- Remember local search works by picking an initial solution and making local moves that reduce the cost of the solution.
- The key problem in local search is to find good neighbours.
 - Which are easy to compute,
 - not to few and not to many
- A common technique is to partly solve the problem and when picking the initial solution and pick moves that preserve the partial solution. (Think of the partition problem).

- The problem is that is you keep picking local moves that improve the solution you end up in local minima.
- We are looking for global minima, that is a solution which minimizes the cost.
- The problem is we sometimes get stuck in at a local minima. That is somewhere where there are no local improving moves that reduce the cost.

- How do we avoid local minima?
- Start again with a different initial solution
- Allow increasing moves to be made to move us out of a local minima.
- There are many techniques but we will look at two:
 - TABU Search
 - Simulated Annealing.

- Tabu search avoids cycles in the search space.
- Ideally the Tabu search algorithm would be as follows:

procedure Full—Tabu

Generate initial solution s*

 $\emptyset \to T$

while Some stopping condition not satisfied do

$$N \leftarrow LegalNeighbours(s^*)$$

 $N' \leftarrow N \setminus T$ (remove from *N* any items found in the tabu list)
 $s^* \leftarrow selectBest(N').$
 $T \leftarrow T \cup \{s^*\}$

end while

- Obviously the set *T* can get large.
- The normal technique is to give each member an age and remove items that get too old. The age is often referred to as a "tabu tenure parameter"
- Not that tabu search does not avoid completely local minima, but it does remove cycles as we saw with the N-Queens example at the last lecture.
- With random restarts you should keep the old Tabu list. It has useful information.

Randomized Iterative Improvement

- Tabu search does not let you completely escape local minima
- A strategy is to sometimes allow increasing moves.
- procedure Randomized-Iterative-Improvement depends on a parameter wp Generate initial solution s* while Some stopping condition not satisfied do $N \leftarrow Legaleighbours(s^*)$ $u \leftarrow random([0, 1])$ if u < wp then $s^* \leftarrow PickRandom(N)$

else

```
s^* \leftarrow selectBest(N)
```

end if

end while

- If wp is equal to 0 then we get normal local search.
- If wp is equal to 1 then we get a random walk.
 - Even with a random walk you'll find the solution eventually, it will just take a very long time.
- This can be combined with Tabu search.

- Simulated Annealing takes its inspiration from physics. It uses a similar process to a liquid cooling down to make crystals.
- It uses the concept of temperature.
- The higher the temperature the higher the probability of accepting a cost increasing move.

 Given a cost function *f* and a temperature *T* a current solution s* and a candidate solution *s* the acceptance probability is as follows:

$$p_{accept}(T, s^*, s) = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if } f(s) \leq f(s^*) \ exp(rac{f(s^*) - f(s)}{T}) & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• With a constant temperature *T* we can define the following algorithm:

Constant Temperature Annealing

Generate initial solution s*

while Stopping condition not satisfied do

$$N \leftarrow LegalNeighbours(s^*)$$

s $\leftarrow PickRandom(N)$

$$u \leftarrow random([0, 1])$$

if
$$u \leq p_{accept}(T, s^*, s)$$
 then

$$S^* \leftarrow S$$

end if end while

- To produce perfect crystals you start with a high temperature and cool slowly.
- Simulated Annealing modifies the temperature each step.
- For example start with T = 10 and set T ← 0.95 * T each step. This often works well.
- Determining the initial temperature is not so easy theoretically and depends on the problem.

- If we look around us at the world we see many organisms adapted to their environment.
- Biology tells us that genetics are responsible for this.
- Every cell has strands of DNA which code a number of genes.
- Each gene is responsible for a number of proteins which are the subroutines that build up a functioning cell.

- There are two mechanisms that produce variety:
 - Crossover, when a male and a female mate you get some genes from your mother and some from your father.
 - Random mutation, for various reasons bits of the DNA are altered randomly.

- Darwin coined the term "Natural Selection" other people often use the phrase "Survival of the fittest"
- If you are not well adapted to your environment then there is less chance of survival.
- So less chance of mating, so less chance that you pass your genes on.
- So overtime the bad genes disappear and the good genes dominate.

- Genetic algorithms try to mimic this.
- A genetic algorithm needs a few things:
 - A notion of a coding of a solution.
 - A crossover function. *c*. that takes two solutions and combines them to produce a new one.
 - A notion of mutation.

For minimizing *f*.

Generate initial population $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_n\}$

while Stopping criteria not satisfied do

Select two parent solutions s_i and s_j according to their fitness so, the lower f(s) the higher the probability of selecting it.

$$s' \leftarrow c(s_i, s_j)$$

With a mutation probability mutate s'

 $\mathsf{S} \gets \mathsf{S} \cup \{\mathsf{s}'\}$

Kill of old member of S with some scheme.

end while

Obviously there is a lot of leeway in the algorithm, lots of choices for you to change.

Finding a good representation and a good cross over function is crucial to make the algorithm work.

- The solution is often represented as a string:
 0
 1
 1
 1
 0
- A common crossover function picks a random point in the two stings and at that points switches from one string to another.
- To produce the offspring:
 - 0 1 1 ... 0 0 1 ...

- Remember the Knapsack problem. Given *n* items with weight *w_i* and value *p_i* you want to keep the total weight below some constant *c* while maximizing the value.
- The coding would be *n* 0/1 values, 1 represents in the sack and 0 represents out of the sack.