

# Cumulative Step-size Adaptation on Linear Functions

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### Introduction and motivation

- ▶ Objective: optimize f : ℝ<sup>n</sup> → ℝ, where f is the composite of a linear function by a strictly increasing function.
- Model for when the step-size is small compared to the distance to the optimum. This situation threatens premature convergence.
- ► W.I.o.g., as CSA-ES is invariant under change of orthonormal basis, we can assume that *f* is the projection on the first dimension of a point of ℝ<sup>n</sup>, that is *f*(*x*) = [*x*]<sub>1</sub>.
- Motivation: the linear functions case must be

# **CSA-ES** without cumulation

- ► Without cumulation c = 1 so Eq. (1) becomes  $p^{(g+1)} = \xi_{\star}^{(g)}$ .
- Applying the LLN with Eq. (2) we get geometric divergence of the step-size for  $\lambda \geq 3$

$$\frac{1}{g} \ln\left(\frac{\sigma^{(g)}}{\sigma^{(0)}}\right) \xrightarrow[g \to \infty]{a.s} \frac{1}{2d_{\sigma}n} \left(\mathbf{E}\left(\mathcal{N}_{1:\lambda}^2\right) - 1\right) > \mathbf{0}$$
(3)

With  $\mathcal{N}_{i:\lambda}$  being the *i*<sup>th</sup> order statistic of  $\lambda$  random variables, i.i.d. according to a standard normal distribution.

► With a LLN for Markov chains we find a similar result on  $X^{(g)}$  for  $\lambda \ge 3$ 

$$\frac{1}{g} \ln \left| \frac{\left[ \mathbf{X}^{(g)} \right]_{1}}{\left[ \mathbf{X}^{(0)} \right]_{1}} \right| \xrightarrow[g \to \infty]{a.s} \frac{1}{2d_{\sigma}n} \left( \mathbf{E} \left( \mathcal{N}_{1:\lambda}^{2} \right) - 1 \right) > \mathbf{0}$$

handled well by any search algorithm by increasing the step-size, which is of critical importance in converging independently of the starting point in more general functions. It is not handled well by the (1, 2)-SA-ES.

# $(1, \lambda)$ -CSA-ES

#### While stopping criterion has not been met:

• Generate  $\lambda$  new samples from previous selected point  $\mathbf{X}^{(g)}$  of generation g with i.i.d. sequence  $(\boldsymbol{\xi}_{i}^{(g)})_{i \in [[1,\lambda]]}$  of random steps, distributed according to a standard normal law  $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, Id_{n})$ :

$$\boldsymbol{Y}_{i}^{(g)} = \boldsymbol{X}^{(g)} + \sigma^{(g)} \boldsymbol{\xi}_{i}^{(g)}$$

Select the sample minimizing f:

$$\boldsymbol{X}^{(g+1)} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{Y} \in (\boldsymbol{Y}_{i}^{(g)})_{i \in [[1,\lambda]]}} f(\boldsymbol{Y}) = \boldsymbol{X}^{(g)} + \sigma^{(g)} \boldsymbol{\xi}_{\star}^{(g)}$$

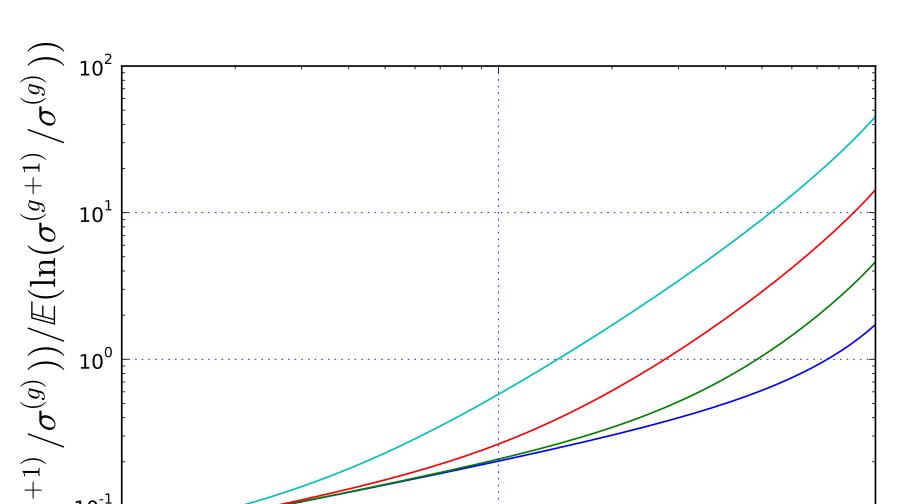
Adapt the cumulative path with the selected

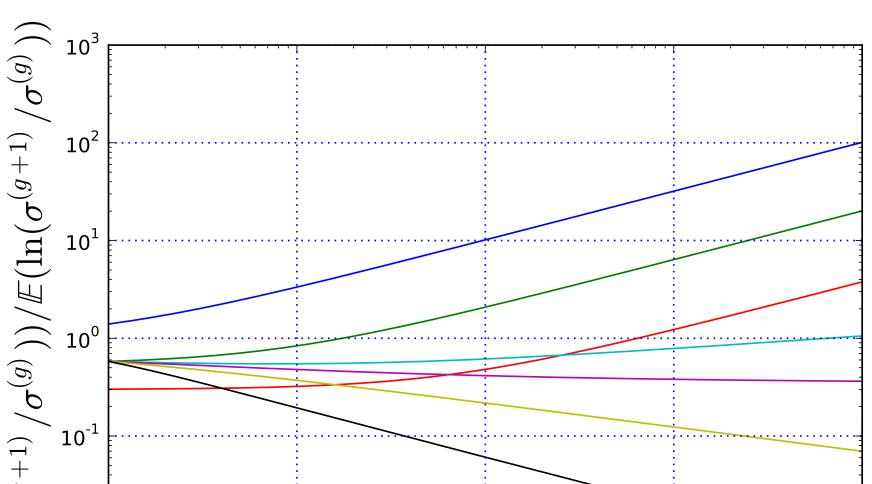
# **CSA-ES** with cumulation

Through Markov chain analysis we obtain geometric divergence of the step-size for  $\lambda \ge 2$  and c < 1

$$\frac{1}{g} \ln\left(\frac{\sigma^{(g)}}{\sigma^{(0)}}\right) \xrightarrow[g \to \infty]{a.s} \frac{1}{2d_{\sigma}n} \left( \left(2 - 2c\right) \mathbf{E} \left(\mathcal{N}_{1:\lambda}\right)^2 + c \left(\mathbf{E} \left(\mathcal{N}_{1:\lambda}^2\right) - 1\right) \right) > \mathbf{0}$$
(5)

## Noise to Signal ratio





INVENTEURS DU MONDE NUMÉRIQUE

step:

$$p^{(g+1)} = (1-c)p^{(g)} + \sqrt{c(2-c)}\xi^{(g)}_{\star}$$
 (1)

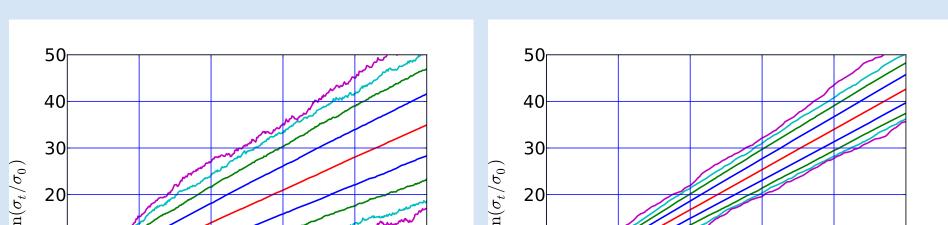
Coefficients were chosen such that if  $p^{(g)} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, Id_n)$  and  $\xi_{\star}^{(g)} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, Id_n)$  (which is the case if f is 'random'), then  $p^{(g+1)} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, Id_n)$ .

Adapt the step-size according to the cumulative path:

 $\sigma^{(g+1)} = \sigma^{(g)} \exp\left(\frac{c}{2d_{\sigma}} \left(\frac{\|\boldsymbol{p}^{(g+1)}\|^2}{n} - 1\right)\right) \quad (2)$ 

Increment g and loop over.

#### Simulations



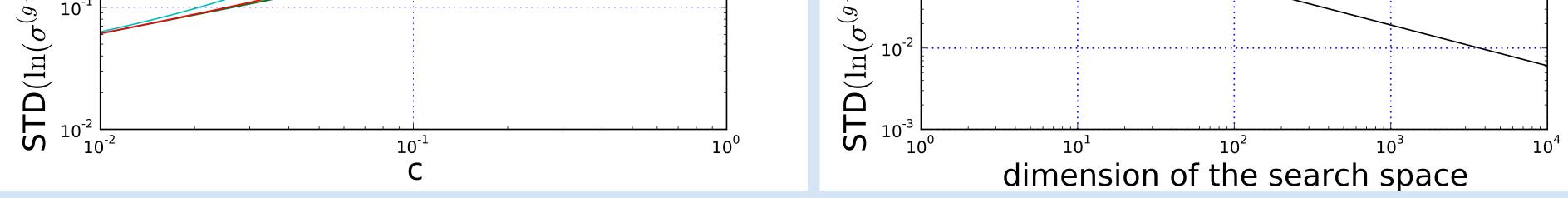


Fig. 2: Plot of the standard deviation of  $\ln(\sigma^{(g+1)}/\sigma^{(g)})$  divided by its expected value, for  $\lambda = 8$ . On the left for different dimensions, from bottom to top n = 2, 20, 200, 2000. On the right different c, from top to bottom: c = 1, 0.5, 0.2,  $1/(1 + n^{1/4})$ ,  $1/(1 + n^{1/3})$ ,  $1/(1 + n^{1/2})$ , 1/(1 + n)

As shown in Fig. 2 right, with a constant c the relative standard deviation increases with the dimension as  $\sqrt{n}$ . However, in Fig. 2 left, decreasing c decreases as well the relative standard deviation, as was shown in Fig. 1. Finally, we see in Fig. 2 right that for  $c < 1/(1 + n^{1/3})$  the relative standard deviation decreases with the dimension.

#### **Divergence** rate as a function of $\lambda$

The divergence rate in Eq. (5) increases with  $\lambda$ , as does the number of function evaluations per iterations. Dividing the right hand side of Eq. (5) by  $\lambda$ , we obtain a speed per evaluation (instead of a speed per iteration), shown in the following curves:

#### Advantages of Cumulation

- For  $\lambda = 2$ ,
  - Without cumulation (c = 1) the algorithm fails on linear functions (more precisely, ln(σ<sup>(g)</sup>) does an unbiased random walk), like the (1, 2)-SA-ES, for the same symmetry reasons.
  - Cumulation (c<1) solves the problem, with the step-size geometrically diverging almost surely.

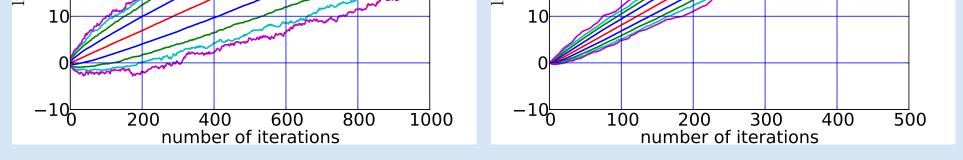


Fig. 1: Plot of the quantiles of 5001 simulations of  $\ln(\sigma^{(g)}/\sigma^{(0)})$  against g with  $\lambda = 8$  and n = 20. From the top to the bottom are the  $1 - 10^{-i}$  quantiles, then the median, then the  $10^{-i}$  quantiles (for i = 1..4). In the left plot, c = 1, and in the right plot  $c = 1/\sqrt{20}$ . A lower c gives here a higher divergence speed, and decreases the standard deviation of  $\ln(\sigma^{(g+1)}/\sigma^{(g)})$ , relatively to its expected value. This decreases the probability of  $\ln(\sigma^{(g)}/\sigma^{(0)})$  being negative (as it here happens with c = 1).

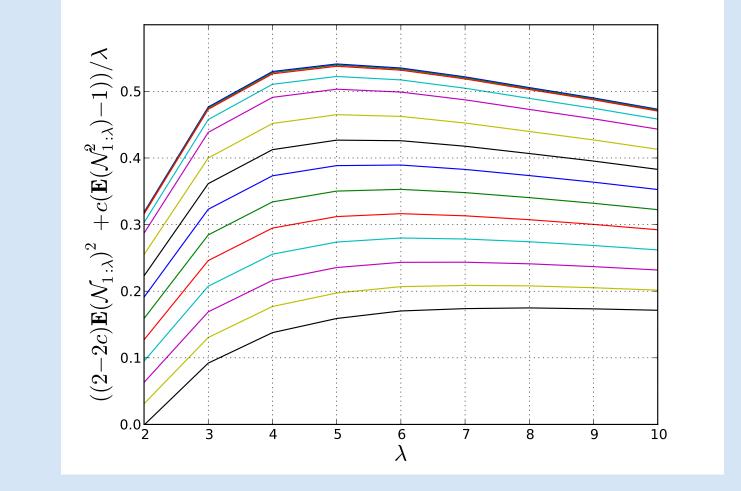


Fig. 3: Plot of  $((2-2c)\mathbf{E}(\mathcal{N}_{1:\lambda})^2 + c(\mathbf{E}(\mathcal{N}_{1:\lambda}^2) - 1))/\lambda$ against  $\lambda$  for different values of c. The lowest curve is for c = 1, then  $c = 0.9, \dots, 0.1, 0.05, 0.01$ .

The value of  $\lambda$  optimizing this divergence speed per evaluation depends here on the value of c, from  $\lambda = 5$  when  $c \leq 0.3$  to  $\lambda = 8$  when c = 1.

- Circumvent the problem of selection noise. For  $c = 1/n^{\alpha}$ 
  - With  $\alpha < 1/3$ , the noise to signal ratio goes to infinity. More accurately, if cis constant then the standard deviation of  $\ln(\sigma^{(g+1)}/\sigma^{(g)})$  divided by its expected value grows as  $\sqrt{n}$  with the dimension.
  - With α > 1/3, the noise to signal ration goes to 0, giving the algorithm strong stability in high dimensions.
- Decreasing *c* increases the divergence rate on linear functions. For  $\lambda = 5$ , it can be increased by more than 3 times compared to without cumulation.