

Some Heuristic Analysis of Average Behavior of Local Search Algorithms

Osamu Watanabe

Dept. of Math. & Comp. Sci., Tokyo Institute of Technology http://www.is.titech.ac.jp/~watanabe/smapip/

Abstract

We propose some *Heuristic Approach* for analyzing average performance of local search algorithms. As an example, we consider some satisfiability problems and investigate local search algorithms for them.

Sorry! -

- No theorem \longrightarrow Some proposal Small observations
- No animation
- No color

1. Motivation: Experiments \implies ? \implies Rigorous Analyses

Facts

- Some problems, though they are believed hard in the worst case, are solvable "efficiently" on average by relatively simple algorithms.
- Most of the positive results are given by computer experiments.

Why Analysis? Computer experiments are not enough !?

- More efficient than running the algorithm for many times.
- For better understanding of the feature/principle of the algorithm, which may leads us to improvements/applications to other problems.

But rigorous analysis is difficult!!

What shall we do!?



Remarks.

- There are some strong mathematical techniques developed in different fields of mathematical sciences, e.g., *statistical physics*, which have been also applied for analyzing average case performance of such algorithms.
 - \Rightarrow But these approaches are not perfect:
 - e.g., analysis for $n \to \infty$ or $t \to \infty$ may not be sufficient.
- Some rigorous analyses have been reported also in computer science.
- $\Rightarrow~$ But there are still some limitations:

e.g., applicable to a certain class of algorithms.

2. Our Approach for Analyzing Local Search Algorithms

Motivation:

- Many contraint satisfaction problems can be solved to some extent by local search algorithms on average.
- Local search algorithm is not unique! There are many variations.

Our Approach [Watanabe-etal, SAGA'03]:

- **0.** Modify an algorithm to a randomized one.
- 1. Define a relatively simple Markov process that simulates (reasonably well) the execution of the algorithm.
- 2. Approximate *average states* of this process by a relatively simple formula.

Remarks.

- **0.** \leftarrow This may lose some efficiency, but it reduces dependency to paricular inputs.
- **1.** \Leftarrow This may be hard to justify.
- **2.** \leftarrow We have some justification for this approximation.

3. First Example

Problem: $3 \oplus SAT$ (Parity SAT)

Closest Solution Search for $3-\oplus$ -SAT

Input: (1) 3- \oplus -SAT formula F over variables $x_1, ..., x_n$. (2) Assignment a.

Output: A sat. assignment that is closest to a.

3- \oplus -SAT formula = a conjunction of *parity clauses* $F = (\neg x_3 + x_7 + x_2) \land (x_1 + \neg x_{12} + \neg x_{61}) \land \cdots$

Average Case Senario: Random Positive (3, 6)- \oplus -SAT Formulas

- (1) Every variable appears 6 times in F; hence, # of clauses = 2n.
- (2) Sings are chosen uniformly at randomly so that **0** becomes a solution.
- (3) An initial assignment a is chosen uniformly at random from those with Hamming distance pn from **0**; that is, a has pn 1's.

Remarks.

- Essentially the same as the Decoding Problem for Linear Codes.
- A solution search for \oplus -SAT is poly. time computable.

 $x_3 + x_7 + x_2 = 1$, $x_1 + x_{12} + x_{61} = 0$, ...

• The closest solution search is NP-hard.

... But a is regarded as a *hint* !?

Algorithm: Local Search Algorithm; Greedy (or Steepest Decending Method?)

Local Search Algorithm for (3, 6)- \oplus -SAT

program GreedyPSAT(F, a); $\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_n \leftarrow a$; **repeat** the following MAXT steps $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{if} \ F \ \mathbf{is} \ \mathbf{satisfied} \ \mathbf{with} \ \mathbf{\vec{x}} \ \mathbf{then} \ \mathbf{output} \ \mathbf{the} \ \mathbf{current} \ \mathbf{assignment} \ \mathbf{and} \ \mathbf{halt};$ flip the value of \mathbf{x}_i with the highest^(*) penalty; **program end.**

(*) If there are several, choose one in some determinisitic way.

penalty of $\mathbf{x}_i = \#$ of unsatisfied clauses containing \mathbf{x}_i .

Remarks.

- Each x_j appears 6 times. Thus, $0 \leq$ Penalty of $x_j \leq 6$.
- Fix MAXT = 2pn, where $Ham(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{0}) = pn$. Use n = 6000.



Fig 1. The success prob. vs. pRecall p is the parameter for the init. Ham. distance Ham(a, 0) = pn.

By using larger bounds, the success threshold gets increased; but not so much, and seems to have some limit.



Fig 2. The success prob. vs. pMAXT = $2pn(\approx 3600)$, 10000, and 20000



For Understanding the Success Threshold

How does the Ham. distance change on average?



Fig 4. Ham. distance vs. step t for some execution, p = 0.30 and p = 0.32

Technical Goal: State the following function (or its approximation) in a simple form.

 $err_p(t)$ = the average Ham. distance from the solution after the tth step.

Our Approach

Step 0. Modify the algorithm to a randomized one.

```
program GreedyPSAT(F, a);

x_1, ..., x_n \leftarrow a;

repeat the following MAXT steps

\begin{bmatrix} if F \text{ is satisfied with } \vec{x} \text{ then } \text{output the current assignment and halt;} \\ \text{ flip the value of } x_i \text{ with the highest}^{(*)} \text{ penalty;} \\ \text{program end.} \\ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \hline \\ program SoftGreedyPSAT(F, a); \\ x_1, ..., x_n \leftarrow a; \\ repeat \text{ the following MAXT steps} \\ \begin{bmatrix} if F \text{ is satisfied with } \vec{x} \text{ then } \text{ output the current assignment and halt;} \\ \text{ choose } x_i \text{ randomly according to their weights}^{(*)}; \\ \text{ flip the value of } x_i; \\ \end{bmatrix}
```

program end.

How to Choose \mathbf{x}_j ?

$$\Pr[\mathbf{x}_j \text{ is chosen}] = \frac{W(\text{penalty of } \mathbf{x}_j)}{\text{total weithts}},$$

where W is set, e.g., as follows for n = 6000,

$$W(0) = 0, W(1) = 1, W(2) = 100, W(3) = 10000,$$

 $W(4) = 100000, W(5) = 500000, W(6) = 2500000.$

Our Approach, Cont.

Step 1. Define a simple Markov process simulating the algorithm.

Remark.

The execution of the algorithm is indeed a Markov chain with the following state space:

$$\{(y_1, ..., y_n) : y_j \in \{0, 1\}\} \leftarrow \text{the set of} \\ \text{assignments to variables } \mathbf{x}_j$$

But this is too big!

*** first idea ***

Use a tuple $(n_{+,0}, ..., n_{+,6}, n_{-,0}, ..., n_{+,6})$ of numbers such that

 $n_{+,k} = \#$ of correctly assigned variables with penalty k.

Regard the execution of the algorithm as the change of this state by the following transition rule:

1. Choose $sg \in \{+, -\}$ and $k, 1 \le k \le 6$, with prob. P(sg, k), where

$$P(sg,k) = \frac{W(k) \cdot n_{sg,k}}{\sum_{\ell=1}^{6} W(k) \cdot (n_{+,k} + n_{-,k})} \left(= \frac{W(k) \cdot n_{sg,k}}{\text{total weights}} \right).$$

2. Update the current state by

$$n_{sg,k} \rightarrow n_{sg,k} - 1$$

 $n_{sg,6-k} \rightarrow n_{-sg,6-k} + 1$

3. Further update the state for reflecting the staus change of *related* variables.

Remarks. $\boldsymbol{n}_t = (n_{+,0}^{(t)}, ..., n_{+,6}^{(t)}, n_{-,0}^{(t)}, ..., n_{-,6}^{(t)})$ • The total number is $\sum_{\ell=0}^6 n_{+,\ell}^{(t)} + n_{-,\ell}^{(t)} = n \ (= 6000).$

- The Ham. distance is $err_p(t) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{6} n_{-,\ell}^{(t)}$.
- An initial state $\mathbf{n}_0 = (n_{+,0}^{(0)}, ...)$ can be estimated by p. But here we will use the values for some randomly generated instance.

Unfortunately, this state space is too simple.

- 1. Choose $sg \in \{+, -\}$ and $k, 1 \le k \le 6$, with prob. P(sg, k).
- 2. Update the current state by changing $n_{sg,k}$ and $n_{sg,6-k}$.

 \Rightarrow 3. Further update the state for reflecting the staus change of *related* variables.

	unsat.		sat.
in the execution:	$(\overrightarrow{x_1} + \neg \overrightarrow{x_7} + \overrightarrow{x_2})$	\longrightarrow	$(\overrightarrow{x_1} + \neg \overrightarrow{x_7} + \overrightarrow{x_2})$
in the simulation:	$(\underbrace{\stackrel{?}{\vdots}}_{\uparrow} + \underbrace{-O}_{\uparrow} + \underbrace{\stackrel{?}{\vdots}}_{\downarrow})$	\longrightarrow	$(\underline{\dot{\cdot}} + \dot{-} O + \dot{\dot{\cdot}} \bar{-})$

We need info. for co-existing variables in each of 6 clauses.

$$n_{\pm,\langle i \rangle} = \begin{array}{l} \# \text{ of variables assigned (in)correctly (+/-)} & (x,+,+) & (x,+,+) \\ \text{that appears in 6 clauses assigned of pattern } i, & (x,+,-) & (x,+,-) \\ \text{where } i = 1 \sim 56 \text{ (effective ones are } \leq 20\text{)}. & \text{assignment pattern} \end{array}$$

Express the state of the execution by using these $112 = 2 \times 56$ numbers.

Then the simulation matches the execution quite well !



Fig 5. Ham. distance vs. step t: simulation and execution, p = 0.30 and p = 0.32

Assume that this simulation is accurate enough.

Then the analysis becomes feasible.

Our Approach, Cont.

Step 2. Approximate this random process by a simple recurrence formula.

Then by analyzing $approx-err_p(t)$, we can observe that a gap exists when the execution reaches to a stage where no variable with penalty ≥ 4 exist.

Remarks.

• By make a flip on a penalty k variable, the total penalty gets decreased by k-3.



Fig 6. (average) derivative at the beginning of stage 3

Is it Enough?

 $\mathrm{E}[\boldsymbol{n}_t] \approx f^t(\boldsymbol{n}_0).$

The function f is "relatively" simple. But...

Currently, f is expressed as a program with several hundred lines!

f is a formula on 40 variables :-(

/***************/ /* Caliculation */ /************/ printf ("sum check %f\s", check); printf ("errauminc = %f, erraumdec = %f, erraumdiff = %f\s" errauminc, erraumdec, errauminc - erraumdec); /------/ /* isliaise ver * / fer(er * 0; er <* 1; er <>) fer(er * 0; er <* 1; er <>) /* isliaise ver * / /* i erramics, erramade, erramics = erramade;; / c charges at related variables =/ chard = 0.0; for(for =0; for <-1; for <-1); for(for =0; per = -1; for <-1); for(for =0; per = -1; for <-1); for(for =0; per = -1; for <-1; if(per =- per); for(for <-1; -1; erraming); apha = vers(for); for(for <-1; -1; erraming); for(for <-1; erraming); for(f alpla = vel(fer)fel / rum(fpel); / for (ap - 0; k, pq < fol; k, pv + 1 (for (ap - 0; k, pq < fol; k, pv + 1 (for (ap - 0; k, pq < fol; k, pv + 1) (for (ap - 1) (for (ap - 1))(for (ap - 1 /* output */
print('vram = ');
for(pen = 0; pen <= Jan; pen+*) printf('%d ', vram0[pen]);
print('%d', vram0[pen]);</pre> /* get the largest penalty */
for(fpen = Jax; fpen > 0; fpen--)
if(vaum0[fpen] > 0) break;
printf("fpen = Xd\n", fpen); print("fps=" tots", fps=s; / custors by fupping +/ currents to framework = 0.0; fst(fs= 0; fsr <= 1; fsr); fst(fs= 0; fsr <= 1; fsr); fst(fs= 0; fsr <= 1; fsr); fst(fs= 0; fsr = fsr; fst(fst= 0; fst(fst) 0; , } }

4. Second Example

```
Problem: 3-SAT (CNF SAT)
```

3-CNF formula F over variables $x_1, ..., x_n$. Input: Output: A sat. assignment.

Average Case Senario: Random Positive (3, d)-SAT Formulas

- (1) Every variable appears d times in F; hence, # of clauses = dn/3.
- (2) Sings are chosen uniformly at randomly so that **0** becomes a solution.

Algorithm: Local Search Algorithm; Random Walk (often called WALKSAT)

```
Local Search Algorithm for (3, d)-SAT
```

```
program RandomWalkSAT(F);
```

 $\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_n \leftarrow$ randomly chosen \boldsymbol{a} in $\{0, 1\}^n$;

repeat the following MAXT steps

if F is satisfied with $\vec{\mathbf{x}}$ then output the current assignment and halt;

choose one unsat. clause and select one of the three variables in it;

make a flip on the selected variable;

program end.

Cf.

```
program GreedySAT(F);
```

 $\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_n \leftarrow \text{randomly chosen } \boldsymbol{a} \text{ in } \{0, 1\}^n;$

repeat the following MAXT steps

if F is satisfied with $\vec{\mathbf{x}}$ then output the current assignment and halt;

choose one variable with the highest penalty;

make a flip on the selected variable;

program end.

Easy Answer:

Because it does not work. Usually trapped by a local minimum.

No Problem !!

```
 \begin{array}{l} \textbf{program SoftGreedySAT}(F); \\ \textbf{x}_1, \, ..., \, \textbf{x}_n \leftarrow \text{random } \textbf{a}; \\ \textbf{repeat the following MAXT steps} \\ \left[ \begin{array}{c} \textbf{if } F \text{ is satisfied with } \vec{\textbf{x}} \textbf{ then } \text{output the current assignment and halt;} \\ \text{choose } \textbf{x}_i \text{ randomly according to their weights;} \\ \text{flip the value of } \textbf{x}_i; \\ \textbf{program end.} \end{array} \right.
```

In fact, e.g., for (3, 6)-SAT and n = 6000,

RandomWalkSAT $\leftrightarrow W[0] = 0, W[1] = 1, ..., W[6] = 6.$ SoftGreedySAT $\leftrightarrow W[0] = 0, W[1] = 1, W[2] = 20, ..., W[6] = 20^5.$

Second Answer:

Not so much difference.



Fig 7. $n_0 = \#$ of penalty 0 var.s SoftGreedy vs. RandomWalk

Remark.

Penalty 0 variables are those appearing only in sat. clauses.

For Understanding the Behavior

 \implies Simulation by a Simple Markov Process

A similar but slightly different set of parameters is used.



What does make this difference ?

Maybe the correlation between flipped variables.

 \Downarrow then What if a flip is restricted only once ?



Simulation, SoftGreedy (flip once), SoftGreedy, and RandomWalk

Remarks.

- Usually a solution cannot be obtaind under the flip-once restriction. But an assignment, after running out all unflipped variables (with penalty > 0), gets close enough to some solution.
- We cannot always hope this nice property. This algorithmic trick works for $d \leq 8$.



5. Concluding Remarks

- **1.** An Heuristic Analysis (Real exec. \rightarrow Simple process)
 - \Rightarrow Some reasoning for the success threshold
 - \Rightarrow An improvement of the algorithm

2. Some Observations (On Local Search Algorithms)

- (1) Greedy is fast, but it needs to get a solution (or something very close to it) before running out high penalty variables.
- (2) There seems some other reasoning for RandomWalk.