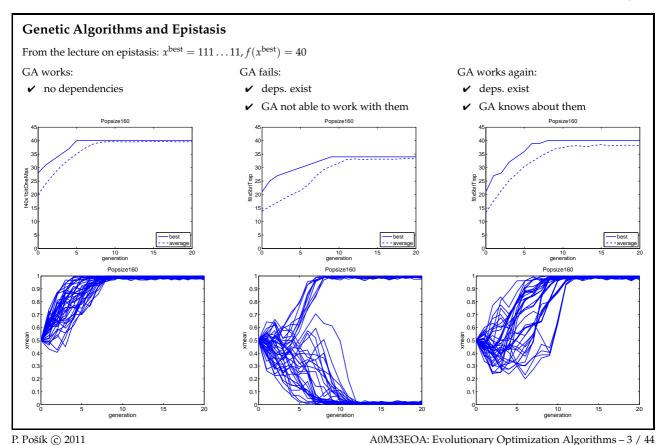
# Estimation-of-Distribution Algorithms. Discrete Domain.

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Genetic Algorithms

Algorithm 1: Genetic Algorithm

Conventional GA operators

✓ are not adaptive, and

begin

Initialize the population.

while termination criteria are not met do

**Select** parents from the population.

**Cross over** the parents, create offspring.

Mutate offspring.

**Incorporate** offspring into the population.

 $Select \rightarrow cross\ over \rightarrow mutate\ approach$ 

What does an intearction mean?

- $\checkmark$  we would like to create a new offspring by mutation
- $\checkmark$  we would like the offspring to have better, or at least the same, quality as the parent
- $\checkmark$  if we must modify  $x_i$  together with  $x_j$  to reach the desired goal (if it is not possible to improve the solution by modifying either  $x_i$  or  $x_j$  only), then  $x_i$  interacts with  $x_j$ .

The goal of recombination operators:

- ✓ Intensify the search in areas which contained "good" individuals in previous iterations.
- Must be able to take the interactions into account.
- ✓ Why not directly describe the distribution of "good" individuals???

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cannot (or ususally do not) discover and use the

interactions among solution components.

#### **GA vs EDA** Algorithm 1: Genetic Algorithm Algorithm 2: Estimation-of-Distribution Alg. 1 begin 1 begin Initialize the population. **Initialize** the population. 2 while termination criteria are not met do while termination criteria are not met do Select parents from the population. **Select** parents from the population. 4 Learn a model of their distribution. Cross over the parents, create offspring. 5 Mutate offspring. Sample new individuals. **Incorporate** offspring into the population. **Incorporate** offspring into the population. $Select \rightarrow cross\ over \rightarrow mutate\ approach$ $Select \rightarrow model \rightarrow sample \ approach$

#### **Explicit probabilistic model:**

- ✔ principled way of working with dependencies
- ✓ adaptation ability (different behavior in different stages of evolution)

#### Names:

EDA Estimation-of-Distribution Algorithm

PMBGA Probabilistic Model-Building Genetic Algorithm

IDEA Iterated Density Estimation Algorithm

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#### Content of the lectures

- 1. EDA for discrete domains (e.g. binary)
  - ✓ Motivation example
  - Without interactions
  - ✔ Pairwise interactions
  - ✔ Higher order interactions
- 2. EDA for real domain (vectors of real numbers)
  - ✔ Evolution strategies
  - ✔ Histograms
  - ✔ Gaussian distribution and its mixtures

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Motivation Example 7 / 44

#### Example

# 5-bit OneMax (CountOnes) problem:

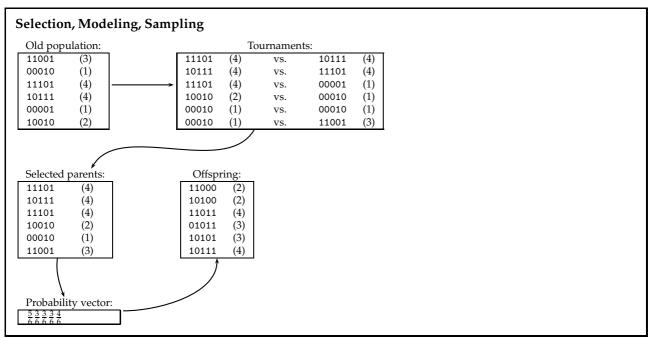
- $f_{\text{Dx1bitOneMax}}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{d=1}^{D} x_d$
- ✓ Optimum: 11111, fitness: 5

# Algorithm: Univariate Marginal Distribution Algorithm (UMDA)

- ✔ Population size: 6
- ✓ Tournament selection: t = 2
- **✓ Model:** vector of probabilities  $p = (p_1, ..., p_D)$ 
  - $\mathbf{x}$  each  $p_d$  is the probability of observing 1 at dth element
- ✓ Model learning:
  - $\mathbf{x}$  compute p from selected individuals
- ✓ Model sampling:
  - **x** generate 1 on dth position with probability  $p_d$  (independently of other positions)

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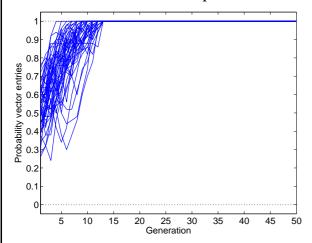
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# UMDA Behaviour for OneMax problem



- ✓ 1s are better then 0s on average, selection increases the proportion of 1s
- Recombination preserves and combines 1s, the ratio of 1s increases over time
- If we have many 1s in population, we cannot miss the optimum

The number of evaluations needed for reliable convergence:

Algorithm	Nr. of evaluations
UMDA	$\mathcal{O}(D \ln D)$
Hill-Climber	$\mathcal{O}(D \ln D)$
GA with uniform xover	approx. $\mathcal{O}(D \ln D)$
GA with 1-point xover	a bit slower

UMDA behaves similarly to GA with uniform crossover!

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#### What about a different fitness?

For OneMax function:

 ${m ec {m ec {\it V}}}$  UMDA works well, all the bits probably eventually converge to the right value.

Will UMDA be similarly successful for other fitness functions?

**∨** Well, ......no.:-(

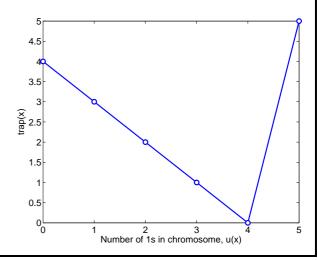
Problem: Concatanated 5-bit traps

$$f = f_{\text{trap}}(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5) + f_{\text{trap}}(x_6, x_7, x_8, x_9, x_{10}) + \dots$$

The *trap* function is defined as

$$f_{\text{trap}}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 5 & \text{if } u(\mathbf{x}) = 5\\ 4 - u(\mathbf{x}) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where  $u(\mathbf{x})$  is the so called *unity* function and returns the number of 1s in  $\mathbf{x}$  (it is actually the One Max function).



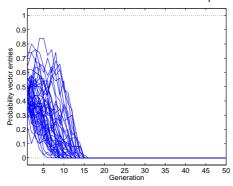
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### UMDA behaviour on concatanated traps

#### Traps:

- ✔ Optimum in 1111111...1
- ✓ But  $f_{trap}(0****) = 2$  while  $f_{trap}(1****) = 1.375$
- $\checkmark$  1-dimensional probabilities lead the GA to the wrong way!
- ✓ Exponentially increasing population size is needed, otherwise GA will not find optimum reliably.



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#### What can be done about traps?

The  $f_{\text{trap}}$  function is *deceptive*:

- $\checkmark$  Statistics over 1\*\*\*\* and 0\*\*\*\* do not lead us to the right solution
- ✓ The same holds for statistics over 11\*\*\* and 00\*\*\*, 111\*\* and 0000\*\*, 1111\* and 0000\*\*.
- ✓ Harder than the *needle-in-the-haystack* problem:
  - 🗶 regular haystack simply does not provide any information, where to search for the needle
  - $m{x}$   $f_{trap}$ -haystack actively lies to you—it points you to the wrong part of the haystack
- $m{arepsilon}$  But:  $f_{\mathrm{trap}}(\mathtt{00000}) < f_{\mathrm{trap}}(\mathtt{11111})$ , 11111 will be better than 00000 on average
- ✓ 5bit statistics should work for 5bit traps in the same way as 1bit statistics work for OneMax problem!

#### Model learning:

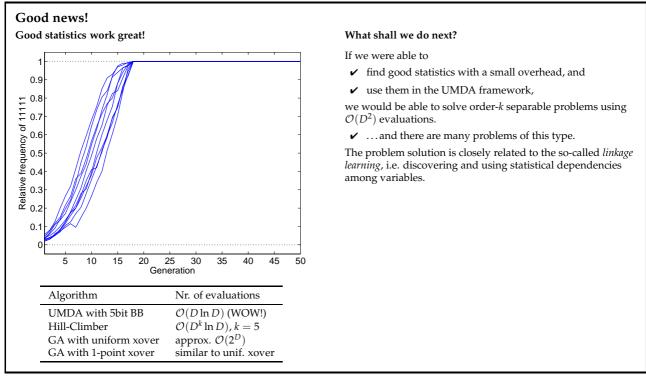
- ✓ build model for each 5-tuple of bits
- $\checkmark$  compute p(00000), p(00001), ..., p(11111),

### Model sampling:

- $\checkmark$  Each 5-tuple of bits is generated independently
- ✓ Generate 00000 with probability p(00000), 00001 with probability p(00001), ...

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Discrete EDAs 15 / 44

### **Discrete EDAs: Overview**

- 1. Overview:
  - (a) Univariate models (without interactions)
  - (b) Bivariate models (pairwise dependencies)
  - (c) Multivariate models (higher order interactions)
- 2. Conclusions

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# **EDAs** without interactions

- 1. **Population-based incremental learning (PBIL)** Baluja, 1994
- 2. Univariate marginal distribution algorithm (UMDA) Mühlenbein and Paaß, 1996
- 3. Compact genetic algorithm (cGA) Harik, Lobo, Goldberg, 1998

#### Similarities

✓ all of them use a vector of probabilities

#### Differences

- PBIL and cGA do not use population (only the vector p);
   UMDA does
- $\checkmark$  PBIL and cGA use different rules for the adaptation of p

#### Advantages:

- ✓ Simplicity
- ✓ Speed
- ✓ Simple simulation of large populations

#### Limitations:

✓ Solves reliably only order-1 decomposable problems

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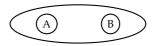
#### **EDAs with Pairwise Interactions**

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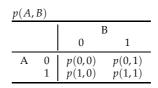
#### From single bits to pairwise models

How to describe two positions together?

✔ Using the joint probability distribution:



Number of free parameters: 3



✓ Using statistical dependence:



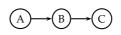
Number of free parameters: 3

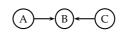
 $p(A,B) = p(B|A) \cdot p(A)$ :

$$p(B = 1|A = 0)$$
  
 $p(B = 1|A = 1)$   
 $p(A = 1)$ 

Question: what is the number of parameters in case of the following models?







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# Example with pairwise dependencies: dependency tree

- ✓ Nodes: binary variables (loci of chromozome)
- ✔ Edges: dependencies among variables
- ✔ Features:
  - **x** Each node depends at most on 1 other node
  - **x** Graph does not contain cycles
  - **x** Graph is connected

Learning the structure of dependency tree:

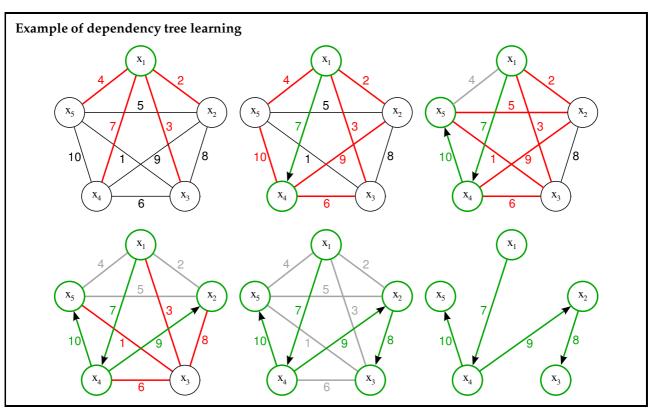
1. Score the edges using mutual information:

$$I(X,Y) = \sum_{x,y} p(x,y) \cdot \log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)}$$

- 2. Use any algorithm to determine the maximum spanning tree of the graph, e.g. Prim (1957)
  - (a) Start building the tree from any node
  - (b) Add such a node that is connected to the tree by the edge with maximum score

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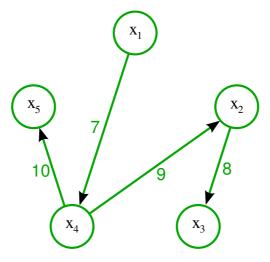
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# Dependency tree: probabilities



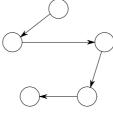
Probability	Number of params
$p(X_1 = 1)$	1
$p(X_4 = 1 X_1)$	2
$p(X_5 = 1 X_4)$	2
$p(X_2 = 1   X_4)$	2
$p(X_3=1 X_2)$	2
Whole model	9

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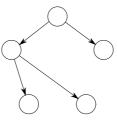
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# EDAs with pairwise interactions

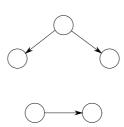
- 1. MIMIC (sequences)
  - Mutual Information Maximization for Input Clustering
  - ✔ de Bonet et al., 1996



- 2. **COMIT** (trees)
  - ✓ Combining Optimizers with Mutual Information Trees
  - ✔ Baluja and Davies, 1997



- 3. BMDA (forrest) 
  ✓ Bivariate Marginal Distribution Algorithm
  - ✔ Pelikan and Mühlenbein, 1998



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# **Summary**

- ✔ Advantages:
  - x Still simple
  - x Still fast
  - **x** Can learn *something* about the structure
- ✓ Limitations:
  - **x** Reliably solves only order-2 decomposable problems

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#### **EDAs with Multivariate Interactions**

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#### **ECGA**

Extended Compact GA, Harik, 1999

Marginal Product Model (MPM)

- ✔ Variables are treated in groups
- ${\color{red} {\bf {\it {V}}}}$  Variables in different groups are considered statistically independent
- ✔ Each group is modeled by its joint probability distribution
- ✔ The algorithm adaptively searches for the groups during evolution

 	 	 	 	 [10] 10]

#### Learning the structure

- 1. Evaluation metric: Minimum Description Length (MDL)
- 2. Search procedure: greedy
  - (a) Start with each variable belonging to its own group
  - (b) Perform such a join of two groups which improves the score best
  - (c) Finish if no join improves the score

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#### **ECGA:** Evaluation metric

#### Minimum description length:

Minimize the number of bits needed to store the model and the data encoded using the model

$$DL(Model, Data) = DL_{Model} + DL_{Data}$$

#### Model description length:

Each group g has |g| dimensions, i.e.  $2^{|g|} - 1$  frequencies, each of them can take on values up to N

$$DL_{Model} = \log N \sum_{g \in G} (2^{|g|} - 1)$$

# Data description length using the model:

Defined using the entropy of marginal distributions ( $X_g$  is |g|-dimensional random vector,  $x_g$  is its realization):

$$DL_{Data} = N \sum_{g \in G} h(X_g) = -N \sum_{g \in G} \sum_{x_g} p(X_g = x_g) \log p(X_g = x_g)$$

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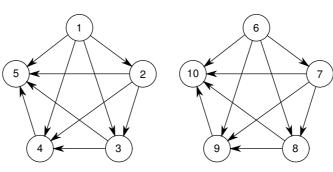
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# BOA

Bayesian Optimization Algorithm: Pelikán, Goldberg, Cantù-Paz, 1999

Bayesian network (BN)

- ✔ Conditional dependencies (instead groups)
- ✓ Sequence, tree, forrest special cases of BN
- ✔ For trap function:



- ✓ The same model used independently in
  - ✗ Estimation of Bayesian Network Alg. (EBNA), Etxeberria et al., 1999
  - ✗ Learning Factorized Density Alg. (LFDA), Mühlenbein et al., 1999

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# **BOA:** Learning the structure

- 1. Evaluation metric:
  - ✔ Bayesian-Dirichlet metric, or
  - ✔ Bayesian information criterion (BIC)
- 2. Search procedure: greedy
  - (a) Start with graph with no edges (univariate marginal product model)
  - (b) Perform one of the following operations, choose the one which improves the score best
    - ✔ Add an edge
    - ✔ Delete an edge
    - ✔ Reverse an edge
  - (c) Finish if no operation improves the score

BOA solves order-k decomposable problems in less then  $\mathcal{O}(D^2)$  evaluations!

$$n_{evals} = \mathcal{O}(D^{1.55})$$
 to  $\mathcal{O}(D^2)$ 

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# **Scalability Analysis**

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#### **Test functions**

One Max:

$$f_{Dx1bitOneMax}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{d=1}^{D} x_d$$

$$f_{DbitTrap}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} D & \text{if } u(\mathbf{x}) = D \\ D - 1 - u(\mathbf{x}) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

**Equal Pairs**:

$$f_{D ext{bitEqualPairs}}(\mathbf{x}) = 1 + \sum_{d=2}^{D} f_{ ext{EqualPair}}(x_{d-1}, x_d)$$

$$f_{\text{EqualPair}}(x_1, x_2) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_1 = x_2 \\ 0 & \text{if } x_1 \neq x_2 \end{cases}$$

Sliding XOR:

$$\begin{split} f_{D \text{bitSlidingXOR}}(\mathbf{x}) &= 1 + f_{\text{AllEqual}}(\mathbf{x}) + \\ &+ \sum_{d=3}^{D} f_{\text{XOR}}(x_{d-2}, x_{d-1}, x_d) \end{split}$$

$$f_{\text{AllEqual}}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x} = (000...0) \\ 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x} = (111...1) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$f_{\text{XOR}}(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_1 \oplus x_2 = x_3 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Concatenated short basis functions:

$$f_{NxK \text{bitBasisFunction}} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} f_{\text{BasisFunction}}(x_{K(k-1)+1}, \dots, x_{Kk})$$

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#### Test function (cont.)

- 1.  $f_{40x1bitOneMax}$ 
  - ✔ order-1 decomposable function, no interactions
- 2.  $f_{1x40bitEqualPairs}$ 
  - $\checkmark$  non-decomposable function
  - ✓ weak interactions: optimal setting of each bit depends on the value of the preceding bit
- 3.  $f_{8x5bitEqualPairs}$ 
  - ✓ order-5 decomposable function
- 4.  $f_{1x40bitSlidingXOR}$ 
  - ✓ non-decomposable function
  - ✓ stronger interactions: optimal setting of each bit depends on the value of the 2 preceding bits
- 5.  $f_{8x5bitSlidingXOR}$ 
  - ✓ order-5 decomposable function
- 6.  $f_{8x5bitTrap}$ 
  - ✓ order-5 decomposable function
  - ${m \prime}$  interactions in each 5-bit block are very strong, the basis function is deceptive

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# Scalability analysis

#### Facts:

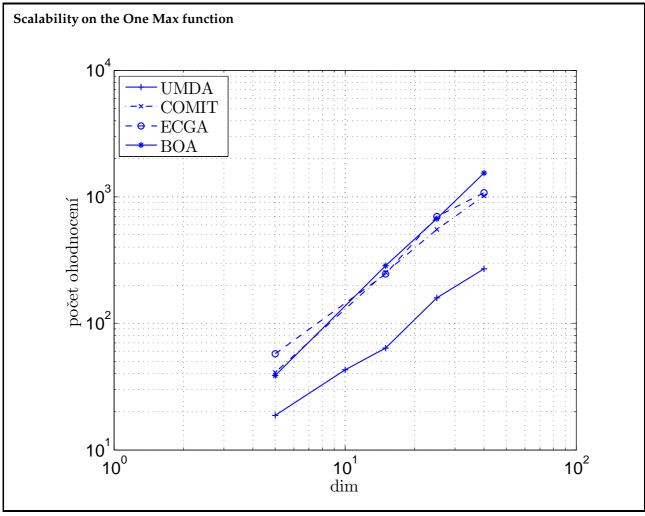
- ✓ using small population size, population-based optimizers can solve only easy problems
- $\checkmark$  increasing the population size, the optimizers can solve increasingly harder problems
- ... but using a too big population is wasting of resources.

#### Scalability analysis:

- $\checkmark$  determines the optimal (smallest) population size, with which the algorithm solves the given problem reliably
  - x reliably: algorithm finds the optimum in 24 out of 25 runs)
  - **x** for each problem complexity, the optimal population size is determined e.g. using the bisection method
- ✓ studies the influence of the problem complexity (dimensionality) on the optimal population size and on the number of needed evaluations

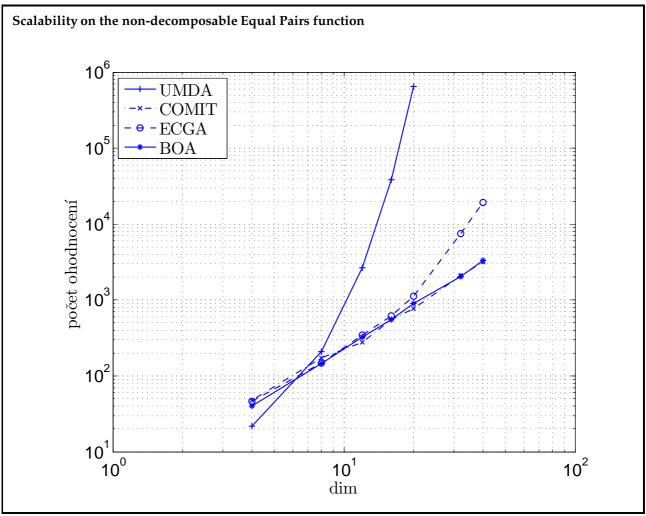
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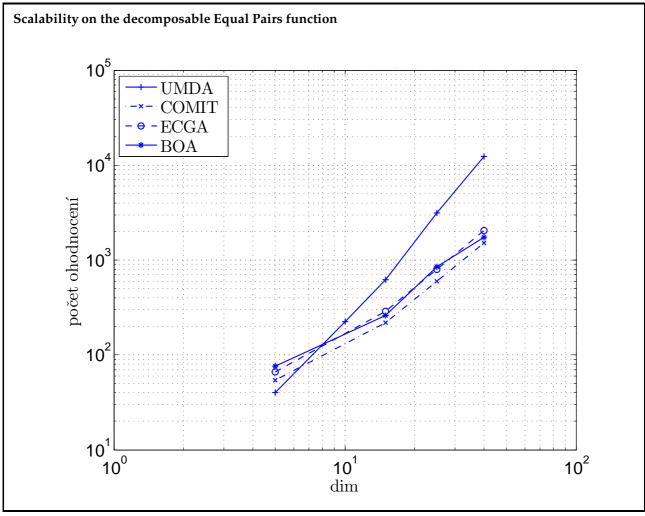
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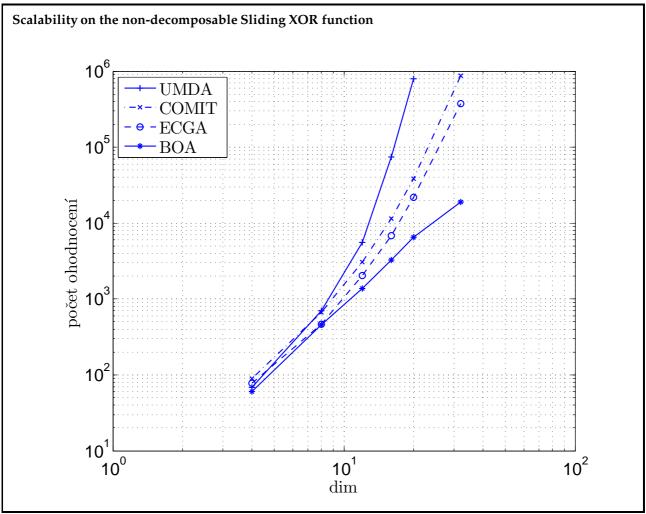
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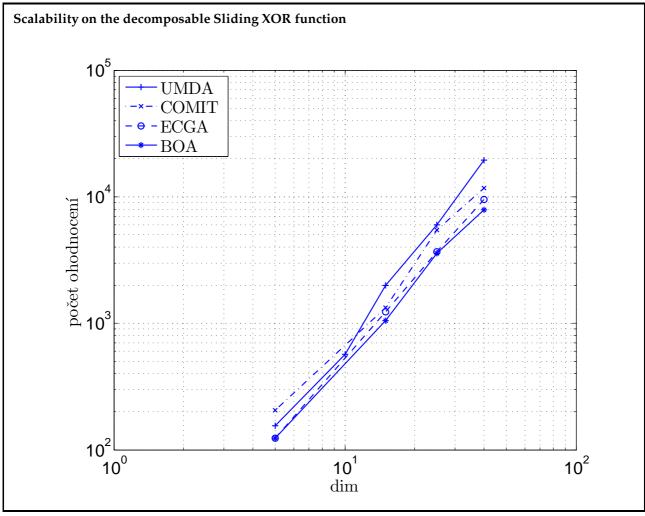
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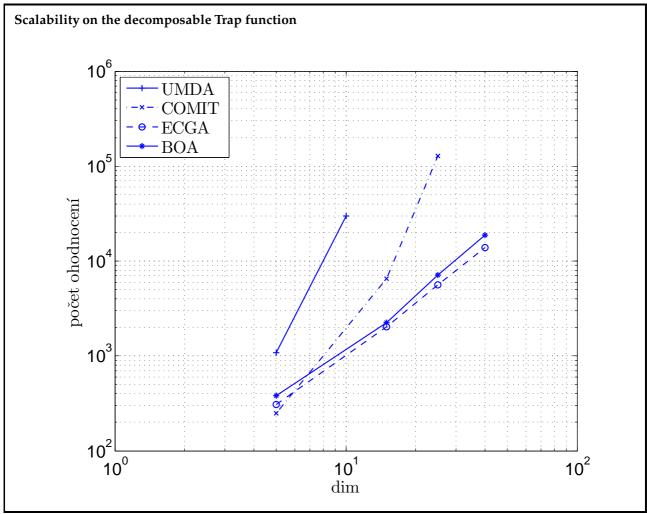
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### Model structure during evolution

During the evolution, the model structure is increasingly precise and at the end of the evolution, the model structure describes the problem structure exactly.

#### NO! That's not true!

#### Why?

- ✓ In the beginning, the distribution patterns are not very discernible, models similar to uniform distributions are used.
- ✓ In the end, the population converges and contains many copies of the same individual (or a few individuals). No interactions among variables can be learned. Model structure is wrong (all bits independent), but the model describes the position of optimum very precisely.
- ✓ The model with the best matching structure is found somewhere in the middle of the evolution.
- ✓ Even though the right structure is never found during the evolution, the problem can be solved successfully.

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#### Summary

### Models:

- ✔ Bayesian networks are general models of joint probability
- ✔ High-dimensional models are hard to train
- ${m arepsilon}$  High-dimensional models are very flexible

# Advantages:

✔ Reliably solves problems decomposable to subproblems of bounded order

#### Limitations:

✔ Does not solve problems decomposable to logarithmic subproblems (hierarchical problems)

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# **Suggestions for discrete EDAs**

#### For simple problems:

- ✔ PBIL, UMDA, cGA
- ✓ they behave similarly to simple GAs

# For harder problems:

- ✓ MIMIC, COMIT, BMDA
- ✓ they are able to account for bivariate dependencies

# For hard problems:

- ✔ BOA, ECGA, EBNA, LFDA
- ✓ they can take into account more general dependencies, problems with hierarchichal structures

#### For even harder problems:

✔ hBOA (hierarchical BOA)

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