

# Genetic Algorithms: An introductory Overview

References: An introduction to Genetic Algorithms by M. Mitchell

Genetic Algorithms + Data Structures  
= Evolution programs by Z. Michalewicz

# Biological evolution I

- ❑ Long molecules known as **DNA** (**D**eoxyribo**n**ucleic **A**cid) are the physical carrier of genetic information that define us.
- ❑ Fragments of DNA, known as genes produce chemicals called *proteins*.
  - Gene = basic functional block of inheritance (encoding and directing the synthesis of a protein)
- ❑ The proteins activate or suppress other genes in other cells, they cause cells to multiply, move, change, extrude substances, grow and even die.
- ❑ Genes are a little like parameters. They control our development. The different values a gene can take are called alleles.
- ❑ And evolution creates the genes and specifies the alleles.

## Biological evolution II

- ❑ Our genes define how we develop from a single cell into the complex organisms that we are.
- ❑ A cell consists of a single nucleus containing chromosomes which are large chains of genes
  - Chromosomes = a single, very long molecule of DNA
- ❑ Genome is the complete collection of genetic material (all chromosomes together)
- ❑ Genotype is the particular set of genes contained in a genome.
- ❑ Phenotype is the manifested characteristics of the individual; determined by the genotype

# Biological evolution III

- ❑ Charles Darwin's 1859 "**The Origin of Species**" proposed **evolution through natural selection**
  - ❑ According to **Universal Darwinism**, the following things are needed in order for evolution to occur:
    - **Reproduction with inheritance**
      - Individuals make copies of themselves
      - Copies should resemble their parents
        - organisms pass traits to offspring
    - **Variation**
      - Ensure that copies are not identical to parents
        - mutations, crossover produces individuals with different traits
    - **Selection**
      - need method to ensure that some individuals make more copies of themselves than others.
      - **fittest individuals** (favorable traits) have more offspring than unfit individuals, and population therefore has those traits
- over time, changes will cause new species that can specialize for particular environments

# Evolutionary Computation

- ❑ Study of computational systems that use ideas inspired from natural evolution
  - Survival of the fittest

# Main Branches of EC

- ❑ Genetic algorithms (GA)
- ❑ Genetic programming (GP)
- ❑ Evolution strategies (ES)
  - Evolving evolution
- ❑ Evolutionary Programming (EP)
  - Simulation of adaptive behaviour in evolution
  - Emphasizes the development of behavioural models and not genetic models

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- ❑ Evolutionary computation
    - Reproduction
    - Random variation
    - Competition
    - Selection

# Other Branches of EC

- ❑ **Differential evolution**
  - Similar to GA, differing in the reproduction mechanism used
- ❑ **Co-evolution**
  - Initially “dumb” individuals evolve through cooperation or in competition with one another, acquiring the necessary characteristics to survive
- ❑ **Cultural evolution**
  - Models the evolution of culture of a population
- ❑ Modelling of other aspects of natural evolution exists

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## ❑ Evolutionary computation

- Reproduction
- Random variation
- Competition
- Selection

# Other population based techniques: Swarm Intelligence

- ❑ Motivated by the study of colonies, or swarms of social organisms.
- ❑ **Ant colony optimization**
  - Modeling of social ants behaviour
- ❑ **Particle swarm Optimization**
  - A global optimization approach modeled on the social behaviour of bird flocks or fish schooling
  - Individuals (particles) grouped a swarms
- ❑ **Bees Algorithms**
  - Foraging behaviour of swarms of bees (2005)

Other algorithm exist..



# Inventors

- ❑ GAs, ES and EP were all independently ‘discovered’ by researchers in the 1960s. GP was created in the early 1990s, as a specialised type of GA.
- ❑ John Holland “Adaptation in Natural and Artificial Systems”, University of Michigan Press (1975)- Genetic Algorithms.
- ❑ Lawrence Fogel, M. Evans, M. Walsh “Artificial Intelligence through Simulated Evolution”, Wiley, 1966 - Evolutionary programming.
- ❑ Ingo Rechenburg, 1965 - Evolutionary Strategies.
- ❑ Marco Dorigo, 1992, ACO.
- ❑ Kennedy, 1995, PSO.

# What are Genetic Algorithms ?

- ❑ **Genetic algorithms (GAs):** a search technique that incorporates a simulation of evolution as a search heuristic when finding a good solution
  - akin to Darwinian's theory of natural selection
  - recent years have seen explosion of interest in genetic algorithm research and applications
  - a practical, dynamic technique that applies to many problem domains
  - can “evolve” unique, inventive solutions
  - can search potentially large spaces.
- ❑ **Related areas:**
  - **genetic programming:** applying GA towards the evolving of programs that solve desired problems
  - **artificial life:** simulations of “virtual” living organisms
    - doesn't necessarily use GA, but commonly does

## Comparison of Natural and GA Terminology

<b>Natural</b>	<b>Genetic Algorithm</b>
<b>chromosome</b>	<b>string</b>
<b>gene</b>	<b>feature, character or detector</b>
<b>allele</b>	<b>feature value</b>
<b>locus</b>	<b>string position</b>
<b>genotype</b>	<b>structure, or population</b>
<b>phenotype</b>	<b>parameter set, alternative solution, a decoded structure</b>

# Genetic algorithms

- ❑ Formally introduced in the US in the 70s by John Holland
  - Early names: J. Holland, K. DeJong, D. Goldberg
- ❑ Holland's original GA is usually referred to as the simple genetic algorithm (SGA)
- ❑ Other GAs use different:
  - Representations
  - Mutations
  - Crossovers
  - Selection mechanisms

# Main components of SGA reproduction cycle

- ❑ Select parents for the mating pool (equal to population size)
- ❑ Apply crossover with probability  $p_c$ , otherwise, copy parents
- ❑ For each offspring apply mutation (bit-flip with probability  $p_m$  independently for each bit)
- ❑ Replace the whole population with the resulting offspring
  - Generational population model

## A General Simple GA

<b>i=0</b>	set generation number to zero
<b>initpopulation P(0)</b>	initialise usually random population of individuals
<b>evaluate P(0)</b>	evaluate fitness of all initial individuals of population
while (not done) do test for termination criterion (time,fitness, etc.)	
<b>begin</b>	
<b>i = i + 1</b>	increase the generation number
<b>select P(i) from P(i-1)</b>	select a sub-population for offspring reproduction
<b>recombine P(i)</b>	recombine the genes of selected parents
<b>mutate P(i)</b>	perturb the mated population stochastically
<b>evaluate P(i)</b>	evaluate its new fitness
<b>end</b>	

Figure 1 Basic general GA

# Genetic Algorithms

Before we can apply Genetic Algorithm to a problem, we need to answer:

- How is an individual represented
- What is the fitness function?
- How are individuals selected?
- How do individuals reproduce?

# Genetic Algorithms

- To use a GA, the first-step is to identify and define the characteristics of the problem domain that you need to search
  - This information encoded together defines an individual referred to as genetic string or chromosome (genome).
    - the chromosome is all you need to uniquely identify an individual
    - chromosome represents a solution to your problem
- The genetic algorithm then creates a population of solutions
- finally, need a way to compare individuals (i.e., rank chromosomes)
    - --> Fitness measure
    - a type of heuristic



# Representation of individuals

- Remember that each individual must represent a complete solution (or partial solution) to the problem you are trying to solve by GAs.
- Recall that Holland worked primarily with strings of bits, where a chromosome consists of genes i.e., binary chromosome.
- But we can use other representations such as arrays, trees, lists or integers, floating points or any other objects.
- However, remember that you will need to define genetic operators (mutation, crossover etc) for any representation that one decides on.

# Initial Population

- ❑ Initialization sets the beginning population of individuals from which future generations are produced
- ❑ Concerns:
  - size of initial population
    - empirically determined for a given problem
  - genetic **diversity** of initial population
  - a common problem resulting from the lack of diversity is the **premature convergence** on non-optimal solution

# Simple Vs Steady-state

Population creation: two most commonly used; Simple/Steady-state

simple: it is a generational algorithm in which entire population is replaced at each generation

steady-state: only a few individuals are replaced at each 'generation'

examples of replacement schemes

- replace worst
- replace most similar (crowding)

Other population schemes exists e.g

- Parallel population
- co-evolution

# Evaluation: ranking by Fitness

- ❑ **Evaluation ranks the individuals** by some fitness measure that corresponds with the individual solutions
- ❑ **For example, given an individual  $i$ :**
  - classification:  $(\text{correct}(i))^2$
  - TSP: distance ( $i$ )
  - walking animation: subjective rating

# Selection scheme

- ❑ **determines which individuals survive and possibly mate and reproduce in the next generation**
- ❑ **selection depends on the evaluation function**
  - if too dependent then a non optimal solution maybe found
  - if not dependent enough then may not converge at all to a solution
  - selection method that picks only best individual => population converges quickly (to a possibly local optima)
- ❑ **Nature doesn't eliminate all "unfit" genes. They may usually become recessive for a long period of time and then may mutate to something useful**
  - Hence, selector should be biased towards better individuals but should also pick some that aren't quite as good (with hopes of retaining some good genetic material in them).

# Selection Techniques

## examples of selections schemes

- Fitness-Proportionate Selection
- rank selection
- tournament selection (select K individuals, and keep best for reproduction)-----**we will focus on this**
- roulette wheel selection (probabilistic selection based on fitness)
- other probabilistic selection

# Fitness-Proportionate Selection

- ❑ Concerns include
  - One highly fit member can rapidly take over if rest of population is much less fit: **Premature Convergence**
  - At the end of runs when fitnesses are similar, lose selection pressure

# Rank - Based Selection

- ❑ Attempt to remove problems of FPS by basing selection probabilities on relative rather than absolute fitness
- ❑ Rank population according to fitness and then base selection probabilities on rank where fittest has rank  $m$  and worst rank 1
- ❑ This imposes a sorting overhead on the algorithm, but this is usually negligible compared to the fitness evaluation time



# Tournament Selection

## ❑ Idea:

- Pick  $k$  members at random then select the best of these
- Repeat to select more individuals

# Tournament Selection 2

- Probability of selecting  $i$  will depend on:
  - Rank of  $i$
  - Size of sample  $k$ 
    - higher  $k$  increases selection pressure
  - Whether contestants are picked with replacement
    - Picking without replacement increases selection pressure
  - Whether fittest contestant always wins (deterministic) or this happens with probability  $p$

# Roulette Wheel Selection (Read for knowledge)

- ❑ adapted from “Genetic Algorithms + Data Structures = Evolution Programs, 3rd ed., Z.Michalwicz, p.34
- ❑ A. Fitness evaluation
  - Calculate fitness value  $v_i$  for each individual  $i$ :  $v(i)$  ( $i=1, \dots, \text{pop\_size}$ )
    - if smaller score is better, and 0 is perfect, then go on
    - else if higher is better, set  $v(i) = \text{MAX} - v(i)$ , where MAX is the maximum best score
  - Adjusted score: set  $\text{adj\_}v(i) = 1 / (1 + v(i))$ 
    - this sets best to 1, and worst scores approach 0
    - also exaggerates small differences in raw scores
  - **Find total adjusted fitness for pop.:**
$$F = \sum_{i=1}^{\text{pop size}} \text{adj\_}V(i)$$
  - Calculate probability for each indiv:  $p(i) = \text{adj\_}v(i) / F$
  - Calculate cumulative probability for each indiv in pop.:

## Roulette wheel selection

- After step A, the cumulative probabilities  $q(i)$  from 1 to pop size are fractions that range from about 0 to 1 for last individual  $q(\text{pop\_size})$ 
  - analogous to a Roulette wheel, in which the whole wheel is of circumference 1, and each indiv. has space in proportion to its fitness

### B. Selection

- Generate random number  $R$  between 0 and 1
- if  $R < q(1)$  then select individual 1
- else select individual  $i$  if:  $q(i-1) < R \leq q(i)$

# Premature convergence

- If the population consists of similar individuals, it reduces likelihood of finding new solutions
  - for example, crossover operator and selection method may drive GA to create population of individuals that are similar

De Jong-style crowding using replacement schemes: when creating new individuals, replace individuals in the population that are most similar to them

Goldberg style Fitness scaling: delete scores of similar individuals to reduce chances of similar individuals being selected for mating

# Genetic Operators

**(1) Crossover:** provides a method of combining two candidates from the population to create new candidates

- Swaps pieces of genetic material between two individuals; represents mating
  - Typically crossover defined such that two individuals (the parents) combine to produce two more individuals (children). But one can define asexual or single-child crossover as well.

**(2) Mutation:** changing gene value(s)

- lets offspring evolve in new directions; otherwise, population traits may become fixed ; introduces a certain amount of randomness to the search.

**(3) Replication:** copy an individual without alteration

# Genetic Operators

- In terms of search, effects of crossover and mutation are problem dependent:
  - some problems with a single global maxima perform well with incremental mutation
  - crossover and mutation can let search carry on both at current local maxima, as well as other undiscovered maxima

# Genetic operators: Crossover

- Selecting a genetic operator:
  - if  $P_c$  is the probability of using crossover, then if  $R$  is a random number between 0 and 1, then do crossover if  $R < P_c$



# Crossover Operators

- ❑ 1-point, n-point crossover
- ❑ Uniform order crossover (UOX)
- ❑ Order (OX) crossover
- ❑ Partially mapped (PMX)
- ❑ Cycle (CX) crossover

.....many variations exist

## Crossover Operators

1-point crossover

**P1:**    1    0    0    1    1    0    0    1    0    0

**P2:**    0    1    1    0    1    1    1    0    1    0

**C1:**    1    0    0    1    1    0    1    0    1    0

**C2:**    0    1    1    0    1    1    0    1    0    0

## crossover

### **N-point crossover:**

generalization of 1-point crossover

### **•e.g., Two-point crossover**

**P1: 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0**

**P2: 0 1 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 0**

**C1: 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0**

**C2: 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0**

**Techniques exist for permutation representations**

# Learning illegal structures

Consider the TSP where an individual represents a potential solution. The standard crossover operator can produce illegal children:

Parent A: Thorold Catharines Hamilton Oakville Toronto

Parent B: Hamilton Oakville Toronto Catharines Thorold

Child AB: Thorold Catharines Hamilton Catharines Thorold

Child BA: Hamilton Oakville Toronto Oakville Toronto

## 2 possible solutions:

- Define special genetic operators that only produce syntactically and semantically **legal/feasible** hypotheses (a.k.a. solutions).
- ensure that the fitness function returns extremely low fitness values to illegal hypotheses (**penalty functions**)

# Uniform-Order crossover (UOX)

P1: 6 **2 1** 4 **5** 7 **3**

Mask : 0 **1 1** 0 **1** 0 **1**

P2: 4 **3 7** 2 **1** 6 **5**

C1: **4** **2 1** **7** **5** **6** **3**

C2: **6** **3 7** **2** **1** **4** **5**

# Order crossover (OX)

- Main idea: preserve relative order that elements occur
  - e.g for the TSP, chooses a subsequence of a tour from one parent and preserves the relative order of cities from the other parent.

## OX example

- Copy randomly selected set from first parent

p1: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9    c1: \* \* \* 4 5 6 7 \* \*

p2: 9 3 7 8 2 6 5 1 4    c2: \* \* \* 8 2 6 5 \* \*

- Copy rest from second parent in order 1,9,3,8,2

C1: 3 8 2 4 5 6 7 1 9

C2: ?

## OX example (2)

- Copy randomly selected set from first parent

p1: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9    c1: \* \* \* 4 5 6 7 \* \*

P2: 4 5 2 1 8 7 6 9 3

- Copy rest from second parent in order 9,3,2,1,8

C1: 2 1 8 4 5 6 7 9 3



# Cycle crossover (CX)

## **Basic idea:**

Each element comes from one parent together with its position.  
e.g for TSP, each city (and its position) comes from one of the parents

# Example: Cycle crossover

- Step 1: identify cycle

p1: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

p2: 9 3 7 8 2 6 5 1 4

c1: 1 \* \* 4 \* \* \* 8 9

- Step 2: Fill the remaining cities from the other parent

c1: 1 3 7 4 2 6 5 8 9

# Example: Partially mapped crossover (PMX)

- Step 1: identify arbitrary cut points

p1: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

p2: 4 5 2 1 8 7 6 9 3

- Step 2: copy & swap

c1: \* \* \* 1 8 7 6 \* \*      Note: 1↔4, 8↔5, 7↔6, 6↔7

c2: \* \* \* 4 5 6 7 \* \*

- Step 3: fill cities where no conflict

c1: \* 2 3 1 8 7 6 \* 9

c2: \* \* 2 4 5 6 7 9 3

- Step 4: Fill the remaining cities

c1: 4 2 3 1 8 7 6 5 9

c2: 1 8 2 4 5 6 7 9 3

# Example: Partially mapped crossover (PMX)

- Step 1: identify arbitrary cut points

p1: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

p2: 9 3 7 8 2 6 5 1 4

- Step 2: copy & swap

c1: \* \* \* 8 2 6 5 \* \*

c2: \* \* \* 4 5 6 7 \* \*

- Step 3: fill cities where no conflict

c1: 1 \* 3 8 2 6 5 \* 9

c2: 9 3 \* 4 5 6 7 1 \*

- Step 4: Fill the remaining cities

NOTE: pay attention to this example

# Mutation

Alteration is used to produce new individuals

## ❑ **Mutation: various strategies e.g., for TSP**

- **Inversion**
- **Insertion**, select a city & insert it in random place
- **Displacement** – selects a subtour and inserts it in a random place
- **Reciprocal exchange** – swaps two cities
- **Scramble mutation** - Pick a subset of genes at random  
Randomly rearrange the alleles in those positions

# Mutation

- ❑ The mutation operator introduces random variations, allowing hypotheses to jump to different parts of the search space.
- ❑ What happens if the mutation rate is too low?
- ❑ What happens if the mutation rate is too high?
- ❑ A common strategy is to use a high mutation rate when learning begins but to decrease the mutation rate as learning progresses. (**Adaptive mutation**)

# Crossover Vs mutation

**Exploration:** How to discover promising areas in the search space, i.e. gaining information on the problem

**Exploitation:** Optimising within a promising area, i.e. using information

**Crossover is explorative:** makes a big jump to an area somewhere “in between” two (parent) areas

**Mutation is exploitative:** creates random small diversions, thus staying near (within the area of ) the parent

A **balance between Exploration and Exploitation is necessary.** Too much exploration results in a pure random search whereas too much exploitation results in a pure local search.

# Parameter Control

A GA/EA has many strategy parameters, e.g.

- ❑ mutation operator and mutation rate
- ❑ crossover operator and crossover rate
- ❑ selection mechanism and selective pressure (e.g. tournament size)
- ❑ population size

Good parameter values facilitate good performance, but how do we find good parameter values ?



## Setting GA parameters

- ❑ parameters (selected according to problem)
  - how many individuals (chromosomes) will be in population
    - **too few: soon all chromosomes will have same traits & little crossover effect; too many: computation time expensive**
  - mutation rate
    - **too low: slow changes; too much: desired traits are not retained**
  - how are individuals selected for mating? crossover points?
  - what are the probabilities of operators are used?
  - Should a chromosome appear more than once in a population?
  - fitness criteria
- ❑ genetic algorithm can be computationally expensive = > need to keep bounds on GA parameters and GA analysis

## Why do GA's work?

- ❑ GA offers a means of searching a broad search space
- ❑ different features of problem are represented in search space by DNA representation
  - parallel nature: often many solutions to a problem
  - different “good” characteristics represented by particular gene settings
  - some combinations of these genes are better than others
- ❑ evolution creates new gene combinations --> new areas of search space to try
- ❑ Key to success: individuals that are fitter are more likely to be retained and mated; poorer individuals are more likely discarded
- ❑ global search technique, unlike other search techniques that use heuristics to prune the search space

## Genetic Algorithms as search

### **GAs differ from more normal optimization and search procedures in 4 ways:**

- ❑ GAs work with a coding of the parameter set, not the parameters themselves.
- ❑ GAs search from a population of points, not a single point
- ❑ GAs use payoff (objective function) information, not derivatives or other auxiliary knowledge.
- ❑ GAs use probabilistic transition rules, not deterministic rules.

## Summary: GAs

- ❑ Easy to apply to a wide range of problems
  - optimization like TSP, VRP
  - inductive concept learning
  - scheduling
  - Layout
  - Evolving art
  - Game playing
- ❑ network design etc
- ❑ The results can be very good on some problems, and rather poor on others
- ❑ GA can be very slow if only mutation applied, crossover makes the algorithm significantly faster

## Summary: GAs

- GA better than gradient methods if search space has many local optima
- various data representation, one algorithm
- no gradients or fancy math, however, designing an objective function can be difficult
- computationally expensive (how so, do we care?)
- can be easily parallelized
- can be easily customized (question is, is it GA anymore?)

## Artificial Life

- ❑ Artificial life (ALife): simulate desired aspects of biological organisms on computers
  - AI's focus on intelligence is just one aspect of organism behavior
  - others: sight, movement (robotics), hearing, morphology, adaptation to environment, behavior, ...
- ❑ Practical use of ALife: model realistic theories of vision, robotics
  - traditional vision, robotics theories are constrained by hardware limitations
  - hence theories of vision, movement are necessarily primitive
  - virtual life permits theories of unlimited complexity to be used: physical, real-time constraints are removed

# ALife

- ❑ Another use: simulate complex behaviours for use in graphics and animation
  - manual reproduction of realistic movement, animal behaviour is too complicated and time-consuming
  - let systems evolve themselves, and/or react according to their virtual definitions
- ❑ ALife is a testbed for many areas of AI research:
  - GA to simulate population evolution
  - robotics
  - vision
  - machine learning

## Summary

- ❑ Research on the latest applications of evolutionary computation & AI----lots of them
- ❑ Readings
  - Handbooks of Genetic Algorithms
    - Genetic Algorithms + Data structures = Evolutionary Programs (3ed Z. Michalewicz)
    - Koza:vol 1



# Applications of GAs/EC

- ❑ Discussed in class as examples only based on vehicle routing and job shop scheduling —not included in exam: If interested in my research papers on this, email me.