

# CS 161 Fundamentals of Artificial Intelligence

## Lecture 5

### Local search algorithms

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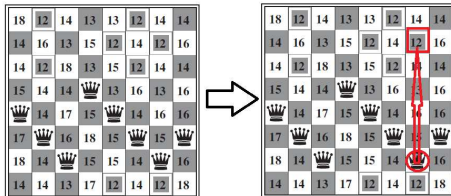
January 24, 2023

# Outline

- Hill-climbing
- Simulated annealing
- Local beam search
- Genetic algorithms
- Local search in continuous spaces

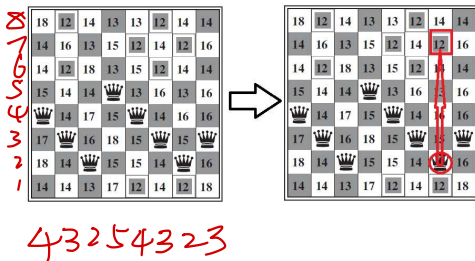
# Iterative improvement algorithms

- In many optimization problems, **path** is irrelevant; the goal state itself is the solution



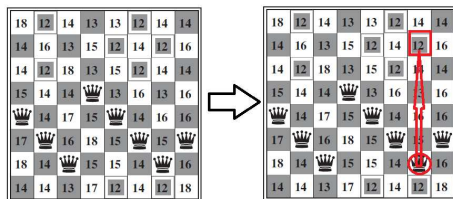
# Iterative improvement algorithms

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- ▶ For example, in the 8-queens problem, what matters is the final configuration of queens, not the order in which they are added.



# Iterative improvement algorithms

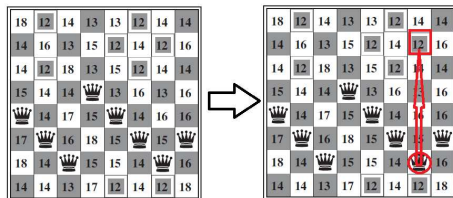
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- ▶ In such cases, can use **iterative improvement** algorithms; keep a single “current” state, try to improve it

# Iterative improvement algorithms

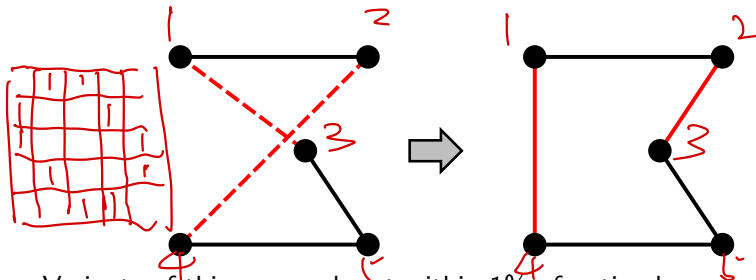
- ▶ In many optimization problems, **path** is irrelevant; the goal state itself is the solution
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- ▶ In such cases, can use **iterative improvement** algorithms; keep a single “current” state, try to improve it
- ▶ Constant space, suitable for online as well as offline search

## Example: Travelling Salesperson Problem

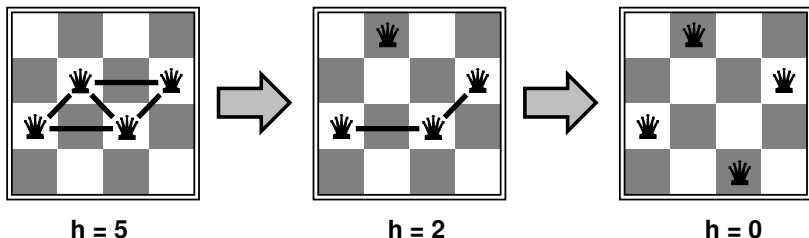
- ▶ Goal: to find the shortest path that visits each city and returns to the origin city
- ▶ Start with any complete tour (may have cross path, not optimal)
- ▶ Perform pairwise exchanges, each iteration reduces length of path



Variants of this approach get within 1% of optimal very quickly with thousands of cities

## Example: $n$ -queens

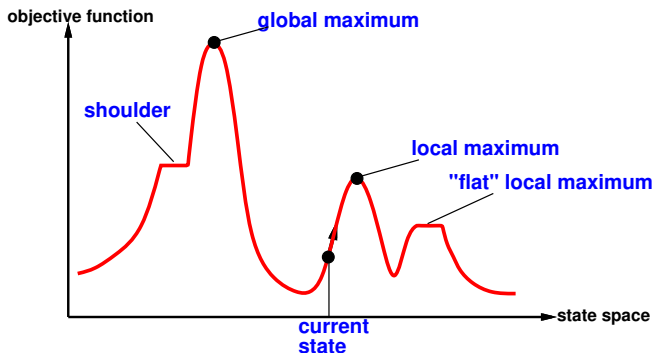
- ▶ Goal: Put  $n$  queens on an  $n \times n$  board with no two queens on the same row, column, or diagonal
- ▶ Move a queen to reduce number of conflicts



Almost always solves  $n$ -queens problems almost instantaneously for very large  $n$ , e.g.,  $n = 1\text{million}$



# State space landscape



- ▶ Goal: to find global maximum
- ▶ Complete: finds a goal if one exists;
- ▶ Optimal: finds a global minimum/maximum
- ▶

# Hill-climbing (or gradient ascent/descent)

“Like climbing Everest in thick fog with amnesia”

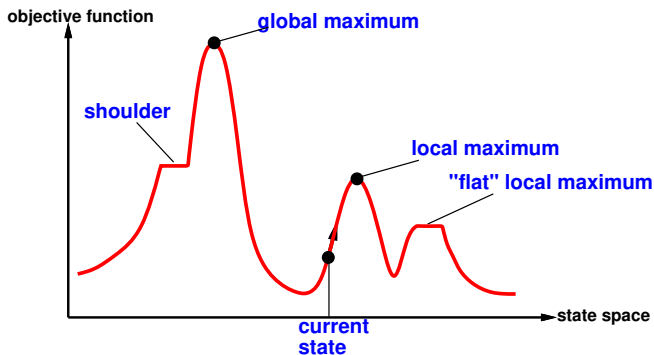
- Moves in the direction of increasing value

```
function HILL-CLIMBING(problem) returns a state that is a local maximum
inputs: problem, a problem
local variables: current, a node
                 neighbor, a node

current ← MAKE-NODE(INITIAL-STATE[problem])
loop do
  neighbor ← a highest-valued successor of current
  if VALUE[neighbor] ≤ VALUE[current] then return STATE[current]
  current ← neighbor
end
```

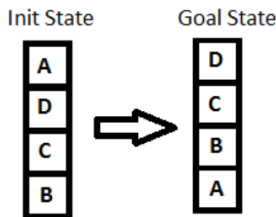
## Hill-climbing contd.

Useful to consider **state space landscape**



- ▶ Escape from shoulders: **Random sideways moves**, maybe loop on flat maxima
- ▶ Escape from local maxima: **Random-restart hill climbing**, trivially complete

## Hill-climbing example<sup>1</sup>



$h(x) = +1$  for all the blocks in the support structure if the block is correctly positioned otherwise  $-1$  for all the blocks in the support structure.

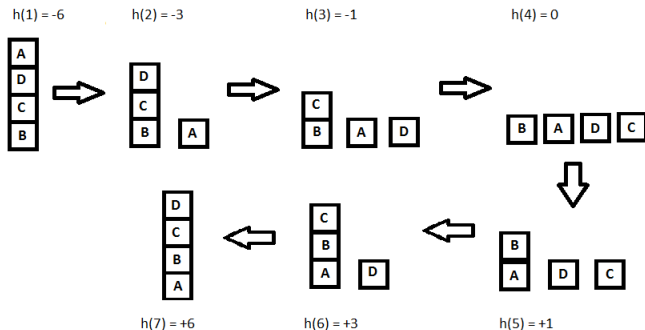
$h(1)$ : A is incorrectly positioned with 3 support blocks ( $-3$ ), B is incorrectly positioned with 0 support blocks ( $-0$ ), C is incorrectly positioned with 1 support blocks ( $-1$ ), D is incorrectly positioned with 2 support blocks ( $-2$ ).

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<sup>1</sup>Reference: <https://www.baeldung.com/java-hill-climbing-algorithm>

# Hill-climbing example

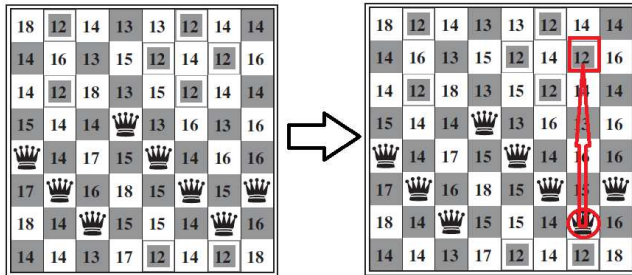
what about  $\begin{bmatrix} C \\ B \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} D \\ A \end{bmatrix}$  ?  $h = +0 -0 -1 -1 = -2$



$h(x) = +1$  for all the blocks in the support structure if the block is correctly positioned otherwise  $-1$  for all the blocks in the support structure.

- ▶  $h(1) = (-3) + (-0) + (-1) + (-2) = -6$
- ▶  $h(2) = (+0) + (-0) + (-1) + (-2) = -3$
- ▶  $h(3) = (+0) + (-0) + (-1) + (-0) = -1$
- ▶ ...

## Hill-climbing example: 8 queen



- ▶ Each state has 8 queens on the board, one per column
- ▶ Successors: move a single queen to another square in the same column
- ▶ heuristic cost function  $h$ : the number of pairs of queens that are attacking each other
- ▶ Before:  $h = 0(\text{column}) + 5(\text{row}) + 12(\text{diagonal}) = 17$
- ▶ After:  $h = 0(\text{column}) + 4(\text{row}) + 8(\text{diagonal}) = 12$

# Simulated annealing

$$e^{\Delta E/T}$$

Idea: escape local maxima by allowing some “bad” moves  
**but gradually decrease their size and frequency**

**function** SIMULATED-ANNEALING(*problem*, *schedule*) **returns** a solution state

**inputs:** *problem*, a problem

*schedule*, a mapping from time to “temperature”

**local variables:** *current*, a node

*next*, a node

*T*, a “temperature” controlling prob. of downward steps

*current*  $\leftarrow$  MAKE-NODE(INITIAL-STATE[*problem*])

**for** *t*  $\leftarrow$  1 **to**  $\infty$  **do**

*T*  $\leftarrow$  *schedule*[*t*]

**if** *T* = 0 **then return** *current*

*next*  $\leftarrow$  a randomly selected successor of *current*

$\Delta E \leftarrow$  VALUE[*next*] - VALUE[*current*]

**if**  $\Delta E > 0$  **then** *current*  $\leftarrow$  *next*

**else** *current*  $\leftarrow$  *next* only with probability  $e^{\Delta E/T}$

$$\Delta E \leq 0$$
$$T = 0(1)$$

$$\textcircled{1} \Delta E = -1$$
$$\textcircled{2} \Delta E = -100$$

$$e^{-\frac{1}{T}}$$
$$e^{-\frac{100}{T}} \ll e^{-\frac{1}{T}}$$

# Properties of simulated annealing

$$e^{\Delta E/T}$$

- ▶ If the move improves the situation, it is always accepted. Otherwise, the algorithm accepts the move with some probability less than 1.
- ▶ The probability decreases exponentially with the “badness” of the move—the amount  $\Delta E$  by which the evaluation is worsened.
- ▶ The probability also decreases as the “temperature”  $T$  goes down: “bad” moves are more likely to be allowed at the start when  $T$  is high, and they become more unlikely as  $T$  decreases.
- ▶ If the schedule lowers  $T$  slowly enough, the algorithm will find a global optimum with probability approaching 1

$$\Delta E = -1$$

$$\textcircled{1} T \neq 100$$

$$e^{-\frac{1}{100}}$$

$$\textcircled{2} T = 1$$

$$e^{-1} \leq e^{-\frac{1}{100}}$$



# Properties of simulated annealing

At fixed “temperature”  $T$ , state occupation probability reaches Boltzman distribution

$$p(x) = \alpha e^{-\frac{E(x)}{kT}}$$

$T$  decreased slowly enough  $\implies$  always reach best state  $x^*$   
( $E(x^*) = \max_x E(x)$ )

- $e^{-\frac{E(x^*)}{kT}} / e^{-\frac{E(x)}{kT}} = e^{\frac{E(x^*) - E(x)}{kT}} \gg 1$  for small  $T$
- Thus, very likely to choose  $x^*$ !

## Local beam search

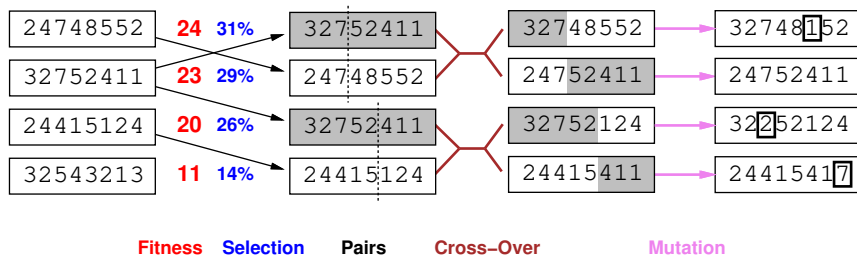
each state has 100 successors

$$k = 10$$

- **Idea:** keep  $k$  states instead of 1; At each step, all the successors of all  $k$  states are generated. If any one is a goal, the algorithm halts. Otherwise, it selects the best  $k$  successors from the complete list and repeats.
  - Not the same as  $k$  searches run in parallel!  
Searches that find good states recruit other searches to join them
  - **Problem:** quite often, all  $k$  states end up on same local hill
  - **Stochastic beam search:** choose  $k$  successors randomly, biased towards good ones
- Observe the close analogy to natural selection!

# Evolutionary algorithms/Genetic algorithms

- stochastic local beam search + generate successors from **pairs** of states

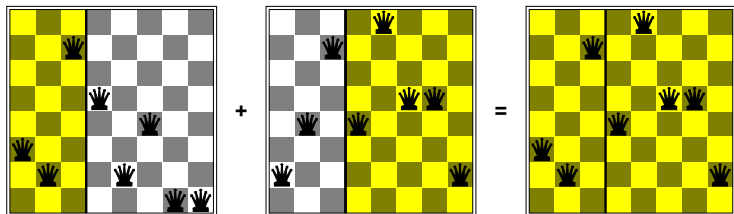


- Fitness function: higher score, higher chance to be selected
- Cross-over: crossover point is chosen randomly
- Mutation: small probability

## Genetic algorithms contd.

GAs require states encoded as strings

Crossover helps **iff substrings are meaningful components**



## Local search in continuous state spaces

Suppose we want to site three airports in Romania:

- 6-D state space defined by  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3)$
- objective function  $f(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2, x_3, y_3) =$   
sum of squared distances from each city to nearest airport

**Discretization** methods turn continuous space into discrete space,  
e.g., **empirical gradient** considers  $\pm\delta$  change in each coordinate

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + 2xy + \frac{1}{2}y^2$$

$$x, y \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\min_{x, y} f(x, y)$$

## Gradient methods

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x + 2y$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2x + y$$

**Gradient** methods compute

$$\nabla f = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_2}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_3}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_3} \right)$$

to increase/reduce  $f$ , e.g., by  $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow \mathbf{x} + \alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x})$

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix} - \alpha \begin{bmatrix} 2x_0 + 2y_0 \\ 2x_0 + y_0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} (1-2\alpha)x_0 - 2\alpha y_0 \\ -2\alpha x_0 - (1-\alpha)y_0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

## Newton-Raphson Method

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = 2$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = 2$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = 2$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = 1$$

Sometimes can solve for  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$  exactly.

**Newton-Raphson** (1664, 1690) iterates  $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}_f^{-1}(\mathbf{x}) \nabla f(\mathbf{x})$

to solve  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ , where  $\mathbf{H}_{ij} = \partial^2 f / \partial x_i \partial x_j$

$$\mathbf{H}_f(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{H}_f^{-1}(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Acknowledgment

The slides are adapted from Stuart Russell et al.