# Annealing by Increasing Resampling in the Unified View of Simulated Annealing

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Abstract: Annealing by Increasing Resampling (AIR) is a stochastic hill-climbing optimization by resampling with increasing size for evaluating an objective function. In this paper, we introduce a unified view of the conventional Simulated Annealing (SA) and AIR. In this view, we generalize both SA and AIR to a stochastic hill-climbing for objective functions with stochastic fluctuations, i.e., logit and probit, respectively. Since the logit function is approximated by the probit function, we show that AIR is regarded as an approximation of SA. The experimental results on sparse pivot selection and annealing-based clustering also support that AIR is an approximation of SA. Moreover, when an objective function requires a large number of samples, AIR is much faster than SA without sacrificing the quality of the results.

# **1 INTRODUCTION**

The similarity search is an important task for information retrieval in high-dimensional data space. Dimensionality reduction such as SIMPLE-MAP (Shinohara and Ishizaka, 2002) and Sketch (Dong et al., 2008) is known to be one of the effective approaches for efficient indexing and fast searching. In dimensionality reduction, we have to select a small number of axes with low distortion from the original space. This optimal selection gives rise to a hard combinatorial optimization problem.

Simulated annealing (SA) (Kirkpatrick and Gelatt Jr., 1983) is known to be one of the most successful methods for solving combinatorial optimization problems. It is a metaheuristic search method to find an approximation optimal value of an objective function. Initially, SA starts with high temperature, and moves in the wide range of search space by random walk. Then, by cooling the temperature slowly, it narrows the range of search space so that finally it achieves the global optimum.

On the other hand, we present a method called an *annealing by increasing resampling (AIR)*, which is introduced originally for the sparse pivot selection for SIMPLE-MAP as a hill-climbing algorithm by resampling with increasing the sample size and by evaluating pivots in every resampling (Imamura et al., 2017). AIR is suitable to optimization problems that sam-

pling is used due to the computational costs, and the value of the objective function is given by the average of evaluations for each sample. For example, in the pivot selection problem (Bustos et al., 2001), the objective function is given by the average of the pairwise distances in the pivot space for each set of samples, and pivots are selected such that they maximize the average.

In the processes near the initial stage of the AIR, the sample size is small and then the local optimal is not stable and moving drastically because the AIR replaces the previous sample with an independent sample by resampling. On the other hand, in the processes near the ending stage of the AIR, the sample size is increasing and then the local optimal is stable. This process of AIR is similar to conventional hill-climbing algorithms. The larger the sample size grows, the smaller the error in the evaluation becomes. At the final stage, AIR works like a local search as SA. In other words, AIR realizes behavior like SA. In addition, AIR is superior to SA on its computational costs especially when the sample size for evaluating objective functions are very large, because AIR uses small set of samples near the initial stage for which the evaluation can be done in very short time.

In the previous work (Imamura et al., 2017), we introduce AIR for a specific problem, pivot selection. In this paper, we show that AIR is applicable as a more general optimization method through the unified

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view of SA and AIR. In the view, both methods are formed as a hill-climbing algorithm using a objective function with stochastic fluctuation. The fluctuation of the evaluation in SA using acceptance rate by Hastings (Hastings, 1970) can be explained by logit, and that of AIR can be explained with probit. Since logit can be approximated by probit, AIR can be viewed as an approximation of SA.

The experimental results show that the global optimum in SA requires a large amount of computation while cooling the temperature. On the other hand, for AIR, increasing the size of sample for evaluating an objective function corresponds to cooling the temperature in SA. Hence, AIR can efficiently search the global optimum with realizing the large number of iterations by increasing resampling instead of cooling the temperature in SA without sacrificing the quality of the solution.

Furthermore, we give comparative experiments by applying SA and AIR to two optimization problems, the sparse pivot selection for dimensionality reduction using SIMPLE-MAP (Shinohara and Ishizaka, 2002) and the annealing-based clustering problem (Merendino and Celebi, 2013). The results show that AIR is an approximation of SA, and AIR is much faster than SA when the sample size for evaluation is very large.

## 2 UNIFIED VIEW OF SA AND AIR

In this section, we give a unified view between the simulated annealing (SA) (Kirkpatrick and Gelatt Jr., 1983) and the annealing by increasing resampling (AIR) (Imamura et al., 2017). The notations used are shown in Table 1. Here, we consider the minimizing problem of objective (energy) function  $E: U \times S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where U is the solution space, that is, the set of all possible solutions), and S is the sample dataset. The goal is to find a global minimum solution  $x^*$  such that  $E(x^*, S) \leq E(x, S)$  for all  $x \in U$ . We also use the notation E(x) if the dataset S is used for evaluating objective function, i.e., E(x) = E(x, S).

### 2.1 Simulated Annealing

In SA, we call the procedure to allow for occasional changes that worsen the next state an *acceptance probability (function)* (Anily and Federgruen, 1987) or *acceptance criterion* (Schuur, 1997). For the acceptance probability *P*, Algorithm 1 illustrates the general schema for SA.

There are two acceptance probabilities commonly used in SA. One is a *Metropolis function* 

Notation	Description
$t \in \mathbb{N}$	time steps (0, 1, 2,)
$T_t \geq 0$	temperature at t
	(monotonically decreasing)
S	dataset for evaluating objective func-
	tion E
$s(t) \in \mathbb{N}$	resampling size at $t \leq  S $
	(monotonically increasing)
U	solution space
$x, x' \in U$	elements of solution space U
$N(x) \subseteq U$	neighborhood of $x \in U$
E(x,S')	evaluation value for $x \in U$ and dataset
	$S' \subseteq S$

#### procedure SA

 $\begin{array}{l} // T_t: \text{ the temperature at } t \\ // S: \text{ sample data for evaluation} \\ // \text{ rand}(0,1): \text{ uniform random number} \\ // \quad \text{ in } [0,1) \\ x \leftarrow \text{ initial state;} \\ \textbf{for } t = 1 \textbf{ to} \sim \textbf{do} \\ \\ x' \leftarrow \\ \text{ randomly selected state from } N(x); \\ \Delta E \leftarrow E(x') - E(x); \\ \omega \leftarrow \text{ rand}(0,1); \\ \textbf{ if } \omega \leq P(T_t) \textbf{ then } x \leftarrow x'; \end{array}$ 

Algorithm 1: Simulated annealing.

 $P_M$  (Metropolis et al., 1953), which is a standard and original choice in SA (Kirkpatrick and Gelatt Jr., 1983).

$$P_M(T) = \min\{1, \exp(-\Delta E/T)\}.$$

Another is a *Barker function* (Barker, 1965) (or a *heat bath function* (Anily and Federgruen, 1987))  $P_B$  as a special case of a *Hastings function* (Hastings, 1970), which has been introduced in the context of Boltzmann machine (Aarts and Korst, 1989).

$$P_B(T) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\Delta E/T)}$$

Consider the condition that x' is selected in N(x) after x is selected. For the Metropolis function  $P_M$ , it holds that  $\omega \leq \exp(-\Delta E/T_t)$ , which implies that

$$\Delta E + T_t \cdot \log(\omega) \leq 0.$$

For the Barker function  $P_B$ , it holds that

$$\omega \leq \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\Delta E/T_t)}$$

which implies that  $\exp(\Delta E/T_t) \leq \frac{1-\omega}{\omega}$  and then

$$\Delta E + T_t \cdot \operatorname{logit}(\omega) \le 0, \tag{1}$$

where  $logit(\cdot)$  is the logit function defined as

$$logit(\omega) = -log\left(\frac{1-\omega}{\omega}\right).$$

Now, we are to minimize the value of  $E(\cdot, \cdot)$ . Hence, if  $\Delta E$  is less than zero, we want to transit to a "better" state x'. The left-hand side of the acceptance condition Eq. (1) is considered as  $\Delta E$  with disturbance proportional to temperature  $T_i$ .

In SA, the temperature is gradually cooled down to avoid getting trapped in a local minimum. On the other hand, AIR uses the sample size of data instead of temperature.

### 2.2 Annealing by Increasing Resampling

In AIR, we consider the objective function for sample S' from dataset S, and the problem of minimizing the average of evaluation values for samplings from S. AIR is an optimization method taking advantage of the nature that the smaller the sampling size is, the larger the fluctuation of evaluation is. Algorithm 2 illustrates the procedure of AIR.

**procedure** AIR //  $T_t$ : temperature at t// S: sample data  $x \leftarrow$  initial state; **for** t = 1 **to**  $\infty$  **do**   $x' \leftarrow$ randomly selected state from N(x);  $S' \leftarrow$ randomly selected dataset from Ssuch that  $S' \subseteq S$  and |S'| = s(t); **if**  $E(x', S') - E(x, S') \leq 0$  **then**  $x \leftarrow x'$ ;

Algorithm 2: Annealing by increasing resampling (AIR).

Let N = |S|, and assume that the difference between E(x, S') and E(x', S') follows a normal distribution with standard derivation  $\sigma$ . This assumption is reasonable due to the central limit theory because the objective function is obtained by the average of evaluations for each set of independent samples.

Then, for samples S' of S such that |S'| = n, the difference between E(x,S') and E(x',S') also follows a normal distribution with the standard error. In other words, E(x',S') - E(x,S') is the value of E(x',S) - E(x,S) with fluctuation of standard derivation  $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{N-n}{N-1}}$ , where the term  $\sqrt{\frac{N-n}{N-1}}$  is the finite population correlation factor of  $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ . Hence, for a uniformly random variable  $\omega$  ranging from 0 to 1, it holds

that

$$E(x',S') - E(x,S')$$
(2)  
=  $E(x',S) - E(x,S) + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{N-n}{N-1}} \cdot \text{probit}(\omega),$ 

where  $\text{probit}(\cdot)$  is the inverse of the cumulative distribution function of the standard normal distribution. Note that  $\text{probit}(\omega)$  follows the normal distribution if  $\omega$  follows the uniformly random distribution between 0 and 1.

In AIR, since a subsample S' of S is selected by resampling, the next subsample of S needs to be selected independently from S'. As a similar approach, we incrementally add a small number of samples from S to S' without replacement. This approach allows us a faster computation since we can reuse the previous computation for the current evaluation of sample S'. However, we do not employ this approach in AIR since the stochastic trials on the selection of state x' at each time needs to be made independently. It is necessary to independently select a subsample for each trial, but to improve the efficiency of the process, the current subsample may be reused, but sometimes the subsample must be replaced.

## 2.3 General View of Annealing-based Algorithms

Now we confirm that the acceptance criterion of SA based on Hasting function is

$$\Delta E + T_t \cdot \text{logit}(\omega) \le 0, \tag{3}$$

where  $\Delta E = E(x') - E(x)$ , and note that E(x) = E(x,S) if S is the dataset with maximum size to use. In contrast, the acceptance criterion of AIR is

$$\Delta E + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{N-n}{N-1}} \cdot \operatorname{probit}(\omega) \le 0.$$
 (4)

Both criteria Eq. (3) and Eq. (4) are in the same form. Also, it is known that the normal distribution is approximated by the logistic distribution; i.e.  $logit(\omega) \approx \sigma_0 \cdot probit(\omega)$  when  $\sigma_0 = 1.65$  as shown in Figure 1 (Demidenko, 2013).

Therefore, we can generalize the acceptance criterion of SA and AIR as follows.

$$\Delta E + \alpha(t) \cdot \Phi^{-1}(\omega) \le 0, \tag{5}$$

where  $\alpha(\cdot)$  is a monotonically decreasing function for time step *t* (note that the dataset size *n* is given by the function *s*(*t*) in AIR), and  $\Phi^{-1}(\cdot)$  is the inverse of the cumulative distribution function of a probability distribution. Algorithm 3 shows the unified procedure of SA and AIR.



Figure 1: Logistic distribution and normal distribution.

**procedure** Unified\_Annealing  $x \leftarrow \text{initial state;}$  **for** t = 1 **to**  $\infty$  **do**   $x' \leftarrow$ randomly selected state from N(x);  $\omega \leftarrow \text{rand}(0, 1)$ ; **if**  $E(x') - E(x) + \alpha(t) \cdot \Phi^{-1}(\omega) \le 0$ **then**  $x \leftarrow x'$ ;

Algorithm 3: Unified procedure of SA and AIR.

#### 2.4 Annealing Schedules of SA and AIR

The temperature cooling schedule is an important factor of SA for efficiency and accuracy. We consider the corresponding sample size schedule in AIR to the exponential cooling scheme in SA. Here, we define the schedule as follows.

 $T = T_0 \cdot T_r \qquad (0 < T_r < 1),$ 

where  $T_0$ , T, and  $T_r$  is the initial temperature, the current temperature, and the ratio between T and  $T_0$ , respectively; Note that  $T_r$  monotonically decreases as the value of t increases. Let N,  $n_0$  and n be the maximum sample size, the initial sample size, and the current sample size, respectively. Also, let  $\sigma_0$  be approximately 1.65, and  $\sigma$  the standard deviation per sample.

The acceptance criterion of the next state x' in SA is given by

$$\Delta E + T \cdot \log\left(\frac{\omega}{1-\omega}\right) = \Delta E + T \cdot \operatorname{logit}(\omega) \le 0.$$
 (6)

On the other hand, the acceptance criterion in AIR is given by

$$\Delta E + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{N-n}{N-1}} \cdot \operatorname{probit}(\omega) \le 0.$$
 (7)

Since  $logit(\omega) \approx \sigma_0 \cdot probit(\omega)$  (Demidenko, 2013), in order to equate formulae Eq. (6) and Eq.(7), it is sufficient to satisfy the following condition.

$$T \cdot \sigma_0 = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{N-n}{N-1}}.$$

It follows that

$$n = \frac{N}{(N-1) \cdot T_0^2 \cdot T_r^2 \cdot \frac{\sigma_0^2}{\sigma^2} + 1}.$$

By noting that  $T_r = 1$  and  $n = n_0$  when  $T = T_0$ , it holds that

$$T_0^2 \cdot \frac{\sigma_0^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{N - n_0}{(N - 1)n_0}$$

Hence, we have

5

$$F(t) = n = \frac{N}{\frac{N-n_0}{n_0} \cdot T_r^2 + 1}.$$
 (8)

The sample size *n* at time step *t* is given by the function of *t*. Note that  $s(0) = n_0$ . This formula bridges the relationship between the temperature cooling scheduling  $T = T_0 \cdot T_r$  in SA and the sample size scheduling in AIR. By using the same ratio  $T_r$  between SA and AIR, we can consider that two approaches are fairly compared in the experiments.

# **3 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS**

### 3.1 AIR Approximated by SA

In this experiment, we consider how much AIR is approximate to SA by using MCMC (Markov chain Monte Calro method for Metropolis-Hastings algorithm), which is the basis of SA. We use MCMC instead of optimization for evaluating the accuracy because it is necessary to evaluate the accuracy of distribution estimation of the objective function regardless of scheduling.

We employ the correlation coefficient  $\rho$  as the approximation accuracy between the estimated distribution and the actual distribution with sampling points, and the approximation error as  $1 - \rho$ . A simple one-dimensional function shown below is used as the objective function (this function itself is not essential).

$$y = \frac{0.3e^{-(x-1)^2} + 0.7e^{-(x+2)^2}}{\sqrt{\pi}}$$

This objective function is the mixture of two normal distributions with two maxima. Experiments are conducted in the following six acceptance criteria:

1. Metropolis Acceptance Criterion:

 $\omega \leq \min\{1, \exp(-\Delta E/T_t)\}.$ 

2. Hastings Acceptance Criterion:

$$\omega \leq \min\{1, \exp(-\Delta E/T_t)\}.$$

3. 
$$\Phi^{-1}(\omega) = \log(\omega)$$
:  
 $\Delta E + T_t \cdot \log(\omega) \le 0$ .  
4.  $\Phi^{-1}(\omega) = \operatorname{logit}(\omega)$ :

$$\Delta E + T_t \cdot \operatorname{logit}(\omega) \le 0.$$

5.  $\Phi^{-1}(\omega) = 1.60 \cdot \text{probit}(\omega)$ :

$$\Delta E + T_t \cdot 1.60 \cdot \text{probit}(\omega) \leq 0.$$

6.  $\Phi^{-1}(\omega) = 1.65 \cdot \text{probit}(\omega)$ :

 $\Delta E + T_t \cdot 1.65 \cdot \text{probit}(\omega) \leq 0.$ 

As shown in Section 2.1, the criterion (1) is equivalent to the criterion (3), and the criterion (2) is to the criterion (4) theoretically. The criteria (5) and (6) correspond to the acceptance criteria in AIR which approximate Hastings acceptance criterion by setting  $\sigma = 1.60$  and  $\sigma = 1.65$ , respectively as stated in the condition of Eq. (4).



Figure 2: Estimation errors in MCMC with six acceptance criteria.

In the experimental setting, we discard the initial  $10^5$  transitions as the burn-in phase. Then, we evaluate the estimation errors with 1000 discrete points of correlation coefficients. Each estimation is carried out ten times, and the average is taken as the estimation. Figure 2 shows the estimation errors for each criteria obtained by the experiment.

Due to the theoretical correspondences, the estimation error of (1) Metropolis and (3)  $\log(\omega)$ , and that of (2) Heistings and (4)  $\log(\omega)$  are almost identical, respectively. As for the criteria (5)  $1.60 \cdot$ probit( $\omega$ ) and (6)  $1.65 \cdot$  probit( $\omega$ ), up to the number of transitions of  $10^6$ , it is observed that both are good approximations of SA with Hastings acceptance criterion. Although, beyond  $10^7$  transitions, a significant difference appears as shown in Figure 2, it is not a concern since the number of transitions at each temperature is less than  $10^7$  in real computations of AIR. Also, it is not necessary to care about the optimal value of  $\sigma_0$  because the temperature *T* absorbs the effect of  $\sigma$ , and the optimal value of  $\sigma_0$  is implicitly computed in practice.

### 3.2 Sparse Pivot Selection

We apply AIR to the sparse pivot selection for dimensionality reduction using SIMPLE-MAP (Shinohara and Ishizaka, 2002). We use real image data for the pivot selection. In the dimension reduction, we project data points in a high-dimensional space into a lower dimensional space. The number of pivots in SIMPLE-MAP corresponds to the dimensionality of the projected space. It is required to select a small number of pivots so that all pairwise distances between data points are preserved as much as possible after projection. We call this problem sparse pivot selection. The number of data in images is 6.8 million extracted from 1,700 videos and dimensionality n of data in images is 64. In this experiment, we reduce the number of dimensions to eight using SIMPLE-MAP. We use the average value (Ave.) and the standard deviation (S.D.) for distance preservation ratio (DPR) to evaluate pivot sets using randomly selected 5,000 pairs of features. AIR finds the set of pivots with maximum distance preservation ratio. We set the compatible annealing schedule between SA and AIR according to Eq. (8). The experimental platform is a 64-bit mac OS X machine with 2.53GHz Intel®Core<sup>TM</sup> i5 and 8GB RAM.

Table 2: Comparison SA with AIR in pivot selection.

			DPR	.(%)
	#transitions	Time (sec)	Ave.	S.D.
SA	$11 \times 10^3$	149.7	57.06%	0.2763
	$40 \times 10^3$	511.1	57.36%	0.2379
	$400 \times 10^3$	4864.0	57.52%	0.1485
AIR	$11 \times 10^3$	28.80	57.10%	0.2260
	$40 \times 10^{3}$	70.49	57.36%	0.1333
	$400 \times 10^3$	592.5	57.57%	0.1547

Table 2 shows the results for each number of transitions. The best value for each performence measure is highlighted in bold face. Note that a larger the average value for DPR implies, a better result. This experiment shows that AIR achieves almost the same accuracy with much faster speeds (from 5.2 to 8.2 times faster) than SA.

### 3.3 Annealing-based Clustering

In this experiment, we focus on a clustering method using SA. The typical objective function to minimize is the sum of squared errors (SSE) between each point and the closest cluster center.

Merendino and Celebi proposed an SA clustering algorithm based on center perturbation using Gaussian mutation (SAGM, for short) (Merendino and Celebi, 2013). SAGM employs two cooling schedules, the multi Markov chain (MMC) approach, and the single Markov chain (SMC) approach. We denote SAGM with MMC schedule by SAGM(MMC), and SAGM with SMC schedule by SAGM(SMC). They reported that SAGM(SMC) generally converges significantly faster than the other SA algorithms without losing the quality of solutions as comparison with the others through the experiments using ten datasets from the UCI Machine Learning Repository (Dheeru and Karra Taniskidou, 2017). Table 3 shows the description of the datasets used in the experiments.

Table 3: Datasets (N: #points, d: #attributes, k: #classes).

ID	Data Set	Ν	d	k	•
1	Ecoli	336	7	8	
2	Glass	214	9	6	
3	Ionosphere	351	34	2	
4	Iris Bezdek	150	4	3	
5	Landsat	6435	36	6	
6	Letter Recognition	20000	16	26	
7	Image Segmentation	2310	19	7	
8	Vehicle Silhouettes	846	18	4	
9	Wine Quality	178	13	7	
10	Yeast	1484	8	10	
-					•

We implement both SAGM(MMC) and SAGM(SMC) in C++, and AIR with the corresponding schedulings MMC and SMC according to Eq. (8), denoted by AIR(MMC) and AIR(SMC), respectively. Then, we compare the quality of solutions and the running time for the datasets. The experiments are conducted with an Intel®Core<sup>TM</sup> i7-7820X CPU 3.60Hz, and 64G RAM, running Ubuntu (Windows Subsystem for Linux) on Windows 10. The quality of the solutions is evaluated by SSE. Then, a smaller SSE implies a better result.

Table 4 shows the quality of solutions (SSE) with the standard deviations in parenthesis by comparing SAGM(MMC) with AIR(MMC) in the upper table, and by comparing SAGM(SMC) with AIR(SMC) in the lower table. It is confirmed that there is no significant differences between SAGM and AIR in the quality of solutions.

Table 5 shows the running time for both SAGM

Data ID SAGM(MMC) AIR(MMC) 1 17.55 (0.23) 17.53 (0.20) 2 18.91 (0.69) 19.05 (0.45) 3 630.9 (19.76) 638.8 (43.42) 4 6.988 (0.03) 6.986 (0.02) 5 1742 (0.01) 1742 (0.01) 6 2732 (14.17) 2720 (4.20) 7 411.9 (18.11) 395.2 (10.68) 8 225.7 (4.54) 224.6 (3.82) 9 37.83 (0.23) 37.81 (0.23) 10 58.90 (1.65) 59.08 (0.74) Data ID SAGM(SMC) AIR(SMC) 1 17.60 (0.29) 17.56 (0.24) 2 18.98 (0.73) 19.08 (0.46) 3 630.9 (19.76) 646.8 (57.14) 4 6.988 (0.03) 6.991 (0.03) 5 1742 (0.01) 1742 (0.01) 6 2738 (17.11) 2722 (5.10) 7 413.8 (19.88) 396.2 (11.26) 8 225.8 (4.65) 224.6 (3.83) 9 37.85 (0.27) 37.82 (0.24) 10 59.36 (1.61) 59.04 (0.67)

and AIR. AIR is significantly faster than SAGM for all datasets except for the 9th dataset in both scheduling MMC and SMC. For the 9th dataset, SAGM slightly outperforms AIR because the size of the dataset is very small (n = 178).

To observe the effect of the data size N on the running time, Figure 3 show the running time ratios of SAGM to AIR for each scheduling of MMC and SMC. As can be seen from the figure, the larger the data size is, basically the faster AIR is, and the sampling effect of AIR appears.



Figure 3: Runnning time ratios of SAGM to AIR.

Table 4: Quality of solutions (Sum of squared errors).

AIR(MMC)	SAGM(MMC)	Data ID
1.376	1.727	1
0.629	0.719	2
0.857	1.549	3
0.110	0.139	4
1.051	17.40	5
13.72	167.4	6
0.606	3.285	7
0.367	1.298	8
0.814	0.786	9
0.971	2.854	10
AIR(SMC)	SAGM(SMC)	Data ID
AIR(SMC) 0.182	SAGM(SMC) 0.282	Data ID 1
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
0.182	0.282	1
0.182 0.091	0.282 0.125	1 2 3 4
0.182 0.091 0.095	0.282 0.125 0.281	1 2 3
0.182 0.091 0.095 0.015	0.282 0.125 0.281 0.022	1 2 3 4
0.182 0.091 0.095 0.015 0.125	0.282 0.125 0.281 0.022 3.216	1 2 3 4 5
0.182 0.091 0.095 0.015 0.125 1.803	0.282 0.125 0.281 0.022 3.216 28.82	1 2 3 4 5 6
0.182 0.091 0.095 0.015 0.125 1.803 0.056	0.282 0.125 0.281 0.022 3.216 28.82 0.523	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
0.182 0.091 0.095 0.015 0.125 1.803 0.056 0.035	0.282 0.125 0.281 0.022 3.216 28.82 0.523 0.219	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Table 5: Average running time (sec.).

## 4 CONCLUSIONS

A sampling-based meta heuristics method, Annealing by Increasing Resampling (AIR), is a stochastic hillclimbing optimization by resampling with increasing size for evaluating an objective function. It uses the resampling size n instead of temperature T in the simulated annealing (SA). We showed a unified view of SA and AIR by the approximation of logit and probit in the hill-climbing algorithm.

We also showed the relationship between sample size n in AIR and temperature T in SA from the theoretical point of view. Since the resampling size n exponentially increases up to the total sample size N when a common resampling size scheduling is employed. Hence, the size n is not affected by N until the final step. This is the reason why AIR is much faster than the conventional SA especially for the large dataset.

We also conducted experiments to support our view, and showed that AIR achieves almost the same quality of solutions with much faster computation than SA by applying AIR to the sparse pivot selection problem and the clustering problem.

The superiority of AIR over SA is that the computational cost for transitions using small sample sets, corresponding to transisions in the high temperature of SA, is small. For actual problems, a stable optimization by SA is necessary to increase the number of transitions at the high temperature. Even in such cases, when using AIR, it is possible to improve the performance of optimization without increasing the cost much. The scheduling that takes advantage of the benefits of AIR is one of the important future works.

Another important future work is the implementation of efficient similarity search in high dimensional spaces using dimensionality reductions and sketches highly optimized by AIR.

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LOGY PUBLICATIONS

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