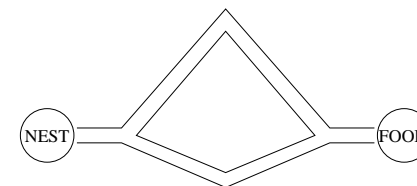


## 11 Novel Methods

- ▶ Ant Algorithms
- ▶ Message Passing Methods

## 11.1 Ant Algorithms

- ▶ Dorigo et al. (1991 onwards), Hoos & Stützle (1997), ...
- ▶ Inspired by experiment of real ants selecting the shorter of two paths (Goss et al. 1989):



- ▶ Method: each ant leaves a *pheromone trail* along its path; ants make probabilistic choice of path biased by the amount of pheromone on the ground; ants travel faster along the shorter path, hence it gets a differential advantage on the amount of pheromone deposited.

## Ant Colony Optimisation (ACO)

- ▶ Formulate given optimisation task as a path finding problem from source  $s$  to some set of valid destinations  $t_1, \dots, t_n$  (cf. the  $A^*$  algorithm).
- ▶ Have agents (“ants”) search (in serial or parallel) for candidate paths, where local choices among edges leading from node  $i$  to neighbours  $j \in N_i$  are made probabilistically according to the local “pheromone distribution”  $\tau_{ij}$ :

$$p_{ij} = \frac{\tau_{ij}}{\sum_{j \in N_i} \tau_{ij}}.$$

- ▶ After an agent has found a complete path  $\pi$  from  $s$  to one of the  $t_k$ , “reward” it by an amount of pheromone proportional to the quality of the path,  $\Delta\tau \propto q(\pi)$ .

- ▶ Have each agent distribute its pheromone reward  $\Delta\tau$  among edges  $(i, j)$  on its path  $\pi$ : either as  $\tau_{ij} \leftarrow \tau_{ij} + \Delta\tau$  or as  $\tau_{ij} \leftarrow \tau_{ij} + \Delta\tau / \text{len}(\pi)$ .
- ▶ Between two iterations of the algorithm, have the pheromone levels “evaporate” at a constant rate  $(1 - \rho)$ :

$$\tau_{ij} \leftarrow (1 - \rho)\tau_{ij}.$$

## ACO motivation

- ▶ Local choices leading to several good global results get reinforced by pheromone accumulation.
- ▶ Evaporation of pheromone maintains diversity of search. (I.e. hopefully prevents it getting stuck at bad local minima.)
- ▶ Good aspects of the method: can be distributed; adapts automatically to online changes in the quality function  $q(\pi)$ .
- ▶ Good results claimed for Travelling Salesman Problem, Quadratic Assignment, Vehicle Routing, Adaptive Network Routing etc.

## An ACO algorithm for the TSP (1/2)

- ▶ Dorigo et al. (1991)
- ▶ At the start of each iteration,  $m$  ants are positioned at random start cities.
- ▶ Each ant constructs probabilistically a Hamiltonian tour  $\pi$  on the graph, biased by the existing pheromone levels. (NB. the ants need to remember and exclude the cities they have visited during the search.)
- ▶ In most variations of the algorithm, the tours  $\pi$  are still locally optimised using e.g. the Lin-Kernighan 3-opt procedure.
- ▶ The pheromone award for a tour  $\pi$  of length  $d(\pi)$  is  $\Delta\tau = 1/d(\pi)$ , and this is added to each edge of the tour:  $\tau_{ij} \leftarrow \tau_{ij} + 1/d(\pi)$ .

## ACO variants

Several modifications proposed in the literature:

- ▶ To exploit best solutions, allow only best agent of each iteration to distribute pheromone.
- ▶ To maintain diversity, set lower and upper limits on the edge pheromone levels.
- ▶ To speed up discovery of good paths, run some local optimisation algorithm on the paths found by the agents.
- ▶ Etc.

## An ACO algorithm for the TSP (2/2)

- ▶ The local choice of moving from city  $i$  to city  $j$  is biased according to weights:

$$a_{ij} = \frac{\tau_{ij}^\alpha (1/d_{ij})^\beta}{\sum_{j \in N_i} \tau_{ij}^\alpha (1/d_{ij})^\beta},$$

where  $\alpha, \beta \geq 0$  are parameters controlling the balance between the current strength of the pheromone trail  $\tau_{ij}$  vs. the actual intercity distance  $d_{ij}$ .

- ▶ Thus, the local choice distribution at city  $i$  is:

$$p_{ij} = \frac{a_{ij}}{\sum_{j \in N'_i} a_{ij}},$$

where  $N'_i$  is the set of permissible neighbours of  $i$  after cities visited earlier in the tour have been excluded.

## 11.2 Message Passing Methods

*Belief Propagation (or the Sum-Product Algorithm):*

- ▶ Pearl (1986) and Lauritzen & Spiegelhalter (1986).
- ▶ Originally developed for probabilistic inference in graphical models; specifically for computing marginal distributions of free variables conditioned on determined ones.
- ▶ Recently generalised to many other applications by Kschischang et al. (2001) and others.
- ▶ Unifies many other, independently developed important algorithms: Expectation-Maximisation (statistics), Viterbi and “Turbo” decoding (coding theory), Kalman filters (signal processing), etc.
- ▶ Presently of great interest as a search heuristic in constraint satisfaction.

### Belief propagation

- ▶ Method is applicable to any constraint satisfaction problem, but for simplicity let us focus on Satisfiability.
- ▶ Consider cnf formula  $F$  determined by variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  and clauses  $C_1, \dots, C_m$ . Represent truth values as  $\xi \in \{0, 1\}$ .
- ▶ Denote the set of satisfying truth assignments for  $F$  as
 
$$\mathcal{S} = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^n \mid C_1(x) = \dots = C_m(x) = 1\}.$$
- ▶ We aim to estimate for each variable  $x_i$  and truth value  $\xi \in \{0, 1\}$  the **bias** of  $x_i$  towards  $\xi$  in  $\mathcal{S}$ :

$$\beta_i(\xi) = \Pr_{x \in \mathcal{S}}(x_i = \xi).$$

- ▶ If for some  $x_i$  and  $\xi$ ,  $\beta_i(\xi) \approx 1$ , then  $x_i$  is a “backbone” variable for the solution space, i.e. most solutions  $x \in \mathcal{S}$  share the feature that  $x_i = \xi$ .

*Survey Propagation*

- ▶ Braunstein, Mézard & Zecchina (2005).
- ▶ Refinement of Belief Propagation to dealing with “clustered” solution spaces.
- ▶ Based on statistical mechanics ideas of the structure of configuration spaces near a “critical point”.
- ▶ Remarkable success in solving very large “hard” randomly generated Satisfiability instances.
- ▶ Success on structured problem instances not so clear.

### Bias-guided search

If the biases  $\beta_i$  could be computed effectively, they could be used e.g. as a heuristic to guide backtrack search:

```

function BPSearch( $F$ : cnf):
  if  $F$  has no free variables then return  $\text{val}(F) \in \{0, 1\}$ 
  else
     $\bar{\beta} \leftarrow \text{BPSurvey}(F)$ ;
    choose variable  $x_i$  for which  $\beta_i(\xi) = \max$ ;
     $\text{val} \leftarrow \text{BPSearch}(F[x_i \leftarrow \xi])$ ;
    if  $\text{val} = 1$  then return 1
    else return  $\text{BPSearch}(F[x_i \leftarrow (1 - \xi)])$ ;
  end if.
  
```

Alternately, the bias values could be used to determine variable flip probabilities in some local search method etc.

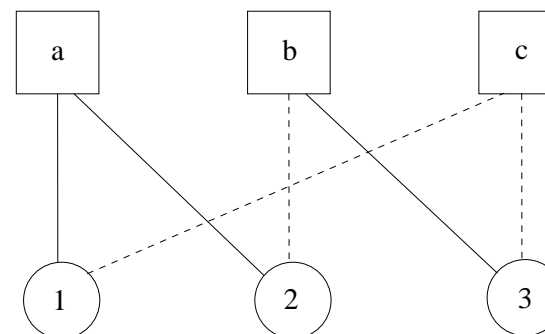
## Message passing on factor graphs

- ▶ The problem of course is that the biases are in general difficult to compute. (It is already NP-complete to determine whether  $\mathcal{S} \neq \emptyset$  in the first place.)
- ▶ Thus, the BP survey algorithm aims at just estimating the biases by iterated local computations (“message passing”) on the **factor graph** structure determined by formula  $F$ .
- ▶ The factor graph of  $F$  is a bipartite graph with nodes  $1, 2, \dots$  corresponding to the variables and nodes  $a, b, \dots$  corresponding to the clauses. An edge connects nodes  $i$  and  $u$  if and only if variable  $x_i$  occurs in clause  $C_u$  (either as a positive or a negative literal).

## A factor graph

Factor graph representation of formula

$$F = (x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee \bar{x}_3):$$



## Belief messages

- ▶ The BP survey algorithm works by iteratively exchanging “belief messages” between interconnected variable and clause nodes.
- ▶ The variable-to-clause messages  $\mu_{i \rightarrow a}(\xi)$  represent the “belief” (approximate probability) that variable  $x_i$  would have value  $\xi$  in a satisfying assignment, *if* it was not influenced by clause  $C_a$ .
- ▶ The clause-to-variable messages  $\mu_{a \rightarrow i}(\xi)$  represent the belief that clause  $C_a$  can be satisfied, *if* variable  $x_i$  is assigned value  $\xi$ .

## Propagation rules

- ▶ Initially, all the variable-to-clause messages are initialised to  $\mu_{i \rightarrow a}(\xi) = 1/2$ .
- ▶ Then beliefs are propagated in the network according to the following update rules, until no more changes occur (a fixpoint of the equations is reached):

$$\mu_{i \rightarrow a}(\xi) = \frac{\prod_{b \in N_i \setminus a} \mu_{b \rightarrow i}(\xi)}{\prod_{b \in N_i \setminus a} \mu_{b \rightarrow i}(\xi) + \prod_{b \in N_i \setminus a} \mu_{b \rightarrow i}(1 - \xi)}$$

$$\mu_{a \rightarrow i}(\xi) = \sum_{x: x_i = \xi} C_a(x) \cdot \prod_{j \in N_a \setminus i} \mu_{j \rightarrow a}(x_j)$$

(Here notation  $N_u \setminus v$  means the neighbourhood of node  $u$ , excluding node  $v$ .)

- ▶ Eventually the variable biases are estimated as  $\beta_i(\xi) \approx \mu_{i \rightarrow a}(\xi)$ .

## Belief propagation: limitations (1/2)

- ▶ The belief update rules entail strong independence assumptions about the variables. E.g. in the update rule for  $\mu_{a \rightarrow i}(\xi)$  it is assumed that the probability  $\Pr_{x \in \mathcal{S}}(x_j = \xi_j, j \in N_a \setminus i)$  factorises as  $\prod_{j \in N_a \setminus i} \mu_{j \rightarrow a}(x_j)$ . Thus the estimated variable biases may not be the correct ones.
- ▶ Furthermore, the message propagation may never converge to stable message values. However it is known that if the factor graph is a tree (contains no loops), then a stable state is reached in a single two-way pass from leaf variable nodes to a chosen root node and back.

## Belief propagation: limitations (2/2)

- ▶ Even if the correct bias values  $\beta_i(\xi) = \Pr_{x \in \mathcal{S}}(x_i = \xi)$  were known, these may be noninformative in the case when the solution space is “clustered”.
- ▶ For instance, assume there are  $cn$ ,  $c > 0$ , “backbone” variables whose different assignments lead to different types of solution families. Then it may be the case that all  $\beta_i \approx 1/2$  also for these variables, even though for any solution cluster they are in fact highly constrained.
- ▶ The more advanced Survey Propagation algorithm aims to address this problem.