Heavy-Tailed Mutation Operators in Single-Objective Combinatorial Optimization

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Abstract. A core feature of evolutionary algorithms is their mutation operator. Recently, much attention has been devoted to the study of mutation operators with dynamic and non-uniform mutation rates. Following up on this line of work, we propose a new mutation operator and analyze its performance on the (1+1) Evolutionary Algorithm (EA). Our analyses show that this mutation operator competes with pre-existing ones, when used by the (1+1) EA on classes of problems for which results on the other mutation operators are available. We present a "jump" function for which the performance of the (1+1) EA using any static uniform mutation and any restart strategy can be worse than the performance of the (1+1) EA using our mutation operator with no restarts. We show that the (1+1) EA using our mutation operator finds a (1/3)-approximation ratio on any non-negative submodular function in polynomial time. This performance matches that of combinatorial local search algorithms specifically designed to solve this problem.

Finally, we evaluate experimentally the performance of the (1+1) EA using our operator, on real-world graphs of different origins with up to ∼37 000 vertices and ∼1.6 million edges. In comparison with uniform mutation and a recently proposed dynamic scheme our operator comes out on top on these instances.

Keywords: Mutation operators · Minimum vertex cover problem
Submodular functions maximization

1 Introduction

One of the simplest and most studied *evolutionary algorithm* is the (1+1) EA [4,17,20] (see Algorithm 1). A key procedure of the (1+1) EA that affects its performance is the *mutation operator*, i.e., the operator that determines at each step how the potential new solution is generated. In the past several years there

A full version of this paper is available at http://arxiv.org/abs/1805.10902.

A. Auger et al. (Eds.): PPSN 2018, LNCS 11101, pp. 134–145, 2018.
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-99253-2_11

has been a huge effort, both from a theoretical and an experimental points of view, towards understanding how this parameter influences the performance of the (1+1) EA and towards deciding which is the optimal way of choosing this parameter (e.g., see [5,6]).

The most common mutation operator on n-bit strings is the static *uniform mutation* operator. This operator, unif_p, flips each bit of the current solution independently with probability $p(n)$. This probability, $p(n)$, is called static *mutation rate* and remains the same throughout the run of the algorithm. The most common choice for $p(n)$ is $1/n$; thus, mutated solutions differ in expectation in 1-bit from their predecessors. Witt [21] shows that this choice of $p(n)$ is optimal for all pseudo-Boolean linear functions. Doerr et al. [2] further observe that changing $p(n)$ by a constant factor can lead to large variations of the overall run-time of the (1+1) EA. They also show the existence of functions for which this choice of $p(n)$ is not optimal.

Static mutation rates are not the only ones studied in literature. Jansen et al. [13] propose a mutation rate which at time step t flips each bit independently with probability $2^{(t-1) \mod (\lceil \log_2 n \rceil - 1)}/n$. Doerr et al. [3] observe that this mutation rate is equivalent to a mutation rate of the form α/n, with α drawn uniformly at random (u.a.r.) from the set $\{2^{(t-1) \mod (\lceil \log_2 n \rceil - 1)} \mid t \in \{1, \ldots, \lceil \log_2 n \rceil\}\}$.

Doerr et al. [3] notice that the choice of $p(n) = 1/n$ is a result of over-tailoring the mutation rates to commonly studied simple unimodal problems. They propose a non-static mutation operator fmut_β, which chooses a mutation rate $\alpha \leq 1/2$ from a power-law distribution at every step of the algorithm. Their analysis shows that for a family of "jump" functions introduced below, the run-time of the (1+1) EA yields a polynomial speed-up over the optimal time when using fmut_β.

Recently, Friedrich et al. [10] propose a new mutation operator. Their operator $\mathsf{cMut}(p)$ chooses at each step with constant probability p to flip 1-bit of the solution chosen uniformly at random. With the remaining probability $1-p$, the operator chooses $k \in \{2, \ldots, n\}$ uniformly at random and flips k bits of the solution chosen uniformly at random. This operator performs well in optimizing pseudo-Boolean functions, as well as combinatorial problems such as the minimum vertex cover and the maximum cut. Experiments suggest that this operator outperforms the mutation operator of Doerr et al. [3] when run on functions that exhibit large deceptive basins of attraction, i.e., local optima whose hamming distance from the global optimum is in $\Theta(n)$.

Inspired by the recent results of Doerr et al. [3] and Friedrich et al. [10] we propose the mutation operator pmut_β that mutates n-bit string solutions as follows. At each step, pmut_β chooses $k \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ from a power-law distribution. Then k bits of the current solution are chosen uniformly at random and then flipped. During a run of the (1+1) EA using pmut_β, the majority of mutations consist of flipping a small number of bits, but occasionally a large number, of up to n bit flips can be performed. In comparison to the mutations of fmut_β, the mutations of pmut_β have a considerably higher likelihood of performing larger than $(n/2)$-bit jumps. A visualization of these probabilities is shown in Fig. 1. Our results can be summarized as follows.

Run-Time Comparison on Artificial Landscapes. In Sect. 3.1 we show that the (1+1) EA using pmut_β manages to find the optimum of any function within exponential time. When run on the OneMax function, the (1+1) EA with pmut_β finds the optimum solution in expected polynomial time.

In Sect. 3.2 we consider the problem of maximizing the n-dimensional jump function, first introduced by Droste et al. [4].

$$\mathsf{Jump}(m,n)(x) = \begin{cases} m + |x|_1 & \text{if } |x|_1 \leq n-m \text{ or } |x|_1 = n; \\ n - |x|_1 & \text{otherwise;} \end{cases}$$

We show that for any value of the parameters m, n with m constant or $n - m$, the expected run time of the (1+1) EA using pmut_β remains polynomial. This is not the case for the (1+1) EA using unif_p, for which Droste et al. [4] showed a run time of $\Theta(n^m + n \log n)$ in expectation. Doerr et al. [3] are able to derive polynomial bounds for the expected run-time of the (1+1) EA using their mutation operator fmut_β, but in their results limit the jump parameter to $m \leq n/2$.

Optimization of Submodular Functions and Experiments. In Sect. 5 we examine the performance of the (1+1) EA with pmut_β on submodular functions. Submodular functions arise in the analysis of various optimization problems. Examples include: maximum facility location problems [1], maximum cut and maximum directed cut [11], restricted SAT instances [12]. Submodular functions are also found in AI in connection with probabilistic fault diagnosis problems [14,15].

Submodular functions exhibit additional properties in some cases, such as *symmetry* and *monotonicity*. These properties can be exploited to derive run time bounds for local randomized search heuristics such as the (1+1) EA. In particular, Friedrich and Neumann [9] give run time bounds for the (1+1) EA and GSEMO on this problem, assuming either monotonicity or symmetry.

We show (Sect. 5.1) that the (1+1) EA with pmut_β on any non-negative, submodular function gives a 1/3-approximation within polynomial time. This result matches the performance of the local search heuristic of Feige et al. [7] designed to target non-negative, submodular functions in particular. An example of a natural non-negative submodular function that is neither symmetric nor monotone is the utility function of a player in a combinatorial auction (see e.g. [16]).

In Sect. 5.2 we apply our general upper bound to the maximum directed cut problem. Unlike the results of Friedrich et al. [10] we consider graphs with weighted edges, and our run-time bound does not depend on the maximum outdegree.

Finally, we evaluate the performance of the (1+1) EA on the maximum directed cut problem using pmut_β experimentally, on real-world graphs of different origins, and with up to ~37 000 vertices and ~1.6 million edges. Our experiments show that pmut_β outperforms unif_p and fmut_β on those instances.

Algorithm 1. General framework for the (1+1) EA

```
Choose initial solution x ∈ {0,1}^n uniformly at random;
while convergence criterion not met do
    y ← Mutation(x) for given mutation operator;
    if f(y) ≥ f(x) then
        x ← y;
return x;
```

2 Algorithms and Setting

2.1 The (1+1) Evolutionary Algorithm and Mutation Rates

In this paper we look at the run time of the simple (1+1) Evolutionary Algorithm under various configurations. This algorithm requires a bit-string of fixed length n as input. An offspring is then generated by the *mutation operator*, an operator that resembles asexual reproduction. The fitness of the solution is then computed and the less desirable result is discarded. This algorithm is *elitist* in the sense that the solution quality never decreases throughout the process. Pseudo-code for the (1+1) EA is given in Algorithm 1.

In the (1+1) EA the offspring generated in each iteration depends on the mutation operator. The standard choice for the $\mathsf{Mutation}(\cdot)$ is to flip each bit of an input string $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ independently with probability $1/n$. In a slightly more general setting, the mutation operator $\mathsf{unif}_p(\cdot)$ flips each bit of x independently wit probability p/n, where $p \in [0, n/2]$. We refer to the parameter p as *mutation rate*.

Uniform mutations can be further generalized, by sampling the mutation rate $p \in [0, n/2]$ at each step according to a given probability distribution. We assume this distribution to be fixed throughout the optimization process. Among this class of mutation rates, is the *power-law* mutation fmut_β of Doerr et al. [3]. fmut_β chooses the mutation rate according to a power-law distribution on $[0, 1/2]$ with exponent β. More formally, denote with X the r.v. (random variable) that returns the mutation rate at a given step. The power-law operator fmut_β uses a probability distribution $D^\beta_{n/2}$ s.t. $\mathsf{Pr}(X = k) = H^\beta_{n/2} k^{-\beta}$, where $H^\beta_\ell = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \frac{1}{j^\beta}$. The H^β_ℓs are known in the literature as generalized harmonic numbers. Interestingly, generalized harmonic numbers can be approximated with the Riemann Zeta function as $\lim_{\ell \to +\infty} H^\beta_\ell = \zeta(\beta)$, with $\zeta(\cdot)$ the Riemann Zeta function. In particular, harmonic numbers $H^\beta_{n/2}$ are always upper-bounded by a constant, for increasing problem size and for a fixed $\beta > 1$.

2.2 Non-uniform Mutation Rates

In this paper we consider an alternative approach to the non-uniform mutation operators described above. For a given probability distribution $P = [1, \ldots, n] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ the proposed mutation operator samples an element

Algorithm 2. The mutation operator $\mathsf{pmut}_\beta(x)$

$y \leftarrow x$;
choose $k \in [1, \dots, n]$ according to distribution D_n^β;
flip k-bits of y chosen uniformly at random;
return y;

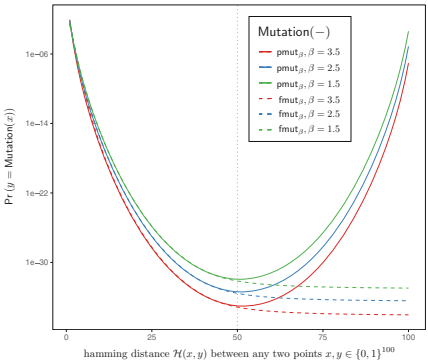

Fig. 1. A visualization of the probability $\mathsf{Pr}\left(y = \mathsf{Mutation}(x)\right)$, for any two points $x, y \in \{0,1\}^n$ w.r.t. the Hamming distance $\mathcal{H}(x, y)$, for problem size $n = 100$ and for $\beta = 1.5, 2.5, 3.5$. We consider the case $\mathsf{Mutation} = \mathsf{pmut}_\beta$ and $\mathsf{Mutation} = \mathsf{fmut}_\beta$. Note that the y-axis follows a logarithmic scale.

$k \in [1, \dots, n]$ according to the distribution P, and flips *exactly* k-many bits in an input string $x = (x_1, \dots x_n)$, chosen uniformly at random among all possibilities. This framework depends on the distribution P, which we always assume fixed throughout the optimization process.

Based on the results of Doerr et al. [3], we study a specialization of our non-uniform framework that uses a distribution of the form $P = D_n^\beta$. We refer to this operator as pmut_β, and pseudocode is given in Algorithm 2. This operator uses a power-law distribution on the probability of performing exactly k-bit flips in one iteration. That is, for $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ and all $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$,

$$\mathsf{Pr}\left(\mathcal{H}\left(x, \mathsf{pmut}_\beta(x)\right) = k\right) = (H_n^\beta)^{-1} k^{-\beta} \tag{1}$$

We remark that with this operator, for any two points $x, y \in \{0,1\}^n$, the probability $\mathsf{Pr}\left(y = \mathsf{pmut}_\beta(x)\right)$ only depends on their hamming distance $\mathcal{H}(x, y)$.

Although both operators, fmut_β and pmut_β, are defined in terms of a power-law distribution their behavior differs. A visualization of this can be seen in Fig. 1. We note that, for any choice of the constant $\beta > 1$ and all $x \in \{0,1\}^n$, $\mathsf{Pr}\left(\mathcal{H}\left(x, \mathsf{fmut}_\beta(x)\right) = 0\right) > 0$, while $\mathsf{Pr}\left(\mathcal{H}\left(x, \mathsf{pmut}_\beta(x)\right) = 0\right) = 0$. We discuss the advantages and disadvantages of these two operators in Sects. 3 and 4.

3 Artificial Landscapes

3.1 General Bounds and the OneMax Function

In this section we derive a general upper-bound on the run time of the (1+1) EA using the mutation operator pmut_β on any fitness function $f\colon \{0,1\}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$. It is well-known that the (1+1) EA using uniform mutation on any such fitness function has expected run time at most n^n. This upper-bound is tight, in the sense that there exists a function f s.t. the expected run time of the (1+1) EA using uniform mutation to find the global optimum of f is $\Omega(n^n)$. For a discussion on these bounds see Droste et al. [4]. Doerr et al. [3] prove that on any fitness function $f\colon \{0,1\}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ the (1+1) EA using the mutation operator fmut_β has run time at most $\mathcal{O}\left(H^\beta_{n/2} 2^n n^\beta\right)$. Similarly, we derive a general upper-bound on the run time of the (1+1) EA using mutation pmut_β.

Lemma 1. *On any fitness function $f\colon \{0,1\}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ the (1+1) EA with mutation pmut_β finds the optimum solution after expected $\mathcal{O}\left(H^\beta_n e^{n/e} n^\beta\right)$ fitness evaluations, with the constant implicit in the asymptotic notation independent of β.*

We consider the OneMax function, defined as $\mathsf{OneMax}(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = |x|_1 = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j$. This simple linear function of unitation returns the number of ones in a pseudo-Boolean input string. The (1+1) EA with mutation operators unif_p and fmut_β finds the global optimum after $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ fitness evaluations (see [3,4,17]). It can be easily shown that the (1+1) EA with mutation operator pmut_β achieves similar performance on this instance.

Lemma 2. *The (1+1) EA with mutation pmut_β finds the global optimum of the OneMax after expected $\mathcal{O}\left(H^\beta_n n \log n\right)$ fitness evaluations, for all $\beta > 1$ and with the constant implicit in the asymptotic notation independent of β.*

Lemma 2 can be proved using the fitness level method outlined in Wegener [20]. The (1+1) EA with mutation pmut_β performs a single chosen bit-flip with probability at least $(H^\beta_n n)^{-1}$ and the expected time for such an event to occur is $H^\beta_n n$.

3.2 A Comparison with Static Uniform Mutations

Recall the definition of the *jump* function from the introduction. For $1 < m < n$ this function exhibits a single *local* maximum and a single *global* maximum. The first parameter of $\mathsf{Jump}(m,n)$ determines the hamming distance between the local and the global optimum, while the second parameter denotes the size of the input. We present a general upper-bound on the run time of the (1+1) EA on $\mathsf{Jump}(m,n)$ with mutation operator pmut_β. Then, following the footsteps of Doerr et al. [3], we compare the performance of pmut_β with static mutation operators on jump functions for all $m \leq n/2$.

Lemma 3. *Consider a jump function $f = \mathsf{Jump}(m,n)$ and denote with $T_{\mathsf{pmut}_\beta}(f)$ the expected run time of the (1+1) EA using the mutation pmut_β on the function f. $T_{\mathsf{pmut}_\beta}(f) = H_n^\beta \binom{n}{m} \mathcal{O}\left(m^\beta\right)$, were the constant implicit in the asymptotic notation is independent of m and β.*

Note that the upper-bound on the run time given in Lemma 3 yields polynomial run time on all functions $\mathsf{Jump}(m,n)$ with m constant for increasing problem size and also with $n-m$ constant for increasing problem size.

Following the analysis of Doerr et al. [3], we can compare the run time of the (1+1) EA with mutation pmut_β with the (1+1) EA with uniform mutations, on the jump function $\mathsf{Jump}(m,n)$ for $m \leq n/2$.

Corollary 4. *Consider a jump function $f = \mathsf{Jump}(m,n)$ with $m \leq n/2$ and denote with $T_{\mathsf{pmut}_\beta}(f)$ the run time of the (1+1) EA using the mutation pmut_β on the function f. Similarly, denote with $T_{\text{OPT}}(f)$ the run time of the (1+1) EA using the best possible static uniform mutation on the function f. Then it holds $T_{\mathsf{pmut}_\beta}(f) \leq cm^{\beta-0.5} H_n^\beta T_{\text{OPT}}(f)$, for a constant c independent of m and β.*

The result above holds because Doerr et al. [3] prove that the best possible optimization time for a static mutation rate a function $f = \mathsf{Jump}(m,n)$ with $m \leq n/2$ is lower-bounded as $1/2\, n^m/m^m\, (n/(n-m))^{n-m} \leq T_{\text{OPT}}(f)$.

4 An Application to the Minimum Vertex Cover Problem

In this section, we study the *minimum vertex cover* problem (MVC): Given a graph $G = (V,E)$ with n vertices, find a minimal subset $U \subseteq V$ such that each edge in E is incident to at least one vertex in U. Following Friedrich et al. [8], we approach MVC by minimizing the functions $(u(x), |x|_1)$ in lexicographical order, where $u(x)$ is the number of uncovered edges.

Lemma 5. *On any graph $G = (V,E)$, the (1+1) EA with mutation pmut_β finds a not necessarily minimum vertex cover after expected $\mathcal{O}\left(H_n^\beta n \log n\right)$ fitness evaluations.*

This lemma follows from Friedrich et al. [8, Theorems 1 and 2] and (1) for $k = 1$.

The $(1+1)$ *EA* using unif_p as a mutation operator, when solving MVC on complete bipartite graphs, does not find the global optimum within polynomial time. Consider the complete bipartite graph $G = (V,E)$ with partitions V_1, V_2 of size m and $n-m$ respectively, where $0 < m < n/2$. The expected run time of the $(1+1)$ *EA* using unif_p on this instance is at least $\Omega\left(mn^{m-1} + n \log n\right)$. For $m \leq n/3$ the $(1+1)$ *EA* using mutation fmut_β finds the global optimum of MVC after at most $\mathcal{O}\left(H_{n/2}^\beta n^\beta 2^m\right)$ fitness evaluations in expectation and for $m \geq n/3$ after at most $\mathcal{O}\left(H_{n/2}^\beta n^\beta 2^n\right)$ fitness evaluations in expectation. For a discussion on these run time bounds see Friedrich et al. [8] and Doerr et al. [3].

Theorem 6. *On any complete bipartite graph $G = (V,E)$, the (1+1) EA using mutation pmut_β finds a solution to the MVC after expected $\mathcal{O}\left(H_n^\beta (n \log n + n^\beta)\right)$ fitness evaluations.*

5 Maximizing Submodular Functions

5.1 A General Upper-Bound

Consider a finite set V and a function $f\colon 2^V \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We say that f is *submodular* if for all $U, W \subseteq V$, $f(U) + f(W) \geq f(U \cup W) + f(U \cap W)$. We consider the problem of maximizing a non-negative submodular function, with the (1+1) EA using the mutation operator pmut_β. This problem is APX-complete. That is, this problem is NP-hard and does not admit a polynomial time approximation scheme (PTAS), unless $\mathsf{P} = \mathsf{NP}$.

We prove that the (1+1) EA with mutation pmut_β is a $(1/3 - \varepsilon/n)$-approximation algorithm for the problem of maximizing a submodular function. In our analysis we assume neither monotonicity nor symmetry. We approach this problem by searching for $(1+\alpha)$-local optima, which we define below.

Definition 7. *Let $f\colon 2^V \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be any submodular function. A set $S \subseteq V$ is a $(1+\alpha)$-local optimum if it holds $(1+\alpha)f(S) \geq f(S\backslash\{u\})$ for all $u \in S$, and $(1+\alpha)f(S) \geq f(S \cup \{v\})$ for all $v \in V\backslash S$, for a constant $\alpha > 0$.*

The definition given above is useful in the analysis because it can be proved that either $(1+\alpha)$-local optima or their complement always yield a good approximation of the global maximum.

Theorem 8. *Consider a non-negative submodular function $f\colon 2^V \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ over a set of cardinality $|V| = n$ and let S be a $(1+\varepsilon/n^2)$-local optimum. Then either S or $V\backslash S$ is a $(1/3 - \varepsilon/n)$-approximation of the global maximum.*

We remark that Theorem 8 as we present it is implicit in the proof of Theorem 3.4 in Feige et al. [7]. Also, it is possible to construct examples of submodular functions that exhibit $(1+\varepsilon/n^2)$-local optima with arbitrarily bad approximation ratios. Thus, $(1+\varepsilon/n^2)$-local optima alone do not yield any approximation guarantee with respect to the global maximum, unless the valuation oracle is symmetric.

We can use Theorem 8 to estimate the run time of the (1+1) EA using mutation pmut_β to maximize a given submodular function. Intuitively, it is always possible to find a $(1+\varepsilon/n^2)$-local optimum in polynomial time using single bit-flips. It is then possible to compare the approximate local solution S with its complement $V\backslash S$ by flipping all bits in one iteration.

Theorem 9. *Let $f\colon 2^V \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be a non-negative submodular function over a set of cardinality $|V| = n$. Then the (1+1) EA with mutation pmut_β finds a $(1/3 - \varepsilon/n)$-approximation of the global maximum after expected $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}n^3 \log\left(\frac{n}{\varepsilon}\right) + n^\beta\right)$ fitness evaluations.*

5.2 An Application to the Maximum Directed Cut Problem

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph, together with a weight function $w\colon E \longmapsto \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ on the edges. We assume the weights to be non-negative. We consider the problem

of finding a subset $U \subseteq V$ of nodes such that the sum of the weights on the outer edges of U is maximal. This problem is the maximum directed cut problem (Max-Di-Cut) and is a known to be NP-complete. In contrast to Friedrich and Neumann [9], our analysis considers both directed and undirected graphs, although it might be possible to obtain improved bounds on undirected graphs. Furthermore, unlike Friedrich et al. [10] our run-time bound does not depend on the size of the maximum cut in G.

We first define the cut function.

Definition 10. *Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph together with a non-negative weight function $w\colon E \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. For each subset of nodes $U \subseteq V$, consider the set $\Delta(U) = \{(e_1, e_2) \in E\colon e_1 \in U \text{ and } e_2 \notin U\}$ of all edges leaving U. We define the cut function $f\colon 2^V \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ as $f(U) = \sum_{e \in \Delta(U)} w(e)$.*

Since we require the weights to be non-negative, the cut function is also non-negative. For any graph $G = (V, E)$ the corresponding cut function is always submodular and, in general, non-monotone (see e.g. [7,9]). If a graph G is directed, then the corresponding cut function needs not be symmetric. Using Theorem 9, we derive the following upper-bound on the run time.

Corollary 11. *Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph of order n together with a non-negative weight function $w\colon E \longmapsto \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. Then the (1+1) EA with mutation pmut_β is a $(1/3 - \varepsilon/n)$-approximation algorithm for the* Max-Di-Cut *on G. Its expected optimization time is $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^3 \log\left(\frac{n}{\varepsilon}\right) + n^\beta\right)$.*

5.3 Experiments on Large Real Graphs

For our experimental investigations, we select the 123 large instances used by Wagner et al. [19]. The number of vertices ranges from about 400 to over 6 million and the number of edges ranges from about 1000 to over 56 million. All 123 instances are available online [18].

The instances vary widely in their origin. For example, we include 14 collaboration networks (ca-*, from various sources such as Citeseer and also Hollywood productions), 14 web graphs (web-*, showing the state of various subsets of the internet at particular points in time), five infrastructure networks (inf-*), six interaction networks (ia-*, e.g. about email exchange), 21 general social networks (soc-*, e.g., Delicious, LastFM, Youtube) and 44 subnets of Facebook (socfb-*, mostly from different American universities). We take these graphs and run Algorithm 1 with different mutation operators: fmut_β and pmut_β with $\beta \in \{1.5, 2.5, 3.5\}$ and unif_1. The solution representation is based on vertices and we initialize uniformly at random. Each edge has a weight of 1.

We perform 100 independent runs (100 000 evaluations each) with an overall computation budget of 72 h per mutation-instance pair. Out of the initial 123 instances 67 finish their 100 repetitions per instance within this time limit.[1]

[1] Source categories of the 67 instances: 2x bio-*, 6x ca-*, 5x ia-*, 2x inf-*, 1x soc-*, 40x socfb-*, 4x tech-*, 7x web-*. The largest graph is socfb-Texas84 with 36 364 vertices and 1 590 651 edges.

Table 1. Average ranks (based on mean cut size) at $t = 10\,000$ and $t = 100\,000$ iterations (lower is better). Our pmut_β approaches perform best at both budgets. unif_1 or $\mathsf{fmut}_{1.5}$ have the worst average rank. The colors correspond to the average rank of a scheme (colder colors are better).

mutation	t=10k	t=100k
$\mathsf{fmut}_{1.5}$	3.4	6.8
$\mathsf{fmut}_{2.5}$	4.9	5.1
$\mathsf{fmut}_{3.5}$	5.8	4.6
$\mathsf{pmut}_{1.5}$	1.6	3.1
$\mathsf{pmut}_{2.5}$	2.2	1.9
$\mathsf{pmut}_{3.5}$	3.3	1.1
unif_1	6.8	4.9

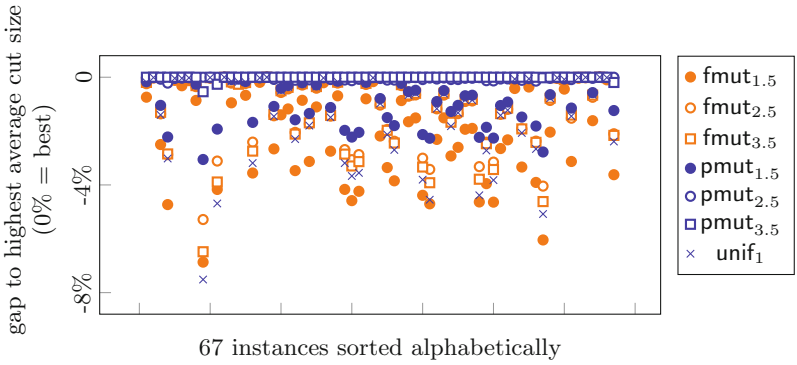

Fig. 2. Distance of average cut size to best average of the seven approaches.

We will report on these 67 in the following, and we will use the average cut size achieved in the 100 runs as the basis for our analyses.

First, we rank the seven approaches based on the average cut size achieved in 100 independent runs (best rank is 1, worst rank is 7). Table 1 shows the average rank achieved by the seven different mutation approaches across the 68 instances. It is obvious that unif_1 is among the worst. pmut_β clearly performs best, however, while pmut_β with $\beta = 1.5$ performs best at 10 000 iterations, pmut_β with $\beta = 3.5$ performs best when the budget is 100 000 iterations.

Across the 67 instances, the achieved cut sizes vary significantly (see Fig. 2 and Table 2). For example, the average gap between the worst and the best approach is 46% at 10 000 iterations and it still is 8.1% at 100 000 iterations. Also, when we compare the best fmut_β and pmut_β configurations (as per Table 2), then we can see that (i) pmut_β is better or equal to fmut_β, and (ii) the performance advantage of pmut_β over fmut_β is 2.2% and 1.3% on average, with a maximum of 4.8% and 6.4% (i.e., for 10 000 and 100 000 evaluations).

Table 2. Summary of cut-size differences. "Total" refers to the gap between the best and worst performing mutation out of all seven. The two highlighted pairs compare the best fmut_β and pmut_β values listed in Table 1.

	$t = 10k$		$t = 100k$	
	Total	$\mathsf{pmut}_{1.5}$ vs $\mathsf{fmut}_{1.5}$	Total	$\mathsf{pmut}_{3.5}$ vs $\mathsf{fmut}_{3.5}$
Min gap	0.3%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%
Mean gap	12.2%	2.2%	2.1%	1.3%
Max gap	46.0%	4.8%	8.1%	6.4%

6 Discussion

In the pursuit of optimizers for complex landscapes that arise in industrial problems, we have identified a new mutation operator. This operator allows for good performance of the classical (1+1) EA when optimizing not only simple artificial test functions, but the whole class of non-negative submodular functions. As submodular functions find applications in a variety of natural settings, it is interesting to consider the potential utility of our operator as a building block for optimizers of more complex landscapes, where submodularity can be identified in parts of these landscapes.

Acknowledgements. The authors would like to thank Martin Krejca for giving his advice on one of the proofs, and Karen Seidel for proof-reading the paper.

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