

Chapter 4

GENETIC ALGORITHMS

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4.1 INTRODUCTION

Genetic algorithms (GAs) are search methods based on principles of natural selection and genetics (Fraser, 1957; Bremermann, 1958; Holland, 1975). We start with a brief introduction to simple genetic algorithms and associated terminology.

GAs encode the decision variables of a search problem into finite-length strings of alphabets of certain cardinality. The strings which are candidate solutions to the search problem are referred to as *chromosomes*, the alphabets are referred to as *genes* and the values of genes are called *alleles*. For example, in a problem such as the traveling salesman problem, a chromosome represents a route, and a gene may represent a city. In contrast to traditional optimization techniques, GAs work with coding of parameters, rather than the parameters themselves.

To evolve good solutions and to implement natural selection, we need a measure for distinguishing good solutions from bad solutions. The measure could be an *objective* function that is a mathematical model or a computer simulation, or it can be a *subjective* function where humans choose better solutions over worse ones. In essence, the fitness measure must determine a candidate solution's relative fitness, which will subsequently be used by the GA to guide the evolution of good solutions.

Another important concept of GAs is the notion of population. Unlike traditional search methods, genetic algorithms rely on a population of candidate solutions. The population size, which is usually a user-specified parameter, is one of the important factors affecting the scalability and performance of genetic algorithms. For example, small population sizes might lead to premature

convergence and yield substandard solutions. On the other hand, large population sizes lead to unnecessary expenditure of valuable computational time.

Once the problem is encoded in a chromosomal manner and a fitness measure for discriminating good solutions from bad ones has been chosen, we can start to *evolve* solutions to the search problem using the following steps:

- 1 *Initialization.* The initial population of candidate solutions is usually generated randomly across the search space. However, domain-specific knowledge or other information can be easily incorporated.
- 2 *Evaluation.* Once the population is initialized or an offspring population is created, the fitness values of the candidate solutions are evaluated.
- 3 *Selection.* Selection allocates more copies of those solutions with higher fitness values and thus imposes the survival-of-the-fittest mechanism on the candidate solutions. The main idea of selection is to prefer better solutions to worse ones, and many selection procedures have been proposed to accomplish this idea, including roulette-wheel selection, stochastic universal selection, ranking selection and tournament selection, some of which are described in the next section.
- 4 *Recombination.* Recombination combines parts of two or more parental solutions to create new, possibly better solutions (i.e. offspring). There are many ways of accomplishing this (some of which are discussed in the next section), and competent performance depends on a properly designed recombination mechanism. The offspring under recombination will not be identical to any particular parent and will instead combine parental traits in a novel manner (Goldberg, 2002).
- 5 *Mutation.* While recombination operates on two or more parental chromosomes, mutation locally but randomly modifies a solution. Again, there are many variations of mutation, but it usually involves one or more changes being made to an individual's trait or traits. In other words, mutation performs a random walk in the vicinity of a candidate solution.
- 6 *Replacement.* The offspring population created by selection, recombination, and mutation replaces the original parental population. Many replacement techniques such as elitist replacement, generation-wise replacement and steady-state replacement methods are used in GAs.
- 7 Repeat steps 2–6 until a terminating condition is met.

Goldberg (1983, 1999a, 2002) has likened GAs to mechanistic versions of certain modes of human innovation and has shown that these operators when analyzed individually are ineffective, but when combined together they can