DM865 – Spring 2018 Heuristics and Approximation Algorithms

Experimental Analysis

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Outline

1. Experimental Analysis

Motivations and Goals Descriptive Statistics Performance Measures Sample Statistics Scenarios of Analysis A. Single-pass heuristics B. Asymptotic heuristics Guidelines for Presenting Data

Outline

1. Experimental Analysis

Motivations and Goals Descriptive Statistics

Performance Measures Sample Statistics

Scenarios of Analysis

- A. Single-pass heuristics
- B. Asymptotic heuristics

Guidelines for Presenting Data

Contents and Goals

Provide a view of issues in Experimental Algorithmics

- Exploratory data analysis
- Presenting results in a concise way with graphs and tables
- Organizational issues and Experimental Design
- Basics of inferential statistics
- Sequential statistical testing: race, a methodology for tuning

The goal of Experimental Algorithmics is not only producing a sound analysis but also adding an important tool to the development of a good solver for a given problem.

Experimental Algorithmics is an important part in the algorithm production cycle, which is referred to as Algorithm Engineering

The Engineering Cycle



from http://www.algorithm-engineering.de/

Experimental Algorithmics



In empirical studies we consider simulation programs which are the implementation of a mathematical model (the algorithm)

[McGeoch, 1996]

Experimental Algorithmics

Goals

- Defining standard methodologies
- Comparing relative performance of algorithms so as to identify the best ones for a given application
- Characterizing the behavior of algorithms
- Identifying algorithm separators, *i.e.*, families of problem instances for which the performance differ
- Providing new insights in algorithm design

Fairness Principle

Fairness principle: being completely fair is perhaps impossible but try to remove any possible bias:

- possibly all algorithms must be implemented with the same style, with the same language and sharing common subprocedures and data structures
- the code must be optimized, e.g., using the best possible data structures
- running times must be comparable, e.g., by running experiments on the same computational environment (or redistributing them randomly)

Definitions

The most typical scenario considered in analysis of search heuristics

Asymptotic heuristics with time/quality limit decided a priori

The algorithm \mathcal{A}^∞ is halted when time expires or a solution of a given quality is found.

Deterministic case: \mathcal{A}^{∞} on π returns a
solution of cost x.Randomized case: \mathcal{A}^{∞} on π returns a solution
of cost X, where X is a random variable.The performance of \mathcal{A}^{∞} on π is a scalar y = x.The performance of \mathcal{A}^{∞} on π is the univariate
Y = X.

[This is not the only relevant scenario: to be refined later]

Random Variables and Probability

Statistics deals with random (or stochastic) variables.

A variable is called random if, prior to observation, its outcome cannot be predicted with certainty. The uncertainty is described by a probability distribution.

Discrete variables

Probability distribution:

 $p_i = P[x = v_i]$

Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)

 $F(v) = P[x \le v] = \sum_i p_i$

Mean

 $\mu = E[X] = \sum x_i p_i$

Variance

$$\sigma^2 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = \sum (x_i - \mu)^2 p_i$$

Continuous variables

Probability density function (pdf):

 $f(v) = \frac{dF(v)}{dv}$

Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF):

 $F(v) = \int_{-\infty}^{v} f(v) dv$

Mean

$$\mu = E[X] = \int xf(x)dx$$

Variance

$$\sigma^2 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = \int (x - \mu)^2 f(x) \, dx$$

Generalization

For each general problem \mathcal{P} (e.g., TSP, GCP) we denote by Π a set (or class) of instances and by $\pi \in \Pi$ a single instance.

On a specific instance, the random variable Y that defines the performance measure of an algorithm is described by its probability distribution/density function

 $Pr(Y = y \mid \pi)$

It is often more interesting to generalize the performance on a class of instances $\Pi,$ that is,

$$Pr(Y = y, \Pi) = \sum_{\pi \in \Pi} Pr(Y = y \mid \pi) Pr(\pi)$$

Sampling

In experiments,

- $1. \ \mbox{we sample the population of instances and}$
- 2. we sample the performance of the algorithm on each sampled instance

If on an instance π we run the algorithm r times then we have r replicates of the performance measure Y, denoted Y_1, \ldots, Y_r , which are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.), i.e.

$$Pr(y_1,\ldots,y_r|\pi) = \prod_{j=1}^r Pr(y_j \mid \pi)$$

$$Pr(y_1,\ldots,y_r) = \sum_{\pi\in\Pi} Pr(y_1,\ldots,y_r \mid \pi) Pr(\pi).$$

Instance Selection

In real-life applications a simulation of $p(\pi)$ can be obtained by historical data.

In simulation studies instances may be:

- real world instances
- random variants of real world-instances
- online libraries
- randomly generated instances

They may be grouped in classes according to some features whose impact may be worth studying:

- type (for features that might impact performance)
- size (for scaling studies)
- hardness (focus on hard instances)
- application (e.g., CSP encodings of scheduling problems), ...

Within the class, instances are drawn with uniform probability $p(\pi) = c$

Statistical Methods

The analysis of performance is based on finite-size sampled data. Statistics provides the methods and the mathematical basis to

- describe, summarizing, the data (descriptive statistics)
- make inference on those data (inferential statistics)

Statistics helps to

- guarantee reproducibility
- make results reliable (are the observed results enough to justify the claims?)
- extract relevant results from large amount of data

In the practical context of heuristic design and implementation (i.e., engineering), statistics helps to take correct design decisions with the least amount of experimentation

Objectives of the Experiments

• Comparison:

bigger/smaller, same/different, Algorithm Configuration, Component-Based Analysis

• Standard statistical methods: *experimental* designs, test hypothesis and estimation



Objectives of the Experiments

• Comparison:

bigger/smaller, same/different, Algorithm Configuration, Component-Based Analysis

• Standard statistical methods: *experimental* designs, test hypothesis and estimation

• Characterization:

Interpolation: fitting models to data Extrapolation: building models of data, explaining phenomena

• Standard statistical methods: *linear and non linear regression* model fitting



On a single instance

Design: Several runs on an instance

	Algorithm 1	Algorithm 2	 Algorithm k
Instance 1	X11	X ₂₁	X_{k1}
:	:	:	:
Instance 1	X _{1r}	X _{2r}	X_{kr}

On a single instance

Computational effort indicators

- number of elementary operations/algorithmic iterations

 (e.g., search steps, objective function evaluations, number of visited nodes in the search tree, consistency checks, etc.)
- total CPU time consumed by the process (sum of user and system times returned by getrusage)

Solution quality indicators

- value returned by the cost function
- error from optimum/reference value
- (optimality) gap $\frac{UB-LB}{LB+\epsilon}$ (if max $\frac{UB-LB}{UB+\epsilon}$) ϵ is an infinitesimal for the case LB = 0 but $UB - LB \neq 0$
- ranks

On a class of instances

Design A: One run on various instances

	Algorithm 1	Algorithm 2	 Algorithm k
Instance 1	X11	X12	X_{1k}
Instance b	X_{b1}	X _{b2}	X_{bk}

Design B: Several runs on various instances

	Algorithm 1	Algorithm 2	 Algorithm k
Instance 1	X_{111},\ldots,X_{11r}	X_{121}, \ldots, X_{12r}	X_{1k1},\ldots,X_{1kr}
Instance 2	X_{211}, \ldots, X_{21r}	X_{221}, \ldots, X_{22r}	X_{2k1},\ldots,X_{2kr}
:			
Instance b	X_{b11}, \ldots, X_{b1r}	X_{b21}, \ldots, X_{b2r}	X_{bk1}, \ldots, X_{bkr}
	544, , , , , , ,		Dita) / Diti

On a class of instances

Computational effort indicators

- no transformation if the interest is in studying scaling
- standardization if a fixed time limit is used
- geometric mean (used for a set of numbers whose values are meant to be multiplied together or are exponential in nature),
- · otherwise, better to group homogeneously the instances

Solution quality indicators

Different instances imply different scales \Rightarrow need for an invariant measure

(However, many other measures can be taken both on the algorithms and on the instances [McGeoch, 1996])

On a class of instances (cont.)

Solution quality indicators

• Distance or error from a reference value (assume minimization case):

 $e_1(x,\pi) = rac{x(\pi) - ar{x}(\pi)}{\hat{\sigma}(\pi)}$ standard score

$$e_2(x,\pi)=rac{x(\pi)-x^{opt}(\pi)}{x^{opt}(\pi)}$$
 relative error

$$e_3(x,\pi) = \frac{x(\pi) - x^{opt}(\pi)}{x^{worst}(\pi) - x^{opt}(\pi)} \quad \text{invariant [Zemel, 1981]}$$

- optimal value computed exactly or known by construction
- surrogate value such bounds or best known values
- Rank (no need for standardization but loss of information)

• We work with samples (instances, solution quality) drawn from populations

Population $P(x, \theta)$ Parameter θ $\begin{array}{c} \text{Random Sample} \\ X^n \\ \text{Statistical Estimator } \widehat{\theta} \end{array}$

Summary Measures

Measures to describe or characterize a population

- Measure of central tendency, location
- Measure of dispersion

One such a quantity is

- a **parameter** if it refers to the population (Greek letters)
- a statistics if it is an estimation of a population parameter from the sample (Latin letters)

Measures of central tendency

• Arithmetic Average (Sample mean)

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$$

- *Quantile*: value above or below which lie a fractional part of the data (used in nonparametric statistics)
 - Median

$$\mathcal{M} = x_{(n+1)/2}$$

• Quartile

$$Q_1 = x_{(n+1)/4}$$
 $Q_3 = x_{3(n+1)/4}$

• *q*-quantile

q of data lies below and 1 - q lies above

• Mode

value of relatively great concentration of data (*Unimodal vs Multimodal* distributions)

Measure of dispersion

• Sample range

 $R = x_{(n)} - x_{(1)}$

• Sample variance

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1}\sum (x_i - \bar{X})^2$$

• Standard deviation

$$s = \sqrt{s^2}$$

• Inter-quartile range

 $IQR = Q_3 - Q_1$



Boxplot and a probability density function (pdf) of a Normal N(0,1) Population. (source: Wikipedia) [see also: http://informationandvisualization.de/blog/box-plot]



Histogram



```
In R
```

```
> x<-runif(10,0,1)
mean(x), median(x), quantile(x), quantile(x,0.25)
range(x), var(x), sd(x), IQR(x)
> fivenum(x)
#(minimum, lower-hinge, median, upper-hinge, maximum)
[1] 0.18672 0.26682 0.28927 0.69359 0.92343
> summary(x)
> aggregate(x,list(factors),median)
> boxplot(x)
```

Scenarios

- A. Single-pass heuristics
- B. Asymptotic heuristics (can be run indefinitely with a chance of continuing to make progress):

Two approaches:

- 1. Univariate
 - 1.a Time as an external parameter decided a priori
 - 1.b Solution quality as an external parameter decided a priori
- 2. Cost dependent on running time:

Scenario A

Single-pass heuristics

Deterministic case: \mathcal{A}^{\dashv} on class Π returns a solution of cost \times with computational effort t (*e.g.*, running time).

The performance of \mathcal{A}^{\dashv} on class Π is the vector $\vec{y} = (x, t)$.

Randomized case: \mathcal{A}^{\dashv} on class Π returns a solution of cost X with computational effort T, where X and T are random variables.

The performance of \mathcal{A}^{\dashv} on class Π is the bivariate $\vec{Y} = (X, T)$.

Example

Scenario:

- \triangleright 3 heuristics \mathcal{A}_1^{\dashv} , \mathcal{A}_2^{\dashv} , \mathcal{A}_3^{\dashv} on class Π .
- \triangleright homogeneous instances or need for data transformation.
- \triangleright 1 or *r* runs per instance
- Interest: inspecting solution cost and running time to observe and compare the level of approximation and the speed.

Tools:

• Scatter plots of solution-cost and run-time



Multi-Criteria Decision Making

Needed some definitions on dominance relations

In Pareto sense, for points in \mathbb{R}^2

 $\begin{array}{ll} \vec{x}^1 \preceq \vec{x}^2 & \text{weakly dominates} & x_i^1 \leq x_i^2 \text{ for all } i=1,\ldots,n \\ \vec{x}^1 \parallel \vec{x}^2 & \text{incomparable} & \text{neither } \vec{x}^1 \preceq \vec{x}^2 \text{ nor } \vec{x}^2 \preceq \vec{x}^1 \end{array}$

Scaling Analysis



Linear regression in log-log plots \Rightarrow polynomial growth

Linear regression in log-log plots \Rightarrow polynomial growth


Comparative visualization



Scenarios

- A. Single-pass heuristics
- B. Asymptotic heuristics (can be run indefinitely with a chance of continuing to make progress):

Two approaches:

- 1. Univariate
 - 1.a Time as an external parameter decided a priori
 - 1.b Solution quality as an external parameter decided a priori
- 2. Cost dependent on running time:

Scenario B

Asymptotic heuristics

There are two approaches:

1.a. Time as an external parameter decided *a priori*. The algorithm is halted when time expires.

Deterministic case: \mathcal{A}^{∞} on class Π returns a solution of cost x.

```
The performance of \mathcal{A}^{\infty} on class \Pi is the scalar y = x.
```

Randomized case: \mathcal{A}^{∞} on class Π returns a solution of cost X, where X is a random variable.

The performance of \mathcal{A}^{∞} on class Π is the univariate Y = X.

Example

Scenario:

- ▷ 3 heuristics A₁[∞], A₂[∞], A₃[∞] on class Π.
 (Or 3 heuristics A₁[∞], A₂[∞], A₃[∞] on class Π without interest in computation time because negligible or comparable)
- ▷ homogeneous instances (no data transformation) or heterogeneous (data transformation)
- \triangleright 1 or *r* runs per instance
- ▷ a priori time limit imposed
- Interest: inspecting solution cost

Tools:

- Histograms (summary measures: mean or median or mode?)
- Boxplots
- Empirical cumulative distribution functions (ECDFs)

```
load the data
# #
> load ("results.rda")
> levels (DATA$ instance)
     "queen4 4.txt"
                                        "queen6 6.txt" "queen7 7.txt"
 [1]
                       "queen5 5.txt"
 [5]
                       "queen9 9.txt"
     "queen8 8.txt"
                                        "queen10 10.txt" "queen11 11.txt"
 [9]
     "queen12_12.txt" "queen13_13.txt" "queen14_14.txt" "queen15_15.txt"
                       "queen17 17.txt" "queen18 18.txt" "queen19 19.txt"
[13]
     "queen16 16.txt"
[17]
     "queen20_20.txt" "queen21_21.txt" "queen22_22.txt" "queen23_23.txt"
     "queen24 24.txt" "queen25 25.txt" "queen26 26.txt" "queen27 27.txt"
[21]
[25]
    "queen28 28.txt" "queen29 29.txt" "queen30 30.txt" "queen31 31.txt"
[29] "queen32 32.txt"
```

```
> bwplot(reorder(alg, col, median)~col,data=DATA)
```







R Pointers

- rstudio cheatsheets https://www.rstudio.com/resources/cheatsheets/
 - Data Import Cheat Sheet
 - Data Transformation Cheat Sheet
 - Data Wrangling https://rpubs.com/bradleyboehmke/data_wrangling https: //www.rstudio.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/data-wrangling-cheatsheet.pdf
 - Data Visualization Cheat Sheet
- ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis. Wickham, Hadley https://www.springer.com/gp/book/9783319242750 http://ggplot2.org/book/ based on grammar:
 - Wickham H (2010) A layered grammar of graphics. J Comput Graph Stat 19(1):3–28
 - Wilkinson L (2005) The grammar of graphics. Statistics and computing, 2nd edn. Springer, New York

R Notions

• data are stored in data.frame type

>	head(DATA)											
	alg	instance	hard	soft	eval	time	cost					
1	3702445	ns1696083	1492	54	14920100	27.65	1492054					
2	3702445	neos -1440225	107	46	1070050	1.22	107046					
3	3702445	macrophage	0	800	800	0.22	800					
4	3702445	iis-pima-cov	0	77	77	0.47	77					
5	3702445	ex9	477	2188	4772190	116.34	479188					
6	3702445	ex10	974	6591	9746590	120.15	980591					

- columns of a data.frame can be of different types, use str() to check this
- an important type for a data frame column is factor. A factor is made by levels

```
> str(DATA)
'data.frame': 60 obs. of 7 variables:
$ alg : Factor w/ 7 levels "3702445","5248915",..: 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 2 ...
$ instance: Factor w/ 9 levels "acc-tight6","bnatt350",..: 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 9 .
$ hard : int 1492 107 0 0 477 974 1201 152 88 7 ...
$ soft : num 54 46 800 77 2188 ...
$ eval : num 14920100 1070050 800 77 4772190 ...
$ time : num 27.65 1.22 0.22 0.47 116.34 ...
48
```

R Notions

- the library dplyr can be helpful to organize data. See the cheatsheet (In RStudio you find them from the Help menu).
- data frames can be in wide or long format:

>	require(tidyr)												
>	require(dplyr)												
>	<pre>spread(select(DATA, instance, alg, hard), alg, hard)</pre>												
	instance	3702445	5248915	5286294	5506044	5736304	6190028	6240996					
1	acc-tight6	88	NA	33	468	33	12	1286					
2	bnatt350	152	NA	161	183	150	174	1564					
3	co-100	1201	NA	162	162	162	808	1193					
4	ex10	974	77	200	200	306	107	1731					
5	ex9	477	70	162	162	217	75	1474					
6	iis-pima-cov	0	0	0	7201	0	0	0					
7	macrophage	0	0	0	609	0	0	424					
8	neos -1440225	107	22	80	330	75	35	329					
9	ns1696083	1492	7	1381	139	3306	46	3211					

R Notions

Rank transformation in dplyr:

here group_by does the same job as split

```
> head(HARD_LONG)
 A tibble: 6 x 4
#
     instance alg hard rank
       <fctr> <chr> <int> <dbl>
   acc-tight6 3702445
                         88 4.0
1
2
     bnatt350 3702445 152
                            2.0
3
       c_{0} = 100 3702445 1201
                            6.0
4
         ex10 3702445
                     974
                            6.0
5
          ex9 3702445
                        477
                            6.0
6
 iis-pima-cov 3702445
                          0
                              3.5
```

R: graphics with ggplot2

A grammar for graphics:

• Data that you want to visualise and a set of aesthetic mappings describing how variables in the data are mapped to aesthetic attributes that you can perceive (eg, the x and y axis and the colors).

```
library(ggplot2)
p <- ggplot(HARD_LONG,aes(x=reorder(alg, rank, median), y=rank))</pre>
```

• Layers made up of geometric elements and statistical transformation.

- Geometric objects, geoms for short, represent what you actually see on the plot: points, lines, polygons, etc.

- Statistical transformations, stats for short, summarise data in many useful ways. For example, binning and counting observations to create a histogram, or summarising a 2d relationship with a linear model.

• The scales map values in the data space to values in an aesthetic space, whether it be colour, or size, or shape. Scales draw a legend or axes, which provide an inverse mapping to make it possible to read the original data values from the plot.

```
p <- p + scale_y_continuous(breaks=seq(1, nlevels(HARD_LONG$alg), 1))</pre>
```

• A coordinate system, coord for short, describes how data coordinates are mapped to the plane of the graphic. It also provides axes and gridlines to make it possible to read the graph. We normally use a Cartesian coordinate system, but a number of others are available, including polar coordinates and map projections.

```
p <- p + coord_cartesian(ylim=c(1,nlevels(HARD_LONG$alg)))</pre>
```

• A faceting specification describes how to break up the data into subsets and how to display those subsets as small multiples. This is also known as conditioning or latticing/trellising.

p <- p + facet_grid(.~class) # faceting</pre>

• A theme which controls the finer points of display, like the font size and background colour. But trust the defaults.

On a class of instances



On a class of instances



Stochastic Dominance

Definition: Algorithm A_1 probabilistically dominates algorithm A_2 on a problem instance, iff its CDF is always "below" that of A_2 , *i.e.*:

 $F_1(x) \leq F_2(x), \qquad \forall x \in X$



R code behind the previous plots

We load the data and plot the comparative boxplot for each instance.

```
> load("TS.class-G.dataR")
> G[1:5,]
 alg
                inst run sol time.last.imp tot.it parz.it exit.it exit.time opt
1 TS1 G = 1000 = 0.5 = 30 = 1
                         59
                                 9,900619
                                            5955
                                                    442
                                                           5955
                                                                 10.02463
                     1
                                                                           30
2 TS1 G-1000-0.5-30-1 2 64
                                 9.736608
                                            3880
                                                    130
                                                           3958
                                                                10.00062
                                                                           30
 TS1 G-1000-0.5-30-1 3 64
                                 9,908618
                                            4877
                                                     49
                                                           4877
                                                                10.03263
                                                                           30
 TS1 G-1000-0.5-30-1 4 68 9.948622
                                            6996
                                                    409
                                                           6996
                                                                10.07663
                                                                           30
4
5
 TS1 G-1000-0.5-30-1
                       5
                         63
                                 9.912620
                                            3986
                                                     52
                                                           3986
                                                                10.04063
                                                                           30
>
> library(lattice)
> bwplot(alg ~ sol | inst.data=G)
```

If we want to make an aggregate analysis we have the following choices:

- maintain the raw data,
- transform data in standard error,
- transform the data in relative error,
- transform the data in an invariant error,
- transform the data in ranks.

Maintain the raw data

```
> par(mfrow=c(3,2),las=1,font.main=1,mar=c(2,3,3,1))
```

```
> #original data
```

> boxplot(sol~alg,data=G,horizontal=TRUE,main="Original data")

Transform data in standard error

```
> #standard error
> T1 <- split(G$sol,list(G$inst))</pre>
> T2 <- lapply(T1,scale,center=TRUE,scale=TRUE)</pre>
> T3 <- unsplit(T2,list(G$inst))</pre>
> T4 <- split(T3,list(G$alg))</pre>
> T5 <- stack(T4)
> boxplot(values~ind,data=T5,horizontal=TRUE,main=expression(paste("Standard error:
> library(latticeExtra)
> ecdfplot(~values.group=ind.data=T5.main=expression(paste("Standard error:
", frac(x-bar(x), sqrt(sigma)))))
> #standard error
> G$scale <- 0
> split(G$scale, G$inst) <- lapply(split(G$sol, G$inst), scale,center=TRUE.scale=TRUE
```

Transform the data in relative error

 Transform the data in an invariant error

We use as surrogate of x^{worst} the median solution returned by the simplest algorithm for the graph coloring, that is, the ROS heuristic.

Transform the data in ranks

```
> #rank
> G$rank <- G$sol
> split(G$rank, G$inst) <- lapply(split(G$sol, D$inst), rank)
> bwplot(rank~reorder(alg,rank,median),data=G,horizontal=TRUE,main="Ranks")
> ecdfplot(rank,group=alg,data=G,main="Ranks")
```

```
> ## Let's make the ranks of the colors
> T1 <- split(DATA["col"], DATA["instance"])
> T2 <- lapply(T1, rank, n.a.last = "keep")
> T3 <- unsplit(T2, DATA["instance"])
> DATASrank <- T3
>
> ## we plot the ranks for an aggregate analysis
> ## reoder sort the factor algorithm by median values
> bwplot(reorder(alg, rank, median) ~ rank, data = DATA)
```



Scenarios

- A. Single-pass heuristics
- B. Asymptotic heuristics (can be run indefinitely with a chance of continuing to make progress):

Two approaches:

- 1. Univariate
 - 1.a Time as an external parameter decided a priori
 - 1.b Solution quality as an external parameter decided a priori
- 2. Cost dependent on running time:

Scenario B

Asymptotic heuristics

There are two approaches:

1.b. Solution quality as an external parameter decided *a priori*. The algorithm is halted when quality is reached.

Deterministic case: \mathcal{A}^{∞} on class Π finds a solution in running time *t*.

The performance of \mathcal{A}^{∞} on class Π is the scalar y = t.

Randomized case: \mathcal{A}^{∞} on class Π finds a solution in running time \mathcal{T} , where \mathcal{T} is a random variable.

The performance of \mathcal{A}^{∞} on class Π is the univariate Y = T.

Dealing with Censored Data Asymptotic heuristics, Approach 1.b

- \triangleright Heuristic \mathcal{A}^{\dashv} stopped before completion or \mathcal{A}^{∞} truncated (always the case)
- ▶ Interest: determining whether a prefixed goal (optimal/feasible) has been reached

The computational effort to attain the goal can be specified by a cumulative distribution function F(t) = P(T < t) with T in $[0, \infty)$.

If in a run i we stop the algorithm at time L_i then we have a Type I right censoring, that is, we know either

- T_i if $T_i \leq L_i$
- or $T_i \geq L_i$.

Hence, for each run *i* we need to record min(T_i , L_i) and the indicator variable for observed optimal/feasible solution attainment, $\delta_i = I(T_i \leq L_i)$.

Example Asymptotic heuristics, Approach 1.b: Example

- An exact vs an heuristic algorithm for the 2-edge-connectivity augmentation problem.
- Interest: time to find the optimum on different instances.



Uncensored:

$$F(t) = \frac{\# \operatorname{runs} < t}{n}$$

Censored:

$$F(t) = \frac{\# \operatorname{runs} < t}{n}$$

Scenarios

- A. Single-pass heuristics
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Two approaches:

- 1. Univariate
 - 1.a Time as an external parameter decided a priori
 - 1.b Solution quality as an external parameter decided a priori
- 2. Cost dependent on running time:

Scenario B

Asymptotic heuristics

There are two approaches:

2. Cost dependent on running time:

Deterministic case: \mathcal{A}^{∞} on π returns a current best solution x at each observation in t_1, \ldots, t_k .

The performance of \mathcal{A}^{∞} on π is the profile indicated by the vector $\vec{y} = \{x(t_1), \dots, x(t_k)\}.$

Randomized case: \mathcal{A}^{∞} on π produces a monotone stochastic process in solution cost $X(\tau)$ with any element dependent on the predecessors.

The performance of \mathcal{A}^{∞} on π is the multivariate $\vec{Y} = (X(t_1), X(t_2), \dots, X(t_k)).$

Example

Scenario:

- \triangleright 3 heuristics \mathcal{A}_1^{∞} , \mathcal{A}_2^{∞} , \mathcal{A}_3^{∞} on instance π .
- \triangleright single instance hence no data transformation.
- ⊳ *r* runs
- Interest: inspecting solution cost over running time to determine whether the comparison varies over time intervals

Tools:

• Quality profiles

The performance is described by multivariate random variables of the kind $\vec{Y} = \{Y(t_1), Y(t_2), \dots, Y(l_k)\}.$

Sampled data are of the form $\vec{Y}_i = \{Y_i(t_1), Y_i(t_2), \dots, Y_i(t_k)\}$, $i = 1, \dots, 10$ (10 runs per algorithm on one instance)



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The median behavior of the two algorithms

Summary

Visualize your data for your analysis and for communication to others

Explore your data:

- make plots: histograms, boxplots, empirical cumulative distribution functions, correlation/scatter plots
- look at the numerical data and interpret them in practical terms: computation times, distance from optimum
- look for patterns

All the above both at a single instance level and at an aggregate level.

Making Plots

http://algo2.iti.uni-karlsruhe.de/sanders/courses/bergen/bergenPresenting.pdf [Sanders, 2002]

- Should the experimental setup from the exploratory phase be redesigned to increase conciseness or accuracy?
- What parameters should be varied? What variables should be measured?
- How are parameters chosen that cannot be varied?
- Can tables be converted into curves, bar charts, scatter plots or any other useful graphics?
- Should tables be added in an appendix?
- Should a 3D-plot be replaced by collections of 2D-curves?
- Can we reduce the number of curves to be displayed?
- How many figures are needed?
- Should the x-axis be transformed to magnify interesting subranges?

- Should the x-axis have a logarithmic scale? If so, do the x-values used for measuring have the same basis as the tick marks?
- Is the range of x-values adequate?
- Do we have measurements for the right x-values, i.e., nowhere too dense or too sparse?
- Should the y-axis be transformed to make the interesting part of the data more visible?
- Should the y-axis have a logarithmic scale?
- Is it misleading to start the y-range at the smallest measured value? (if not too much space wasted start from 0)
- Clip the range of y-values to exclude useless parts of curves?
- Can we use banking to 45°?
- Are all curves sufficiently well separated?
- Can noise be reduced using more accurate measurements?
- Are error bars needed? If so, what should they indicate? Remember that measurement errors are usually not random variables.
- Connect points belonging to the same curve.
- Only use splines for connecting points if interpolation is sensible.
- Do not connect points belonging to unrelated problem instances.
- Use different point and line styles for different curves.
- Use the same styles for corresponding curves in different graphs.
- Place labels defining point and line styles in the right order and without concealing the curves.
- Give axis units
- Captions should make figures self contained.
- Give enough information to make experiments reproducible.
- Golden ratio rule: make the graph wider than higher [Tufte 1983].
- Rule of 7: show at most 7 curves (omit those clearly irrelevant).
- Avoid: explaining axes, connecting unrelated points by lines, cryptic abbreviations, microscopic lettering, pie charts

References

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