

STOCHASTIC LOCAL SEARCH  
FOUNDATIONS AND APPLICATIONS

## Search Space Structure and SLS Performance

Holger H. Hoos & Thomas Stützle

# Outline

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1. Fundamental Search Space Properties
2. Search Landscapes and Local Minima
3. Fitness-Distance Correlation
4. Ruggedness
5. Plateaux
6. Barriers and Basins

# Fundamental Search Space Properties

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**Note:** The diameter of a given search space depends on the *neighbourhood size*.

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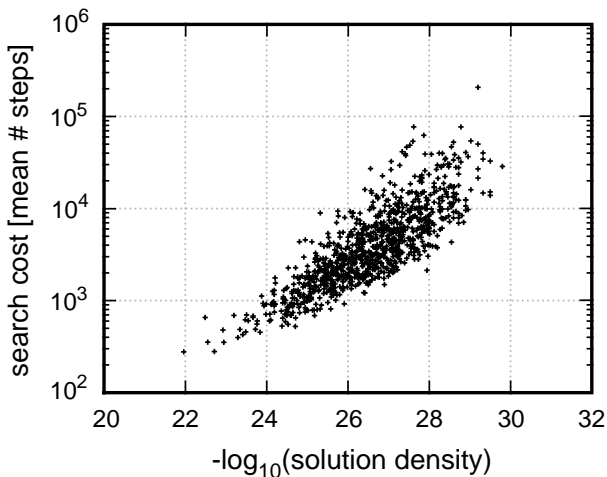
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  - ▶ counting algorithms (often variants of complete algorithms).
- ▶ In many cases, (optimal) solutions tend to be clustered; this is reflected in uneven distributions of pairwise distances between solutions.

**Example:** Correlation between solution density and search cost for GWSAT over set of hard Random-3-SAT instances:



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the *search landscape of  $\pi$* ,  $L(\pi)$ , is defined as  $L(\pi) := (S(\pi), N(\pi), g(\pi))$ .



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## Classification of search positions (according to evaluation function values of direct neighbours):

<i>position type</i>	>	=	<
SLMIN (strict local min)	+	-	-
LMIN (local min)	+	+	-

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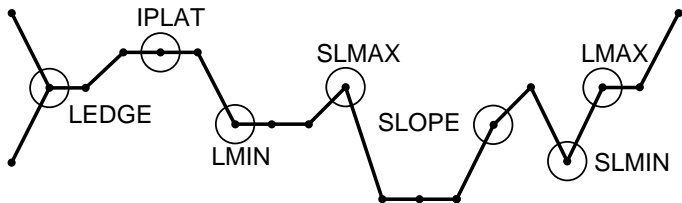
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LMAX (local max)	-	+	+
SLMAX (strict local max)	-	-	+

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Example for various types of search positions:



**Example:** Complete distribution of position types  
for hard Random-3-SAT instances

instance	<i>avg sc</i>	SLMIN	LMIN	IPLAT
uf20-91/easy	13.05	0%	0.11%	0%
uf20-91/medium	83.25	< 0.01%	0.13%	0%
uf20-91/hard	563.94	< 0.01%	0.16%	0%

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instance	SLOPE	LEDGE	LMAX	SLMAX
uf20-91/easy	0.59%	99.27%	0.04%	< 0.01%
uf20-91/medium	0.31%	99.40%	0.06%	< 0.01%
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(based on exhaustive enumeration of search space;  
sc refers to search cost for GWSAT)

**Example:** Sampled distribution of position types  
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instance	<i>avg sc</i>	SLMIN	LMIN	IPLAT
uf50-218/medium	615.25	0%	47.29%	0%
uf100-430/medium	3 410.45	0%	43.89%	0%
uf150-645/medium	10 231.89	0%	41.95%	0%

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**Solution:** Approximation based on sampling or estimation from other measures (such as autocorrelation measures, see below).

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- ▶ Sample set of purportedly globally optimal tours using multiple independent runs of high-performance TSP algorithm.
- ▶ Measure minimal pairwise distances between local minima and respective closest optimal tour (using bond distance).

## Empirical results:

Instance	avg $sq$ [%]	avg $d_{lmin}$	avg $d_{opt}$
<i>Results for 3-opt</i>			
rat783	3.45	197.8	185.9
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(based on local minima collected from 1 000/200 runs of 3-opt/ILS)

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- ▶ Higher-quality local minima found by ILS tend to be closer to each other and the closest global optima compared to those determined by 3-opt.  
⇒ *Higher-quality local minima tend to be concentrated in smaller regions of the search space.*

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$$\widehat{\sigma}(g) := \sqrt{\frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m (g_i - \bar{g})^2}, \quad \widehat{\sigma}(d) := \sqrt{\frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m (d_i - \bar{d})^2}$$



## Note:

- ▶ The FDC coefficient,  $r_{fdc}$  depends on the given neighbourhood relation.

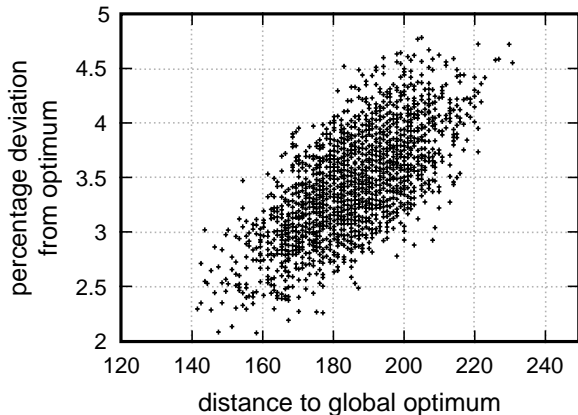
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- ▶  $r_{fdc}$  is calculated based on a sample of  $m$  candidate solutions (typically: set of local optima found over multiple runs of an iterative improvement algorithm).
- ▶ *Fitness-distance plots*, i.e., scatter plots of the  $(g_i, d_i)$  pairs underlying an estimate of  $r_{fdc}$ , are often useful to graphically illustrate fitness distance correlations.

**Example:** FDC plot for TSPLIB instance rat783, based on 2500 local optima obtained from a 3-opt algorithm



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## Low FDC ( $r_{fdc}$ close to zero):

- ▶ global structure of landscape does not provide guidance for local search;
- ▶ typical for very hard combinatorial problems, such as certain types of QAP (Quadratic Assignment Problem) instances.

## Applications of fitness-distance analysis:

- ▶ algorithm design: use of strong intensification (including initialisation) and relatively weak diversification mechanisms;
- ▶ comparison of effectiveness of neighbourhood relations;

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# Ruggedness

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**Note:** Landscape ruggedness is closely related to local minima density: rugged landscapes tend to have many local minima.

The ruggedness of a landscape  $L$  can be measured by means of the *empirical autocorrelation function*  $r(i)$ :

$$r(i) := \frac{1/(m-i) \cdot \sum_{k=1}^{m-i} (g_k - \bar{g}) \cdot (g_{k+i} - \bar{g})}{1/m \cdot \sum_{k=1}^m (g_k - \bar{g})^2}$$

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- ▶ (Bounds on) ACC can be theoretically derived in many cases, e.g., the TSP with the 2-exchange neighbourhood.
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  - ▶ studying the impact of parameter settings of a given SLS algorithm on its behaviour,
  - ▶ classifying the difficulty of combinatorial problems.

# Plateaux

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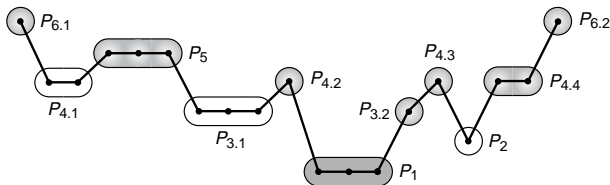
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**Intuition:** Plateaux can impede search progress due to lack of guidance by the evaluation function.



## Definition

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- ▶ *Plateau region*: region in which all positions have the same level, *i.e.*, evaluation function value,  $l$ .
- ▶ *Plateau*: maximally extended plateau region, *i.e.*, plateau region in which no border position has any direct neighbours at the plateau level  $l$ .

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- ▶ *Exit of plateau region  $R$* : direct neighbours of a border position of  $R$  with lower level than plateau level  $l$ .
- ▶ *Open / closed plateau*: plateau with / without exits.

## Measures of plateau structure:

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- ▶ *number of exits, exit density*
- ▶ *distribution of exits within a plateau, exit distance distribution* (in particular: avg./max. distance to closest exit)

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- ▶ For open plateaux, exits tend to be clustered, but the average exit distance is typically relatively small.

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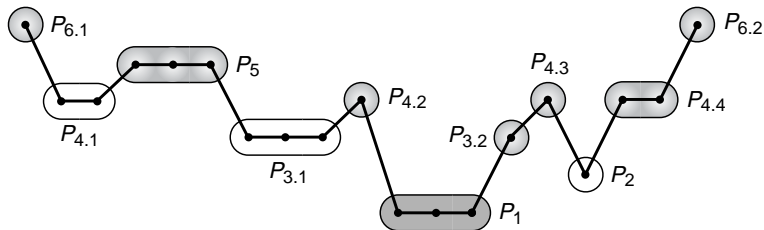
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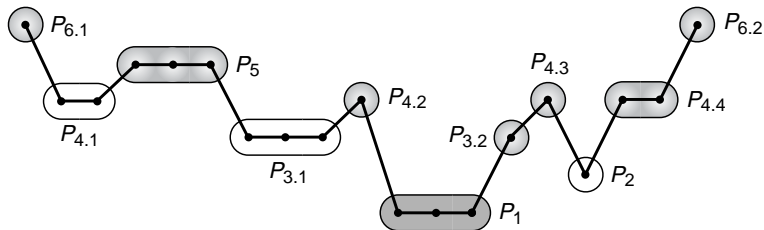
- ▶ *Vertices:* plateaux of given landscape
- ▶ *Edges (directed):* connect plateaux that are directly connected by one or more exit.
- ▶ Additionally, *edge weights* can be used to indicate the relative numbers of exits from one plateau to its PCG neighbours.



## Example: Simple neutral search landscape $L \dots$

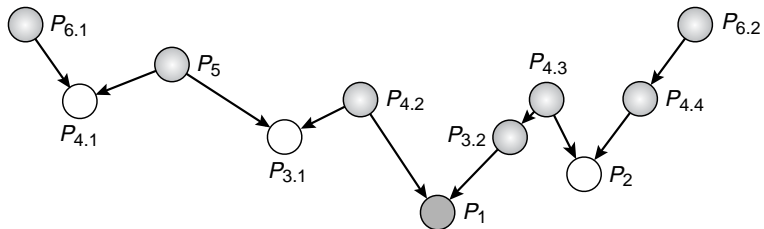


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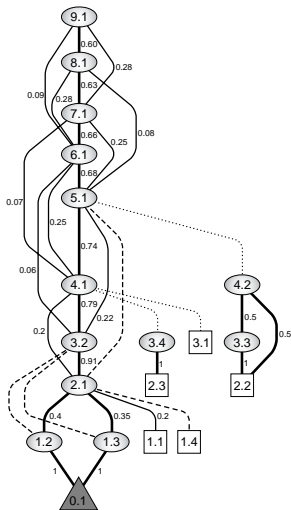


*Note:* The plateaux form a partition of  $L$ , i.e. every position in  $L$  is part of exactly one (possibly degenerate) plateau.

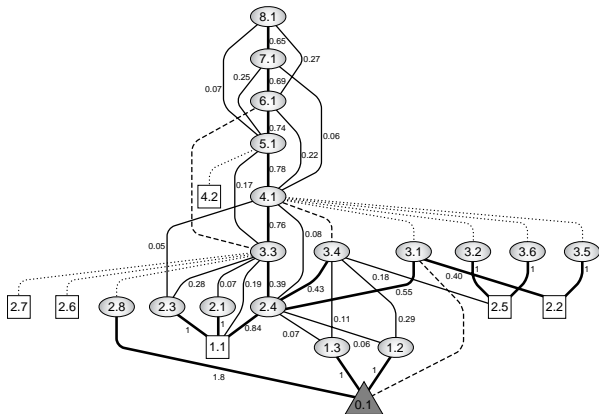
**Example:** ... and the respective plateau connection graph



## Example: PCG of easy Random 3-SAT instance



## Example: PCG of *hard* Random 3-SAT instance



# Barriers and Basins

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## Observation:

The *difficulty of escaping* from closed plateaux or strict local minima is related to the *height of the barrier*, *i.e.*, the difference in evaluation function, that needs to be overcome in order to reach better search positions:

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## Observation:

The *difficulty of escaping* from closed plateaux or strict local minima is related to the *height of the barrier*, *i.e.*, the difference in evaluation function, that needs to be overcome in order to reach better search positions:

Higher barriers are typically more difficult to overcome (this holds, *e.g.*, for Probabilistic Iterative Improvement or Simulated Annealing).

## Definition:

- ▶ Positions  $s, s'$  are *mutually accessible at level  $l$*  iff there is a path connecting  $s'$  and  $s$  in the neighbourhood graph that visits only positions  $t$  with  $g(t) \leq l$ .



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- ▶ The *depth of a position  $s$*  is the minimal barrier height between  $s$  and any position  $s'$  at a level lower than  $s$ , i.e., for which  $g(s') < g(s)$ .

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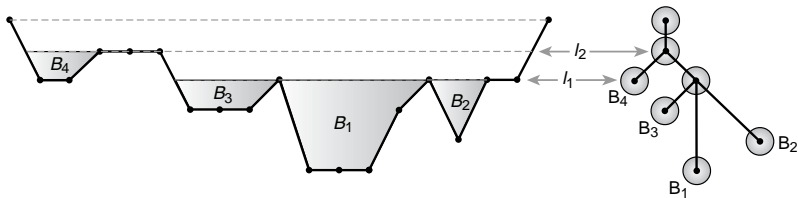
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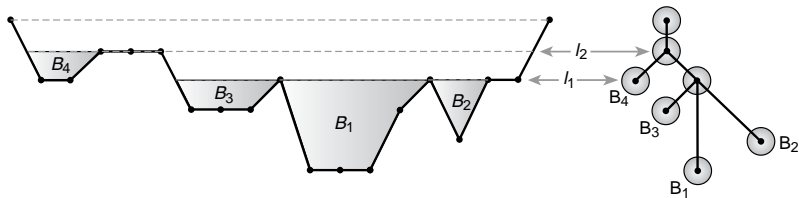
Note:

- ▶ Basins of a given landscape form a *hierarchy*, *i.e.*, two basins are either disjoint, or one is contained in the other.
- ▶ Basin hierarchies can be formally represented as *basin trees*.

**Example:** Basins in a simple search landscape and corresponding basin tree



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*Note:* The basin tree only represents basins just below the critical levels at which neighbouring basins are joined (by a *saddle*).



## Note:

- ▶ Like plateau connection graphs, basin trees can provide much deeper insights into SLS behaviour and problem hardness than global measures of search space structure, such as FDC or ACC.

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- ▶ **But:** This type of analysis is computationally expensive, since it requires enumeration (or sampling) of large parts of the search space.