

# Artificial Intelligence 1 OPTIMISATION

Dr. Leonardo Stella

SCHOOL OF COMPUTER SCIENCE

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#### AIMS OF THE SESSION

#### This session aims to help you:

- Understand how to formulate an optimisation problem
- Explain the steps involved in Hill Climbing
- Compare the performance of search and optimisation algorithms

# **OUTLINE**

Optimisation

2 Hill Climbing

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#### **OPTIMISATION**

- Until now, we have addressed problems in fully observable, deterministic, static, known environments
- In this lecture, we will relax some of these constraints and look at optimisation problems
- Optimisation problems arise in many disciplines, including computer science, engineering, operations research, etc.
- In an optimisation problem, one seeks to find a solution that minimises or maximises an objective function (or more than one)
- Depending on the problem, there can be some **constraints** that must be satisfied for a solution to be **feasible**

#### FORMULATING AN OPTIMISATION PROBLEM

 The canonical representation of an optimisation problem is like in the following:

min / max 
$$f(x)$$
,  
s.t.  $g_i(x) \le 0$ ,  $i = 1, ..., m$ ,  
 $h_i(x) = 0$ ,  $j = 1, ..., n$ ,

- where f(x) the objective function, x is the design variable
- $g_i(x)$  and  $h_i(x)$  are the constraints
- The **search space** of the problem is the space of all possible *x* values

#### FORMULATING AN OPTIMISATION PROBLEM

- The design variables represent a candidate solution
- Therefore, the search space of a candidate solution is defined by the design variables
- The objective function defines the cost (or quality) of a solution
- This function is the one to be optimised (through min or max)
- The solution must optionally satisfy a number of constraints
- They define the feasibility of the solution

# **OUTLINE**

Optimisation

2 Hill Climbing

#### LOCAL SEARCH

- We can now formalise an optimisation problem
- In a search problem, we want to find paths through the search space
- For example, finding the shortest path between Arad and Bucharest
- In the previous slides, we formalised the corresponding optimisation problem (or one possible way)
- However, sometimes we are interested only in the final state (e.g., the 8-queen problem discussed in this week's tutorial session)

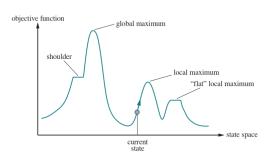
#### LOCAL SEARCH

- Local search algorithms (also referred to as optimisation algorithms) operate by searching from an initial (randomised) state to neighbouring states
- These algorithms do not keep track of the paths nor the states that have been reached/visited
- This means they are not systematic, but they have advantages:
  - they use very little memory
  - they can often find reasonable solutions in large or infinite state spaces
- Important applications include: integrated-circuit design, factory floor layout, job shop scheduling, portfolio management, etc.

#### Local Search

Example. Consider the problem of maximising an objective function whose value is defined as the elevation on the y-axis in the figure below (against the state space on the x-axis). The aim is to find the highest peak, i.e., a global maximum. This process is called **hill climbing**.

Example. Consider the opposite problem. The objective function now represents a cost that we want to minimise. The aim is to find the lowest valley, i.e., a global minimum. This process is called **gradient descent**.



- Hill Climbing is one of the most popular optimisation algorithms:
  - Generate initial candidate solution at random
    - Generate neighbour solutions and move to the one with highest value
    - If no neighbour has a higher value of the current solution, terminate
    - Otherwise, repeat with a new best neighbour solution
- Hill climbing does not look beyond the immediate neighbours of the current state, making it a greedy algorithm
- This is equivalent "to trying to find the top of Mount Everest in a thick fog while suffering from amnesia"

#### while true do

 $neighbor \leftarrow$  a highest-valued successor state of current if VALUE(neighbor)  $\leq$  VALUE(current) then return current  $current \leftarrow neighbor$ 

- To be able to apply hill climbing, we need to design the following components of the algorithm:
  - Representation, how to store the design variable, e.g., boolean, integer, float, array
     A good representation should facilitate the application of the initialisation procedure and neighbourhood operator
  - **Initialisation procedure**, how to pick an initial solution Usually, this involves selecting one at random
  - Neighbourhood operator, how to generate neighbour solutions

## PERFORMANCE OF HILL CLIMBING

- Let us evaluate the performance of hill climbing.
  - Completeness: hill climbing is not complete, as it depends on the problem formulation and design of the algorithm
  - Optimality: hill climbing is not optimal (can get stuck in a local maximum/optimum)
  - **Time complexity**:  $\mathcal{O}(mnp)$ , where m is the maximum number of iterations, n is the maximum number of neighbours, each of which takes  $\mathcal{O}(p)$  to generate
  - **Space complexity**:  $\mathcal{O}(nq+r) = \mathcal{O}(nq)$ , where the variable takes  $\mathcal{O}(q)$  and r represents the space to generate the neighbours sequentially (which is negligible compared to n and q)

- Pros:
  - Can rapidly find a good solution by improving over a bad initial state (greedy)
  - Low time and space complexity compared to search algorithms
  - Does not require problem-specific heuristics
  - Start from a candidate solution, instead of building it step-by-step
- Cons:
  - Not guaranteed to be complete, nor optimal
  - Can get stuck in local maxima and plateaus

#### References



Russell, A. S., and Norvig, P., *Artificial Intelligence A Modern Approach*, 4<sup>th</sup> Edition. Prentice Hall.



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# Thank you!