

# Did Artificial Systems Need Random for Learning Strategies ?

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*ABSTRACT: Many analogies found in natural systems give evidence that the role of noise in a complex system might well lead to further organization. So, noise seems a good way in order to create novelty or to test the strength of algorithms.*

*In this paper, we are going to analyse some artificial learning mechanisms such as genetic algorithms or neural networks, which may be generally formulated as an optimization problem by specifying a performance criterion, and then by using the simple but powerful technique of stochastic hill-climbing along the gradient. In these algorithms, the integration of random is a good way to maintain the exploration property during searching, useful for avoiding local optima or when environment is dynamic.*

*We claim that artificial learning must overcome their limitations using the expedient of random search. This is due to attractors always present inside search procedures. We discuss in order to find another way to create order without having any presupposed attractors. This is also a central question for anticipatory systems which must learn about themselves and their environment.*

## 1. The role of random in adaptive systems

### 1.2. The Role of Noise in Natural Systems

Analogies found in natural systems give evidence that the role of noise in a complex system might well lead to further organization. For example :

- the space positioning mechanism of an ant, has a limited precision degree. This leads to some mistakes when it comes back to the nest or to the previous foraging location. But these mistakes are sometimes useful to discover food,
- in biology, a mutation occurs when the replication mechanism does not give an exact copy. From the biological viewpoint, replication cannot be realized with zero default, otherwise the genetic material must be very important. Most of mutations are useless, some of them are disadvantageous and only a very few are favourable. A favourable "mistake" increases the survival of an individual and gives a better chance to this gene replication.

Many systems in nature exhibit sophisticated collective information-processing abilities that emerge from the individual actions of simple components interacting via restricted communication pathways. Some often-cited examples include efficient foraging and intricate nest-building in insect societies, the spontaneous aggregation of a reproductive multicellular organism from individual amoeba in the lifecycle of the Dictyostelium slime mold, the parallel and distributed processing of sensory information by assemblies of neurons in the brain, and the optimal pricing of goods in an economy arising from agents obeying local rules of commerce (Crutchfield, 1994). These coherent global activities are realized by entities having only local view of their environment. Erroneous behaviors or unexpected events are not controlled by an individual but must be recovered by its adaptation process.

Previous examples show that noise seems a good way in order to create novelty or to test the strength of algorithms. This was stated by the order-from-noise principle by Heinz von Foerster (von Foerster, 1981). This is not random noise, but more precisely a hidden order which could be discovered by an adaptive system. In these cases noise is a good way in order to test the robustness of algorithms and to create novelty.

We want to show in this paper, that the role of random in artificial adaptive systems is very far from what is observed in nature. This has important consequences for the properties of learning process in anticipatory systems.

### **1.1 The learning process in Anticipatory Systems**

In order to be efficient in its environment, an anticipatory system must include predictive models about itself and its environment. This way for decision-making of an organism is also proposed by some biologists as Stewart (Stewart, 1997) for which an animal (and a human being) is able to anticipate the local consequences of an hypothetical sequence of innovative actions ; but it does not and cannot predict the wider consequences of such actions. Adaptability is required to unexpected events, dealing with imperfect and conflicting information from many sources, and acting before all relevant information is available. The anticipative reasoning process favours the autonomy of the organism in allowing it many choices of actions in the world in the near future. But a question remains : how are these models acquired ?

- First, the designer of the system could include a priori statements about itself and the environment in which it will interact. This is the classical cognitivist approach for artificial systems.

- Second, nothing is presupposed inside the system by the designer. In this case he must add it some learning mechanisms in order to acquire these predictive models when the system will work.

If we consider that the system will be in a dynamic environment or it will be able to acquire new competences during its lifetime, predefined models can not be given during the design phase : they must be acquired by a learning process. Thus, if an anticipatory mechanism seems to be interesting for an organism, a major key problem remains : how does the system acquire models about itself and about the environment ? This is a non trivial problem, even if we consider having many learning algorithms in our disposal to this goal. This learning, based on the past and present state, is difficult in its general process because the system must be able to learn these models even if the world changes, and also itself evolves. Thus, it must learn without any presupposition about the world : this is the main purpose of our paper.

In the next chapter, we analyse some artificial learning mechanisms such as genetic algorithms or neural networks, which may be generally formulated as an optimization problem by specifying a performance criterion, and then by using the simple but powerful technique of stochastic hill-climbing along the gradient.

## 2 Random Strategies in some Artificial Systems

When we want to modelize some natural behavior (such as in ethology) in using an artificial system, we are unable to know precisely all the underlying conditions of an action but only probabilistic behaviors. Some general laws about these probabilistic functions could be founded by observations of natural systems. In order to obtain a behavior of a virtual individual closed to these observations, a designer employs generally distribution functions associated to a random function. This randomization process is not the purpose of our work.

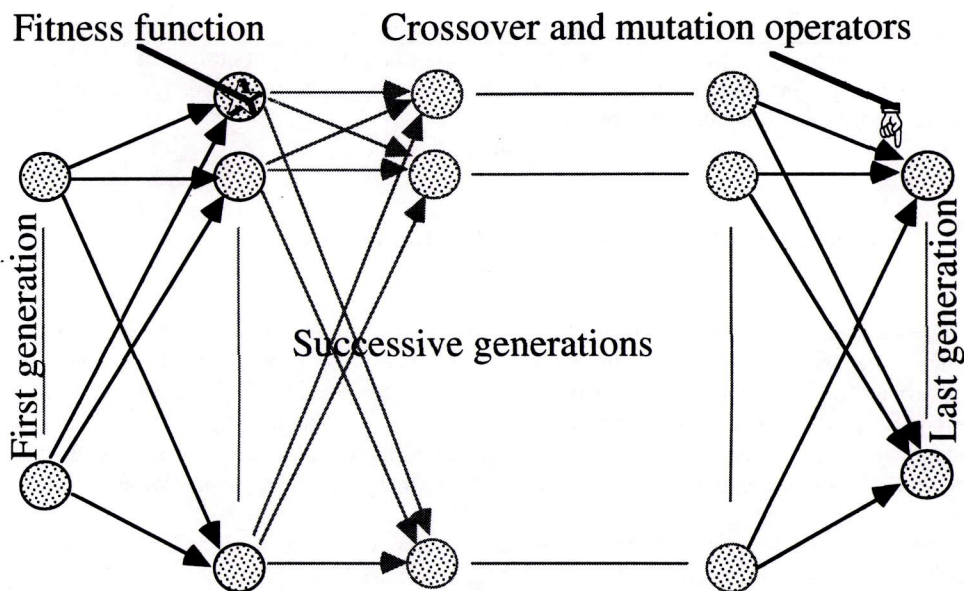
We are interested here by random internalized in learning artificial algorithms. In this use, random maintains the exploration property during searching for avoiding local optima (functions having many optima) or when environment is dynamic (i.e. optima evolving during time). This use is very far from hazard occurring in natural environment because no individual can know all the consequences of his acts.

### 2.1 Genetic algorithms

Genetic algorithms (GAs) is a member of the class of stochastic optimization procedures called evolutionary algorithms (EAs). It also includes evolutionary programming (EP) and evolution strategies (ESs) (De Jong, 1993). A comparison of these different methods can be found in (Bäck and Schwefel 1993). The general process of a genetic algorithm is the following (see figure 1) :

- The first generation is composed of a randomly generated population of chromosomes (e.g. candidate solutions to some problem). Each chromosome is a string of 1's and 0's in the simplest form.
- The fitness of each chromosome in the population is calculated with a given evaluation function.
- A subset of the population is then selected depending on their fitness and the crossover genetic operator is applied between them to create a new population.
- On this new population the mutation genetic operator is applied on each chromosome in order to obtain the new generation. Go to step 2.

For Goldberg (Goldberg, 1989), mutation plays a secondary role in the operation of genetic algorithms. "Mutation is needed because, even though reproduction and crossover effectively search and recombine extant notions, occasionally they may become overzealous and lose some potentially useful genetic material [...]. In artificial genetic systems, the mutation operator protects against such an irrecoverable loss. [...] We note that the frequency of mutation to obtain good results in empirical genetic algorithm studies is on the order of one mutation per thousand bit (position) transfers».



**Figure 1** - Population evolution in a Genetic algorithm

When the parents are distributed around the global optimum (Fogel 1995a), it is an evidence that recombination is sufficient to attain this optimum. But, this is not the general case. Salomon (Salomon 1996) demonstrates that mutation alone is sufficient to find the global optimum of separable, multimodal functions within  $O(n \ln n)$  time, whereas crossover alone is not sufficient for this goal.

## 2.2 Neural Networks

A neural network model is characterized by three basic components (see figure 2):

- The network is a set of interrelated nodes (the neurons) by oriented weighted links.
- The activation rule is a local procedure used by each node to evaluate its activation level depending on the surrounding nodes.
- The learning rule used locally to modify the weights of links in order to adapt the network behavior. The basic learning process, initially proposed by Hebb (Hebb, 1949), is based on the observation of biological brain in which changing occurs between neurons having a high degree of correlated activity.

The method used for finding the correct adaptation is known as gradient descent. The process consists in minimizing the «error-surface» by descending this surface downhill, i.e., in the direction of the negative gradient; we will finally reach at the bottom of the surface. At that point, the error can no longer be decreased and the procedure finishes. The existence of local minima can very easily lead to a failure of the gradient descent search. If such a situation occurs one could try starting from a different initial weight setting. Fortunately, it seems that the error surface of a network with many weights has very few local minima. Apparently, in such networks it is always possible to slip out the local minimum by some other dimension. A more

reliable method for escaping from local minima in a gradient search is called simulated annealing (Kirkpatrick, 1983).

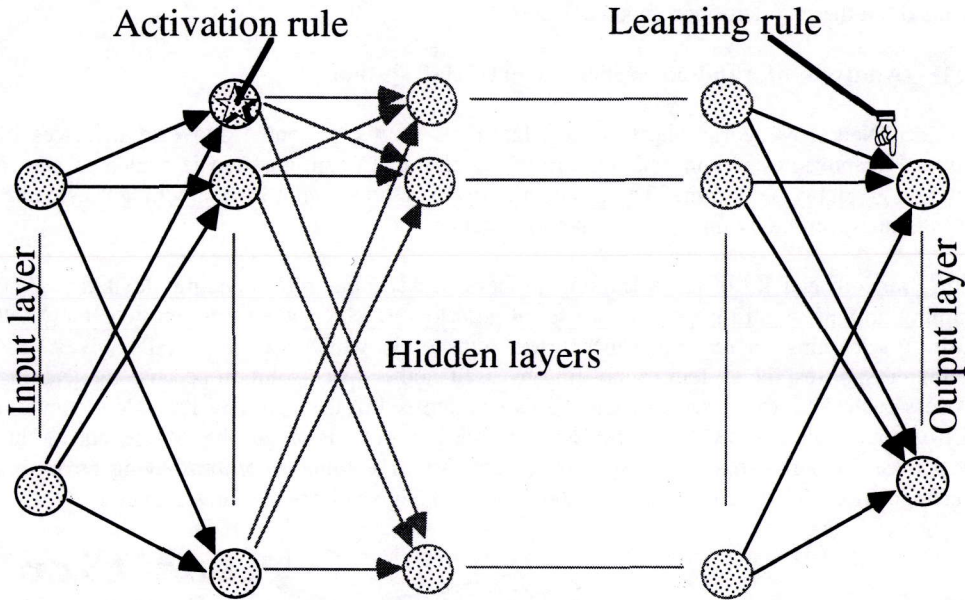


Figure 2 - Representation of a multi-layer perceptron

Normally, it is not possible to go uphill in a gradient descent. When applying simulated annealing every adaptation is made with a certain probability. This introduces the possibility of going uphill, enabling an escape from local minima. Since it is more probable of getting out of a less deep minimum by chance the system is most likely to end in a global minimum instead of a local minimum. In simulated annealing this process converges by slowly «freezing» the system, i.e., by decreasing the probability of adaptation. A similar strategy is applied in the Boltzmann neural network.

The learning algorithm may be formulated as an optimization problem by specifying a performance criterion, and then by using the simple but powerful technique of stochastic hill-climbing along the gradient. Importantly, a such procedure is locally implementable. Learning is guided by a "teacher" or by a "critic" using a finite set of "exemplars". The nature of the feedback provided by the external trainer needs different weight adjustment procedures such as the various versions of the back propagation algorithm, or the reinforcement methods outlined before.

### 3 Alternatives to Random in Learning Strategies

Adami (Adami, 1994) claims that "In almost all cases of learning in natural systems, the fitness of a certain configuration (or "hypothesis") is determined within the system. [...] We shall call

systems that can perform this feat "auto-adaptive", to emphasize the fact that we do not provide a fitness -or error- function. For example, all adaptive natural systems are "auto-adaptive" in following the previous meaning and noise is outside of the learning algorithm : it cannot be avoided but these systems accommodate its presence.

### 3.1 Analysis of random search in artificial systems

Artificial Neural Networks and Genetic Algorithms shortly presented above are instances of artificial adaptive systems in which the fitness of the current configuration is evaluated with a function given by the designer. The problem is that a system cannot learn anything outside the boundaries specified by this given evaluation function.

Thus, random activity inside a learning process has a central role : adding flexibility. Any learning artificial algorithm possesses a set of attractors in which a system can potentially fall during its learning phase. When the current attractor in which the system falls, gives sub-optimal responses, the system cannot find by itself another space solution because the learning process pushes it into the same attractor. This is expressed in the figure 3. The role of random (for example mutation in GA or simulated annealing in NN) is to get the system out of this local space. To summarize : random is only necessary in learning algorithms having erroneous presuppositions (some teleological goal) about the world in which the system will interact.

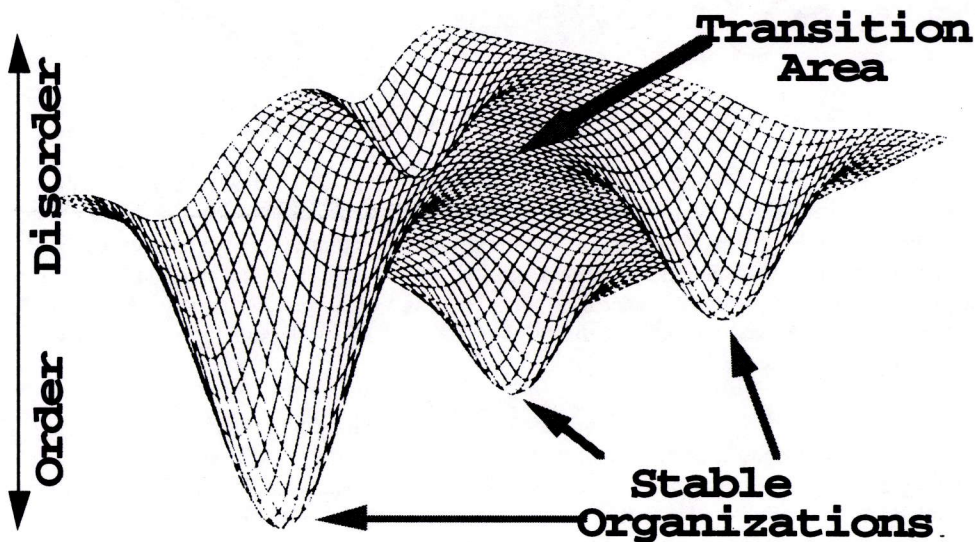


Figure 3 - Representation of predefined attractors by artificial learning algorithms

Now, the main theoretical question remains : can we design artificial systems without having an external evaluation function ? This question is associated with our ability to isolate universal characteristics of the learning process. In fact, the very existence of a universal learning process has yet to be established (Adami, 1994). The consequence of a positive answer is the ability to suppress any random process for learning strategy.

### 3.2 Examples of alternative

Salomon (Salomon,1997) suggests that the set of functions on which GAs yield optimal performance converges to a rather "polar" set of functions. To overcome this problem, he proposes an algorithm for derandomizing a GA. The goal is to substitute the stochastic application of mutations by a deterministic mechanism that yields optimal performance while it does not require an exponential memory size. He proposes a deterministic GA which can be recursively constructed in a bottom-up way in order to solve n-hard problems in  $O(n)$  time,  $n^2$ -hard problems in  $O(n^2)$  time and so forth.

Salome (Salome,1994) has developed a self-structuring neural net classifier in which learning is not based on an error function but on the values of synaptic weights. A settled neuron presents a connection strength above a certain settling threshold fixed initially. A settled neuron will sharply truncate its input space and it is a candidate for duplication. A useless neuron has a connection strength below the uselessness threshold parameter, here again initially fixed. It will be suppressed of the network. This self-structuring process is guided by the utility of each neuron i.e. an implicit analysis of cooperative activity inside the network.

Hogg and Huberman (Hogg,1992) showed that when agents cooperate in a distributed search problem, they can solve it faster than any agent working in isolation. A similar result was obtained by Mataric (Mataric,1994) with a set of mobile robots foraging in order to bring back tiles to "home". She has observed that when the number of individualist robots increases, the global performance decreases due to the interfering activities. For her, the ideal result will be obtained with robots having altruistic behaviors.

Multi-agents systems are composed of several agents capable of mutual and environmental interactions. Each agent has a local view of the environment, generally specific goals and is unable to solve alone the global task devoted to the system. For most application tasks, it is extremely difficult or even impossible to correctly determine the behavioral repertoire and concrete activities of a multi-agent system a priori, that is, at the time of its design and prior to its use. This would require, for instance, that it is known a priori which environmental requirements will emerge in the future, which agents will be available at the time of emergence, and how the available agents will have to interact in response to these requirements. This kind of problems resulting from the complexity of multi-agent systems can be avoided or at least reduced by endowing the agents with the ability to adapt and to learn, that is, with the ability to improve the future performance of the total system, of a part of it, or of a single agent (Weiß,1996). Multi-agent learning relies on or even requires the presence of multiple agents and their interactions. Many authors in this domain (Goldman,1994), (Sekaran,1995), (Sen,1995), (Weiß,1993) have studied in order to analyze the role of social behavior of agents on the global performance. They found that cooperation between agents improves the results. If we consider each agent of the system as a piece of knowledge, these works mean that knowledge is well learned when it is organized in a cooperative manner. This is a criterion independent of the meaning (the semantic), and thus could be a good approach for a general learning theory.

### 3.3 The cooperative process in an anticipatory system

When a system (a living being or an artificial system) is functionally adequate, it realizes the "right" function in its environment. The primary consequence of a functional adequacy, is the system ability to "survive" even in a changing world. At a given time, the next action of an

anticipatory system is based on an expectation about future events. When this system is functionally adequate in its environment, it is able to predict very frequently the behavior of its environment. We can observe sequences of events done alternatively by the system and the environment. The process seems to be ordered in a cooperative fashion, even if it is not realized intentionally. A contrario, when an anticipatory system is functionally inadequate, many unexpected events will occur implying conflictual situations and the system will be unable to obtain the desired state of the world. It is also a strong evidence that an anticipatory system will be unable to act in an unpredictable (random) world.

Thus, anticipation is another way to express the cooperative process between the system and its surroundings. The underlying assumption of anticipatory systems could be formulated as follows : If the interactions between an anticipatory system and its environment are cooperative then the system is functionally adequate. It is exactly the same assumption which seems to be used in the alternatives presented in the previous paragraphs.

The large number of applications using the principle of anticipatory system presented during this conference is a proof that it is right. A derived consequence is that cooperation (the underlying form of interaction of these systems) leads to efficient activity. This is a way proposed by some authors (Hogg, 1992), (Piquemal-Baluard, 1996). At this stage the designer can give to the system another "evaluation function" : be cooperative in its environment, which is not context dependent. This learning process is studied in this volume by (Camps, 97).

#### **4. Conclusion**

In this paper, we have tried to point out some underlying hypothesis essential in anticipatory systems :

- First, in order to work adequately an anticipatory system must be able to learn rights models about itself and its environment.
- Second, from our viewpoint, the integration of random function in the most of the artificial learning algorithms reveals their ad-hoc conception and limits consequently the generality of anticipatory systems.
- Third, the form of interactions between an anticipatory system and the environment is similar to a cooperative process which could be used as a very general assumption for artificial learning.

If experiments in learning become more and more varied and diverse, this is due to the lack of general theory of learning. This is the real reason for the presence of random search in artificial learning algorithms. For Adami (Adami, 1994), "One of the most elusive tasks associated with formulating a theory of learning is the isolation of universal characteristics of the learning process. In fact, the very existence of a universal learning process has yet to be established".

We think that this problem is central for anticipatory systems because they cannot work autonomously if they are unable to learn good models about itself and the environment. In fact, we have indicated works in which this open question is studied and some directions are indicated.



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