

On the Influence of the Representation Granularity in Heuristic Forma Recombination

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ABSTRACT

This work studies a mechanism for reducing the computational cost of heuristic recombination operators. The mechanism is based on adjusting the size of the macro-formae processed during recombination. Using the Dynastically Optimal Forma recombination framework as a test model, it is shown that the computational cost can be dramatically reduced. Moreover, intermediate granularities seem to provide the best tradeoff between the computational cost and the quality of the results.

Keywords

Genetic Algorithms, Heuristic Recombination, Scalability.

1. INTRODUCTION

Although evolutionary algorithms were originally devised as robust and general techniques, the necessity of incorporating problem dependent knowledge has been shown to be a strong requirement both in theory [6,14], and practice [4]. These problem-adapted algorithms are usually termed *hybrid* algorithms. As it can be seen in most application-oriented scientific papers, there exists a plethora of mechanisms for carrying out hybridization. One of the most popular techniques is the integration of a heuristic domain-dependent algorithm within the evolutionary algorithm, e.g., a local search procedure [8,9], a construction heuristic [13], an exhaustive search algorithm [1], etc.

One of the most common problems of using these hybrid approaches is the increased computational cost of the resulting algorithms (for example, consider the case of many *smart* recombination operators that build locally optimal offspring). This work studies a mechanism for alleviating this problem, based on tuning the so-called granularity of the representation. The DOR framework [3] is used as a test field for this mechanism. This choice has been made because of the strong heuristic behavior of DOR and its sensitiveness to the problem dimensionality. Nevertheless, the principles

described can be generalized to other heuristic procedures.

The remainder of the article is organized as follows: first, some basic concepts and background information on the DOR operator are given in Sect. 2. Subsequently, the functioning of the operator is detailed in Sect. 3, introducing the concept of granularity of the representation and evaluating its influence in the computational cost of the algorithm. Next, experimental results regarding the effects of modifying the granularity are reported in Sect. 4. Finally, some conclusions are presented in Sect. 5, outlining future work as well.

2. DYNASTICALLY OPTIMAL FORMA RECOMBINATION

This section is intended to provide some background information on the functioning of the DOR operator. First of all, let $\Xi = \{\psi_1, \dots, \psi_n\}$ be a set of n independent equivalence relations defined over the search space \mathcal{S} such that

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{S} \forall y \in \mathcal{S} \exists i (1 \leq i \leq n): \psi_i(x, y) = 0, \quad (1)$$

i.e., no pair of solutions share membership to the same equivalence classes for all equivalence relations in Ξ . In this case, Ξ is said to *cover* the search space, and each solution $x \in \mathcal{S}$ can be univocally represented as $x = \{\eta_1, \dots, \eta_n\}$ where η_i is the equivalence class (for the sake of simplicity, the same symbol used to denote an equivalence class is utilized for labeling it) to which x belongs under ψ_i . Each of these equivalence classes is termed a *basic forma* [10].

Now, let $x = \{\eta_1, \dots, \eta_n\}$ and $y = \{\zeta_1, \dots, \zeta_n\}$ be two feasible individuals. The *dynastic potential* of x and y is defined as

$$\Gamma(\{x, y\}) = \bigcap_{1 \leq i \leq n} (\eta_i \cup \zeta_i), \quad (2)$$

i.e., the set of individuals that can be constructed using nothing but the information contained in x and y . Next, let $X: \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{S} \rightarrow [0,1]$ be a stochastic recombination operator (where $X(x,y,z)$ is the probability of generating z when recombining x and y). The *immediate dynastic span* of x and y is

$$\Gamma_X^I(\{x, y\}) = \{z \mid X(x, y, z) > 0\}. \quad (3)$$

If $\Gamma_X^I(\{x, y\}) \subseteq \Gamma(\{x, y\})$, X is said to be a *transmitting* operator. An example of such an operator is the Random Transmitting Recombination operator [12] defined as

$$\text{RTR}(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} 1/|\Gamma(\{x, y\})| & z \in \Gamma(\{x, y\}) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}. \quad (4)$$

Thus, RTR returns a random member of $\Gamma(\{x, y\})$, all individuals having the same probability of being selected, e.g., uniform crossover in binary representations. As stated in [3], this uniform selection is inappropriate if problem-dependent knowledge is available. For example, consider the case in which Ξ is orthogonal, i.e., all combinations of formae induced by different equivalence relations are feasible. In this case, it is clear that

$$\Gamma(\{x, y\}) = \{ z = \{ \xi_i, \dots, \xi_n \} \mid (\xi_i \equiv \eta_i) \vee (\xi_i \equiv \zeta_i) \}. \quad (5)$$

Hence, RTR would simply select at random and independently whether $z \in \eta_i$ or $z \in \zeta_i$. However, if the formae are epistatic, the contribution of each forma η to the fitness of an individual $x \in \eta$ depends on the other formae to which x belongs. Hence, RTR may reduce to macromutation due to the fact that the context in which a certain forma is immersed is very likely to be disrupted.

The Dynastically Optimal Forma Recombination Operator (DOR) tries to solve this problem by considering partial knowledge about the fitness function. To be precise, let $\phi: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the fitness function, using the notation $\phi[\mathcal{R}]$ to represent the image of $\mathcal{R} \subseteq S$ under ϕ . Assume that a partial order relation \prec is defined over $\phi[S]$, such that x is better than y if, and only if, $\phi(x) \prec \phi(y)$. Then, DOR is defined as a transmitting recombination operator for which

$$\text{DOR}(x, y, z) > 0 \Rightarrow \phi(z) \in \sup_{\prec}(\phi[\Gamma(\{x, y\})]) \quad (6)$$

holds. Hence, DOR returns the best individual (or one of the best individuals) of the dynastic potential. Notice that, ideally, it would be desirable that DOR defined a uniform probability distribution over all members of the supreme set $\sup_{\prec}(\phi[\Gamma(\{x, y\})])$. Nevertheless, this is difficult to achieve in many situations for practical reasons. As a matter of fact, it may be hard even finding a single member of this set, as shown in next section.

3. REPRESENTATION GRANULARITY

According to the definition of the DOR operator given in Sect. 2, an exhaustive search must be performed in the dynastic potential $\Gamma(\{x, y\})$ in order to determine the returned child. For this purpose, the most efficient option is to use an A*-like mechanism for incrementally constructing solutions. This mechanism is described below in more detail, introducing the concept of granularity of the representation.

3.1 The Internal Functioning of DOR

Let Ψ_i^j , $0 \leq i \leq n$, $2^j \leq j \leq 2^{i+1} - 1$, represent a forma of order i , i.e., a partially specified solution whose membership to i equivalence classes is specified (or, alternatively, the set of all solutions that belong to the currently specified equivalence classes). Initially, $\Psi_0^1 = S$; subsequently,

$$\Psi_{i+1}^{2^j} = \Psi_i^j \cap \Sigma(\Psi_i^j, x, y), \quad \text{and} \quad (7)$$

$$\Psi_{i+1}^{2^{j+1}} = \Psi_i^j \cap \Sigma(\Psi_i^j, y, x) \quad (8)$$

are considered, where the *construction units* $\Sigma(\Psi_i^j, w, u)$ are defined as

$$\Sigma(\Psi_i^j, w, u) = \bigcap_{1 \leq k \leq g} \xi_k, \quad w \in \xi_k, \quad (9)$$

i.e., the intersection of some of the basic formae w belongs to (the purpose of the third parameter u will be seen in the next

subsection). The parameter g is termed *granularity of the representation*. Now, it is necessary to use a monotonic function $\phi^*: \mathcal{X}(S) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ verifying that

$$1. \forall x \in S: \phi^*(\{x\}) = \phi(x), \quad (10)$$

$$2. \forall s \in \mathcal{X}[S]: s \prec \phi^*(\{s\}), \quad (11)$$

$$3. \forall \mathcal{R} \subseteq S \not\equiv \mathcal{R}: \exists r \in \mathcal{R}: r \prec \phi^*(\mathcal{R}), \quad \text{and} \quad (12)$$

$$4. \forall \mathcal{R} \subseteq S \not\equiv \mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{R}: \phi^*(\mathcal{T}) \prec \phi^*(\mathcal{R}). \quad (13)$$

Actually, ϕ^* need not be defined over all arbitrary sets of solutions but just on sets defined by the intersection of the basic formae induced by Ξ . This function comprises the available knowledge about the fitness function ϕ , proportionating optimistic estimations of partially specified solutions. These estimations are used to determine the order in which the formae Ψ_i^j are generated. They are also used to discard those formae for which $\phi_{\text{best}} \prec \phi^*(\Psi_i^j)$, where ϕ_{best} be the fitness of the best-so-far generated solution. This value is updated whenever a forma $\Psi_{i=n}^j$ such that $\phi^*(\Psi_{i=n}^j) \prec \phi_{\text{best}}$ is generated. Initially $\phi_{\text{best}} \in \inf_{\prec} \{ \phi[S] \}$.

3.2 Basic Granularity of the Representation

The structure of the construction units (and hence the granularity parameter g) is determined by the characteristics of the representation. The simplest scenario is that in which the representation is orthogonal. In this case, and according to Eq. (5), the dynastic potential $\Gamma(\{x, y\})$ is the Cartesian product of all pairs $\{\eta_i, \zeta_i\}$, $x \in \eta_i$, $y \in \zeta_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$. For this reason, it is possible to extend any partially specified solution by considering a single basic forma at a time, i.e.,

$$\Sigma(\Psi_i^j, w, u) = \Sigma(\Psi_i^j, \{ \xi_i, \dots, \xi_n \}, u) = \xi_{i+1}. \quad (14)$$

This small granularity ($g=1$) is not always possible if the representation is non-orthogonal. As an example, consider the position-based representation of permutations [2,5]. In this representation $\Xi = \{ \psi_i, \dots, \psi_n \}$, where $\psi_i(x, y) = 1$ if, and only if, x and y have the same element in the i th position. Each of these equivalence relations ψ_i induce n equivalence classes η_{ij} , each one comprising all solutions in which j occurs in the i th position. Clearly, using the construction units defined in Eq. (14) would be a waste of computational resources since many of the generated formae would consider repeated elements and hence would be empty (i.e., infeasible). Moreover, even when a particular forma Ψ_i^j were not infeasible per se, it might happen that $\Psi_i^j \cap \Gamma(\{x, y\}) = \{ \}$. This would be detected when at a further step both $\Sigma(\Psi_i^j, x, y)$ and $\Sigma(\Psi_i^j, y, x)$ were empty for all descendants of Ψ_i^j . All the computational effort needed to extend Ψ_i^j to Ψ_i^j would have been useless.

In the above-mentioned case, construction units must be more complex. To be precise, let the *compatibility set* of a basic forma η ($x \in \eta$) be defined as

$$K(\Psi_i^j, \eta, x, y) = \bigcap \eta_k, \Psi_i^j \cap \Gamma(\{x, y\}) \cap \eta \cap \bar{\eta}_k = \{ \}, \quad (15)$$

i.e., the intersection of all formae η_k ($x \in \eta_k$) that must be included along with η to preserve feasibility within the dynastic potential. Then, the construction units can be built as

$$\Sigma(\Psi_i^j, w, u) = K(\Psi_i^j, \xi, w, u), \quad (16)$$

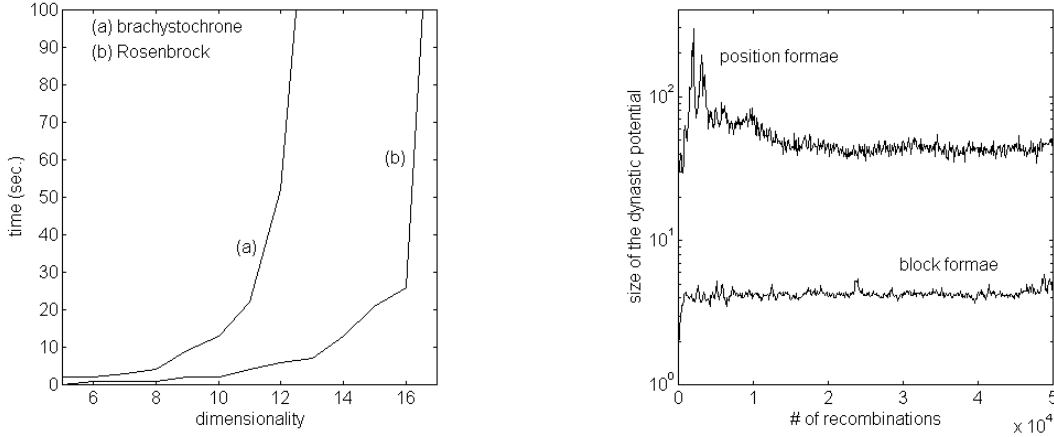


Figure 1. (Left) Time required for performing 100 recombinations of random individuals for increasing dimensionalities of two epistatic problems (the design of a brachystochrone and the Rosenbrock function). **(Right)** Evolution of the size of the dynastic potential for two different representations on a 1-EMP instance of 100 elements. Notice the use of a logarithmic scale.

where ξ ($w \in \xi$) is a forma not yet considered in Ψ_i^j . Considering again the example of position formae, compatibility sets are recursively defined as follows:

$$\eta_{ab} \supseteq K(\Psi_i^j, \eta_{ab}, x, y) \quad (17)$$

$$\eta_{cd} \supseteq K(\Psi_i^j, \eta_{ab}, x, y), y \in \eta_{ce}, x \in \eta_{fe} \Rightarrow \eta_{fe} \supseteq K(\Psi_i^j, \eta_{ab}, x, y). \quad (18)$$

These compatibility sets are termed *cycles*, and constitute the basic units that can be transferred from parents to offspring in order to have a transmitting recombination of position formae. Notice that the user does not have explicit control on the size of these cycles.

3.3 Granularity and the Complexity of DOR

The granularity of the representation has an unquestionable impact on the time complexity of the algorithm. Consider that the size of the dynastic potential is $O(2^m)$, where m is the number of construction units that can be identified in the selected individuals. Thus, in the case of orthogonal representations, the size of the dynastic potential is $|\Gamma(\{x, y\})| = 2^n$ since each construction unit comprises a single forma. Obviously, this size is only relevant when epistasis is involved. Otherwise, DOR must simply scan the recombinated individuals, selecting the formae that individually optimize the fitness function. Hence it has linear-time complexity.

In the case of epistatic representations, the exponential growth of the dynastic potential becomes very important. As an example, Figure 1 (left) shows the time required for performing one hundred recombinations of randomly generated individuals as a function of the dimensionality of the problem. To be precise, the design of a brachystochrone [7] and the Rosenbrock function have been used¹. As it can be seen, the computational cost grows extremely fast for

dimensionalities above 10 in the first problem and 16 in the second one, thus confirming the influence of the number of construction units. Of course, there exist other factors affecting the time complexity of the operator, namely the amount of knowledge used in the ϕ^* function. If this function were defined to return a constant value for underspecified solutions (i.e., if no problem-knowledge were used), DOR would reduce to an exhaustive enumeration of all members of the dynastic potential and hence 2^n individuals would have to be evaluated. On the contrary, if ϕ^* provides good estimations of the fitness function this quantity can be dramatically reduced, so as to become affordable for a certain range of dimensionalities.

It is interesting to notice that, as the algorithm converges, individuals tend to be more similar and hence their dynastic potential is reduced. To be precise, suppose that the individuals to be recombined share membership to a set of basic formae $\Theta = \theta_1 \cap \dots \cap \theta_m$. If the representation is *separable*² (i.e., it is possible to create a child $z \in \theta_1 \cap \theta_2 \cap \theta_3$ provided that $x \in \theta_1 \cap \theta_2$, and $y \in \theta_2 \cap \theta_3$, where θ , ζ and ξ are any three basic formae), it is clear that $\Gamma(\{x, y\}) \subseteq \Theta$. The search can be subsequently started from $\Psi_0^1 = \Theta$, thus, reducing the search space to, at most, 2^{n-m} solutions.

Nevertheless, it must be taken into account that, even when the above consideration is true, it does not necessarily imply that the number of construction units in non-orthogonal representations decrease as well. As an example consider the permutations 12345678 and 23156784. From the point of view of position formae, they do not belong to any common basic forma, existing two compatibility sets in each permutation: {123■■■■■} and {■■■■45678} from the first one and {231■■■■■} and {■■■■56784} from the second

¹ These two problems are defined over real-valued variables. Different definitions of formae are possible in this case (e.g., see [11]). The equivalence relations $\psi_i(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = 1 \Leftrightarrow (x_i = y_i)$ have been used in this work.

² Non-separable representations (e.g., the edge-based representation of permutations) are difficult to handle for several reasons (see [2]). Thus, they are deferred to a further work.

Table 1. Mean best fitness for the Rosenbrock function (averaged for 20 runs). The best results are shown in boldface.

Operator	Dimensionality				
	8	12	16	24	32
SPX	14.59	20.88	21.18	103.02	442.59
UX	10.02	21.98	37.30	218.07	856.47
AX	5.91	14.38	29.80	127.29	319.26
R ³	6.60	11.26	42.01	145.14	361.42
DOR _{g=1}	3.44	6.36	15.53	-	-
DOR _{g=2}	4.97	10.35	16.63	42.62	299.52
DOR _{g=4}	10.74	22.78	27.91	39.26	69.86
DOR _{g=8}	6.67	11.16	28.75	66.41	81.42

Table 2. Mean best fitness for the Brachystochrone problem (averaged for 20 runs). The best results are shown in boldface.

Operator	Number of Pillars								
	8	12	16	24	32	40	48	56	64
SPX	1.1577	1.1788	1.2156	1.2713	1.3908	1.6262	1.7787	2.1049	2.5971
UX	1.1757	1.2300	1.2862	1.3499	1.5305	1.6771	1.9379	2.2172	2.6658
AX	1.1560	1.1668	1.1828	1.2219	1.2722	1.3534	1.4841	1.6327	1.8845
R ³	1.1540	1.1627	1.1783	1.2149	1.2803	1.3683	1.5295	1.7357	1.9061
DOR _{g=1}	1.1530	1.1549	1.1779	-	-	-	-	-	-
DOR _{g=2}	1.1544	1.1628	1.1726	1.2110	-	-	-	-	-
DOR _{g=3}	1.1548	1.1798	1.1815	1.2458	1.2660	1.3827	-	-	-
DOR _{g=4}	1.1574	1.1901	1.1944	1.2485	1.2971	1.3413	1.4759	2.1635	-
DOR _{g=5}	1.1601	1.1919	1.2111	1.2494	1.2977	1.3468	1.3886	1.5386	2.1009
DOR _{g=6}	1.1649	1.2010	1.2053	1.2598	1.3001	1.3483	1.3695	1.4720	1.6750
DOR _{g=7}	1.1729	1.1998	1.2112	1.2635	1.2981	1.3646	1.4073	1.4821	1.5894

($popsiz=100$, $p_c=.9$, $maxevals = 10^5$) using ranking selection ($\eta^+=2.0$, $\eta^-=0.0$) has been utilized. In order to compare DOR with other classical operators, the internal partial evaluations have been considered. More precisely, computing the optimistic evaluation of a construction unit of granularity g is accounted as g/n evaluations.

The first results (shown in Table 1) correspond to the Rosenbrock function. In this problem, variables have been encoded using 64 bits, and p_m has been set to $1/64$. For comparison purposes, the experiments have been realized with some classical operators such as single-point crossover (SPX), uniform crossover (UX), arithmetic crossover (AX) and random respectful recombination (R³) [11]. When using the DOR operator, mutation is always performed before recombination (thus, new material is still introduced in the population but the smart recombination performed by DOR is preserved).

As it can be seen, low values of g are in general better for low dimensionalities of the function. It is interesting to see that, in the case $n=32$, DOR_{g=1} has a prohibitive computational cost, and DOR_{g=2} is less expensive but consumes very quickly the allocated number of epistatic calculations. For these instances, it seems that a ratio $7 \leq n/g \leq 9$ provides the best results.

The next results correspond to the brachystochrone design problem. As shown in Figure 2 (right), DOR has a comparatively higher computational cost in this problem than for the Rosenbrock function. For this reason, a wider range of granularities and dimensionalities has been tried. In this problem, variables are encoded with 16 bits, p_m is set to $1/16$ and $maxevals=5 \cdot 10^5$. The results are shown in Table 2. Again, low values of g are better when the dimensionality of the

problem is small, becoming the quality of the results slightly worse when the granularity is increased. Also, for large dimensionalities of the function (i.e., above 32), low values of g are either prohibitive or provide worse results. As previously mentioned, this is due to the fact that a higher number of construction units are manipulated and hence the algorithm is prematurely terminated.

Finally, experiments have been done using k -EMP instances of different dimensionalities. The first results correspond to 1-EMP instances. As for the previous test problems, other recombination operators for permutations such as PMX, three variants of OX, RCX, UCX, BX and UBX (all described in [2]) have been also used. The results for these operators are shown in Table 3. Notice the poor results of the different variants of order crossover. This is due to the fact that this problem is defined on the basis of position formae rather than precedence formae. For that reason, UCX (*Uniform Cycle Crossover*) provides the best results. It is interesting to notice that this operator is based on a blind interchange of the compatibility sets defined in Eqs. (17) and (18).

Table 4 shows the results of the DOR operator. In this problem, the granularity is tuned by defining a maximum allowed number of construction units f . Whenever the number of construction units is greater than f , two of them are picked at random and joined. This process is repeated until at most f construction units are available. Compacting cycles as indicated in Eqs. (20) and (21) has also been tried (*blocks*).

As it can be seen, the results for very coarse granularities (i.e., low values of f) are worse than for fine granularities. DOR_{block} is included in the former category since, as shown in Figure 1 (left), its equivalent f value is never greater than 4 on average. As a matter of fact, the performance of DOR_{block} is

Table 3. Results of classical operators on 1-EMP problems (averaged for 20 runs). The best results are shown in boldface.

# of elements	Operator							
	OX#1	OX#2	OX#3	PMX	RCX	UCX	BX	UBX
100	2534	2809	2375	795	911	647	963	945
125	4412	4667	4046	1373	1598	1066	1715	1662
150	6803	7571	6502	2114	2537	1660	2637	2665
200	13607	14809	12845	4317	5244	3468	5364	5423

Table 4. Results of the DOR operator on 1-EMP problems (averaged for 20 runs). The best results are shown in boldface.

# of elements	blocks	Number of construction units allowed (f)									
		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	∞
100	572	773	346	319	316	315	302	312	297	319	317
125	1012	1318	533	482	478	454	481	494	466	463	478
150	1595	2151	773	691	668	670	657	675	648	679	672
200	3245	4293	1370	1193	1135	1116	1140	1142	1126	1175	1171

Table 5. Results of the DOR operator on k -EMP problems (averaged for 20 runs). The best results are shown in boldface.

f	$k=2$				$k=5$				$k=10$			
	100	125	150	200	100	125	150	200	100	125	150	200
2	1114	1959	3099	6358	3193	5693	9007	18747	14847	27396	44099	94567
3	481	750	1075	2106	1295	2081	3261	6184	6397	10114	16183	33022
4	407	634	912	1614	994	1655	2452	4706	4878	8046	12622	23733
5	410	616	939	1537	1065	1625	2278	4195	4292	7721	11771	22875
6	406	633	898	1534	1023	1591	2415	4112	4754	8140	11717	21986
7	427	633	915	1566	1239	1710	2387	4395	4887	8381	12053	22266
8	444	653	961	1577	1074	1729	2557	4736	4667	8469	12339	23024
9	432	644	930	1622	1081	1747	2483	4819	4932	8632	13565	23958
10	416	634	955	1644	1181	1866	2661	4858	5252	9073	14210	25823
∞	431	681	1482	7282	1179	2416	13783	58132	7958	34085	139033	381955

intermediate between $f=2$ and $f=3$. Notice that the performance is stabilized around $f=6$, with a slight tendency to decrease for higher values. In any case, the quality of the results is always better than UCX (with the exception of the extreme situation $f=2$).

To confirm these results, further experiments with the DOR operator have been realized with higher degrees of epistasis ($k=2, 5$, and 10). The results are shown in Table 5. In these experiments, the behavior of the algorithm is clearer. First, notice that the quality of the results is improved when f is increased up from $f=2$ (this is also depicted in Figure 3, left). The best results are achieved in the intermediate values $f=5$ and $f=6$, existing a soft degradation of performance for higher values of f . The reason for this behavior has already been mentioned: low values of f reduce the chances for transferring information from parents to offspring, while high values of f quickly consume the allocated number of epistatic calculations. This bowl-like shape is illustrated in Figure 3 (right).

5. CONCLUSIONS

This work has studied the functioning of a heuristic recombination operator (DOR) on the basis of the construction units used for creating new solutions. To be precise, the size of these construction units (i.e., the so-called *granularity* of the representation) has been considered as a

central factor for determining the computational cost of the operator and the quality of the results it provides.

It has been shown that there exists a basic (ground-level) granularity for each representation. This basic granularity is minimal in the case of orthogonal representations, in which basic formae can be freely combined. However, the basic granularity is variable when dealing with non-orthogonal separable representations. In this situation, it depends upon the size of the basic transference units (i.e., the *compatibility sets*), and it is not under direct control of the user.

There exists an empirically corroborated relationship between the granularity (and hence the size of the dynamic potential of the solutions to be recombined) and the computational cost of the DOR operator. Thus, it has been proposed to increase the granularity factor (i.e., use larger construction units) to reduce this cost.

An extensive experimental investigation has been done in order to assess the influence that this modification of the basic granularity has on the quality of the results provided by the algorithm. The results have been satisfactory, since it has been shown that the performance is significantly degraded only for extremely larger construction units. Moreover, intermediate granularities provide better results than very fine granularities since the former consume less computational resources (and hence the algorithm can be executed for a larger number of iterations).

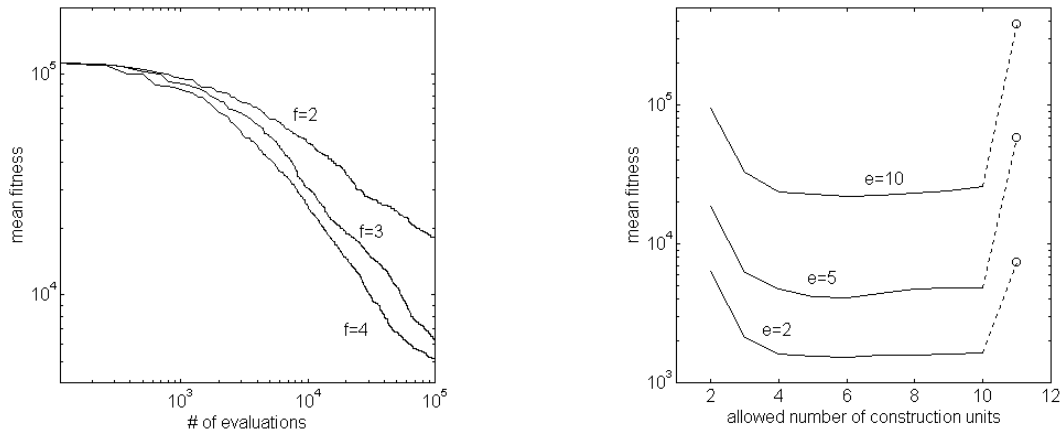


Figure 3 (Left) Comparison of the evolution of fitness in a 5-EMP instance of 200 elements for different numbers of construction units. **(Right)** Results of DOR for 2-EMP, 5-EMP and 10-EMP instances of 200 elements as a function of the number of allowed construction units. The rounded point corresponds to the case $f = \infty$. Notice the use of a logarithmic scale in both graphs.

This work admits several extensions. First of all, and as mentioned in Sect. 1, DOR has been chosen as test model because it is a strongly heuristic operator and it is sensitive to the dimensionality of the problem considered. However, the idea of granularity adjustment can be applied to other heuristic techniques, e.g., embedded hill-climbers. In this sense, validating the conclusions of this work in the context of other hybrid models constitutes a very interesting line of research in which work is already in progress.

On the other hand, extending these results to non-separable representations is a line of future work too. Among other problems, it is difficult to determine the compatibility sets for this kind of representations. Furthermore, common formae cannot be imposed to the child. For these reasons, it is not completely clear how to increase the granularity in this case.

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