Learning to Optimize in Swarms

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Abstract

- Learning to optimize has emerged as a powerful framework for various optimization tasks.
- Current such "meta-optimizers" often learn in the space of continuous optimization algorithms that are **point-based** and **uncertainty-unaware**.
- We learn in an extended space of **both** point-based and **population-based** optimization algorithms.
- We incorporate a Boltzmann-shaped **posterior over the global optimum** into meta-loss to balance the exploitation-exploration trade-off during search.
- Empirical results over non-convex test functions and the **protein docking** application demonstrate that this new meta-optimizer outperforms existing competitors.

Methods

• **Updating Rules:** Iterative optimization algorithms, either point-based or population-based, share a generic expression of update formulae:

$$oldsymbol{x}^{t+1} = oldsymbol{x}^t + \delta oldsymbol{x}^t$$

The update is often a function $g(\cdot)$ of the historic sample values, objective values, and gradients. For instance, in particle swarm optimization (PSO), we have

$$egin{aligned} \delta oldsymbol{x}_j^t &= g(\{oldsymbol{x}_j^ au, f(oldsymbol{x}_j^ au),
abla f(oldsymbol{x}_j^ au)\}_{j=1, au=1}^{k,t}) \ &= w \delta oldsymbol{x}_j^{t-1} + r_1(oldsymbol{x}_j^t - oldsymbol{x}_j^{t*}) + r_2(oldsymbol{x}_j^t - oldsymbol{x}^{t*}) \end{aligned}$$

In **our** approach, we parameterize the update rule $g(\cdot)$ through RNN, and introduce **intra-** and **inter-particle attention mechanisms**:

$$g_i(\cdot) = \text{RNN}_i(\alpha_i^{\text{inter}}(\{\alpha_i^{\text{intra}}(\{S_i^{\tau}\}_{\tau=1}^t)\}_{i=1}^k), \boldsymbol{h}_i^{t-1})$$

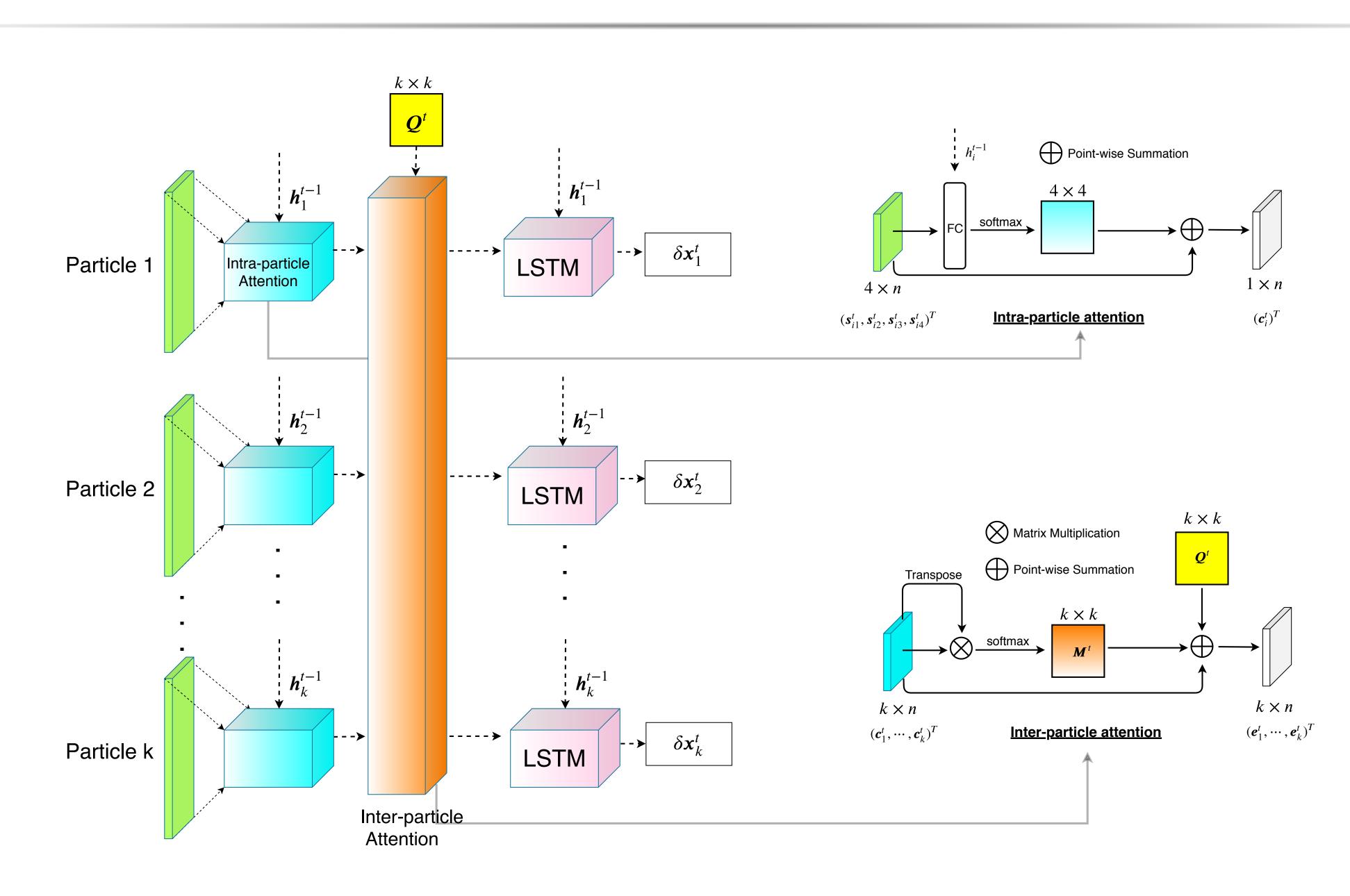
- Population-based and Point-based Features: Inspired from both point- and population-based algorithms, we choose the following four features for particle i at iteration t:
- gradient: $\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}_i^t)$
- momentum: $\boldsymbol{m}_i^t = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\tau=1}^t (1-\beta)\beta^{t-1} \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\tau})$ • velocity: $\boldsymbol{v}_i^t = \boldsymbol{x}_i^t - \boldsymbol{x}_i^{t*}$
- attraction: $\frac{\sum_{j} (e^{-\alpha d_{ij}^2}(\boldsymbol{x}_i^t \boldsymbol{x}_j^t))}{\sum_{j} e^{-\alpha d_{ij}^2}}$, for all j that $f(\boldsymbol{x}_j^t) < f(\boldsymbol{x}_i^t)$. α is the hyperparameter and $d_{ij} = ||\boldsymbol{x}_i^t \boldsymbol{x}_j^t||_2$.
- Loss Function: In order to balance the exploration-exploitation tradeoff, we combine the cumulative regret and the entropy of the posterior over the global optimum:

$$\ell_f(\boldsymbol{\phi}) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{j=1}^{k} f(\boldsymbol{x}_j^t) + \lambda h(p(\boldsymbol{x}^*| \sum_{t=1}^{T} D_t)),$$

where the posterior is a **Boltzmann distribution** [3]:

$$p\left(\boldsymbol{x}^* \middle|_{t=1}^T D_t\right) \propto \exp(-\rho \hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}))$$

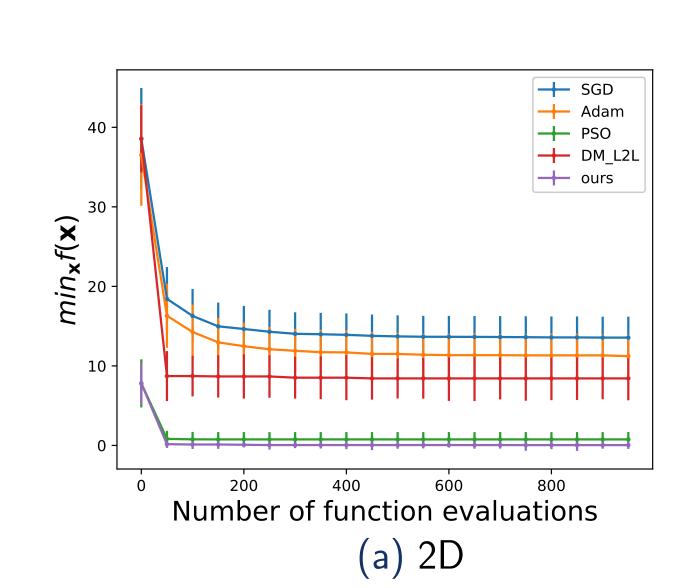
Overall architectures and attention modules

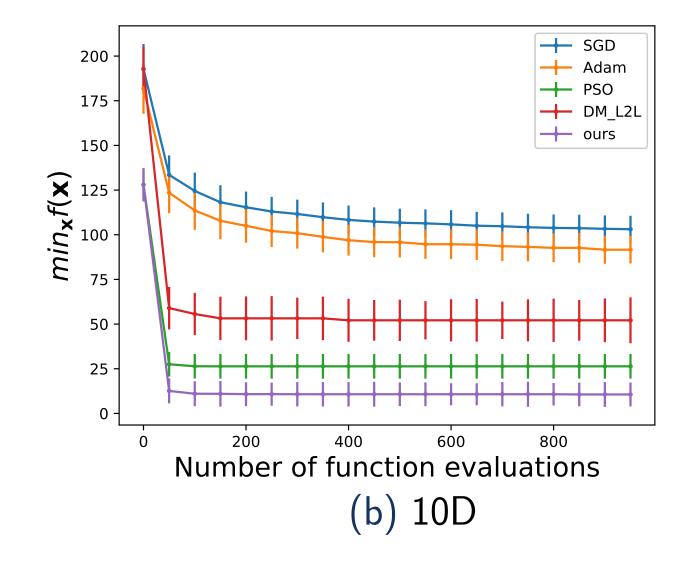


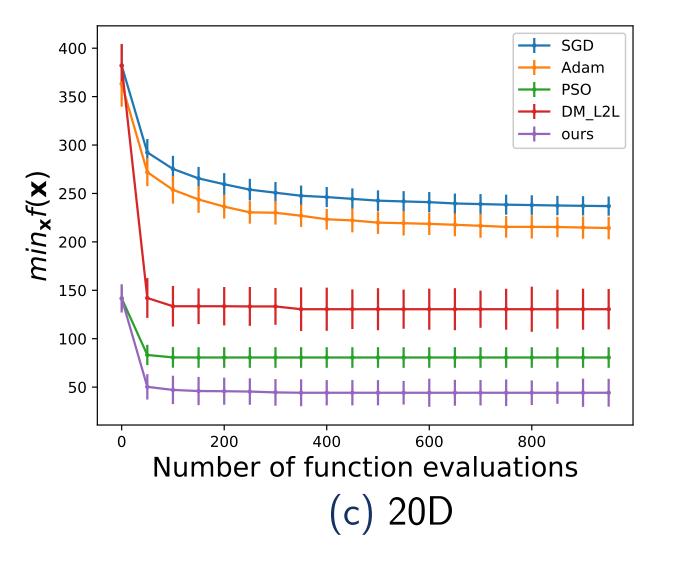
- Intra-particle (feature-level) attention: $b_{ij}^t = \boldsymbol{v}_a^T \tanh{(\boldsymbol{W}_a \boldsymbol{s}_{ij}^t + \boldsymbol{U}_a \boldsymbol{h}_{ij}^t)}, \quad p_{ij}^t = \frac{\exp(b_{ij}^t)}{\Sigma_{r=1}^4 \exp(b_{ir}^t)}, \quad \boldsymbol{c}_i^t = \Sigma_{r=1}^4 p_{ir}^t \boldsymbol{s}_{ir}^t$
- Inter-particle (sample-level) attention: $e_i^t = \gamma z_{r=1}^k m_{rj}^t q_{rj}^t c_r^t + c_j^t$

Test Function Results

LOIS outperforms DM_LSTM [1] and hand-engineered algorithms in optimizing non-convex Rastrigin functions: $f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha \cos(2\pi x_i) + \alpha n$

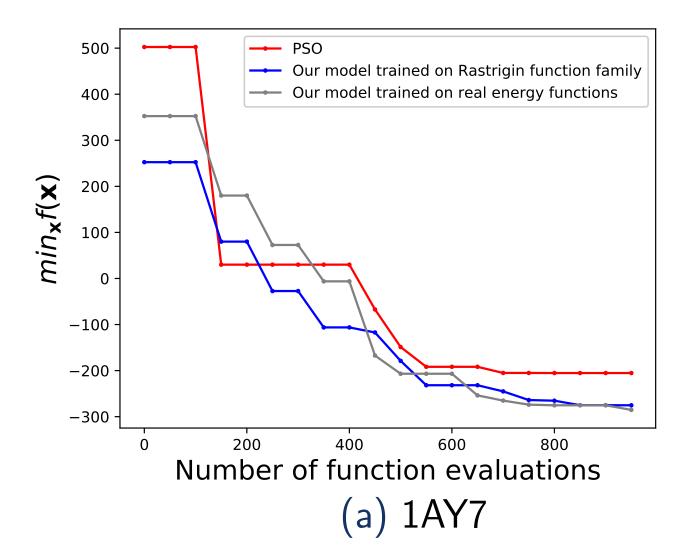


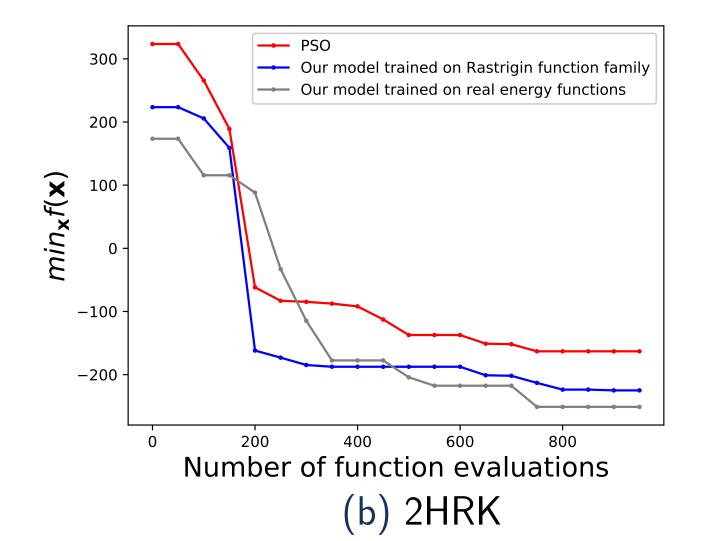


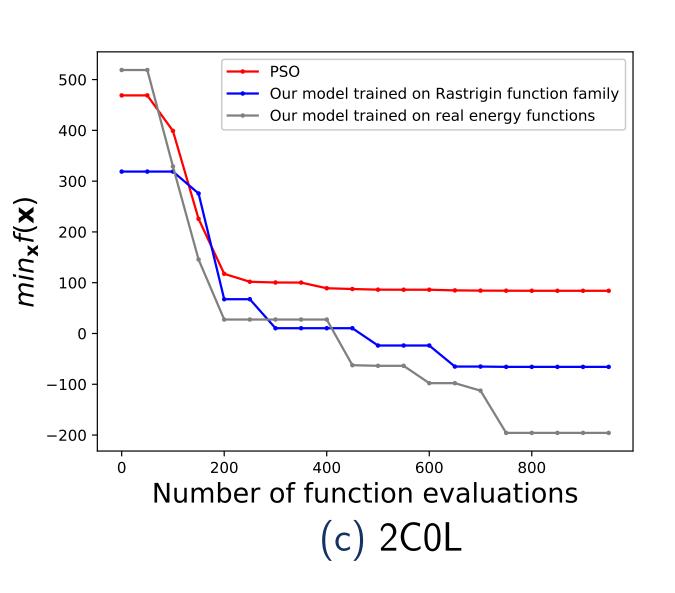


Protein Docking Results

Ab initio protein docking represents a major challenge for optimizing a noisy and costly function in a high-dimensional space [3]. We parameterize the search space as \mathbb{R}^{12} as in [3]. The corresponding $f(\boldsymbol{x})$ (energy function) is fully differentiable. **LOIS** outperforms PSO in energy scores for three protein-protein pairs of different difficulty-levels.

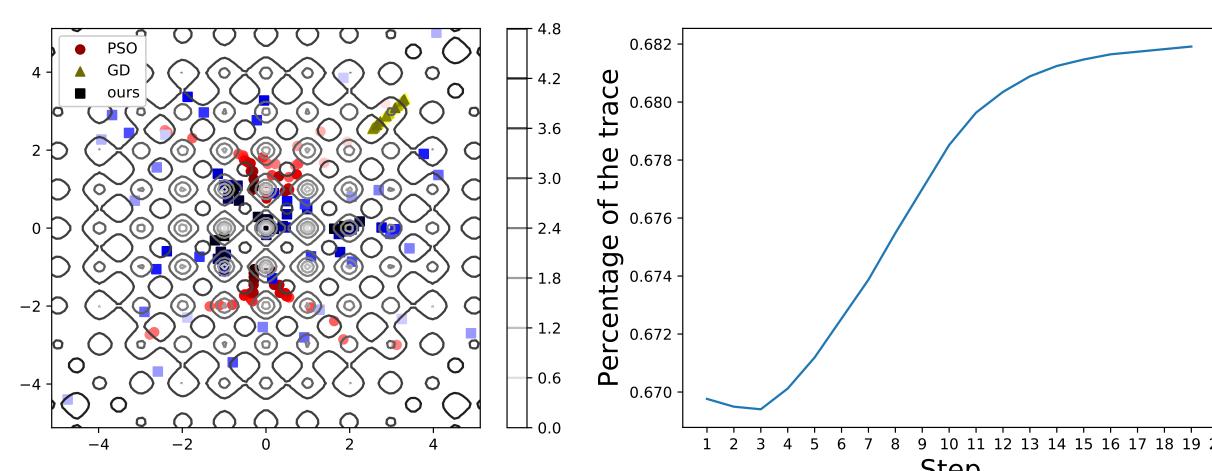






Interpretation Results

• The trace only accounts for 66%-69% over iterations as shown in (b). This demonstrates the importance of collaboration, a unique advantage of population-based algorithms.



- (a) Paths of the first 80 samples of our meta-optimizer, PSO and GD for the 2D Rastrigin function.
- (b) The percentage of the trace of $\gamma \boldsymbol{Q}^t \odot \boldsymbol{M}^t + \boldsymbol{I}$ (reflecting self-impact on updates) over iteration t.
- In the first 6 iterations, the population-based features (3 & 4) contribute to the update the most. Point-based features (1 & 2) start to play an important role later:

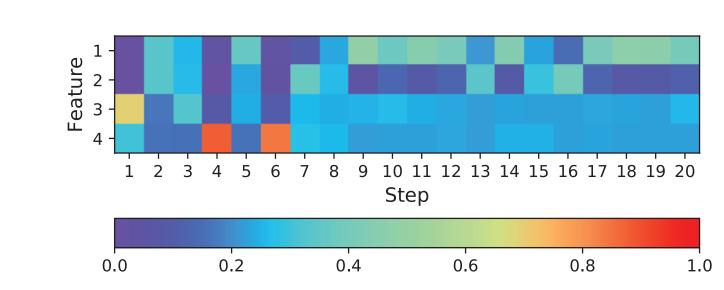


Figure: Feature distribution over the first 20 iterations for our meta-optimizer.

Ablation Study

Dimension	${f B}_0$	${f B}_1$	${f B}_2$	\mathbf{B}_3	Proposed
10	55.4 ± 13.5	48.4 ± 10.5	40.1 ± 9.4	20.4 ± 6.6	12.3 ± 5.4
20	140.4 ± 10.2	137.4 ± 12.7	108.4 ± 13.4	48.5 ± 7.1	43.0 ± 9.2

Table: \mathbf{B}_0 : the DM_LSTM baseline. \mathbf{B}_1 : running DM_LSTM for k times and choosing the best solution . \mathbf{B}_2 : using k independent particles, each with the two point-based features and the intra-particle attention module. \mathbf{B}_3 : adding the two population-based features and the inter-particle attention module to \mathbf{B}_2 . **Proposed**: adding an entropy term in meta loss to \mathbf{B}_3 .

Acknowledgement

This work is in part supported by the National Institutes of Health (R35GM124952 to YS). Part of the computing time is provided by the Texas A&M High Performance Research Computing.

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