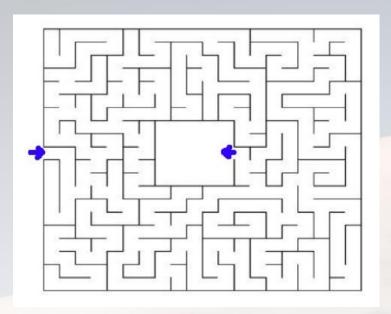


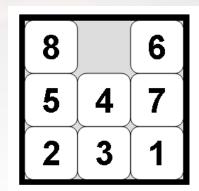
Methods of Artificial Intelligence Local Search

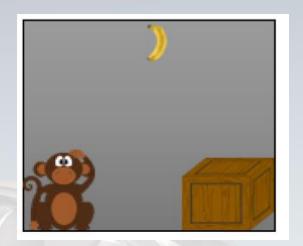


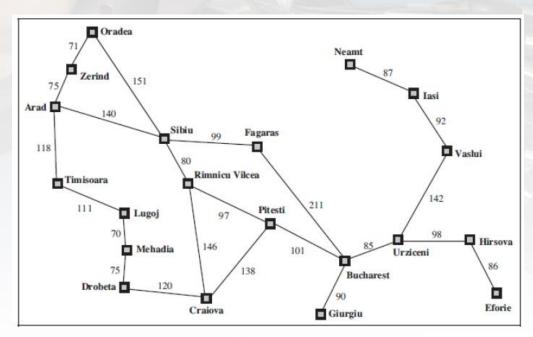
From Classical Search to Local Search

Search Problems

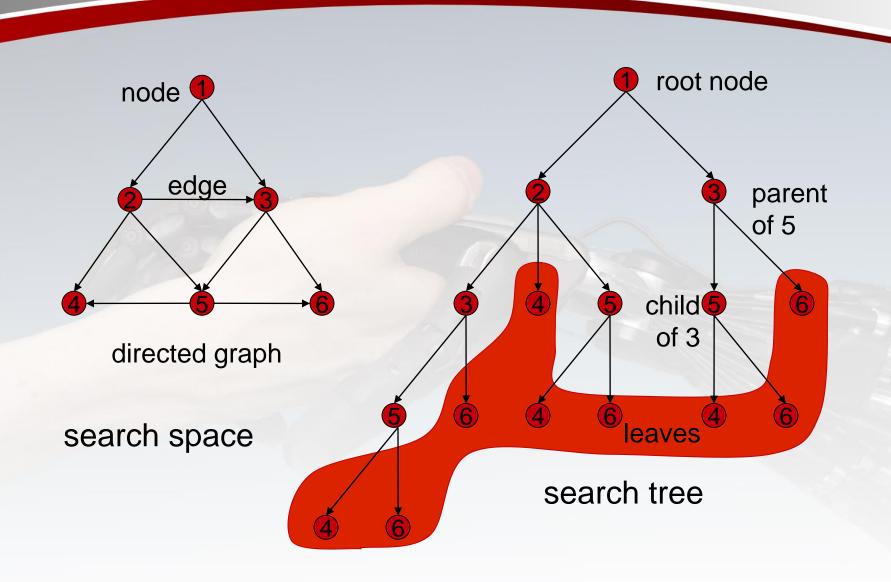








Search Space and Search Tree



Classical Search Paradigms

- □ Uninformed Search
 - No information about search space topology (blind search)

- □ Informed Search
 - We can estimate distance to goal states

Classical Search Algorithms

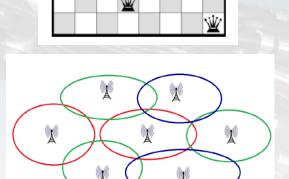
- □ Uninformed (blind)
 - Random search
 - Systematic search
 - Depth-first search (DFS)
 - □ Breadth-first search (BFS)
 - Variations
 - Uniform-cost search
 - Depth-limited search
 - Features
 - no information about the path cost from the current state to the goal state

- □ Informed (heuristic)
 - Systematic search
 - Greedy best-first search
 - □ A* search
 - Features
 - heuristic information about the path cost from current state to goal state (background knowledge)

From Classical Search to Local Search

□ In classical search, we look for an (optimal) sequence of actions that leads from an initial state to a goal state

- □ However, in many problems, there is
 - □ no given initial state (CSPs)
 - □ no obvious transition model
 - □ no simple goal test (optimization problems)



- □ In particular, path from initial to goal state is often irrelevant
- □ Local Search is often better suited to address these problems

Local Search Main Ideas

- ☐ States often correspond to variable assignments
- □ We define neighborhood that determines what other assignments can be reached from a given assignment
- □ Local Search works roughly as follows:
 - □ start from some initial assignment (e.g. random choice)
 - select a promising neighbor of the current assignment
 - continue selecting neighbors until we cannot improve anymore

Local Search Applications

- □ (Discrete) Optimization Problems
 - □ Production planning (maximize profit)
 - □ Scheduling (minimize conflicts)
 - ☐ Machine Learning (minimize classification error)
 - □ ...

□ Constraint Satisfaction Problems

Algorithms Overview

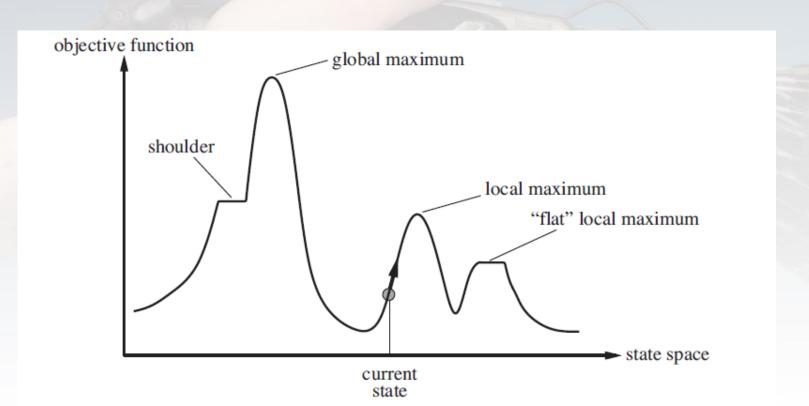
We will discuss the following local search algorithms:

- □ Hill-Climbing
- □ Simulated Annealing
- □ Local Beam Search
- □ Genetic Algorithms

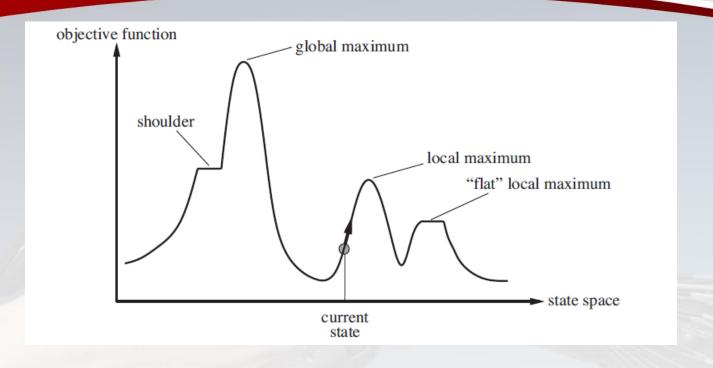
State-space Landscape and Hill-Climbing

State-space Landscape

- □ Suppose, we want to maximize real function f(x) (objective function)
- □ we can do so by starting from random point and following ascent direction (gradient ascent algorithm)

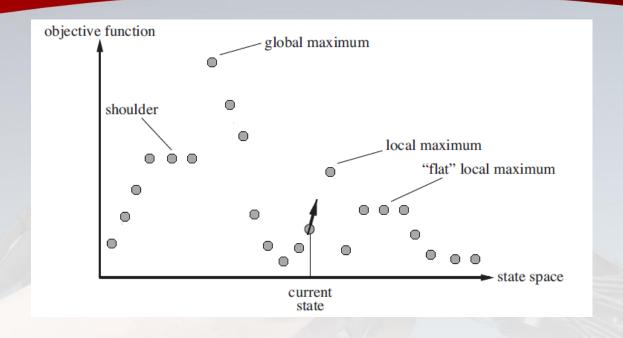


Challenges



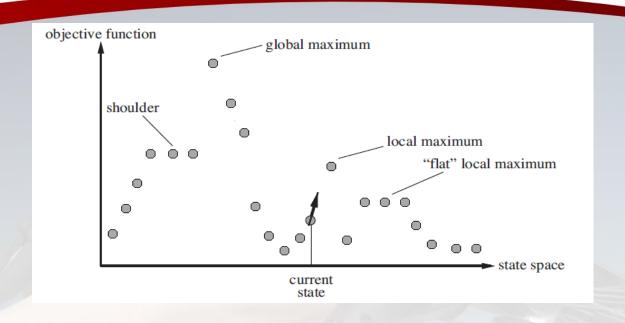
- □ if we stop if no ascent is possible anymore, we may end up in a non-global local maximum or plateaux
- ☐ If we try to reach end of plateaux, we may search forever

Discrete State Spaces



- □ We will often consider discrete state spaces here
 (we cannot move continuously through state space)
- □ Often our state space is even finite, but exponentially large
- However, some problems of continuous spaces remain

Navigating in Discrete State Spaces



- □ In (unconstrained) continuous state spaces, we can move in an arbitrary direction for an arbitrary length
- In discrete spaces, every state is associated with a neighborhood that contains other states
- □ We move through state space, by selecting a neighbor

Hill-Climbing

```
current ← select random initial state
do

neighbor ← neighbor of current with highest value
if value(neighbor) ≤ value(current)
    return current
    current←neighbor
until termination condition is met
```

- □ Hill-Climbing can be regarded as a discrete state-space version of gradient ascent
- □ In each step, we select neighbor with highest value

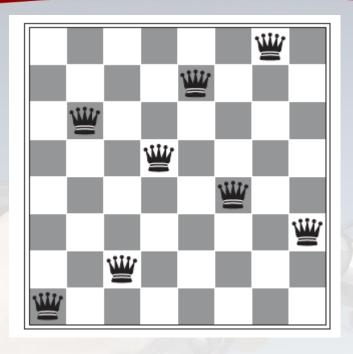
Hill-Climbing Termination Conditions

```
current ← select random initial state
do

neighbor ← neighbor of current with highest value
if value(neighbor) ≤ value(current)
    return current
    current←neighbor
until termination condition is met
```

- algorithm may end up in non-global local maximum or plateaux
- termination condition can bound the maximum number of search steps or search time

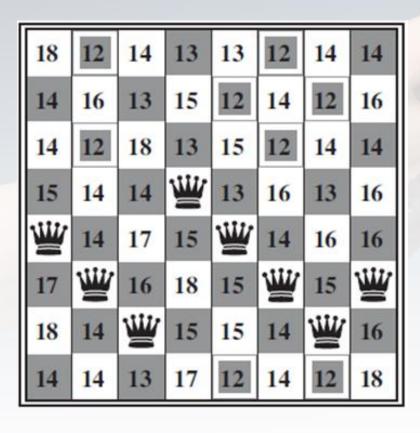
Example: 8-Queens Problem



- □ State-Space: board configurations with one queen per column (tuple (8,3,7,4,2,5,1,6) corresponds to board configuration above)
- Neighborhood: configurations that can be obtained by moving a single queen to another field in the same column (hence, every state has 8 * 7 = 56 neighbors)

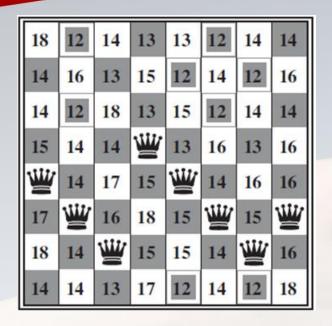
Objective Function

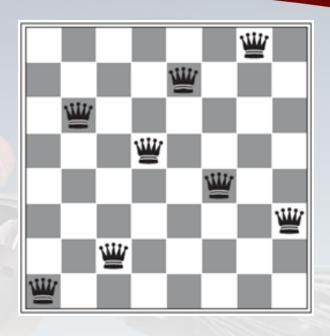
 Objective Function: number of pairs of queens that can attack each other directly or indirectly (maximize negative objective function)



- Queen in column 1 can directlyattack queen in column 2
- □ Queen in column 1 can indirectly attack queen in column 3
- ☐ State has value -17
- □ Numbers show values of neighbors

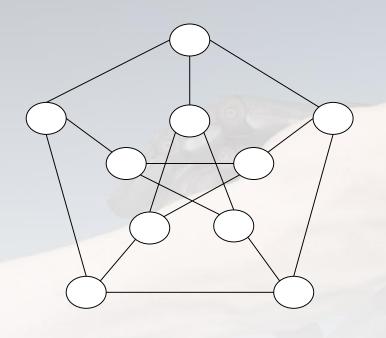
Local Optima





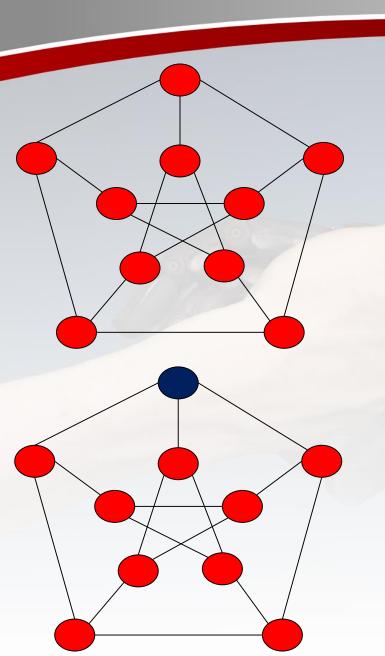
- □ Hill Climbing goes from left state with value -17 to right state with value -1 (queen 4 attacks queen 7) in only 5 steps
- □ However, right state is only locally optimal

Excercise: Graph Coloring



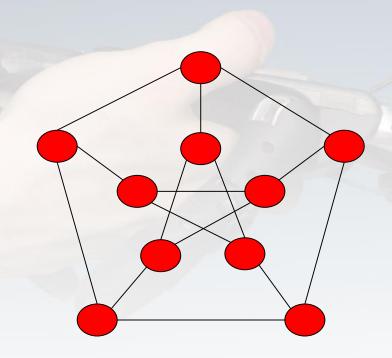
- Problem: assign a color from {1,2,3} to
 each node such that no two adjacent
 nodes have the same color
- □ Define
 - State space
 - Neighborhood
 - □ Objective function
- Perform Hill-climbing search from an initial state where all nodes have color 1

Solution: Local Search Problem



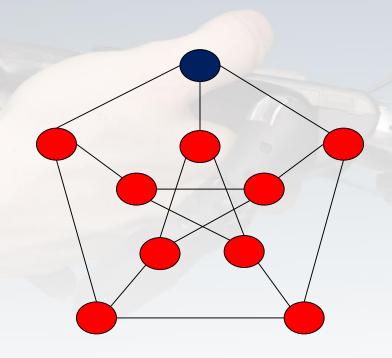
- State Space: each assignment of colors from {1,2,3} to nodes. Formally, we can use 10-tuples like (1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1)
- □ Neighborhood: change color of one node (each state has 10 * 2 = 20 neighbors)
- Objective function: number of pairs of adjacent nodes with equal colors (maximize negative objective function)

Objective function can be increased by at most 3



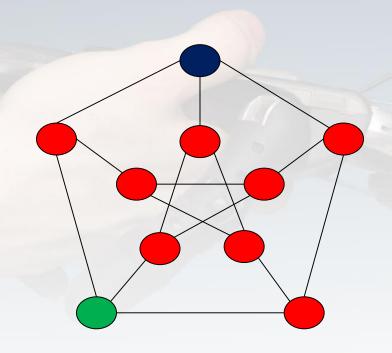
State (1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1) Objective function: -15

Objective function can be increased by at most 3



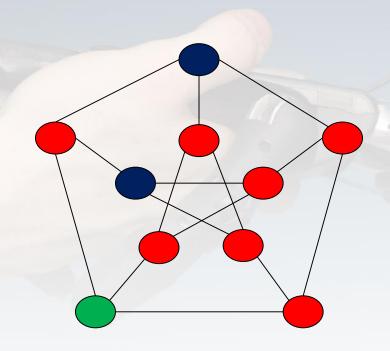
State (2,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1) Objective function: -12

Objective function can be increased by at most 3



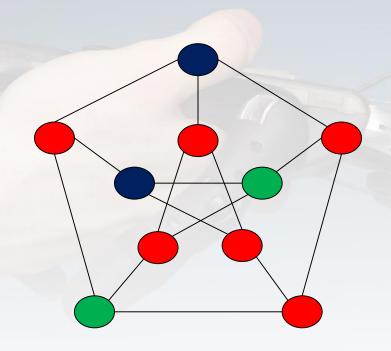
State (2,1,1,1,1,1,1,3,1) Objective function: -9

Objective function can be increased by at most 2



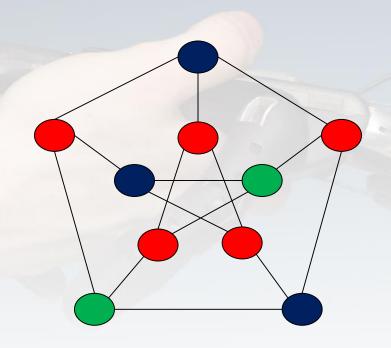
State (2,1,1,1,2,1,1,1,3,1) Objective function: -6

Objective function can be increased by at most 2



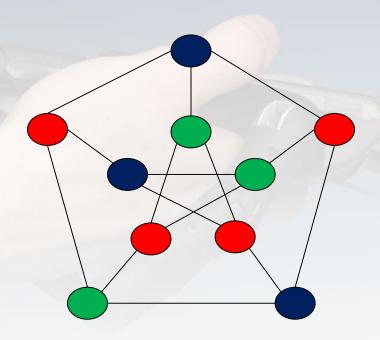
State (2,1,1,1,2,3,1,1,3,1) Objective function: -4

Objective function can be increased by at most 2



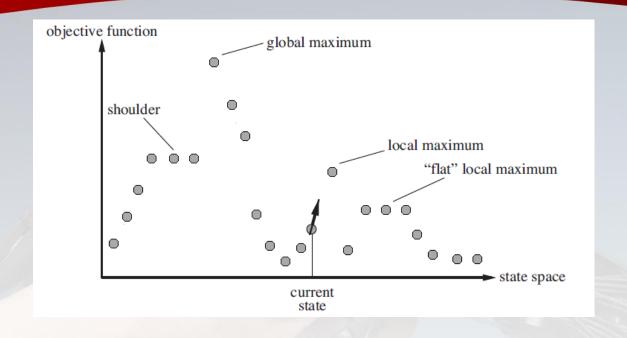
State (2,1,1,1,2,3,1,1,3,2) Objective function: -2

Objective function cannot be increased anymore



State (2,1,3,1,2,3,1,1,3,2) Objective function: 0 (global maximum)

Variants of Hill-Climbing



- ☐ Hill-Climbing in its basic form can perform poorly in many problems because there is a high risk of ending up in non-global local maxima
- There exist several variants that can alleviate the problem

Stochastic Hill-Climbing

```
current ← select random initial state
do

neighbor ← random neighbor of current with higher value
if neighbor = null
   return current
   current←neighbor
until termination condition is met
```

- Instead of selecting neighbor with maximum value, we select random neighbor that improves value
- □ Probability of selection can increase with value
- Compromise between random search and Hill-Climbing

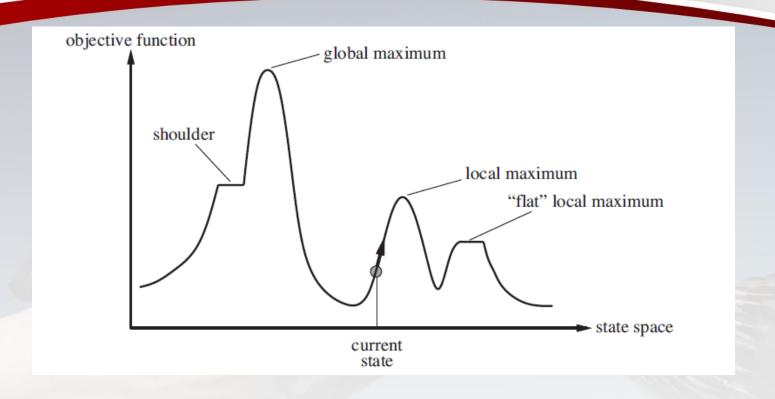
Other Variants

□ First-choice Hill-climbing: in neighbor selection step, pick first neighbor that improves objective function
 (also useful if neighborhood is too large to enumerate all neighbors)

□ Random-restart (or parallel) Hill-Climbing: perform n Hill-climbing searchs starting from randomly generated initial states
 (as n goes to infinity, probability of finding global optimum goes to 1)

Simulated Annealing

Downhill Moves



- □ Hill-climbing never makes downhill moves
- However, as figure illustrates, downhill moves are sometimes necessary to find global maximum

Simulated Annealing Intuition

- Simulated Annealing is a randomized algorithm that allows downhill moves
- In the beginning, the probability for downhill moves is high (exploration)
- ☐ As search progresses, the probability decreases (exploitation)
- □ This process is modeled by means of a temperature variable that decreases (thus simulated annealing)

Simulated Annealing

```
current ← select random initial state
for t = 1 to \infty
  T \leftarrow schedule(t)
  if T = 0
    return current
  next ← randomly selected neighbor of current
  \Delta E \leftarrow value(next) - value(current)
  if \Delta E > 0
    current \leftarrow next
  else
    current \leftarrow next only with probability \exp(\Delta E/T)
```

Cooling Schedule

- schedule(t) controls how fast temperature reaches 0
- A slow cooling schedule increases probability of finding a highquality solution but increases runtime
- □ Some simple scheduling schemes:
 - Stepwise Linear: start with arbitrary T and decrease T by a constant c in each step
 - Delayed Stepwise Linear: start with arbitrary T and decrease T by a constant c every k-th step
- Starting with T=∞ may also make sense to perform random exploration in the beginning

Neighbor Selection

- In each step, Simulated Annealing picks random neighbor
 - □ If neighbor improves objective, neighbor replaces current state
 - \Box Otherwise, it replaces current state only with probability $\exp(\Delta E/T)$,

where $\Delta E = value(next) - value(current)$

Neighbor Selection: ΔE

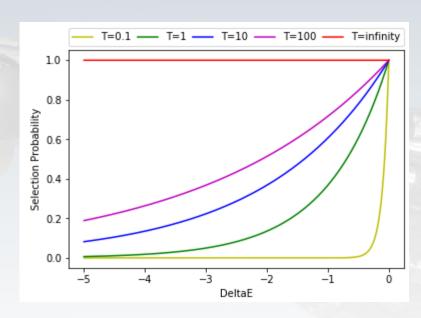
- \square Note that $\triangle E$ is always non-positive in else-branch
- □ Therefore, $0 \le \exp(\Delta E/T) \le \exp(0) = 1$
- □ Probability decreases exponentially with respect to difference

 \square For instance, for T=1, we have

$$\triangle E = 0 : \exp(0/1) = \exp(0) = 1$$

$$\triangle E = -1 : \exp(-1/1) = 1/e = 0.37$$

$$\triangle E = -2 : \exp(-2/1) = 1/e^2 = 0.14$$

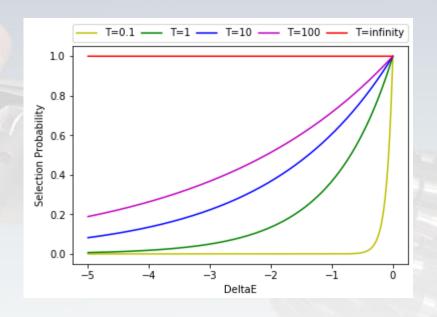


Neighbor Selection: Temperature

- □ As temperatue T decreases, probability further decreases
- \square For instance, assume $\Delta E = -2$

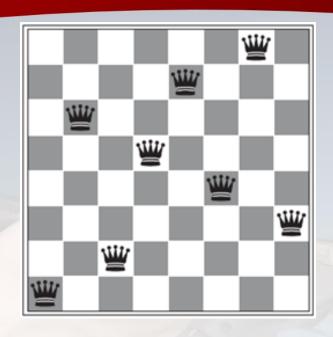
$$\Box$$
 T= ∞ : exp(-2/ ∞) = exp(0) = 1

- \Box T=100: exp(-2/100) = 0.98
- \Box T=10: exp(-2/10) = 0.81
- \Box T=1: exp(-2/1) = 0.13
- \Box T=0.1: exp(-2/0.1) = 0.002



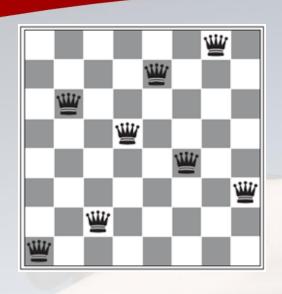
□ Therefore, Simulated Annealing is similar to random exploration for high temperatures and similar to First-choice Hill-Climbing later

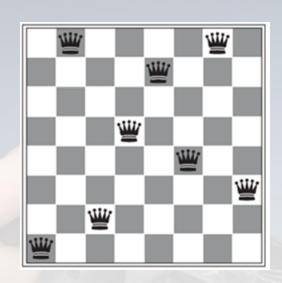
Exercise: Local Optima Revisited



- □ As we observed before, given state is locally optimal with value -1
- Compute ΔE for the neighbors obtained by
 - moving queen 2 to row 1 (State (8,1,7,4,2,5,1,6))
 - □ moving queen 4 to row 8 (State (8,3,7,8,2,5,1,6))
- □ Compute the probability of performing these moves for T=10 and T=1

Solution: Local Optima Revisited

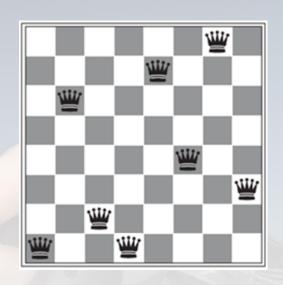




- ☐ When moving queen 2 to row 1, we add two new attacks
- □ We have $\Delta E = -3 (-1) = -2$
- ☐ The probabilities of performing these move are
 - \Box Exp(-2/10) = 0.81 for T=10
 - \square Exp(-2/1) = 0.13 for T=1

Solution: Local Optima Revisited



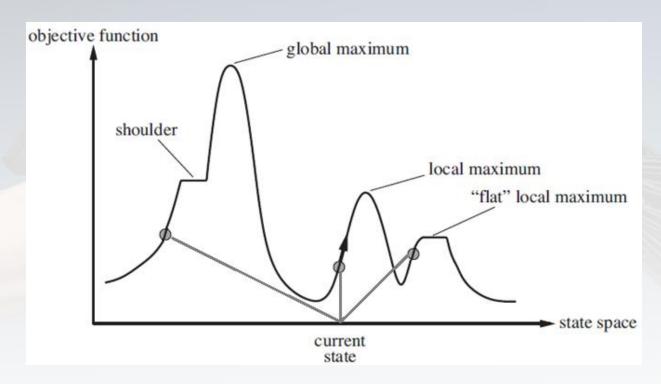


- □ When moving queen 4 to row 8, the value is -2
- □ We have $\Delta E = -2 (-1) = -1$
- □ The probabilities of performing this move are
 - \square Exp(-1/10) = 0.9 for T=10
 - \square Exp(-1/1) = 1/e = 0.37 for T=1

Local Beam Search

Local Beam Search Intuition

Instead of following a single line through the state space,
 Local Beam Search follows multiple lines (a beam)



 In each step, we select the k best states from the set of all neighbors of all k current states

Local Beam Search

```
k_current ← select k random states
do

neighbors ← all neighbors of all current states
k_best_neighbors ← best k states from neighbors
if no neighbor improves current value
    return k_current
k_current ← k_best_neighbors
until termination condition is met
```

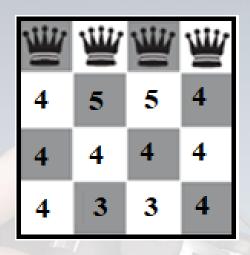
□ Termination conditions can be chosen as before

Local Beam Search vs Parallel Hill-Climbing

- Local Beam Search is not equivalent to performing k Hill-Climbing searchs in parallel!
- □ In each step, Local Beam Search selects the k best neighbors of all current states
- □ For instance, if all best neighbors are neighbors of the first current state, we will only use neighbors of this state in the following step

Exercise: 4-Queens Problem

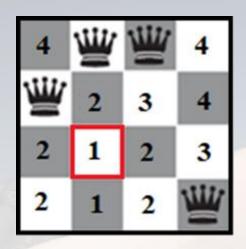


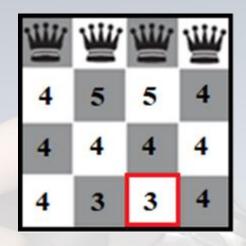


Consider the two states above with the given number of attacks for their neighbors.

- ☐ Give two possible next states when performing parallel Hillclimbing (2 runs in parallel).
- □ Give two possible next states when performing Local Beam Search (k=2).

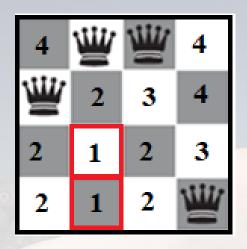
Solution: Hill-Climbing

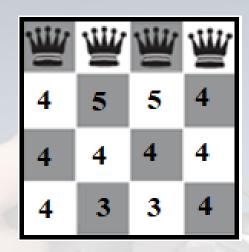




- □ Each Hill-climbing search will select a best neighbor for each of the states
- □ We will continue with one state of value -1 and one state with value -3

Solution: Local Beam Search





- □ Local Beam Search will select the best two neighbors from the set of all neighbors of both states
- □ We will continue with two states of value -1

Stochastic Beam Search

- Local Beam Search can concentrate on a small region of the search space too early
- Stochastic Beam Search alleviates this problem by using randomized selection similar to Stochastic Hill-Climbing

```
k_current ← select k random states
do
neighbors ← all neighbors of all current states
k_best_neighbors ← k 'random' states from neighbors
if no neighbor improves current value
    return k_current
k_current ← k_best_neighbors
until termination condition is met
```

Random Selection

```
k_current ← select k random states
do

neighbors ← all neighbors of all current states
k_best_neighbors ← k 'random' states from neighbors
if no neighbor improves current value
    return best state from k_current
k_current ← k_best_neighbors
until termination condition is met
```

- □ Again, random selection is usually not completely random
- probability of selecting a state should increase with its value
- □ In this way, we balance diversity (exploration) and exploitation

Genetic Algorithms

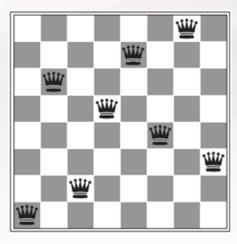
Genetic Algorithms Motivation

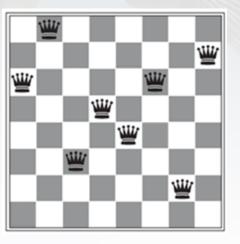
- □ Local Beam Search bears some resemblance to natural selection:
 - □ Successors (offspring) of states (organisms) populate next generation
 - ☐ Likelihood of survival depends on value (fitness)

- □ Genetic Algorithms extend this analogy
 - □ In each step, two selected individuals reproduce
 - Selection probability increases with fitness (value)
 - □ There is a small probability of mutation
 - Offspring usually replaces other individuals (that die)

Population (States)

- □ Genetic Algorithms work on a population of individuals
- □ Each individual is a state represented as a chromose (e.g. string)
 over a set of genes (e.g. set of characters)
- For 8-Queens problem, we could use string consisting of 8 integers from {1,...8}, where i-th integer is row position of i-th queen



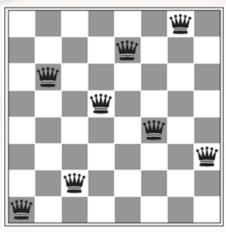


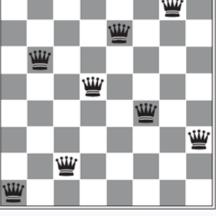
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Fitness (Objective Function)

- ☐ Fitness corresponds to objective function
- □ For 8-Queens problem, we can reuse our old value function
- In order to get a non-negative fitness function, we could count the number of pairs of queens that cannot attack each other (28 – number of attacks between pairs)



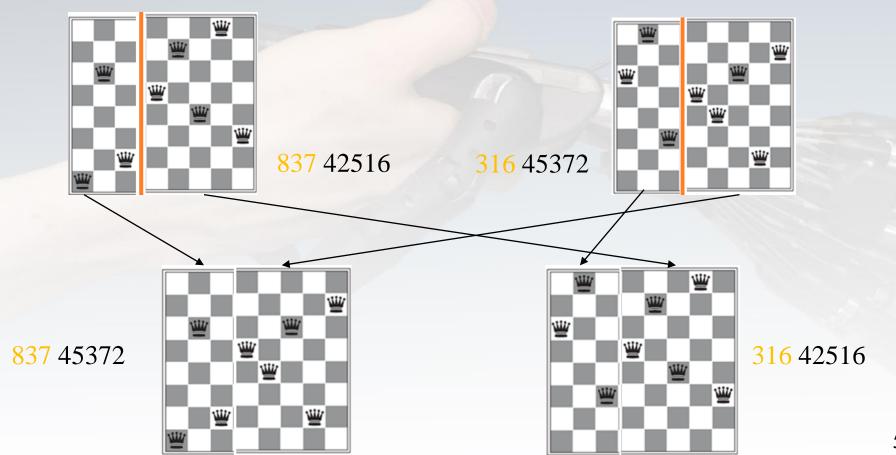


Fitness -1 or 27 (28–1)

Fitness -6 or 22 (28-6)

Reproduction (Recombination)

- □ Reproduction: we choose a random crossover point in chromosome
- Offspring is created by crossing parents at this point

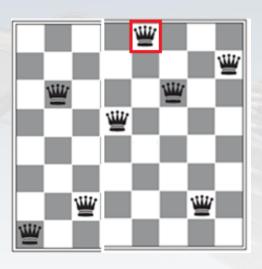


Mutation

- ☐ With small probability, mutation of offspring occurs
- □ E.g. replace one gene in chromosome randomly



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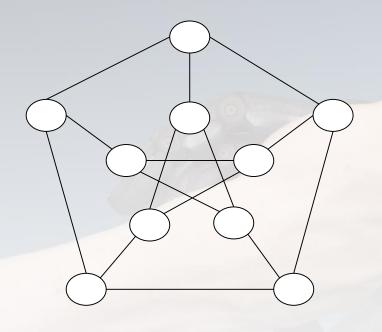


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A Simple Genetic Algorithm

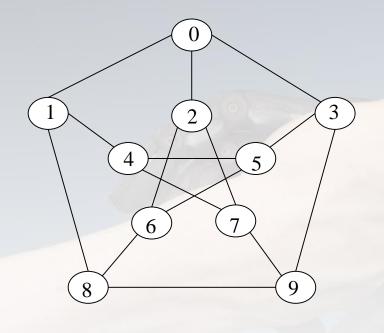
```
repeat
 population ← create k chromosomes at random
 for i = 1 to k do
   x \leftarrow select random chromosome based on fitness
   y ← select random chromosome based on fitness
   child \leftarrowreproduce(x, y)
   if (random() < 0.05)
     child ←mutate(child)
   add child to population
   remove random chromosome based on fitness
until some chromosome is fit enough, or time limit is reached
return the best chromosome in population
```

Excercise: Graph Coloring



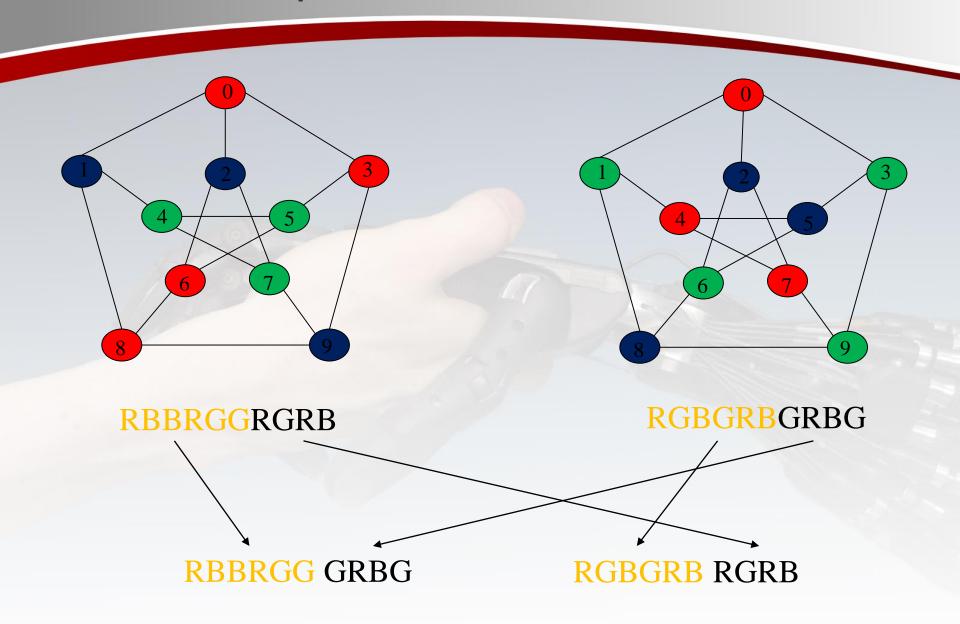
- □ Problem: assign a color from {1,2,3} to each node such that no two adjacent nodes have the same color
- □ Define
 - □ Genes
 - Chromosomes
 - ☐ Fitness (value) of individuals
 - Mutation operation
- Illustrate reproduction and mutation by means of a small example

Solution: Representation



- ☐ Genes {R,G,B}
- Chromosomes are strings of length 10,
 where i-th gene (letter) represents color of i-th node
- ☐ Fitness is the number of edges such that
 the corresponding nodes have different
 colors (0 <= Fitness <= 15)
 </p>
- Mutation operation changes color of random node (50% chance for each of the other two colors)

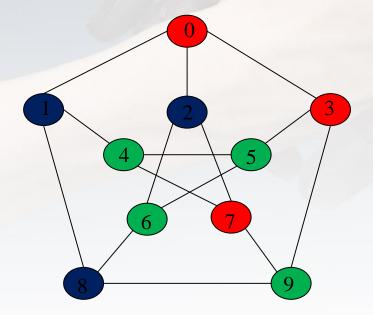
Solution: Reproduction



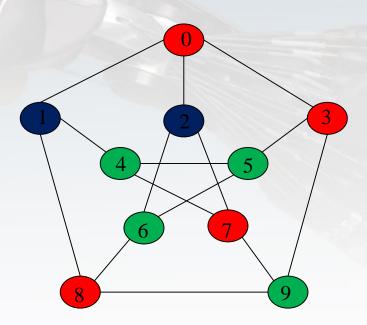
Solution: Mutation

■ Mutation at 9-th gene (node 8)

RBBRGG GRBG



RBBRGG GRRG



Set Cover Problem

- Set Cover Problem: given set of n elements $U = \{e_1, ..., e_n\}$ and subsets $S_1,...,S_m$ of U, find a minimal number of subsets that contain all elements from U (a minimal set cover of U)
- □ For example, U can be a shopping list and subsets correspond to shops that offer the desired items
 - \Box U = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}
 - $S_1 = \{1, 2, 5\}, S_2 = \{1, 4\}, S_3 = \{3, 5\}, S_4 = \{1, 2\}, S_5 = \{3, 4\}$
 - \square S₂, S₃ and S₄ contain all elements from U (S₂, S₃ and S₄ form a set cover of size 3)
 - \square S₁ and S₅ do also contain all elements (S₁, and S₅ form a set cover of size 2)
 - \square Hence, the set cover S₂, S₃ and S₄ is not minimal

Excercise: Set Cover Problem

Set Cover Problem: given set of n elements U = {e₁, ..., eₙ} and m subsets S₁,...,S๓ of U, find a minimal number of subsets that contain all elements from U

- Define
 - □ Genes
 - □ Chromosomes
 - ☐ Fitness (value) of individuals
 - Mutation operation
- Illustrate reproduction by means of a small example

Solution: Representation

- ☐ Genes {0, 1}
- □ Chromosomes are strings of length m, where i-th gene (letter) indicates that i-th set is used

- \Box U = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}
- $S_1 = \{1, 2, 5\}, S_2 = \{1, 4, 6\}, S_3 = \{2, 3, 5\}, S_4 = \{1, 2, 6\}, S_5 = \{3, 4\}$
- \square 10101: use S_1 , S_3 and S_5
- \square 01101: use S₂, S₃ and S₅

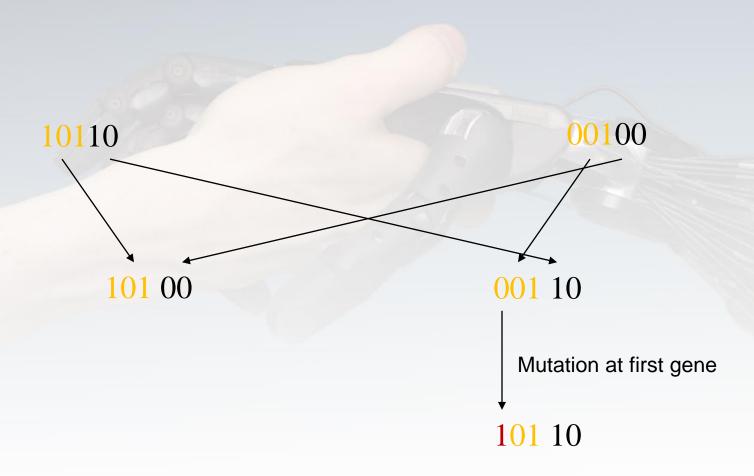
Solution: Fitness

- □ Fitness of an individual is
 - -1 if individual does not represent a set cover
 - □ m size of set cover (number of 1s) otherwise

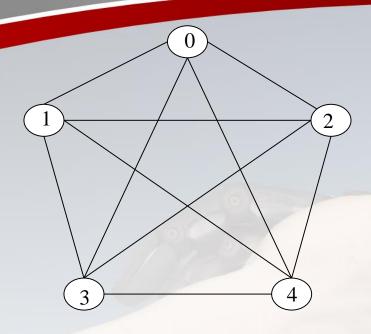
- \Box U = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}
- $S_1 = \{1, 2, 5\}, S_2 = \{1, 4, 6\}, S_3 = \{2, 3, 5\}, S_4 = \{1, 2, 6\}, S_5 = \{3, 4\}$
- □ 10101 covers {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}: fitness -1 (does not cover 6)
- \square 01101 covers {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}: fitness 5 3 = 2
- \square 01100 covers {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}: fitness 5 2 = 3

Solution: Reproduction and Mutation

Mutation operation flips random gene



Excercise: Traveling Salesman Problem

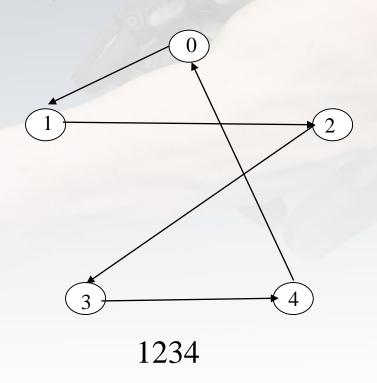


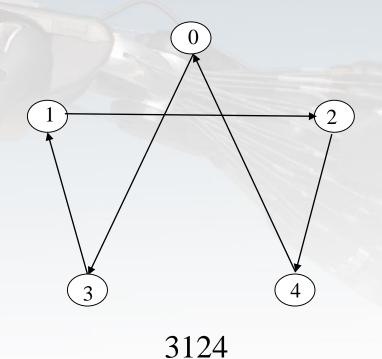
	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	5	6	5	2
1	3	0	6	2	1
2	4	3	0	5	1
3	5	5	3	0	7
4	6	6	4	7	0

- □ TSP: find cyclic route that starts from node 0, visits each node exactly once and minimizes the overall edge cost
- □ Define
 - Genes
 - Chromosomes
 - □ Fitness (value) of individuals
 - Mutation operation
- Does crossover operation make sense?

Solution: Representation

- □ Genes {1, 2, 3, 4}
- □ Chromosomes are strings of length 4, where i-th gene (letter) represents the node that is visited at time i (first node is fixed to be 0)

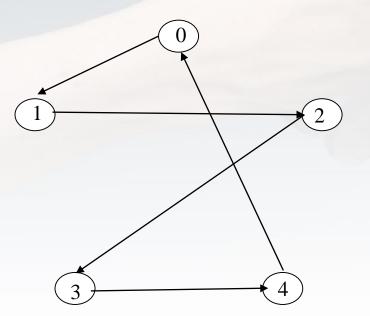




Solution: Fitness



□ Fitness is 35 (rough upper bound on max. cost) minus the cost of getting from i-th to (i+1)-th node and from fithth node back to first node

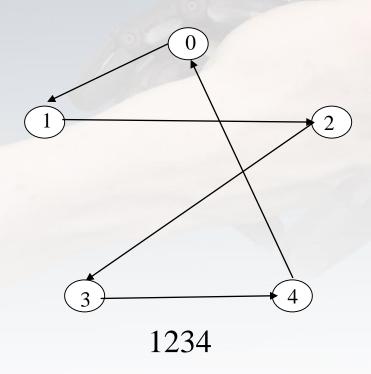


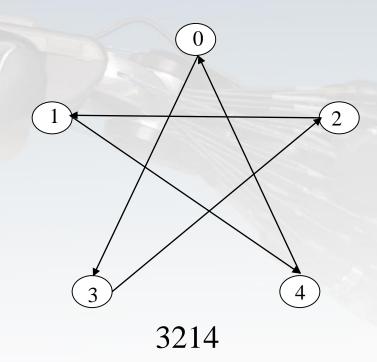
1234

- Cost from 0 to 1: 3
- Cost from 1 to 2: 3
- Cost from 2 to 3: 3
- Cost from 3 to 4: 7
- Cost from 4 to 0: 2
- Overall cost: 18
- **Fitness**: 35-18 = 17

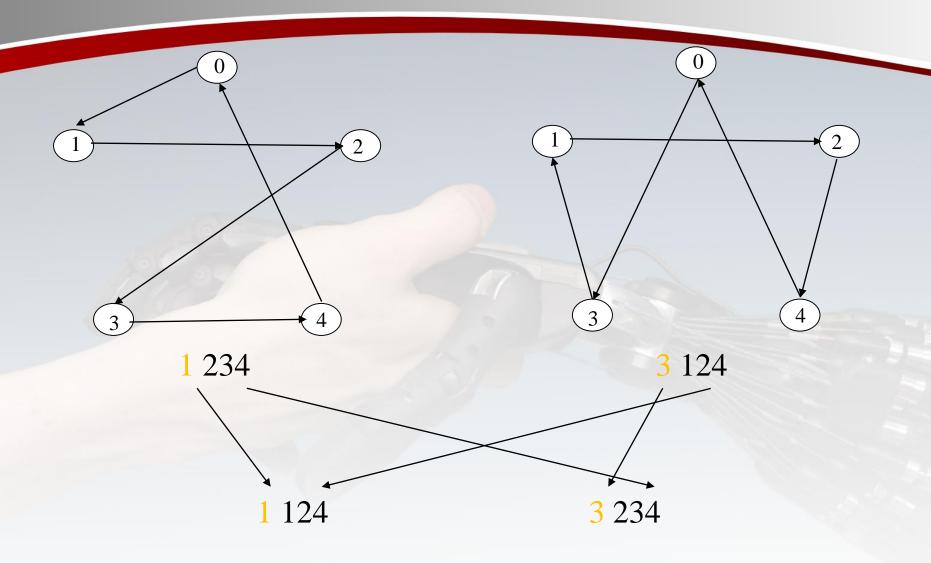
Solution: Mutation

- Mutation operation switches two genes at random
- □ E.g. switch first and third gene





Solution: Problem with Reproduction



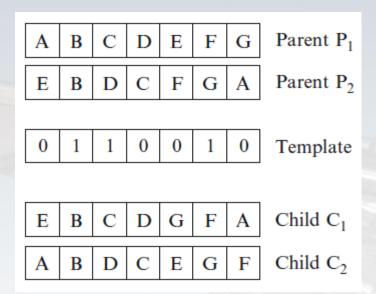
Naive reproduction yields invalid solutions

Reproduction of Permutations

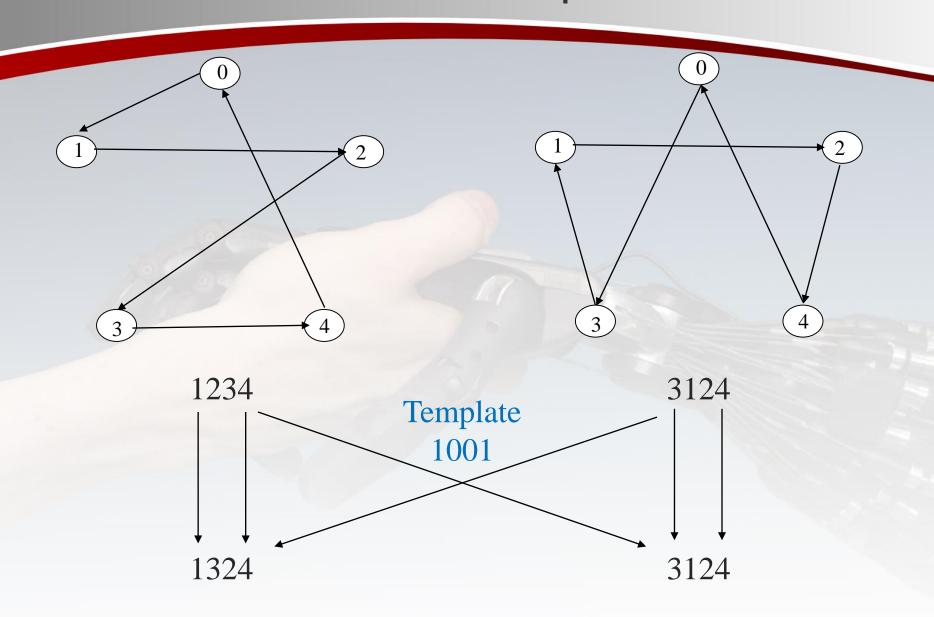
- ☐ If chromosomes correspond to permutations like in TSP, naive crossover reproduction can yield invalid solutions
- □ the problem can be fixed by
 - □ Changing the representation
 - Designing an additional repair operation that is applied after recombination
 - □ Using special crossover techniques for permutations

Uniform-Order Crossover

- □ Uniform-Order Crossover
 - □ Select two parents at random
 - □ Create random binary template
 - Child 1 is created by using genes of parent 1 at 1-positions. Fill gaps with the remaining elements according to the order given by parent 2
 - Child 2 is created by switching the roles of parent 1 and parent 2



Solution: Problem with Reproduction



Variants

- ☐ Genetic Algorithms can be configured by different
 - □ Selection operators
 - □ Reproduction operators
 - □ Mutation operators

- Hybrid Genetic Algorithms combine genetic algorithms with other techniques
 - □ for instance, Memetic Algorithms apply a (fast) local search algorithm to each newly created individual to make it locally optimal
 - Hill-Climbing is well suited for this purpose because it is fast

Summary: Local Search

Summary

- □ If we are only interested in a solution and not in the solution path, Local Search can be better suited than Classical Search
- □ this is typically the case for optimization and constraint satisfaction problems
- □ Some important local search algorithms are
 - ☐ Hill-Climbing
 - □ Simulated Annealing
 - □ Local Beam Search
 - □ Genetic Algorithms

Further Readings

Lecture is mainly based on:

Russell, S., Norvig, P. Artificial Intelligence - A modern approach. Pearson Education: 2010.

More details on presented (and similar algorithms) can be found in:

Burke, E. K., & Kendall, G. Search methodologies - Introductory Tutorials in Optimization and Decision Support Techniques. Springer US: 2014.