

ALGORITHMS IN AI & DATA SCIENCE 1 (AKIDS 1)

Metaheuristic Search

Prof. Dr. Goran Glavaš

Content

- Constrained Discrete Optimization & Metaheuristics
- Single Point Search Algorithms
- Population-Based Algorithms
 - Genetic algorithm

Recap: State Space Search

- We will denote the set of all states (state space) with **S**
 - The state space is commonly **so large** that we **can't iteratively list all states**
 - All states in the space are **not really „known“** in advance
 - When in state **s**, we typically only then compute the set of possible next states

State space search

A state space search problem is defined with a triple $(s_0, succ, goal)$ where $s_0 \in S$ is the **initial state**, $succ: S \rightarrow \wp(S)$ is the **successor function** that for some state **s** returns a set of states that we can **transition to** from **s**, and $goal: S \rightarrow \{True, False\}$ is a **predicate** (function that returns a boolean value) that for a given state **s** determines if **s** is a **goal state** or not (there can be multiple states that satisfy the goal predicate). A state space search (typically) ends as soon as any goal state is found.

Recap: Heuristic Search

- There are generally two types of search
- **Uninformed (blind) search**
 - No additional information about the problem, that could indicate whether one state is perhaps closer to the goal state than another state
- **Informed (directed, heuristic) search**
 - Additional information helps avoid some states and speed up the search
 - Problem-specific estimate of state's distance from the goal is available

Heuristics

- If we have a (**vague**) **idea in which direction to look** for the solution, why not use this information to **improve the search**?
- **Heuristics** = problem-specific rules („vague ideas”) about the nature of the problem
 - **Purpose**: direct the search towards the goal so it becomes more efficient

Heuristic function

Heuristic function $h: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ assigns to each state $s \in S$ an **estimate** of the **distance** between that state and the goal state

State Space Search vs. Constrained Optimization

- In **State Space Search**, we're looking to reach the **goal state** with the minimal cost (maximal gain)
 - **Heuristics** (task-specific) help **reduce the search space**
 - The **solution** is the **path** of transitions from s_0 to **goal state**
- In **Discrete Constrained Optimization** (aka **combinatorial optimization**), we search across a very large space of states, but **each state represents one possible solution**
 - There is a **function that assigns a quality value to each state**, indicating how good of a solution it may be
 - There is often also a **set of constraints**: if a state does not satisfy the constraints it is not a valid solution

Discrete Constrained Optimization

Discrete Constrained Optimization Problems

In **discrete constrained optimization**, we search for an **optimal state** in large space of possible states. Each state \mathbf{X} can be seen as consisting of n variables $\mathbf{X} = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$, each with a corresponding domain $D_1, D_2, \dots, D_n \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ (whole numbers). The optimal state is the one that maximizes/minimizes the **objective function** $f: D_1 \times \dots \times D_n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Finally, the constraints C_1, \dots, C_m , with $C_i \subseteq D_1, D_2, \dots, D_n$ define the subsets of the state space that encompass **valid solutions** to the problem

- Optimal state (or the state with the best f that was found) is the **solution**
- No path between **start** and **goal** state – commonly there isn't even a clear **start state**
- We're **not making moves** like in classic **SSS** problems, just **searching for the best possible solution** over a **very large space of candidate solutions**

State Space Search vs. Constrained Optimization

- **State Space Search**

- **Goal states** represent a very small portion of the states in the search space
- Only **paths that reach one of goal states** are (candidate) **solutions**
- Explicit transitions between the states (*succ* function)
- **Problem:** how to get to a **goal state** with **minimal cost/maximal gain**

- **Discrete Constrained Optimization**

- **Every state** represents one **candidate solution** to the problem
- Each state (candidate solution) has a measure of **“quality”** – **the objective function f** – assigned to it
- **No** explicit „start state” nor „state transitions” – instead **neighbourhood** (or **distance**) between states (but not in the sense of transition cost)
- **Problem:** how to find the **state with minimal/maximal value** of the objective f

Heuristics vs. Metaheuristics

- **Heuristics** in State Space Search
 - **Trim** the number of paths to be explored
 - Estimate the **distance** of the current state from the **goal state**
- **Discrete Constrained Optimization**
 - **No goal state**, every state is a **possible solution**
 - Often no explicit „start state” nor explicit „state transitions”
 - **Q:** Where to start? Where to look next after evaluating some state?
 - When in a state, **no idea** how „far” that state/solution is from the optimal state/solution
 - Concept of **distance / neighbourhood** in DCO problems:
 - Measures **how similar** two **states = candidate solutions** are (not a cost of transitioning between states, there are no transitions!)
 - **Metaheuristic** frameworks: **search strategies** for selecting the next state(s)/solution(s) to be evaluated, typically in a **problem-agnostic manner** (applicable to any DCO problem)

Discrete Constrained Optimization: Example

Traveling Salesman Problem

The **travelling salesman** needs to visit n cities and wants to make the **minimal possible path**. Given a list of cities and distances between each pair of cities, find **the shortest possible route** that **visits each city exactly once** and **returns to the original city**.

- **NP-Hard combinatorial problem** (no known polynomial time algorithm for solving it) – **factorial complexity** – **Hamiltonian cycle** of a (fully connected) graph
- **Real-world applications**: vehicle routing, chip manufacturing, ...
- TSP as **combinatorial optimization**:
 - **X**: $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}$
 - $D_1 = D_2 = \dots = D_n = D_{n+1} = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$
 - $f(\mathbf{X})$: $d(x_1, x_2) + d(x_2, x_3) + \dots + d(x_{n-1}, x_n) + d(x_n, x_{n+1})$
 - **Constraints**:
 - $x_1 = x_{n+1}$ (some concrete city from $\{1, \dots, n\}$)
 - $x_1 \neq x_2 \neq x_3 \neq \dots \neq x_{n-1} \neq x_n$ (no repetition of cities along the path)

Metaheuristic search strategies

- **Metaheuristics strategies** **guide** the search process
 - **Direct** the search (selection of next states to evaluate) so that the chances of finding a good (or near-optimal) state increase
- They are approximate – **no guarantee** of finding an **optimal solution**
- Most commonly, they are also **non-deterministic** (and most often **stochastic**) – there is **randomness** involved
- **Metaheuristics** are **problem-agnostic**, but may use **problem-specific heuristics** as part of the strategy (but as „black boxes“, without caring what they are)

Classifying metaheuristics

- **Single point search** (one candidate solution examined at a time) vs. **Population-based search** (a set of candidates examined at each step)
- **Nature-inspired** (e.g., *evolutionary algorithms* or *ant colony optimization*) vs. **Others** (not nature inspired)
- **Static** (f does not change during search) vs. **Dynamic objective function** (changes during the search)
- **Using memory** vs. **Memory-less**
 - Memory as in experience from previous searches on similar/same problem

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Single-Point Search

- **Single point search algorithms**, also known as **trajectory methods**, examine one state (candidate solution) at a time
 - They then choose the next candidate solution to be examined, typically from a **local neighbourhood** of the current solution
 - The **neighbourhood** of a state $N(s)$ needs to be defined for a concrete problem
 - In principle, similar purpose as *succ* in state space search
 - But *succ* in **SSS** typically clearly defined by the problem, $N(s)$ in DCO not obvious
- **Local search**
 - Choose (usually randomly) an initial solution (s_0)
 - Given $N(s)$, determine the neighbourhood of current solution s
 - Explore the neighbourhood and select one neighbor
 - Proceed with the selected neighbor as the next state/solution

Simple Descent/Ascent

- We will assume we're **minimizing** the objective f
 - Thus, the algorithms will be called „**descent**”
 - If the objective is to be maximized, we would be „**ascending**”
- **Simple Descent**
 - When in a state s , selects any neighbour s' for which $f(s') < f(s)$ (in case of maximization, $f(s') > f(s)$)
 - The order of exploration of neighbours in $N(s)$ is **underspecified**, but typically random

```
simple_descent(s, N)
while True
    better = False
    for s' in N(s)
        if f(s') < f(s)
            s = s'
            better = True
            break
    if not better
        break
return s
```

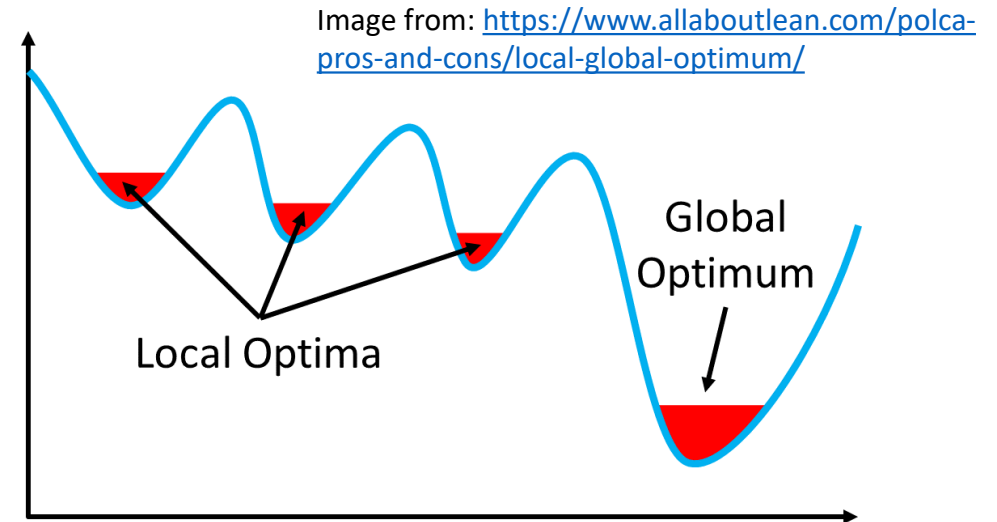
Deepest Descent

- We will assume we're **minimizing** the objective f
 - Thus, the algorithms will be called „**descent**”
 - If the objective is to be maximized, we would be „**ascending**”
- **Deepest Descent**
 - **Greedy strategy**: in each step we select the neighbour with the smallest $f(s')$
 - The order of exploration of neighbours in $N(s)$ is **underspecified**, but **doesn't matter** because we have to check all neighbours anyways
 - Guaranteed to lead to the closest **local optimum** (minimum) from the initial state

```
deepest_descent(s, N)
while True
    best = s
    for s' in N(s)
        if f(s') < f(best)
            best = s'
    if best == s
        break
    else
        s = best
return best
```


Local and Global Optima

- With greedy search (deepest descent)
 - We are **guaranteed** to find the **closest local optimum** from the initial state
- **Q:** is that good or bad?
 - Depends where we start
 - We typically choose the starting state **randomly**
- **Solution:** run the „deepest descent” multiple times
 - Each time from a different initial state

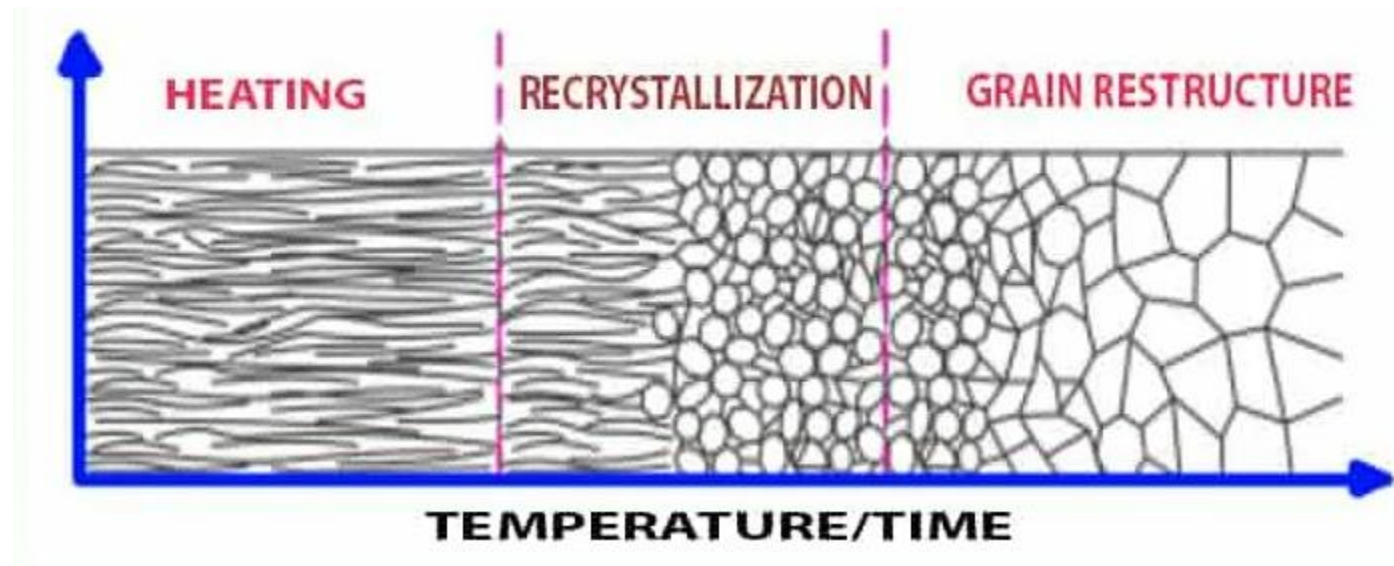


```
multistart_deepest_descent(iters)
best = null # f(null) = +inf
for i in 1 to iters
    s0 = randomly select initial state s0
    s = deepest_descent(s0)

    if f(s) < f(best)
        best = s
return best
```

Simulated Annealing

- **Simulated annealing** is a **metaheuristic strategy** that borrows the idea from material physics about reaching the minimal energy state
 - For example, for glass or metal
- **Annealing**: heating the material and then slowly cooling it



Simulated Annealing

- **Annealing**: heating the material and then slowly cooling it
- Compared to strict „descents“, SA allows to select **the next state with larger value of f** („hotter solution“ or „worse solution“)
 - With **decreasing probability** as the search proceeds
 - Allows for more of „**random search**“ in the **early stages** and more focused (minimizing) search later on
- Selects (randomly) a state from the neighbourhood and accepts it according to the following probability $p(s')$

$$p(T, s', s) = \begin{cases} \mathbf{1} & \text{if } f(s') < f(s) & \# \text{ always accept a better solution} \\ e^{-(f(s')-f(s))/T} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Simulated Annealing

$$p(T, s', s) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f(s') < f(s) \quad \# \text{ always accept a better solution} \\ e^{-(f(s')-f(s))/T} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- The temperature T plays the crucial role
 - If $T = 0$, $p(T, s', s) = 0$
- It is gradually reduced
 - **Linear annealing:** $T \rightarrow a * T$, where a is a constant (typically between 0.8 and 0.99)
- When does it end?
 - Fixed number of iterations
 - Or when T becomes close enough to 0

```
simulated_annealing(s0, N, T, end)
iter = 0
while not end(T, iter)
    iter = iter + 1
    s' = randomly select from N(s)
    if f(s') < f(s)
        s = s'
    else
        p = exp(-(f(s') < f(s))/T)
        p' = random(0, 1)
        if p' < p
            s = s'
return s
```

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Population-Based Search

- At each step, more than a single solution is evaluated – we keep the **population of solutions**
 - Between the iterations, the **population** is **partially or completely replaced**
- **Nature-inspired population-based search algorithms**
 - Draw inspiration from processes in nature / biology
 - **Genetic algorithm** (more generally, **evolutionary algorithms**)
 - Ant Colony Optimization
 - Swarm Optimization
 - Artificial Immunological Systems
 - ...

Genetic Algorithm

- Evolution as inspiration – each **solution** is a “**chromosome**”
- The solutions (chromosomes) with better value of the objective function have higher chances of “**survival**” and for “**reproduction**”
- New solutions are created from existing ones via **recombination**
 - The exact recombination operation depends on how chromosomes look like
- Finally, the **mutation** (random change of some value) in the chromosome is possible with some probability
 - Allows for bigger jumps in the solution space and **escaping local optima**

Genetic Algorithm

- Objective function value of the solution $f(s)$ is called **fitness** in GA
- Let S be the size of the **population**
- **end** function determines when the algorithm finishes, based on
 - (1) fitness of the **best found solution** or
 - (2) average **fitness of the population** or
 - (3) number of iterations

```
genetic_algorithm( $S, end$ )  
   $p = create\_init\_population(S)$   
   $iter = 0$   
  evaluate( $p$ )  
  while not  $end(p, iter)$   
     $iter = iter + 1$   
     $p' = recombine(p)$   
    mutate( $p'$ )  
    evaluate( $p'$ )  
     $p = select(p \cup p')$   
  return  $p$ 
```


Genetic Algorithm: Chromosome

- **Q:** How do we represent one candidate solution as a **chromosome**
 - Depends on the problem
- **Travelling salesman problem**
 - A chromosome is a vector of **$n-1$** values: **$\mathbf{X}: x_2, \dots, x_n$**
 - Because x_1 and x_{n+1} are fixed (the start/end city is given)
 - **Fitness** of the chromosome? **$f(\mathbf{X}): d(x_1, x_2) + d(x_2, x_3) + \dots + d(x_{n-1}, x_n) + d(x_n, x_{n+1})$**
 - **Population initialization**
 - Randomly generate a sample of **S** different vectors, each with all **$n-1$** numbers (but in different order), without repeating the numbers?
 - **Q:** How many such vectors are there?
 - **Q:** Write an algorithm for `create_init_population(S)`!

Genetic Algorithm: Recombination

- TSP, toy example: 10 cities, start and end in city 1
- Two example chromosomes
 - Chromosome #1: [7, 2, 8, 9, 4, 10, 3, 5, 6]
 - Chromosome #2: [3, 6, 5, 10, 6, 7, 4, 2, 8]
- **Recombination** (also called **crossover**) needs to create „children” chromosomes (one or more) from the „parent” chromosomes
 - The children must also be **valid solutions** for the problem
 - For TSP that means no repetition of cities!

Genetic Algorithm: Recombination

- Parents

[7, 2, 8, 9, 4, 10, 3, 5, 6]

[3, 6, 5, 10, 6, 7, 4, 2, 8]

- **Common crossover operators**

- **Single-point crossover**: select (typically randomly) the location at which to cut the chromosomes and „exchange them” → two „child” chromosomes

[7, 2, 8, 10, 6, 7, 4, 2, 8]

[3, 6, 5, 9, 4, 10, 3, 5, 6]

Doesn't work for TSP: repetition of cities!

Genetic Algorithm: Recombination

- Parents

[7, 2, 8, 9, 4, 10, 3, 5, 6]

[3, 6, 5, 10, 6, 7, 4, 2, 8]

- **Common crossover operators**

- **2 (or more)-point crossover**: select **two or more** locations at which to cut the chromosomes and „exchange them” → two „child” chromosomes

[7, 2, 8, 10, 6, 7, 4, 5, 6]

[3, 6, 5, 9, 4, 10, 3, 2, 8]

Doesn't work for TSP: repetition of cities!

Genetic Algorithm: Recombination

- Parents

[7, 2, 8, 9, 4, 10, 3, 5, 6]

[3, 6, 5, 10, 6, 7, 4, 2, 8]

- **Common crossover operators**

- **Uniform crossover**: each bit is selected randomly (50% chance, typically, or proportionally based on parents' fitness)

[7, 2, 5, 10, 4, 7, 4, 5, 8]

[3, 6, 8, 9, 6, 10, 3, 2, 6]

Doesn't work for TSP: repetition of cities!

Genetic Algorithm: Recombination

- Parents

[7, 2, 8, 9, 4, 10, 3, 5, 6]
[3, 6, 5, 10, 6, 7, 4, 2, 8]

- Partially mapped crossover:**
crossover that works for TSP 😊

- (1) Choose 2 random cuts
- (2) Create mappings from the middle portion
- (3) Copy the rest if it doesn't cause repetition and
- (4) Use mappings to resolve repetitions

[7 2 8 | 9 4 10 | 3 5 6]
[3 6 5 | 10 6 7 | 4 2 8]

Mappings: 9 <-> 10, 4 <-> 6, 10 <-> 7

[x x x | 10 6 7 | x x x]
[x x x | 9 4 10 | x x x]

Copy everything that doesn't cause repetition

[x 2 8 | 10 6 7 | 3 5 x]
[3 6 5 | 9 4 10 | x 2 8]

Use mappings to resolve repetitions

7 → already in, mapping 10 <-> 7, but 10 also already in, mapping 9 <-> 10, 9 not in!

[9 2 8 | 10 6 7 | 3 5 4]
[3 6 5 | 9 4 10 | 7 2 8]

Genetic Algorithm: Mutation

- Selecting parents for recombination based on fitness → over time, the **populations** will consists of more and more **similar chromosomes**
- This means the GA is heading towards some **local optimum**
 - Random **mutations** moves (some) chromosomes from that local region
 - Allow the GA to **escape** the local optima
- Common types of mutation
 - **Element change** → randomly change the value of one chromosome element
`[7, 2, 8, 9, 4, 10, 3, 5, 6] → [7, 2, 8, 9, 4, 10, 8, 5, 6]`
 - **Doesn't work for TSP!**

Genetic Algorithm: Mutation

- Selecting parents for recombination based on fitness → over time, the **populations** will consists of more and more **similar chromosomes**
- This means the GA is heading towards some **local optimum**
 - Random **mutations** moves (some) chromosomes from that local region
 - Allow the GA to **escape** the local optima
- Common types of mutation
 - **Element swap** → randomly choose two elements and exchange their values
[7, 2, 8, 9, 4, 10, 3, 5, 6] → [7, 2, 3, 9, 4, 10, 8, 5, 6]
 - Works for TSP!

Genetic Algorithm: Selection

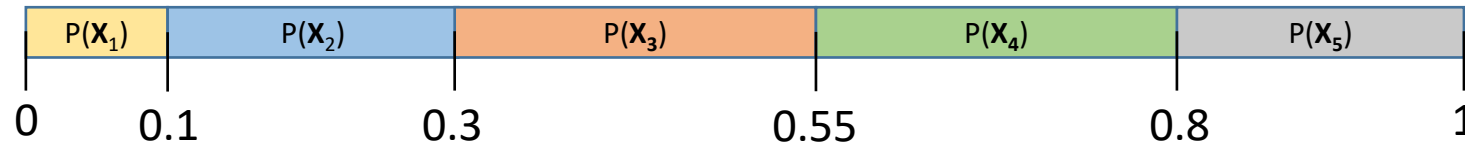
- How do we choose the parents which to **recombine**
- Conflicting objectives
 - We want to give **better chances to better chromosomes**
 - But if we **always recombine the same few chromosomes**, we will very quickly obtain a very **uniform population**
 - We typically try to balance between the two
- If the population becomes too uniform – **diversify**
 - Need a measure for diversity of the population
 - By **increasing the chance of mutation** or
 - **Relaxing the selection pressure** (based on fitness)

Genetic Algorithm: Selection

- Common types of selection:
 - **Roulette wheel**
 - **Tournament**
- **Roulette wheel (or proportional)** selection: probability of being selected for reproduction proportional to the fitness of the chromosome

$$P(\mathbf{X}_i) = f(\mathbf{X}_i) / \sum_j^S f(\mathbf{X}_j)$$

- Let us have a population of 5 chromosomes and let
 - $f(\mathbf{X}_1) = 10, f(\mathbf{X}_2) = 20, f(\mathbf{X}_3) = 25, f(\mathbf{X}_4) = 25, f(\mathbf{X}_5) = 20 \rightarrow$ convert into probabilities



Genetic Algorithm: Selection

- Common types of selection:
 - **Roulette wheel**
 - **Tournament**
- **Tournament selection**
 - Select randomly **N** chromosomes and find the best among them (with best f)
 - To get two parents, we can:
 - Run two tournaments, select **winner** from each
 - Run one tournament, select **two best** chromosomes
 - **Selection pressure**: defined by **N**: if **N** is big, more pressure
 - **Q**: what if $N = S$?
- **Elitism**: placing (keeping) one or more best chromosomes from the previous population into the next population
 - Keeping the best solution found throughout the search

Takeaways

- **Discrete optimization algorithms** (aka **combinatorial optimization**) search over a large space of states
 - Each state is one possible **solution**
 - **Q:** differences w.r.t. state space search problems?
- Metaheuristic strategies define **how to search** through this large space, in order to find the **good/near-optimal solution**
 - **Single-point search**
 - Single solution examined in each iteration
 - **Q:** How does **simulated annealing** avoid local optima?
 - **Population-based search**
 - A population of possible solutions, changed between iterations
 - **Q:** How does **genetic algorithm** avoid local optima?

Questions?

