#### GECCO 2016 Tutorial

#### **Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms**



Dirk Thierens
Utrecht University
Department of Information and
Computing Sciences
Utrecht, The Netherlands



Peter A.N. Bosman Centrum Wiskunde & Informatica – CWI (Centre for Mathematics and Computer Science)

Amsterdam, The Netherlands

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#### Outline

#### Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms (MBEA)

- ► Introduction
- ▶ Part I: Discrete Representation
- ► Part II: Real-Valued, Permutation, and Program Representations

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#### What?

#### **Evolutionary Algorithms**

- ▶ Population-based, stochastic search algorithms
- ► Exploitation: selection
- ► Exploration: mutation & crossover

#### Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ▶ Population-based, stochastic search algorithms
- ► Exploitation: selection
- ► Exploration:
  - 1. Learn a model from selected solutions
  - 2. Generate new solutions from the model (& population)

# What?

#### Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms (MBEA)

- ▶ a.k.a. Estimation of Distribution Algorithms (EDAs)
- ▶ a.k.a. Probabilistic Model-Building Genetic Algorithms
- ▶ a.k.a. Iterated Density Estimation Evolutionary Algorithms

 $\mathsf{MBEA} = \mathsf{Evolutionary} \ \mathsf{Computing} + \mathsf{Machine} \ \mathsf{Learning}$ 

Note: model not necessarily probabilistic

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# Why?

#### Goal: Black Box Optimization

- ▶ Little known about the structure of the problem
- ► Clean separation optimizer from problem definition
- ► Easy and generally applicable

#### Approach

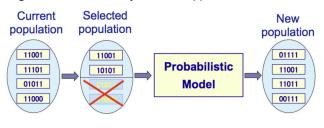
- \* Classical EAs: need suitable representation & variation operators
- \* Model-Based EAs: learn structure from good solutions

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# Discrete Representation

- ► Typically binary representation
- ► Higher order cardinality: similar approach



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#### Probabilistic Model-Building Genetic Algorithm

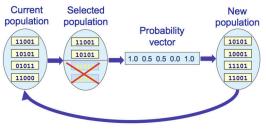
#### Type of Models

- ► Univariate: no statistical interaction between variables considered.
- ▶ Bivariate: pairwise dependencies learned.
- ► Multivariate: higher-order interactions modeled.

# Univariate PMBGA

#### Model

- \* Model: probability vector  $[p_1, ..., p_\ell]$  ( $\ell$ : string length)
- \*  $p_i$ : probability of value 1 at string position i
- \*  $p(X) = \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} p(x_i)$  ( $p(x_i)$ : univariate marginal distribution)
- ▶ Learn model: count proportions of 1 in selected population
- ► Sample model: generate new solutions with specified probabilities



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#### Univariate PMBGA

#### **Different Variants**

- ► PBIL (Baluja; 1995)
  - ▶ Prob. vector incrementally updated over successive generations
- ► UMDA (Mühlenbein, Paass; 1996)
  - ▶ No incremental updates: example above
- ► Compact GA (Harik, Lobo, Goldberg; 1998)
  - ► Models steady-state GA with tournament selection
- ▶ DEUM (Shakya, McCall, Brown; 2004)
  - Uses Markov Random Field modeling

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# A hard problem for the univariate FOS

Data	Marginal Product (MP) FOS				
000000		$\hat{P}(X_0X_1X_2)$	$\hat{P}(X_3X_4X_5)$		
111111	000	0.3	0.3		
010101 101010	001	0.0	0.0		
000010	010	0.2	0.2		
111000	011	0.0	0.0		
010111	100	0.0	0.0		
111000	101	0.1	0.1		
000111	110	0.0	0.0		
111111	_111	0.4	0.4		

	Univariate FOS						
	$\hat{P}(X_0)$	$\hat{P}(X_1)$	$\hat{P}(X_2)$	$\hat{P}(X_3)$	$\hat{P}(X_4)$	$\hat{P}(X_5)$	
0	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	
1	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	

- ▶ What is the probability of generating 111111?
- ▶ Univariate FOS:  $0.5 \cdot 0.6 \cdot 0.5 \cdot 0.5 \cdot 0.6 \cdot 0.5 = 0.0225$
- ► MP FOS:  $0.4 \cdot 0.4 = 0.16$  (7 times larger!)

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# Learning problem structure on the fly

- ▶ Without a "good" decomposition of the problem, important partial solutions (building blocks) are likely to get disrupted in variation.
- ▶ Disruption leads to inefficiency.
- ► Can we automatically configure the model structure favorably?
- ► Selection increases proportion of good building blocks and thus "correlations" between variables of these building blocks.
- ► So, learn which variables are "correlated".
- ▶ See the population (or selection) as a data set.
- $\,\blacktriangleright\,$  Apply statistics / probability theory / probabilistic modeling.

# Bivariate PMBGA

#### Model

- ▶ Need more than just probabilities of bit values
- ► Model pairwise interactions: conditional probabilities
- ► MIMIC (de Bonet, Isbell, Viola; 1996)
  - ► Dependency Chain
- ► COMIT (Baluja, Davies; 1997)
  - Dependency Tree
- ▶ BMDA (Pelikan , Mühlenbein; 1998)
  - ► Independent trees (forest)

#### Bivariate PMBGA

#### **MIMIC**

- ► Model: chain of pairwise dependencies.
- $p(X) = \prod_{i=1}^{\ell-1} p(x_{i+1}|x_i)p(x_1).$
- ► MIMIC greedily searches for the optimal permutation of variables that minimizes Kullack-Leibler divergence.

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#### Bivariate PMBGA

#### COMIT

- ▶ Optimal dependency tree instead of linear chain.
- ► Compute fully connected weighted graph between problem variables.
- ▶ Weights are the mutual information I(X, Y) between the variables.
- $I(X,Y) = \sum_{y \in Y} \sum_{x \in X} p(x,y) \log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)}$
- ► COMIT computes the maximum spanning tree of the weighted graph.

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# Bivariate PMBGA

#### BMDA

- ▶ BMDA also builds tree model.
- ▶ Model not necessarily fully connected: set of trees or forrest.
- ► Pairwise interactions measured by Pearson's chi-square statistics.

# Bivariate PMBGA

#### **DSMGA**

- ► Dependency Structure Matrix Genetic Algorithm (Yu, Goldberg, Sastry, Lima, Pelikan; 2009)
- ▶ Dependency Structure Matrix (DSM) contains the information of pairwise interactions.
- ► DSMGA constructs the DSM by using mutual information metric.
- ► DSM clustering aims to transfer the pair-wise interaction information into higher-order interaction information.
- ▶ DSM Clustering Metric based on the minimum description length principle (MDL).

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#### Multivariate PMBGA

#### Marginal Product Model

- ► Extended Compact GA (ECGA) (Harik; 1999) was first EDA going beyond pairwise dependencies.
- ► Greedily searches for the Marginal Product Model that minimizes the minimum description length (MDL).
- $p(X) = \prod_{g=1}^G p(X_g)$
- ▶ Choose the probability distribution with the lowest MDL score.
- ▶ Start from simplest model: the univariate factorization.
- ▶ Join two groups that result in the largest improvement in the used scoring measure.
- ▶ Stop when no joining of two groups improves the score further.

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#### Multivariate PMBGA

#### Minimum Description Length (MDL)

- $ightharpoonup MDL(M, D) = D_{Model} + D_{Data}$
- ▶ Best factorization = the one with the lowest MDL score.
- ▶ MDL is a measure of complexity.
  - Compressed population complexity: how well the population is compressed by the model (measure of goodness of the probability distribution estimation).
  - Model complexity: the number of bits required to store all parameters of the model.

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# Multivariate PMBGA

#### Learning MP model

1. Start from univariate FOS:

$$\{\{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \dots, \{l-2\}, \{l-1\}\}$$

2. All possible pairs of partitions are temporarily merged:

$$\{\{0,1\},\{2\},\dots,\{I-2\},\{I-1\}\}$$

$$\{\{0,2\},\{1\},\dots,\{I-2\},\{I-1\}\}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\{\{0\},\{1,2\},\dots,\{I-2\},\{I-1\}\}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\{\{0\},\{1\},\{2\},\dots,\{I-2,I-1\}\}$$

- 3. Compute MDL score of each factorization.
- 4. Choose the best scoring factorization if better than current.
- 5. Repeat until no better scoring factorization is found.

# Multivariate PMBGA

#### Bayesian Network

- ► Probability vector, dependency tree, and marginal product model are limited probability models.
- ▶ Bayesian network much more powerful model.
  - Acyclic directed graph.
  - Nodes are problem variables.
  - ▶ Edges represent conditional dependencies.

#### Multivariate PMBGA Bayesian Selected Current New network population population population

#### Multivariate PMBGA

#### Bayesian network learning

- ▶ Similar to ECGA: scoring metric + greedy search
- ► Scoring metric: MDL or Bayesian measure
- ► Greedy search:
  - ▶ Initially, no variables are connected.
  - Greedily either add, remove, or reverse an edge between two variables.
  - ▶ Until local optimum is reached.

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# Multivariate PMBGA

#### Bayesian Network PMBGAs variants

- ▶ Bayesian Optimization Algorithm (BOA) (Pelikan, Goldberg, Cantú-Paz; 1998)
- ► Estimation of Distribution Networks Algorithm (EBNA) (Etxeberria, Larrañaga; 1999)
- ► Learning Factorized Distribution Algorithm (LFDA) (Mühlenbein, Mahnig, Rodriguez; 1999)
- ▶ Similarities: All use Bayesian Network as probability model.
- Dissimilarities: All use different method to learn BN.

#### Hierarchical BOA

- ► hBOA (Pelikan, Goldberg; 2001)
- ▶ Decomposition on multiple levels.
  - ▶ Bayesian network learning by BOA
- ► Compact representation.
  - ► Local Structures to represent conditional probabilities.
- ▶ Preservation of alternative solutions.
  - ► Niching with Restricted Tournament Replacement

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#### Multivariate PMBGA

#### Markov Network

- Markov Netwok EDA (MN-EDA: Santana, 2005) (DEUM: Shakya & McCall, 2007).
- ▶ Probability model is undirected graph.
- ► Factorise the joint probability distribution in cliques of the undirected graph and sample it.
- ► Most recent version: Markovian Optimisation Algorithm (MOA) (Shakya & Santana, 2008).
- ► MOA does not explicitly factorise the distribution but uses the local Markov property and Gibbs sampling to generate new solutions.

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# Family Of Subsets (FOS) model

#### FOS $\mathcal{F}$

- ► PMBGAs learn a probabilistic model of good solutions to match the structure of the optimization problem
- Key idea is to identify groups of problem variables that together make an important contribution to the quality of solutions.
- ► Dependency structure generally called a Family Of Subsets (FOS).
- ▶ Let there be  $\ell$  problem variables  $x_0, x_1, ..., x_{\ell-1}$ .
- ▶ Let *S* be a set of all variable indices  $\{0, 1, ..., \ell 1\}$ .
- $\blacktriangleright$  A FOS  $\mathcal{F}$  is a set of subsets of the set S.
- ▶ FOS  $\mathcal{F}$  is a subset of the powerset of S ( $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(S)$ ).

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# Family Of Subsets (FOS) model

► FOS can be written more specifically as:

$$\mathcal{F} = \{ \mathbf{F}^0, \mathbf{F}^1, \dots, \mathbf{F}^{|\mathcal{F}|-1} \}$$

where

$$\mathbf{F}^i \subset \{0, 1, \dots, l-1\}, \quad i \in \{0, 1, \dots, |\mathcal{F}|-1\}$$

► Every variable is in at least one subset in the FOS, i.e.:  $\forall i \in \{0, 1, ..., l-1\} : (\exists j \in \{0, 1, ..., |\mathcal{F}| - 1\} : i \in \mathbf{F}^j)$ 

# The Univariate Structure

► The univariate FOS is defined by:

$$\mathbf{F}^i = \{i\}, \quad i \in \{0, 1, \dots, l-1\}$$

▶ For I = 10 the univariate FOS is:

$$\mathcal{F} = \{\{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{4\}, \{5\}, \{6\}, \{7\}, \{8\}, \{9\}\}\$$

Every variable is modeled to be independent of other varibables.

# The Marginal Product Structure

► The marginal product (MP) FOS is a FOS such that:

$$\mathbf{F}^i \cap \mathbf{F}^j = \emptyset, \quad i, j \in \{0, 1, \dots, l-1\}.$$

- ▶ Univariate FOS is a MP FOS.
- ▶ For I = 10 a possible MP FOS is:

$$\mathcal{F} = \{\{0, 1, 2\}, \{3\}, \{4, 5\}, \{6, 7, 8, 9\}\}\$$

 Every group of variables is modeled to be independent of other variables.

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# The Linkage Tree Structure

- ▶ The linkage tree (LT) FOS is a hierarchical structure.
- ► Group of all variables is in there.
- ► For any subset **F**<sup>i</sup> with more than one variable, there are subsets **F**<sup>j</sup> and **F**<sup>k</sup> such that:

$$\mathbf{F}^j \cap \mathbf{F}^k = \emptyset$$
,  $|\mathbf{F}^j| < |\mathbf{F}^i|$ ,  $|\mathbf{F}^k| < |\mathbf{F}^i|$  and  $\mathbf{F}^j \cup \mathbf{F}^k = \mathbf{F}^i$ 

For I = 10 a possible LT FOS is

$$\mathcal{F} = \{ \{7, 5, 8, 6, 9, 0, 3, 2, 4, 1\}, \\ \{7, 5, 8, 6, 9\}, \{0, 3, 2, 4, 1\}, \{7\}, \{5, 8, 6, 9\}, \\ \{0, 3, 2, 4\}, \{1\}, \{5, 8, 6\}, \{9\}, \{0, 3\}, \{2, 4\}, \\ \{5, 8\}, \{6\}, \{0\}, \{3\}, \{2\}, \{4\}, \{5\}, \{8\} \}$$

- ▶ Variables sometimes independent, sometimes dependent.
- ▶ ≈ Path through dependency space, from univariate to joint.

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# Linkage Tree

- ► Linkage Tree structure: subsets of FOS *F* form a hierarchical clustering.
- ► F = {{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9}, {0,1,2,3,4,5}, {6,7,8,9}, {0,1,2}, {3,4,5}, {7,8,9}, {0,1}, {4,5}, {8,9}, {0}, {1}, {2}, {3}, {4}, {5}, {6}, {7}, {8}, {9}}
- ► Each subset (of length > 1) is split in two mutually exclusive subsets.
- ▶ Problem variables in subset are considered to be dependent on each other but become independent in a child subset.
- ▶ For a problem of length  $\ell$  the linkage tree has  $\ell$  leaf nodes (the clusters having a single problem variable) and  $\ell-1$  internal nodes.

# Linkage Tree Learning

- Start from univariate structure.
- ▶ Build linkage tree using bottom-up hierarchical clustering algorithm.
- Similarity measure:
  - 1. Between individual variables X and Y: mutual information I(X, Y).
  - 2. Between cluster groups  $X_{F^i}$  and  $X_{F^j}$ : average pairwise linkage clustering (= unweighted pair group method with a arithmetic mean: UPGMA).

$$I^{UPGMA}(X_{F^i}, X_{F^j}) = \frac{1}{|X_{F^i}||X_{F^j}|} \sum_{X \in X_{F^i}} \sum_{Y \in X_{F^i}} I(X, Y).$$

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# Linkage Tree Learning

- This agglomerative hierarchical clustering algorithm is computationally efficient.
- ▶ Only the mutual information between pairs of variables needs to be computed once, which is a  $O(\ell^2)$  operation.
- ▶ The bottom-up hierarchical clustering can also be done in  $O(\ell^2)$  computation by using the *reciprocal nearest neighbor chain* algorithm.

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# Optimal Mixing Evolutionary Algorithms (OMEA)

- ► OMEA is a Model-Building EA that uses a FOS as its linkage model (Thierens & Bosman, 2011).
- ► Characteristic of Optimal Mixing Evolutionary Algorithm (OMEA) is the use of intermediate function evaluations (inside variation)
- ► Can be regarded as greedy improvement of existing solutions
- ► Coined "Optimal" Mixing because better instances for substructures are immediately accepted and not dependent on "noise" coming from other parts of the solution
- ► Recombinative OM (ROM) and Gene-pool OM (GOM)
  - ▶ ROM is GA-like: select single solution to perform OM with
  - GOM is EDA-like: select new solution for each substructure in OM

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# Optimal Mixing EA (GOMEA)

- ▶ FOS linkage models specify the linked variables.
- ► A subset of the FOS is used as crossover mask
- ► Crossover is greedy: only improvements (or equal) are accepted.
- Each generation a new FOS model is build from selected solutions
- ► For each solution in the population, all subsets of the FOS are tried with a donor solution randomly picked from the population
- ► Recombinative OM (ROM) and Gene-pool OM (GOM)
  - ▶ ROMEA: each solution uses a single donor solution.
  - ▶ GOMEA: new donor selected for each FOS subset.

# Gene-pool Optimal Mixing EA

```
GOMEA()
  Pop ← InitPopulation()
  while NotTerminated(Pop)
  FOS ← BuildFOS(Pop)
  forall Sol ∈ Pop
    forall SubSet ∈ FOS
        Donor ← Random(Pop)
        Sol ← GreedyRecomb(Sol,Donor,Subset,Pop)
  return Sol
```

```
GreedyRecomb(Sol,Donor,SubSet,Pop)
  NewSol ← ReplaceSubSetValues(Sol,SubSet,Donor)
  if ImprovementOrEqual(NewSol,Sol)
     then Sol ← NewSol
  return Sol
```

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# Recombinative Optimal Mixing EA

```
ROMEA()
```

```
Pop ← InitPopulation()
while NotTerminated(Pop)
  FOS ← BuildFOS(Pop)
  forall Sol ∈ Pop
      Donor ← Random(Pop)
      forall SubSet ∈ FOS
            Sol ← GreedyRecomb(Sol,Donor,Subset,Pop)
return Sol
```

#### GreedyRecomb(Sol,Donor,SubSet,Pop)

NewSol ← ReplaceSubSetValues(Sol,SubSet,Donor)
 if ImprovementOrEqual(NewSol,Sol)
 then Sol ← NewSol
return Sol

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#### Linkage Tree Genetic Algorithm

- ► The LTGA is an instance of GOMEA that uses a Linkage Tree as FOS model (Thierens & Bosman, 2010, 2011).
- ► Each generation a new hierarchical cluster tree is build.
- ► For each solution in population, traverse tree starting at the top.
- Nodes (= clusters) in the linkage tree used as crossover masks.
- ► Select random donor solution, and its values at the crossover mask replace the variable values from the current solution.
- ► Evaluate new solution and accept if better/equal, otherwise reject.

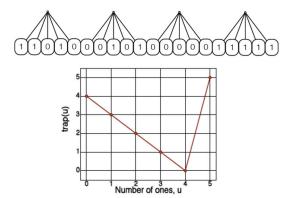
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# Deceptive Trap Function

Interacting, non-overlapping, deceptive groups of variables.

$$f_{\mathrm{DT}}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{l-k} f_{\mathrm{DT}}^{\mathrm{sub}} \left( x_{(i,\ldots,i+k-1)} \right)$$



# Nearest-neighbor NK-landscape

▶ Overlapping, neighboring random subfunctions

$$f_{\text{NK-S1}}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{l-k} f_{\text{NK}}^{\text{sub}} \left( x_{(i,\dots,i+k-1)} \right) \text{ with } f_{\text{NK}}^{\text{sub}} \left( x_{(i,\dots,i+k-1)} \right) \in [0..1]$$

• eg. 16 subsfcts, length k=5, overlap  $o=4\Rightarrow$  stringlength  $\ell=20$ 

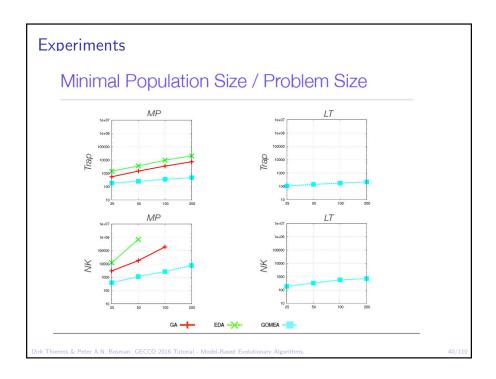


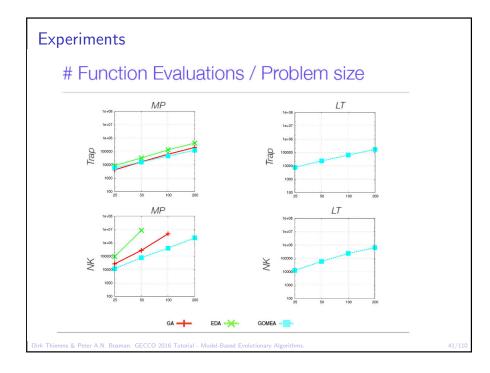
- ► Global optimum computed by dynamic programming
- ▶ Benchmark function: structural information is not known!
- ► ⇒ Randomly shuffled variable indices.

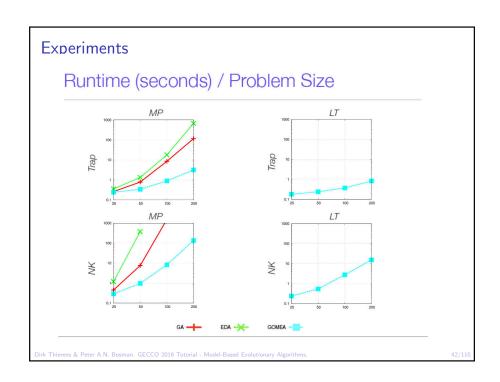
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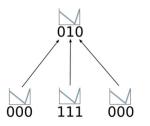




# Hierarchical Trap function

# HTrap

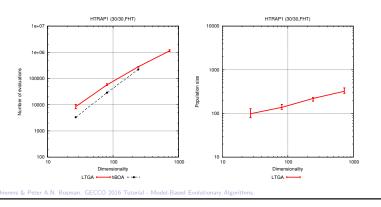
- ▶ Combine deceptive trap functions at each level in tree.
- ► Balanced *k*—ary tree
- ▶ Internal nodes are 0 (resp. 1) if all their children are 0 (resp. 1).
- ► Global optimum is all ones, yet at each level search is biased towards zeroes.



#### Hierarchical Trap function

#### HTrap: LTGA and hBOA

- ► HTrap problems: block length *k* = 3; problem lengths 27, 81, 243 & 729.
- ▶ Number of evaluations & minimal population size.



# Experiments: conclusion

- ► LTGA (= GOMEA with LT FOS) very efficient on Deceptive Trap function, Nearest-Neighbor NK landscape, and Hierarchical Trap function.
- ► Tree not always suitable linkage model: for instance spin-glasses LTGA vs. hBOA (Pelikan, Hauschild & Thierens, 2011).
- ► Other FOS models possible: Linkage Neighborhood OM (Bosman & Thierens, 2012).
- ► Linkage Tree seems to be good compromise between FOS model complexity and search efficiency.

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# Predetermined vs. Learned FOS

- Problem structure unknown: learn a FOS model.
- Problem structure Information available: predetermined FOS model.
- ▶ What is a good predetermined FOS model ?
- ▶ Direct mapping of dependency structure of problem definition to a predetermined FOS model ?
- ▶ Predetermined linkage models mirroring the static structure of the problem not sufficient (Thierens & Bosman, 2012).
- ▶ Dynamically learned tree model superior to mirror structured models and to static tree model.
- ► Question: is there an optimal, predetermined linkage model that outperforms the learned (tree) model ?

# Parameter-less Population Pyramid

- ▶ P3: no parameter values to choose (Goldman, Punch; 2014)
- ► Each level of a pyramid-like structure is a population of solutions.
- ► Solutions are always hill-climbed.
- ▶ All solutions encountered are stored in the pyramid structure.
- ▶ At each level a Linkage Tree GA is run.
- ► Solutions climb the pyramid ladder with increasing fitness.
- ▶ Whenever a solution enters a level the linkage tree is relearned.

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#### Conclusions

- ▶ "Blind" Evolutionary Algorithms are limited in their capability to detect and mix/exploit/re-use partial solutions (building blocks).
- ► One requires luck or analyzing and designing ways of structure exploitation directly into problem representation and search operators.
- ▶ Having a configurable model can help overcome this.
- ► Algorithm then must learn to configure the model and thereby exploit structure online during optimization (e.g. EDAs, OMEAs).

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# Black-Box Optimization (BBO)

- ▶ Maximize  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathbf{x})$ ,  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{P}$
- ightharpoonup No prior knowledge of  ${\mathfrak F}$
- ► Guess a new x and evaluate it
- ► Can only use previously evaluated solutions
- ► Minimize number of evaluations and/or actual time
- ► Needed when not much known about a problem (e.g. simulations)

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# Black-Box Optimization (BBO)

- ► Assumption: problems are somehow structured
- ► Use induction to find structure
- ► Exploit structure for increased efficiency
- ▶ Preferable to enumeration or iterated random sampling

# Model-based optimization

- ▶ What to induce?
- ▶ Use a model that defines reasonable structures
- ▶ Induce instance of the model
- ► Model capacity determines bias strength

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# Stochastic optimization

- ► Random initial populations
- ▶ Randomized (but potentially structured) variation operators
- ► Why optimize stochastically?
- ► More robust against
  - Noise
  - ► Unreliable gradients (e.g. numerically unstable)
  - Discontinuities
  - Local optima

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# Stochastic model-based optimization

- ► Model: a parameterized (function) class
- ▶ Given observed solutions  $\{(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathfrak{F}(\mathbf{x}^i))\}$ 
  - ▶ Induction: configure the model (construct an instance)
  - ► Variation: generate new solution(s) from model (stochastically)
  - Repeat

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# Stochastic model-based optimization

- ► Model = probability distribution
- ► Induction = learning/estimation
- ightharpoonup Variation = sampling
- ► Estimation-of-Distribution Algorithm (EDA)

# The Estimation-of-Distribution Algorithm (EDA)

- ▶ Use a set of *n* solutions for distribution estimation
- ► Focus on better solutions by selection
- ► Estimate from selection
  - ► EDA: Mühlenbein and Paaß, 1996

#### EDA

- 1 Initialize  $\mathcal{P}$  with n random solutions
- 2 Repeat until termination criterion met
  - 2.1 Select subset  $\mathcal{S}$  from  $\mathcal{P}$
  - 2.2 Estimate distribution from S
  - 2.3 Draw new set of solutions  $\mathcal{O}$  from distribution
  - 2.4 Update  $\mathcal{P}$  with  $\mathcal{O}$

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# Stochastic model-based optimization

- ► Model = description of linkages/dependencies
- ► Induction = learning/statistical testing
- ► Variation = mixing
- ► Optimal Mixing Evolutionary Algorithm (OMEA)

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# The Estimation-of-Distribution Algorithm (EDA)

- ▶ Use a set of *n* solutions for linkage detection
- ► Focus on better solutions by selection within variation
- ► Estimate from selection
  - ▶ OMEA: Thierens and Bosman, 2011

#### **OMEA**

- 1 Initialize  $\mathcal{P}$  with n random solutions
- 2 Repeat until termination criterion met
  - 2.1 Select subset  $\mathcal{S}$  from  $\mathcal{P}$
  - 2.2 Learn linkage model from  ${\cal S}$
  - 2.3 Apply linkage-model guided optimal mixing to every individual in  ${\mathcal P}$  to generate  ${\mathcal O}$
  - 2.4 Replace  $\mathcal{P}$  by  $\mathcal{O}$

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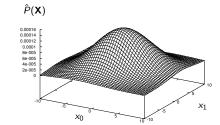
\_\_ ...

# Real-valued Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► Essentially similar questions to case of binary/integer variables
- ▶ We don't have the optimal model...
- ► Approximate the optimal model
- ▶ Match inductive search bias and problem structure
- ► How to learn and perform variation efficiently and effectively
- ► Trade-offs:
  - ► Quality versus complexity of approximation
  - ► Efficiency in # evaluations versus time
- ► Essential model questions:
  - ► Can key problem structure be represented?
  - ► Can key problem structure be represented efficiently?
  - Can the model be learned from data?
  - ► Can the model be learned (and used for variation) efficiently?

#### Normal distribution

- ► Require practically useful models.
- ► For instance normal distribution:



- ▶ Only  $\mathcal{O}(l^2)$  parameters (mean, covariance matrix)
- ► maximum-likelihood (ML) estimates well known

$$\hat{\mu} = rac{1}{|\mathcal{S}|} {\sum_{j=0}^{|\mathcal{S}|-1}} (\mathcal{S}_j), ~~ \hat{oldsymbol{\Sigma}} = rac{1}{|\mathcal{S}|} {\sum_{j=0}^{|\mathcal{S}|-1}} ((\mathcal{S}_j) - \hat{\mu}) ((\mathcal{S}_j) - \hat{\mu})^{ au}$$

► Can only model linear dependencies

#### EDAs based on the Normal Distribution

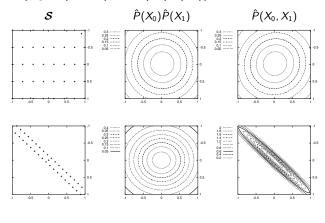
- ► First uses were adaptations of PBIL
  - ► Rudlof and Köppen, 1996
  - ► Sebag and Ducoulombier, 1998
- ► Although initial results were interesting, quickly found that some problems were solved more efficiently if dependencies were modeled

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#### EDAs based on the Normal Distribution

Make decisions based on better fit and increased complexity (e.g.  $\hat{P}(X_0, X_1)$  vs.  $\hat{P}(X_0)\hat{P}(X_1)$ )



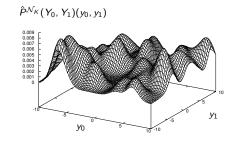
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# EDAs based on the Normal Distribution

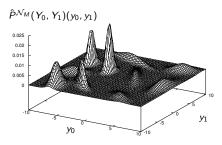
- ► EDAs with factorized Normal Distributions (MIMIC, COMIT, Bayesian, Copula selection, Multivariate (Markov networks))
  - ▶ Bosman and Thierens, 2000, 2001
  - ▶ Larrañaga, Etxeberria, Lozano and Peña, 2000
  - ► Salinas-Gutièrrez, Hernàndez-Aguirre and Villa-Diharce (2011)
  - ► Karshenas, Santana, Bielza and Larrañaga (2012)
- ► On selected problems, improvements were found when using higher-order dependencies
- ▶ On some problems, results didn't get much better however
- ► Initially mainly attributed to mismatch between model and search space
- ► Clearly true to some extent

# EDAs based on the Normal-kernels distribution



- ▶ Bosman and Thierens, 2000
- ▶ Ocenasek and Schwarz, 2002
- Ocenasek, Kern, Hansen, Müller and Koumoutsakos, 2004
- ▶ Natural tendency to fit structure of data (linear or not)
- But also tendency to overfit
- Maximum-likelihood estimate not usable
- Quality of estimation depends heavily on size of kernel

#### EDAs based on the Normal-mixture distribution

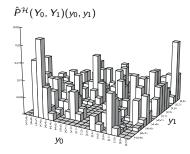


- ► Gallagher, Fream and Downs, 1999
- ▶ Bosman and Thierens. 2001
- Ahn, Ramakrishna and Goldberg, 2004
- ► Trade-off between normal and normal kernels.
- Requires a lot of effort to estimate with maximum likelihood (EM algorithm).
- Clustering, followed by normal–distribution estimate can be used alternatively.

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# EDAs based on the Histogram Distribution



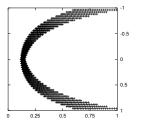
- ▶ Bosman and Thierens. 2000
- ► Tsutsui, Pelikan and Goldberg, 2001
- ▶ Easy to implement and map to integers.
- ▶ Require many bins to get a good estimate.
- Curse of dimensionality.
- Greedy incr. factorization selection hardly possible.

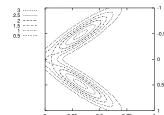
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# EDAs based on the Normal-mixture Distribution Revisited

- ► Cluster first, then estimate (factorized) normal distribution in each cluster
  - ▶ Bosman and Thierens, 2001
  - ► Cho and Zhang, 2002





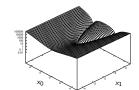
- "Reverse" also possible (more focus on seperability)
- ► Factorize, then estimate mixture distr. per set of variables
- ► Still need to way to factorize however (select pdf to base on)
  - ► Li, Goldberg, Sastry and Yu (2007)

#### EDAs based on latent variable models

- Build models by projecting data onto model of lower dimensionality
- ▶ Helmholtz machines, mixture of factor analyzers, etc
  - ▶ Shin and Zhang, 2001
  - ► Cho and Zhang, 2001
  - Shin, Cho and Zhang, 2001
  - ► Cho and Zhang, 2002
  - ► Cho and Zhang, 2004
- ▶ Better results than standard normal EDA on some problems, but still unable to come close to the optimum of 10-dimensional Rosenbrock function

#### Direct use of normal distribution

- ► Bad results
  - ► Rosenbrock:  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=0}^{l-2} 100(x_{i+1} x_i^2)^2 + (1 x_i)^2$



- because...
  - ► Rosenbrock has narrow valley leading to minimum
  - Quickly samples no longer centered around minimum

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# No attention for the gradient

- ▶ Distribution estimation makes no assumption on source
- ► Source is just selected points in parameter space
- ▶ Gradient info is ignored in maximum-likelihood estimate
- ► For normal distribution: Variance goes to zero too fast

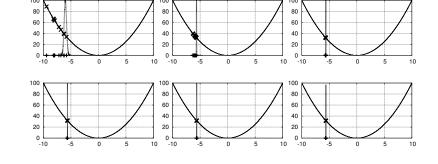
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# Illustration on the 1-D sphere function

$$\mathfrak{F}(\mathbf{x}) = x_0^2$$

Progression in first 6 generations (top-left to bottom-right)



Analysis of the premature-convergence problem

- ► Theoretical analysis reveals indeed limits
  - ► Gonzalez, Lozano and Larrañaga, 2000
  - ► Grahl, Minner and Rothlauf, 2005
  - ▶ Bosman and Grahl, 2005
  - ▶ Yuan and Gallagher, 2006
- ▶ There is for instance a bound on how far the mean can shift

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# Analysis of the premature-convergence problem

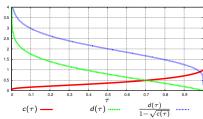
► Variance decreases (exponentially fast)

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \{\hat{\sigma}(t)\} = \lim_{t \to \infty} \{\hat{\sigma}(0)c(\tau)^t\} = 0$$

► This limits mean shift to a fixed factor times initial spread!

$$\lim_{t o\infty}\left\{\hat{\mu}(t)
ight\}=\hat{\mu}(0)+rac{d( au)}{1-\sqrt{c( au)}}\hat{\sigma}(0)$$

- ightharpoonup c( au) and d( au) functions of
  - $\phi()$  (standard normal distribution) and
  - Φ() (inverse cumulative normal distribution)



(Bosman and Grahl, 2005)

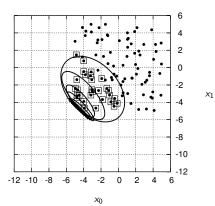
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# Illustration on the 2-D plane function

 $\mathfrak{F}(\mathbf{x}) = x_0 + x_1$ 

Progression in first 6 generations



Error ellipse 95% —

Population 0 •

Selection 0

Selection

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# What is missing?

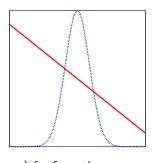
- Structure of landscape can be very complicated
- ▶ "Simple" normal distr. hardly matches global structure
- ▶ More involved distributions possible, but
  - ▶ harder, or even impossible, to estimate with ML
  - ► requires lots of data
- ► Local structure can be approximated but...
  - ▶ there is no generalization outside of the data range
  - Once optimum "lost" outside data range, EDA converges elsewhere, possibly not even a local optimum!
- ► EDA based on maximum-likelihood estimate not efficient

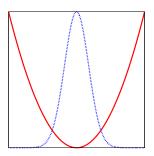
# Ways to improve

- ► Gradient hybridization
  - Explicit use of gradient information
  - Apply gradient-based search to certain solutions (e.g. conjugate gradients)
  - ► Requires gradient computation
    - not always possible
    - ▶ not always reliable
- ► Adapt(ive) (ML) estimation
  - ► Derivative Free
  - ► Maintain EDA properties for valley case
  - ► Adapt in other cases (to explore beyond selected solutions)
  - ► How to distinguish?
  - ► Three ingredients:
    - ► Adaptive Variance Scaling (AVS)
    - Standard-Deviation Ratio (SDR)
    - Anticipated Mean Shift (AMS)

# Adapted Maximum-Likelihood Gaussian Model

- ► Adaptive Variance Scaling (AVS) & Standard-Deviation Ratio (SDR)
- ▶ If improvements are found

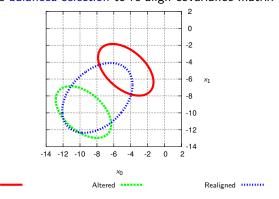




- a) far from the mean, enlarge  $\hat{\Sigma}$
- b) close to the mean, do nothing
- ► Close to the mean: within one standard deviation

# Adapted Maximum-Likelihood Gaussian Model

- Anticipated Mean Shift (AMS)
- Anticipate where the mean is shifting
- ► Alter part of generated solutions by shifting
- ► On a slope, predictions are better (further down slope)
- ▶ Require balanced selection to re-align covariance matrix

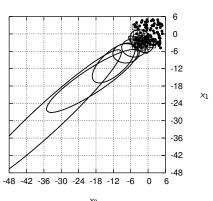


Unaltered

#### Illustration on a 2-D slope

$$\mathfrak{F}(\mathbf{x})=x_0+x_1$$

#### Progression in first 6 generations



Error ellipse 95% -

Population 0

Selection 0

#### AMaLGaM, CMA-ES, NES, and RP

- ► AMaLGaM IDEA (or AMaLGaM for short) Adapted Maximum-Likelihood Gaussian Model Iterated Density-Estimation Evolutionary Algorithm
- Natural question: what is the relation to CMA-ES (Hansen, 2001), NES (Wierstra, Schaul, Peters and Schmidhuber, 2008) and the approach using Random Projections (Kabán, Bootkrajang and Durrant, 2013)?
- ► Answer: the probability distribution
- ▶ All can be seen to be EDAs: every generation they estimate/update a probability distribution (which also happens to be the normal distribution in all three cases) and perform variation by generating new samples from this distribution.

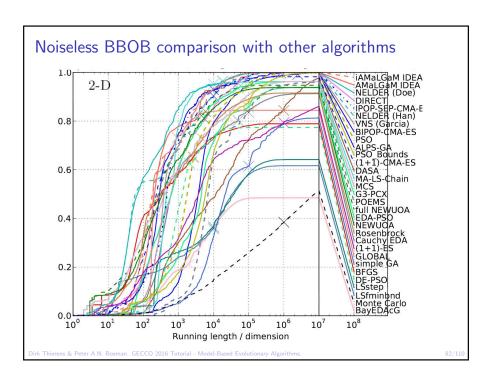
# AMaLGaM, CMA-ES, NES, and RP

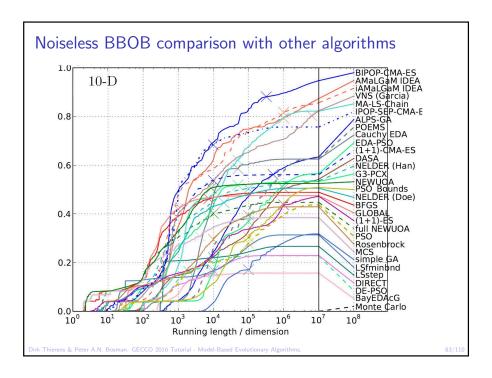
- ▶ Differences are only in how the distribution is obtained. Where AMaLGaM uses maximum-likelihood estimates from the current generation, CMA-ES and NES base estimates on differences between subsequent generations as well as many elaborate enhancements (see tutorial on CMA-ES) and RP uses ensembles of random projections to lower dimensions to estimate covariance matrices more efficiently.
- ► On typical unimodal benchmark problems (sphere, (rotated) ellipsoid, cigar, etc) these algorithms exhibit polynomial scalability in both minimally required population size and required number of function evaluations
- ► CMA-ES, NES and RP scale better than AMaLGaM on such problems

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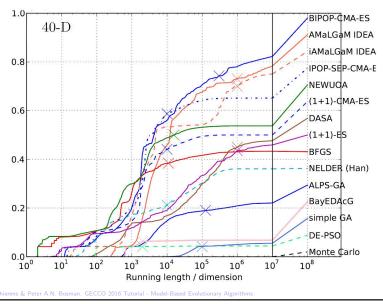
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# Parameter-free Gaussian EDAs Parameters get in the way of ease-of-use Remove all parameters: derive and implement guidelines Restart mechanism to increase success probability Typical restart scheme: increase size exponentially Works well on Griewank (left), not so much on Michalewicz (right) Many different schemes exist therefore (also algorithm specific, e.g. BIPOP-CMA-ES and IPOP-CMA-ES)





# Noiseless BBOB comparison with other algorithms



#### Permutation Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ▶ Binary/Integer representations are discrete, but also Cartesian
- ▶ Other discrete search spaces exist that are non-Cartesian
- ► Most notably: permutation-based problems
- ▶ Important real-world relevance, e.g. routing and scheduling
- ▶ Brings different challenges than Cartesian spaces however
  - ► Relative ordering problems
  - ► Absolute ordering problems
  - Neighbor ordering problems
  - Combinations of these
- Different types of models are more suited for specific types of ordering problem

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# Permutation Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► Building permutation models directly not straightforward
- ▶ Potential aid in the form of random keys (Bean, 1997)
- ► Random keys encode permutations in real-valued space (via sorting)

0	1	2	3	,	3	1	0	2
0.61	0.51	0.62	0.31	$\Rightarrow$	0.31	0.51	0.61	0.62

- ► Real-valued approaches can thus be used directly
  - ▶ Bosman and Thierens (2001) (normal EDA)
  - Larrañaga et al (2001) (normal EDA)
- ► Inefficient scale-up behavior on deceptive additively decomposable relative ordering problems
- Highly redundant encoding that is hard to model with a normal distribution

# Permutation Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- Use crossover on the basis of a factorization of the normal distribution instead
  - Bosman and Thierens, 2001
- ► Now obtain polynomial scale-up behavior
- ► How about a direct modelling of probabilities of permutations?
- Consider a marginal product factorization (i.e. mutually exclusive subsets of variables as in ECGA)
- ► Once an instance is sampled for a subset of variables, other variables can't use these values anymore
- ► One way to deal with this is explicit repair of probability tables during sampling
  - ► Bengoetxea et al (2000)
  - ▶ Pelikan et al (2007)
- Requires very large sample sizes
- Sampling repair can introduce unwanted biases

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#### Permutation Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► For relative-ordering variables, a probabilistically correct factorization approach is possible
  - ▶ Bosman, 2003
- ► Continuous, Binary:  $P(X) = P(X_0, X_4)P(X_1)P(X_3, X_2)$ .
- Permutation:  $P(\mathbf{X}) = \frac{2!1!2!}{5!} P(X_0, X_4) P(X_1) P(X_3, X_2)$ .
- ▶ Random variable  $X_i$ : position of integer i in the permutation  $\rightarrow$  tackle relative—ordering permutation problems.
- ▶ Normalization required, because there are 5! permutations.
- "Oddities" specific to permutations exist (spurious dependencies between "low" variables in one building block and "high" variables in another)
- ► Require specialized adaptations of standard linkage learning / factorization techniques

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#### Permutation Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► Generate instance for each subset of variables independently
- ► Then map to the real-valued domain using random keys and then translate the entire string into a valid permutation
- ▶ Preserves relative ordering of variables in subsets
- ► Can sample directly instead of using crossover (crossover still more robust however)
- Scales polynomially and much better than normal-pdf induced crossover

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#### Permutation Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► Edge-histogram based sampling
  - ► Tsutsui, Pelikan and Goldberg, 2003
- ► Maps well to problems with neighboring variable relations
- ▶ Model is a matrix with probabilities of edges
- ► Matrix needs to be adjusted while sampling
- ► For problems with neighboring relations works better than random keys

# Permutation Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► Requires a distance measure between permutations and a central permutation
- ► Also requires a spread parameter (not estimated from data)
- ▶ Most commonly used distance: Kendall-*τ*, allows factorization
- ► Finding central permutation is NP-hard however
- ► Fast heuristics are possible (linear in *l* and *n*)
- ► Final parameter estimation and sampling are not trivial and require dedicated algorithms
- ► First results are promising (permutation flow shop), outperforming Tsutsui

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# Tree (GP) Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► Not tree-models for dependencies, but tree-models for tree-based solutions
- ► Estimation-of-Distribution Programming (EDP)
- ► Typically grammar based, but not always
- ► Grammar Guided Genetic Programming (GGGP)
- ► Grammars very useful to limit search space
- ▶ But how do we use it learn structural features?

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# Tree (GP) Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► Early works did not use grammar, e.g PIPE (Probabilistic Incremental Program Evolution)
  - ► Salustowicz and Schmidhuber, 1997
- ► Store probabilities of options (operators/terminals) for any node in the solution tree, bound maximum size
- ► All nodes thus independent

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# Tree (GP) Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► If looking at solutions node-based, and using a fixed template, essentially have Cartesian fixed-length representation
- ► Can use existing integer-based model-based EAs on this
- ▶ eCGP (ECGA for GP) does exactly this
  - ► Sastry and Goldberg, 2003
- ► Better results for selected problems, but use of a template has it limitations

# Tree (GP) Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ▶ Extensions to Bayesian factorizations are also possible
- ► Incremental tree complexity (and model complexity) using special operators
  - ► Looks, Goertzel and Pennachin (2004)
  - ► Looks (2006)

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# Tree (GP) Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► Alternative approach: grammar-based
- Start with basic production rules
- ► Learning: assign probabilities to rules and increase complexity and specificity of rules using heuristics
- Sampling: select probabilistically from appropriate production rules
- Results are promising in that less function evaluations are often needed than standard GP, but time-complexity is (much) larger
  - ▶ Shan, McKay, Baxter, Abbass and Essam, 2003
  - ▶ Bosman and de Jong, 2004
  - ▶ Shan, McKay, Baxter, Abbass, Essam and Hoai, 2004
  - Hasegawa and Iba, 2007

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#### Tree (GP) Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

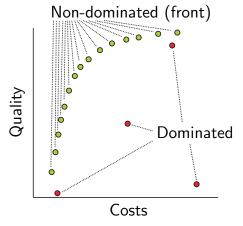
- ▶ Intermediate approach: *n*-grams
- ► Focus probabilities on most important relationships (local, e.g. with parents and grandparents)
- ► Enumerate all possible relationships beforehand
- ▶ Learning: estimate probabilities for the *n*-grams
- ► Sampling: recursively employ the *n*-grams
- ► Advantage: learning is much faster than with grammar transformations
  - Hemberg, Veeramachaneni, McDermott, Berzan and O'Reilly (2012)

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#### Multi-objective Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► Multiple objectives should be optimized simultaneously
- ► Conflicting objectives, no expression of weights
- ► Can't combine the objectives in a single scalar objective
- ➤ Want to present a set of promising alternatives to a decision maker
- Example: Maximize the quality and minimize the production costs of a product
- ► NOTE: This is NOT an MO tutorial



# Multi-objective Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

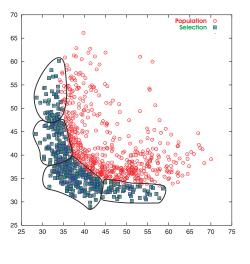
- ► Algorithm attempts to obtain improvements all along the current Pareto front
- ▶ Different regions along Pareto front may be very different
- ▶ E.g. what are far ends of the optimal Pareto front? Optimal solutions for individual objectives  $f_i$
- Restrict variation to clusters (restricted mating)
- ► For instance: obtain clusters along Pareto front: cluster selected solutions
  - ▶ Bosman and Thierens, (2002)
  - ▶ Pelikan, Sastry and Goldberg, (2009)

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# Multi-objective Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms



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# Multi-objective Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

 In EDAs, this clustering corresponds to use of mixture probability distributions

$$P_{(\varsigma,\theta)}(\mathcal{Z}) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \beta_i P_{(\varsigma_i,\theta_i)}(\mathcal{Z})$$

- ► Cluster solutions in objective space (e.g. k-means)
- ▶ Estimate a simpler distribution  $P_{(S_i,\theta_i)}(\mathcal{Z})$  in each cluster
- ▶ Set all mixing coefficients to  $\beta_i = \frac{1}{k}$
- ▶ Parallel, specialized exploration along front

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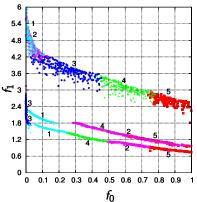
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# Multi-objective Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► Each distribution explores own region
- ► Learning may however by incremental (CMA-ES, iAMaLGaM, iBOA, etc)
- ► Assign each distribution own adaptive incremental mechanisms
- ► Cannot combine directly with clustering each generation
- ► Need correspondence over generations
- ▶ Number of clusters fixed beforehand (k)

# Multi-objective Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► Implicit cluster registration
- ► Keep clusters spatially separated during run.
- ► Assign new solution to its nearest, non-full cluster
- ▶ Can over time lead to inefficient cluster movement



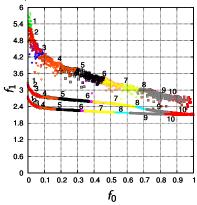
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#### Multi-objective Model-Based Evolutionary Algorithms

- ► Explicit cluster registration
- Minimize sum of cluster distance over all permutations of clusters in subsequent generations
  - ▶ Bosman, 2010



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# Conclusions

- "Blind" metaheuristics are limited in their capability to detect and mix/exploit/re-use structural features of an optimization problem (e.g. partial solutions, building blocks, promising search directions, etc).
- ► One requires luck or analyzing and designing ways of structure exploitation directly into problem representation and search operators.
- ► Having a configurable model can help "overcome" this / help to do this automatically.
- ► Algorithm then must learn to configure the model and thereby exploit structure online during optimization.
- ► Having an explicitly tunable model can really help

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#### Conclusions

- ► We don't have the optimal model...
- ► Approximate the optimal model
- ► Match inductive search bias and problem structure
- ► How to learn and perform variation efficiently and effectively
- ► Trade-offs:
  - Quality versus complexity of approximation
  - ► Efficiency in # evaluations versus time
- ► Essential model questions:
  - Can key problem structure be represented?
  - ► Can key problem structure be represented efficiently?
  - ► Can the model be learned from data?
  - ► Can the model be learned (and used for variation) efficiently?

#### Conclusions

- ► Efficient model-based evolutionary algorithms (EDAs/IDEAs/PMBGAs/OMEAs) exist
- ► Binary/Integer/Permutation/Real-valued/GP & multi-objective
- ► Research is ongoing
- ► Especially useful when optimizing from a black-box perspective (e.g. complex simulations)
- ► Also useful from a white-box perspective
  - ► Can learn more about the problem through learnt models
  - ► Models configurable by hand (remove "expensive" learning overhead)

# Acknowledgements Conclusions ► Books ► Larrañaga and Lozano (eds) (2001). Estimation of Distribution Algorithms: A New Tool for Evolutionary Computation. ▶ Selected images were re-used from the 2012 GECCO tutorial Kluwer. "Probabilistic Model-building Genetic Algorithms" by Martin ► Lozano, Larrañaga, Inza, Bengoetxea (2006). Towards a New Evolutionary Computation: Advances on Estimation of Pelikan. Distribution Algorithms, Springer. ▶ Pelikan, Sastry, Cantú-Paz (eds) (2006). Scalable Optimization via Probabilistic Modeling: From Algorithms to Applications, Springer. 412