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Biologically inspired computing - Lecture 2

Evolution strategies &
Evolutionary programming




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This lecture

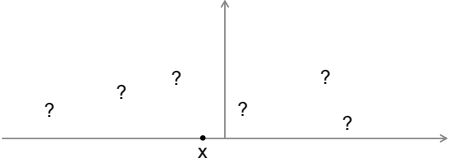
- Random optimization
- Evolution strategies (+ EAs in general)
 - The strategy parameter
 - Random displacements as mutation
 - Selection and recombination
- Evolutionary programming

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Hill climbing in \mathbb{R}^n

- Hill climbing:
 - Randomly select one neighboring solution
 - Continuous space: need to define neighborhood

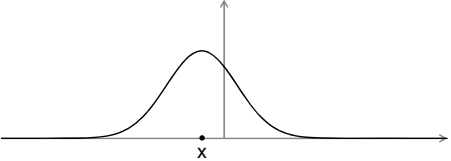


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Random optimization

- The entire space is the neighborhood
 - Selection probabilities are normally distributed:
Closer solutions are more likely to be selected



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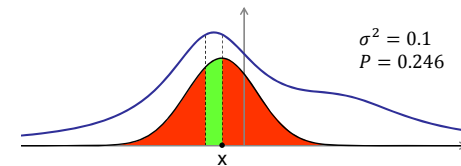
Random optimization

```
def random_opt():
    X = random_vector()
    while not_done():
        Y = X + normal(0, sigma)
        if (f(X) < f(Y)):
            X = Y
    return X
```

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The (1 + 1) evolution strategy

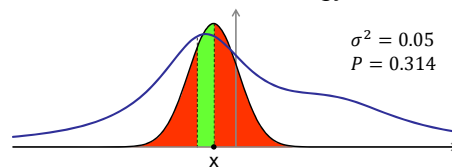
When the current solution gets close to an optima the probability of a better solution being selected decreases



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The (1 + 1) evolution strategy

- To compensate, we can reduce the spread of the distribution
- σ affects our *search strategy*



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The (1 + 1) evolution strategy

- Add a strategy parameter σ to random optimization and you get the (1+1) ES:

```
def random_opt():
    X, x = random_vector()
    s = initial_sigma()
    while not_done():
        Y, s = X, s * exp(normal(0, tau))
        Y, x = X, x + normal(0, Y, s)
        if (f(X) < f(Y)):
            X = Y
    return X, x
```

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The evolution analogy

| Optimization | Biology |
|---|--------------------------------|
| Candidate solution | Individual |
| Old solution | Parent |
| New solution | Offspring |
| Solution quality | Fitness |
| Random displacements added to offspring | Mutation |
| Search strategy | Mutation rate, gene robustness |

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Robustness

- The (1+1) ES is more efficient at finding accurate solutions, but it remains vulnerable to local optima
- Solution: Run multiple times?
 - Sometimes referred to as *(1+1) reset*
- Even better: Do multiple runs in parallel and make use of the extra information from having multiple solutions available at once

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The evolution analogy

| Optimization | Biology |
|---|--------------------------------|
| Candidate solution | Individual |
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| Search strategy | Mutation rate, gene robustness |
| A set of solutions | Population |

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Evolutionary algorithm outline

```
def evolve():
    P.x = initialize_population()
    P.fitness = evaluate(P.x)
    while not_done():
        Q.x = reproduce(P)
        Q.x = mutate(Q.x)
        Q.fitness = evaluate(Q.x)
        P = survival(P, Q)
    return best(P).x
```

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Evolutionary algorithm outline

- `initialize_population()`
 - Generates a set of starting points
 - May be completely random solutions, or some hand-crafted selection
- `evaluate(P)`
 - Applies the objective function to all elements in P
 - Problem-dependent

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Evolutionary algorithm outline

- `reproduce(P)`
 - Creates a new population from P
- `mutate(X)`
 - Applies random changes to the individuals in X
- `survival(P, Q)`
 - Creates a new population from P and Q

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Evolution strategies

- Each individual is composed of n solution parameters and n_σ strategy parameters:

$$\langle x_1, \dots, x_n, \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_{n_\sigma} \rangle$$

- Usually n_σ is either 1 (all x_i share one strategy) or n (each x_i have a separate search strategy)
- Sometimes an additional set of parameters α_i is used to model correlations between strategies

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Evolution strategies

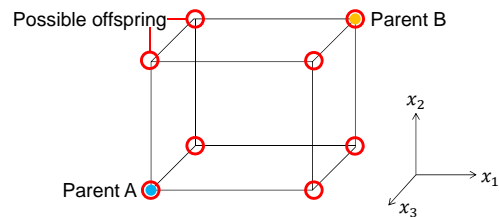
- Recombination creates λ offspring
- Each one draws two parents at random and recombines them using intermediary or discrete recombination
- It is common to mix, i.e. use discrete for x_i and intermediate for σ_i

```
def reproduce(P):
    Q = []
    for i in range(1, lambda):
        parents = draw(2, P)
        offspring = recombine(parents[0], parents[1])
        Q.append(offspring)
    return Q
```

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Discrete recombination

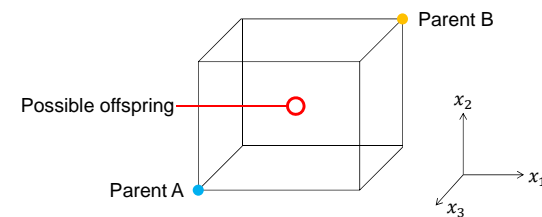
- Each parameter is chosen from one of the parents at random



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Intermediary recombination

- Each parameter is chosen as the average of from the parents



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Evolution strategies

- Two survivor selection methods:
 - (μ, λ) : from the offspring only
 - $(\mu + \lambda)$: from both parents and offspring
- In both cases the survivor candidates are sorted by fitness, and the μ best are kept

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Evolution strategies

- (μ, λ) is often preferred, for several reasons:
 - Better able to escape local optima
 - Able to adapt to changing fitness functions
 - Since solutions aren't evaluated for how good the strategy parameters are, bad strategies can linger in the population if parents can survive indefinitely

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Evolutionary programming

- Historically, evolutionary programming was mainly concerned with prediction problems
- More recently the field has diversified a lot, and is used for all kinds of different problems and with many different representations and mutation schemes
- Here we will focus on a variant for continuous optimization

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Evolution strategies vs. Evolutionary programming

| | Evolution strategies | Evolutionary programming |
|--------------------|--|---|
| Representation | Vector of solution and strategy parameters | |
| Parent selection | Probabilistic | Deterministic |
| Recombination | Probabilistic | None |
| Mutation | $\sigma'_i = \sigma_i \cdot e^{N(0,\tau)}$ $x'_i = x_i + N(0, \sigma'_i)$ | $\sigma'_i = \sigma_i \cdot (1 + N(0, \alpha))$ $x'_i = x_i + N(0, \sigma'_i)$ |
| Survivor selection | Deterministic | Probabilistic |

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Evolutionary programming

- In EP each solution is seen as a species instead of an individual
 - Recombination does not make sense!
 - Each solution gives rise to exactly one new solution each generation

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Evolutionary programming

Survivor selection is done by tournaments

- Each solution is compared to q other randomly selected solutions (q is typically about 10)
- The best half, ranked by the number of “wins” survives

```
def survival (P, Q):
    PQ = [P, Q]
    for i in range(1, 2*mu):
        vs = draw(q, PQ)
        score = sum( PQ[i].fitness > vs.fitness )
    return best(mu, PQ, score)
```

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