

DM841  
Discrete Optimization

Lecture 12  
Efficiency Issues  
Neighborhoods and Landscapes

Marco Chiarandini

Department of Mathematics & Computer Science  
University of Southern Denmark

# Outline

1. Efficient Local Search
2. Examples
  - SMTWTP
  - TSP
3. Computational Complexity
4. Search Space Properties
  - Introduction
  - Neighborhoods Formalized
  - Distances
  - Landscape Characteristics

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# Summary: Local Search Algorithms

(as in [Hoos, Stützle, 2005])

For given problem instance  $\pi$ :

1. search space  $S_\pi$
2. evaluation function  $f_\pi : S \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$
3. neighborhood relation  $\mathcal{N}_\pi \subseteq S_\pi \times S_\pi$
4. set of memory states  $M_\pi$
5. initialization function  $\text{init} : \emptyset \rightarrow S_\pi \times M_\pi$
6. step function  $\text{step} : S_\pi \times M_\pi \rightarrow S_\pi \times M_\pi$
7. termination predicate  $\text{terminate} : S_\pi \times M_\pi \rightarrow \{\top, \perp\}$

# Efficiency and Effectiveness

After implementation and test of the above components, improvements in **efficiency** (ie, computation time) can be achieved by:

- A. fast incremental evaluation (ie, delta evaluation)
- B. neighborhood pruning
- C. clever use of data structures

Improvements in **effectiveness**, ie, quality, can be achieved by:

- D. application of a metaheuristic
- E. definition of a larger neighborhood

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# Single Machine Total Weighted Tardiness Problem

- ▶ Interchange: size  $\binom{n}{2}$  and  $O(|i - j|)$  evaluation each
  - ▶ first-improvement:  $\pi_j, \pi_k$ 
    - $p_{\pi_j} \leq p_{\pi_k}$  for improvements,  $w_j T_j + w_k T_k$  must decrease because jobs in  $\pi_j, \dots, \pi_k$  can only increase their tardiness.
    - $p_{\pi_j} \geq p_{\pi_k}$  possible use of auxiliary data structure to speed up the computation
  - ▶ best-improvement:  $\pi_j, \pi_k$ 
    - $p_{\pi_j} \leq p_{\pi_k}$  for improvements,  $w_j T_j + w_k T_k$  must decrease at least as the best interchange found so far because jobs in  $\pi_j, \dots, \pi_k$  can only increase their tardiness.
    - $p_{\pi_j} \geq p_{\pi_k}$  possible use of auxiliary data structure to speed up the computation
- ▶ Swap: size  $n - 1$  and  $O(1)$  evaluation each
- ▶ Insert: size  $(n - 1)^2$  and  $O(|i - j|)$  evaluation each  
 But possible to speed up with systematic examination by means of swaps: an interchange is equivalent to  $|i - j|$  swaps hence overall examination takes  $O(n^2)$



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Efficient implementations of 2-opt, 2H-opt and 3-opt local search.

- A. Delta evaluation already in  $O(1)$
- B. Fixed radius search + DLB
- C. Data structures

Details at black board and references [Bentley, 1992; Johnson and McGeoch, 2002; Applegate et al., 2006]

# Local Search for the Traveling Salesman Problem

- ▶  $k$ -exchange heuristics
  - ▶ 2-opt
  - ▶ 2.5-opt
  - ▶ Or-opt
  - ▶ 3-opt
- ▶ complex neighborhoods
  - ▶ Lin-Kernighan
  - ▶ Helsgaun's Lin-Kernighan
  - ▶ Dynasearch
  - ▶ ejection chains approach

Implementations exploit speed-up techniques

1. neighborhood pruning: fixed radius nearest neighborhood search
2. neighborhood lists: restrict exchanges to most interesting candidates
3. don't look bits: focus perturbative search to "interesting" part
4. sophisticated data structures

Implementation examples by Stützle:

<http://www.sls-book.net/implementations.html>

## TSP data structures

Tour representation:

- ▶ determine pos of  $v$  in  $\pi$
- ▶ determine succ and prec
- ▶ check whether  $u_k$  is visited between  $u_i$  and  $u_j$
- ▶ execute a k-exchange (reversal)

Possible choices:

- ▶  $|V| < 1.000$  array for  $\pi$  and  $\pi^{-1}$
- ▶  $|V| < 1.000.000$  two level tree
- ▶  $|V| > 1.000.000$  splay tree

Moreover static data structure:

- ▶ priority lists
- ▶ k-d trees

Look at implementation of local search for TSP by T. Stützle:

File: [http://www.imada.sdu.dk/~marco/DM811/Resources/l\\_s.c](http://www.imada.sdu.dk/~marco/DM811/Resources/l_s.c)

```
two_opt_b(tour); % best improvement, no speedup
two_opt_f(tour); % first improvement, no speedup
two_opt_best(tour); % first improvement including speed-ups (dlbs, fixed radius near
    neighbour searches, neighbourhood lists)
two_opt_first(tour); % best improvement including speed-ups (dlbs, fixed radius near
    neighbour searches, neighbourhood lists)
three_opt_first(tour); % first improvement
```

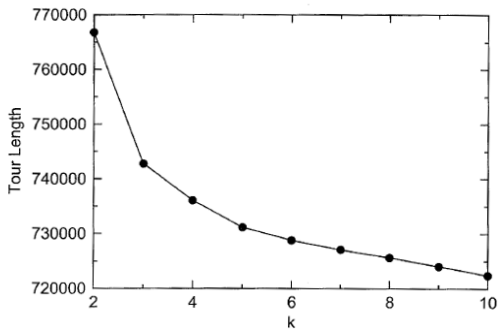
Table 17.1 Cases for  $k$ -opt moves.

$k$	No. of Cases
2	1
3	4
4	20
5	148
6	1,358
7	15,104
8	198,144
9	2,998,656
10	51,290,496

[Appelgate Bixby, Chvátal, Cook, 2006]

Table 17.2 Computer-generated source code for  $k$ -opt moves.

$k$	No. of Lines
6	120,228
7	1,259,863
8	17,919,296

Figure 17.1  $k$ -opt on a 10,000-city Euclidean TSP.

# References

- Applegate D.L., Bixby R.E., Chvátal V., and Cook W.J. (2006). **The Traveling Salesman Problem: A Computational Study**. Princeton University Press.
- Bentley J. (1992). **Fast algorithms for geometric traveling salesman problems**. *ORSA Journal on Computing*, 4(4), pp. 387–411.
- Johnson D.S. and McGeoch L.A. (2002). **Experimental analysis of heuristics for the STSP**. In *The Traveling Salesman Problem and Its Variations*, edited by G. Gutin and A. Punnen, pp. 369–443. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston, MA, USA.



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# Computational Complexity of LS

For a local search algorithm to be effective, search initialization and individual search steps should be efficiently computable.

**Complexity class  $PLS$** : class of problems for which a local search algorithm exists with polynomial time complexity for:

- ▶ search initialization
- ▶ any single search step, including computation of evaluation function value

For any problem in  $PLS$  ...

- ▶ local optimality can be verified in polynomial time
- ▶ improving search steps can be computed in polynomial time
- ▶ **but**: finding local optima may require super-polynomial time

# Computational Complexity of LS

*PLS*-complete: Among the most difficult problems in *PLS*; if for any of these problems local optima can be found in polynomial time, the same would hold for all problems in *PLS*.

## Some complexity results:

- ▶ TSP with  $k$ -exchange neighborhood with  $k > 3$  is *PLS*-complete.
- ▶ TSP with 2- or 3-exchange neighborhood is in *PLS*, but *PLS*-completeness is unknown.

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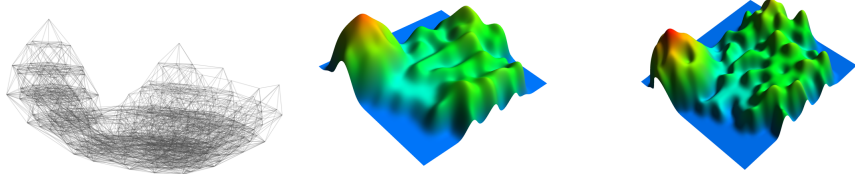
# Definitions

- ▶ Problem instance  $\pi$
- ▶ Search space  $S_\pi$
- ▶ Neighborhood function  $\mathcal{N} : S \subseteq 2^S$
- ▶ Evaluation function  $f_\pi : S \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$

## Definition:

The **search landscape**  $L$  is the **vertex-labeled neighborhood graph** given by the triplet  $\mathcal{L} = \langle S_\pi, N_\pi, f_\pi \rangle$ .

# Search Landscape



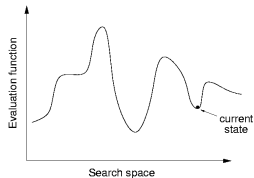
## Transition Graph of Iterative Improvement

Given  $\mathcal{L} = \langle S_\pi, N_\pi, f_\pi \rangle$ , the transition graph of iterative improvement is a directed acyclic subgraph obtained from  $\mathcal{L}$  by deleting all arcs  $(i, j)$  for which it holds that the cost of solution  $j$  is worse than or equal to the cost of solution  $i$ .

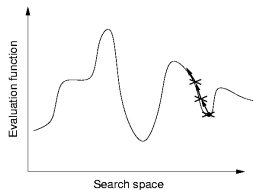
It can be defined for other algorithms as well and it plays a central role in the theoretical analysis of proofs of convergence.

## Ideal visualization of landscapes principles

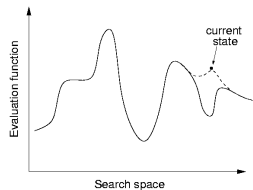
### ► Simplified landscape representation



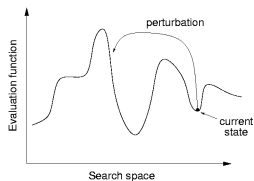
### ► Tabu Search



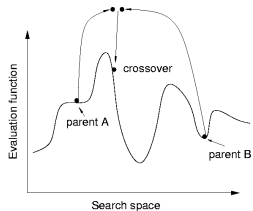
### ► Guided Local Search



### ► Iterated Local Search



### ► Evolutionary Alg.





# Fundamental Properties

The behavior and performance of an LS algorithm on a given problem instance crucially depends on properties of the respective search landscape.

Simple properties:

- ▶ search space size  $|S|$
- ▶ reachability: solution  $j$  is reachable from solution  $i$  if neighborhood graph has a path from  $i$  to  $j$ .
  - ▶ strongly connected neighborhood graph:  
for each pair  $i, j$  of solutions,  $j$  is reachable from  $i$ .
  - ▶ weakly optimally connected neighborhood graph:  
for each solution  $i$ , it contains a path from  $i$  to an optimal solution.
- ▶ distance between solutions
- ▶ neighborhood size (ie, degree of vertices in neigh. graph)
- ▶ cost of fully examining the neighborhood
- ▶ relation between different neighborhood functions  
(if  $N_1(s) \subseteq N_2(s)$  for all  $s \in S$  then  $\mathcal{N}_2$  dominates  $\mathcal{N}_1$ )

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# Neighborhood Operator

Goal: providing a formal description of neighborhood functions for the three main solution representations:

- ▶ **Permutation**
  - ▶ **linear permutation**: Single Machine Total Weighted Tardiness Problem
  - ▶ **circular permutation**: Traveling Salesman Problem
- ▶ **Assignment**: SAT, CSP
- ▶ **Set, Partition**: Max Independent Set

A neighborhood function  $\mathcal{N} : S \rightarrow 2^S$  is also defined through an operator. An **operator**  $\Delta$  is a collection of operator functions  $\delta : S \rightarrow S$  such that

$$s' \in N(s) \iff \exists \delta \in \Delta \mid \delta(s) = s'$$

# Permutations

$\Pi(n)$  indicates the set all permutations of the numbers  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

$(1, 2, \dots, n)$  is the identity permutation  $\iota$ .

If  $\pi \in \Pi(n)$  and  $1 \leq i \leq n$  then:

- ▶  $\pi_i$  is the element at position  $i$
- ▶  $pos_\pi(i)$  is the position of element  $i$

Alternatively, a permutation is a bijective function  $\pi(i) = \pi_i$

The permutation product  $\pi \cdot \pi'$  is the composition  $(\pi \cdot \pi')_i = \pi'(\pi(i))$

For each  $\pi$  there exists a permutation such that  $\pi^{-1} \cdot \pi = \iota$   
 $\pi^{-1}(i) = pos_\pi(i)$

$$\Delta_N \subset \Pi$$

# Linear Permutations

Swap operator

$$\Delta_S = \{\delta_S^i | 1 \leq i \leq n\}$$

$$\delta_S^i(\pi_1 \dots \pi_i \pi_{i+1} \dots \pi_n) = (\pi_1 \dots \pi_{i+1} \pi_i \dots \pi_n)$$

Interchange operator

$$\Delta_X = \{\delta_X^{ij} | 1 \leq i < j \leq n\}$$

$$\delta_X^{ij}(\pi) = (\pi_1 \dots \pi_{i-1} \pi_j \pi_{i+1} \dots \pi_{j-1} \pi_i \pi_{j+1} \dots \pi_n)$$

( $\equiv$  set of all transpositions)

Insert operator

$$\Delta_I = \{\delta_I^{ij} | 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq n, j \neq i\}$$

$$\delta_I^{ij}(\pi) = \begin{cases} (\pi_1 \dots \pi_{i-1} \pi_{i+1} \dots \pi_j \pi_i \pi_{j+1} \dots \pi_n) & i < j \\ (\pi_1 \dots \pi_j \pi_i \pi_{j+1} \dots \pi_{i-1} \pi_{i+1} \dots \pi_n) & i > j \end{cases}$$

# Circular Permutations

Reversal (2-edge-exchange)

$$\Delta_R = \{\delta_R^{ij} | 1 \leq i < j \leq n\}$$

$$\delta_R^{ij}(\pi) = (\pi_1 \dots \pi_{i-1} \pi_j \dots \pi_i \pi_{j+1} \dots \pi_n)$$

Block moves (3-edge-exchange)

$$\Delta_B = \{\delta_B^{ijk} | 1 \leq i < j < k \leq n\}$$

$$\delta_B^{ijk}(\pi) = (\pi_1 \dots \pi_{i-1} \pi_j \dots \pi_k \pi_i \dots \pi_{j-1} \pi_{k+1} \dots \pi_n)$$

Short block move (Or-edge-exchange)

$$\Delta_{SB} = \{\delta_{SB}^{ij} | 1 \leq i < j \leq n\}$$

$$\delta_{SB}^{ij}(\pi) = (\pi_1 \dots \pi_{i-1} \pi_j \pi_{j+1} \pi_{j+2} \pi_i \dots \pi_{j-1} \pi_{j+3} \dots \pi_n)$$

# Assignments

An assignment can be represented as a mapping

$$\sigma : \{X_1 \dots X_n\} \rightarrow \{v : v \in D, |D| = k\}:$$

$$\sigma = \{X_i = v_i, X_j = v_j, \dots\}$$

One-exchange operator

$$\Delta_{1E} = \{\delta_{1E}^{il} | 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq l \leq k\}$$

$$\delta_{1E}^{il}(\sigma) = \{\sigma' : \sigma'(X_i) = v_l \text{ and } \sigma'(X_j) = \sigma(X_j) \forall j \neq i\}$$

Two-exchange operator

$$\Delta_{2E} = \{\delta_{2E}^{ij} | 1 \leq i < j \leq n\}$$

$$\delta_{2E}^{ij}(\sigma) = \{\sigma' : \sigma'(X_i) = \sigma(X_j), \sigma'(X_j) = \sigma(X_i) \text{ and } \sigma'(X_l) = \sigma(X_l) \forall l \neq i, j\}$$

# Partitioning

An assignment can be represented as a partition of objects selected and not selected  $s : \{X\} \rightarrow \{C, \bar{C}\}$   
(it can also be represented by a bit string)

One-addition operator

$$\Delta_{1E} = \{\delta_{1E}^v \mid v \in \bar{C}\}$$

$$\delta_{1E}^v(s) = \{s : C' = C \cup v \text{ and } \bar{C}' = \bar{C} \setminus v\}$$

One-deletion operator

$$\Delta_{1E} = \{\delta_{1E}^v \mid v \in C\}$$

$$\delta_{1E}^v(s) = \{s : C' = C \setminus v \text{ and } \bar{C}' = \bar{C} \cup v\}$$

Swap operator

$$\Delta_{1E} = \{\delta_{1E}^{v,u} \mid v \in C, u \in \bar{C}\}$$

$$\delta_{1E}^{v,u}(s) = \{s : C' = C \cup u \setminus v \text{ and } \bar{C}' = \bar{C} \cup v \setminus u\}$$



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# Distances

Set of paths in  $\mathcal{L}$  with  $s, s' \in S$ :

$$\Phi(s, s') = \{(s_1, \dots, s_h) \mid s_1 = s, s_h = s' \forall i : 1 \leq i \leq h-1, \langle s_i, s_{i+1} \rangle \in E_{\mathcal{L}}\}$$

If  $\phi = (s_1, \dots, s_h) \in \Phi(s, s')$  let  $|\phi| = h$  be the length of the path; then the distance between any two solutions  $s, s'$  is the length of shortest path between  $s$  and  $s'$  in  $\mathcal{L}$ :

$$d_{\mathcal{N}}(s, s') = \min_{\phi \in \Phi(s, s')} |\phi|$$

$\text{diam}(\mathcal{L}) = \max\{d_{\mathcal{N}}(s, s') \mid s, s' \in S\}$  (= maximal distance between any two candidate solutions)

(= worst-case lower bound for number of search steps required for reaching (optimal) solutions)

**Note:** with permutations it is easy to see that:

$$d_{\mathcal{N}}(\pi, \pi') = d_{\mathcal{N}}(\pi^{-1} \cdot \pi', \iota)$$

## Distances for Linear Permutation Representations

- ▶ Swap neighborhood operator

computable in  $O(n^2)$  by the precedence based distance metric:

$$d_S(\pi, \pi') = \#\{\langle i, j \rangle \mid 1 \leq i < j \leq n, \text{pos}_{\pi'}(\pi_j) < \text{pos}_{\pi'}(\pi_i)\}.$$

$$\text{diam}(G_{\mathcal{N}_S}) = n(n-1)/2$$

- ▶ Interchange neighborhood operator

Computable in  $O(n) + O(n)$  since

$$d_X(\pi, \pi') = d_X(\pi^{-1} \cdot \pi', \iota) = n - c(\pi^{-1} \cdot \pi')$$

$c(\pi)$  is the number of disjoint cycles that decompose a permutation.

$$\text{diam}(G_{\mathcal{N}_X}) = n - 1$$

- ▶ Insert neighborhood operator

Computable in  $O(n) + O(n \log(n))$  since

$d_I(\pi, \pi') = d_I(\pi^{-1} \cdot \pi', \iota) = n - |\text{lis}(\pi^{-1} \cdot \pi')|$  where  $\text{lis}(\pi)$  denotes the length of the longest increasing subsequence.

$$\text{diam}(G_{\mathcal{N}_I}) = n - 1$$

## Distances for Circular Permutation Representations

- ▶ Reversal neighborhood operator  
sorting by reversal is known to be NP-hard  
surrogate in TSP: bond distance
- ▶ Block moves neighborhood operator  
unknown whether it is NP-hard but there does not exist a proved  
polynomial-time algorithm

## Distances for Assignment Representations

- ▶ Hamming Distance
- ▶ An assignment can be seen as a partition of  $n$  in  $k$  mutually exclusive non-empty subsets

One-exchange neighborhood operator

The *partition-distance*  $d_{1E}(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{P}')$  between two partitions  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\mathcal{P}'$  is the minimum number of elements that must be moved between subsets in  $\mathcal{P}$  so that the resulting partition equals  $\mathcal{P}'$ .

The partition-distance can be computed in polynomial time by solving an assignment problem. Given the assignment matrix  $M$  where in each cell  $(i, j)$  it is  $|S_i \cap S'_j|$  with  $S_i \in \mathcal{P}$  and  $S'_j \in \mathcal{P}'$  and defined  $A(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{P}')$  the assignment of maximal sum then it is  $d_{1E}(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{P}') = n - A(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{P}')$

## Example: Search space size and diameter for the TSP

- ▶ Search space size =  $(n - 1)!/2$
- ▶ Insert neighborhood  
size =  $(n - 3)n$   
diameter =  $n - 2$
- ▶ 2-exchange neighborhood  
size =  $\binom{n}{2} = n \cdot (n - 1)/2$   
diameter in  $[n/2, n - 2]$
- ▶ 3-exchange neighborhood  
size =  $\binom{n}{3} = n \cdot (n - 1) \cdot (n - 2)/6$   
diameter in  $[n/3, n - 1]$

## Example: Search space size and diameter for SAT

SAT instance with  $n$  variables, 1-flip neighborhood:

$G_{\mathcal{N}}$  =  $n$ -dimensional hypercube; diameter of  $G_{\mathcal{N}}$  =  $n$ .

Let  $\mathcal{N}_1$  and  $\mathcal{N}_2$  be two different neighborhood functions for the same instance  $(S, f, \pi)$  of a combinatorial optimization problem.

If for all solutions  $s \in S$  we have  $N_1(s) \subseteq N_2(s)$  then we say that  $\mathcal{N}_2$  dominates  $\mathcal{N}_1$

### Example:

In TSP, 1-insert is dominated by 3-exchange.

(1-insert corresponds to 3-exchange and there are 3-exchanges that are not 1-insert)



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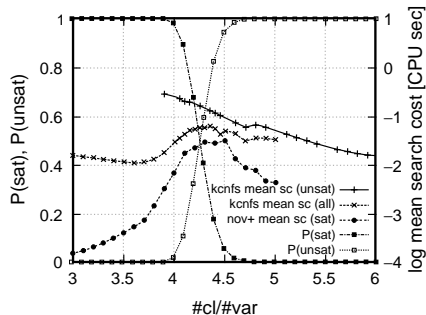
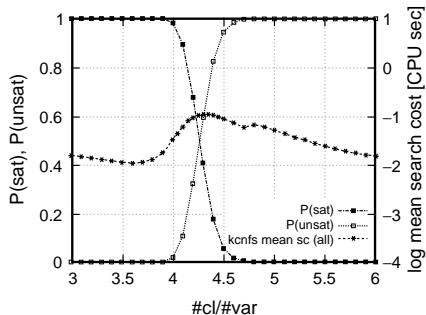
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# Other Search Space Properties

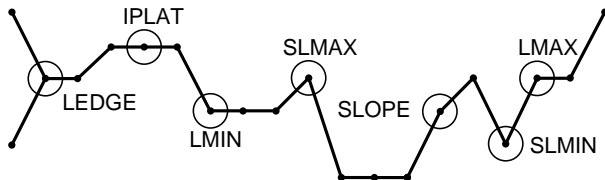
- ▶ number of (optimal) solutions  $|S'|$ , solution density  $|S'|/|S|$
- ▶ distribution of solutions within the neighborhood graph

# Phase Transition for 3-SAT

Random instances  $\rightsquigarrow$   $m$  clauses of  $n$  uniformly chosen variables



# Classification of search positions



<i>position type</i>	>	=	<
SLMIN (strict local min)	+	-	-
LMIN (local min)	+	+	-
IPLAT (interior plateau)	-	+	-
SLOPE	+	-	+
LEDGE	+	+	+
LMAX (local max)	-	+	+
SLMAX (strict local max)	-	-	+

“+” = present, “-” absent; table entries refer to neighbors with larger (“>”), equal (“=”), and smaller (“<”) evaluation function values

# Other Search Space Properties

- ▶ plateaux
- ▶ barrier and basins

