

(1,λ)ES with AII adaptation scheme for Black-Box Optimization

Benchmarking for Noiseless Functions (bbob suite)

Eden Belouadah; Taycir Yahmed; Mohamed Ali Daghouth; Ghiles Sidi Said; Amine Biad;

ABSTRACT

An implementation of the AII algorithm [6] is proposed in this paper for continuous optimization problems. This paper is organized as follows: We first introduce the interest of this project and we present the COCO platform in which we are going to integrate and execute the AII algorithm. Furthermore, we present the algorithm and give a pseudo-code for it then we conclude by the presentation and the discussion of the results obtained.

KEYWORDS

AII Algorithm, (1,λ)ES, Benchmarking, Black-box optimization, Continuous optimization

ACM Reference format:

Eden Belouadah; Taycir Yahmed; Mohamed Ali Daghouth; Ghiles Sidi Said; Amine Biad; . 2017. (1,λ)ES with AII adaptation scheme for Black-Box Optimization . In *Proceedings of the Genetic and Evolutionary Computation Conference 2017, Berlin, Germany, July 15–19, 2017 (GECCO '17)*, 6 pages. DOI: 10.475/123_4

1 INTRODUCTION

With technology evolution, problems become more and more complex. This lead researchers to search for optimization issues to solve them. There are so many types of optimization problems. We are interested in these project in blackbox continuous optimization ones. For this purpose, we try to use our knowledge that we learned from the optimization lectures and to implement the AII algorithm proposed by Hansen et al.[6] hoping that it will give a good results on benchmark functions. The algorithm's performance will be compared with two other algorithms and it will be discussed by analyzing the ECDF plots.

1.1 COCO platform

COCO (COmparing Continuous Optimizers) is a platform which help to automatically compare continuous optimization algorithms. It presents many suites of continuous problems (for both constrained and unconstrained optimization):

- bbo Suite: contains 24 noiseless functions with more than 140 datasets provided by different algorithms,
- bbo-noisy Suite: contains 30 noisy functions with more than 40 datasets provided by different algorithms,
- bbo-biobj Suite: contains 55 bi-objective functions with more than 16 datasets provided by different algorithms.

Permission to make digital or hard copies of part or all of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for third-party components of this work must be honored. For all other uses, contact the owner/author(s).

GECCO '17, Berlin, Germany

© 2017 Copyright held by the owner/author(s). 123-4567-24-567/08/06...\$15.00
DOI: 10.475/123_4

1.2 bbo Suite

AII algorithm works on mono-objective functions, this leads us to work on bbo Suite. Tests will be done for these dimensions: 2, 3, 5, 10, 20 and 40. We have to mention that bbo Suite functions are locally perturbed by non-linear transformations.

2 ALGORITHM PRESENTATION

Before we explain the AII algorithm, we should talk briefly about (1,λ)ES algorithm in which the AII algorithm will be integrated. We have to point out that AII adaptation is proposed by its author to fit all ($\mu/\mu, \lambda$)ES but we choose to use it with (1,λ)ES as the author did.

(1,λ)ES is an evolutionary algorithm where $\mu = 1$, this means that at every iteration, only one parent (the best one) from the offspring population is chosen to be the solution with which we start the next iteration.

The AII algorithm, or Derandomized Adaptation Of n individual step sizes and one direction is an adaptation proposed by Nikolaus Hansen and al.[6] for the arbitrary normal mutation distributions in Evolution strategies. It's an extension of the derandomized individual step size adaptation proposed by Ostermeier et al. [8]. In AII, the reproduction scheme is based on two important aspects: n individual step sizes and the adapted direction. The latter is done by accumulating every time the selected mutation steps in the generation sequence.

In AII, the mutation is done by adding a vector from n variable-independent Gaussian distributions (as isodensity surfaces, a.k.a. surfaces with same density) plus a vector r normally distributed along a specific direction. The resulting mutation distribution is not independent of the coordinating system.

Despite of the fact that A doesn't produce arbitrary mutation distribution (not every normal distribution can be produced), it operates well on functions which need correlated mutations for reasonable progress [6].

The pseudo-code for the algorithm is given in Algorithm 1.

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE ALGORITHM

The parameters that we chose are the same used by the author of AII as following:

- n : the dimension of the problem,
- $\lambda = 10$: the size of the offspring,
- $c = \sqrt{1/n}$,
- $c_r = 3/(n + 3)$,
- $cu = \sqrt{(2 - c)/c}$
- $\beta = 1/n$,
- $\beta_{ind} = 1/(4n)$,
- $\beta_r = \sqrt{1/(4n)}$,
- $\widehat{\chi}_n = \sqrt{n}(1 - \frac{1}{4n} + \frac{1}{21n^2})$,
- $\widehat{\chi}_1 = \sqrt{2/\pi}$,

```

Data: ubounds, lbounds, f, budget, target
Result: The best solution  $X_{min}$  with fitness  $f_{min}$ 
initialization of  $n, \lambda, c, \beta, \bar{\chi}_n, \hat{\chi}_1, cr, \beta_{ind}, \beta_r, cu, X_{min}$ ;
 $f_{min}, \delta, \delta_r, s, sr, r, z, z_r$ ;
while budget  $\geq 0$  do
     $X_{parent} = \text{Copy}(X_{min})$ ;
    for  $k=1, \dots, \lambda$  do
        Initialize  $z_r^k, z^k$ ;
        for  $i=1, \dots, n$  do
             $x_i^{N_k} = x_i^{parent} + \delta_i^{parent} z_i^k + \delta_r^{parent} z_r^k r_i^{parent}$ ;
        end
         $f_{current} = f(X^{N_k})$ ;
        if  $f_{current} \leq f_{min}$  then
             $X_{min} = X^{N_k}$ ;
             $z_r = z_r^k$ ;
             $z = z^k$ ;
             $f_{min} = f_{current}$ 
        end
    end
    if  $|f_{X_{min}} - f_{X_{parent}}| \leq 10^{-10}$  then
        return  $X_{min}$ 
    end
    Updating the parameters:  $\delta, \delta_r, s, sr, r$ ;
    Budget -=  $\lambda$ ;
end

```

Algorithm 1: $(1, \lambda)$ ES with AII adaptation scheme

- $r = \vec{0} \in R^n$,
- $\delta = 1 \in R^n$,
- $\delta_r = 1$,
- $s = \vec{0} \in R^n$,
- $s_r = 0$,

The other parameters are initialized and eventually change their values inside of the algorithm.

The stopping criteria that we chose depend on the budget and the stagnation of the algorithm. When the user specifies the budget which is (number of function evaluations x dimension), the algorithm tries to optimize the objective function until no budget is remaining, but sometimes, the algorithm can't improve the quality of the solution at every iteration, in this case, we quit the algorithm when $f(\text{best current child}) - f(\text{current parent}) \leq 10^{-8}$.

Timing experiment

In order to evaluate the CPU timing of the algorithm, we have run the AII algorithm on the bbob test suite [4] with restarts for a maximum budget equal to $9999xD$ function evaluations according to [7] (We tried $600xD$ and $999xD$ function evaluations also but we present here the results that we got with the maximum budget we tried).

The Python code was run on an Intel(R) Core(TM) i5-2430M CPU @ 2.40GHz. The time per function evaluation for dimensions 2, 3, 5, 10, 20, 40 equals $1.4e - 04, 1.3e - 04, 1.5e - 04, 1.5e - 04, 1.5e - 04$ and $1.9e - 04$ seconds respectively.

3 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Results of AII from experiments according to [7] and [2] on the benchmark functions given in [1, 5] are presented in Figures 4, 5 and in Tables 1, 2. The experiments were performed with COCO [3], version 2.0, the plots were produced with the same version.

From Figure 4, we see that AII algorithm takes more time comparing to the best algorithm from BBOB 2009. Even when we see sometimes that AII performs better than the best algorithm, this is unfortunately in the case where AII has an easier target to reach.

From the ECDFs graphs (Figure 5), we see that AII algorithm is more robust for the "5 linear slope" function because for almost all dimensions, the proportion of runs where the algorithm reaches the target in less than $2(\log_{10}(\#f_eval/D))$ is high.

Of course, the AII algorithm (and any other optimization algorithm) is efficient for little dimensions and starts to have difficulties to reach the optimum with bigger dimensions. For example, for the 2D-Sphere function, in 70% of runs we reach the optimum in $6(\log_{10}(\#f_eval/D))$. Whatever, for the 40D same function, only less than 10% of runs are successful with the same number of $\log_{10}(\#f_eval/D)$.

If we take the "23 Katsuuras" function, we find that it's one of the most difficult functions for our algorithm to optimize. even for the 2D version of the function and the highest value of $\log_{10}(\#f_eval/D)$, only 30% of runs are successful.

The Table 1 represents the average running time (in number of function evaluations) divided by the average run time of the best algorithm from BBOB 2009 in dimension 5. The Table 2 represents the same thing for the dimension 20.

The general (and obvious) thing that we can extract from these two tables is that the more we decrease the tolerated difference between the best solution found by the algorithm and the real solution of the function, the longer the algorithm takes. For example, for the 7th function, when we fix Δf to 10, the task is so easy and the algorithm converges to the optimum in only $10 \#f_eval/\text{best_} \#f_eval$, but when we fix it to $1e-7$, the task is more difficult here and the algorithm needs more time to reach the optimum, so it does in $1597 \#f_eval/\text{best_} \#f_eval$.

When the problem is simple (in case of separable, uni-modal functions), the algorithm is always efficient whatever the stopping criteria is. This is the case of the 1st function and the 5th one for example.

We can also see that in most cases, the proportion of successful runs is $15/15=100\%$ except for some difficult objective functions like the 24th one (here we have $3/15$ successful runs only).

The last thing that we can point it out (already known thing) is that the algorithm takes more time to optimize functions with 20D comparing them to 5D ones. For example, the optimum for the 3rd function with $\Delta f = 1e - 7$ in the Table 1 is reached after 1654 $\#f_eval$ and it's reached in the Table 2 with the same Δf in 7651 $\#f_eval/\text{best_} \#f_eval$.

4 AII VS. BIPOP-CMA-ES AND BFGS

According to the results provided by the COCO platform, the table in Figure1 shows that the implementation of the AII algorithm can't reach the specified target. It's successful only for the 5th function

(linear slope). However, we can compare the results of the first values ($1e+1, 1e+0$) of the target.

5-D	A2		BFGS			CMA-ES			
	1e+1	1e+0	1e-1	1e+1	1e+0	1e-1	1e+1	1e+0	1e-1
f1	2.4	20	628	1.2	1.1	1.1	3.2	9.1	15
f5	9.0	11	13	1.9	3	3.1	4.5	6.5	6.6
f6	10	315	+INF	3.0	3.3	3.4	2.3	2.1	2.2
f22	2.1	32	63	3.1	2.9	2.1	6.9	20	45

Figure 1: ECDFs of the 3 algorithms for the Step-ellipsoid

In each case, the results of our implementation of the AII algorithm are poor even for simple objective functions like Sphere.

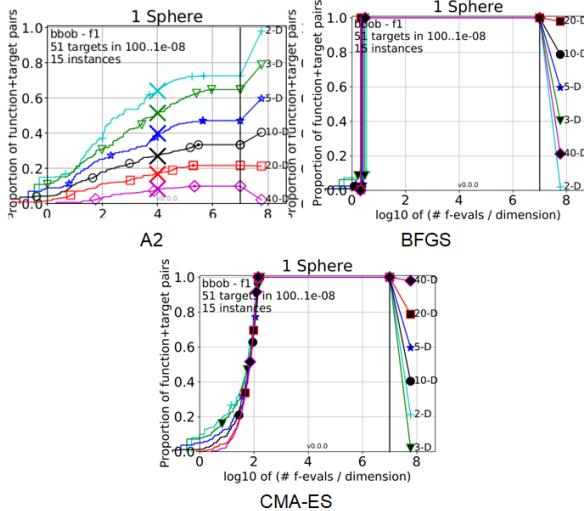


Figure 2: ECDFs of the 3 algorithms for the Sphere function

For the small dimensions, our implementation of the algorithm reach the target value quite a few times compared to the other algorithms. Moreover, its convergence is relatively slow as we can see in Figure 2.

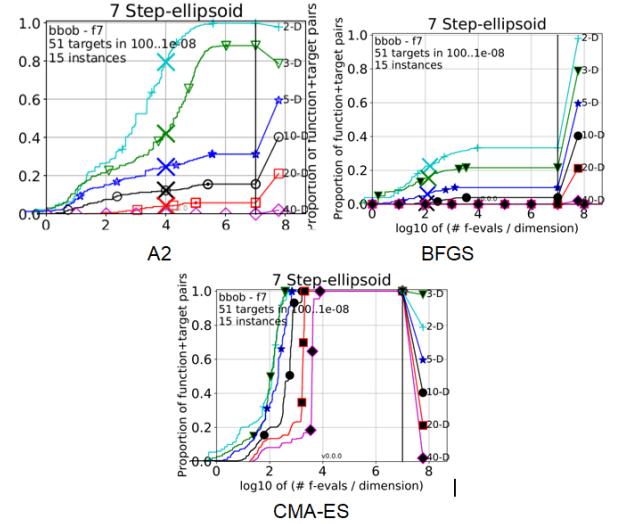


Figure 3: ECDFs of the 3 algorithms for the Step-ellipsoid

For the 7th function (step ellipsoid), we see from the ECDF graph that our implementation of AII performs in general better than BFGS, since it reaches the target value more often. CMA-ES still performs better than both.

In conclusion, knowing that we can improve the implementation of the AII algorithm, these results are not relevant to compare the AII algorithm with BFGS and CMA-ES.

5 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we show a simple implementation of the AII algorithm. Possible improvements would be to run the experiments with a higher budget to give the algorithm the chance to optimize multi-modal, high dimensional and non-separable functions. Another potential improvement would be optimizing the algorithm more (especially stopping criteria) and why not try to tune the parameters by ourselves instead of using those used by the original author.

REFERENCES

- [1] S. Finck, N. Hansen, R. Ros, and A. Auger. 2009. *Real-Parameter Black-Box Optimization Benchmarking 2009: Presentation of the Noiseless Functions*. Technical Report 2009/20. Research Center PPE. http://coco.lri.fr/downloads/download15_03/bbobdocfunctions.pdf Updated February 2010.
- [2] N. Hansen, A. Auger, D. Brockhoff, T. Tušar, and T. Tušar. 2016. COCO: Performance Assessment. *ArXiv e-prints* arXiv:1605.03560 (2016).
- [3] N. Hansen, A. Auger, O. Mersmann, T. Tušar, and D. Brockhoff. 2016. COCO: A Platform for Comparing Continuous Optimizers in a Black-Box Setting. *ArXiv e-prints* arXiv:1603.08785 (2016).
- [4] N. Hansen, S. Finck, R. Ros, and A. Auger. 2009. *Real-Parameter Black-Box Optimization Benchmarking 2009: Noiseless Functions Definitions*. Technical Report RR-6829. INRIA. <http://hal.inria.fr/inria-00362633/en/>
- [5] N. Hansen, S. Finck, R. Ros, and A. Auger. 2009. *Real-Parameter Black-Box Optimization Benchmarking 2009: Noiseless Functions Definitions*. Technical Report RR-6829. INRIA. <http://coco.gforge.inria.fr/bbob2012-downloads> Updated February 2010.
- [6] Nikolaus Hansen, Andreas Ostermeier, and Andreas Gawelczyk. 1995. On the Adaptation of Arbitrary Normal Mutation Distributions in Evolution Strategies: The Generating Set Adaptation.. In *JCGA*. 57–64.
- [7] N. Hansen, T. Tušar, O. Mersmann, A. Auger, and D. Brockhoff. 2016. COCO: The Experimental Procedure. *ArXiv e-prints* arXiv:1603.08776 (2016).
- [8] Andreas Ostermeier, Andreas Gawelczyk, and Nikolaus Hansen. 1994. Step-size adaptation based on non-local use of selection information. *Parallel Problem Solving from Nature/PPSN III* (1994), 189–198.

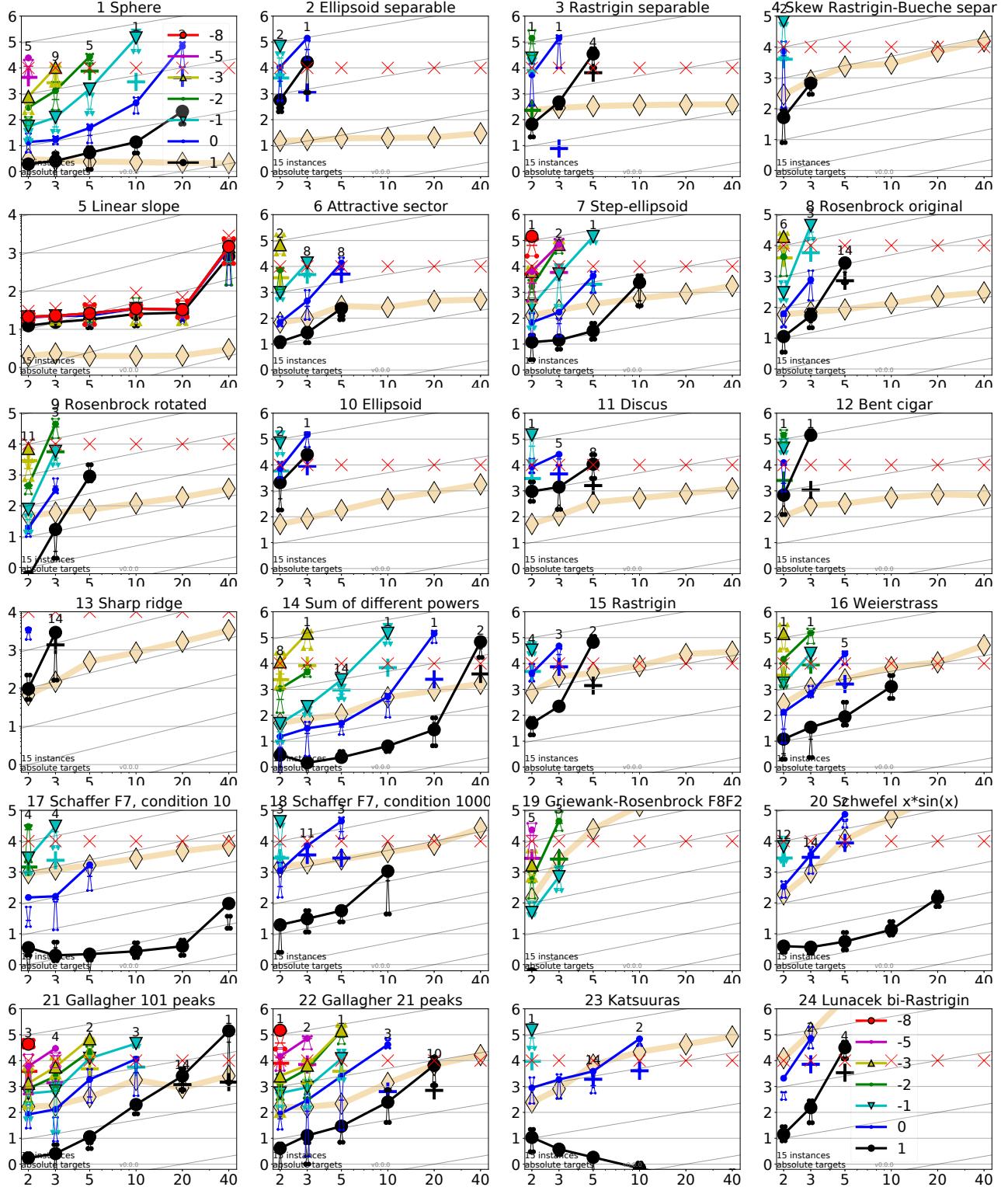


Figure 4: Scaling of runtime with dimension to reach certain target values Δf . Lines: average runtime (aRT); Cross (+): median runtime of successful runs to reach the most difficult target that was reached at least once (but not always); Cross (×): maximum number of f -evaluations in any trial. Notched boxes: interquartile range with median of simulated runs; All values are divided by dimension and plotted as \log_{10} values versus dimension. Shown is the aRT for fixed values of $\Delta f = 10^k$ with k given in the legend. Numbers above aRT-symbols (if appearing) indicate the number of trials reaching the respective target. The light thick line with diamonds indicates the best algorithm from BBOB 2009 for the most difficult target. Horizontal lines mean linear scaling, slanted grid lines depict quadratic scaling.

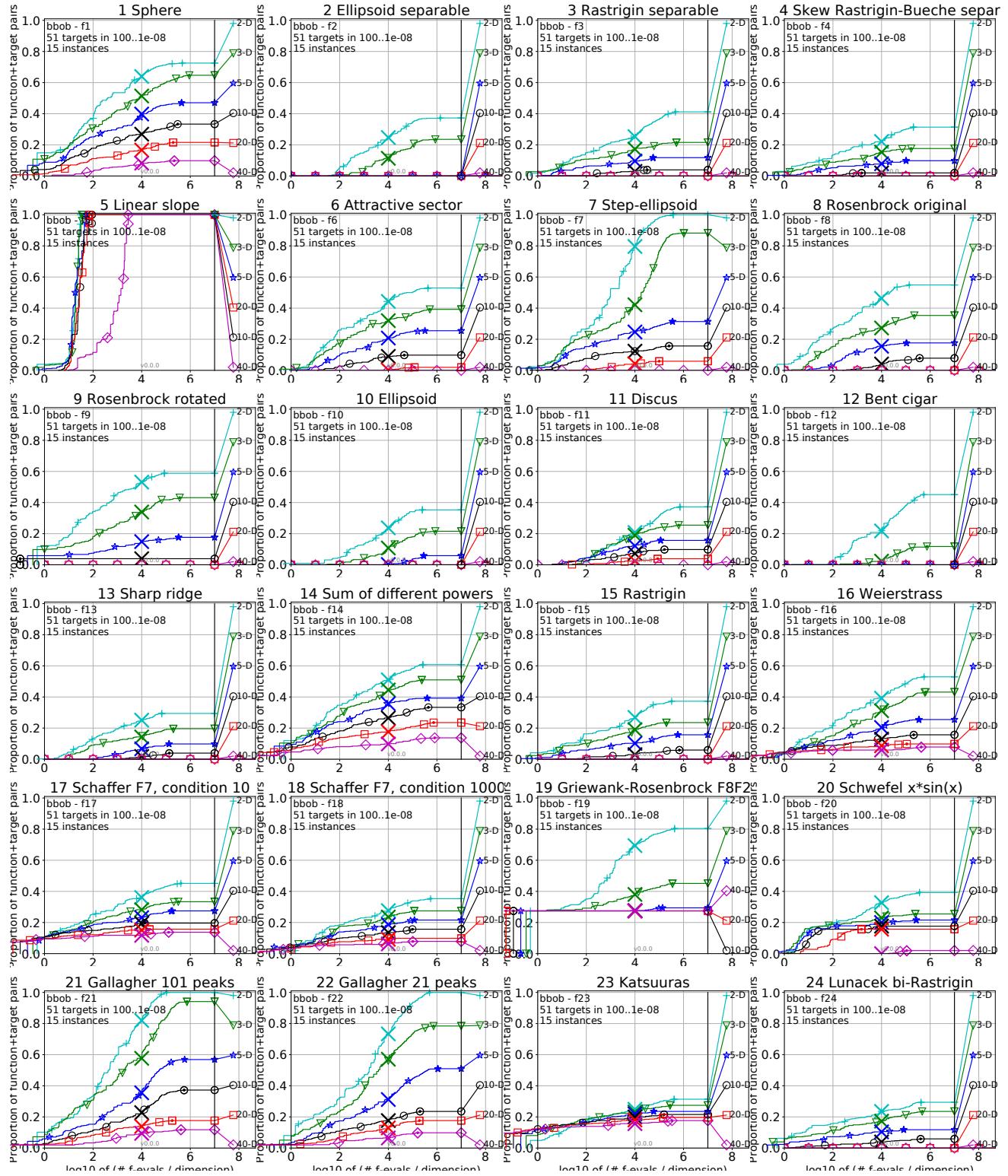


Figure 5: ECDFs graphs per function

Δf	1e+1	1e+0	1e-1	1e-2	1e-3	1e-5	1e-7	#succ
f₁	11 2.4(2)	12 20(18)	12 628(776)	12 11359(14342)	12 ∞	12 ∞	12 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₂	83 ∞	87 ∞	88 ∞	89 ∞	90 ∞	92 ∞	94 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₃	716 241(288)	1622 ∞	1637 ∞	1642 ∞	1646 ∞	1650 ∞	1654 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₄	809 ∞	1633 ∞	1688 ∞	1758 ∞	1817 ∞	1886 ∞	1903 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₅	10 9.0(4)	10 11(8)	10 13(8)	10 13(8)	10 13(8)	10 13(7)	10 13(7)	15/15 15/15
f₆	114 10(14)	214 315(391)	281 ∞	404 ∞	580 ∞	1038 ∞	1332 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₇	24 6.7(15)	324 67(113)	1171 607(897)	1451 ∞	1572 ∞	1572 ∞	1597 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₈	73 187(199)	273 ∞	336 ∞	372 ∞	391 ∞	410 ∞	422 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₉	35 129(162)	127 ∞	214 ∞	263 ∞	300 ∞	335 ∞	369 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₀	349 375(489)	500 ∞	574 ∞	607 ∞	626 ∞	829 ∞	880 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₁	143 108	202 268	763 371	977 413	1177 461	1467 1303	1673 1494	15/15 15/15
f₁₂	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞

Δf	1e+1	1e+0	1e-1	1e-2	1e-3	1e-5	1e-7	#succ
f₁₃	132 ∞	195 ∞	250 ∞	319 ∞	1310 ∞	1752 ∞	2255 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₄	10 1.2(1)	41 6.0(7)	58 203(296)	90 ∞	139 ∞	251 ∞	476 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₅	511 650(444)	9310 ∞	19369 ∞	19743 ∞	20073 ∞	20769 ∞	21359 ∞	14/15 0/15
f₁₆	120 3.6(6)	612 193(190)	2662 ∞	10163 ∞	10449 ∞	11644 ∞	12095 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₇	5.0 2.2(2)	215 40(72)	899 ∞	2861 ∞	3669 ∞	6351 ∞	7934 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₈	103 2.7(3)	378 589(562)	3968 ∞	8451 ∞	9280 ∞	10905 ∞	12469 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₉	1 1	1 242	1 1.0e5	1 1.2e5	1 1.2e5	1 1.2e5	1 1.2e5	15/15 0/15
f₂₀	16 1.7(2)	851 433(335)	38111 ∞	51362 ∞	54470 ∞	54861 ∞	55313 ∞	14/15 0/15
f₂₁	41 1.4(1)	1157 8.1(16)	1674 37(40)	1692 66(100)	1705 205(148)	1729 ∞	1757 ∞	14/15 0/15
f₂₂	71 3.1(4)	386 37(46)	938 ∞	980 ∞	1008 ∞	1040 ∞	1068 ∞	14/15 0/15
f₂₃	3.0 3.1(4)	518 14249	1249 27890	31654 31654	33030 33030	34256 34256	34256 34256	15/15 0/15
f₂₄	1622 98(192)	2.2e5 ∞	6.4e6 ∞	9.6e6 ∞	9.6e6 ∞	1.3e7 ∞	1.3e7 ∞	3/15 0/15

Table 1: Average running time (aRT in number of function evaluations) divided by the aRT of the best algorithm from BBOB 2009 in dimension 5. The aRT and in braces, as dispersion measure, the half difference between 90 and 10%-tile of bootstrapped run lengths appear in the second row of each cell, the best aRT (preceded by the target Δf -value in italics) in the first. #succ is the number of trials that reached the target value of the last column. The median number of conducted function evaluations is additionally given in italics, if the target in the last column was never reached. Bold entries are statistically significantly better (according to the rank-sum test) compared to the best algorithm from BBOB 2009, with $p = 0.05$ or $p = 10^{-k}$ when the number $k > 1$ is following the ↓ symbol, with Bonferroni correction by the number of functions. Data produced with COCO v0.0.0

Δf	1e+1	1e+0	1e-1	1e-2	1e-3	1e-5	1e-7	#succ
f₁	43 97(166)	43 32150(52765)	43 ∞	43 ∞	43 ∞	43 ∞	43 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₂	385 ∞	386 ∞	387 ∞	388 ∞	390 ∞	391 ∞	393 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₃	5066 ∞	7626 ∞	7635 ∞	7637 ∞	7643 ∞	7646 ∞	7651 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₄	4722 ∞	7628 ∞	7666 ∞	7686 ∞	7700 ∞	7758 ∞	1.4e5 ∞	9/15 0/15
f₅	41 13(14)	41 16(5)	41 16(8)	41 16(9)	41 16(11)	41 16(12)	41 16(13)	15/15 15/15
f₆	1296 ∞	2343 ∞	3413 ∞	4255 ∞	5220 ∞	6728 ∞	8409 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₇	1351 ∞	4274 ∞	9503 ∞	16523 ∞	16524 ∞	16969 ∞	16969 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₈	2039 ∞	3871 ∞	4040 ∞	4148 ∞	4219 ∞	4371 ∞	4484 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₉	1716 ∞	3102 ∞	3277 ∞	3379 ∞	3455 ∞	3594 ∞	3727 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₀	7413 ∞	8661 ∞	10735 ∞	13641 ∞	14920 ∞	17073 ∞	17476 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₁	1002 ∞	2228 ∞	6278 ∞	8586 ∞	9762 ∞	12285 ∞	14831 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₂	1042 ∞	1938 ∞	2740 ∞	3156 ∞	4140 ∞	12407 ∞	13827 ∞	15/15 0/15

Δf	1e+1	1e+0	1e-1	1e-2	1e-3	1e-5	1e-7	#succ
f₁₃	652 ∞	2021 ∞	2751 ∞	3507 ∞	18749 ∞	24455 ∞	30201 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₄	75 7.3(11)	239 11921(12552)	304 ∞	451 ∞	932 ∞	1648 ∞	15661 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₅	30378 3.1e5	1.5e5 3.1e5	3.1e5 3.2e5	3.2e5 4.5e5	4.5e5 4.6e5	4.5e5 5.0e5	4.5e5 5.0e5	15/15 0/15
f₁₆	1384 1.3e5	27265 77015	77015 1.4e5	1.4e5 1.9e5	1.9e5 2.0e5	2.0e5 2.2e5	2.0e5 2.2e5	15/15 0/15
f₁₇	63 1.2(2)	1030 ∞	4005 ∞	12242 ∞	30677 ∞	56288 ∞	80472 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₈	621 90(87)	3972 ∞	19561 ∞	28555 ∞	67569 ∞	1.3e5 ∞	1.5e5 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₁₉	1 1	1 3.4e5	1 4.7e6	1 6.2e6	1 6.7e6	1 6.7e6	1 6.7e6	15/15 0/15
f₂₀	82 35(26)	46150 ∞	3.1e6 ∞	5.5e6 ∞	5.5e6 ∞	5.6e6 ∞	5.6e6 ∞	14/15 0/15
f₂₁	561 90(87)	6541 ∞	14103 ∞	14318 ∞	14643 ∞	15567 ∞	17589 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₂₂	467 281(356)	5580 ∞	23491 ∞	24163 ∞	24948 ∞	26847 ∞	1.3e5 ∞	12/15 0/15
f₂₃	3.0 1.9(1)	1614 ∞	67457 ∞	3.7e5 ∞	4.9e5 ∞	8.1e5 ∞	8.4e5 ∞	15/15 0/15
f₂₄	1.3e6 ∞	7.5e6 ∞	5.2e7 ∞	5.2e7 ∞	5.2e7 ∞	5.2e7 ∞	5.2e7 ∞	3/15 0/15

Table 2: Average running time (aRT in number of function evaluations) divided by the aRT of the best algorithm from BBOB 2009 in dimension 20. The aRT and in braces, as dispersion measure, the half difference between 90 and 10%-tile of bootstrapped run lengths appear in the second row of each cell, the best aRT (preceded by the target Δf -value in italics) in the first. #succ is the number of trials that reached the target value of the last column. The median number of conducted function evaluations is additionally given in italics, if the target in the last column was never reached. Bold entries are statistically significantly better (according to the rank-sum test) compared to the best algorithm from BBOB 2009, with $p = 0.05$ or $p = 10^{-k}$ when the number $k > 1$ is following the ↓ symbol, with Bonferroni correction by the number of functions. Data produced with COCO v0.0.0