

Neuroevolution

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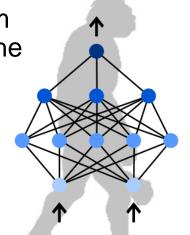


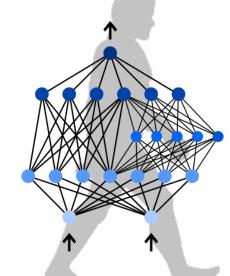
Neuroevolution

 Neuroevolution is a machine learning technique that improves the rough abstractions of brains that are artificial neural networks (abbr. ANNs) by generating increasingly better topologies, weights and hyperparameters by the means of evolutionary algorithms.

The neuroevolution process initializes with a set of random initial neural networks. Then it applies them to the problem environment after which a fitness score based on how well the neural network solves the applied problem is estimated. Evolutionary algorithms are used to evolve the neural networks.

The fitness score can be a function of the accuracy achieved in an image recognition task, how close a robotic arm moved to the intended trajectory or how well an agent performed in a virtual environment such as a video game.

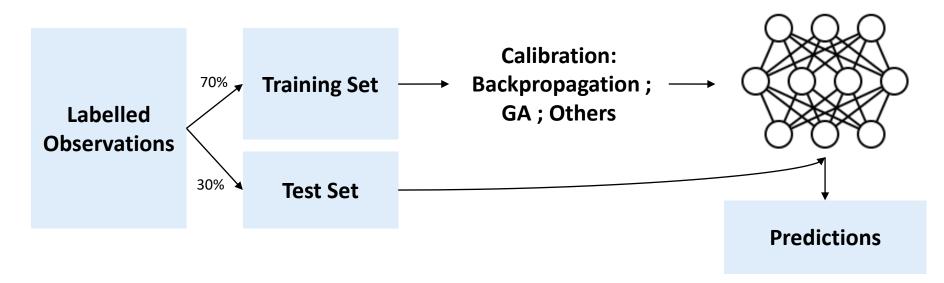




Source: https://medium.com/towards-data-science/a-primer-on-the-fundamental-concepts-of-neuroevolution-9068f532f7f7

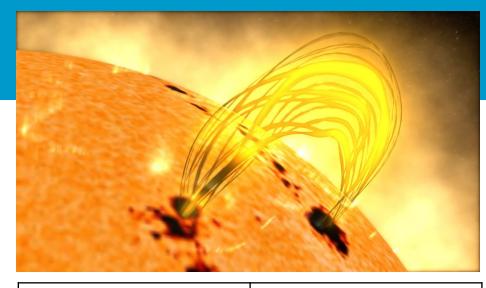
Supervised Learning

- Supervised learning relies on labelled input and output training data. You use the training data to infer the parameters and hyperparameters and verify with the test data whether the approximated function performs well on unseen data.
- In supervised learning the decisions are independent of each other, so labels are given to each decision.
- Applications: Image, Text and Speech recognition; Spam Detection; Risk Evaluation;
 Fraud Detection; Forecasts and Predictive Analytics; etc.



Supervised Learning

- Example: Predicting Sunspot Cycle
- Observations:
 - Results have shown that neuroevolution performs slightly better than gradient-based algorithms;
 - However, the improvements obtained from using neuroevolution are minor
 - Also, neuroevolution takes considerably longer to calibrate the NN than gradient-based algorithms.



Genetic Algorithm Results		Backpropagation		
Validation	Validation Testing		Testing	
595	613	602	615	
666	674	720	661	
632	659	739	601	
651	700	1896	734	
646	626	1876	636	
656	705	688	657	
621	670	649	693	
625	677	651	689	
595	607	660	662	
624	576	634	574	

Supervised Learning

Advantages of using neuroevolution:

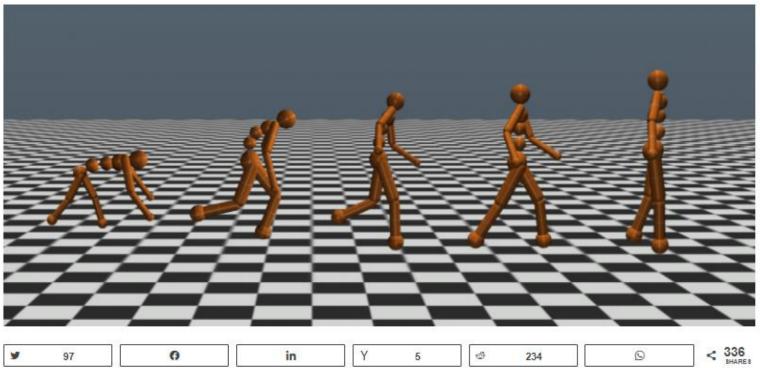
- First, in neuroevolution we only need to use the forward pass. The backwards pass (backpropagation) is usually the most time consuming.
- Second, gradient-based algorithms can get stuck in local minima whereas evolutionary algorithms tend to avoid this problem
- Third, neuroevolution allow us to not only optimize the weights of a NN, but also the NN architecture

Disadvantages of using neuroevolution:

- Often gradient-based algorithms are very effective when enough gradient information is available. As a consequence, it is very rare that you will use genetic algorithms in a supervised context.
- However, if you are working in a Reinforcement Learning context, then neuroevolution provides a viable alternative!

Is neuroevolution the future of deep learning?





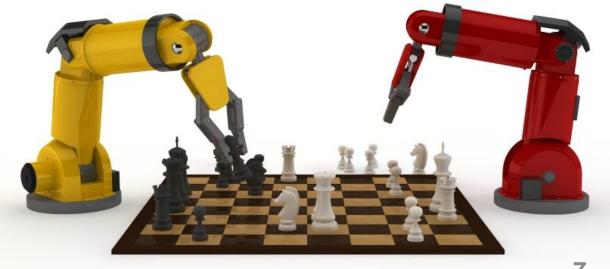
"(GA) can train deep convolutional networks with over 4 million parameters to play Atari games from pixels, and on many games outperforms modern deep reinforcement learning (RL) algorithms (e.g. DQN and A3C)"

"This result is surprising both because GAs, which are not gradient-based, were not expected to scale well to such large parameter spaces and also because matching or outperforming the state-of-the-art in RL using GAs was not thought to be possible."

https://eng.uber.com/deep-neuroevolution/

Reinforcement Learning

- In supervised learning we provide inputs to a neural network, and we know the output that the NN should produce. We can easily apply backpropagation to compute gradients, and train our NN to produce the expected outputs.
- Now, imagine you want to train a neural network to play a game.
- What you would do in a supervised setting is having a good gamer, playing the game for a couple of hours. Then you would create a dataset where you would log all the actions made by the gamer in all frames of the game. You could then use this dataset to calibrate your NN using backpropagation.
- However, there are 2 main downsides of using this approach:
 - The generation of the dataset may be difficult, requiring a large amount of data – time and space consuming
 - Your agent will eventually end-up by mimicking the gamer - in theory the NN will never be able to outperform the gamer itself.



Reinforcement Learning

- Reinforcement Learning (RL) aims to learn from "online" interaction with the environment – similarly to how humans learn (i.e. trial and error)
- In order to evaluate taken actions, favorable choices are rewarded. The actor
 is called agent and aims to maximize the accumulated rewards
- Essentially, the agent (encoded as a NN) plays the game several times. The reward obtained at the end of each game is given by the score of the game (e.g. did the agent win the game? how long did it take to be eliminated? what was the score? etc.).

State s.

Reward r.

Agent

Environment

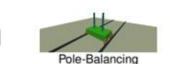
 The agent learns from experience every time it plays the game (by calibrating the weights and bias of the NN).

Action a

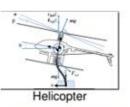
Reinforcement Learning Applications

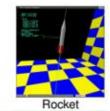
Different methods are used to solve Control Reinforcement Learning:

What if we use Genetic Algorithms?





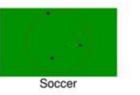




Q-Learning,

- SARSA,
- DQN,
- DDPG
- Etc.

Robotics

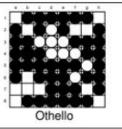








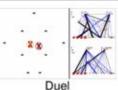
Games

















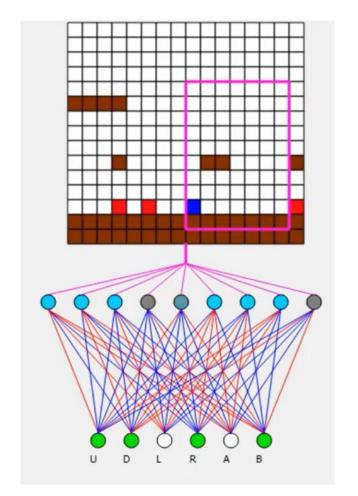
Alife

S Hyenas/Zebras

Conventional Neuroevolution

- Given a specific neural network topology we aim to optimize the weights and bias.
- Let's Play Super Mario





Conventional Neuroevolution

- Given a specific neural network topology we aim to optimize the weights and bias.
- Let's Play Super Mario (3 weeks of calibration)

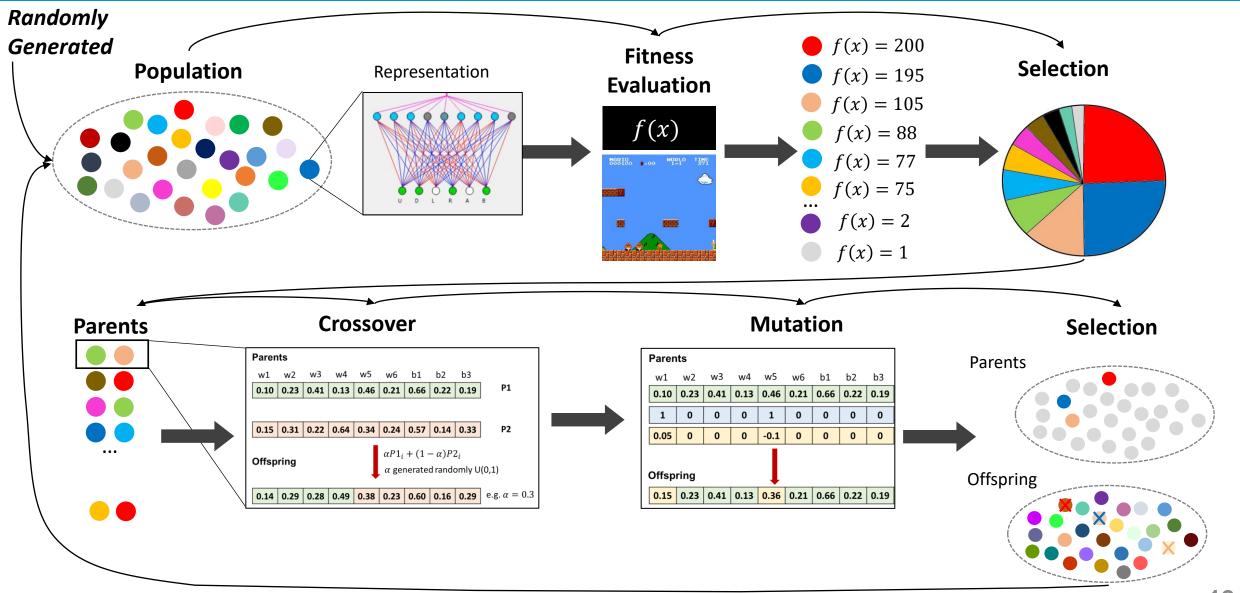
Fitness Function

```
\begin{split} D_{bonus} &= \text{distance}^{1.8} \\ T_{penalty} &= \text{frames}^{1.5} \\ E_{bonus} &= \min(\max(\text{distance} - 50, 0), 1) * 2500 \\ W_{bonus} &= \text{did\_win} * 10^6 \end{split}
```

Fitness = $\max(D_{bonus} - T_{penalty} + E_{bonus} + W_{bonus}, 10^{-5})$



Conventional Neuroevolution



Recall: EA for Continuous Optimization

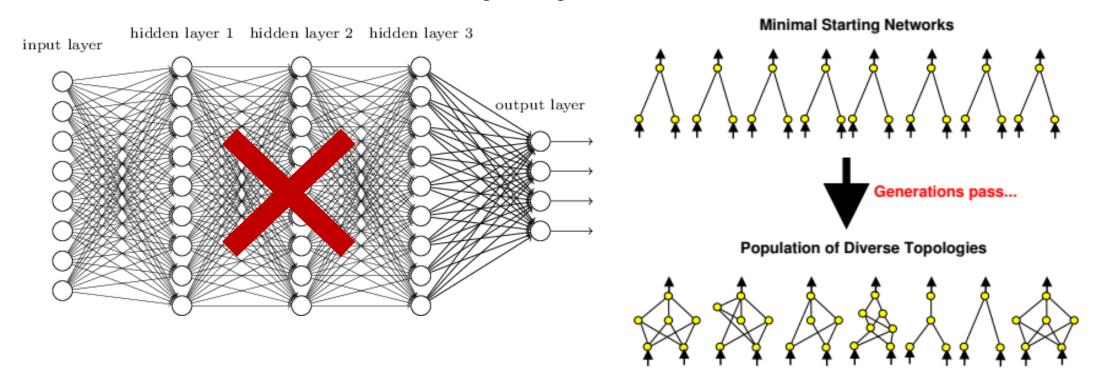
- Randomized crossover operators for continuous problems might be very ineffective.
- Evolution Strategies and Differential Evolution are to Evolutionary Algorithms used to more effectively search for better solutions in a continuous search space
- Typical crossover operator used in Genetic Algorithms

Parents										
0.10	0.23	0.41	0.13	0.46	0.21	0.66	0.22	0.19	0.83	P1
0.15	0.31	0.22	0.64	0.34	0.24	0.57	0.14	0.33	0.95	P2
$\alpha P1_i + (1 - \alpha)P2_i \longrightarrow \alpha$ generated randomly U(0,1)										
Offspring										
0.14	0.29	0.28	0.49	0.38	0.23	0.60	0.16	0.29	0.91	e.g. $\alpha = 0.3$
										-

Evolution Strategies	Differential Evolution	
~1964	~1997	
Vector of real variables	Vector of real variables	
(Recombination) + Mutation	Mutation + Crossover	
Very effective on optimization problems with continuous search space	Simple and fast	
Only applicable to problems with continuous search spaces	Convergence to local optima – only real domains ca be considered	
Continuous Optimization Reinforcement Learning	Continuous Optimization Control problems that require fast computation	

Neuroevolution of Augmenting Topologies (NEAT)

- Instead of relying on a fixed topology for a neural network, why not allow it to evolve through a genetic algorithm?
- Why Complexification?
 - Complexification keeps the search tractable (i.e. start simple, add more sophistication)
 - Incremental construction of intelligent agents



Key Questions in NEAT

- Is there a genetic encoding representation that allows differente topologies to crossover in a meaningful way?
- How can topological innovation that needs a few generations to be optimized be protected so that it does not disappear from the population prematurely
- How can topologies be minimized throughout evolution without the need for a specially contrived fitness function that measures complexity?

Genetic Encoding

Innovations

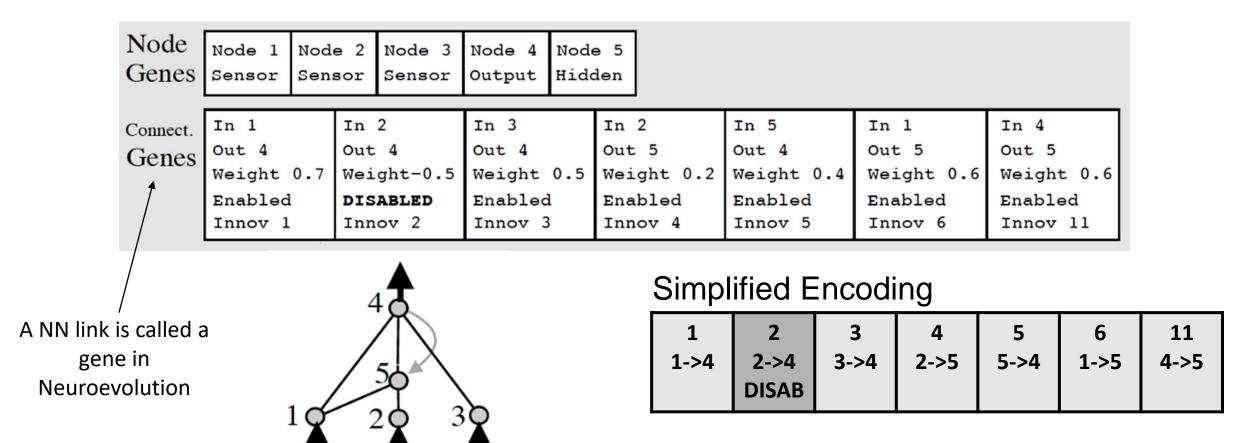
Speciation

Explicit Fitness Sharing

Minimal Structure Initialization

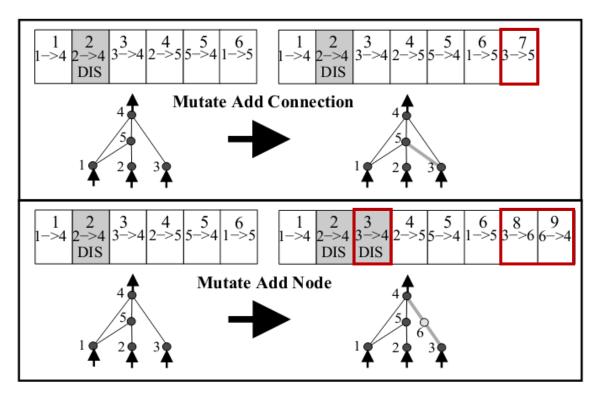
Genetic Encoding

 Genetic Encoding in NEAT is a little bit more complex than a simple tree or binary encoding, however, it is still straightforward to understand.



NEAT Mutations

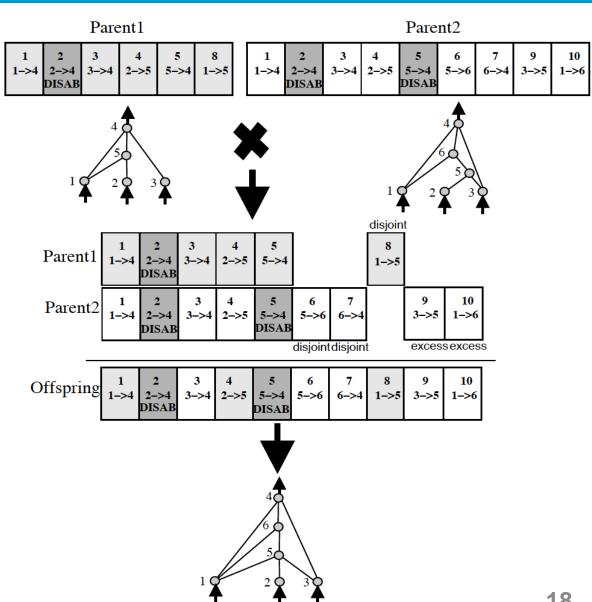
- Three main Types of Mutations
- Randomly change a weight/bias of the NN
- Add a new gene (link) to the NN If a new connection is added between a start and end node, it is randomly assigned a weight.
- Add a new node to the NN If a new node is added, it is placed between two nodes that are already connected. The previous connection is disabled. The previous start node is linked to the new node with the weight of the old connection and the new node is linked to the previous end node with a weight of 1. This was found to help mitigate issues with new structural additions.



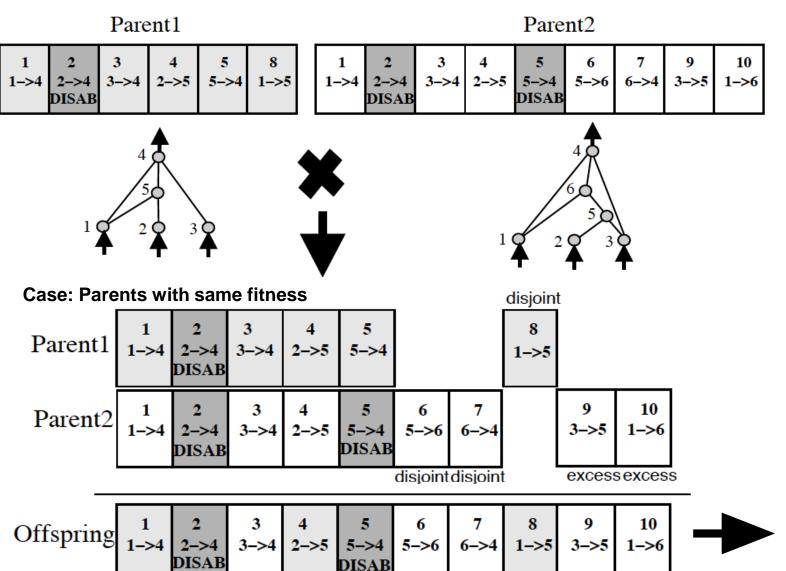
Note: Input and output nodes are not evolved in the node gene list. Hidden nodes can be added or removed.

Historical Marking Crossover

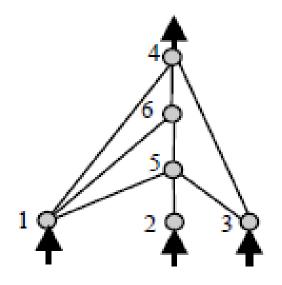
- By marking new evolutions with a historical number, when it comes time to crossover two individuals, this can be done with much less chance of creating individuals that are non-functional
- We consider 3 types of genes (links) when crossing over two NN
 - Matching Genes
 - Disjoint Genes
 - Excess Genes



Historical Marking Crossover

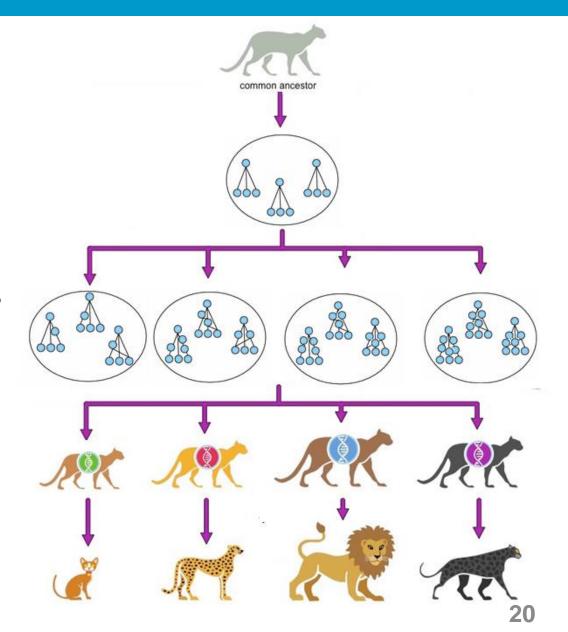


- Matching genes are inherited randomly,
- Disjoint genes and Excess genes are inherited from the more fit parent.
- If both parents have the same fitness, then inherit all disjoint and excess genes.



Speciation

- Adding a new connection or node before any optimization of weights have occurred often leads to a lower performing individual.
- This puts new structures at a disadvantage.
- How can we protect new structures and allow them to optimize before we eliminate them from the population entirely?
- Speciation simply splits up the population into several species based on the similarity of topology and connections.
- The historical markings presented in the previous slides makes easier to split the the population into several species

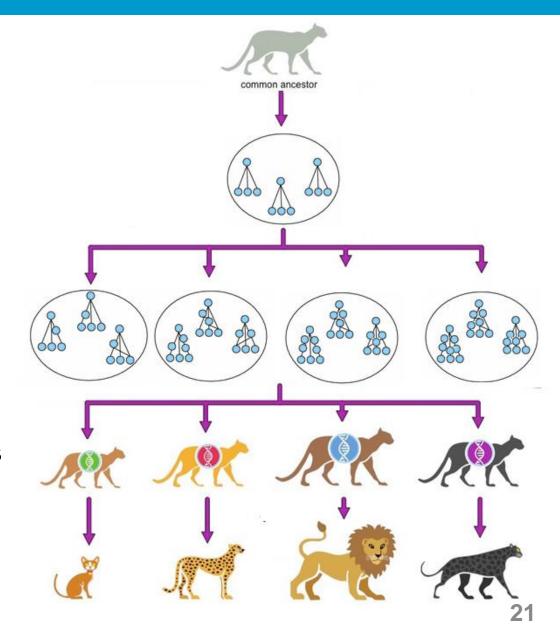


Speciation

 Species are determined by compatibility distance – calculated by measuring diversity of two individuals

$$\delta_{ij} = \frac{c_1 E_{ij}}{N_{ij}} + \frac{c_2 D_{ij}}{N_{ij}} + c_3 W_{ij}$$

- δ_{ij} is the measure of how compatible two NN are with each other
- c_1, c_2, c_3 are user parameters that dictates the importance given to E_{ij}, D_{ij}, W_{ij}
- E_{ij} represents the total number of excess genes
- D_{ij} represents the total number of disjoint genes
- E_{ij} represents the total weight difference between matching genes
- N_{ij} represents the number of genes of the NN with the larger number



Speciation

 Species are determined by compatibility distance – calculated by measuring diversity of two individuals

$$\delta_{ij} = \frac{c_1 E_{ij}}{N_{ij}} + \frac{c_2 D_{ij}}{N_{ij}} + c_3 W_{ij}$$

Example:

NN1

ID=1 ID=2 W=0.55 Matc. Disj.

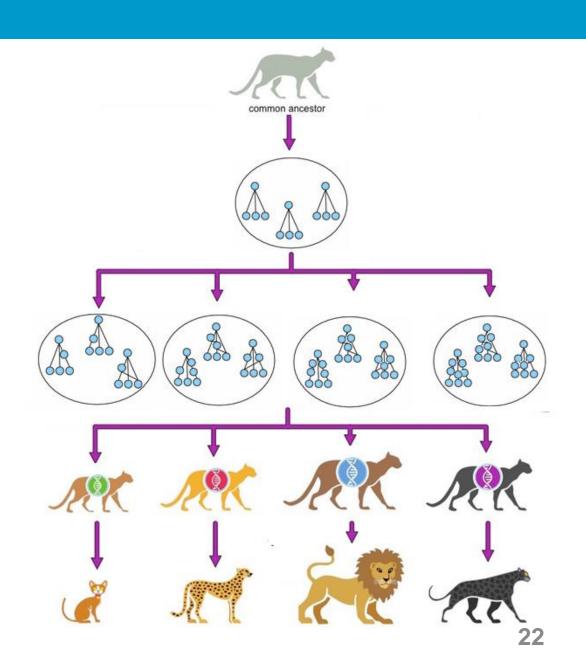
ID=4 W=0.78 Disj.

ID=6 W=0.2 Excs.

NN2

ID=1 W=0.15 Matc. ID=3 W=0.92 Disj. ID=5 W=0.37 Disj.

$$\delta_{12} = \frac{c_1 \times 1}{4} + \frac{c_2 \times 4}{4} + c_3(0.25 - 0.15)$$



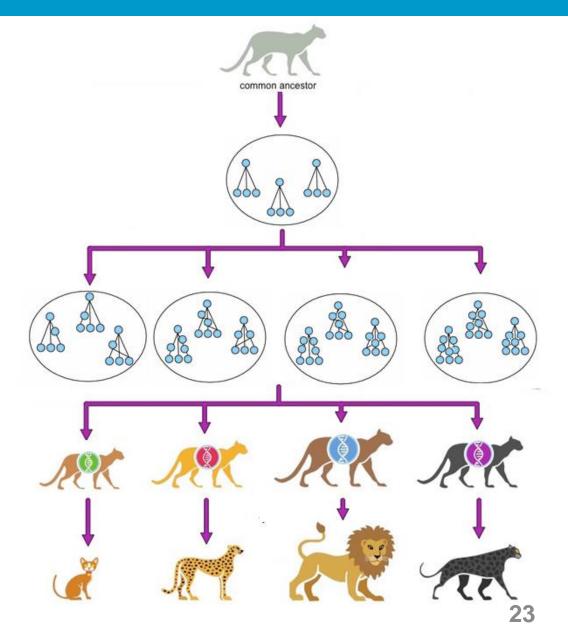
Fitness Sharing

 Species are determined by compatibility distance – calculated by measuring diversity of two individuals

$$\delta_{ij} = \frac{c_1 E_{ij}}{N_{ij}} + \frac{c_2 D_{ij}}{N_{ij}} + c_3 W_{ij}$$

- Two NN belong to a same species if the compatibility distance is smaller than a given threshold σ .
- Fitness sharing transforms the raw fitness of an individual into the shared one (usually lower). NEAT will prioritize species that are more unique.

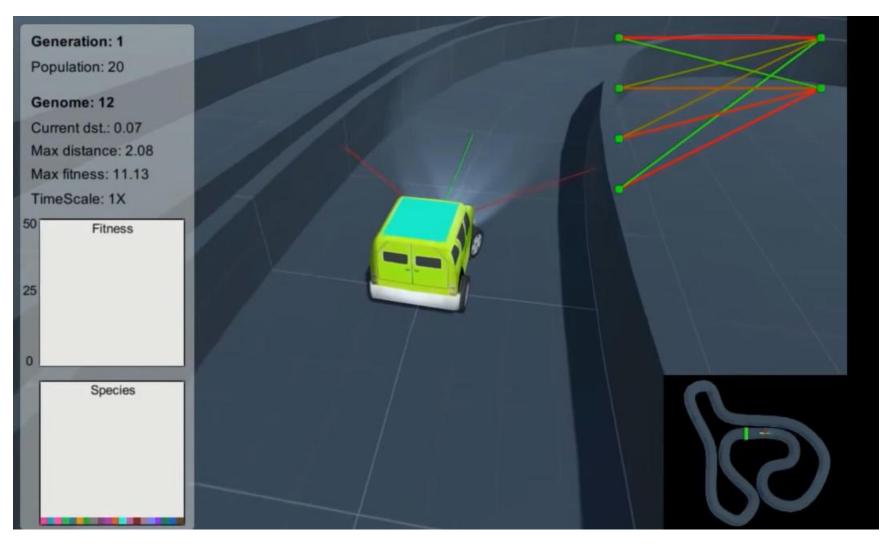
$$f_i' = \frac{f_i}{S_i}$$
 Where S_i is the number of NN in the same species as the NN i



Minimal Structure

- A large goal of NEAT is to create a framework for evolving networks that allowed for minimal networks to be evolved.
- The idea is to build an algorithm that started with the minimal amount of nodes and connections, evolving complexity as time goes on if and only if it is found to be useful and necessary.
- NEAT sets up their algorithm to evolve minimal networks by starting all networks with no hidden nodes. Each individual in the initial population is simply input nodes, output nodes, and a series of connection genes between them. By itself, this may not necessarily work, but when combined with the idea of speciation, this proves to be a powerful idea in evolving minimal, yet high-performing networks.
- Next Phase in NEAT research: combining NEAT with gradient-descent methods

Selfless Driving Car



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2bW9CdFcaUI



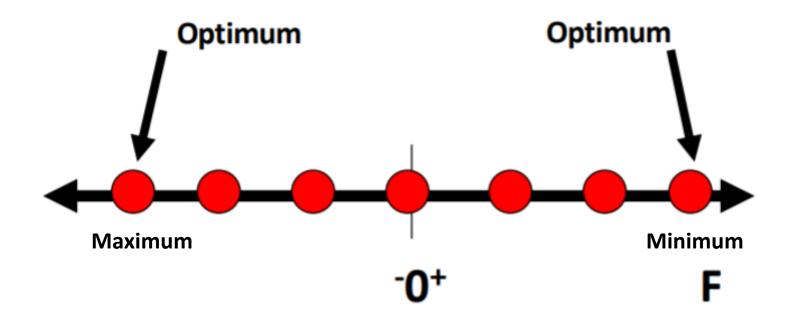
Multi-Objective Optimization

Nuno Antunes Ribeiro Assistant Professor



Single Objective Optimization

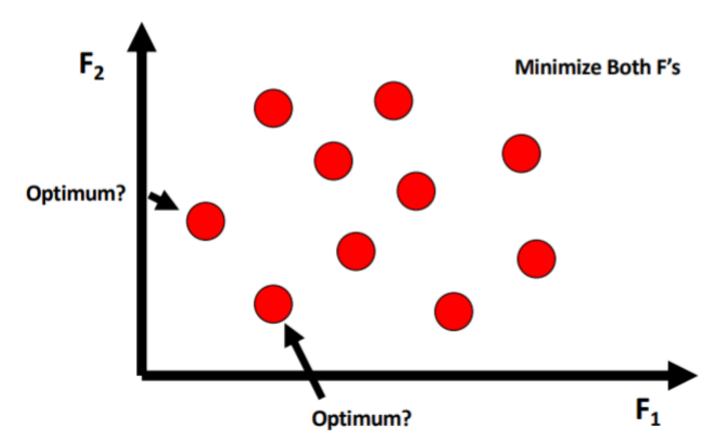
- The problem has a 1-dimensional performance space and the optimum
- point is the one that is the furthest toward the desired extreme.
- There is typically only a single solution that gives the best objective value.



Source: Håken Jevne, Norwegiam University of Science and Technology, Slides Multi-objective Evolutionary Algorithms

Multiple Objective Optimization (MOO)

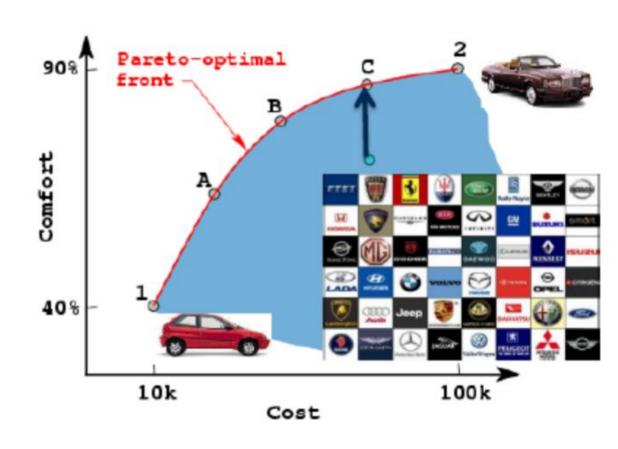
But what happens in a case like this (conflicting)



Source: Håken Jevne, Norwegiam University of Science and Technology, Slides Multi-objective Evolutionary Algorithms

Why Multi-Objective Optimization (MOO)?

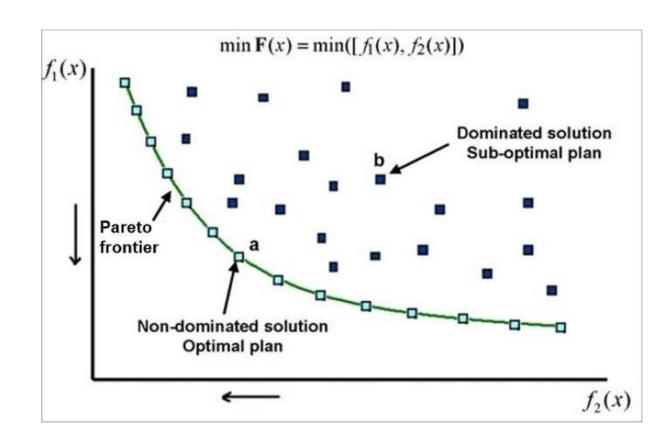
- Most industry optimization problems are multi-objective
- Example:
 - Buying an Automobile
 - Objective = reduce cost, while maximize comfort.
 - No solution from this set makes both objectives look better than any other solution from the set.
 - No single optimal solution.
 - Trade off between conflicting objectives - cost and comfort.



$$f(x) = 0bj_1 + 0bj_2$$

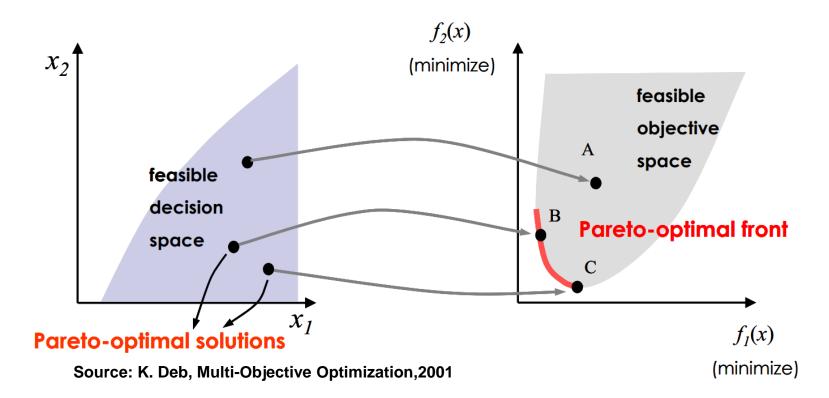
Pareto-Optimal Front

- Multi-objective optimization is extremely complex.
- We are not solving just a single optimization problem, but many optimizations at the same time.
- It can be extremely computationally intensive.
- Strategies to efficiently draw the pareto-optimal front of these problems is an important avenue for research that has been gaining more and more attention over the years.

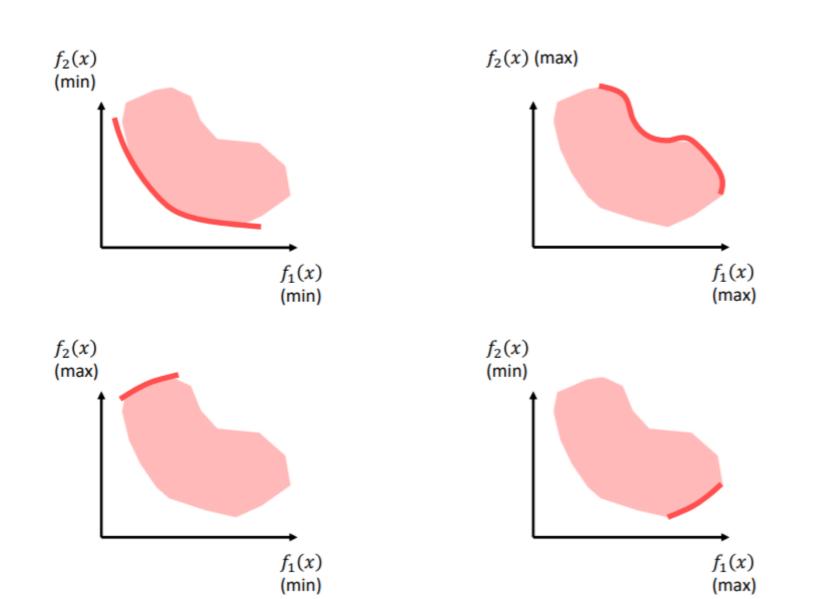


Pareto-Optimal Front

- The non-dominated set of the entire feasible decision space is called the Pareto-optimal set.
- The boundary defined by the set of all point mapped from the Pareto optimal set is called the Pareto optimal front.



Pareto-Optimal Front



Dominance Test

- In the single-objective optimization problem, the superiority of a solution over other solutions is easily determined by comparing their objective function values
- In multi-objective optimization problem, the goodness of a solution is determined by the dominance
- Dominance Test:
 - x1 dominates x2, if
 - Solution x1 is no worse than x2 in all objectives
 - Solution x1 is strictly better than x2 in at least one objective

Solution	minimize			
Solution	Obj 1	Obj 2	Obj 3	
1	20	300	400	
2	1000	0	1000	
3	200	500	10	
,4	30	300	410	
5	50	600	80	

Dominated by solution 1

Non-dominated
How to find these solutions,
they do not optimize any
objective?

Classic MOO methods

- Lexicographic method
- Weighted sum method
- ε-constraint method
- Weighted metric method
- Rotated weighted metric method
- Dynamically changing the ideal solution
- Benson's method
- Value function method

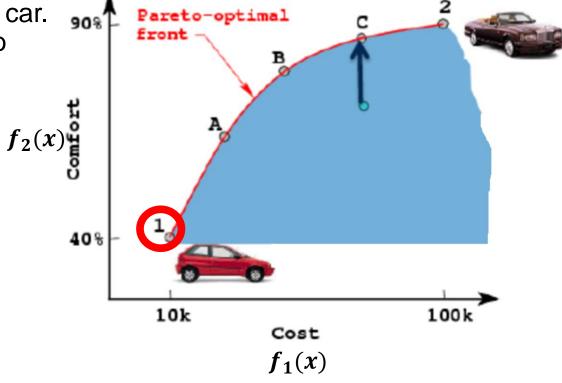
Lexicographic method

- With the lexicographic method, preferences are imposed by ordering the objective functions according to their importance or significance
- Example: your main goal is to find the cheapest car.
 Then, within the list of cheapest cars, you aim to purchase the most comfortable one.
- Solving the lexicographic method:
 - Approach 1

Solve: $minimize\ f_1(x)$ Solve $maximize\ f_2(x); s.\ t.\ f_1(x) \le 0$ ptimum

Approach 2

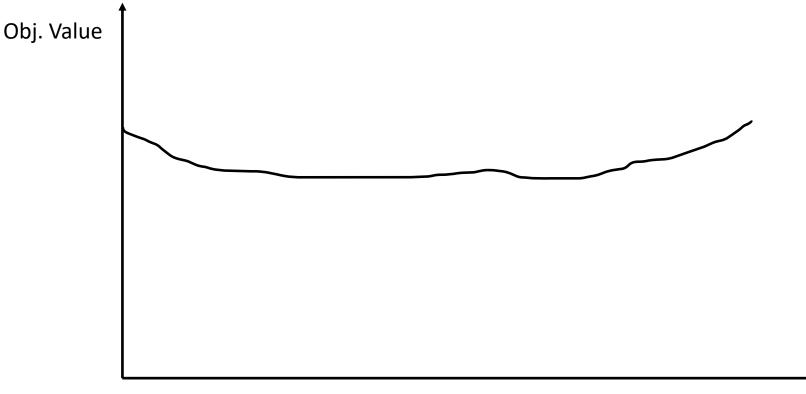
Solve: $minimize\ Mf_1(x) - f_2(x)$, where M is a very large number



 Main Issue: there may be a very good solution for objective 2, very near the optimal solution of objective 1

Different Problem – Different Landscapes

Rugged Plain Landscape



Problem with the objective function: A flat landscape indicates that regardless of the solution obtained the objective values are all going to be similar. This means that either there is nothing to optimize and therefore the problem is not relevant; or the objective function is not well defined.

A flat landscape has nothing to do with the metaheuristic performance

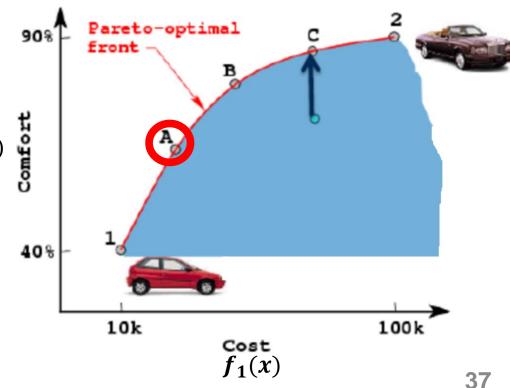
Search Space

Weighted method

- Scalarize a set of objectives into a single objective by adding each objective multiplied by a user-specified weight.
- Weight of an objective is chosen in proportion to the relative importance of the objective

Solve: $minimize \ \alpha \ f_1(x) + (1 - \alpha)f_2(x)$

- Main Issue: objectives may need to be normalized; e.g. it is difficult to compare cost anterior
 comfort.
- One of the simplest approaches is to optimize each of the objectives individually first. Then divide each objective by those optimum values and then sum up all normalized terms as one objective. The new objective will be dimensionless.

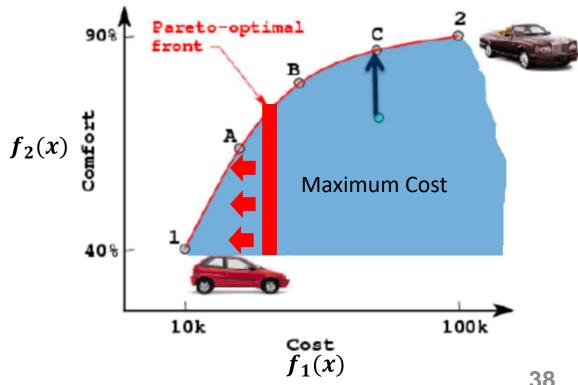


ε-constraint method

- Keep just one of the objectives
- Treat the rest as constraints and modify the constraint value.

Solve: $maximize f_2(x)$, $s.t.f_1(x) \leq Target$

Main Issue: You may have no idea which targets to consider.



Evolutionary vs Traditional Approaches

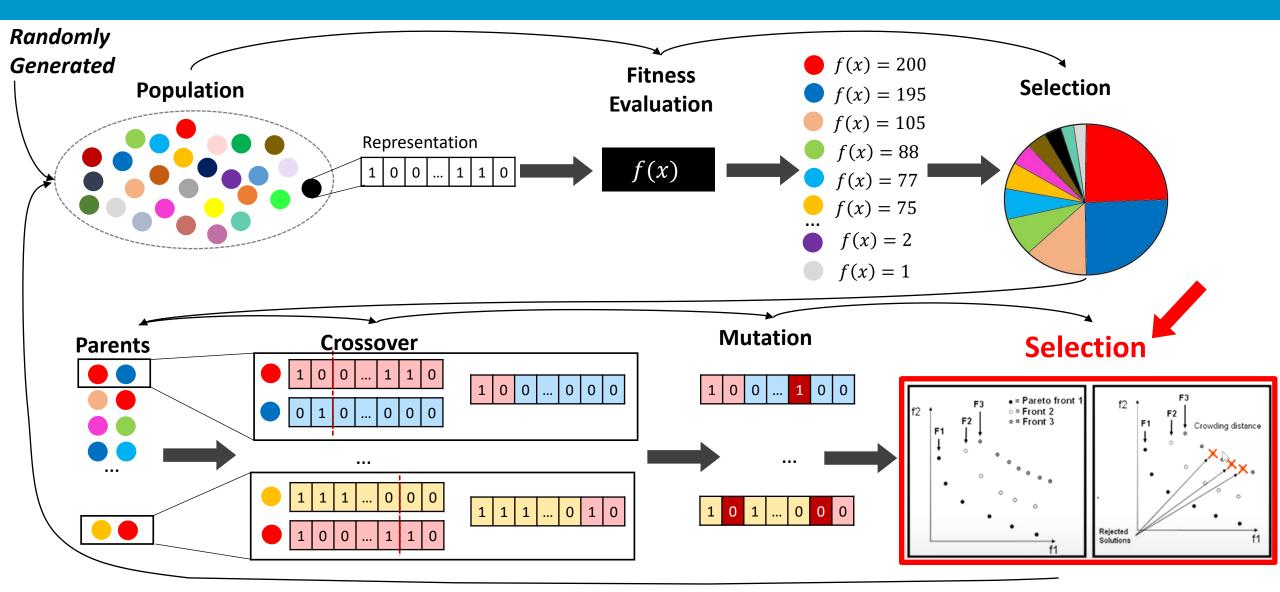
Evolutionary Approaches	Traditional Approaches	
Can simultaneously deal with a set of possible solutions (the so-called population).	Normally work with a single solution.	
Allow us to find several members of the Pareto-Optimal set in a single run of the algorithm.	· · ·	
less susceptible to the shape or continuity of the Pareto front can easily deal with discontinuous or concave Pareto fronts.		
Can be implemented in a parallel environment.	Difficult for parallel implementation.	

Source: Håken Jevne, Norwegiam University of Science and Technology, Slides Multi-objective Evolutionary Algorithms

Elitist Non-Dominated Sorting GA (NSGA)

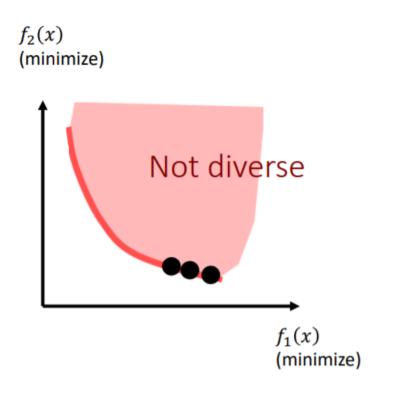
- NSGA-II is the most popular multi-objective metaheuristics used in MOO problems
- It was first proposed by Deb et. al. in 2002 in the paper "A fast and elitist multiobjective genetic algorithm: NSGA-II"— with more than 35000 citations.
- Three main features:
 - A non-dominated sorting where all the individuals are sorted according to the level of non-domination
 - An elitism selection to preserve solutions with best features
 - A crowding distance that emphasize on less crowded regions of the solution space to maintain diversity and spread of the solutions

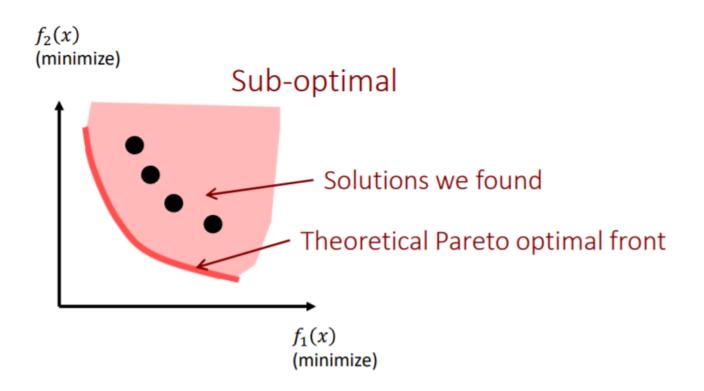
Evolutionary Algorithm (Review)



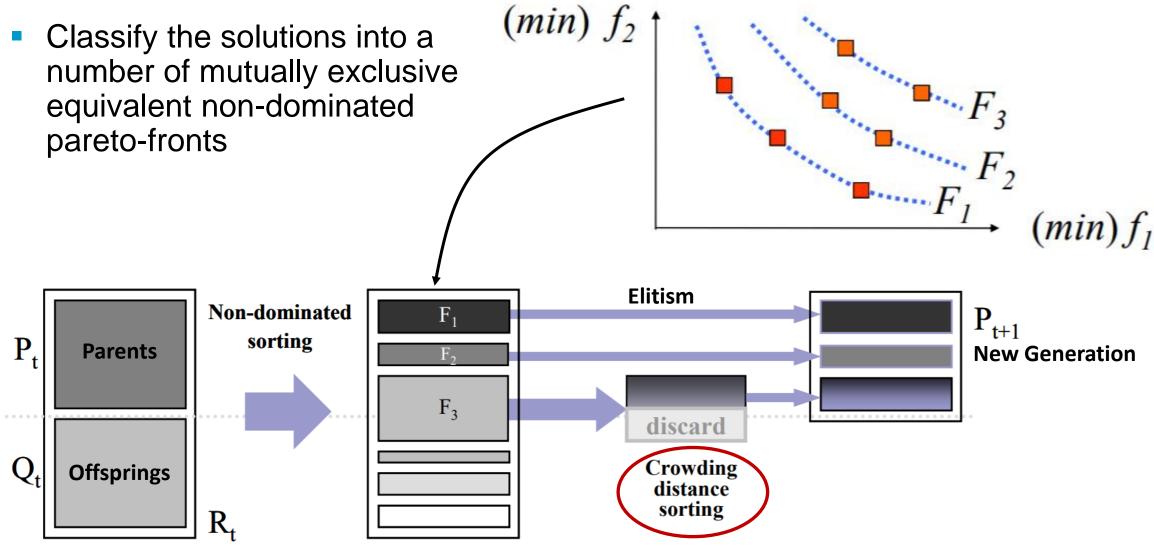
Goals of Multi-Objective Optimization (MOO)

- Find a set of solutions as near as possible to Pareto-optimal front (convergence)
- Find a set of solutions as diverse as possible (diversity)

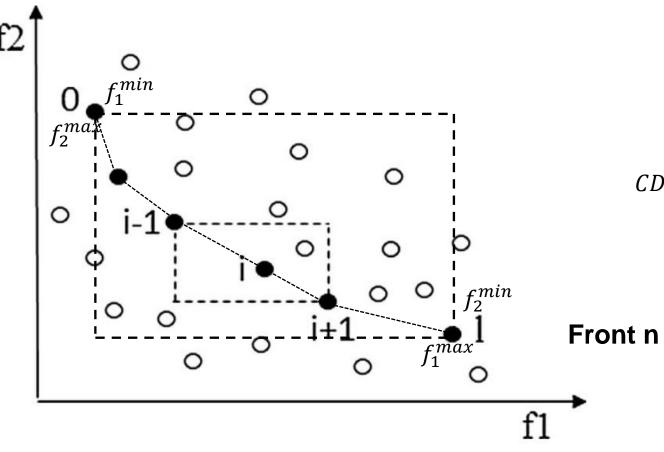




Non-Dominated Sorting



Crowding Distance



$$CD = \frac{f_1^{i+1} - f_1^{i-1}}{f_1^{max} - f_1^{min}} + \frac{f_2^{i+1} - f_2^{i-1}}{f_2^{max} - f_2^{min}}$$

$$CD = \sum_{M} \frac{f_m^{i+1} - f_m^{i-1}}{f_m^{max} - f_m^{min}}$$
 M – Set of Objectives