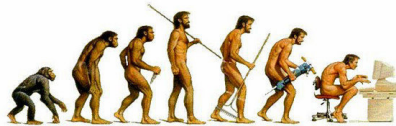


# Evolutionary Computation

# Introduction

# Introduction

- Evolutionary computing represents another tool of soft computing techniques based on the concepts of **artificial evolution**.
- Generally speaking, **evolution** is the process by which life adapts to the changing environments.



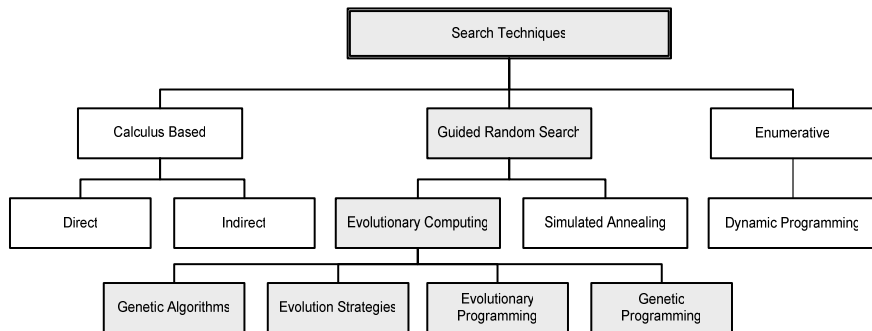
# Introduction (cont.)

- A creature's survival depends, to a large extent, on its fitness within its environment, which is in turn determined by its genetic makeup.
- **Chance**, however, is always a factor, and even the fittest can die in unlucky circumstances.

# Introduction (cont.)

- Evolution relies on having entire populations of slightly different organisms so that if some fail, others may yet succeed.
- Researchers have sought to formalize the mechanisms of evolution in order to apply it artificially to very different problems.
- The pursuit of artificial evolution using computers has lead to the development of an area commonly known as **evolutionary computation** or **evolutionary algorithms**.

# Search Techniques



# Search Techniques (cont.)

- EAs are different from the conventional single-point based optimization techniques such as gradient search and directed search methods:
  - They start the search from a population of points not from a single point.
  - They work with a coded version of the parameters.
  - They use stochastic reproduction instead deterministic rules.

# Advantages of Evolutionary Algorithms

- EAs need no assumptions about the objective function of the given optimization problem.
  - such as continuity, unimodality, differentiability.
- EAs are robust to the problem type and generally yield optimal or suboptimal solutions.
- EAs can be run interactively (online parameter tuning).



# Disadvantages of Evolutionary Algorithms

- No complete theoretical basis, but much progress has been made.
- No guarantee for finding the optimal solution, but guaranteed for some special cases.

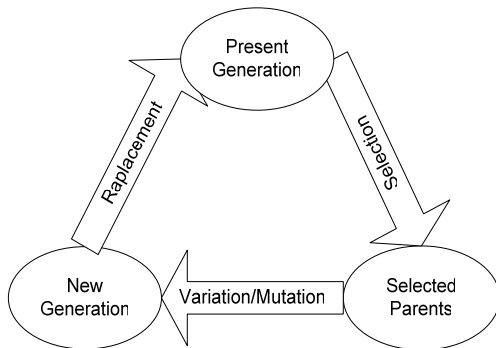
# Where to Use EAs?

- We use an EA to solve the optimization problem, where random or enumerative search is impractical due to huge search space.
- We use an EA to solve the optimization problem, where a single-point based optimization technique gives poor results due to the existence of many local optima.

# Common Components in EAs

- Representation of individuals: Coding
- Evaluation method for individuals: Fitness function
- Population initialization
- Parent selection mechanism
- Variation operators (crossover and mutation)
- Survivor Selection mechanism

# Basic Evolution Cycle



- Different evolutionary computing techniques incorporate variation of the basic evolution cycle in terms of presentation models and specific combinations of evolutionary operations.

# Basic Evolution Cycle (cont.)

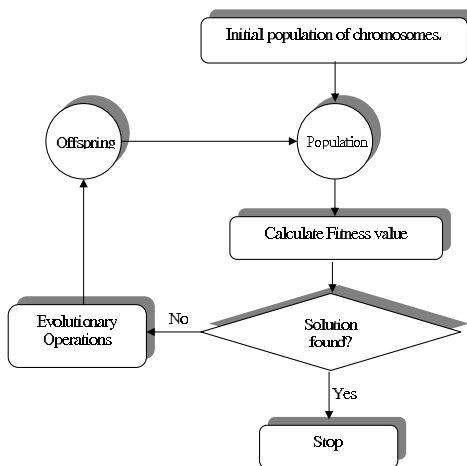
## Two Opposite Operations

- ① In one hand the selection operation intends to reduce diversity of the sample population.
  - ② On the other hand the crossover and the mutation operators try to increase the diversity of the population.
- These two opposite evolutionary operations enable the algorithm to improve the quality of sample solutions while exploring the whole search space.

# EA Algorithm Outline

- $t := 0$ ;
- Initialize  $P(t)$
- Evaluate  $P(t)$ ;
- While not terminate do
  - $P'(t) := \text{select } P(t)$ ;
  - $P''(t) := \text{variation } P'(t)$ ;
  - Evaluate  $P''(t)$ ;
  - $P(t+1) := \text{select } P(t) \cup P''(t)$ ;
  - $t := t + 1$ ;
- End while

# Basic Structure of an Evolutionary Algorithm



# Evolutionary Computation

- Evolutionary Computation is a broad term that covers a family of adaptive search population-based techniques that can be applied to the optimization of both discrete and continuous mappings.

## Evolutionary Computation

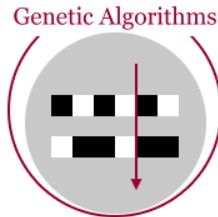
- Evolutionary programming
- Evolutionary strategies
- Genetic programming
- Genetic algorithms



# Dialects of EAs

## Genetic Algorithm (GA)

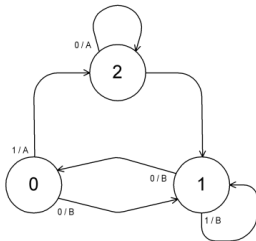
GA represents solution candidates by binary strings and applies recombination, mutation, and selection operators over them.



# Dialects of EAs (cont.)

## Evolutionary Programming (EP)

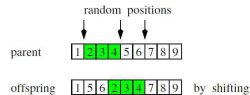
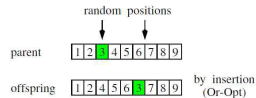
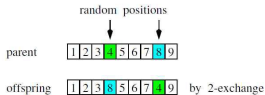
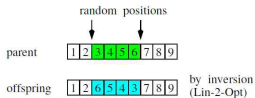
EP evolves the numerical parameters of a program.



# Dialects of EAs (cont.)

## Evolution Strategy (ES)

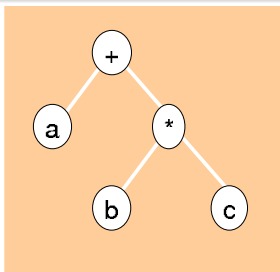
ES uses mutation, recombination, and selection applied to a population of individuals containing candidate solutions in order to evolve iteratively better and better solutions.



# Dialects of EAs (cont.)

## Genetic Programming (GP)

GP works with computer programs whose fitness are determined by their ability to solve a computational problem.



# Genetic Algorithms

# Genetic Algorithms: History

- GA's represent important class of evolutionary computing techniques.
- The origin of GA dates back to the early 50's when a group of computer scientists and biologists teamed up to simulate the behavior of a class of biological processes.
- But it was only later and in the early seventies that **Holland** and his associates introduced the methodology in a more formal and tractable way.

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# Genetic Algorithms

- Genetic algorithms are able of accurately solving a wide range of optimization problems.
- This is done through a procedure inspired from the biological process of evolution and the **survival of the fittest concept**.
- The search procedure of GA is **stochastic** in nature and doesn't usually provide for the exact location of the optima as some other gradient-based optimization techniques do.



# Genetic Algorithms: Two Attractive Features

## Advantages of GA to Derivative Based Approaches

- Given their discrete search nature, they could be easily applied to continuous as well as to discontinuous functions.
- Moreover, they usually outperform gradient based techniques in getting close to the global optima and hence avoid being trapped in local ones.

# GA and Optimization

- Let suppose the goal is to maximize a function  $f$  of  $m$  variables given

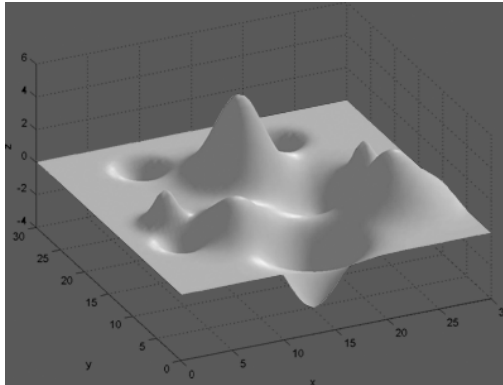
$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m) : R^m \rightarrow R$$

- At the end of the optimization process one gets

$$f(x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_m^*) \geq f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m)$$

- where  $(x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_m^*)$  represents the vector solution belonging to the search space(s)  $R^m = (R \times R \times \dots \times R)$

# A 2D Function



# Objective Function: Minimization Case

- In the case of minimization, one might pose the problem of optimization as that of maximization of a function  $h$ , which is the negation of  $f$  all over the search space.
- In other words, maximize the function  $h$  such as :

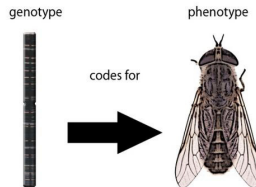
$$\min f(x_1, \dots, x_m) = \max h(x_1, \dots, x_m) = \max(-f(x_1, \dots, x_m))$$

# GA and Optimization (cont.)

- The basic idea of GAs is to choose a random population in the range of optimization, with a fixed size  $n$ .
- Using the so-called binary encoding procedure, each variable is represented as a string of  $q$  binary digits.
- This leads to a population of elements represented by matrix of  $n$  rows and  $qm$  rows.
- A set of **genetic operators** is then applied to this matrix to create a new population at which the function  $f$  should attain increasingly larger values.

# Genotype

- Each individual in nature has a form determined by its DNA.
- Its **collection of genetic traits** is commonly known as a genotype (or chromosome).
- In genetic algorithms, the term genotype is used to describe the encoding of a problem solution represented by an individual.



# GAs: Terminology

## Population of Potential Solutions

Population of Potential Solutions is the collection of solutions points (also called individuals).

## Chromosome

Chromosome is an individual solution represented as an array of sequence of strings (also called genotype).

# GAs: Terminology (cont.)

## Gene

Gene is a string in the chromosome.

## Alleles

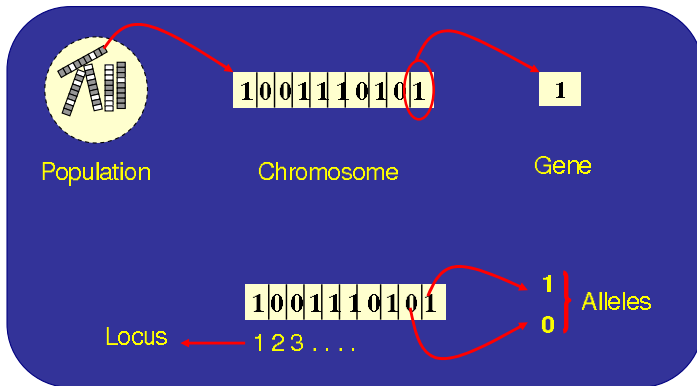
Alleles is the values, or the states, that genes might have (0 or 1 in the case of binary encoding).

## Locus

Locus is the position of a gene in a chromosome.



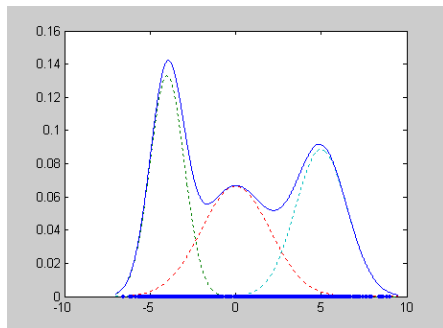
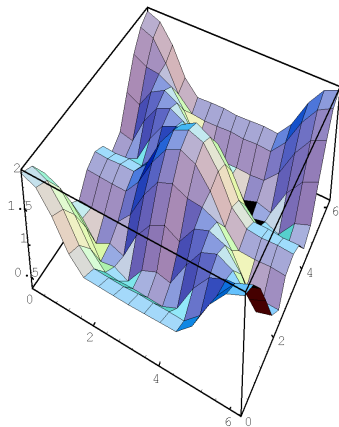
# GAs Terminology: Graphical Illustration



# Fitness Function

- To use genetic algorithms, it is necessary to provide a means for evaluating the **value** or **goodness** of a particular solution.
- In nature, this is frequently thought to be the **fitness** of a creature (as in the popular concept of **survival of the fittest**), referring to its relative ability to survive in its environment.
- A **fitness function**, also called an objective function, measures the **fitness** or the **goodness** of a particular solution.

# Fitness Function Examples



# Fitness Function (cont.)

- In a number of cases, the objective function is quite obvious.
- In the equation minimization problem described above, the genotype is a set of parameters for the function, and the objective function is simply the value of the equation being minimized, given the genotype.
- In this case, a lower result from the objective function represents a better solution to problem.
- In many cases, however, a good objective function is more difficult to construct and heuristic approaches must be taken at times.

# Fitness Function (cont.)

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- In many cases, however, a good objective function is more difficult to construct and heuristic approaches must be taken at times.

# Schema Theorem

## Schema Theorem: The Foundation Of GA

- Schema forms the theoretical basis of genetic algorithms.
- Schemata are templates that partially represent a solution point in the search space.
- Thus, a schema is a set of chromosomes that share certain values.
- These certain values are introduced in the chromosomes as undefined positions ( \* ). i.e, they can take any value in the solution space.

# Schema Theorem (cont.)

## Schema Theorem

- If chromosomes are coded using symbols from an alphabet  $A$ , schemata are chromosomes whose symbols belong to  $A \cup \{*\}$
- The  $*$  symbol is interpreted as a **wildcard** (or **don't care**), and its loci is called undefined.
- The size of the generated population depends directly on the number of the **don't care** symbols in the schema.
- A schema contains  $n$  **don't care** symbols match  $2^n$  chromosomes.

# Schema Theorem (cont.)

## Example 1

- Given the schema  $10100111*$ .
- The following chromosomes belong to this schema:
  - $101001111$
  - $101001110$
  - (Note that the  $*$  can be replaced with 0 or 1)
- Since we are using the binary encoding the alphabet size is 2 (0 and 1), and there is one ( $*$ ) the maximum chromosomes can be obtained  $= 2^1 = 2$



# Schema Theorem (cont.)

## Example 2

- Given the schema  $101*0111*$ .
- From this schema we can derive the following chromosomes:
  - $101001110$
  - $101001111$
  - $101101110$
  - $101101111$
- Maximum number of chromosomes  $= 2^2 = 4$

# Schema Theorem: Definitions

## Schema Order

- Schema order describes the number of *none* **don't care** symbols in the schema.
- The smaller order a schema has, the more general it is, i.e. the more chromosomes belong to it.

## Schema Length

- Schema length is the distance between the furthest two *none* **don't care** symbols.
- The length determines the likelihood of a member of the schema being disrupted by crossover.
- The closer two symbols are, the most likely to stay together after the crossover operation.

# Schema Theorem: Definitions

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# Schema Theorem: Definitions

## Example

Schema	Order	Length
1*****	1	0
**101**	3	2
*0*10***	3	3

# Schema Theorem (cont.)

## Schemata Fitness

- The fitness of a schema is the averages fitness of the chromosomes belong to the schema.
- In general, the fitness estimate is more accurate for low order schema since more chromosomes belong to the schema.
- It is possible to obtain the fitness of a schema contained in a population based on the fitness values of the chromosomes in that population.

# Schemata Fitness

## Example

- Suppose the following chromosomes with their fitness values:

Chromosome	Fitness
101	4
110	3
011	2

- The fitness for the following schemata can be calculated:

Schema	Fitness of schema
***	$(4+3+2)/3 = 3$
**0	$3/1 = 3$
*1*	$(3+2)/2 = 2.5$

# Schemata Fitness

- The schema theorem can be interpreted using the following equation, which relates the schema fitness of the current generation to the expected chromosomes in new generation:

$$M(H, t + 1) \geq M(H, t) \frac{f(H)}{F_{tot}} (1 - P_c - P_m)$$

- $M(H, t)$  is the number of the chromosomes in population  $t$  that matches the schema  $H$ ,
- $f(H)$  is the average fitness of chromosomes with schema  $H$ ,
- $F_{tot}$  is the average fitness of the whole population,
- $P_c$ ,  $P_m$  are the probabilities of crossover and mutation.

# Genetic Operators

- They are processes by which evolution changes the composition of a population.
- In natural evolution there are three major forces: natural selection, mating, and mutation.

## Three Basic Genetic Operators in Artificial Evolution

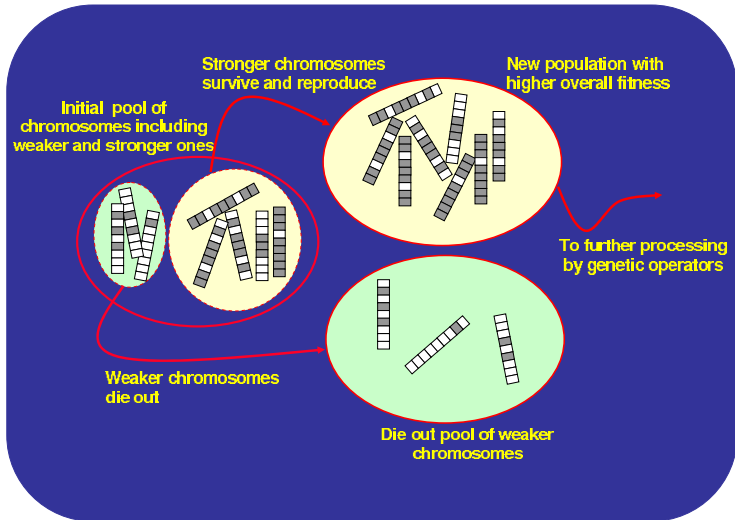
- Selection
- Crossover
- Mutation



# Selection

- This procedure is applied to select the individuals that participate in the reproduction process to give birth to the next generation.
- In general, selection operators are stochastic, probabilistically selecting good solutions and removing bad ones based on the evaluation given them by the objective function.

# Process of Selection in GA



# Selection: Several Heuristics

## Several Selection Operators

- **Elitist model**, where the top 10 to 20 individuals of the population are chosen for further processing,
- **Ranking model**, where each member of the population is ranked based on its fitness value,
- **Roulette wheel procedure**, where each individual  $i$  is assigned a probability  $p$  to be chosen for reproduction.

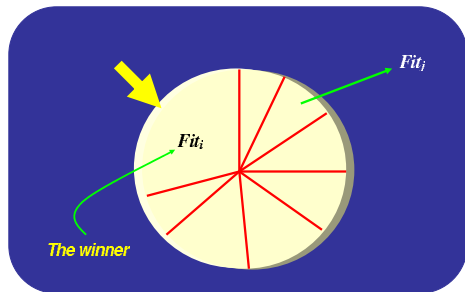
# Selection: Roulette wheel

- Individuals with higher performance have higher chance to be selected.

## The Performance of an Individual

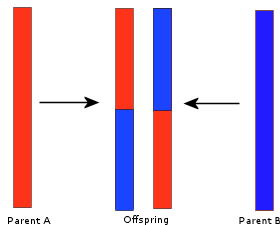
$$P_i = \frac{fit(v_i)}{F_{Total}}$$

- The sum of the fitness values characterizes a total fitness of the population.



# Crossover

- Crossover is derived from the natural phenomenon of mating, but refers most specifically to genetic recombination.
- It creates two new individuals by combining two older ones.
- Most crossover operators randomly select a set of genes from each parent to form a child's genotype.



# Crossover Process

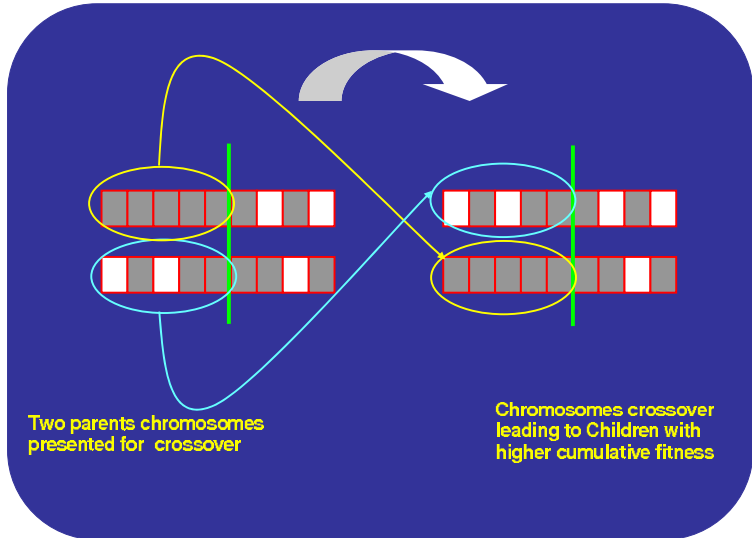
- The GA selects two strings at random from the mating pool.
- It calculates whether crossover should take place using a parameter called the **crossover probability**.
- If no crossover is performed, the two selected strings are simply copied to the new population.
- If crossover does take place, then a crossover operator is applied to recombine the two genotypes.
- **The objective** is to produce new offspring with higher cumulative fitness.

# Crossover Operators

## Several Crossover Operators

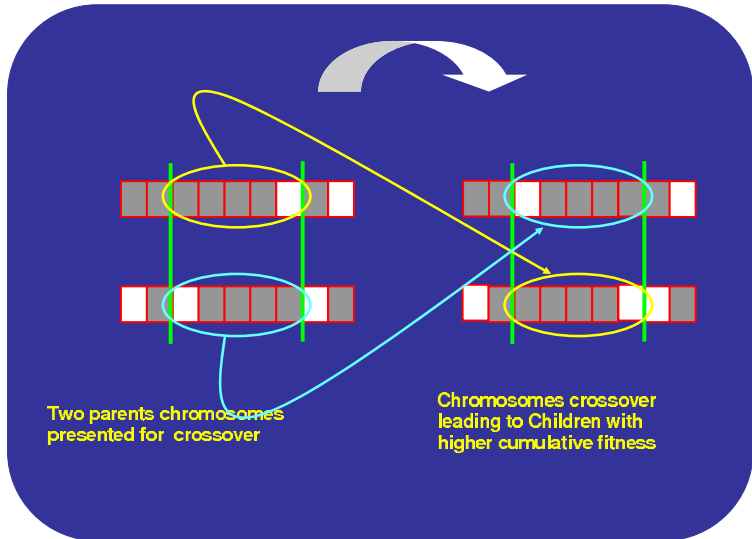
- Single-point crossover
  - Uniform crossover
  - Multi-point crossover
  - Heuristic crossover
- The simplest one is the **single-point crossover**.
  - It works by randomly selects a cut-off point.
  - The parts that are cut off are then switched over and recombined to make two new chromosomes.

# Single-Point Crossover





# Multi-Point Crossover



# Mutation

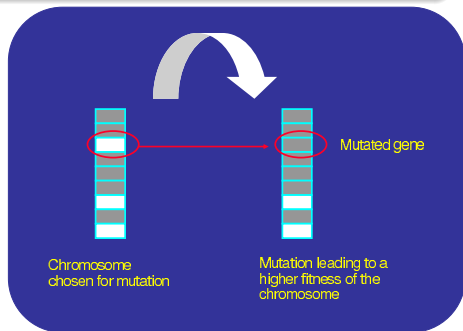
- Sometime, and depending on the initial population, there may not be enough variety of strings to ensure the GA exploits the entire problem space.
- The mutation operator introduces random changes into the chromosomes.
- It selects genes in an individual at random and changes the allele.
- It ensures the diversity in the population.
- Mutation operator provides a good mechanism to escape from the local minima.

# Mutation (cont.)

## Several Types of Mutation Operators

- Binary mutation
- Non-uniform mutation
- Uniform mutation
- Boundary mutation

- In the **binary mutation**, the GA selects, randomly, a gene in a chromosome and changes its value to a new one.



# Steps for Implementing GA

## Steps 1-3

- Step 1: Encode the variables of the algorithm as binary chromosomes where  $v_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$ ) and  $p$  is the population size of the possible solutions.
- Step 2: Initialize population of chromosomes.
- Step 3: Perform the following steps until the predefined condition is achieved:

# Steps for Implementing GA (cont.)

## Step 3

- Step 3 (cont.):
  - 3.1: Evaluate the fitness function values,  $fit(v_i)$ , for each chromosome  $v_i (i = 1, 2, \dots, p)$
  - 3.2: Select a new generation
  - 3.3: Calculate the total fitness of the population:

$$F = \sum_{i=1}^p fit(v_i)$$

- 3.4: Calculate the probability of selection,  $P_i$ , for each chromosome  $v_i (i = 1, 2, \dots, p)$

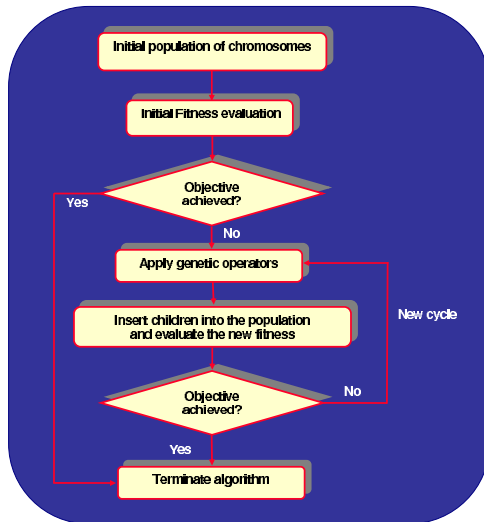
$$P_i = \frac{fit(v_i)}{F}$$

# Steps for Implementing GA (cont.)

## Step 3-4

- Step 3 (cont.):
  - 3.5: Generate a random float number  $r$  belonging to the interval  $[0, 1]$
  - 3.6: If  $r \leq q_1$  then select  $v_1$ ; otherwise select  $v_i (2 \leq r \leq q_i)$  such that  $q_{i-1} \leq r \leq q_i$ .
  - 3.7: Apply genetic operators:
    - Crossover with probability  $P_c$
    - Mutation with probability  $P_m$
  - 3.8: Choose the new offspring as the current population.
- Step 4: Go back to step 3 if optimization requirement is not attained.

# Schematic Representation of GA



# Representation of Chromosomes (Coding)

- Determines how to encode the independent parameter into a chromosome.
- Enables the chromosome to carry all the essential information about that parameter.

## Three Main Encoding Mechanisms

- 1 Binary coding
- 2 Floating point coding
- 3 Gray coding



# Encoding

## Binary Coding

- A binary vector of length  $n$  bits is used as a chromosome to represent a real value of each parameter  $x_i$ .
- Different parameters may have different length ( $n$ ).
- The length of the chromosome depends on the precision required.

# Encoding

## Floating-Point Coding

- The content of chromosomes comes in the form of real numbers.
- Chromosomes are created by putting all the real numbers one after another.
- This means that the encoding and decoding steps do not have to take place.
- A simple crossover operator can change a number (instead of a bit).

# Encoding

## Gray Coding

- Map a decimal number to a string of binary digits.
- Only one digit has to be changed when increasing and decreasing the number by one.
- Minimized the Hamming Distances between Adjacent numbers.
- Based on the fact that any two consequent numbers  $n$  and  $n + 1$  differ by only a single bit flip.

# Example

- Find  $x$  that maximizes the function  $f(x)$ :

$$f(x) = 20 + 100 * x \cos(4\pi x) * \exp(-2x)$$

## Parameters

- The range of  $x$  is  $[0, 1.5]$
- The required precision is given by 3 decimals.
- Population size  $p = 10$
- Crossover probability  $P_c = 0.25$
- Mutation probability  $P_m = 0.1$

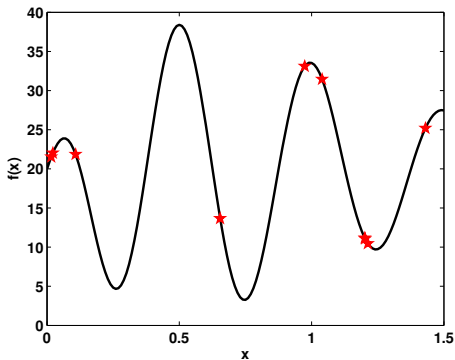
# Example

## Initial Population

Chromosome	Binary coding	Decimal value	Fitness	Selection probability
$x_1$	00010010100	0.1085	21.8025	0.1803
$x_2$	11001100111	1.2010	11.1218	0.0552
$x_3$	11001101001	1.2025	11.0231	0.0547
$x_4$	10100110001	0.9739	33.1448	0.1646
$x_5$	11001110111	1.2128	10.4288	0.0518
$x_6$	01101111101	0.65447	13.6220	0.0677
$x_7$	00000010110	0.0161	21.5290	0.1069
$x_8$	11110100000	1.4304	25.2480	0.1254
$x_9$	10110001011	1.0398	31.4024	0.1560
$x_{10}$	00000011110	0.0220	22.0240	0.1094

# Initial Population

## Graphical Illustration



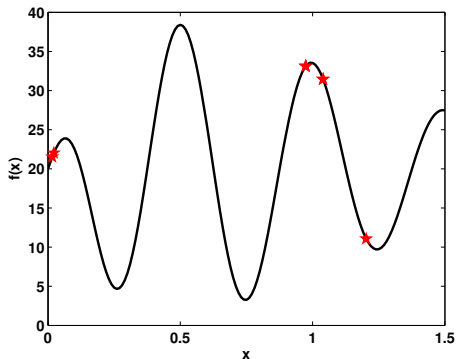
# Example (cont.)

## New Population after Applying Selection Operator

Chromosome	Binary coding	Decimal value
$x_1$	00000011110	0.0220
$x_2$	00000011110	0.0220
$x_3$	11001101001	1.2025
$x_4$	10100110001	0.9739
$x_5$	10110001011	1.0398
$x_6$	10110001011	1.0398
$x_7$	10100110001	0.9739
$x_8$	10110001011	1.0398
$x_9$	10100110001	0.9739
$x_{10}$	00000010110	0.0161

# New Population after Applying Selection Operator

## Graphical Illustration





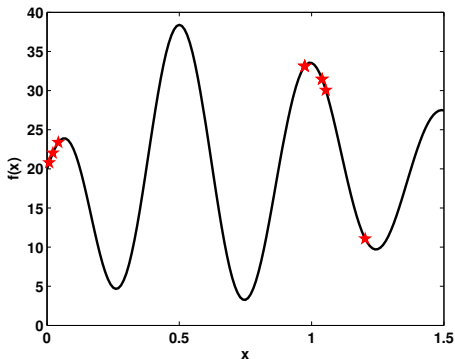
# Example (cont.)

## New Population after Crossover and Mutation

Chromosome	Binary coding	Decimal value	Fitness
$x_1$	00000001011 CO*	0.0081	20.7891
$x_2$	00000011110	0.0220	22.0240
$x_3$	11001101001	1.2025	11.0231
$x_4$	10100110001	0.9739	33.1448
$x_5$	10110011110 CO*	1.0537	29.9967
$x_6$	10110001011	1.0398	31.4024
$x_7$	10100110001	0.9739	33.1448
$x_8$	10110001011	1.0398	31.4024
$x_9$	10100110001	0.9739	33.1448
$x_{10}$	10110011110 M*	0.043	23.2514

# New Population after Crossover and Mutation

## Graphical Illustration



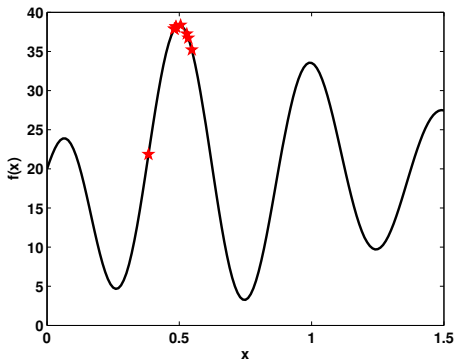
## Example (cont.)

## Population after 16 Generations

Chromosome	Binary coding	Decimal value	Fitness
$x_1$	01010010001	0.4814	37.8831
$x_2$	01011101011	0.5474	35.1638
$x_3$	01010010001	0.4814	37.8831
$x_4$	01010010001	0.4814	37.8831
$x_5$	01011011001	0.5342	36.6842
$x_6$	01010011001	0.4873	38.1542
$x_7$	01010101011	0.505	38.3936
$x_8$	01011010001	0.5283	37.2136
$x_9$	01000011001	0.3835	24.1274
$x_{10}$	01010011001	0.4873	38.1542

# Population after 16 Generations

## Graphical Illustration



# Known Issues in GA

- Local minima and premature convergence
- Mutation interference
- Deception

# Local Minima and Premature Convergence

- GA's are less prone to being trapped because of the effects of mutation and crossover.
- However, if a GA explores such a region extensively, it may be almost completely dominated by solutions within that region.
- A GA dominated by a set of identical or very similar solutions is often said to have converged.
- If a GA converges to a set of solutions within a local minimum then the GA is said to have converged prematurely.

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# Mutation Interference

- Mutation interference occurs when mutation rates in a GA are so high that solutions are so frequently mutated that the algorithm never manages to explore any region of the space thoroughly.
- Even if it finds good solutions, they tend to be rapidly destroyed.
- A GA experiencing mutation interference will probably never converge since its population is too unstable.



# Deception

- In some cases, a problem space may lead a GA to converge naturally to a sub-optimal solution, which appears good.
- This is often the case when there are many decent solutions of similar form but a much better solution that has a radically different form.
- It may also be that the region of attraction around the global minima is very small, and there exist other local minima with much larger regions of attraction.
- Thus, these minima mislead the GA as to the form of the best solution in a manner known as deception.

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## Multi-Objective GA

# Multi-Objective Optimization Problem

- Many real-world optimization problems have two or more competing objectives.
- For example, a vehicle maker wishes to maximize crash resistance for safety and minimize vehicle weight for high fuel efficiency.

## Two Conflicting Goals

- A vehicle design  $A$  may achieve high crash resistance at low fuel efficiency.
- Another vehicle design  $B$  may achieve high fuel efficiency at low crash resistance.

# Multi-Objective Optimization Problem (cont.)

- None of these designs can be considered as a superior one if we have no preference in safety or economy criteria.
- For such multi-objective optimization problems, we have a set of optimal solutions (called Pareto-optimal set) instead of a single optimal solution.
- Given the optimal solution set, a human decision maker can choose one solution according to his or her preference.

# Multi-Objective GA

- A GA is well-suited for the multi-objective optimization problems since it processes a set of solutions in parallel.

## Several Multi-Objective GAs

- Nondominated sorting GA (Srinivas '94)
- Niched Pareto GA (Horn '94)
- Strength Pareto GA (Zitzler '99)
- Fast nondominated sorting GA (Deb '02)

# Constraint Handling

# Constraint Handling Using GA

- Most real-world optimization problems involve constraints.

## Constrained Optimization Problem

A constrained optimization problem can be formulated as:

- Minimize  $f(X)$  for  $X = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$
- subject to  $\ell_i \leq x_i \leq u_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$
- $q$  inequality constraints  $g_j(x) \leq 0, j = 1, \dots, q$
- $m - q$  equality constraints  $h_j(x) = 0, j = q + 1, \dots, m$



# Constraint Handling Using GA

## Three Popular Methods for Handling Constrained Problems

Three popular methods handling constraints:

- Penalty Function Based Method
- Method based on preference feasible solutions over infeasible ones
- Method based on multi-objective optimization

# Constraint Handling Using GA: Penalty Function Based Method

## Penalty Function Based Method

- An infeasible individual is penalized based on its constraint violation.
- Penalty function combines objective function value and the constraint violation value to decide the fitness of each individual.
- Easy to implement.
- Requires some degree of parameter tuning to tailor for each problem.

# Penalty Function Based Method

## Different Types of Penalty Function

Several different types of penalty functions are available:

- Death penalty method: Infeasible individuals are not considered for selection.
- Static penalty method: Penalty is the weighted sum of constraint violation.
- Dynamic penalty method: Penalty also depends on the generation index.

# Penalty Function Based Method

## Death Penalty Method

- The greatest penalty that can be imposed on an infeasible solution.
- Doesn't exploit any information from the infeasible individuals to guide the search.
- May work well for the problems where feasible space is convex and covers a large portion of search space.

# Penalty Function Based Method

## Static Penalty Method

- Static penalty method modifies the objective function as:

$$obj(X) = f(X) + \sum_{j=1}^m r_j c_j(X)$$

- where  $f(X)$  is the original objective function,
- $r_j$  is penalty coefficient for constraint  $j$ ,
- $c_j(X)$  is degree of violation of constraint  $j$  corresponding to  $X$ .
- The performance highly depends on the proper penalty coefficient chosen for given constraints.

# GA Applications

- Scheduling problems (e.g, job-shop scheduling, traveling salesman problem)
- Optimization of network topologies
- Resource allocation over a distributed system
- Electronic circuit design
- Aircraft design
- Game playing
- Training of fuzzy systems or artificial neural networks