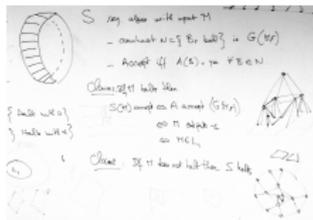


Integrating Theoretical Algorithmic Ideas in Empirical Biological Study



Amos Korman

In collaboration with Ofer Feinerman (Weizmann Institute)

Outline

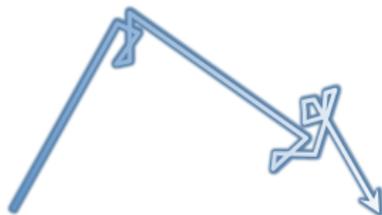
- 1 Scientific frameworks**
- 2 How can an algorithmic perspective contribute?
- 3 A novel scientific framework
- 4 Searching for a nearby treasure
- 5 Memory lower bounds for probabilistic search (DISC 2012)
- 6 Conclusions

Classical scientific frameworks in biology

Experimental framework:

- 1 Preprocessing stage: observe and analyze
- 2 “**Guess**” a mathematical model
- 3 Data analysis: tune the parameters

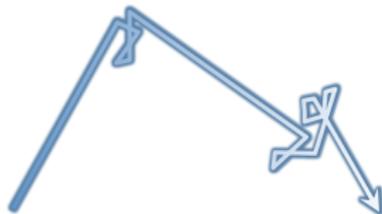
Example: the *Albatross* (Nature 1996, 2007)



$$\Pr(l=d) \approx 1/d^\alpha$$

The *Albatross* is performing a *Lévy flight*

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What is α ? do statistics on experiments and obtain e.g., $\alpha = 2$

Theoretical framework:

- 1 **Guess** an abstract mathematical model
(loosely representing reality)
- 2 **Analyze** the model

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- “Explain” a known phenomena

Example: Kleinberg’s analysis of the greedy routing algorithm in small world networks “explains” Milgram’s experiment [Nature 2000]

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An algorithmic perspective

Recently, CS theoreticians have tried to contribute from an algorithmic perspective [Alon, Chazelle, Kleinberg, Papadimitriou, Valiant, etc.].

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Guiding principle

Algorithms' people are good at:

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Guiding principle

Algorithms' people are good at:

- 1 Formulating sophisticated **guesses** (algorithms)
- 2 **Analyzing** the algorithms

Algorithmic perspective in classical frameworks

Experimental framework:

- 1 Preprocessing stage: observe and analyze
- 2 **Guess** a mathematical model [Afek et al., Science'11]
- 3 Data analysis: tune the parameters

Theoretical framework:

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 - Maximize a utility function [Papadimitriou et al., PNAS 2008]
 - Explain a known phenomena [Kleinberg, Nature, 2000]

Algorithmic perspective in classical frameworks

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Can an algorithmic perspective contribute otherwise?

Tradeoffs: Connections between parameters

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A big challenge: reduce the parameter space

Solution in **physics**: obtain equation (or connection) between parameters. E.g., $E = MC^2$, $\Delta U = Q + W$, etc.

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What about biology?

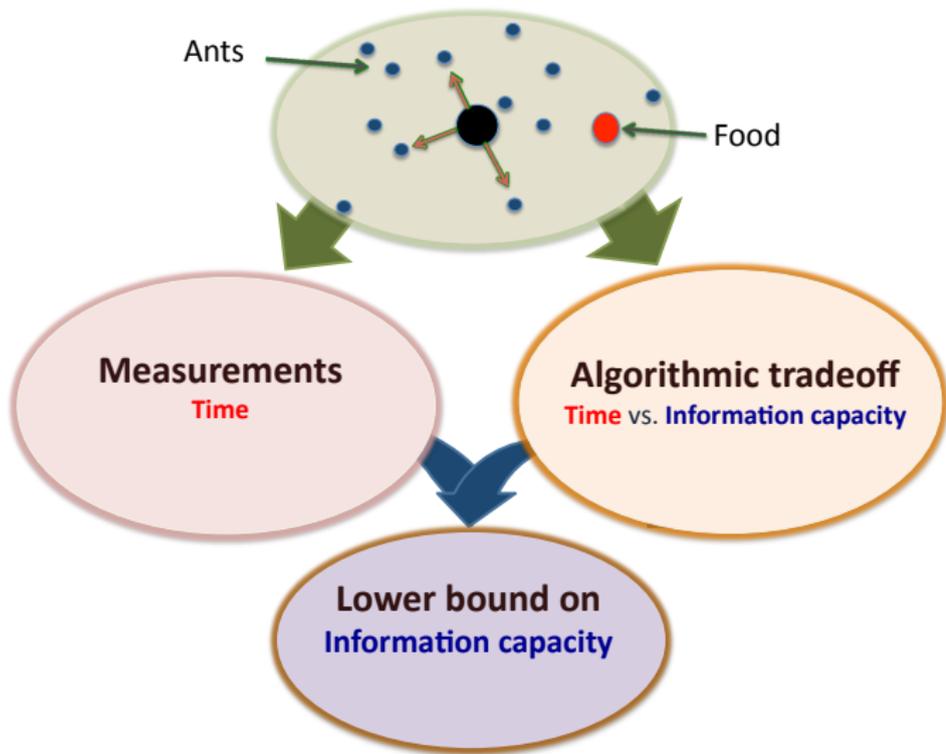
- 1st solution: borrow connections from physics
- We propose: obtain connections between parameters using an **algorithmic approach**.

Tradeoffs: use lower bounds from CS to show that, e.g., any algorithm that runs in time T must use x amount of resources ($x > f(T)$).

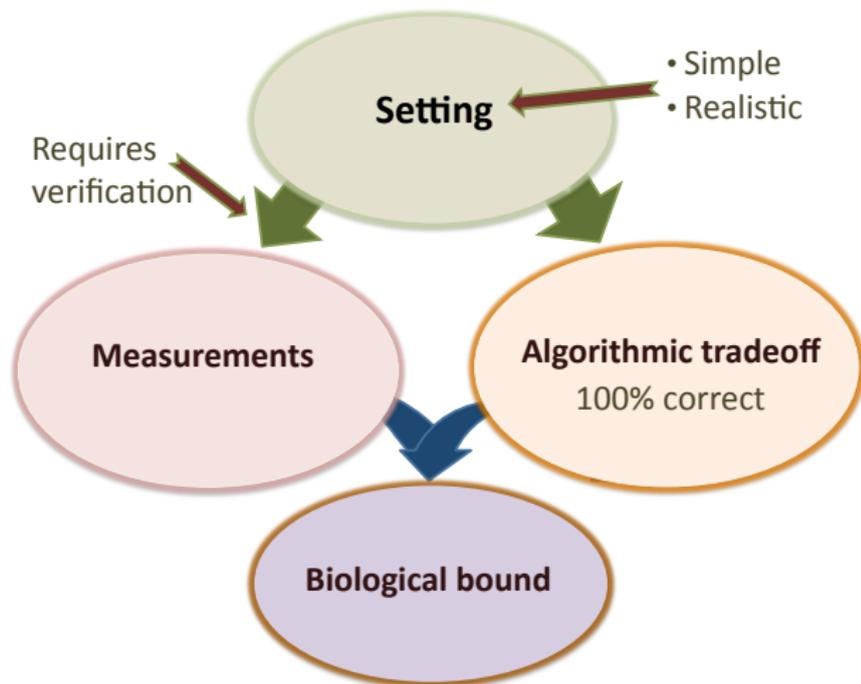
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Connecting parameters using an algorithmic perspective



Remarks: simplified experimental verifications



- Tradeoffs are invariant of the algorithm \implies Instead of verifying setting+algorithm, **only need to verify the setting!**

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This talk

- Introduce the model (semi-realistic)
- Discuss the theoretical tradeoffs
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Remark

The work is not complete. This presentation is a *proof of concept*

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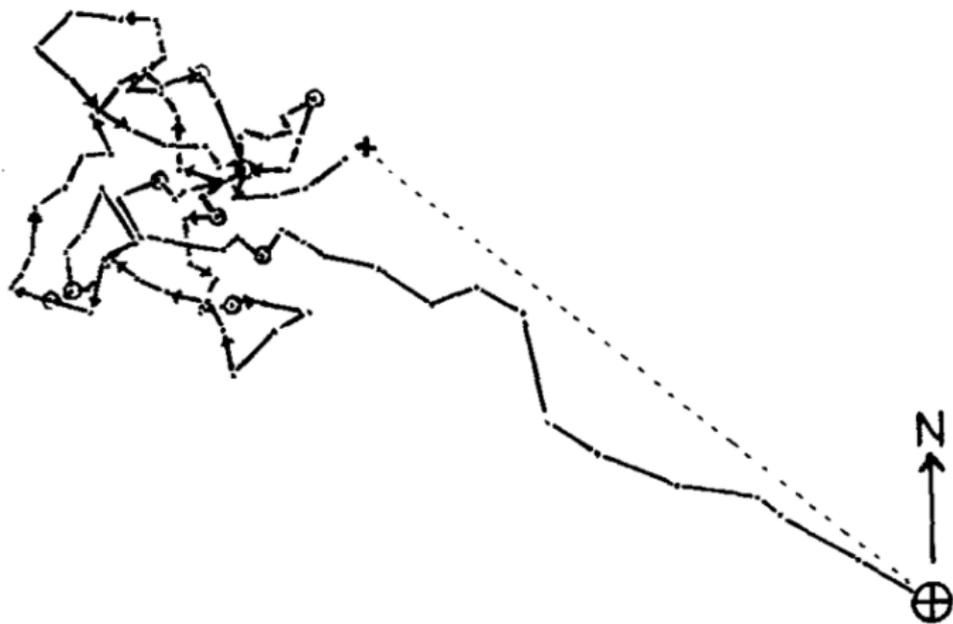
Inspiration: the *Cataglyphis niger* and Honey bee

The *Cataglyphis niger*:



- Desert ant– does not leave traces, more individual
- Relatively smart– big brain, good navigation abilities

Good distance and location estimations [Wehner et al.]

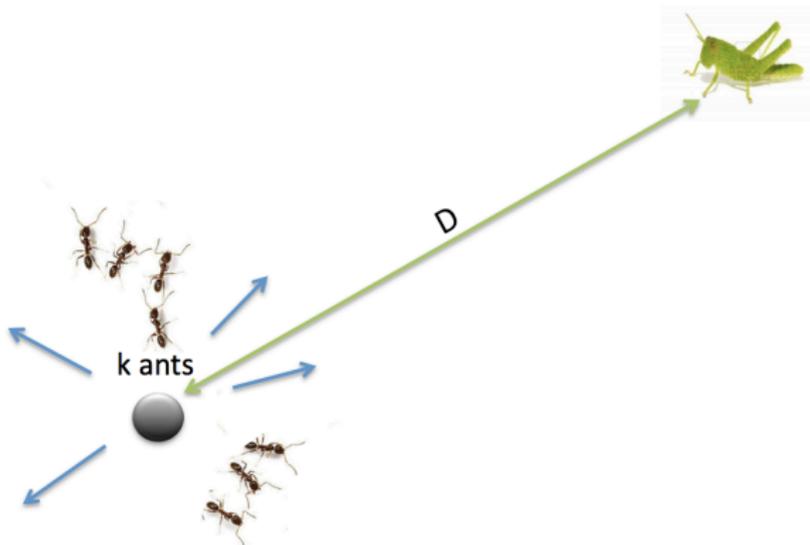


Goal: find nearby treasures fast

Reasons for proximity

- Increasing the rate of food collection in case a large quantity of food is found [Orians and Pearson, 1979],
- Decreasing predation risk [Krebs, 1980],
- The ease of navigating back after collecting the food using familiar landmarks [Collett et al., 1992], etc.

Central place foraging

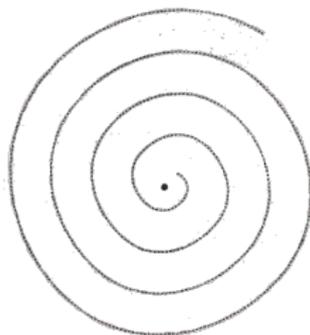


- Goal: find **nearby** treasures **fast** (biologically motivated)
- No communication once out of the nest
- Grid network: the *visual radius* determines the grid resolution
- **Fact:** The expected running time is $\Omega(D + D^2/k)$

Searching with one ant ($k = 1$)

An optimal algorithm

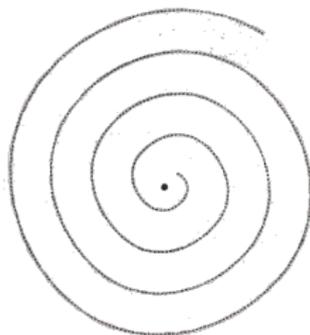
Perform a *spiral search* from the nest (takes $O(D^2)$ time).



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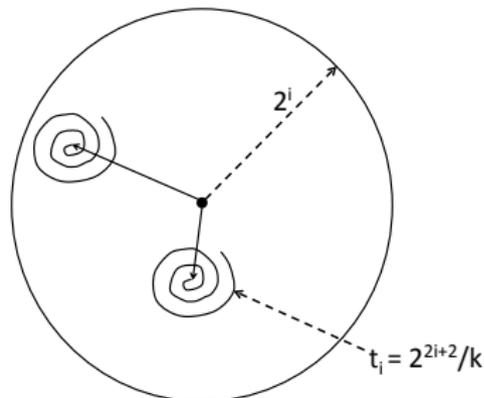


Random walk

Not efficient: expected time to visit any given node is ∞ .

Optimal algorithm (PODC 2012) [Feinerman, Korman, Lotker, Sereni]**Lemma**

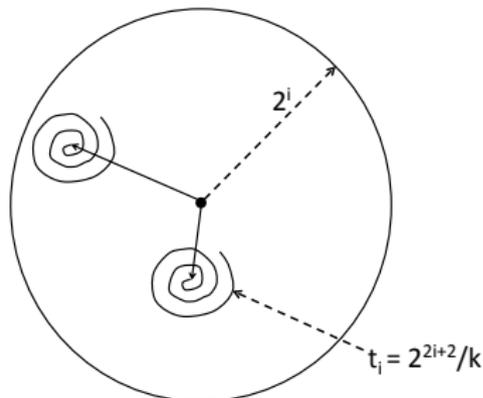
If agents know the value of k then there exists an optimal algorithm running in time $O(D + D^2/k)$



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Questions: Is it necessary to know k ? How much initial information is necessary?

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What is the amount of information that agents need initially?

Probabilistic centralized oracle

Given k agents, oracle assigns each agent i an *advice* A_i



Information theoretic approach

Advice complexity

Given k agents, the advice complexity $f(k)$ is the maximum #bits used for representing the advice of an agent

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State complexity

Note, a lower bound f on the advice complexity implies a lower bound of 2^f on the # of possible advices (states) **when coming out of the nest**

Main theorem [Feinerman and Korman, DISC 2012]**Theorem**

*For every $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$, whatever algorithm ants use:
if the search time is $\leq \log^{1-\epsilon} k \cdot (D + D^2/k)$ then the advice complexity
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Remarks

- Results are asymptotically tight
- Hidden constants are small

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Combine the theoretical lower bound with an experiment on living ants

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- 1 Measure the search time - approximate T as a function of k and D (relatively easy)
- 2 If the search time $T < \log^{1-\epsilon} k \cdot (D + D^2/k)$ then the number of states of ants when coming out of the nest is $\Omega(\log^\epsilon k)$

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- This work is a **proof of concept** for a **novel scientific framework**

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- To fully illustrate it there is a need for experimental work. This will undoubtedly require some tuning in model and theoretical results
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Thanks !



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- Assume all agents start with the same data-structure no matter what is k
- Assume running in time is $(D + \frac{D^2}{k}) \cdot \phi(k)$ (and $\phi(\cdot)$ is non-decreasing).
I.e., the expected time to visit u is $T_u \leq (d(u, s) + \frac{d(u, s)^2}{k}) \cdot \phi(k)$.

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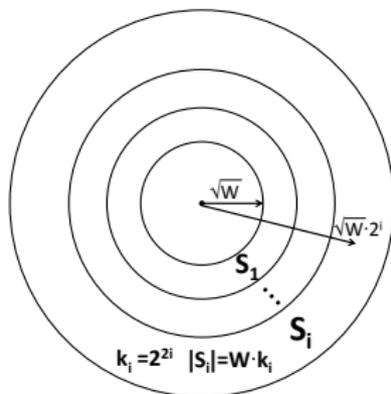
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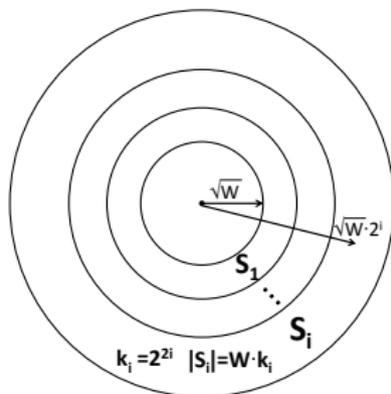
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- Fix W (upper bound on # agents)
- Structure of proof: we show that by time $T = 2W \cdot \phi(W)$, an ant is expected to visit many nodes: $\approx W \cdot \log(W)$. Since she can visit at most one node in 1 time unit, it follows that we cannot have $\phi(W) = o(\log W)$.

Simplified proof (cont.)



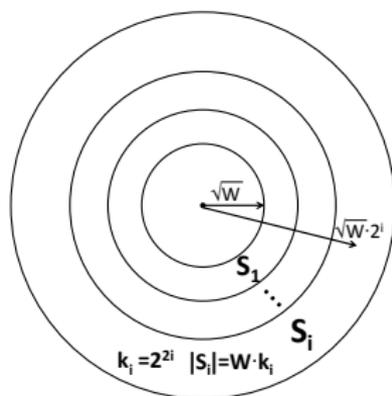
- Fix $i = 1, 2, \dots, \frac{\log W}{2} - 1$, and consider $S_i := \{u \mid \sqrt{W} \cdot 2^{i-1} < d(u, s) \leq \sqrt{W} \cdot 2^i\}$. Note, $|S_i| \approx W \cdot 2^{2i}$

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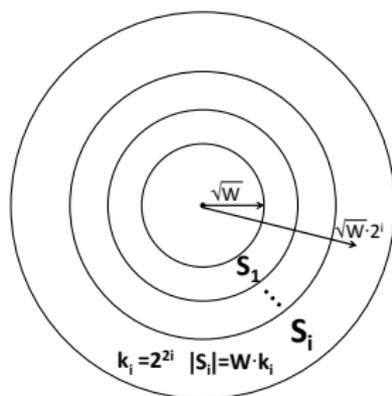
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- Assume now that $k_i = 2^{2i}$. So, $|S_i| \approx W \cdot k_i$. Note that $k_i < W$.

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- Moreover, $k_i = 2^{i+1} \cdot 2^{i-1} \leq \sqrt{W} \cdot 2^{i-1}$. I.e., $k_i \leq d(u, s), \forall u \in S_i$.

Simplified proof (cont.)



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- Therefore,

$$T_u \leq \left(d(u, s) + \frac{d(u, s)^2}{k_i}\right) \cdot \phi(k_i) \leq 2 \cdot \frac{d(u, s)^2}{k_i} \cdot \phi(k_i) < 2W \cdot \phi(W) = T.$$

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- Thus, the expected number of nodes in S_i that all agents visit by time $2T$ is roughly $|S_i| \approx W \cdot k_i$. Hence, the expected number of nodes in S_i that **one agent** visits by time $2T$ is $|S_i|/k_i \approx W$.

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- Observe, this holds $\forall i \in [1, \frac{\log W}{2})$.
- Hence, the expected number of nodes that a single agent visits by time $2T$ is $\approx W \cdot \log W$. As $T \approx W \cdot \phi(W)$, this implies that we cannot have $\phi(W) = o(\log W)$. □