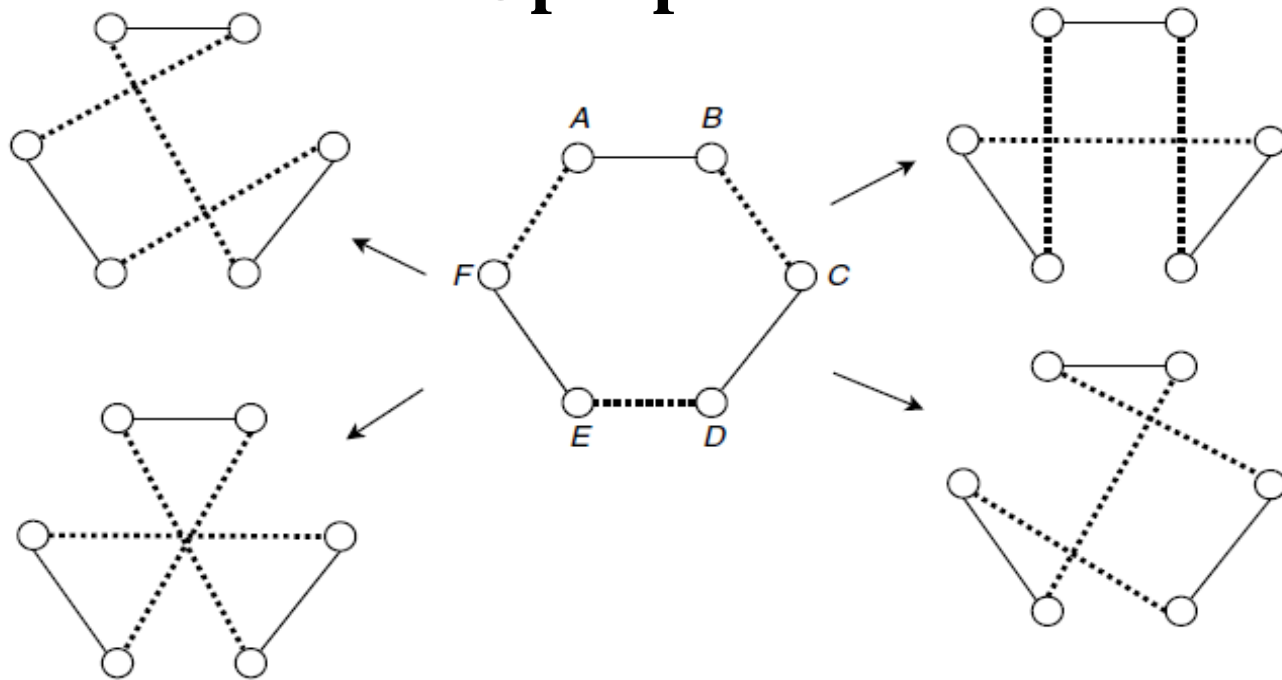
**Inversion operator**



# Neighborhood Operators

- Another widely used operator is the  $k$ -opt operator, where  $k$  edges are removed from the solution and replaced with other  $k$  edges.
- The time complexity for 2-opt, 3-opt and 4-opt is  $O(n^2)$ ,  $O(n^3)$  and  $O(n^4)$ .

## 3-Opt operator



3-opt operator for the TSP. The neighbors of the solution  $(A,B,C,D,E,F)$  are  $(A,B,F,E,C,D)$ ,  $(A,B,D,C,F,E)$ ,  $(A,B,E,F,C,D)$ , and  $(A,B,E,F,D,C)$ .

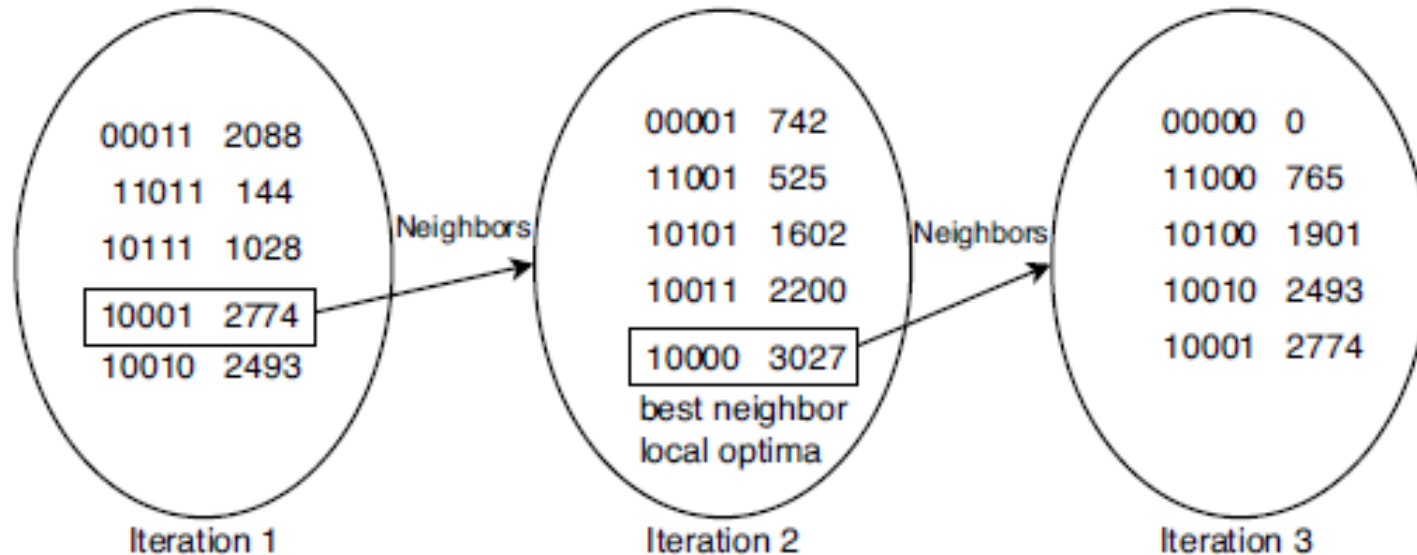
# Local Search (局部搜索)

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- It is also called *hill climbing*, *descent*, *iterative improvement*, and so on.
- It is likely the oldest and simplest metaheuristic method.
- It starts at a given initial solution.
- At each iteration, the heuristic ***replaces*** the current solution by a neighbor that ***improves*** the objective function.
- It stops when all candidate neighbors are worse than the current solution, i.e., a local minimum is reached.

# LS Example

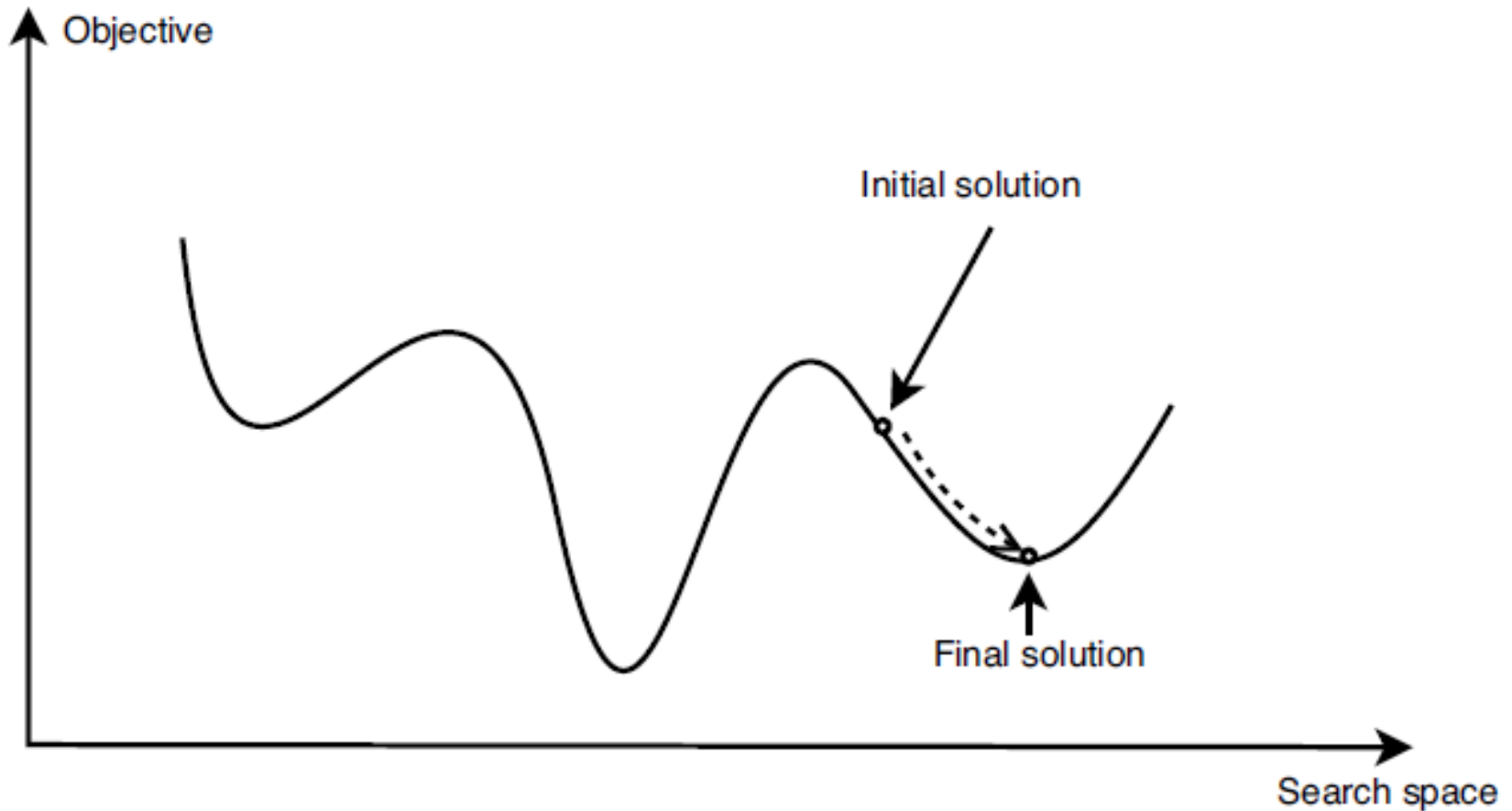
- Maximize  $x^3 - 60x^2 + 900x$ ,  $x$  is discrete



- Local search process using a binary representation of solutions, a flip move operator, and the best neighbor selection strategy.
- The global optimal solution is  $f([01010]_2) = f(10) = 4000$ , while the final local optimal found is  $s = [10000]$ , starting from the solution  $s_0 = [10001]$

# Questions

- How to generate a set of neighbors?
- How to select a neighbor?



# How LS Works

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- LS may be seen as a descent walk in the graph  $G=(S, V)$  representing the search space.
  - $S$  represents the set of all feasible solutions.
  - $V$  represents the neighborhood relation.
  - Each edge  $(i, j)$  in the graph will connect any neighboring  $s_i$  and  $s_j$ .
  - For a given solution  $s$ , the number of associated edges will be  $|N(s)|$ .

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## Template of a local search algorithm.

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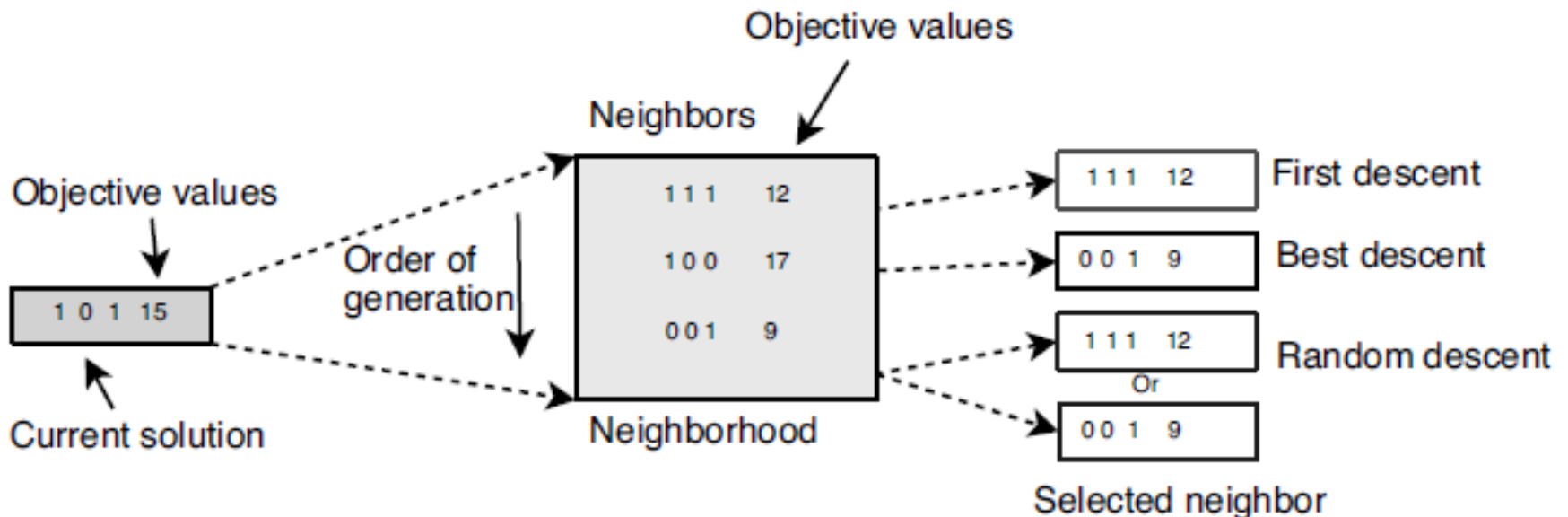
```

 $s = s_0$  ; /* Generate an initial solution  $s_0$  */
While not Termination_Criterion Do
    Generate ( $N(s)$ ) ; /* Generation of candidate neighbors */
    If there is no better neighbor Then Stop ;
     $s = s'$  ; /* Select a better neighbor  $s' \in N(s)$  */
Endwhile
Output Final solution found (local optima).
  
```

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# How LS Works

- **Selection of the Neighbor**
  - Best improvement (steepest descent)
  - First improvement
  - Random selection





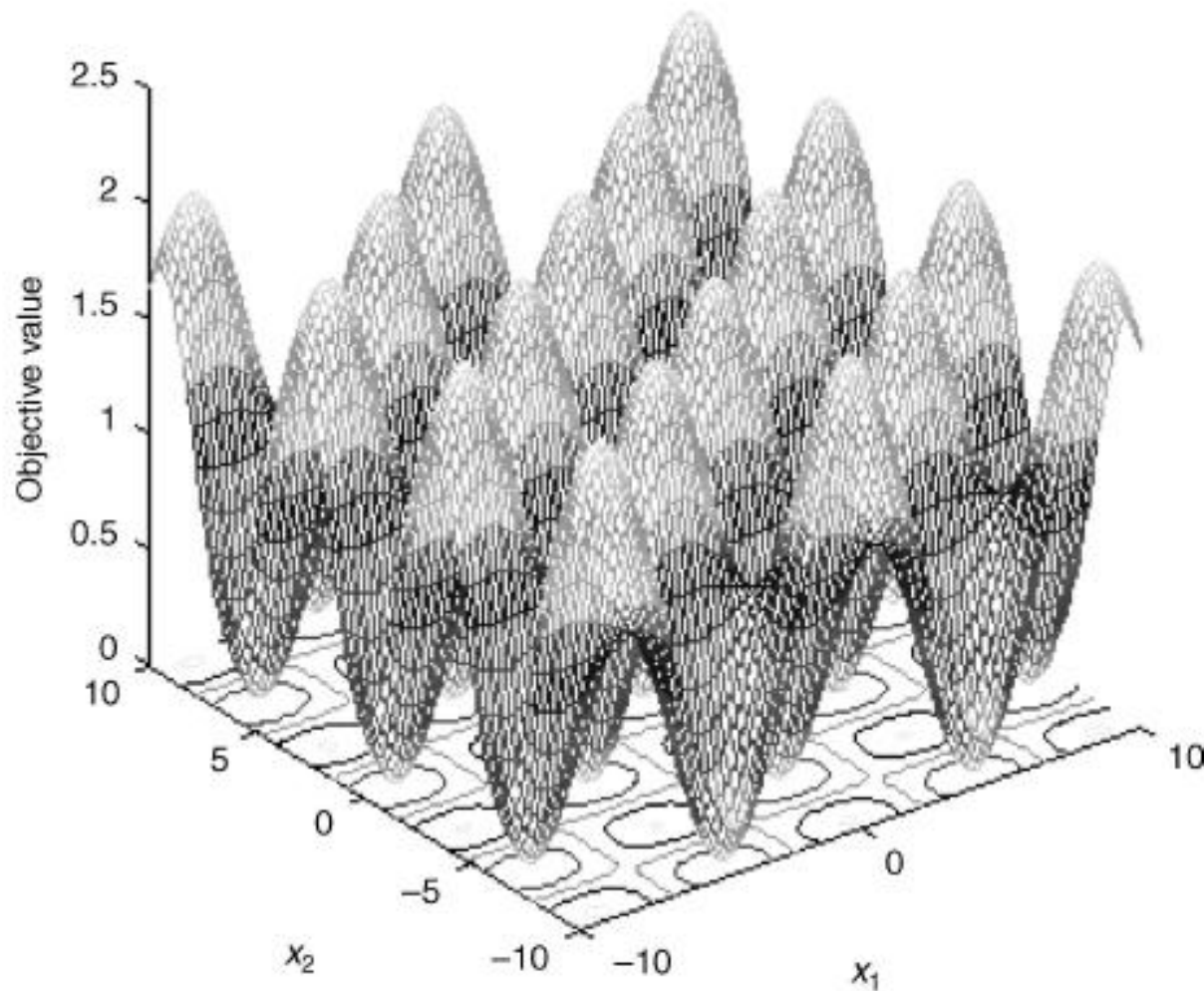
# How LS Works

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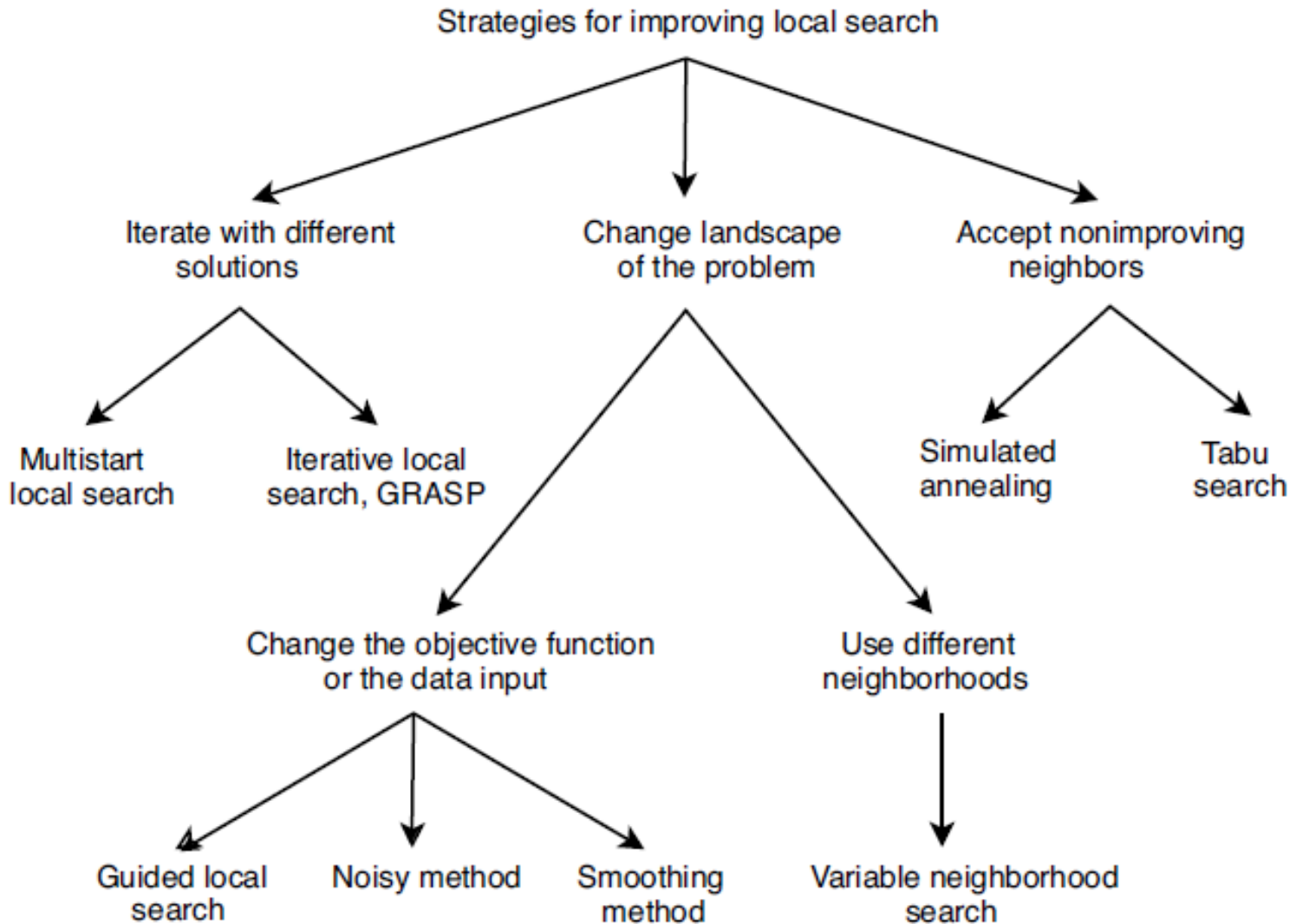
- Escaping from Local Optima
  - The LS is very sensitive to the initial solution.
  - No means to estimate the gap between the local optimum and the global optimum.
  - The number of iterations performed may not be known in advance.
  - Even if the LS runs very quickly, its worst case complexity is *exponential*.
  - Local search works well if there are not too many local optima.

# Highly Multimodal Function

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# How to avoid local optima



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# Thank you!

