Hyper-heuristics

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Instructors

Daniel R. Tauritz is an Associate Professor in the Department of Computer Science at the Missouri University of Science and Technology (S&T), a contract scientist for Sandia National Laboratories, a former Guest Scientist at Los Alamos National Laboratory (LANL), the founding director of S&T's Natural Computation Laboratory, and founding academic director of the LANL/S&T Cyber Security Sciences Institute. He received his Ph.D. in 2002 from Leiden University. His research interests include the design of hyperheuristics and self-configuring evolutionary algorithms and the application of computational intelligence techniques in cyber security, critical infrastructure protection, and program understanding.



John R. Woodward is a Lecturer at the <u>University of Stirling</u>, within the <u>CHORDS group</u> and is employed on the <u>DAASE project</u>, and for the previous four years was a lecturer with the <u>University of Nottingham</u>. He holds a BSc in Theoretical Physics, an MSc in Cognitive Science and a PhD in Computer Science, all from the <u>University of Birmingham</u>. His research interests include Automated Software Engineering, particularly Search Based Software Engineering, Artificial Intelligence/Machine Learning and in particular Genetic Programming. He has worked in industrial, military, educational and academic settings, and been employed by EDS, CERN and RAF and three UK Universities.



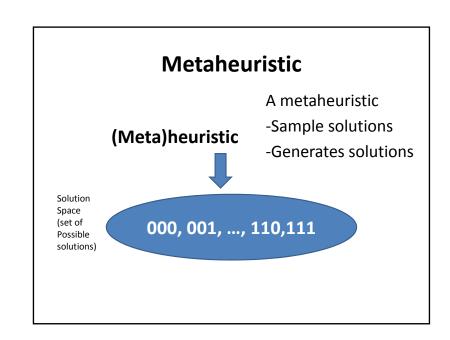
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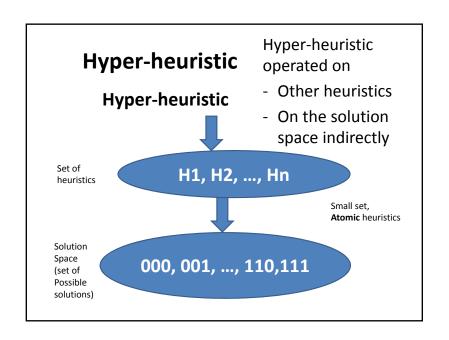
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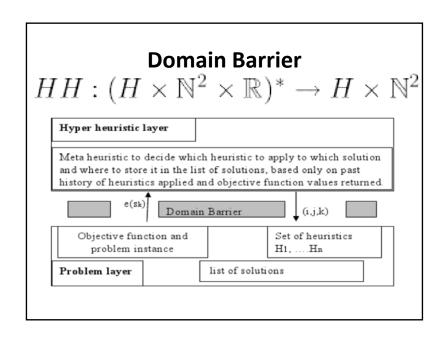
John's perspective of hyperheuristics

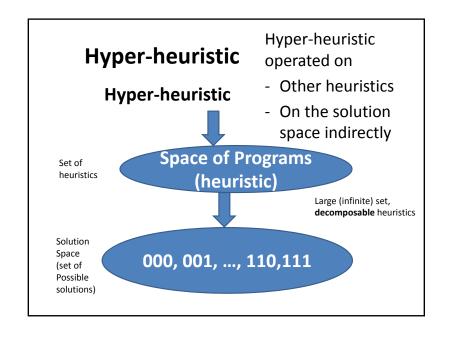
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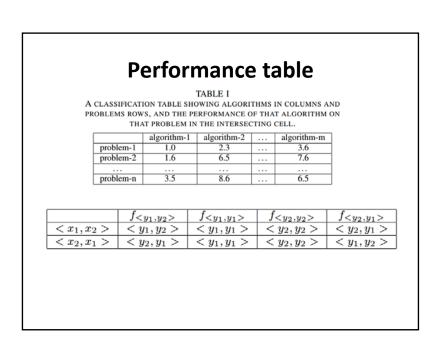
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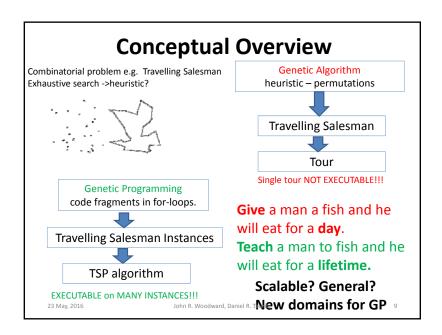


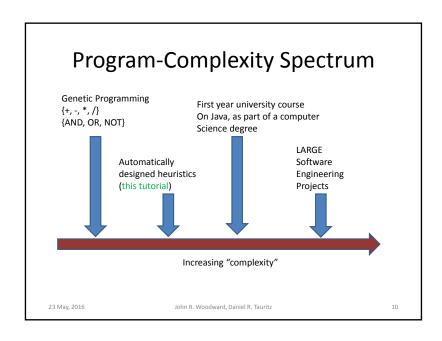


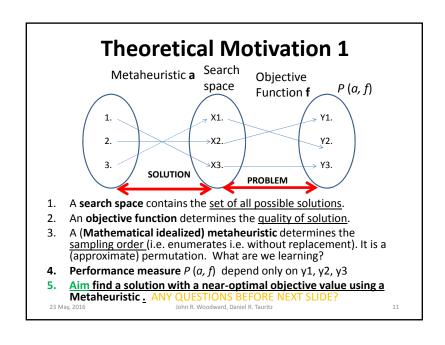


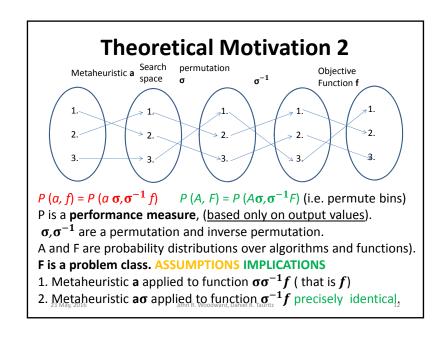












Theoretical Motivation 3 [1,14]

- The base-level learns about the function.
- The meta-level learn about the distribution of functions
- The sets do not need to be finite (with infinite sets, a uniform distribution is not possible)
- The functions do not need to be computable.
- We can make claims about the Kolmogorov Complexity of the functions and search algorithms.
- p(f) (the probability of sampling a function) is all we can learn in a black-box approach.

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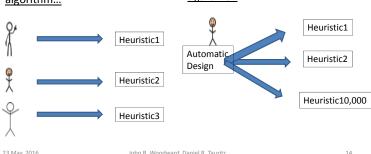
Daniel's perspective of hyperheuristics

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One Man – One/Many Algorithm

- Researchers design heuristics by hand and test them on problem instances or arbitrary benchmarks off internet.
- Presenting results at conferences and publishing in journals. In this talk/paper we propose a new algorithm...
- 1. Challenge is defining an algorithmic framework (set) that includes useful algorithms. Black art
- 2. Let Genetic Programming select the best algorithm for the problem class at hand. Context!!! Let the data speak for itself without imposing our assumptions. In this talk/paper we propose a 10,000 algorithms...



Real-World Challenges

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- Researchers strive to make algorithms increasingly general-purpose
- But practitioners have very specific needs
- Designing custom algorithms tuned to particular problem instance distributions and/or computational architectures can be very time consuming

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Automated Design of Algorithms

- Addresses the need for custom algorithms
- But due to high computational complexity, only feasible for repeated problem solving
- Hyper-heuristics accomplish automated design of algorithms by searching program space

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Hyper-heuristics

- Hyper-heuristics are a special type of meta-heuristic
 - Step 1: Extract algorithmic primitives from existing algorithms
 - Step 2: Search the space of programs defined by the extracted primitives
- While Genetic Programming (GP) is particularly well suited for executing Step 2, other meta-heuristics can be, and have been, employed
- The type of GP employed matters [24]

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Type of GP Matters: Experiment Description

- Implement five types of GP (tree GP, linear GP, canonical Cartesian GP, Stack GP, and Grammatical Evolution) in hyper-heuristics for evolving black-box search algorithms for solving 3-SAT
- Base hyper-heuristic fitness on the fitness of the best search algorithm generated at solving the 3-SAT problem
- Compare relative effectiveness of each GP type as a hyper-heuristic

GP Individual Description

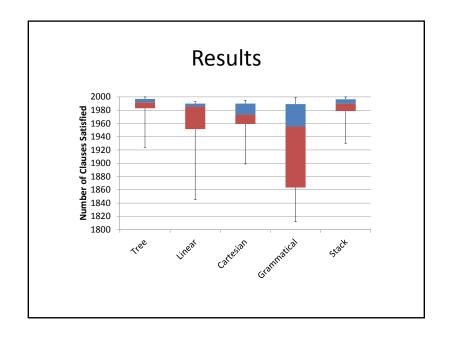
- Search algorithms are represented as an iterative algorithm that passes one or more set of variable assignments to the next iteration
- Genetic program represents a single program iteration
- Algorithm runs starting with a random initial population of solutions for 30 seconds

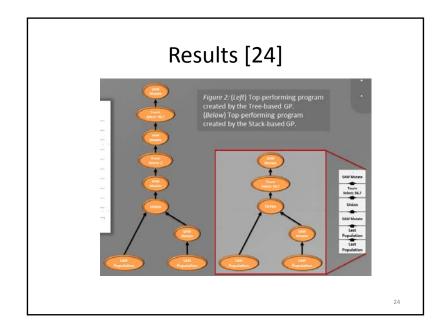
3-SAT Problem

- A subset of the Boolean Satisfiability Problem (SAT)
- The goal is to select values for Boolean variables such that a given Boolean equation evaluates as true (is satisfied)
- Boolean equations are in 3-conjunctive normal form
- Example:
 - (A V B V C) \wedge (\neg A V \neg C V D) \wedge (\neg B V C V \neg D)
 - Satisfied by ¬A, B, C, ¬D
- Fitness is the number of clauses satisfied by the best solution in the final population

Genetic Programming Nodes Used

- Last population, Random population
- Tournament selection, Fitness proportional selection, Truncation selection, Random selection
- Bitwise mutation, Greedy flip, Quick greedy flip, Stepwise adaption of weights, Novelty
- Union





Results

- Generated algorithms mostly performed comparably well on training and test problems
- Tree and stack GP perform similarly well on this problem, as do linear and Cartesian GP
- Tree and stack GP perform significantly better on this problem than linear and Cartesian GP, which perform significantly better than grammatical evolution

Conclusions

- The choice of GP type makes a significant difference in the performance of the hyperheuristic
- The size of the search space appears to be a major factor in the performance of the hyperheuristic

Case Study 1: The Automated Design of Crossover Operators [20]

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Motivation

- Performance Sensitive to Crossover Selection
- Identifying & Configuring Best Traditional Crossover is Time Consuming
- Existing Operators May Be Suboptimal
- Optimal Operator May Change During Evolution

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Some Possible Solutions

- Meta-EA
 - Exceptionally time consuming
- Self-Adaptive Algorithm Selection
 - Limited by algorithms it can choose from

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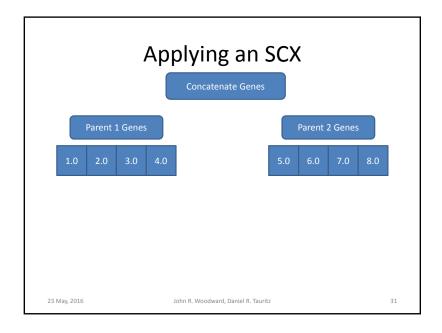
Self-Configuring Crossover (SCX)
 Each Individual Encodes a Crossover Operator
 Crossovers Encoded as a List of Primitives

 Swap
 Merge

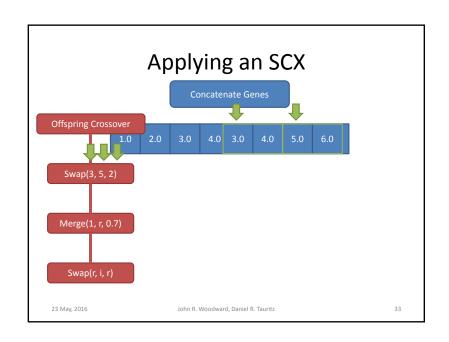
 Each Primitive has three parameters

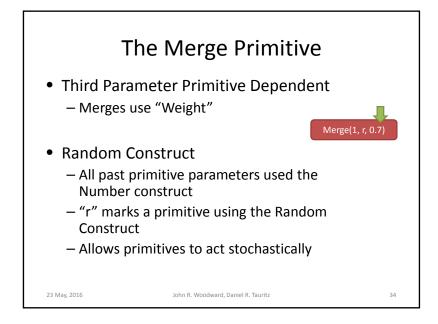
 Number, Random, or Inline

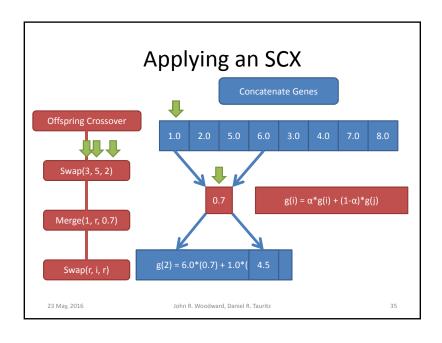
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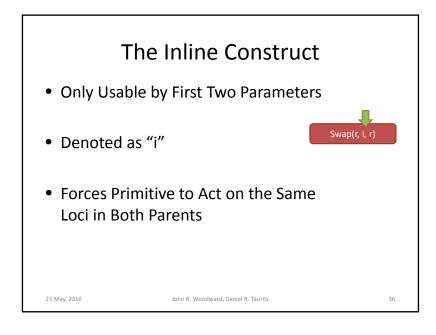


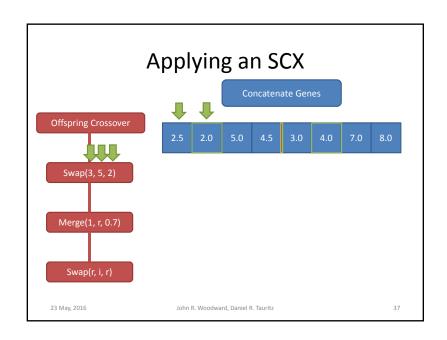
The Swap Primitive Each Primitive has a type Swap represents crossovers that move genetic material First Two Parameters Start 1 Position Start 2 Position Third Parameter Primitive Dependent Swap(3, 5, 2)

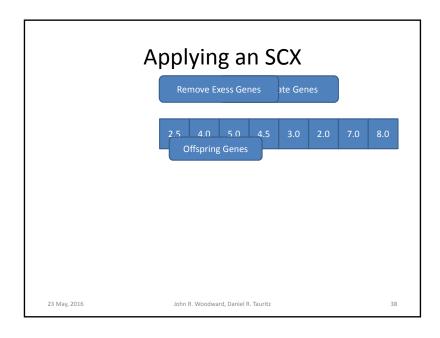


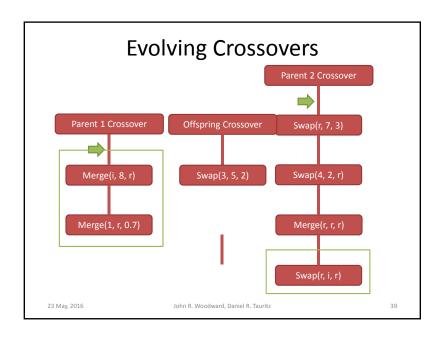












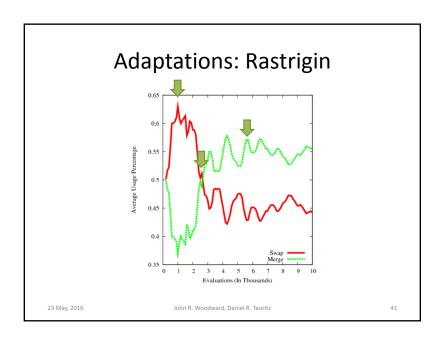
Empirical Quality Assessment

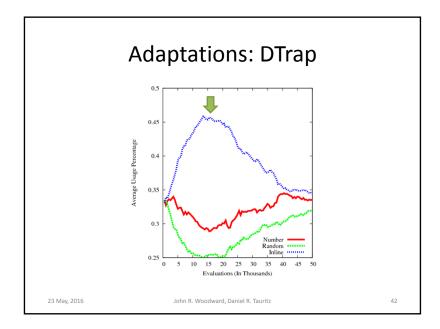
- Compared Against
 - Arithmetic Crossover
 - N-Point Crossover
 - Uniform Crossover
- On Problems
 - Rosenbrock
 - Rastrigin
 - Offset Rastrigin
 - NK-Landscapes
 - DTrap

Problem	Comparison	SCX
Rosenbrock	-86.94 (54.54)	-26.47 (23.33)
Rastrigin	-59.2 (6.998)	-0.0088 (0.021)
Offset Rastrigin	-0.1175 (0.116)	-0.03 (0.028)
NK	0.771 (0.011)	0.8016 (0.013)
DTrap	0.9782 (0.005)	0.9925 (0.021)

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SCX Overhead

- Requires No Additional Evaluation
- Adds No Significant Increase in Run Time
 - All linear operations
- Adds Initial Crossover Length Parameter
 - Testing showed results fairly insensitive to this parameter
 - Even worst settings tested achieved better results than comparison operators

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Conclusions

- Remove Need to Select Crossover Algorithm
- Better Fitness Without Significant Overhead
- Benefits From Dynamically Changing Operator
- Promising Approach for Evolving Crossover Operators for Additional Representations (e.g., Permutations)

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Case Study 2: The Automated Design of Mutation Operators for Evolutionary **Programming**

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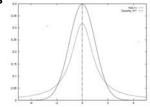
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Designing Mutation Operators for Evolutionary Programming [18]

- 1. Evolutionary programing optimizes functions by evolving a population of real-valued vectors (genotype).
- **2. Variation** has been provided (manually) by **probability distributions** (Gaussian, Cauchy, Levy).
- 3. We are automatically generating probability distributions (using genetic programming).
- Not from scratch, but from already well known distributions (Gaussian, Cauchy, Levy). We are "genetically improving probability distributions".
- 5. We are evolving mutation operators for a problem class (probability distributions over functions).
- 6. ²NØ €ROSSOVER

(1.3,...,4.5,...,8.7)Before mutation

Genotype is



Genotype is (1.2,...,4.4,...,8.6)

After mutation

(Fast) Evolutionary Programming

Heart of algorithm is mutation SO LETS AUTOMATICALLY DESIGN

$$x_i'(j) = x_i(j) + \eta_i(j)D_j$$

- 1. EP mutates with a Gaussian
- 2. FEP mutates with a Cauchy
- 3. A generalization is mutate with a distribution D (generated with genetic programming)

- real-valued vectors, (x_i, η_i) , $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, \mu\}$.
- 2. Evaluate the fitness score for each individual (x_i, η_i) . $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, \mu\}$, of the population based on the objective function, $f(x_i)$.
- 3. Each parent $(x_i, \eta_i), \ i=1,\cdots,\mu,$ creates a single offspring (x_i', η_i') by: for $j = 1, \dots, n$,

 $x_i'(j) = x_i(j) + \eta_i(j)N(0, 1),$ $\eta_i'(j) = \eta_i(j) \exp(\tau' N(0, 1) + \tau N_j(0, 1))$ (2)

where $x_i(j)$, $x_i'(j)$, $\eta_i(j)$ and $\eta_i'(j)$ denote the j-th component of the vectors x_i , x_i' , η_i and η_i' , respec-tively. N(0,1) denotes a normally distributed onedimensional random number with mean zero and standard deviation one. $N_j(0,1)$ indicates that the random number is generated anew for each value $\left(\sqrt{2\sqrt{n}}\right)^{-1}$ and $\left(\sqrt{2n}\right)^{-1}$ [9, 8].

- 4. Calculate the fitness of each offspring $(x_i', \eta_i'), \forall i \in$
- 5. Conduct pairwise comparison over the union of par ents (x_i, η_i) and offspring (x_i', η_i') , $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, \mu\}$. For each individual, q opponents are chosen randomly from all the parents and offspring with an equal probability. For each comparison, if the individual's fitness is no greater than the opponent's, it
- Select the n individuals out of (x, n) and (x,', n'). \cdot , μ }, that have the most wins to be par-

7. Stop if the stopping criterion is satisfied; otherwise John R. Woodward, Daniel R. Tauritz $^k=k+1$ and go to Step 3.

Optimization & Benchmark Functions

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A set of 23 benchmark functions is typically used in the literature. **Minimization** $\forall x \in S : f(x_{min}) \leq f(x)$ We use them as **problem classes**.

Table 1: The 23 test functions used in our experimental studies, where n is the dimension of the function, f_{min} the minimum value of the function, and $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$.

```
Test function
f_1(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2
f_2(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i| + \prod_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|
f_3(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\sum_{j=1}^{i} x_j)^2
                                                                                                                                                                         [-100.100]
                                                                                                                                                                          [-10.10]^{\tilde{n}}
                                                                                                                                                                        [-100, 100]^n
  f_4(x) = \max_i \{|x_i|, 1 \le i \le n\}
                                                                                                                                                                        [-100, 100]^n
f_3(x) = \max_{\{x_i, 1 \le i \le n\}} \{x_i + 1 \le i \le n\}

f_3(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [100(x_i + x_i^2)^2 + (x_i - 1)^2]

f_7(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [x_i^2 + 0.5]

f_7(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [x_i^2 + vandom[0.1)

f_3(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [x_i^2 - v_i]

f_2(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [x_i^2 - 10\cos(2\pi x_i) + 10)
                                                                                                                                                                          [-30.30]^n
                                                                                                                                                                        [-100, 100]^n
                                                                                                                                                    30
                                                                                                                                                                     [-1.28, 1.28]^n
                                                                                                                                                                        [-500, 500]^n
                                                                                                                                                                     [-5.12, 5.12]^n
   f_{1c}(x) = -20 \exp \left(-0.2 \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2}\right) - \exp \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \cos 2\pi x_i\right) - 30
                   +20 + \epsilon
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```

Function Class 1

- 1. Machine learning needs to generalize.
- 2. We generalize to function classes.
- 3. $y = x^2$ (a function)
- 4. $y = ax^2$ (parameterised function)
- 5. $y = ax^2$, $a \sim [1,2]$ (function class)
- 6. We do this for all benchmark functions.
- 7. The mutation operators is evolved to fit the probability distribution of functions.

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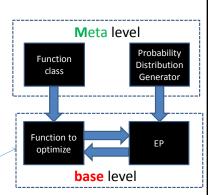
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Function Classes 2

Function Classes	S	b	f_{min}
$f_1(x) = a \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2$	$[-100, 100]^n$	N/A	0
$f_2(x) = a \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i + b \prod_{i=1}^{n} x_i $	$[-10, 10]^n$	$b \in [0, 10^{-5}]$	0
$f_3(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n (a \sum_{j=1}^i x_j)^2$	$[-100, 100]^n$	N/A	0
$f_4(x) = \max_i \{ a \mid x_i \mid, 1 \le i \le n \}$	$[-100, 100]^n$	N/A	0
$f_5(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [a(x_{i+1} - x_i^2)^2 + (x_i - 1)^2]$	$[-30, 30]^n$	N/A	0
$f_6(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (ax_i + 0.5)^2$	$[-100, 100]^n$	N/A	0
$f_7(x) = a \sum_{i=1}^{n} ix_i^4 + random[0, 1)$	$[-1.28, 1.28]^n$	N/A	0
$f_8(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n -(x_i \sin(\sqrt{ x_i }) + a)$	$[-500, 500]^n$	N/A	[-12629.5, -12599.5]
$f_9(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [ax_i^2 + b(1 - cos(2\pi x_i))]$			0
$f_{10}(x) = -a \exp(-0.2\sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2})$	$[-32, 32]^n$	N/A	0
$-\exp(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\cos 2\pi x_i) + a + e$			
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Meta and Base Learning

- At the base level we are learning about a specific function.
- At the meta level we are learning about the problem class.
- We are just doing "generate and test" at a higher level
- What is being passed with each **blue arrow**?
- Conventional FP



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Compare Signatures (Input-Output)

Evolutionary Programming

 $(R^n \rightarrow R) \rightarrow R^n$

Input is a function mapping real-valued vectors of length n to a real-value.

Output is a (near optimal) real-valued vector (i.e. the <u>solution</u> to the problem instance)

Evolutionary Programming

Designer $[(R^n \rightarrow R)] \rightarrow ((R^n \rightarrow R) \rightarrow R^n)$

Input is a *list of* functions mapping real-valued vectors of length n to a

real-value (i.e. sample problem instances from the problem class). **Output** is a (near optimal)

(mutation operator for)
Evolutionary Programming
(i.e. the <u>solution method</u> to the problem <u>class</u>)

We are raising the level of generality at which we operate.

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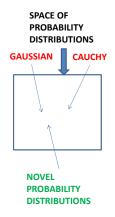
Genetic Programming to Generate Probability Distributions

- 1. **GP Function Set** {+, -, *, %}
- 2. GP **Terminal Set** {N(0, random)} N(0,1) is a normal distribution.

For example a Cauchy distribution is generated by N(0,1)%N(0,1).

Hence the search space of probability distributions contains the two existing probability distributions used in EP but also novel probability distributions.

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Means and Standard Deviations

These results are good for two reasons.

- 1. starting with a manually designed distributions (Gaussian).
- 2. evolving distributions for each function class.

Function	FF	P	Cl	EΡ	GP-distr	ribution
Class	Mean Best	$Std\ Dev$	$Mean\ Best$	$Std\ Dev$	$Mean\ Best$	$Std\ Dev$
$\overline{f_1}$	1.24×10^{-3}	2.69×10^{-4}	1.45×10^{-4}	9.95×10^{-5}	6.37×10^{-5}	5.56×10^{-5}
f_2	1.53×10^{-1}	$2.72{ imes}10^{-2}$	$4.30{ imes}10^{-2}$	$9.08{ imes}10^{-3}$	8.14×10^{-4}	8.50×10^{-4}
f_3	2.74×10^{-2}	$2.43{ imes}10^{-2}$	$5.15{ imes}10^{-2}$	$9.52{ imes}10^{-2}$	6.14×10^{-3}	8.78×10^{-3}
f_4	1.79	1.84	1.75×10	6.10	2.16×10^{-1}	6.54×10^{-1}
f_5	2.52×10^{-3}	4.96×10^{-4}	$2.66{ imes}10^{-4}$	$4.65{ imes}10^{-5}$	8.39×10^{-7}	1.43×10^{-7}
	3.86×10^{-2}	$3.12{\times}10^{-2}$	4.40×10	1.42×10^{2}	9.20×10^{-3}	1.34×10^{-2}
f_7	6.49×10^{-2}	1.04×10^{-2}	6.64×10^{-2}	1.21×10^{-2}	5.25×10^{-2}	8.46×10^{-3}
f_8	-11342.0	3.26×10^{2}	-7894.6	6.14×10^{2}	-12611.6	2.30×10
f_9	6.24×10^{-2}	1.30×10^{-2}	1.09×10^{2}	3.58×10	1.74×10^{-3}	4.25×10^{-4}
f_{10}	1.67	4.26×10^{-1}	1.45	2.77×10^{-1}	1.38	2.45×10^{-1}
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T-tests

Table 5 2-tailed t-tests comparing EP with GP-distributions, FEP and CEP on $f_1\hbox{-} f_{10}.$

Function Class	$\begin{array}{c} {\rm Number\ of} \\ {\rm Generations} \end{array}$	GP-distribution vs FEP $t\text{-}test$	GP-distribution vs CEP t -test
f_1	1500	2.78×10^{-47}	4.07×10^{-2}
f_2	2000	5.53×10^{-62}	1.59×10^{-54}
f_3	5000	8.03×10^{-8}	1.14×10^{-3}
f_4	5000	1.28×10^{-7}	3.73×10^{-36}
f_5	20000	2.80×10^{-58}	9.29×10^{-63}
f_6	1500	1.85×10^{-8}	3.11×10^{-2}
f_7	3000	3.27×10^{-9}	2.00×10^{-9}
f_8	9000	7.99×10^{-48}	5.82×10^{-75}
f_9	5000	6.37×10^{-55}	6.54×10^{-39}
f_{10}	1500	9.23×10^{-5}	1.93×10^{-1}

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Performance on Other Problem Classes

Table 8: This table compares the fitness values (averaged over 20 runs) of each of the 23 ADRs on each of the 23 function classes. Standard deviations are in parentheses.

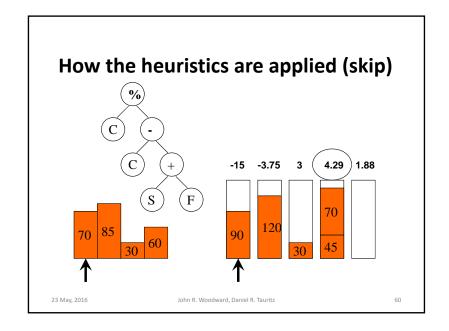
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Case Study 3: The Automated Design of On-Line Bin Packing Algorithms

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On-line Bin Packing Problem [9,11] A seguence of items packed into as few a bins as possible. Bin size is 150 units, items uniformly distributed between 20-100. Different to the off-line bin packing problem where the set of items. The "best fit" heuristic, places the current item in the space it fits best (leaving least slack). It has the property that this heuristic does not open a new bin unless it is forced to. Array of bins Range of 150 = Item size Bin 20-100 capacity Items packed so far Seguence of pieces to be packed 23 May, 2016 John R. Woodward, Daniel R. Tauritz 58

Genetic Programming applied to on-line bin packing Not obvious how to link Genetic Programming to combinatorial problems. The GP tree is applied to each bin with the current item and placed in the bin with The maximum score C capacity E emptiness Terminals supplied to Genetic Programming Fullness is F fullness Initial representation {C, F, S} irrelevant Replaced with {E, S}, E=C-F The space is important S size S size John R. Woodward, Daniel R. Tauritz 59



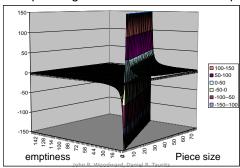
The Best Fit Heuristic

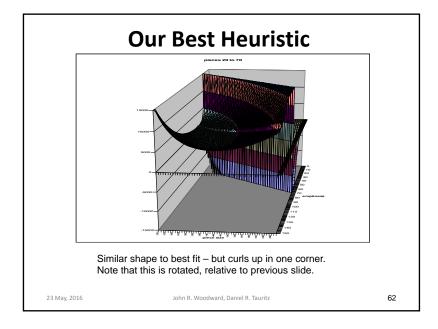
Best fit = 1/(E-S). Point out features.

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Pieces of size S, which fit well into the space remaining E, score well.

Best fit applied produces a set of points on the surface, The bin corresponding to the maximum score is picked.





Robustness of Heuristics = all legal results = some illegal results 10 30 50 70 90 C10-89 C10-29 C30-49 C50-69 C70-89 10 30 50 70 90 John R. Woodward, Daniel R. Tauritz 63

Testing Heuristics on problems of much larger size than in training

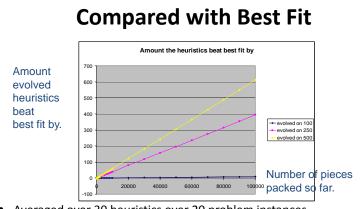
Table I	H trained100	H trained 250	H trained 500
100	0.427768358	0.298749035	0.140986023
1000	0.406790534	0.010006408	0.000350265
10000	0.454063071	2.58E-07	9.65E-12
100000	0.271828318	1.38E-25	2.78E-32

Table shows p-values using the best fit heuristic, for heuristics trained on different size problems, when applied to different sized problems

- As number of items trained on increases, the probability decreases (see next slide).
- As the number of items packed increases, the probability decreases (see next slide).

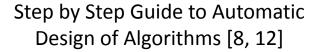
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- Averaged over 30 heuristics over 20 problem instances
- Performance does not deteriorate
- The larger the training problem size, the better the bins are packed.

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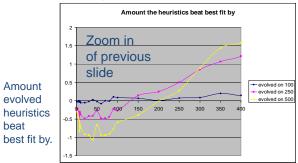
- 1. Study the literature for existing heuristics for your chosen domain (manually designed heuristics).
- 2. Build an algorithmic framework or template which expresses the known heuristics.
- 3. Let metaheuristics (e.g. Genetic Programming) search for variations on the theme.
- 4. Train and test on problem instances drawn from the same probability distribution (like machine learning). Constructing an optimizer is machine learning (this approach prevents "cheating").

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Compared with Best Fit



- The heuristic seems to learn the number of pieces in the problem
- Analogy with sprinters running a race accelerate towards end of race.
- The "break even point" is approximately half of the size of the training problem
- If there is a gap of size 30 and a piece of size 20, it would be better to wait for a better piece to come along later – about 10 items (similar effect at upper bound?).

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A Brief History (Example Applications) [5]

- Image Recognition Roberts Mark
- Travelling Salesman Problem Keller Robert
- Boolean Satisfiability Holger Hoos, Fukunaga, Bader-El-Den, Alex Bertels & Daniel Tauritz
- Data Mining Gisele L. Pappa, Alex A. Freitas
- Decision Tree Gisele L. Pappa et al
- Crossover Operators Oltean et al, Brian Goldman and Daniel Tauritz
- Selection Heuristics Woodward & Swan, Matthew Martin & Daniel **Tauritz**
- Bin Packing 1,2,3 dimension (on and off line) Edmund Burke et. al. & Riccardo Poli et al
- Bug Location Shin Yoo
- 10. Job Shop Scheduling Mengjie Zhang
- 11. Black Box Search Algorithms Daniel Tauritz et al

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Comparison of Search Spaces

- If we tackle a problem instance directly, e.g. Travelling Salesman Problem, we get a combinatorial explosion. The search space consists of *solutions*, and therefore explodes as we tackle larger problems.
- If we tackle a generalization of the problem, we do not get an
 explosion as the distribution of functions expressed in the
 search space tends to a limiting distribution. The search space
 consists of algorithms to produces solutions to a problem
 instance of any size.
- The algorithm to tackle TSP of size 100-cities, is the same size as The algorithm to tackle TSP of size 10,000-cities

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A Paradigm Shift?

One person proposes one algorithm and tests it in isolation.

One person proposes a family of algorithms and tests them in the context of a problem class.

Human cost (INFLATION) conventional approach

machine cost MOORE'S LAW

new approach

- Previously **one** person proposes **one** algorithm
- Now **one** person proposes **a set of** algorithms
- Analogous to "industrial revolution" from hand made to machine made. Automatic Design.

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Algorithms investigated/unit time

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Conclusions

- Heuristic are trained to fit a problem class, so are designed in context (like evolution). Let's close the feedback loop! Problem instances live in classes.
- 2. We can design algorithms on **small** problem instances and **scale** them apply them to **large** problem instances (TSP, child multiplication).

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SUMMARY

- 1. We can automatically design algorithms that consistently outperform human designed algorithms (on various domains).
- 2. Humans should not provide variations—genetic programing can do that.
- 3. We are altering the heuristic to suit the set of problem instances presented to it, in the hope that it will generalize to new problem instances (same distribution central assumption in machine learning).
- 4. The "best" heuristics depends on the set of problem instances. (feedback)
- 5. Resulting algorithm is part man-made part machine-made (synergy)
- 6. not evolving from scratch like Genetic Programming.
- 7. improve existing algorithms and adapt them to the new problem instances.
- Humans are working at a higher level of abstraction and more creative.
 Creating search spaces for GP to sample.
- 9. Algorithms are **reusable**, "solutions" aren't. (e.g. tsp algorithm vs route)
- 10. Opens up new problem domains. E.g. bin-packing.

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Case Study 4: The Automated Design of Black Box Search Algorithms [21, 23, 25]

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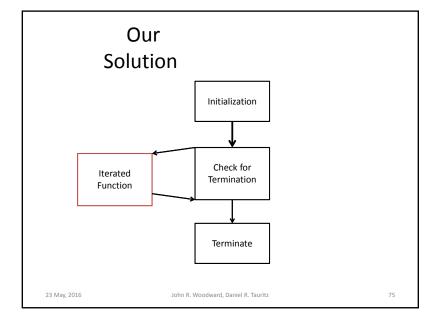
Approach

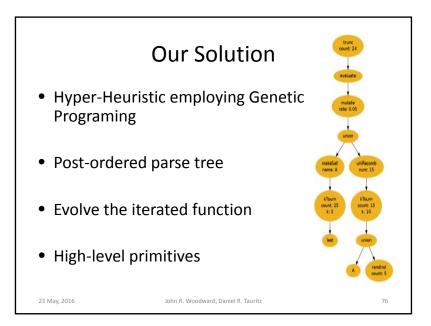
- Hyper-Heuristic employing Genetic Programing
- Post-ordered parse tree
- Evolve the iterated function

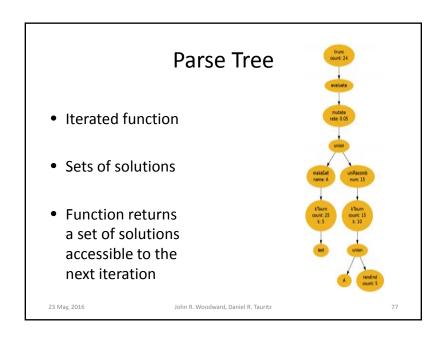
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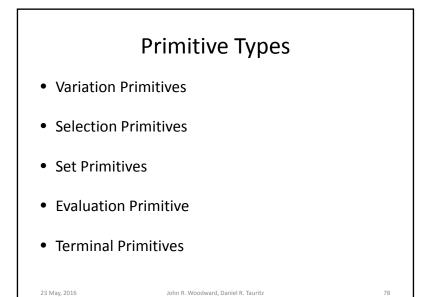
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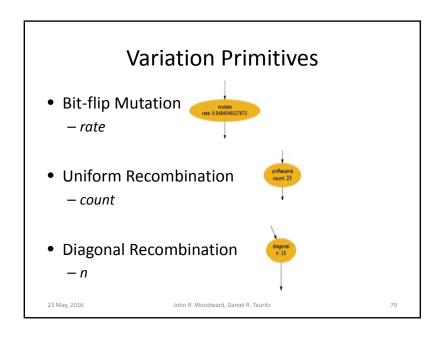
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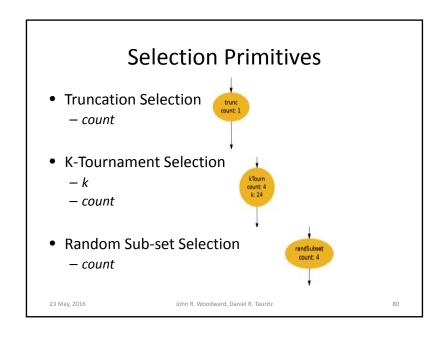


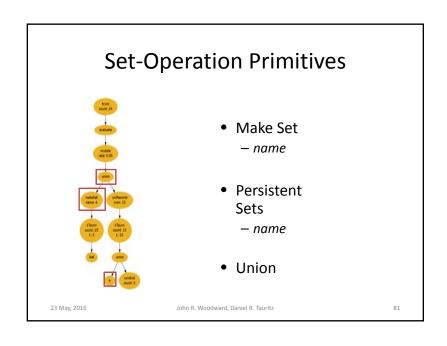


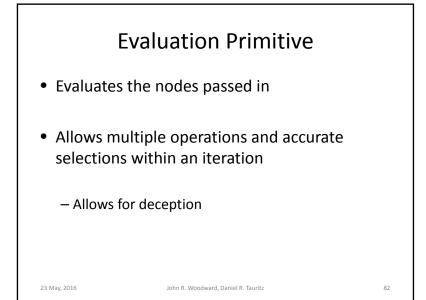


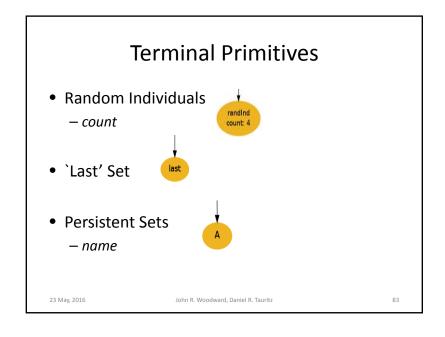


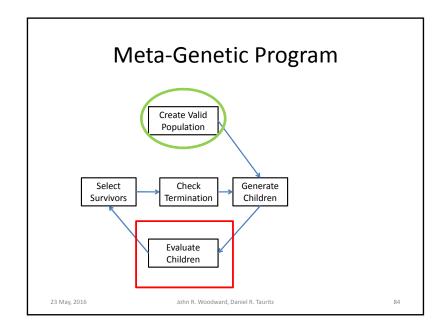


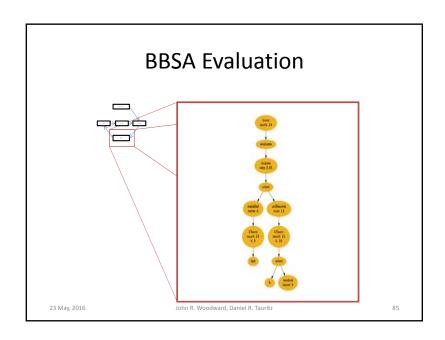












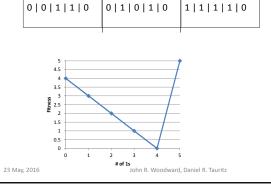
Termination Conditions

- Evaluations
- Iterations
- Operations
- Convergence

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Proof of Concept TestingDeceptive Trap Problem



Proof of Concept Testing (cont.)

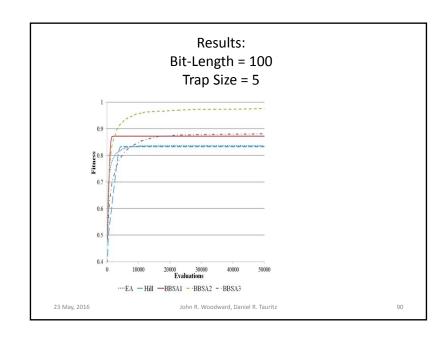
- Evolved Problem Configuration
 - Bit-length = 100
 - Trap Size = 5
- Verification Problem Configurations
 - Bit-length = 100, Trap Size = 5
 - Bit-length = 200, Trap Size = 5
 - Bit-length = 105, Trap Size = 7
 - Bit-length = 210, Trap Size = 7

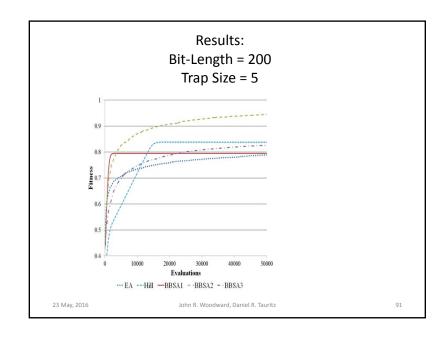
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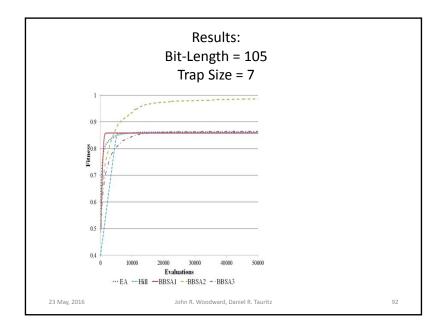
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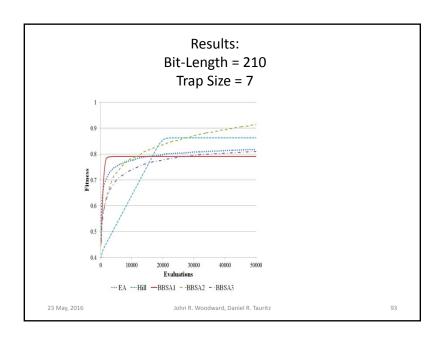
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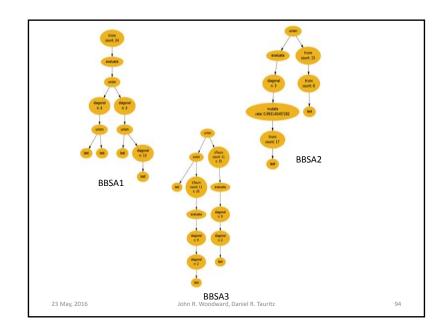


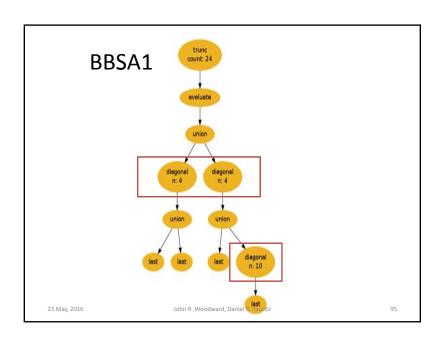


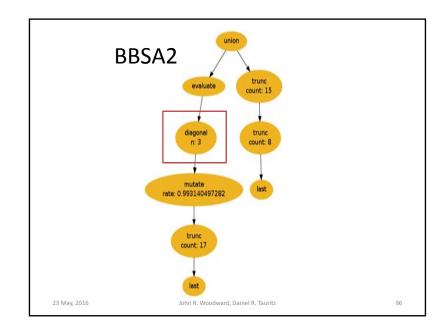


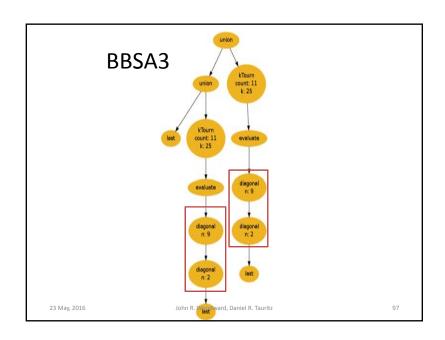


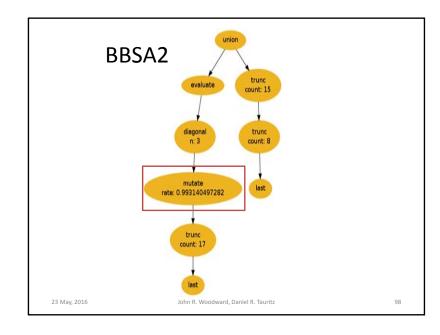


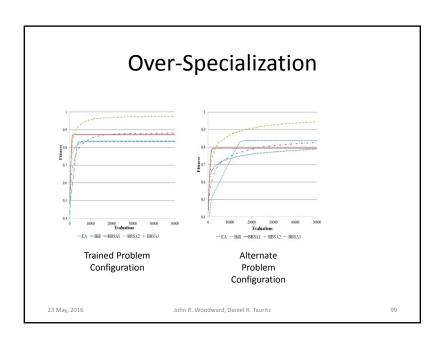










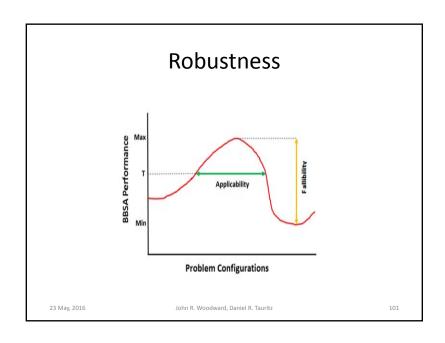


Robustness

- Measures of Robustness
 - Applicability
 - Fallibility
- Applicability
 - What area of the problem configuration space do I perform well on?
- Fallibility
 - If a given BBSA doesn't perform well, how much worse will I perform?

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Multi-Sampling

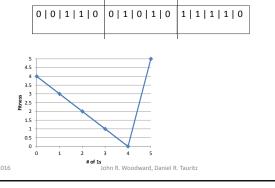
- Train on multiple problem configurations
- Results in more robust BBSAs
- Provides the benefit of selecting the region of interest on the problem configuration landscape

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Multi-Sample Testing

• Deceptive Trap Problem



Multi-Sample Testing (cont.)

- Multi-Sampling Evolution
 - Levels 1-5
- Training Problem Configurations
 - 1. Bit-length = 100, Trap Size = 5
 - 2. Bit-length = 200, Trap Size = 5
 - 3. Bit-length = 105, Trap Size = 7
 - 4. Bit-length = 210, Trap Size = 7
 - 5. Bit-length = 300, Trap Size = 5

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Initial Test Problem Configurations

- 1. Bit-length = 100, Trap Size = 5
- 2. Bit-length = 200, Trap Size = 5
- 3. Bit-length = 105, Trap Size = 7
- 4. Bit-length = 210, Trap Size = 7
- 5. Bit-length = 300, Trap Size = 5
- 6. Bit-length = 99, Trap Size = 9
- 7. Bit-length = 198, Trap Size = 9
- 8. Bit-length = 150, Trap Size = 5
- 9. Bit-length = 250, Trap Size = 5
- 10. Bit-length = 147, Trap Size = 7
- 11. Bit-length = 252, Trap Size = 7

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Problem Configuration Landscape
Analysis

Run evolved BBSAs on wider set of problem configurations

• Bit-length: ~75-~500

• Trap Size: 4-20

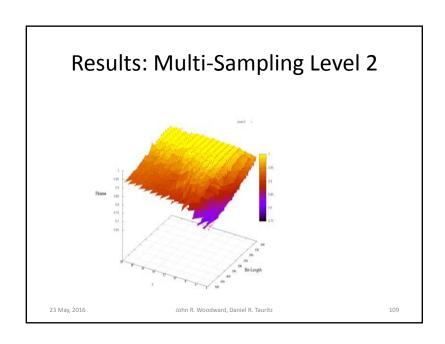
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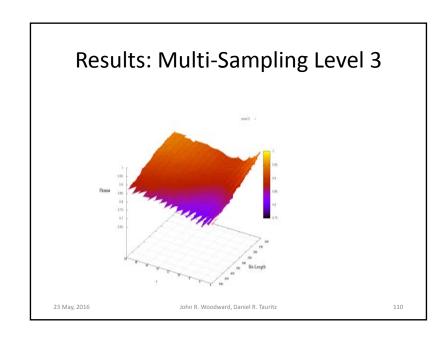
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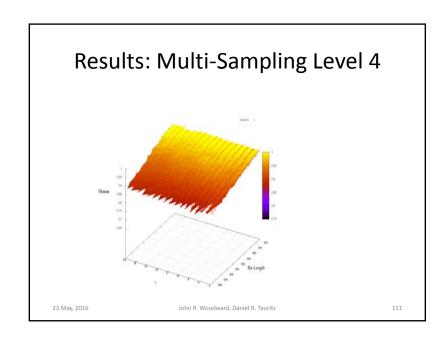
Results: Multi-Sampling Level 1

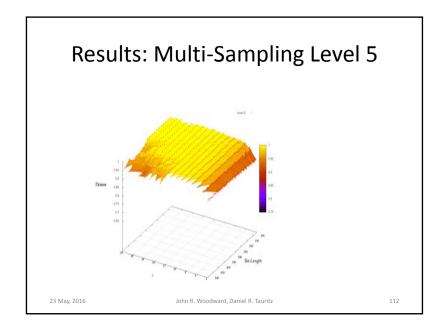
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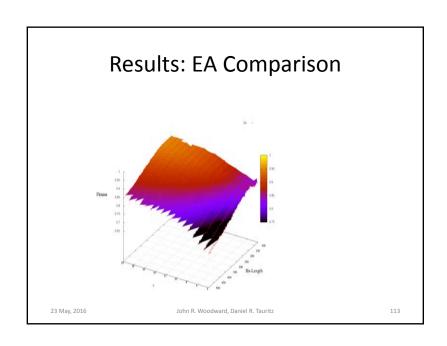
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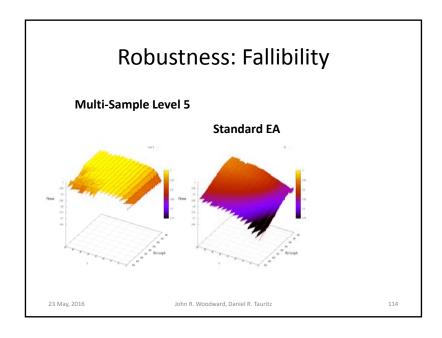


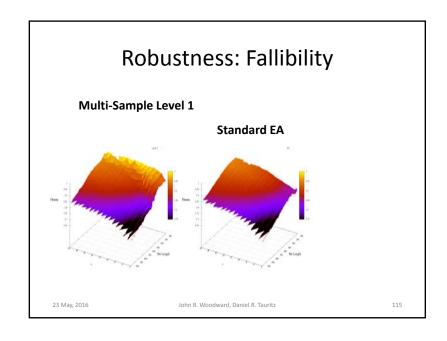


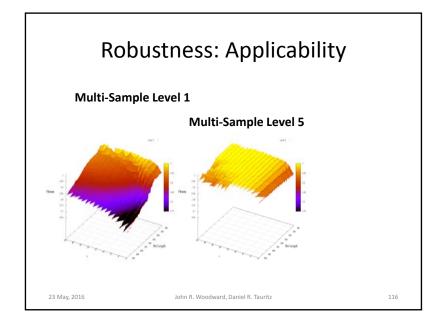












Robustness: Fallibility

Level	Run	Train Fit.	Test Fit.	Fallibility
5	1	0.973	0.977	0.050
5	2	0.893	0.879	0.035
5	3	0.850	0.850	0.045
5	4	0.955	0.986	0.029

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Drawbacks

- Increased computational time
 - More runs per evaluation (increased wall time)
 - More problem configurations to optimize for (increased evaluations)

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Summary of Multi-Sample Improvements

- Improved Hyper-Heuristic to evolve more robust BBSAs
- Evolved custom BBSA which outperformed standard EA and were robust to changes in problem configuration

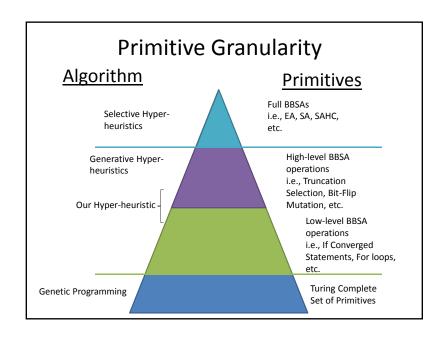
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Challenges in Hyper-heuristics

- Hyper-heuristics are very computationally expensive (use Asynchronous Parallel GP [26])
- What is the best primitive granularity? (see next slide)
- How to automate decomposition and recomposition of primitives?
- How to automate primitive extraction?
- How does hyper-heuristic performance scale for increasing primitive space size? (see [25])



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- Thank you for listening !!!
- We are glad to take any
 - comments (+,-)
 - suggestions/criticisms

Please email us any missing references!

John Woodward (http://www.cs.stir.ac.uk/~jrw/)

Daniel Tauritz (http://web.mst.edu/~tauritzd/)

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