

Optimization and Simulation

Optimization

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Outline

Motivation

Classical problems

Algorithms

- Brute force

- Greedy heuristics

- Exploration

- Intensification

- Diversification

Summary

Optimization

Procedure

- ▶ Mathematical modeling.
- ▶ Selection of an algorithm.
- ▶ Solving the problem.

Optimization

Mathematical modeling

- ▶ Decision variables x .
- ▶ Objective function f .
- ▶ Constraints \mathcal{F} .

Optimization problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x)$$

subject to

$$x \in \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n.$$

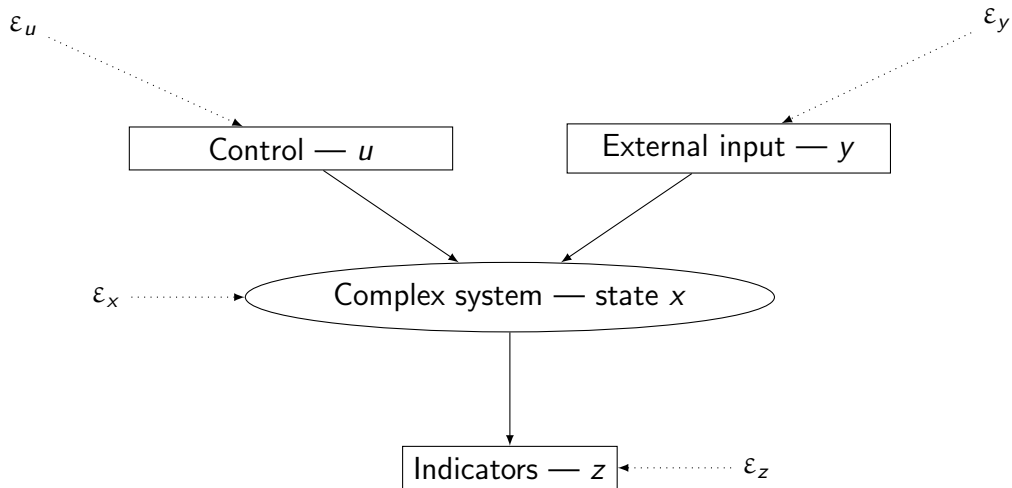
Optimization

Selection of an algorithm

- ▶ **Problem class:** linear / convex / mixed-integer / black-box.
- ▶ **Available structure:** derivatives, convexity, integrality, decomposability.
- ▶ **Computational budget:** cheap objective vs expensive simulation.
- ▶ **Desired guarantee:** exact optimum vs good feasible solution.

Simulation

$$Z = h(X, Y, U; \hat{\theta}) + \varepsilon_z$$



General framework

Assumptions

- ▶ Control U is deterministic.

$$Z(u) = h(X, Y, u) + \varepsilon_z$$

- ▶ Various features of Z are considered: mean, variance, quantile, etc.

$$(z_1(u), \dots, z_m(u))$$

- ▶ They are combined in a single indicator:

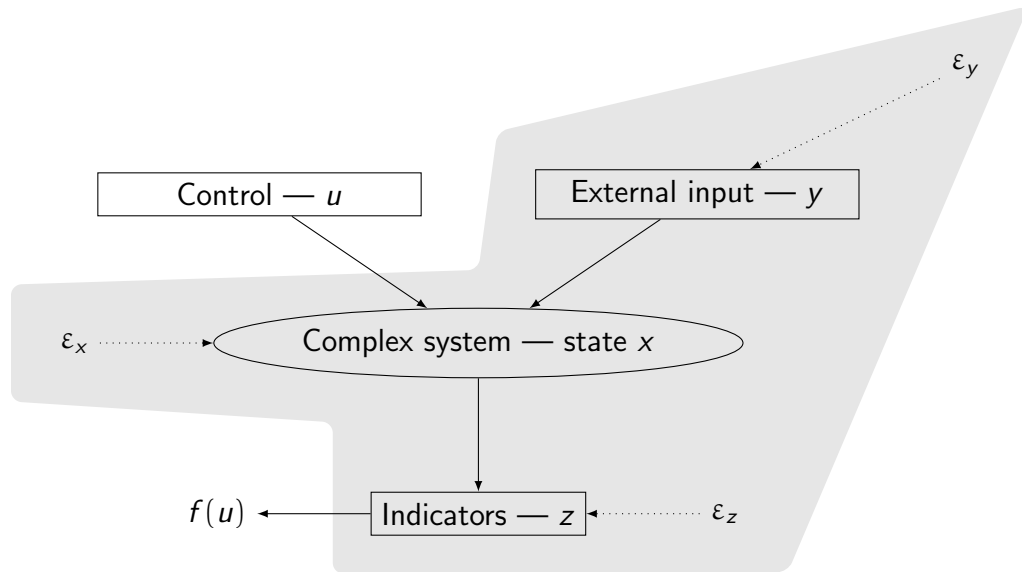
$$f(u) = g(z_1(u), \dots, z_m(u))$$

General framework: example

Pavel at Satellite

- ▶ X : number of customers in the bar
- ▶ Y : arrivals of customers
- ▶ u : average service time of Pavel
- ▶ $Z(u)$: waiting time of the customers
- ▶ $z_1(u)$: mean waiting time
- ▶ $z_2(u)$: maximum waiting time
- ▶ $f(u) = g(z_1(u), z_2(u)) = z_1 + z_2$

General framework: the black box



Optimization problem

$$\min_{u \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(u)$$

subject to

$$u \in \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$

- ▶ u : decision variables
- ▶ $f(u)$: objective function
- ▶ $u \in \mathcal{U}$: constraints
- ▶ \mathcal{U} : feasible set

Deterministic vs simulation-based objective

Deterministic optimization

- ▶ The objective can be evaluated exactly: $f(u)$.
- ▶ Re-evaluating $f(u)$ returns the same value.
- ▶ Comparisons between solutions are unambiguous.

Simulation-based optimization

- ▶ The objective is defined as an expectation:

$$f(u) = \mathbb{E}[Z(u)].$$

- ▶ It is evaluated using simulation:

$$\hat{f}(u) \approx f(u).$$

- ▶ Each evaluation is noisy: repeated runs give different values.

Coping with Monte Carlo noise

Key difficulty

When $\hat{f}(u)$ is noisy,

- ▶ small differences between solutions may be meaningless,
- ▶ comparisons may be unreliable,
- ▶ naive optimization can be misled by randomness.

Pragmatic strategies

In practice, one often:

- ▶ uses the same random inputs to compare candidate solutions,
- ▶ increases the number of simulation runs for promising solutions,
- ▶ applies variance reduction techniques,
- ▶ relies on algorithms that tolerate noise.

Scope of this lecture

What we do

- ▶ Focus on algorithmic ideas for exploring large solution spaces.
- ▶ Assume simulation noise is moderate or controlled.
- ▶ Use heuristics that are empirically robust to noise.

What we do not cover

- ▶ Statistical guarantees for noisy optimization.
- ▶ Optimal allocation of simulation budget.
- ▶ Formal convergence results for stochastic optimization.

Takeaway

Heuristic optimization and variance reduction are complementary tools for simulation-based problems.

Optimization problem

Combinatorial optimization

- ▶ f and \mathcal{U} have no specific property.
- ▶ f is a black box.
- ▶ \mathcal{U} is a finite set of valid configurations.
- ▶ No optimality condition is available.

Optimization methods

Exact methods (branch and bound)

- ▶ Finds the optimal solution.
- ▶ Suffers from the curse of dimensionality.
- ▶ Requires the availability of valid and tight bounds.

Approximation algorithms

- ▶ Finds a sub-optimal solution.
- ▶ Guarantees a bound on the quality of the solution.
- ▶ Mainly used for theoretical purposes.

Heuristics

- ▶ Smart exploration of the solution space.
- ▶ No guarantee about optimality.
- ▶ Few assumptions about the problem.
- ▶ Designed to mimic manual interventions.

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Summary

The knapsack problem

- ▶ Patricia prepares a hike in the mountain.
- ▶ She has a knapsack with capacity W kg.
- ▶ She considers carrying a list of n items.
- ▶ Each item has a utility u_i and a weight w_i .
- ▶ What items should she take to maximize the total utility, while fitting in the knapsack?



Mathematical model

Decision variables

$$x_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if item } i \text{ goes into the knapsack,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Objective function

$$\max f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i x_i$$

Constraints

$$\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i \leq W$$

$$x_i \in \{0, 1\} \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

Instance

$$n = 12$$

Maximum weight: 300.

Item	Utility	Weight
1	80	84
2	31	27
3	48	47
4	17	22
5	27	21
6	84	96
7	34	42
8	39	46
9	46	54
10	58	53
11	23	32
12	67	78

Real example



Portfolio optimization

- ▶ Items: potential assets.
- ▶ Utility: return.
- ▶ Weight: risk.
- ▶ Capacity: maximum risk.

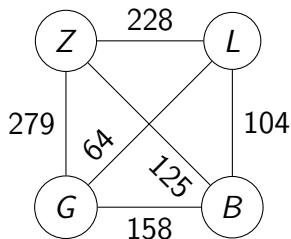
Traveling salesman problem

The problem

- ▶ Consider n cities.
- ▶ For any pair (i, j) of cities, the distance d_{ij} between them is known.
- ▶ Find the shortest possible itinerary that starts from the home town of the salesman, visit all other cities, and come back to the origin.

TSP: example

Lausanne, Geneva, Zurich, Bern

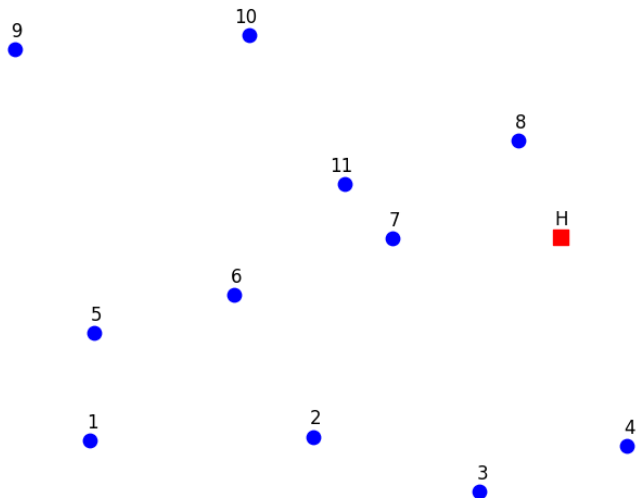


Home town: Lausanne

3 possibilities (+ their symmetric version):

- ▶ $L \rightarrow B \rightarrow Z \rightarrow G \rightarrow L$: 572 km
- ▶ $L \rightarrow B \rightarrow G \rightarrow Z \rightarrow L$: 769 km
- ▶ $L \rightarrow Z \rightarrow B \rightarrow G \rightarrow L$: 575 km

TSP: 12 cities (euclidean dist.)



Integer linear optimization problem

Linear optimization

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} c^T x$$

subject to

$$Ax = b$$

$$x \geq 0.$$

where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Integer Linear optimization

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} c^T x$$

subject to

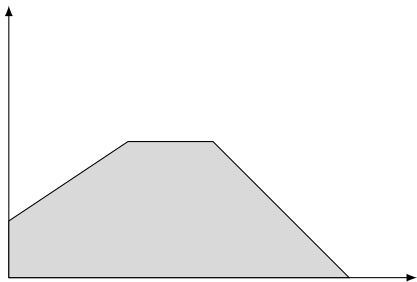
$$Ax = b$$

$$x \in \mathbb{N}.$$

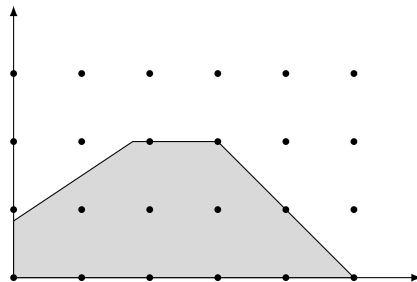
where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Feasible set

Polyhedron



Intersection polyhedron/integer lattice



Example

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^2} -3x_1 - 13x_2$$

subject to

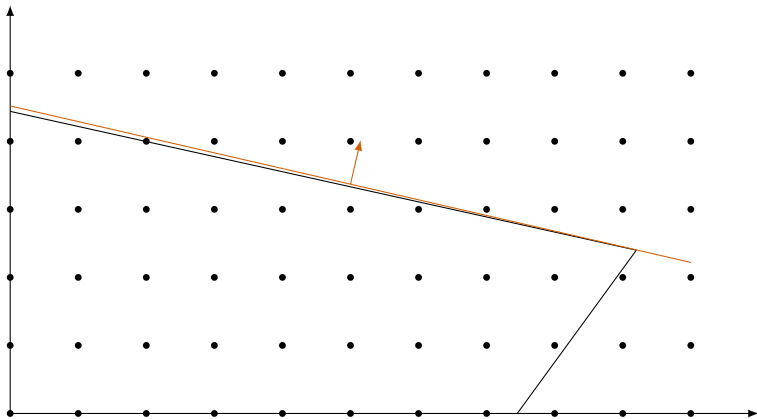
$$2x_1 + 9x_2 \leq 40$$

$$11x_1 - 8x_2 \leq 82$$

$$x_1, x_2 \geq 0$$

$$x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{N}$$

Example



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Brute force algorithm

$$\min_{u \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(u)$$

subject to

$$u \in \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$

Brute force algorithm

- ▶ $f^* = +\infty$
- ▶ For each $x \in \mathcal{U}$, if $f(x) < f^*$ then $x^* = x$, $f^* = f(x^*)$.

Knapsack problem

Enumeration

- ▶ Each object can be in or out, for a total of 2^n combinations.
- ▶ For each of them, we must:
 - ▶ Check that the weight is feasible.
 - ▶ If so, calculate the utility and check if it is better than f^* .

Python implementation

```
import numpy as np
import itertools
utility = np.array([80, 31, 48, 17, 27, 84, 34, 39, 46, 58, 23, 67])
weight = np.array([84, 27, 47, 22, 21, 96, 42, 46, 54, 53, 32, 78])
capacity = 300
n = len(utility)
fstar = -np.inf
xstar = None
for c in itertools.product([0, 1], repeat = n):
    w = np.inner(c, weight)
    if w <= capacity:
        u = np.inner(c, utility)
        if u > fstar:
            xstar = c
            fstar = u
```

Solution: (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0). Weight: 300. Utility: 300.

Knapsack problem

Computational time

- ▶ About $2n$ floating point operations per combination.
- ▶ Assume a 1 Teraflops processor: 10^{12} floating point operations per second.

Knapsack problem

Computational time

- ▶ If $n = 34$, about 1 second to solve.
- ▶ If $n = 40$, about 1 minute.
- ▶ If $n = 45$, about 1 hour.
- ▶ If $n = 50$, about 1 day.
- ▶ If $n = 58$, about 1 year.
- ▶ If $n = 69$, about 2583 years, more than the Christian Era.
- ▶ If $n = 78$, about 1,500,000 years, time elapsed since Homo Erectus appeared on earth.
- ▶ If $n = 91$, about 10^{10} years, roughly the age of the universe.

Traveling salesman problem

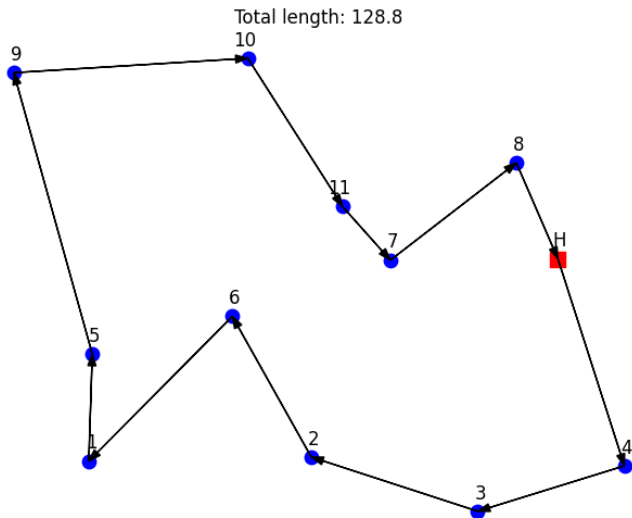
Python code

```
fstar = np.inf
xstar = None
for t in itertools.permutations(names[1:]):
    tour = ['0']+list(t)
    tl = tsp.tourLength(tour)
    if tl < fstar:
        xstar = tour
        fstar = tl
```

TSP with 12 cities

- ▶ $11! = 39'916'800$ permutations.
- ▶ Running time: about 5 minutes.
- ▶ Solution: H-4-3-2-6-1-5-9-10-11-7-8
- ▶ Tour length: 128.762

Optimal solution



Integer optimization

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^2} -3x_1 - 13x_2$$

subject to

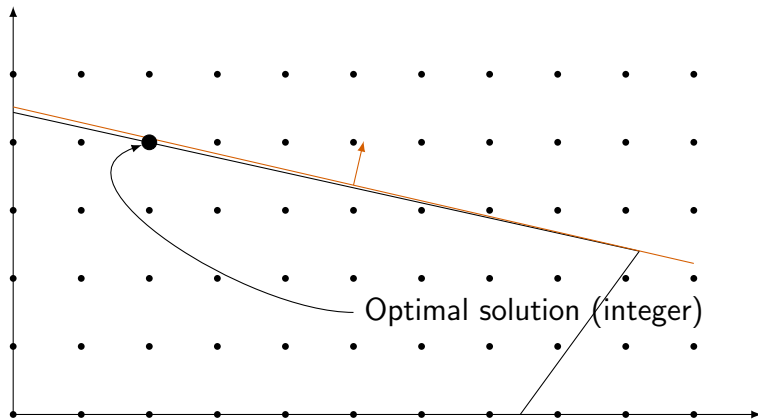
$$2x_1 + 9x_2 \leq 40$$

$$11x_1 - 8x_2 \leq 82$$

$$x_1, x_2 \geq 0$$

$$x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{N}$$

Feasible set: 36 solutions



Brute force algorithm

Comments

- ▶ Very simple to implement.
- ▶ Works only for small instances.
- ▶ Curse of dimensionality.
- ▶ Running time increases exponentially with the size of the problem.
- ▶ Not a reasonable option.

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Greedy heuristics

Principles

- ▶ Step by step construction of a feasible solution.
- ▶ At each step, a local optimization is performed.
- ▶ Decisions taken at previous steps are definitive.

Properties

- ▶ Easy to implement.
- ▶ Short computational time.
- ▶ May generate poor solutions.
- ▶ Used to generate initial solutions.

The knapsack problem

Greedy heuristic

- ▶ Sort the items by decreasing order of u_i/w_i .
- ▶ For each item in this order, put it in the sack if it fits.

The knapsack problem

Item	Utility	Weight	Ratio
1	80	84	0.952
2	31	27	1.148
3	48	47	1.021
4	17	22	0.773
5	27	21	1.286
6	84	96	0.875
7	34	42	0.810
8	39	46	0.848
9	46	54	0.852
10	58	53	1.094
11	23	32	0.719
12	67	78	0.859

The knapsack problem

Item	Utility	Weight	Ratio	Order	Remaining capacity
1	80	84	0.952	5	68
2	31	27	1.148	2	252
3	48	47	1.021	4	152
4	17	22	0.773		
5	27	21	1.286	1	279
6	84	96	0.875	6	-28
7	34	42	0.810		
8	39	46	0.848		
9	46	54	0.852		
10	58	53	1.094	3	199
11	23	32	0.719		
12	67	78	0.859		

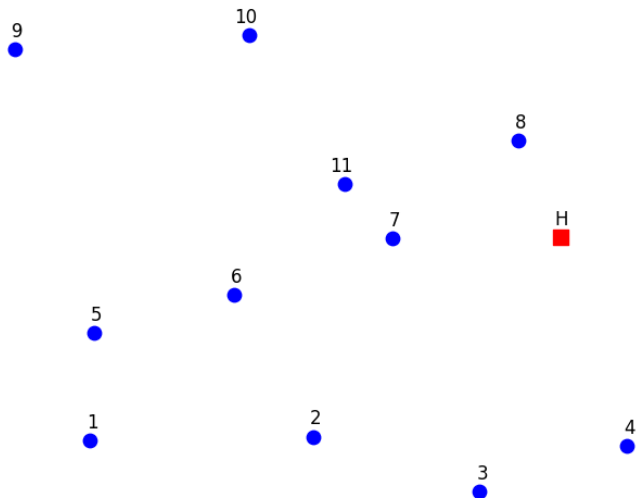
Utility: 244 (Opt: 300). Weight: 232.

The traveling salesman problem

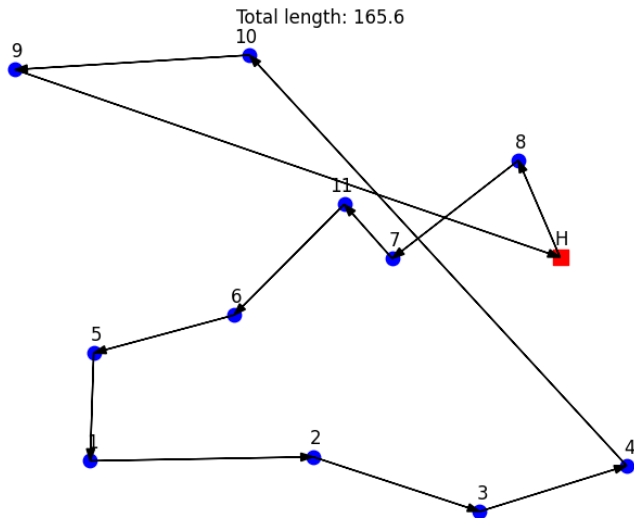
Greedy heuristic

- ▶ Start from home.
- ▶ At each step, select the closest city as the next one.

TSP: 12 cities



TSP: 12 cities



TSP: 12 cities

Greedy solution

- ▶ Easy to generate.
- ▶ No combinatorial complexity.
- ▶ Not necessarily good.
- ▶ Length: 165.6.
- ▶ Optimal tour: 128.762.

Integer optimization

Intuitive approach

- ▶ Solve the continuous relaxation.
- ▶ Round the solution.

Example

subject to

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^2} -3x_1 - 13x_2$$

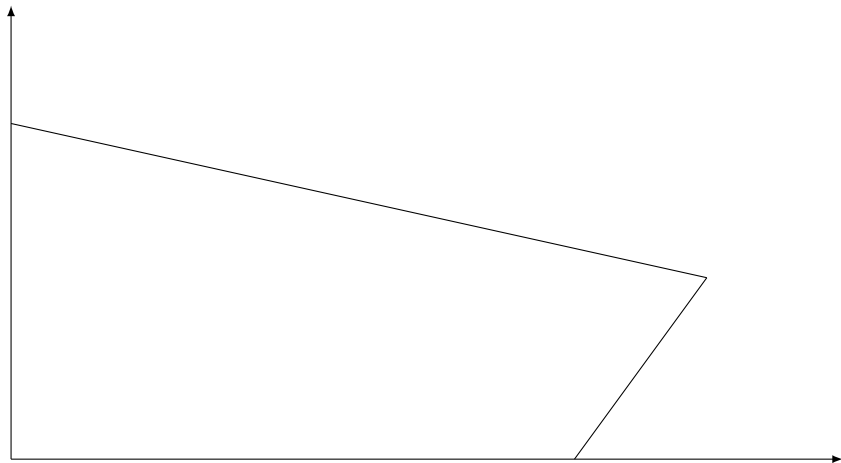
$$2x_1 + 9x_2 \leq 40$$

$$11x_1 - 8x_2 \leq 82$$

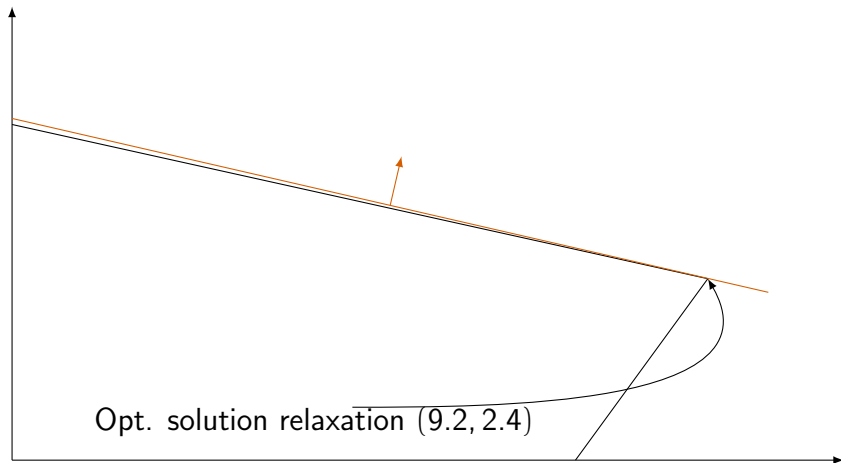
$$x_1, x_2 \geq 0$$

$$x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{N}$$

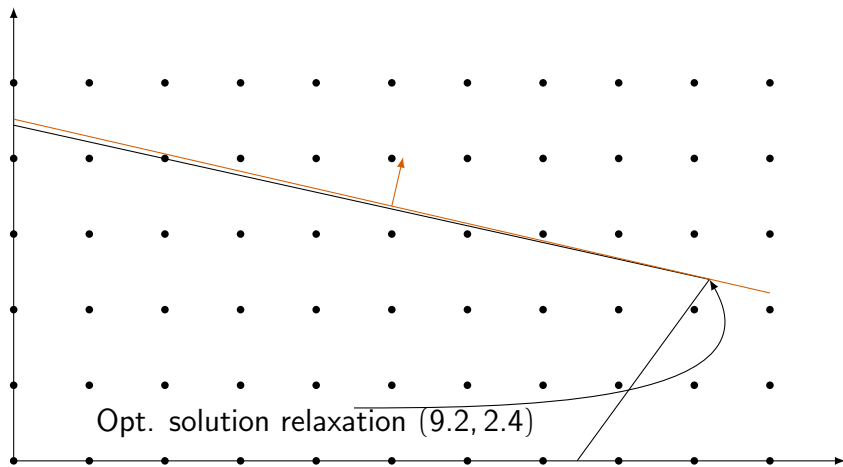
Relaxation: feasible set



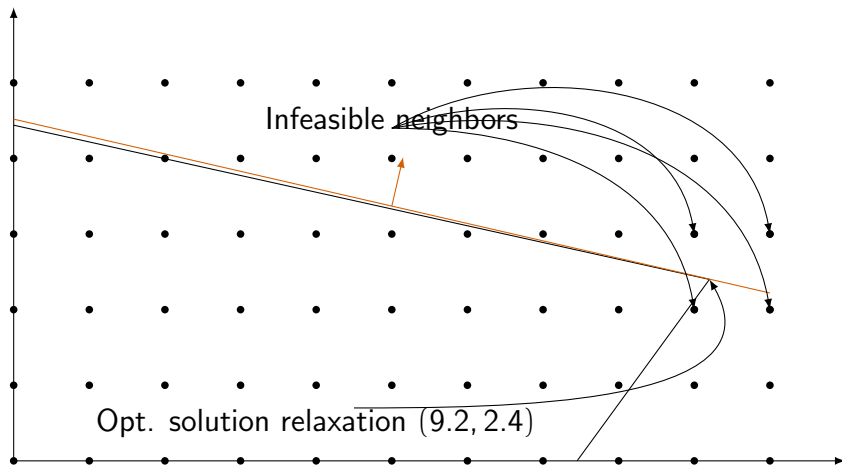
Optimal solution of the relaxation



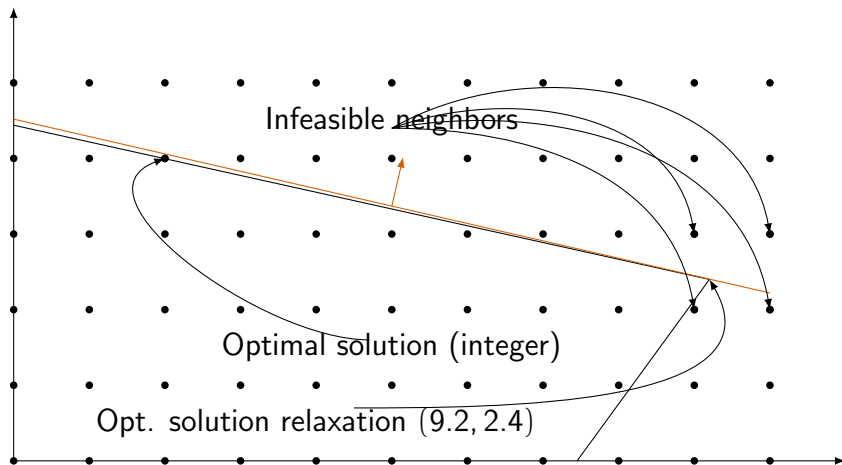
Integrality constraints



Infeasible neighbors



Solution of the integer optimization problem



Issues

- ▶ There are 2^n different ways to round. Which one to choose?
- ▶ Rounding may generate an infeasible solution.
- ▶ The rounded solution may be far from the optimal solution.

Greedy heuristics

Comments

- ▶ Fast.
- ▶ Easy to implement.
- ▶ Useful to find an initial solution.
- ▶ Feasibility is usually the main issue (rounding issues with ILP).

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Heuristics: general framework

Exploration

Neighborhood

Intensification

Local search

Diversification

Escape from local minima

Optimization vs sampling: a useful analogy

Sampling (MCMC)

- ▶ Goal: explore the state space according to a target distribution.
- ▶ Moves are accepted to preserve the stationary distribution.

Optimization (heuristics)

- ▶ Goal: explore the same type of space to find low values of $f(x)$.
- ▶ Moves are designed to favor improvement, with mechanisms to escape local minima.

Key message

Both rely on neighborhood moves; the difference is whether we aim to sample or to optimize.

Neighborhood

Concept

- ▶ The feasible set is too large.
- ▶ We need to explore it in a smart way.
- ▶ Idea: at each iteration, restrict the optimization problem to a small feasible subset that can be enumerated.
- ▶ The small subset is called a neighborhood.
- ▶ Ideally, all these solutions must be feasible.
- ▶ Neighborhoods can be constructed incrementally during the algorithms.

Neighborhood types

Fundamental neighborhood structure

- ▶ Obtained from simple modifications of the current solution.
- ▶ These modifications must be designed based on the properties of the problem.

Shuffled neighborhood structure

- ▶ Obtained from shuffling the solutions from another neighborhood.
- ▶ The shuffling can be deterministic or random.

Feasible neighborhood structure

- ▶ Useful when a potential neighborhood structure contains infeasible solutions.
- ▶ Feasibility checks can also be done while generating the neighbors.

Neighborhood types

Truncated neighborhood structure

- ▶ Useful when a potential neighborhood structure is too large.
- ▶ The size of the neighborhood is controlled.

Combined neighborhood structure

- ▶ Union, intersection, or any combination of other structures.
- ▶ Use building blocks to construct more complex structures.

Neighborhoods

Important properties

- ▶ Neighborhood structures are used to explore the solution space.
- ▶ Algorithms will move from x to an element of $V(x)$.
- ▶ They can be seen as “vehicles”.
- ▶ Symmetry: it is good practice to use symmetric neighborhoods:

$$y \in V(x) \iff x \in V(y).$$

- ▶ Reachability: a neighborhood V must be rich enough to reach any feasible solution, from another feasible solution. For each $x_1, x_K \in \mathcal{U}$, there exists a sequence $x_2, \dots, x_{K-1} \in \mathcal{U}$ such that

$$x_{k+1} \in V(x_k), \quad k = 1, \dots, K-1.$$

- ▶ Analogy with Markov chains: irreducibility.

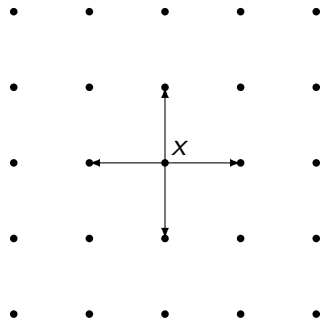
What makes a good neighborhood?

Design checklist

- ▶ **Reachability:** can we reach all feasible solutions (in principle)?
- ▶ **Feasibility handling:** generate only feasible neighbors or repair/filter infeasible ones.
- ▶ **Cost of evaluation:** neighbors should be cheap to evaluate (use incremental updates when possible).
- ▶ **Balance:** too small \Rightarrow stuck; too large \Rightarrow expensive enumeration.
- ▶ **Symmetry (often useful):**

$$y \in V(x) \iff x \in V(y).$$

Integer optimization



Integer optimization

- ▶ Consider the current iterate $x \in \mathbb{Z}^n$.
- ▶ For each $k = 1, \dots, n$, define 2 neighbors by increasing and decreasing the value of x_k by one unit.
- ▶ The neighbors y^{k+} and y^{k-} are defined as

$$y_i^{k+} = y_i^{k-} = x_i, \forall i \neq k, \quad y_k^{k+} = x_k + 1, \quad y_k^{k-} = x_k - 1.$$

- ▶ Example

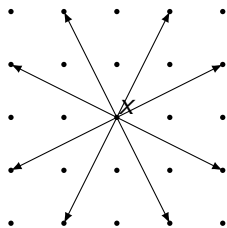
$$x = (3, 5, 2, 8) \quad y^{2+} = (3, 6, 2, 8) \quad y^{2-} = (3, 4, 2, 8)$$

- ▶ Size of the neighborhood: $2n$.
- ▶ Feasibility should also be enforced.
- ▶ If n is large, truncation may be useful.
- ▶ The order is arbitrary, but must be specified.
- ▶ Shuffling may be useful.

Integer optimization

Creativity

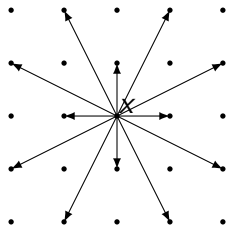
- ▶ The concept of neighborhood is fairly general.
- ▶ It must be defined based on the structure of the problem.
- ▶ Creativity is required here.



Integer optimization

Combinations

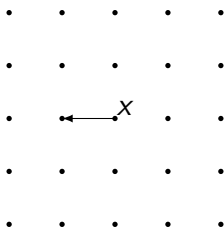
- ▶ Combining neighborhoods is easy.
- ▶ Trade-off between flexibility and complexity.



Integer optimization

Properties

- ▶ Verify the properties.
- ▶ Symmetry and reachability.



The knapsack problem

Fundamental neighborhood

- ▶ Current solution: for each item i , $x_i = 0$ or $x_i = 1$.
- ▶ Neighbor solution: select an item j , and change the decision: $x_j \leftarrow 1 - x_j$.
- ▶ Warning: check feasibility.
- ▶ Generalization: neighborhood of size k : select k items, and change the decision for them (checking feasibility).
- ▶ Order: based on the utility/weight ratio, for instance.

The knapsack problem

Truncated neighborhood

- ▶ A neighborhood of size k modifies k variables.
- ▶ Number of neighbors:

$$\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

- ▶ $k = 1$: n neighbors.
- ▶ $k = n$: 1 neighbor.
- ▶ Useful to truncate to M .
- ▶ Size of the neighborhood:

$$\min\left(\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}, M\right).$$

Python code

```
def neighborhood(sack, size = 1, random = True, truncated = None):
    n = len(sack)
    combinations = np.array(list(itertools.combinations(range(n), size)))
    if random:
        np.random.shuffle(combinations)
    if truncated is not None:
        combinations = combinations[:truncated]
    theNeighborhood = []
    for c in combinations:
        s = np.array(sack)
        s[c] = 1 - sack[c]
        theNeighborhood.append(s)
    return theNeighborhood
```

Traveling salesman problem

2-OPT

- ▶ Select two cities.
- ▶ Swap their position in the tour.
- ▶ Visit all intermediate cities in reverse order.

Example

Current tour:

A-B-C-D-E-F-G-H-A

Exchange C and G to obtain

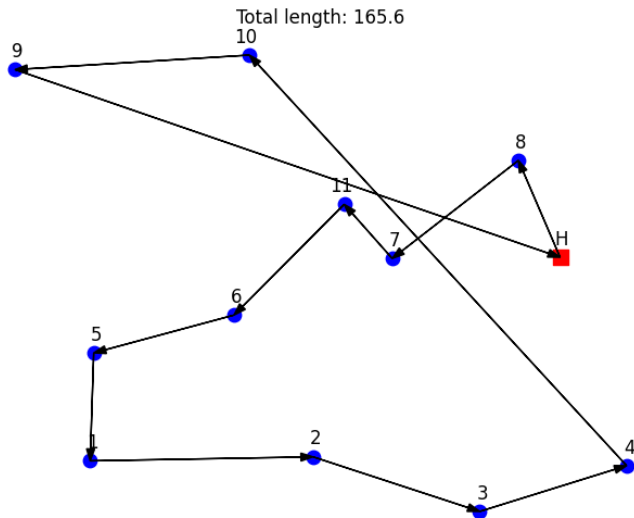
A-B-G-F-E-D-C-H-A.

Traveling salesman problem

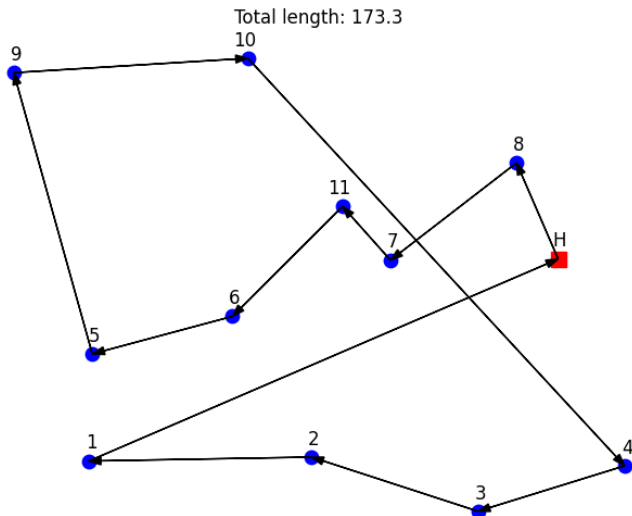
Example: 2-OPT(1,9)

- ▶ Try to improve the solution using 2-OPT swapping 1 and 9.
- ▶ Before: H-8-7-11-6-5-1-2-3-4-10-9-H (length: 165.6)
- ▶ After : H-8-7-11-6-5-9-10-4-3-2-1-H (length: 173.3)
- ▶ No improvement.

Neighborhood: 2-OPT(1,9) before



Neighborhood: 2-OPT(1,9) after



Exploration

Comments

- ▶ Design of “vehicles” to explore the solution space.
- ▶ Fundamental neighborhoods exploit the structure of the problem.
- ▶ Various operations allow to modify and combine neighborhoods.
- ▶ Trade-off between flexibility and complexity.
- ▶ The neighborhood must be sufficiently large to increase the chances of improvement, and sufficiently small to avoid a lengthy enumeration.
- ▶ Example of a neighborhood too small: one neighbor at the west.
- ▶ Example of a neighborhood too large: each feasible point is in the neighborhood.

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Local search: version one

- ▶ Consider the combinatorial optimization problem

$$\min f(x)$$

subject to

$$x \in \mathcal{U}.$$

- ▶ Consider the neighborhood structure $V(x)$, where $V(x)$ is the set of feasible neighbors of x .
- ▶ At each iteration k , consider the neighbors in $V(x_k)$ one at a time.
- ▶ For each $y \in V(x_k)$, if $f(y) < f(x_k)$, then $x_{k+1} = y$ and proceed to the next iteration.
- ▶ If $f(y) \geq f(x_k)$, $\forall y \in V(x_k)$, x_k is a local minimum. Stop.

Local search: version two

- ▶ Consider the combinatorial optimization problem

$$\min f(x)$$

subject to

$$x \in \mathcal{U}.$$

- ▶ Consider the neighborhood structure $V(x)$ (set of neighbors of x).
- ▶ At iteration k , select a best neighbor

$$y \in \arg \min_{v \in V(x_k)} f(v).$$

- ▶ If $f(y) \geq f(x_k)$, then x_k is a local minimum. Stop.
- ▶ Otherwise, set $x_{k+1} = y$ and continue.

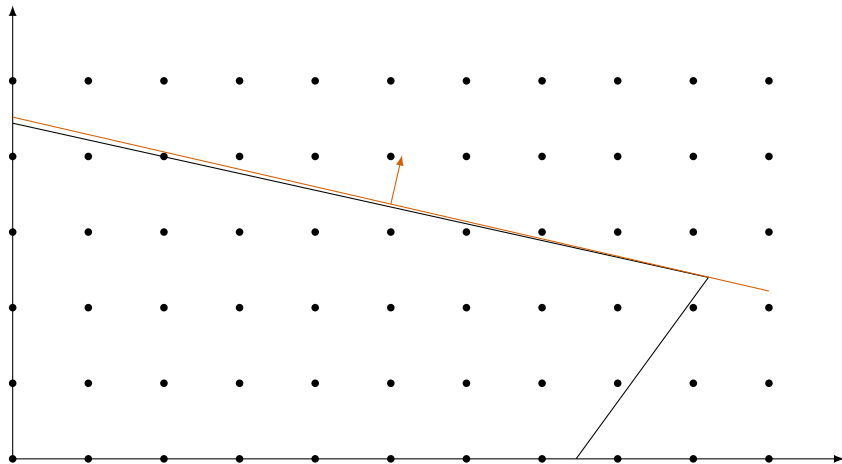
Local search: example

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^2} -3x_1 - 13x_2$$

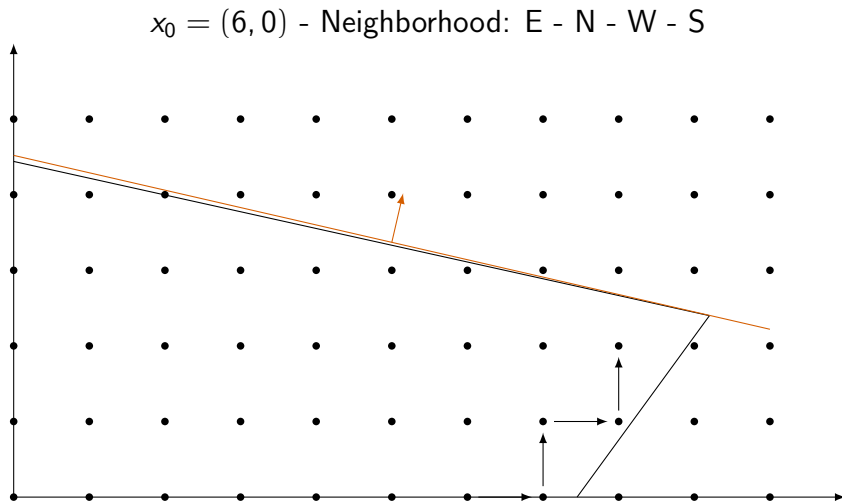
subject to

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 + 9x_2 &\leq 40 \\ 11x_1 - 8x_2 &\leq 82 \\ x_1, x_2 &\in \mathbb{N} \end{aligned}$$

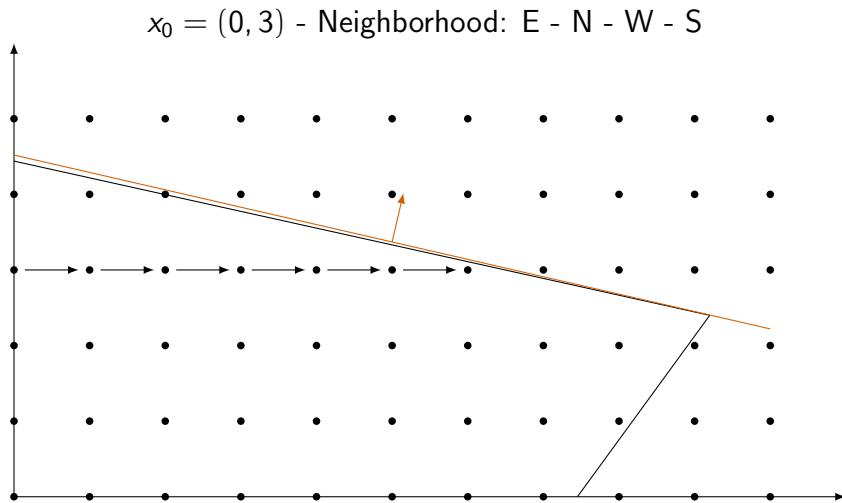
Local search: example



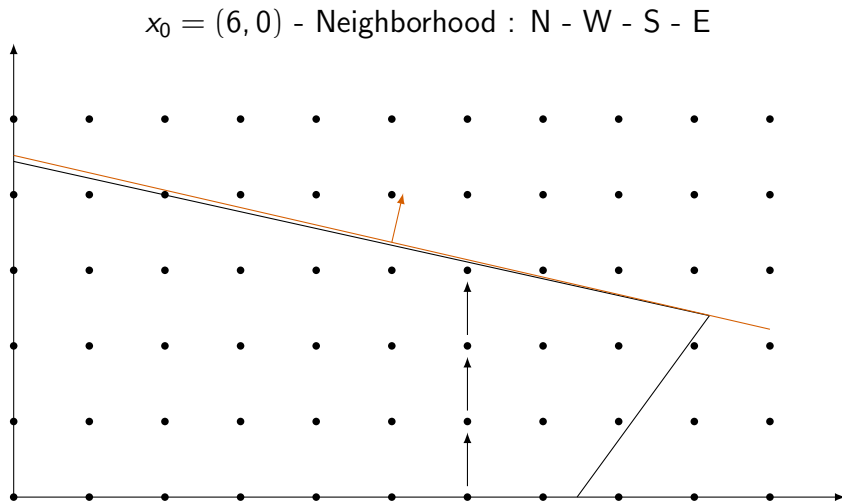
Local search: example



Local search: example



Local search: example



The knapsack problem

$$\max_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} u^T x$$

subject to

$$w^T x \leq W.$$

The knapsack problem

```
def localSearch(u, w, capacity, initSolution, neighborhood):  
    x = initSolution  
    ux = np.inner(u, x)  
    wx = np.inner(w, x)  
    if wx > capacity:  
        Exception(f'Infeasible weight {wx} > {capacity}')
```



```
    localOptimum = False  
    while not localOptimum:  
        neighbors = neighborhood(x)  
        localOptimum = True  
        for y in neighbors:  
            wy = np.inner(w, y)  
            if wy <= capacity:  
                uy = np.inner(u, y)  
                if uy > ux:  
                    localOptimum = False  
                    x = y  
                    ux = uy  
                    wx = wy
```


The knapsack problem

```
def neighborhood1(sack):  
    return neighborhood(sack, size = 1, random = False, truncated = None)  
firstSack = np.array([0]*n)  
  
localSearch(utility, weight, capacity, firstSack, neighborhood1)  
First sack: [0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0] U=0 W=0  
New sack   : [1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0] U=80 W=84  
New sack   : [0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0] U=84 W=96  
New sack   : [1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0] U=164 W=180  
New sack   : [1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0] U=195 W=207  
New sack   : [1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0] U=212 W=227  
New sack   : [1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0] U=222 W=233  
New sack   : [1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0] U=231 W=258  
New sack   : [1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0] U=262 W=285  
New sack   : [1 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0] U=265 W=300
```

The knapsack problem

```
def neighborhood2(sack):  
    return neighborhood(sack, size = 3, random = False, truncated = None)
```

```
firstSack = np.array([0]*n)  
localSearch(utility, weight, capacity, firstSack, neighborhood2)
```

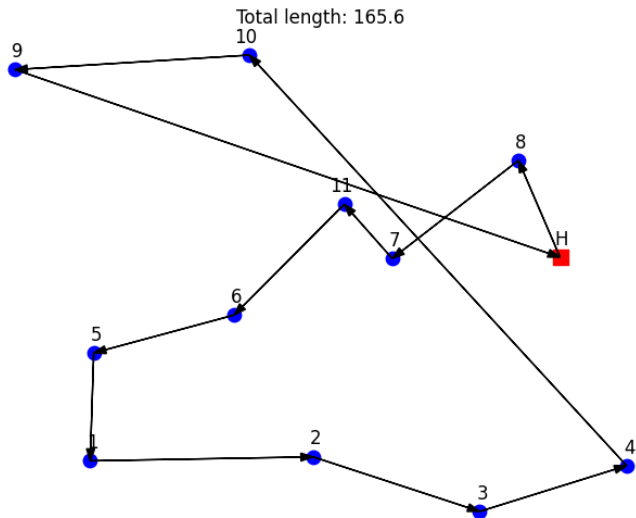
```
First sack: [0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0] U=0 W=0  
New sack   : [1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0] U=159 W=158  
New sack   : [1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0] U=195 W=207  
New sack   : [1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0] U=212 W=227  
New sack   : [1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0] U=222 W=233  
New sack   : [1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0] U=231 W=258  
New sack   : [0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0] U=240 W=254  
New sack   : [0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0] U=245 W=275  
New sack   : [0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0] U=257 W=274  
New sack   : [1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0] U=258 W=281  
New sack   : [1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0] U=270 W=280  
New sack   : [0 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0] U=274 W=296  
New sack   : [0 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0] U=284 W=295  
New sack   : [1 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0] U=288 W=300
```

Traveling salesman problem

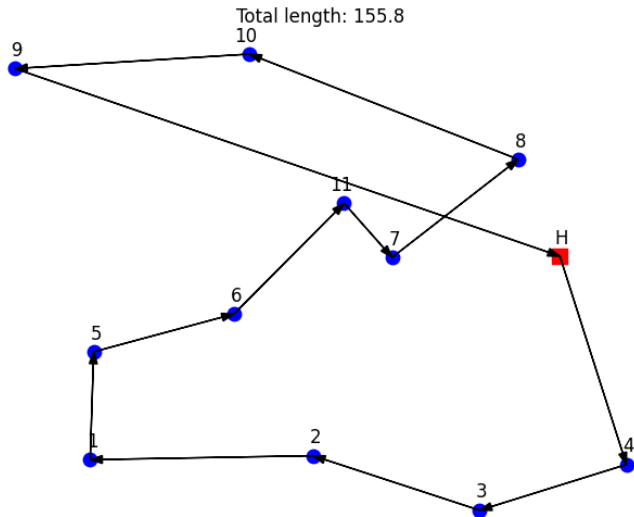
Procedure

- ▶ Start with the outcome of the greedy algorithm.
- ▶ Use the 2-OPT neighborhood.
- ▶ Use version two of the local search.

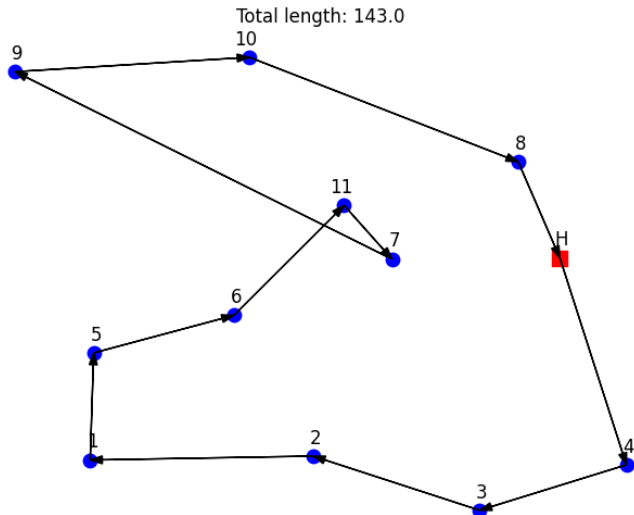
Current tour



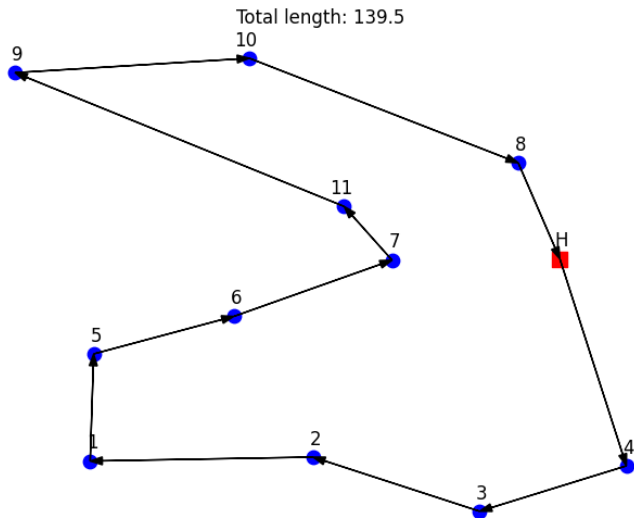
Best neighbor: 2-OPT(8,4)



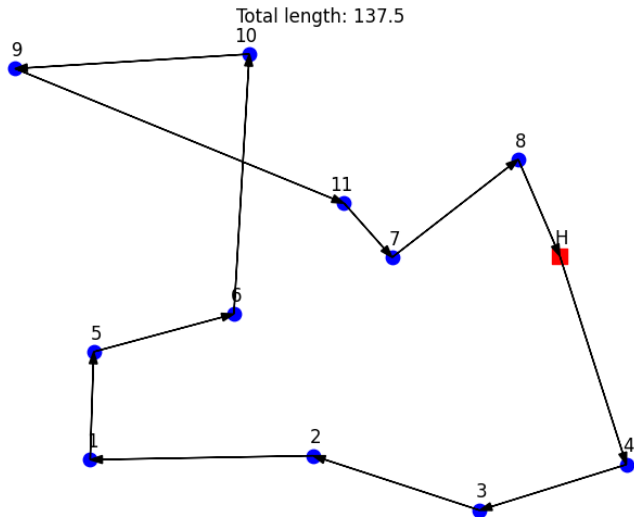
Best neighbor: 2-OPT(8,9)



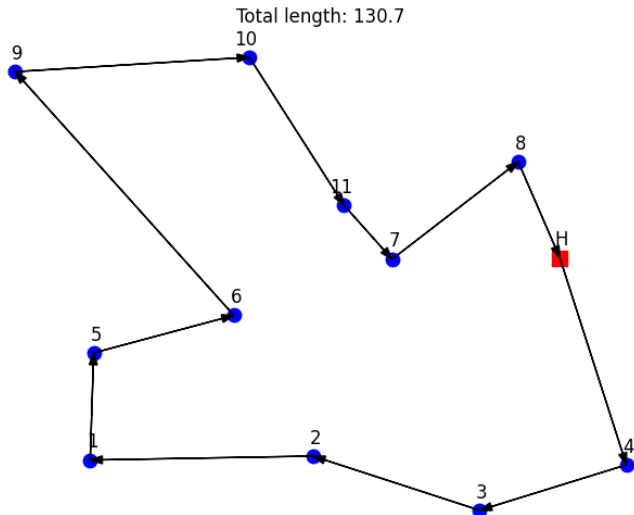
Best neighbor: 2-OPT(11,7)



Best neighbor: 2-OPT(7,10)



Best neighbor: 2-OPT(10,9)



Comments

- ▶ The algorithm stops at a local minimum, that is a solution better than all its neighbors.
- ▶ The outcome depends on the starting point and the structure of the neighborhood.
- ▶ Several variants are possible.

Outline

Motivation

Classical problems

Algorithms

Brute force

Greedy heuristics

Exploration

Intensification

Diversification

Summary

Changing the starting point

Idea

- ▶ Launch the local search from several starting points.
- ▶ Select the best local optimum.

Issues

- ▶ Feasibility.
- ▶ Same local optimum may be generated many times.
- ▶ Shooting in the dark.

Variable Neighborhood Search

- ▶ aka VNS
- ▶ Idea: consider several neighborhood structures.
- ▶ When a local optimum has been found for a given neighborhood structure, continue with another structure.

VNS: method

- Input**
- ▶ V_1, V_2, \dots, V_K neighborhood structures.
 - ▶ Initial solution x_0 .

- Initialization**
- ▶ $x_c \leftarrow x_0$
 - ▶ $k \leftarrow 1$

Iterations Repeat

- ▶ Apply local search from x_c using neighborhood V_k

$$x^+ \leftarrow LS(x_c, V_k)$$

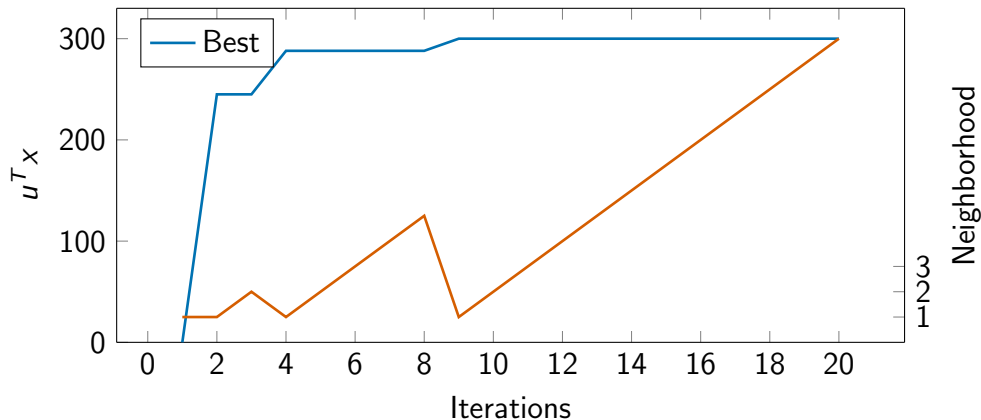
- ▶ If $f(x^+) < f(x_c)$, then $x_c \leftarrow x^+$, $k \leftarrow 1$.
- ▶ Otherwise, $k \leftarrow k + 1$.

Until $k = K$.

VNS: example for the knapsack problem

- ▶ Neighborhood of size k : modify k variables.
- ▶ Local search: current iterate: x_c
 - ▶ randomly select a neighbor x^+
 - ▶ if $w^T x^+ \leq W$ and $u^T x^+ > u^T x_c$, then $x_c \leftarrow x^+$

VNS: example for the knapsack problem



Simulated annealing

Analogy with metallurgy

- ▶ Heating a metal and then cooling it down slowly improves its properties.
- ▶ The atoms take a more solid configuration.

In optimization:

- ▶ Local search can both decrease and increase the objective function.
- ▶ At “high temperature”, it is common to increase.
- ▶ At “low temperature”, increasing happens rarely.
- ▶ Simulated annealing: slow cooling = slow reduction of the probability to increase.

Simulated annealing

Modify the local search.

For the sake of simplicity: consider a neighborhood structure containing only feasible solutions.

Let x_k be the current iterate

- ▶ Select $y \in V(x_k)$.
- ▶ If $f(y) \leq f(x_k)$, then $x_{k+1} = y$.
- ▶ Otherwise, $x_{k+1} = y$ with probability

$$e^{-\frac{f(y)-f(x_k)}{T}}$$

with $T > 0$.

Concretely, draw r between 0 and 1.

Accept y as next iterate if

$$e^{-\frac{f(y)-f(x_k)}{T}} > r$$

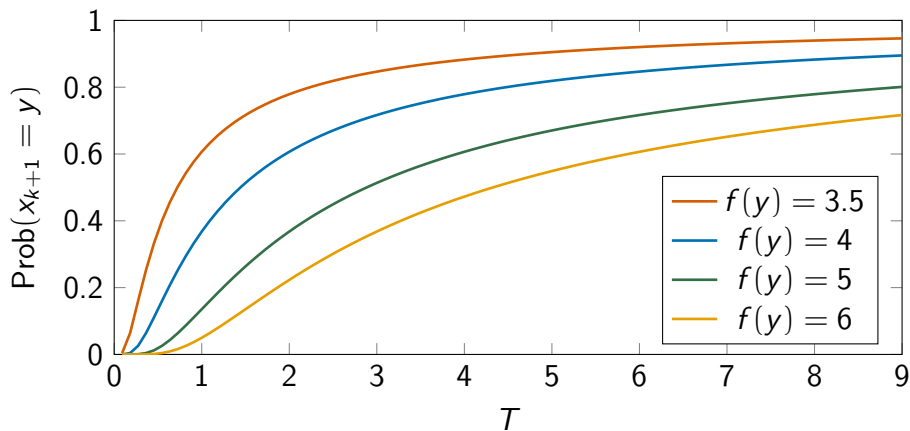
Simulated annealing

$$\text{Prob}(x_{k+1} = y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f(y) \leq f(x_k) \\ e^{-\frac{f(y)-f(x_k)}{T}} & \text{if } f(y) > f(x_k) \end{cases}$$

- ▶ If T is high (hot temperature), high probability to increase.
- ▶ If T is low, almost only decreases.

Simulated annealing

Example : $f(x_k) = 3$



Simulated annealing

- ▶ In practice, start with high T for flexibility.
- ▶ Then, decrease T progressively.

Simulated annealing

- Input
- ▶ Initial solution x_0
 - ▶ Initial temperature T_0 , minimum temperature T_f
 - ▶ Neighborhood structure $V(x)$
 - ▶ Maximum number of iterations K

Initialize $x_c \leftarrow x_0, x^* \leftarrow x_0, T \leftarrow T_0$

Simulated annealing

Repeat $k \leftarrow 1$

▶ While $k < K$

▶ Randomly select a neighbor $y \in V(x_c)$

▶ $\delta \leftarrow f(y) - f(x_c)$

▶ If $\delta < 0$, $x_c = y$.

▶ Otherwise, draw r between 0 and 1

▶ If $r < \exp(-\delta/T)$, then $x_c = y$

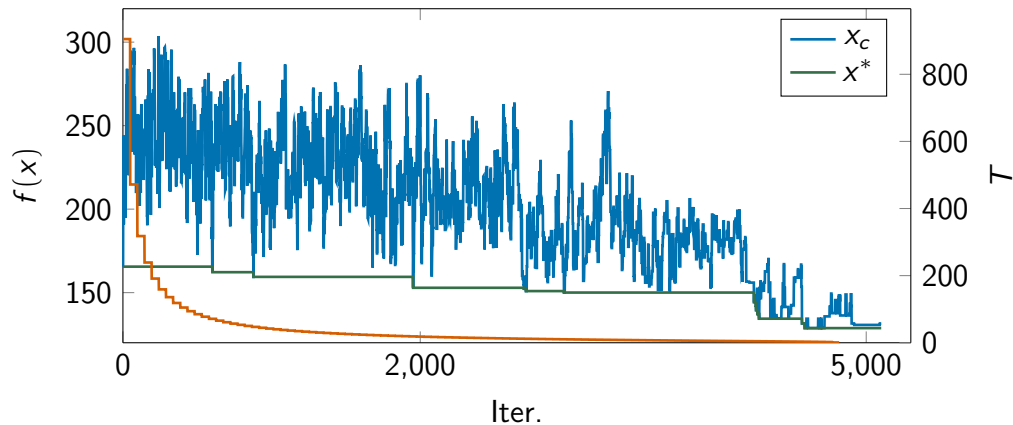
▶ If $f(x_c) < f(x^*)$, $x^* = x_c$.

▶ $k \leftarrow k + 1$

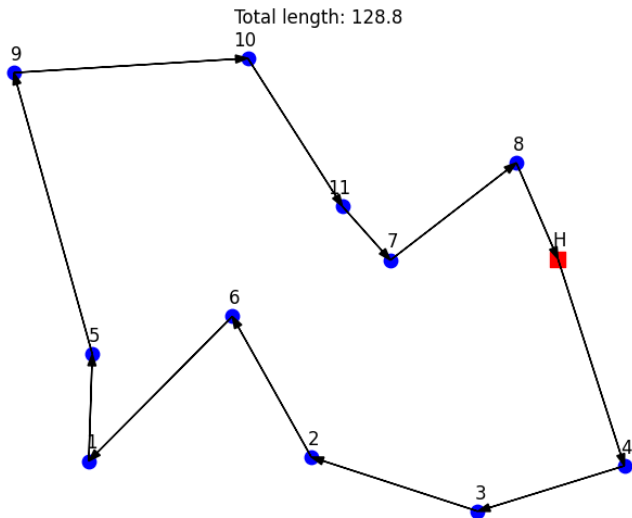
▶ Reduce T

Until $T \leq T_f$

Example: traveling salesman problem



Best solution found (optimal!)



Practical comments

- ▶ Parameters must be tuned.
- ▶ In particular, the reduction rate of the temperature must be specified.
 - ▶ Let δ_t be a typical increase of the objective function.
 - ▶ In the beginning, we want such an increase to be accepted with probability p_0 (e.g. $p_0 = 0.999$)
 - ▶ At the end, we want such an increase to be accepted with probability p_f (e.g. $p_f = 0.00001$)
 - ▶ We allow for M updates of the temperature. So, for $m = 0, \dots, M$,

$$T = -\frac{\delta_t}{\ln(p_0 + \frac{p_f - p_0}{M}m)}$$

Simulated annealing and MCMC

Key connection

Simulated annealing applies Metropolis–Hastings to the distribution

$$\pi_T(x) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{f(x)}{T}\right),$$

where $T > 0$ is the temperature.

Interpretation

- ▶ High T : exploration (many uphill moves accepted).
- ▶ Low T : exploitation (mostly downhill moves).
- ▶ Cooling schedule: gradually shifts from exploration to exploitation.

Takeaway

Annealing is a meta-heuristic that uses an MCMC mechanism to escape local minima.

Comments

How to avoid being blocked in a local minimum?

- ▶ Apply an algorithm from multiple starting points.
 - ▶ How to find feasible starting point?
 - ▶ How to avoid shooting in the dark?
- ▶ Change the structure of the neighborhood: variable neighborhood search
 - ▶ How to choose the neighborhood structures?
- ▶ Allow the algorithm to proceed upwards: simulated annealing
 - ▶ Climb the mountain to find another valley.
 - ▶ How to decide when it is time to climb or to go down?

Outline

Motivation

Classical problems

Algorithms

- Brute force

- Greedy heuristics

- Exploration

- Intensification

- Diversification

Summary

Combinatorial optimization

Characteristics

- ▶ f and \mathcal{U} have no specific property.
- ▶ f is a black box.
- ▶ \mathcal{U} is a finite set of valid configurations.
- ▶ No optimality condition is available.

Optimization methods

Exact methods (branch and bound)

- ▶ Finds the optimal solution.
- ▶ Suffers from the curse of dimensionality.
- ▶ Requires the availability of valid and tight bounds.

Approximation algorithms

- ▶ Finds a sub-optimal solution.
- ▶ Guarantees a bound on the quality of the solution.
- ▶ Mainly used for theoretical purposes.

Heuristics

- ▶ Smart exploration of the solution space.
- ▶ No guarantee about optimality.
- ▶ Few assumptions about the problem.
- ▶ Designed to mimic manual interventions.

Heuristics: general framework

Exploration

Neighborhood

Intensification

Local search

Diversification

Escape from local minima

Meta-heuristics

- ▶ Methods designed to escape from local optima are sometimes called “meta-heuristics”.
- ▶ Plenty of variants are available in the literature.
- ▶ In general, success depends on exploiting well the properties of the problem at hand.
- ▶ VNS is one of the simplest to code.
- ▶ Additional bio-inspired methods have also been proposed and applied: genetic algorithms, ant colony optimization, etc.