



Experimentation

- define a set of goals / objectives
- formulate a question or hypothesis
- design the experiments (algorithm runs may be considered as experiments)
- collect necessary data
- analyze data
- design further experiments

Goals for Experimentation

- obtain a good solution for a given problem
- show that a specific approach is applicable in a problem domain
- show that a proposed algorithm improves a benchmark case
- show that an algorithm outperforms traditional algorithms

Goals for Experimentation

- find the best parameter setup for an algorithm
- explain an algorithm behavior
- show if an algorithm scales-up with problem size
- experiment with effect of parameter settings on performance

Different Goals

- find a very good solution at least once design
- find a good solution at almost every run production
- must meet scientific standards for publication

Test Problems

- · benchmark problems
- · real-world problems
- randomly generated problems
- · choice of test problem has severe implications on
 - generalizability
 - scope of the results
 - conclusions usually depend even on the chosen problem instances

Test Problems

- · using real-world data
- · advantages:
 - results very relevant from the application point of view
- disadvantages
 - can be over-complicated
 - can be few available sets of real data
- may be commercial sensitive difficult to publish and
- to allow others to compare
- results are hard to generalize

Test Problems

- use standard data sets in problem repositories, e.g.: – OR-Library
 - http://www.ms.ic.ac.uk/info.html
 - UCI Machine Learning Repository
 - www.ics.uci.edu/~mlearn/MLRepository.html
- advantage:
 - well-chosen problems and instances
 - much other work on these \rightarrow results comparable
- disadvantage:
 - not real might miss crucial aspect
 - algorithms get tuned for popular test suites

Test Problems

- random problem instance generators, e.g.:
 GA/EA Repository of Test Problem Generators http://www.cs.uwyo.edu/~wspears/generators.html
- advantage:
- allow very systematic comparisons because they:
- can produce many instances with the same characteristics
- enable gradual increase / decrease of hardness)
- can be shared allowing comparisons with other researchers
- disadvantage
- not real might miss crucial aspects of problem
- a generator might have hidden bias

Analysis of Results

- NIHs are stochastic, i.e.,
 - do not draw conclusions based on a single run
 - perform sufficient number of independent runs
 - use statistical measures (averages, standard deviations, ...)
 - use statistical tests

Analysis of Results

- for comparisons:
 - always do a fair competition
 - use the same amount of resources for the competitors
 - use the same performance measures

What to Measure

- average result in given time
- average time for given result
- proportion of runs within % of target
- best result over *n* runs
- amount of computing required to reach target in given time with % confidence

• ...

What Time Units?

- elapsed time? - depends on computer, network, etc...
- CPU time?
 - depends on skill of programmer, implementation, etc...
- generations / iterations?
 - difficult to compare when parameters like population size change
- evaluations?
 - evaluation time could depend on algorithm, e.g. direct vs. indirect representation

Measures

- performance measures (offline)
 - efficiency (speed)
 - CPU time
 - no. of steps, i.e., generated points in the search space
 - effectivity (alg. quality)
 - · success rate
 - solution quality at termination

Measures

- "working" measures (online)
 - population distribution (genotypic)
 - fitness distribution
- improvements per time unit or per genetic operator
- -...

Performance Measures

- no. of generated points, i.e. no. of fitness evaluations
- · AES: average no. of evaluations to solution
- SR: success rate = % of runs finding a solution (individual with acceptable quality / fitness)
- MBF: mean best fitness at termination, i.e., best per run, mean over a set of runs
- SR ≠ MBF
 - low SR, high MBF: good approximizer (more time helps?
 - high SR, low MBF

Fair Experimentation

- allow all algorithms the same amount of running time
- allow each NIH to compare, the same no. of evaluations, but
 - look out for hidden labour, e.g. in heuristic mutation operators
 - lookout for the possibility of fewer evaluations by smart operators

No Free Lunch Theorem - NFL

There does not exist any algorithm which is better than another over all possible instances of optimization problems.

Analysis of Algorithms

- · worst-case analysis
- average-case analysis
- · experimental analysis

Experimental Research

- experimental design
- experimental analysis

Most Common Errors

- reporting result of 1 run is sufficient
- reporting best result of several runs is sufficient
- using plots is sufficient; no statistics needed obvious from plots !
- reporting averages of several runs is sufficient

Why Need Statistics?

• need to draw strongest possible conclusions from limited data

- two problems:
 - important differences may be obscured by experimental imprecision
 - hard to distinguish between real differences and random
 - variation
 - · tendency to over-generalize from limited data

Why Need Statistics?

- statistics allow general conclusions

 extrapolating from SAMPLE to POPULATION
 - sample: data collected from experiments
 - · population: data from all possible experiments

What can Statistics Do?

- · statistical estimation
 - estimate population mean from sample mean
- statistical hypothesis testing

 decide whether observed difference is likely to be
- caused by chance
- statistical modeling
 - test how well experimental data fit a model
 e.g. linear regression

Why are Averages not Sufficient?

- assume two methods: A and B
- want to show method A better than method B
 - is the difference between means greater than 0?



Why are Averages not Sufficient?

- interested in distribution of mean of n samples
 - as n gets bigger, distribution approaches true mean
- want to be able to say:
- In x% of all possible experiments, the true mean of this distribution will lie within a specified interval.

Confidence Intervals

- confidence interval of a proportion
- confidence interval of a mean

Confidence Interval of a Mean

• CI is a range of values

- e.g. 95%CI: can be 95% sure that CI includes true population mean
 - no uncertainty about sample mean!!!!
 - commonly shown as
 - 20.0 to 32.0
 - [20.0, 32.0]

Confidence Interval of a Mean

- · assumption: population distributed according to Gaussian distribution
 - not too important if large samples used
 - central limit theorem
- to calculate CI:
 - sample mean
 - sample SD
 - sample size
 - how much confidence?
 - typically 95% (sometimes 99%: wider interval)

Central Limit Theorem

- CLT: sum of independent, identically distributed (IID) random variables approaches a Gaussian
- CLT: regardless of the distribution of values in population, for large sample sizes, the distribution of means from independently chosen samples will approximate a Gaussian distribution
- how large?
- depends on definition of "approximately" and the distribution of population even if weird distribution, 100 samples enough
 - if approximately symmetrical and unimodal, 10 20 samples enough

Comparing Groups with Confidence Intervals

• CI of a difference between means - can be x% sure that value of true difference between populations lies within CI (implicit t-test)

Comparing Groups with Confidence Intervals

• Are CI sufficient for a comparison?

Assume two approaches A and B:

Case 1: 95%CI for A: 125 to 750 95%CI for B: 900 to 1800

Case 2:

95%CI for A: 125 to 1300 95%CI for B: 900 to 1800

p-Values

· for comparing two groups

- CI of difference between means
 - question: How large is the difference in the overall population?
- using p-values
 - question: How sure are we that there is a difference between the populations?
 - observed difference may be due to coincidence or random sampling
 - · tells you how rare such a coincidence is

p-Values

- p-value : if both are from the <u>same</u> distribution, <u>probability</u> that difference the between the means of randomly selected samples will be larger than or equal to observed
- null hypothesis (H_0) : distributions in the two populations are the same
- t-test
 - t-test assumes Gaussian distribution and equal SDs

p-Values

Example:

- assume p value is 0.034
 - 3.4% of all experiments will result in a difference ≥ observed
- two possible interpretations: – they have different means
 - they have identical means and observed difference is a coincidence
- can't say if H₀ is correct or not !

Statistical Significance & Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis Testing:

- 1. assume samples randomly selected from populations
- 2. state null hypothesis: distribution of values in two populations same
- define threshold for declaring p value significant (*significance level of test* : α)
- usually α chosen as 0.05
- 4. select test and calculate p
- 5. if $p < \alpha \rightarrow$ difference is *statistically significant* and *reject null hypothesis*

Significance

- if α =0.05: is p=0.04 more significant then p=0.004?
 - based on definition: no
 - sometimes "very significant" and "extremely significant" used
 - commonly:
 - p<0.05 : significant p<0.01 : highly significant p<0.001: extremely significant</pre>

Significance

- if α=0.05:
 - p = 0.049 shows a significant difference
 - p = 0.051 shows a not significant difference
- look at p value itself
- if p is slightly greater than $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$
 - sometimes "marginally significant" or "almost significant" is used
 - or add a third category: significant, not significant and inconclusive

Significance

- · if not significant
 - can not say null hypothesis is true !
 - means data not strong enough to reject null hypothesis

Non-Parametric Tests

- · does not assume Gaussian distribution
- Mann-Whitney rank sum test
- · Wilcoxon rank sum test
 - usually called Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon test
 - works on ranks of values
 rank data points regardless of group
 - if a tie occurs, give average of the ranks
 - add up ranks in each group
 - question: if distribution of ranks between two groups were random, what is the probability that the difference between the sums would be so large?
 - use p-value
- · alternately use t-test on ranks

Parametric x Non-Parametric Tests

- use non-parametric if:
 - definitely sure that no Gaussian distribution
 - data has very large outliers
- · if parametric tests used with non-Gaussian distributions
 - OK if large sample sizes
 - what is large?

Comparing Three or More Means

- · ANOVA : one-way analysis of variance
 - analyzes variance among values
 - tests null hypothesis that all populations have identical means
 - calculates p-value
 - if null hypothesis were true, what is the probability that the means of randomly selected samples will vary as much as or more than what has occurred?
 - has same assumptions as t-test
 - can't say which is better

Multiple Comparison Post Tests

- · many tests
 - compare control group mean to all others? -Dunnett's test
 - compare all Bonferroni, Tukey, Student-Newman-Keuls
 - · Bonferoni: easiest and most common but too large CIs (do not use if ≥ 5 groups)
- for non-parametric testing
 - Kruskal-Wallis test

MANOVA

- use MANOVA if comparing
 - multiple groups and
 - effects of multiple factors

References for Presentation

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