Metaheuristics Single State Local Search Methods, part 2

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Variable Depth Search

- Another strategy for escaping a local optimum
- A complex search step is made from a variable-length sequence of simple steps in a small neighbourhood
- Then, the algorithm performs iterative improvement upon these complex search steps
- That is, if the application of a complex search step yields an improvement, we accept the move. Otherwise we reject it.

Variable Depth Search: Magic Square Example

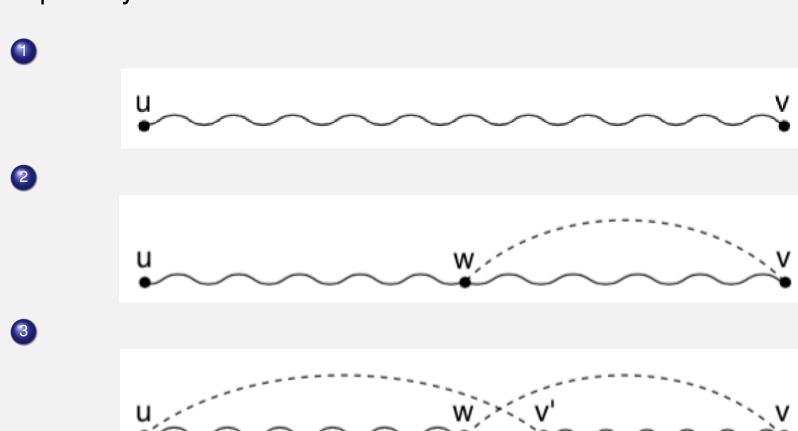
- A simple neighbourhood can be the set of solutions that can be obtained from a current one by swapping the contents of two cells.
- A complex search step can be made out of a sequence of k steps using the simple neighbourhood
 - k can be sampled from a probability distribution each time a complex step is built

Variable Depth Search: TSP Example

- Complex step can be made from a sequence of 2-exchange steps, as follows:
 - ① Start from a Hamiltonian path (u, ..., v)
 - ★ A Hamiltonian path is a path that visits every vertex of the graph exactly once
 - ★ This Hamiltonian path is obtained by removing edge (u, v) from a valid tour
 - 2 Add an edge (v, w) creating a cycle.
 - 3 Break the cycle by removing an edge incident to w, call it (w, v'). This yields a new Hamiltonian path.
 - * We can get a new Hamiltonian cycle (a new valid tour) by adding edge (v', u)

Variable Depth Search: TSP Example

• Graphically:

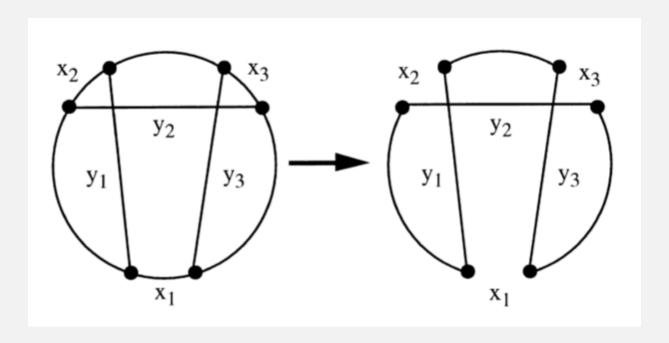


Images taken from Hoos and Stützle's book

- The Lin-Kernighan heuristic is one of the most effective methods for the TSP
- It is based on the idea illustrated in the previous slides: it repeatedly performs edge exchanges that reduce the length of the tour
- Some restrictions apply on the exchanges:
 - Only sequential exchanges are allowed
 - The gain must be positive
 - A removed edge cannot be added (in the same complex step)
 - An added edge cannot be removed (in the same complex step)

- In a complex step, a set of r edges are removed $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_r\}$ and a set of r edges are added $Y = \{y_1, \dots, y_r\}$
- X and Y are built incrementally, both starting from the empty set
- The sequential exchange criterion enforces that x_i and y_i must share an endpoint
- The positive gain criterion enforces that adding edge y_i and removing edge x_i results in a tour with a shorter distance

Example of a sequencial exchange with r = 3



(Image taken from Keld Helsgaun, *An effective implementation of the Lin-Kernighan traveling salesman heuristic.* Eur. J. Oper. Res. 126(1): 106-130 (2000))

- There are several other enhancements on top of it
- You may find more details in Hoos and Stützle's book, as well as in the following reference:
 - Keld Helsgaun, An effective implementation of the Lin-Kernighan traveling salesman heuristic. Eur. J. Oper. Res. 126(1): 106-130 (2000)

Strategies to escape local optima

- Using restarts (e.g. multi-start hillclimbing)
- Exploring larger neighbourhoods
- What else?

Exploration vs. Exploitation

- Need to find a balance between exploring new regions of the search space and exploiting a region that was already found to be reasonably good
- Hillclimbing represents the extreme case of pure exploitation
- Blind search represents the other extreme of pure exploration
- Some authors also refer to this as the Diversification vs.
 Intensification dilemma

Non-improving moves

- We can allow (sometimes) non-improving moves
- This means accepting a neighbour that is worse or equal than the current solution
- Does not guarantee to always escape from a local optimum

Randomised Iterative Improvement

- At each search step, perform an uninformed random walk step with a fixed probability p. How?
 - ▶ generate a random number $r \in [0..1[$
 - if r iterative improvement step
 - An iterative improvement step accepts the better of x and its neighbour
- p is a parameter of the algorithm and must be set by the user
- In theory, can always escape from a local optimum
- In practice, it may take a long time to do so . . .

What's the difference between theory and practice?

"In theory there is no difference between theory and practice. In practice there is."

Yogi Berry

Probabilistic Iterative Improvement

- Accept a non-improving move with a probability that depends in the amount of deterioration of the current solution
 - The larger the deterioration, the smaller the probability

Metropolis Probabilistic Iterative Improvement

- A special case of Probabilistic Iterative Improvement
- Given a current solution s, we obtain a neighbour $x \in \mathcal{N}(s)$
- Then we accept x with probability p defined as follows:

$$p = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f(x) \le f(s) \\ e^{\frac{f(s)-f(x)}{T}} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

 This is called the Metropolis condition, where T is the so-called "temperature" parameter that controls the probability of accepting worsening moves

Metropolis condition

$$p = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f(x) \le f(s) \\ e^{\frac{f(s)-f(x)}{T}} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Some notes:

- Formula above is for minimization problems
- ► T > 0
- If x is better or equal than s, we always accept it
- If x is worse than s, then f(s) f(x) < 0, which implies 0
- As the difference between f(s) and f(x) increases, p approaches 0

Simulated Annealing

- Proposed by Kirkpatrick, Gelatt and Vecchi (1983)
- The idea is to lower the value of the temperature parameter T as the search takes place
- This is typically done according to a cooling schedule
- Inspired by the physical process of annealing metals
 - Annealing steel involves heating it to a specified temperature and then letting it cool down at a very slow and controlled rate
 - Perfect ground states are achieved by lowering the temperature very slowly

Simulated Annealing: cooling schedule

- Start with an initial temperature $T = T_0$
 - $ightharpoonup T_0$ usually depends on the problem instance
- Update T every k iteration steps
 - k is called the temperature length
 - k is usually proportional to the neighbourhood size
 - update typically according to an exponential cooling regime:

★
$$T = \alpha \cdot T$$
, with $0 < \alpha < 1$

- Termination criterion:
 - maximum number of iterations (or time)
 - a certain acceptance ratio threshold

Example for TSP

- Taken from Johnson and McGeoch, The Traveling Salesman Problem: A Case Study in Local Optimization (1997)
 - 2-exchange neighbourhood
 - T₀ chosen empirically such that only 3% of moves are rejected
 - $k = n \cdot (n-1)$, with *n* being the number of cities
 - ► Cooling schedule: $T = 0.95 \cdot T$
 - ► Termination: when 5 successive temperature values yield no solution quality improvement and the acceptance ratio is less than 2%

Tabu Search

- Proposed by Fred Glover (1989)
- Also tries to escape from local optima
- Uses additional memory to avoid visiting places that have been visited recently
 - These places become tabu (i.e. forbidden)
 - We can associate tabu status to entire candidate solutions, as well as to solution components
- Unlike Simulated Annealing, only accepts worsening moves when it is stuck at a local optimum
 - SA accepts them probabilistically

Tabu Search

- In its simplest form:
 - ► Maintain a tabu list of length *L* of candidate solutions seen so far
 - When a new candidate solution is obtained, it goes to the tabu list
 - If the list is full, we remove the oldest candidate solution
 - ★ that solution is no longer tabu

Tabu Search

 Working at the level of complete candidate solutions is not that effective.

 For large search spaces, we may stay in the same "hill", even if the tabu list is very large!

 A more common strategy is to use the tabu concept for solution components

 Sometimes we make an exception to things that are in the tabu list (aspiration criterion)

Tabu Search: TSP example

- If we obtain a solution by removing a certain edge, we forbid the addition of that edge in future moves for a certain number of time steps
 - This number of time steps is specified by a tabu tenure parameter
- Side note: the Lin-Kerninghan heuristic does something similar (before Tabu Search was invented)

Tabu Search: SAT example

- Use a 1-bit Hamming distance neighborhood
- Associate a tabu status (true or false) with each variable of formula F
- A variable is considered tabu if and only if it has been changed in the last tt steps
- We make an exception if flipping a tabu variable yields a solution better than any solution seen so far
- Among all admissible neighbours choose u.a.r. among those that satisfy the most clauses

Tabu Search: SAT example

- Use appropriate data structures to allow an incremental evaluation of the objective function
 - For each variable, keep a list (or pointers) to the clauses that contain that variable
 - For each variable x, store the iteration number when its value was last changed. Let such number be x_t
 - ▶ Then, x is tabu if and only if $t x_t < tt$, where t is the current iteration number

- ILS can be seen as a generalization of a restart strategy
- What are the major drawbacks of a pure restart strategy?
 - For many problems, local optima tend to be clustered in the search space
 - Restarting from another candidate solution u. a. r. may be too time consuming
 - We are basically restarting from scratch every single time

- A better strategy might be to restart from another solution that is not so far from the current local optimum
- We can do that my doing a perturbation of the current solution:
 - that goes beyond the solution's neighbourhood
 - but not so much as being equivalent to a complete restart

- ILS has a nice blend of exploration and exploitation
- uses local search to obtain a local optimum (exploitation)
- once there, uses a perturbation operator to escape from it (exploration)
- then, uses local search again to obtain a (perhaps new) local optimum, and the process goes on and on
- ILS has an acceptance criterion to decide which of the two local optima should it proceed from

 ILS may use aspects of the search history to decide how to do the perturbation

- Common strategy:
 - If the local search keeps reaching the same local optimum, then make a larger perturbation

 ILS may also use aspects of the search history to decide which local optimum should it proceed from

- Common strategies:
 - Accept the better of the two local optima
 - performs iterative improvement in the space of local optima (more exploitation)
 - Accept the last local optimum
 - ★ performs a random walk in the space of local optima (more exploration)
 - Do something in between

Iterated Local Search

- ILS makes trajectories in the space of local optima
- We can build an effective ILS with little code by combining existing local search algorithms

Iterated Local Search (ILS): TSP example

TSP Example (taken from Hoos and Stützle's book):

- generateInitialSolution(): greedy heuristic
- localSearch(): Lin-Kernighan heuristic
- perturb(): double-bridge move
- accept(): accept t if t is better or equal than s, otherwise accept s

Double bridge move

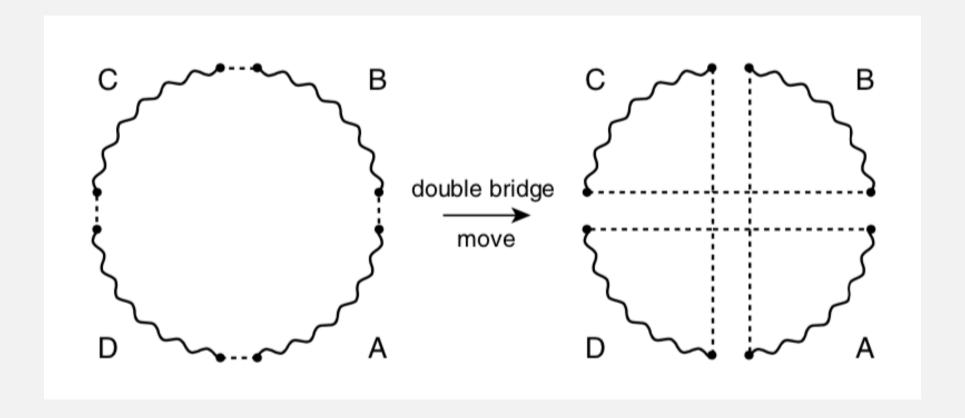


Figure taken from Hoos and Stützle's book

Iterated Local Search (ILS): SAT example

- generateInitialSolution(): random initial solution
- localSearch(): next-ascent hillclimbing based on 1-flip neighbourhood
- perturb(): random k-bit flip move, with k >> 2
- accept(): accept t if t is better or equal than s, otherwise accept s