合肥大學
HEFEI UNIVERSITY



Programming with Python

20. Mengen

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Programming with Python



Dies ist ein Kurs über das Programmieren mit der Programmiersprache Python an der Universität Hefei (合肥大学).

Die Webseite mit dem Lehrmaterial dieses Kurses ist https://thomasweise.github.io/programmingWithPython (siehe auch den QR-Kode unten rechts). Dort können Sie das Kursbuch (in Englisch) und diese Slides finden. Das Repository mit den Beispielprogrammen in Python finden Sie unter https://github.com/thomasWeise/programmingWithPythonCode.



Outline



1. Einleitung
2. Beispiele
3. Zusammenfassung



Einleitung

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- Listen und Tuples sind klassische Sequenz-basierte Datenstrukturen.

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- Sie können ein Element höchstens einmal beihalten.

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Gute Praxis

Speichern Sie nur unveränderliche Objekte in Mengen.

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- Sie können ein Element höchstens einmal beihalten.
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- Mengen selbst sind aber veränderlich.

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- Mengen selbst sind aber veränderlich.

Gute Praxis

Mengen sind ungeordnet. Machen Sie niemals irgendwelche Annahmen darüber, in welche Reihenfolge Ojekte in Mengen gespeichert werden.

Einleitung



- Listen und Tuples sind klassische Sequenz-basierte Datenstrukturen.
- Eine weitere klassische Datenstruktur ist die Menge (EN: *set*).
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- Mengen sind ungeordnete Kollektionen[233].

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- Mengen selbst sind aber veränderlich.
- Mengen sind ungeordnete Kollektionen[233].
- Deshalb können wir Mengen auch nicht indizieren (anders als Listen oder Tupels).

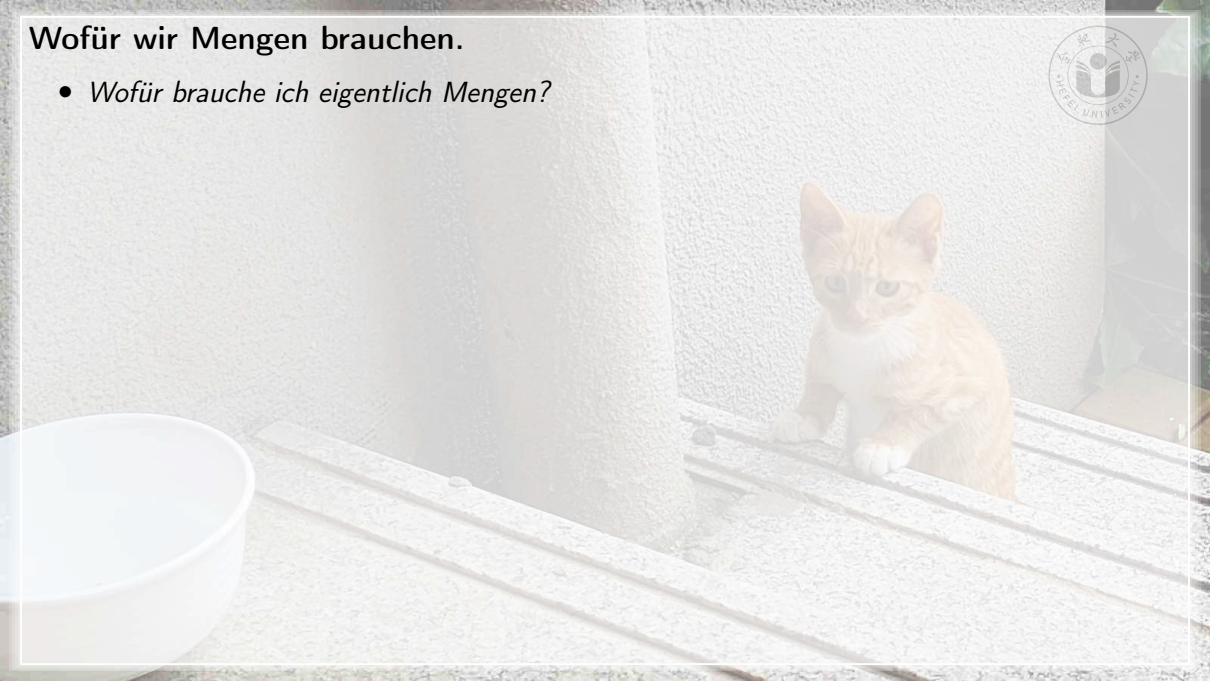
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- Mengen selbst sind aber veränderlich.
- Mengen sind ungeordnete Kollektionen[233].
- Deshalb können wir Mengen auch nicht indizieren (anders als Listen oder Tupels).
- Wahrscheinlich fragen Sie sich nun: *Wofür brauche ich eigentlich Mengen?*

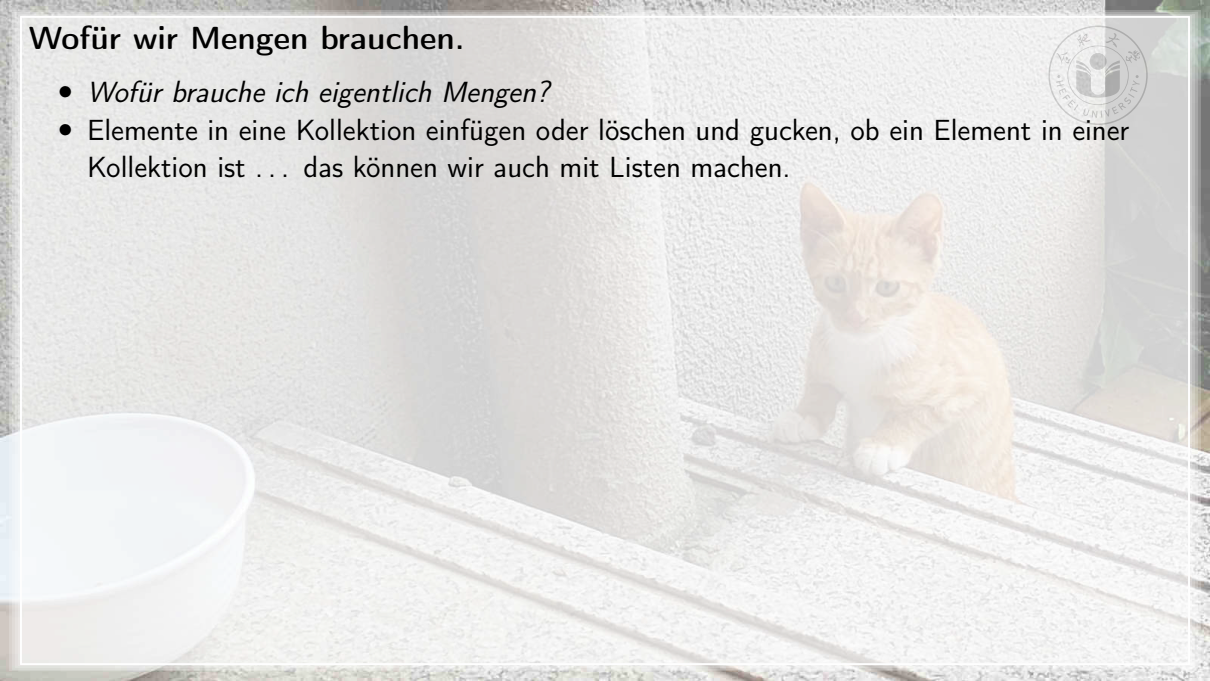
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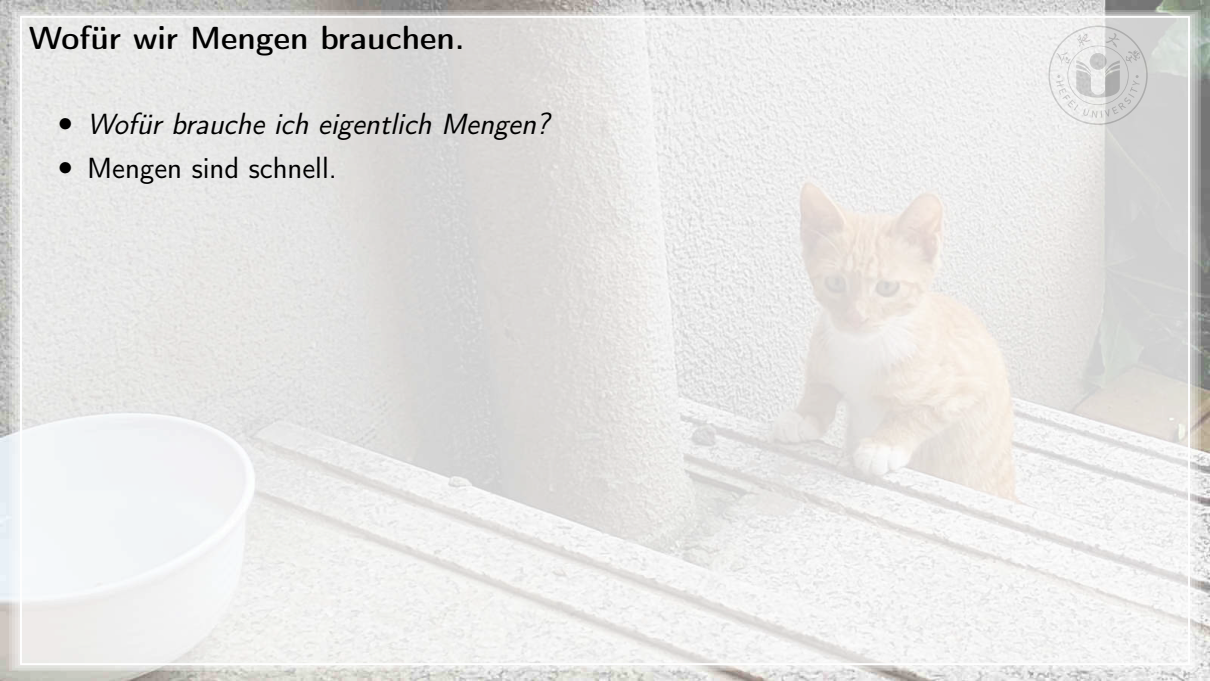


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- *Wofür brauche ich eigentlich Mengen?*
- Elemente in eine Kollektion einfügen oder löschen und gucken, ob ein Element in einer Kollektion ist ... das können wir auch mit Listen machen.
- Und bei Listen können wir über Indizes auf einzelne Elemente zugreifen, bei Mengen nicht.

Wofür wir Mengen brauchen.

- *Wofür brauche ich eigentlich Mengen?*
- Mengen sind schnell.



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- Mengen sind schnell.
- Mengen sind in Python auf dem Konzept von Hash-Tabellen implementiert und haben daher die Performanz dieser Datenstrukturen[65,153,239].

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- Mengen sind schnell.
- Mengen sind in Python auf dem Konzept von Hash-Tabellen implementiert und haben daher die Performanz dieser Datenstrukturen[65,153,239].
- Wenn wir prüfen wollen, ob ein Element `x` in einer Menge ist, dann können wir das im Durchschnitt in $\mathcal{O}(1)$ machen, also in etwa in konstanter Zeit, gleichgültig wie viele Elemente in der Menge sind[2,135,205].

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- Bei einer Liste mit n Elementen dauert das $\mathcal{O}(n)$ im Durchschnitt, also eine Zeit linear in der Länge der Liste.

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- Bei einer Liste mit n Elementen dauert das $\mathcal{O}(n)$ im Durchschnitt, also eine Zeit linear in der Länge der Liste.
- Wenn wir nur wenige Elemente haben oder eine Reihenfolge der Elemente brauchen, dann nehmen wir Listen.

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- Mengen sind in Python auf dem Konzept von Hash-Tabellen implementiert und haben daher die Performanz dieser Datenstrukturen[65,153,239].
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- Bei einer Liste mit n Elementen dauert das $\mathcal{O}(n)$ im Durchschnitt, also eine Zeit linear in der Länge der Liste.
- Wenn wir nur wenige Elemente haben oder eine Reihenfolge der Elemente brauchen, dann nehmen wir Listen.
- Wenn wir mehr Elemente haben und effizient prüfen wollen, ob ein Element beinhaltet ist, oder wenn wir effizient Mengenoperationen ausführen wollen, dann nehmen wir Mengen.

Beispiele



Erstellen, Type Hints, Einfache Operationen

- Mengen-Literale werden mit geschweiften Klammern definiert.

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"""An example of creating, modifying, and converting sets."""

upper: set[str] = {"A", "G", "B", "T", "V"}  # Some uppercase letters...
print(f"some uppercase letters are: {upper}")  # Print the set.

upper.add("Z")  # Add the letter "Z" to the set.
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upper.add("Z")  # The letter "Z" is already in the set.
print(f"some more uppercase letters are: {upper}")  # Print the set.

upper.update(["K", "G", "W", "Q", "W"])  # Try to add 5 letters.
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lower_tuple: tuple[str, ...] = ("b", "i", "j", "c", "t", "i")
lower: set[str] = set(lower_tuple)  # Convert a tuple to a set.
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print(f"lowercase letters after deleting 'b': {lower}")  # Print the set

letters: set[str] = set(lower)  # Copy the set of lowercase characters.
letters.update(upper)  # Add all uppercase characters.
print(f"some letters are: {letters}")  # Print the set 'letters'.

# Create a sorted list containing all elements of the set letters.
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letters_list: list[str] = sorted(letters)
print(f"the sorted list of letters is: {letters_list}")
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Erstellen, Type Hints, Einfache Operationen



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- Randnotiz: Die Listen-Funktion `sorted(c)` erstellt eine sortierte Liste aus den Elementen der Kollektion `c`.

Gute Praxis

Vorsicht beim Vergleichen von Strings: Standardmäßig kommen Großbuchstaben vor Kleinbuchstaben, also `"A" < "a"`. Wenn Sie Groß- und Kleinbuchstaben gleich behandeln wollen, dann müssen Sie sowas wie `sorted(my_text, key=str.casefold)` machen.

Erstellen, Type Hints, Einfache Operationen

- Mit `s.add(e)` können wir das Element `e` in die Menge `s` einfügen.
- Mit `s.update(c)` fügen wir alle Elemente der Kollektion `c` in die Menge `s` ein.
- Mit `set(c)` erstellen wir eine Menge mit den Elementen der Kollektion `c`.
- `s.remove(e)` entfernt das Element `e` aus der Menge `s`.
- Randnotiz: Die Listen-Funktion `sorted(c)` erstellt eine sortierte Liste aus den Elementen der Kollektion `c`.

```python
"""An example of creating, modifying, and converting sets."""

upper: set[str] = {"A", "G", "B", "T", "V"}  # Some uppercase letters...
print(f"some uppercase letters are: {upper}")  # Print the set.

upper.add("Z")  # Add the letter "Z" to the set.
upper.add("A")  # The letter "A" is already in the set.
upper.add("Z")  # The letter "Z" is already in the set.
print(f"some more uppercase letters are: {upper}")  # Print the set.

upper.update(["K", "G", "W", "Q", "W"])  # Try to add 5 letters.
print(f"even more uppercase letters are: {upper}")  # Print the set.

lower_tuple: tuple[str, ...] = ("b", "i", "j", "c", "t", "i")
lower: set[str] = set(lower_tuple)  # Convert a tuple to a set.
print(f"some lowercase letters are: {lower}")  # Print the set 'lower'.
lower.remove("b")  # Delete letter b from the set of lower case letters.
print(f"lowercase letters after deleting 'b': {lower}")  # Print the set

letters: set[str] = set(lower)  # Copy the set of lowercase characters.
letters.update(upper)  # Add all uppercase characters.
print(f"some letters are: {letters}")  # Print the set 'letters'.

# Create a sorted list containing all elements of the set letters.
# Warning: Strings are sorted such that uppercase characters come before
# lowercase characters.
letters_list: list[str] = sorted(letters)
print(f"the sorted list of letters is: {letters_list}")
```

↓ `python3 sets_1.py` ↓

```
some uppercase letters are: {'A', 'B', 'V', 'G', 'T'}
some more uppercase letters are: {'Z', 'A', 'B', 'V', 'G', 'T'}
even more uppercase letters are: {'Z', 'V', 'T', 'K', 'A', 'B', 'G', 'Q
    ↪ ', 'W'}
some lowercase letters are: {'b', 'c', 't', 'i', 'j'}
lowercase letters after deleting 'b': {'c', 't', 'i', 'j'}
some letters are: {'c', 't', 'Z', 'B', 'V', 'T', 'G', 'i', 'K', 'Q', 'W
    ↪ ', 'A', 'j'}
the sorted list of letters is: ['A', 'B', 'G', 'K', 'Q', 'T', 'V', 'W',
    ↪ 'Z', 'c', 'i', 'j', 't']
```

Erstellen, Type Hints, Einfache Op

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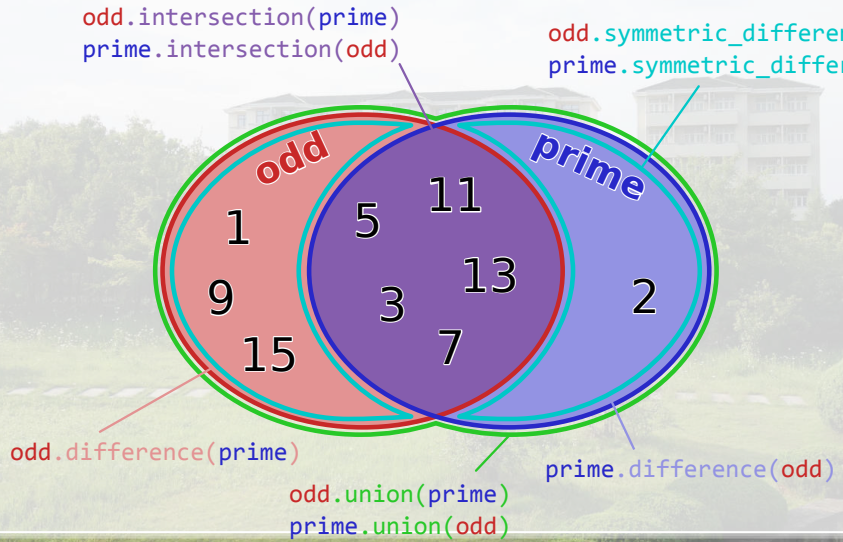
before

Mengen Operationen

- Schauen wir uns grundlegende Mengenoperationen an.

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- `in` und `not in` funktionieren genau wie bei Listen und Tupeln (nur schneller).

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"""An example of creating sets and set operations."""

odd: set[int] = {1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15}  # a subset of odd numbers
print(f"some odd numbers are: {odd}")  # Print the set.
print(f"is 3 \u2208 odd: {3 in odd}")  # Check if 3 is in the set odd.
print(f"is 2 \u2209 odd: {2 not in odd}")  # Check if 2 is NOT in odd.

prime: set[int] = {2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13}  # a subset of the prime numbers
print(f"some prime numbers are: {prime}")  # Print the set.

set_or: set[int] = odd.union(prime)  # Create a new set as union of both
print(f"{len(set_or)} numbers are in odd \u222A prime: {set_or},")

set_and: set[int] = odd.intersection(prime)  # Compute the intersection.
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print(f"after deleting all primes from odd, we get {odd}")
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↓ python3 sets_2.py ↓

```
some odd numbers are: {1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15}
is 3 ∈ odd: True
is 2 ∉ odd: True
some prime numbers are: {2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13}
9 numbers are in odd ∪ prime: {1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15},
5 are in odd ∩ prime: {3, 5, 7, 11, 13},
1 are in prime \ odd: {2},
4 are in (odd ∪ prime) \ (odd ∩ prime): {1, 2, 9, 15}, and
3 are in odd \ prime: {1, 9, 15},
after deleting all primes from odd, we get {1, 9, 15}
```

Mengen Operationen

- `s1.intersection(s2)` erstellt eine neue Menge mit allen Elementen die *sowohl* in `s1` *als auch* in `s2` sind.
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- Sind Ihnen die coolen Unicode-Escapes aufgefallen?

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- Das Suchen bestimmter Elemente ist bei Mengen aber schneller (außer die Menge/Liste ist sehr klein...).

谢谢您们！

Thank you!

Vielen Dank!



References I

[1] Joseph Adams, Egon Balas und Daniel Zawack. "The Shifting Bottleneck Procedure for Job Shop Scheduling". *Management Science* 34(3):391–401, März 1988. Catonsville, MD, USA: The Institute for Operations Research and the Management Sciences (INFORMS). ISSN: 0025-1909. doi:10.1287/mnsc.34.3.391 (siehe S. 103).

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Glossary (in English) I



$(1+1)$ EA The $(1+1)$ EA is a local search algorithm that retains the best solution x_c discovered so far during the search [48,87]. In each step, it applies a unary search operator to this best-so-far solution x_c and derives a new solution x_n. If the new solution x_n is *better or equally good* when compared with x_c, i.e., not worse, then it replaces it, i.e., is stored as the new x_c. If the search space are bit strings of length n, then the $(1+1)$ EA uses a unary search operator that flips each bit independently with probability m/n, where usually $m = 1$. This operator is the main difference to randomized local search (RLS). The $(1+1)$ EA is a special case of the $(\mu+\lambda)$ evolutionary algorithm ($(\mu+\lambda)$ EA) where $\mu = \lambda = 1$.

$(1+1)$ FEA The $(1+1)$ EA with FFA plugged in [285,286,299]. On the discrete bit-string domains, this algorithm has a very specific structure: Its unary search operator flips each bit with probability $1/n$, where n is the dimension of the search space, distinguishing it from the unary operator in FRLS which flips exactly one bit. On other domains, such as permutations, the term is used synonymously with FRLS.

$(\mu+\lambda)$ EA The $(\mu+\lambda)$ EA is an evolutionary algorithm (EA) where, in each generation, λ offspring solutions are generated from the current population of μ parent solutions. The offspring and parent populations are merged, yielding $\mu+\lambda$ solutions, from which then the best μ solutions are ratained to form the parent population of the next generation. If the search space is the bit strings of length n, then this algorithm usually applies a mutation operator flipping each bit independently with probability $1/n$.

BinInt The *Binary Integer Problem* is a benchmark problem for bit-string based black-box search [262,299]. It is very similar to OneMax: It tries to maximize the number of 1 bits in the bit string of a chosen dimension n. Different from OneMax, where each bit has the same weight in the objective function, the bits of BinInt have a exponentially increasing weight: The bit string is treated as a binary-encoded integer whose value should be maximized. The objective function $f(x)$ of the minimization variant of this problem can be defined as $f(x) = 2^n - 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2^{i-1} \cdot x_i$. The problem is unimodal, i.e., has only a single global optimum and no local optimum. It is fully separable, i.e., we can optimize each variable separately.

LinHarm The Linear Harmonic Function is a benchmark problem for bit-string based black-box search [81,87,299]. It is very similar to OneMax: It tries to maximize the number of 1 bits in the bit string of a chosen dimension n. Different from OneMax, where each bit has the same weight in the objective function, the bits of LinHarm have a linear increasing weight. The objective function $f(x)$ of the minimization variant of this problem can be defined as $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} i \cdot x_i$. The problem is unimodal, i.e., has only a single global optimum and no local optimum. It is fully separable, i.e., we can optimize each variable separately. The $(1+1)$ EA can solve this problem with an expected runtime in $\Theta(n \ln n)$ [81,87].

Glossary (in English) II



TSP Suite is a open source benchmarking framework for the TSP written in Java[281]. It uses the instances of the TSPLib and offers both automated experiment execution as well as several metrics to measure runtime. It is available at https://thomasweise.github.io/tspSuite and has been used in many research works, such as [287]. It can be viewed as a predecessor of moptipy.

2BP In the two-dimensional Bin Packing Problem (BP), the goal is to pack rectangles into rectangular bins without overlap and such that their edges are parallel to the edges of the bins [139,174,176]. The 2BP is strongly $\mathcal{NP}$-hard [176]. The variants of this problem include the 2BP|O|F, 2BP|R|F, 2BP|O|G, and 2BP|R|G [175,176]. Different objective function for the 2BP|O|F and 2BP|R|F are presented in [301]. 2BPs have many practical applications, including cutting (wood, glas) [176], packing (transportation, warehouse) [176], and newspaper page layout [249].

2BP|O|F In the oriented 2BP with free cuts, the rectangles to pack have fixed orientations, i.e., cannot be rotated, but can otherwise be arranged freely [175,176,188,302]. Permutation-based search spaces can be used for this problem by using the Improved Bottom Left (IBL) encoding. The state-of-the-art (SOTA) for this problem comprises [28,33,57,116,212,302].

2BP|O|G In the oriented 2BP with guillotine cuts, the rectangles to pack have fixed orientations, i.e., cannot be rotated, and must be arranged such that they can be extracted by edge-to-edge cuts [175,176].

2BP|R|F In this variant of the 2BP with free cuts, the rectangles to pack can be rotated by 90° if need be and can freely be arranged [24,175,176,301,302]. Besides packing and cutting, this problem also occurs in scheduling and build formation in additive manufacturing [167,217]. The almost-squares-in-almost-squares (Asqas) problem [269] is also a 2BP|R|F. Search spaces based on signed permutations can be used for this problem by using the IBL encoding. The SOTA for this problem comprises [28,57,116,301,302].

2BP|R|G In this variant of the 2BP with guillotine cuts, the rectangles to pack can be rotated by 90° if need be, but must be arranged such that they can be extracted by edge-to-edge cuts [175,176].

ACO *Ant Colony Optimization* is a nature-inspired optimization method for combinatorial problems where solutions are generated by „ants“ that move from node to node in a graph choosing edges based on (1) the simulated pheromone on the edges and (2) a per-edge heuristic value [83–85]. If an ant produced a good solution, „pheromone“ is distributed over the edges it visited, making it more likely to be re-visited by other ants.

AI Artificial Intelligence, see, e.g., [230]

Glossary (in English) III

Asqas An „almost-square" be a rectangle with size $i \times (i+1)$ with $i \in \mathbb{N}_{\mathbf{1}}$. The *almost-squares-in-almost-squares* problem [269] is a special case of the 2BP|R|F. Here, almost-square rectangles of sizes 1×2, 2×3, $\ldots$, $n \times (n+1)$ must be placed into an almost-square bin without waste. This requires that there exists a natural number $p \in \mathbb{N}_{\mathbf{1}}$ such that $p(p+1) = \sum_{i=\mathbf{1}}^{n} i(i+1)$ [269]. There are exacty five Asqas instances [269], namely with bin sizes 1×2 for $n = 1$, $p = 1$, 5×4 for $n = 3$, $p = 4$, 15×16 for $n = 8$, $p = 15$, 55×56 for $n = 20$, $p = 55$, and 119×120 for $n = 34$, $p = 119$.

ATSP The general case for TSPs are *asymmetric Traveling Salesperson Problems*, where the $n \times n$ distance matrix A does not need to be symmetric. In other words, it is possible that $\exists a, b \in 1..n$ with $A[a, b] \neq A[b, a]$. Notice that while such index tuple *may* exist, this is not always or necessarily the case. In this case, one may consider the STSP as a special case of the ATSP, while ATSPs may be considered as synonymous to TSPs.

B&B *Branch and bound* is a family of optimization methods that combines systematic exploration of the search space with both and objective function f subject to minimization and a lower bound function. The idea is that we divide the search space into two sets. We then pick the set that seems more interesting and divide it again. We do this recursively until we have arrived at a set of size 1, which is our first solution y. We can compute its objective value $z = f(y)$. Now we continue with the sets that we have created and not yet explored. However, we can discard all sets for which the lower bound of the solution quality is $\geq z$, because they can never give us a better solution than y. If we have divided another set down to size 1 and it yields a better solution than y, of cause we update these values. Eventually, we have either discarded or fully expanded all sets – and then the solution we got must be optimal. B&B-algorithms have been applied to the TSP [172], the JSSP [46], the 2BP|O|F [188], and maritime logistics [294], for instance.

Bash is a shell used under Ubuntu Linux, i.e., the program that „runs" in the terminal and interprets your commands, allowing you to start and interact with other programs [38,203,298]. Learn more at https://www.gnu.org/software/bash.

BP The *Bin Packing Problem* [90,232] is one of the classical problems from Operations Research (OR). The goal is to pack a set of objects into containers, using as few containers as possible. Different flavors of BPs can be distinguished, e.g., by the number of dimensions [73,174] that the objects and containers have (see, e.g., the 2BP), and/or whether the objects can be rotated [302], as well as other constraints and limitations. Both the one- and two-dimensional BP are strongly $\mathcal{NP}$-hard [176].

Glossary (in English) IV

BRKGA The *Biased Random Key Genetic Algorithm* is a EA with a continuous search space $\mathbb{X} \subset [0,1]^n$ and a decoding function γ translating this space to something else and biased, uniform, and elitist mating strategies [118,179]. The *bias* comes from the fact that one of the parents used for the binary operation is biased to be of higher fitness than the other parent [118]. Often, γ is the Random Keys encoding [18,19] procedure translating $\mathbb{X}$ to permutations of the first n natural numbers [117]. Sometimes, it is actually a MA further refining the translation result with a local search (LS) [117]. Sometimes the permutations are then further translated to more complex data structures, such as Gantt charts for the JSSP [117], or packing plans for 2BP 3D packing [116].

C is a programming language, which is very successful in system programming situations [77,220,279].

client In a client-server architecture, the client is a device or process that requests a service from the server. It initiates the communication with the server, sends a request, and receives the response with the result of the request. Typical examples of clients are web browsers in the internet as well as clients for database management systems (DBMSes), such as psql.

client-server architecture is a system design where a central server receives requests from one or multiple clients [27,180,208,223,228]. These requests and responses are usually sent over network connections. A typical example of such a system is the World Wide Web (WWW), where web servers host websites and make them available to web browsers, the clients. Another typical example is the structure of database (DB) software, where a central server, the DBMS, offers access to the DB to the different clients. Here, the client can be some terminal software shipping with the DBMS, such as psql, or the different applications that access the DBs.

Concorde is an exact solver for the TSP[5,61,62], which could even solve the largest instance of TSPLib (with 85 900 cities) to optimality.

CSP The *Cutting Stock Problem* is about cutting shapes of a larger shape while reducing waste [176,184]. It is closely related to the BP.

DB A *database* is an organized collection of structured information or data, typically stored electronically in a computer system. Databases are discussed in our book *Databases* [276].

DBMS A *database management system* is the software layer located between the user or application and the DB. The DBMS allows the user/application to create, read, write, update, delete, and otherwise manipulate the data in the DB [296].

Glossary (in English) V

EA
: An *evolutionary algorithm* is a metaheuristic optimization method that maintains a population of candidate solutions, which undergo selection (where better solutions are chosen with higher probability) and reproduction (where mutation and recombination create a new candidate solution from one or two existing ones, repectively) [11,277].

escape sequence
: Escaping is the process of presenting „forbidden“ characters or symbols in a sequence of characters or symbols. In Python [280], string escapes allow us to include otherwise impossible characters, such as string delimiters, in a string. Each such character is represented by an *escape sequence*, which usually starts with the backslash character („\“) [94]. In Python strings, the escape sequence `\"`, for example, stands for `"`, the escape sequence `\\` stands for `\`, and the escape sequence `\n` stands for a newline or linebreak character. In Python f-strings, the escape sequence `{{` stands for a single curly brace `{`. In PostgreSQL [276], similar C-style escapes (starting with „\“) are supported [250].

f-string
: let you include the results of expressions in strings [40,106,109,120,189,241]. They can contain expressions (in curly braces) like `f"a{6-1}b"` that are then transformed to text via (string) interpolation, which turns the string to `"a5b"`. F-strings are delimited by `f"..."`.

FFA
: *Frequency Fitness Assignment* (中文: **频率适应度分配**) is a algorithm plugin for optimization methods applied to discrete or combinatorial problems with not-too-many different possible objective values [283,285,286]. It replaces the objective values in all comparisons with their absolute encounter frequency so far during the search. FFA has successfully been applied to the Maximum Satisfiability (MaxSAT) [285,286], the TSP [168,169], and the QAP [54,263], amongst others. Its properties have been intensely researched on discrete benchmark functions such as OneMax, LeadingOnes, Trap, TwoMax, Jump, and Plateau [285,286,299]. The most common realizations of FFA so far are the $(1+1)$ FEA and FRLS.

FSSP
: The *Flow Shop Scheduling Problem* is a variant of a JSSP where all products go through the same sequence of machines [121,148].

GA
: A *Genetic Algorithm* is an EA usually for bit-string based search spaces [11,70,115,193,199,277] (although many researchers use the terms EA and GA synonymously). It is a population-based metaheuristic applying a unary and a binary search operater as well as a selection scheme. The original GA is the Standard Genetic Algorithm (SGA), which today is considered outdated. Modern variants are the Greedy $(2+1)$ GA and the Self-Adjusting $(1+(\lambda,\lambda))$ Genetic Algorithm (Self-Adjusting $(1+(\lambda,\lambda))$ GA) as well as bit-string based $(\mu+\lambda)$ EAs.

Glossary (in English) VI

Gantt chart Gantt charts are two-dimensional diagrams illustrating the steps of a process [150,291]. Their horizontal axis represents the time, the vertical axis represents work packages, machines, or workers. In the diagram area, bars located at certain vertical locations indicate that the work package, machine, or worker is processed or works at the time range covered by the bar as projected to the horizontal axis.

GECCO The *Genetic and Evolutionary Computation Conference* is one of the largest conferences in the field of EAs. It has been established in 1999 and its proceedings are published by ACM. Learn more at https://sig.sigevo.org/GECCOs.

Git is a distributed Version Control System (VCS) which allows multiple users to work on the same code while preserving the history of the code changes [240,267]. Learn more at https://git-scm.com.

GitHub is a website where software projects can be hosted and managed via the Git VCS [214,267]. Learn more at https://github.com.

GRASP A *Greedy Randomized Adaptive Search Procedure* is a metaheuristic where each cycle consists of two main components [96,98,99]: First, a starting point is generated using a heuristic method (as opposed to being randomly sampled). Then, a LS is applied to refine the solution. Then, another cycle starts and proceeds in the same way. The overall best solution is retained as result. Many examples of applications of GRASPs are listed in [99]. GRASP in combination with VND has been applied to the 2BP|O|F in [212].

Greedy $(2+1)$ GA The Greedy $(2+1)$ GA [47,48,252,253] is an EA for bit-string based search spaces, i.e., a Genetic Algorithm (GA). It was shown to be twice as fast as any mutation-only EA on OneMax [252,253].

Glossary (in English) VII

IBL The *improved bottom left* heuristic is a one-shot algorithm constructing a solution for 2BP [173]. For the 2BP|O|F problem variant, the input of the IBL algorithm is a permutation of the first n natural numbers, each number identifying one rectangle to be packed. For the 2BP|R|F problem flavor, the permutation elements are signed, where a negative sign indicates a rotation by 90° [173]. In [301,302] it is adapted to a multi-bin situation as follows: The algorithm iterates over the (potentially signed) permutation x and places the rectangles into the packing plan in the prescribed order. It first places the rectangle outside on top of the current bin b, with its bottom-right corner onto the top-right corner of the current bin b. It then moves the rectangle downwards and leftwards as far as possible, prioritizing the downward movement whenever possible. If the rectangle cannot be moved any further, it checks if it is completely contained in the bin b. If yes, it can remain there. Otherwise, a new bin is opened ($b \leftarrow b + 1$) and the rectangle is placed at its bottom-left corner. Once a new bin is opened, this bin is used for all further insertions. IBL is suitable as a decoding function γ inside an EA [173]. Historically, it improves upon the BL algorithm [143]: That algorithm cannot represent all possible optimal packings using a permutation, but the IBL can [173].

ILS An *iterated local search* is a variant of the LS which applies cycles of local search and perturbation [251]. First, an initial solution is generated and refined by the local search. Then the cycle begins: A perturbation, i.e., a large search move that likely destroys a good part of the solution, is applied. The resulting new solution is refined by local search. Then, an acceptance criterion decides whether we should use this or the previous solution to continue in the next cycle. ILS has successfully been applied to the QAP.

Ising Model The Ising models are benchmark problems for bit-string based black-box search [81,100,101,299]. Here, a neighborhood is defined around each bit. The bit needs to have the same value as all bits in the neighborhood structure T. Thus, we try to achieve that all bits have the same value. The objective function $f(x)$ of the minimization variant of this problem family can be defined as $f(x, T) = \sum_{(i,j)\in T} |x_i - x_j|$, where T contains the index pairs of neighboring bits and is defined differently for the Ising model instances Ising 1D and Ising 2D. The problems are highly epistatic, as all variables interact with some other variables.

Ising 1D The 1D is a benchmark problem for bit-string based black-box search [81,101,299]. The bits are arranged in a one-dimensional ring and we try to minimize the number of bits that have different values than their neighbors. Hence, the neighborhood structure T is defined as $T_{\mathbf{1}D} = \{(i+1, (i+1 \bmod n)+1) \mid i \in [0..n-1]\}$. The problems are highly epistatic, as all variables interact with some other variables. The $(1+1)$ EA has an expected runtime in $\mathcal{O}(n^{\mathbf{3}})$ on 1-Dimensional Ising Model (Ising 1D) [101].

Glossary (in English) VIII

Ising 2D The 2D is a benchmark problem for bit-string based black-box search [81,100,299]. The bits are arranged in a two-dimensional torus and we try to minimize the number of bits that have different values than their neighbors. Hence, the neighborhood structure $T = T_{2D}$ is defined as the set of all $\{(\alpha + \beta N, \gamma + \delta N)\}$ pairs with $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \in 0..N-1$ and either ()$\gamma = (\alpha + 1) \bmod N$ and $\delta = \beta$) or ($\gamma = \alpha$ and $\delta = (\beta + 1) \bmod N$) with $n = N^2$. The problems are highly epistatic, as all variables interact with some other variables. On a similar class of problems, the $(1 + 1)$ EA has an exponential expected runtime [100].

IT information technology

Java is another very successful programming language, with roots in the C family of languages [32,181].

JSSP The *Job Shop Scheduling Problem* [31,66,121,161] is one of the most prominent and well-studied scheduling tasks. In a JSSP instance, there are m machines and k jobs [254]. Each job must be processed once by each machine in a job-specific sequence and has a job-specific processing time on each machine. The goal is to find an assignment of jobs to machines that results in an overall shortest makespan, i.e., the schedule (Gantt chart) which can complete all the jobs in the shortest time. The JSSP is $\mathcal{NP}$-complete [52,160,161]. The 8 most common sets of JSSP benchmark instances are *abz* [1], *dmu* [74], *ft* [102], *la* [163], *orb* [6], *swv* [248], *ta* [254], and *yn* [295].Their data can be found (sometimes partially) in several repositories, such as the OR-Library [20,21], [236], and [278], the latter of which also contains many results from existing works. Encodings based on permutations with repetition are proposed in [29,30,110,235] and used in [285]. The SOTA of the JSSP includes [117,131,211,213,237,275,300].

Jump The Jump problem is a benchmark problem for bit-string based black-box search [87,105,299]. Like the OneMax, it tries to maximize the number of 1 bits in a bit string of chosen length n. However, the solutions representing the last ω bits around the optimum to flip are deceptive, meaning that they are actually worse and getting worse than surrounding solutions. The objective function $f(x)$ of the minimization variant is $n - \|x\|_1$ if $\|x\|_1 = n$ or $\|x\|_1 \leq n - \omega$ hold, and $\omega + \|x\|_1$ otherwise, where $\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$. This means that, the larger ω, the larger the deceptive basin around the optimum that an algorithm needs to cross. An $(1 + 1)$ EA will converge to the resulting local optimum and thus have an expected runtime of $\Theta(n^\omega + n \ln n)$ [87].In experiments, the $(1 + 1)$ FEA achieves polynomial runtime on Jump, seemingly in $\mathcal{O}(n^2 \ln n)$ [285,286,299].

Glossary (in English) IX

LABS *Low-Autocorrelation Binary Sequences* are bit strings of length n whose autocorrelation is as low as possible [34,35,39,75,76,107,191,194,201,209,219]. This means that sub-sequences of any length $1 \leq k < n$ should ideally never repeat. The objective function $f : \{0,1\}^n \mapsto \mathbb{N}_0$ represents the energy of a bit string x and is subject to minimization. We can define it as $f(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1-k} s_i \cdot s_{i+k}\right)^2$ with $s_j = 2x_j - 1$. Such sequences are needed for communication engineering [35,39,201], cryptography[75,201], as well as modulation pulses in radar and sonar ranging[209]. The LABS is $\mathcal{NP}$-hard [265]. The SOTA on LABS contains [34,39,75,76,201].

LAMP Stack A system setup for web applications: Linux, Apache (a web server), MySQL, and the server-side scripting language PHP [45,128].

LeadingOnes The LeadingOnes problem is a benchmark problem for bit-string based black-box search [229,289,299]. It tries to maximize the number of *leading* 1 bits in the bit string of a chosen dimension n. The objective function $f(x)$ of the minimization variant of this problem can be defined as $f(x) = n - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \prod_{j=1}^{i} x_j$. Different from OneMax, the contribution to the objective value of the bit at index i thus depends on the state of all the bits *before* this index. The problem is unimodal, i.e., has only a single global optimum and no local optimum. Different from OneMax, it is not separable, i.e., we can optimize each variable separately. The expected runtime of $(1+1)$ EA on LeadingOnes is in $\Theta(n^2)$ [87]. The average runtime $(1+1)$ FEA on LeadingOnes seems to be slower by factor proportional to n, i.e., seems to be in $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ [285].

Linux is the leading open source operating system, i.e., a free alternative to Microsoft Windows [12,127,238,266,272]. We recommend using it for this course, for software development, and for research. Learn more at https://www.linux.org. Its variant Ubuntu is particularly easy to use and install.

literal A literal is a specific concrete value, something that is written down as-is [165,260]. In Python, for example, `"abc"` is a string literal, `5` is an integer literal, and `23.3` is a `float` literal. In contrast, `sin(3)` is not a literal. Also, while `5` is an integer literal, if we create a variable `a = 5` then `a` is not a literal either (it is a variable). Hence, literals are values that the Python interpreter reads directly from the source code and creates as objects in memory. They are not something that is the result from a computation or the result of a variable lookup. Python supports some type hints for literals, including the type `LiteralString` for string literals and the type `Literal[xyz]` for arbitrary literals `xyz`.

Glossary (in English) X

LK The *Lin-Kernighan* (LK) algorithm [171] is a SLS method for the TSP. The LK algorithm performs iterative k-opt moves, i.e., in each step, it constructs the two sets X and Y of k edges such that removing the edges in X from the current tour T and then adding the edges from Y to T results in a better tour.The LK algorithm is one of the most classical approaches to the TSP.

LKH The *Lin-Kernighan-Helsgaun* algorithm [62,129,130] is a SLS method for the TSP based on the Lin-Kernighan (LK) algorithm [171]. LKH-1 was proposed in [130] and LKH-2 in [129]. It holds the record in the *World TSP* [63] as of 2025.

LS A *local search* is an algorithm where a single „current“ candidate solution is maintained and new solutions are selected from its neighborhood in each step. Most LSes are randomized, i.e., stochastic local search (SLS).

MA A *Memetic Algorithm* is an EA where each new solution is refined by a LS before it enters the population [277]. As LS, we can use, e.g., RLS, but TS [55,103] is maybe a better choise. Some SOTA algorithms in some domains may be classified as MAs, e.g., Lin-Kernighan Helsgaun (LKH) basically uses a population that is refined via a local search. MAs also worked well on the JSSP [55,131] and the TSP [103].

MariaDB An open source relational database management system that has forked off from MySQL [7,8,13,91,187,224]. See https://mariadb.org for more information.

MaxSAT The goal of satisfiability problems is to find an assignment for n Boolean variables that make a given Boolean formula $F : \{0,1\}^n \mapsto \{0,1\}$ become true. In the *Maximum Satisfiability* problem (MaxSAT) [132], F is given in conjunctive normal form, i.e., the variables appear either directly or negated in m „or“ clauses, which are all combined into one „and.“ The objective function $f(x)$, subject to minimization, computes the number of clauses which are false under the variable setting x. If $f(x) = 0$, then all clauses of F are true, which solves the problem. The MaxSAT problem is $\mathcal{NP}$-complete [60] and exhibits low epistasis but deceptiveness [222], making it hard for local searches. Typical benchmark instances can be found in SATLIB, which contains smaller-scale instances, and the up-to-date MaxSAT Evaluation (MSE), providing SOTA benchmarks, algorithms, and results.

metaheuristic A *metaheuristic* is an optimization algorithm which performs a cycle of trial and error during which candidate solutions are sampled from the solution space $\mathbb{Y}$ and evaluated using an objective function $f : \mathbb{Y} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ [113,277]. The results of the objective function are used to decide which solution is promising. The neighborhoods around promising solutions *or* similarly-structured solutions are then sampled in the next cycle. Prominent metaheuristics are SLSes, SA, TS, and EAs.

Glossary (in English) XI



Microsoft Windows is a commercial proprietary operating system [37]. It is widely spread, but we recommend using a Linux variant such as Ubuntu for software development and for our course. Learn more at https://www.microsoft.com/windows.

ML Machine Learning, see, e.g., [234]

moptipy is the *Metaheuristic Optimization in Python* library [284]. It has been used in several different research works, including [54,168–170,263,293,301,302]. Algorithms implemented by moptipy include EAs, $(1+1)$ EA, RLS, SA, and the $(1+1)$ FEA, amongst others. Learn more at https://thomasweise.github.io/moptipy and https://thomasweise.github.io/moptipyapps.

MSE The *MaxSAT Evaluation* is a regularly updated set of benchmark instances for the MaxSAT [140]. It also includes solver software and benchmark results [273].

Mypy is a static type checking tool for Python [166] that makes use of type hints. Learn more at https://github.com/python/mypy and in [280].

MySQL An open source relational database management system [36,91,225,259,290]. MySQL is famous for its use in the LAMP Stack. See https://www.mysql.com for more information.

N-Queens The N-Queens Problem is a benchmark problem for bit-string based black-box search [81,299]. The goal is to arrange N queens on an $N \times N$ chessboard so that none can attack the other. The search space has thus dimension $n = N^2$, with each bit standing for a field and encoding whether or not a queen is placed there. The objective function $f(x)$ of the minimization variant is $N - (\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i) - N \sum_{\xi} \max\{0, Q_\xi(x) - 1\}$ where $Q_\xi(x)$ is the number of queens in the horizontal, vertical, or diagonale ξ. The problem is quite epistatic.

OneMax OneMax is the simplest possible benchmark problem for bit-string based black-box search [88,202,299]. The goal is to maximize the number of 1 bits in the bit string of a chosen dimension n. The objective function $f(x)$ of the minimization variant of this problem can be defined as $f(x) = n - \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$. The problem is unimodal, i.e., has only a single global optimum and no local optimum. It is fully separable, i.e., we can optimize each variable separately. The expected runtime of $(1+1)$ EA on OneMax is in $\Theta(n \ln n)$ [79,202]. The average runtime $(1+1)$ FEA on OneMax seems to be slower by factor proportional to n, i.e., seems to be in $\mathcal{O}(n^2 \ln n)$ [285].

Glossary (in English) XII



OR Operations Research (or Operational Research) is the application of sciences such as mathematics and computer science to the management and organization of systems, organizations, enterprises, factories, or projects. It encompasses the development and application of problem-solving methods and techniques (such as mathematical optimization, simulation, queueing theory and other stochastic models) with the goal to improve decision-making and efficiency [71].

OR-Library is a library of benchmark instances for various OR problems [20,21] located at https://people.brunel.ac.uk/~mastjjb/jeb/info.html. It contains instances of the JSSP, 1D- and 2D-Packing, Knapsack, periodic TSPs, amongst others.

Plateau The Plateau problem is a benchmark problem for bit-string based black-box search [4,299]. It is structured exactly like Jump, but instead of being deceptive, the last ω bits to flip around the optimum are neutral. The objective function $f(x)$ of the minimization variant is $n - \|x\|_1$ if $\|x\|_1 = n$ or $\|x\|_1 \leq n - \omega$ hold, and ω otherwise, where $\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$. This means that, the larger ω, the larger the neutral plane around the optimum that an algorithm needs to cross. An $(1+1)$ EA has an expected runtime of $\Theta(n^\omega)$ on plateaus [4]. The average runtime of the $(1+1)$ FEA on Plateaus is slower by a factor seemingly proportional in n.

PostgreSQL An open source object-relational DBMS [97,207,218,259]. See https://postgresql.org for more information.

psql is the client program used to access the PostgreSQL DBMS server.

Python The Python programming language [136,164,183,280], i.e., what you will learn about in our book [280]. Learn more at https://python.org.

Glossary (in English) XIII

QAP The *Quadratic Assignment Problem* is an optimization problem where the goal is to assign a set of n facilities to a set of n locations [42,54,154,177]. Such an assignment can be represented as a permutation x of the first n natural numbers, where x_i specifies the location where facility i should be placed. For each QAP instance, a distance matrix A is given, where $A[a, b]$ specifies the distance from location a to location b, as well as a flow matrix B, where $B[i, j]$ is the amount of material flowing (e.g., daily) from facility i to facility j. The objective function $f(x)$ then rates a permutation x as $f(x) = \sum_{i=\mathbf{1}}^{n} \sum_{j=\mathbf{1}}^{n} A[x_i, x_j] * B[i, j]$. The QAP is $\mathcal{NP}$-complete [86,231] and even among this problem class, is considered as particularly hard for metaheuristics [22,42,177,251]. The QAP has applications such as building layout [66,93,155], keyboard layout [44], circuit design [95], wiring [245], and scheduling [243]. Typical benchmark instances can be found in QAPLIB. SOTA algorithms for the QAP include [22,103,192,198,256,257].

QAPLIB is a library of 136 benchmark instances for the Quadratic Assignment Problem (QAP) [41,43], 28 of which have not yet been solved to optimality [3] (at least by 2023).

Random Keys encoding is a decoding procedure $\gamma : \mathbb{X} \mapsto \mathbb{Y}$ that maps a continuous search space $\mathbb{X} \subset [0, 1]^n$ which is a subset of the n-dimensional real numbers to the space $\mathbb{Y}$ of permutations of the first n natural numbers [18,19]. For example, on $n = 5$, the vector $x = (0.49, 0.91, 0.33, 0.75, 0.51)$ is translated to the permutation $y = (3, 1, 5, 4, 2)$, because $x_{\mathbf{3}} = 0.33$ has the smallest value, putting 3 at the beginning, $x_{\mathbf{1}} = 0.49$ the second-smallest, placing 1 second, ..., and $x_{\mathbf{2}} = 0.91$ being the largest value meaning that the last number in y will be 2 [19]. The advantage of the encoding is that we can search in $\mathbb{X}$ applying arbitrary mathematical operators, crossover, and mutation procedures, but will always get correct permutations. The disadvantage is that $|\mathbb{X}| \gg |\mathbb{Y}|$ and that there actually is no meaning underpinning moves in $\mathbb{X}$ in relation to their projected result in $\mathbb{Y}$.

relational database A relational DB is a database that organizes data into rows (tuples, records) and columns (attributes), which collectively form tables (relations) where the data points are related to each other [59,124,126,242,258,276,288].

RLS Randomized local search retains the best solution x_c discovered so far during the search and, in each step, it applies a unary search operator to this best-so-far solution x_c and derives a new solution x_n. If the new solution x_n is *better or equally good* when compared with x_c, i.e., not worse, then it replaces it, i.e., is stored as the new x_c. If the search space are bit strings of length n, then RLS uses a unary search operator that flips exactly one bit. This operator is the main difference to $(1 + 1)$ EA.

Glossary (in English) XIV

FRLS The RLS with FFA plugged in [299]. On the discrete bit-string domains, this algorithm has a very specific structure: Its unary search operator flips exactly one bit, distinguishing it from the unary operator in the $(1+1)$ FEA, which flips each bit with probability $1/n$. On other domains, such as permutations, we use the term synonymously with $(1+1)$ FEA.

RTS *Reactive Tabu Search* is a variant of TS where the length of the tabu list is adapted to the problem and to the current evolution of the search, and an escape strategy for diversifying the search is used when that is not sufficient [14–17]. It has successfully been applied to a wide range of problems, from the QAP [15,16], to Knapsack problems [14,16], the N-K landscape [14] to the training of neural networks [17].

SA *Simulated Annealing* is a SLS that sometimes accepts a worse solution [49,142,149,216,277]. The probability to do so decreases over time and with the difference in objective values, i.e.,is the lower the worse the new solution is. SA performed well on a variety of problems, including the QAP [196,264] and the JSSP [211].

SATLIB is a library of benchmark instances for the Maximum Satisfiability (MaxSAT) available at https://www.cs.ubc.ca/~hoos/SATLIB/index-ubc.html [133,134].

Self-Adjusting $(1+(\lambda,\lambda))$ GA The Self-Adjusting $(1+(\lambda,\lambda))$ GA is a theory-inspired EA for bit string-based search spaces [48]. It has linear runtime on the OneMax problem [78].

server In a client-server architecture, the server is a process that fulfills the requests of the clients. It usually waits for incoming communication carring the requests from the clients. For each request, it takes the necessary actions, performs the required computations, and then sends a response with the result of the request. Typical examples of servers are web servers [45] in the internet as well as DBMSes. It is also common to refer to the computer running the server processes as server as well, i.e., to call it the „server computer“ [157].

SGA The Standard Genetic Algorithm [11,70,115,193,199,277] was the first EA. It maintains a population of solutions and applies mutation and crossover to generate offspring solutions. It uses fitness proportionate selection to choose which solutions should „survive“ into the next generation, which today is considered a very bad design choice, see, e.g., [289].

Glossary (in English) XV

SLS *Stochastic local search* is a local search (LS), one of the simplest metaheuristic search paradigms [132]: A single „current" candidate solution is maintained and new solutions are *stochastically* sampled from its neighborhood, i.e., in a way that involves random numbers. If these solutions are deemed interesting based on their objective value, they replace the „current". The cycle continues. Basic examples are RLS and $(1+1)$ EA. More complex examples that add mechanisms to escape local optima on top of the SLS paradigm are TS and SA.

SOTA State-of-the-Art, i.e., the best-performing methods for a field or problem type

SQL The *Structured Query Language* is basically a programming language for querying and manipulating relational databases [51,67–69,137,190,244,246,247,258]. It is understood by many DBMSes. You find the Structured Query Language (SQL) commands supported by PostgreSQL in the reference [244].

(string) interpolation In Python, string interpolation is the process where all the expressions in an f-string are evaluated and the final string is constructed. An example of string interpolation is turning `f"Rounded {1.234:.2f}"` to `"Rounded 1.23"`.

STSP A *symmetric Traveling Salesperson Problem* is a special case of the TSP, where the $n \times n$ distance matrix A is symmetric, i.e., $A[a,b] = A[b,a] \forall a, b \in 1..n$.

terminal A terminal is a text-based window where you can enter commands and execute them [12,58]. Knowing what a terminal is and how to use it is very essential in any programming- or system administration-related task. If you want to open a terminal under Microsoft Windows, you can Druck auf ⊞+R, dann Schreiben von `cmd`, dann Druck auf ↵. Under Ubuntu Linux, Ctrl+Alt+T opens a terminal, which then runs a Bash shell inside.

Trap The Trap problem is a benchmark problem for bit-string based black-box search [87,204,299]. It is structured exactly like OneMax, however the worst and the best solution are swapped. This makes the problem highly deceptive, as following the „gradient" in the search space leads the search away from the global optimum. For bit strings of length n, the objective function $f(x)$ of the minimization variant is 0 if $\|x\|_1 = 0$ and $n - \|x\|_1 + 1$ otherwise, where $\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$. An $(1+1)$ EA will converge to the resulting local optimum and thus have an expected runtime of $\Theta(n^n)$ [87]. In experiments, the $(1+1)$ FEA achieves polynomial runtime on Trap, seemingly in $\mathcal{O}(n^2 \ln n)$ [285,286,299].

Glossary (in English) XVI



TS *Tabu Search* is one of the most successful SLSes [111,112,114,144]. In order to avoid returning to previous solutions, it declares certain solutions or search moves as „tabu.“ For example, if a bit in a discrete problem has been flipped by the search operator, it may be forbidden to flip the bit again for some time, thus preventing the algorithm from getting trapped in a cycle. This rule may be overridden if a new best-so-far solution is discovered that outperforms all previous solutions, in which case it would be accepted (this is the so-called aspiration criterion). TS has performed well on the QAP [15,16,195,198,255,256] and on the JSSP [206,213,215,237,300].

TSP In an instance of the *Traveling Salesperson Problem*, also known as *Traveling Salesman Problem*, a set of n cities or locations as well as the distances between them are given [5,123,162,168,281,287]. The goal is to find the shortest round-trip tour that starts at one city, visits all the other cities one time each, and returns to the origin. The TSP is one of the most well-known $\mathcal{NP}$-hard combinatorial optimization problems [108,123,156]. The TSP has many applications[5], including in transportation, logistics, (circuit) plotting and drilling problems[122], telescope aiming, and genome sequencing. Solutions are often encoded as permutations x of the first n natural numbers, where each city gets a number and the order of numbers in the permutation corresponds to the order of cities in the tour. The distances between the n cities are usually given in a $n \times n$ distance matrix A, where $A[a, b]$ is the distance from city a to city b with $a, b \in 1..n$. Then, the objective function subject to minimization is $f(x) = A[x_n, x_1] + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} A[x_i, x_{i+1}]$. Typical benchmark instances can be found in TSPLib [226,227], the 8th DIMACS challenge[145–147], and the *World TSP* repository[63].

TSPLib is a library of benchmark instances for the Traveling Salesperson Problem (TSP) [226,227]. Its original URL was available until 2025 and then became defunct. The repository https://github.com/shredderzwj/TSPLIB contains the data. Additionally, you may also check https://github.com/thomasWeise/tspSuite, which contains all the TSPLib instances as well as Java code to load them. The TSPLib contains 110 instances of the symmetric Traveling Salesperson Problems (STSPs) with scales n ranging from 14 to 85 900, but 93 instances have less than 2000 nodes. There also are 19 asymmetric Traveling Salesperson Problems (ATSPs) with scales $n \in 17..443$.

Glossary (in English) XVII



TTP The *Traveling Tournament Problem* is the combinatorial optimization problem of both efficiently and fairly organizing a tournament of n teams that play against each other in a pairwise fashion [92,293]. The efficient part boils down to arranging the games such that the total travel length is short, which is somewhat similar to the classical TSP. Initially, each team is at its home location. On each day, a team needs to travel if its scheduled game is not at its present location. On the last day, each team may need to travel back home unless their last game is a home game. The total travel length sums up the lengths of all travels over all teams. The fair part is represented in several constraints, such as doubleRoundRobin, compactness, maxStreak, and noRepeat. The TTP is $\mathcal{NP}$-hard [274].

TwoMax The TwoMax problem is a benchmark problem for bit-string based black-box search [105,270,299]. It has a global and a local optimum, both of about the same size, at opposite ends of the search space. For bit strings of length n, the objective function $f(x)$ of the minimization variant is 0 if $\|x\|_1 = n$ and $1 + n - \max\{\|x\|_1, n - \|x\|_1\}$ otherwise, where $\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$. An $(1+1)$ EA has a 50/50 chance to converge to the local or global optimum and thus has an expected runtime in $\Theta(n^n)$ [104,105]. In experiments, the $(1+1)$ FEA achieves polynomial runtime seemingly in $\mathcal{O}(n^2 \ln n)$ on TwoMax [285,286,299].

type hint are annotations that help programmers and static code analysis tools such as Mypy to better understand what type a variable or function parameter is supposed to be [159,271]. Python is a dynamically typed programming language where you do not need to specify the type of, e.g., a variable. This creates problems for code analysis, both automated as well as manual: For example, it may not always be clear whether a variable or function parameter should be an integer or floating point number. The annotations allow us to explicitly state which type is expected. They are *ignored* during the program execution. They are a basically a piece of documentation.

Ubuntu is a variant of the open source operating system Linux [58,128]. We recommend that you use this operating system to follow this class, for software development, and for research. Learn more at https://ubuntu.com. If you are in China, you can download it from https://mirrors.ustc.edu.cn/ubuntu-releases.

UCS Universal Coded Character Set, see Unicode

Glossary (in English) XVIII



Unicode A standard for assigning characters to numbers [138,261,268]. The Unicode standard supports basically all characters from all languages that are currently in use, as well as many special symbols. It is the predominantly used way to represent characters in computers and is regularly updated and improved.

URI A *Uniform Resource Identifier* is an identifier for an abstract or physical resource in the internet [297]. It can be a URL, a name, or both. URIs are supersets of URLs. The connection strings of the PostgreSQL DBMS are examples of Uniform Resource Identifiers (URIs).

URL A *Uniform Resource Locator* identifies a resource in the WWW and a way to obtain it by describing a network access mechanism. The most notable example of URLs is the text you write into web browsers to visit websites [26]. URLs are subsets of URIs.

UTF-8 The *UCS Transformation Format 8* is one standard for encoding Unicode characters into a binary format that can be stored in files [138,297]. It is the world wide web's most commonly used character encoding, where each character is represented by one to four bytes. It is backwards compatible with ASCII.

VCS A *Version Control System* is a software which allows you to manage and preserve the historical development of your program code [267]. A distributed VCS allows multiple users to work on the same code and upload their changes to the server, which then preserves the change history. The most popular distributed VCS is Git.

VND *Variable Neighborhood Descend*; see VNS. VND in combination with GRASP has been applied to the 2BP|O|F in [212].

Glossary (in English) XIX



VNS *Variable Neighborhood Search* is a metaheuristic framework combining a systematic change of neighborhood with LS [125,200]. A *neighborhood* structure in LS defines which solutions can be reached from a given solution within one search step. Usually, one uses a single unary operator and, hence, has a single neighborhood structure. However, for many problems, we can easily design many operators. For permutations, for example, one operator may swap two elements, another one may reverse a section of the permutation, and yet another one, while yet another one may rotate a subsequence one step to the left or right [281]. In the VNS framework, a multiple neighborhoods are investigated in a systematic fashion. Assume that we have a list of neighborhood structures. Variable Neighborhood Descend (VND) works in a deterministic fashion. It finds the best solution that can be reached in one step from the current solution under the current neighborhood. If this is better than the current solution, we accept it and continue with the first neighborhood. Otherwise, we continue with the next neighborhood in the list. In Basic VNS, instead of picking the best move from the current neighborhood, the first improving move is used. Also, at the beginning of each cycle, a random point from the current neighborhood around the current solution is chosen as starting point.

WWW World Wide Web [25,72]

$i!$ The factorial $a!$ of a natural number $a \in \mathbb{N}_1$ is the product of all positive natural numbers less than or equal to a, i.e., $a! = 1 * 2 * 3 * 4 * \cdots * (a-1) * a$ [50,89,182].

$i..j$ with $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $i \leq j$ is the set that contains all integer numbers in the inclusive range from i to j. It always holds that $i..j \subset \mathbb{Z}$. For example, 5..9 is equivalent to $\{5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$

A the $n \times n$ distance matrix. $A[a, b]$ indicates the distance between locations a and b with $a, b \in 1..n$. A distance matrix can be symmetric, in which case $A[a, b] = A[b, a]\ \forall a, b \in 1..n$. Distance matrices represent the problem instance data in TSPs and part of the instance data of QAPs.

B the $n \times n$ flow matrix. $B[a, b]$ is the flow of goods between locations a and b with $a, b \in 1..n$. Flow matrices are one half of the problem instance data of QAPs.

Glossary (in English) XX

$f(y)$ The *objective function* $f : \mathbb{Y} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ can compute a cost or rating for each candidate solution y in the solution space $\mathbb{Y}$. The smaller this value, the better the solution, i.e., in the context of this work, objective functions are subject to minimization. Objective functions are not necessarily continuous and it is also quite common that they have integer or natural numbers as results, e.g., we often have $f : \mathbb{Y} \mapsto \mathbb{N}_0$ instead of $f : \mathbb{Y} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$.

$\gamma(x)$ The decoding function $\gamma : \mathbb{X} \mapsto \mathbb{Y}$ translates point from the search space $\mathbb{X}$ to one point y in the solution space $\mathbb{Y}$. It is a very common case that $\mathbb{X} = \mathbb{Y}$ and that the decoding function γ is the identity mapping. Examples for encodings that translate from a simple search space $\mathbb{X}$ to a complex solution data structure $\mathbb{Y}$ are the IBL algorithm that translates (potentially signed) permutations to two-dimensional packings on the 2BP, the permutation-based encoding of Gantt charts for the JSSP from [29,30,110,235,282], or the permutation-based encoding of game plans for the Traveling Tournament Problem (TTP) from [293]. Encodings can also translate between types of search spaces. The Random Keys encoding, for example, translates from $[0, 1]^n$ to permutations of the first n natural numbers..

k the number of jobs in an instance of the JSSP.

m the number of machines in an instance of the JSSP.

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n We usually use the value $n \in \mathbb{N_0}$ to denote the *scale*, i.e., the size of the problem to solve. This notion is very general in computer science and not limited to optimization. For example, if we sort a list or search in a list, the scale n is the length of the list, i.e., the number of elements in it. In a TSP, this may be the number of cities. In a discrete benchmark problem such as OneMax or Trap, this may be the number of bits over which the problem is defined. In a QAP, this may be the number of facilities and locations. In a MaxSAT problem, this may be the number of variables that are input to the Boolean formula that we want to become true. There are also problems where the scale is not defined straightforwardly like this. For example, in a JSSP, we have a number of machines and a number of jobs, which together define the size of the problem. But even then, the scale n relates to the size of the solution space $\mathbb{Y}$, and, hence, also of the search space $\mathbb{X}$, which usually grow exponentially with n. And this is already the main issue: The larger n, the (exponentially) larger the number of possible solutions and thus, the larger the runtime of algorithms. This is known as the „curse of dimensionality“ [23,53]. Scales n are also often used in conjunction with the $\mathcal{O}$-notation to denote algorithm complexity. For example, comparison-based sorting a list of n items takes $\mathbf{\Theta}(n \log n)$ steps [163] (because they need $\lceil \log_2 n! \rceil$ comparisons in the worst case).

$\mathbb{N_0}$ the set of the natural numbers *including* 0, i.e., 0, 1, 2, 3, and so on. It holds that $\mathbb{N_0} \subset \mathbb{Z}$ and that $\mathbb{N_0} = \mathbb{N_1} \cup \{0\}$.

$\mathbb{N_1}$ the set of the natural numbers *excluding* 0, i.e., 1, 2, 3, 4, and so on. It holds that $\mathbb{N_1} \subset \mathbb{Z}$ and that $\mathbb{N_1} = \mathbb{N_0} \setminus \{0\}$.

$\mathcal{NP}$ is the class of computational problems that can be solved in polynomial time by a non-deterministic machine and can be verified in polynomial time by a deterministic machine (such as a normal computer) [119].

$\mathcal{NP}$-complete A decision problem is $\mathcal{NP}$-complete if it is in $\mathcal{NP}$ and all problems in $\mathcal{NP}$ are reducible to it in polynomial time [119,221]. A problem is $\mathcal{NP}$-complete if it is $\mathcal{NP}$-hard and if it is in $\mathcal{NP}$.

$\mathcal{NP}$-hard A problem is $\mathcal{NP}$-hard if all problems in $\mathcal{NP}$ are reducible to it in polynomial time [119]. Algorithms that guarantee to find the correct solutions of $\mathcal{NP}$-hard problems [52,60,161] have a worst-case runtime that grows exponentially with the problem scale.

$\mathbf{\Omega}(g(x))$ If $f(x) = \mathbf{\Omega}(g(x))$, then there exist positive numbers $x_\mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^+$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}^+$ such that $f(x) \geq c * g(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \geq x_\mathbf{0}$ [64,151,152]. In other words, $\mathbf{\Omega}(g(x))$ describes a lower bound for function growth.

$\mathcal{O}(g(x))$ If $f(x) = \mathcal{O}(g(x))$, then there exist positive numbers $x_\mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^+$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}^+$ such that $0 \leq f(x) \leq c * g(x)$ for all $x \geq x_\mathbf{0}$ [10,64,151,152,158]. In other words, $\mathcal{O}(g(x))$ describes an upper bound for function growth.

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$\Theta(g(x))$ If $f(x) = \Theta(g(x))$, then $f(x) = \mathcal{O}(g(x))$ and $f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$ [151,152], meaning that there exist positive constants $c_1, c_2, x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^+$ such that $0 \leq c_1 g(x) \leq f(x) \leq c_2 g(x)$ for all $x \geq x_0$ [64]. In other words, $\Theta(g(x))$ describes an exact order of function growth.

$o(g(x))$ If $f(x) = o(g(x))$, then there exist positive numbers $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^+$ such that $0 \leq f(x) \leq c * g(x)$ for all $x \geq x_0$ *all* $c \in \mathbb{R}^+$ [64]. Different from $\mathcal{O}(g(x))$, $o(g(x))$ holds for *all* constants $c > 0$, whereas $\mathcal{O}(g(x))$ implies the existence of *some* constant $c > 0$. This basically means that $f(x)$ becomes insignificant compared to $g(x)$ as x_0 grows toward infinity. It is often written that $\lim_{x_0 \to \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 0$. In other words, $o(g(x))$ describes an upper bound for function growth that is not asymptotically tight, i.e., an upper bound that grows faster than $f(x)$.

$\mathbb{R}$ the set of the real numbers.

$\mathbb{R}^+$ the set of the positive real numbers, i.e., $\mathbb{R}^+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x > 0\}$.

$\omega(g(x))$ If $f(x) = \omega(g(x))$, then for every positive constant $c > 0$, there exists a number $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^+$ such that $0 \leq c * g(x) < f(x)$ for all $x \geq x_0$ [64]. In other words, $f(x) = \omega(g(x))$ if and only if $g(x) = o(f(x))$. In other words, ω describes a lower bound that is not asymptotically tight.

$\mathbb{X}$ The search space $\mathbb{X}$ is the space through which an optimization algorithm navigates in order to find good solutions. The search operators of metaheuristics are used to sample points $x \in \mathbb{X}$, for example. On many benchmark problems, the objective functions f directly evaluate the elements $x \in \mathbb{X}$, i.e., are defined as $f : \mathbb{X} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$. However, very often these elements x are not the same data structures that the user is interested in and/or that the objective functions evaluate: It is common that the search space $\mathbb{X}$ is a simple and plain data structure that can be tackled with standard operations or mathematical tools, such as real vectors $\mathbb{R}^n$, permutations, or bit strings, whereas the solution space $\mathbb{Y}$ can be something more complicated. Then, the user only cares about the solutions $y \in \mathbb{Y}$ and not about the search space $\mathbb{X}$. A decoding $\gamma : \mathbb{X} \mapsto \mathbb{Y}$ is employed to translate the $x \in \mathbb{X}$ to $y = \gamma(x)$ with $y \in \mathbb{Y}$.

x a point in the search space $\mathbb{X}$.

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$\mathbb{Y}$ the set of candidate solutions of an optimization problem is called the *solution space* $\mathbb{Y}$. The solution space corresponds to the data structure holding the candidate solutions y. These are the elements that are passed to the user after the optimization process is completed. They are also the parameters of the objective function(s) $f : \mathbb{Y} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$.

y a candidate solution $y \in \mathbb{Y}$ is one possible solution to an optimization problem. After the optimization process is completed, one or multiple such solutions are passed to the user.

$\mathbb{Z}$ the set of the integers numbers including positive and negative numbers and 0, i.e., . . . , -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, . . . , and so on. It holds that $\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{R}$.