

Nature-Inspired Computing

Genetic Algorithms

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Genetic Algorithms

- components of a GA
 - representation for potential solutions
 - method for creating initial population
 - evaluation function to rate potential solutions
 - genetic operators to alter composition of offspring
 - various parameters to control a run

Genetic Algorithms

- parameters of a GA
 - no. of generations
 - or other stopping criteria
 - population size
 - chromosome length
 - probability of applying some operators

Simple GA

Simple GA - SGA

- a.k.a. Canonical GA
- Operators of a SGA
 - selection
 - cross-over
 - mutation

SGA

```
generate initial population
repeat
  evaluate individuals
  perform reproduction
    select pairs
    recombine pairs
  apply mutation
until end_of_generations
```

Representation & Encoding

- population size constant
- individual has one chromosome (haploid)
- chromosome length constant
- individual has a fitness value
- binary genes (0/1)
- generational

Initial Population

random initial population



each gene value for each individual determined randomly to be either 0 or 1 with equal probability

Fitness Evaluation

- fitness function
 - objective function(s)
 - constraints
- shows fitness of individual
 - degree to which solution candidate meets objective
- apply fitness function to individual

Example Problem: One-Max

Objective: maximize the number of 1s in a string of length 5, composed only of 1s and 0s

⇒ *population size* = 4

chromosome length = 5

fitness function = no. of genes that are 1

Example Population

individual 1:

chromosome = 11001
fitness = 3

individual 2:

chromosome = 00001
fitness = 1

individual 3:

chromosome = 11111
fitness = 5

individual 4:

chromosome = 01110
fitness = 3

Reproduction

- consists of
 - selection
 - mating pool (size same as population)
 - possibly more than one copy of some individuals
 - cross-over
 - mutation

Selection

- uses *roulette wheel selection*
 - fitness proportionate
 - expected no. of representatives of each individual is proportional to its fitness

$$prob_i = \frac{fitness_i}{\sum_j fitness_j}, j = 1 \dots pop.size$$

Example Selection

Current Population: **Probability of each individual being selected:**

i1: 11001, 3
i2: 00001, 1
i3: 11111, 5
i4: 01110, 3
 prob(i1) = 3/12 = 0.25
 prob(i2) = 1/12 = 0.08
 prob(i3) = 5/12 = 0.42
 prob(i4) = 3/12 = 0.25

Expected copies of each individual in pool:

i1: (3/12*4) 1
i2: (1/12*4) 0
i3: (5/12*4) 2
i4: (3/12*4) 1

Assume:

wheel is turned 4 times
 1 copy of i1
 2 copies of i3
 1 copy of i4
 is copied into mating pool

Example Pairing

Current mating pool:

mate 1: 11001 (*i1*)
mate 2: 11111 (*i3*)
mate 3: 11111 (*i3*)
mate 4: 01110 (*i4*)

Assume:

As a result of random drawing (mate 1, mate 3) and (mate 2, mate 4) are paired off for reproduction.

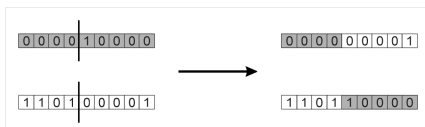
Pairs:

Pair 1: 11001
 11111
Pair 2: 11111
 01110

Recombination

- new individuals formed from pairs of parents
- one point cross-over
- probability of cross-over: p_c
 - a.k.a. cross-over rate
 - typically in range [0.5, 1.0]

One-Point Cross-Over



Example Cross-Over

Assume $p_c=1.0$

for pair 1:

cross-over site: 3
 110 | 01 → 11011
 111 | 11 → 11101

for pair 2:

cross-over site: 1
 1 | 1111 → 11110
 0 | 1110 → 01111

the new individuals:

i1: 11011 **i3:** 11110
i2: 11101 **i4:** 01111

Mutation

- bitwise mutation
- probability of mutation: p_m
 - a.k.a. mutation rate
 - equal probability for each gene
 - chromosome of length L ; expected no. of changes: $L * p_m$
 - typically chosen to be small
 - depends on nature of problem

Bitwise Mutation

1011000010 → 1001100000

Example Mutation

Assume:

as a result of random draws,

1st gene of i_1

and

4th gene of i_3

are found to undergo mutation

i_1 : 11011 → 01011

i_3 : 11110 → 11100

Population Dynamics

- generational GA
 - non-overlapping populations
 - offspring replace parents

Example New Population

individual 1:

chromosome = 01011
fitness = 3

individual 2:

chromosome = 11101
fitness = 4

individual 3:

chromosome = 11100
fitness = 3

individual 4:

chromosome = 01111
fitness = 4

Stopping Criteria

- main loop repeated until stopping criteria met
 - for a predetermined no. of generations ✓
 - until a goal is reached
 - until population converges

Convergence

- progression towards uniformity
- *gene convergence*: when 95% of the individuals have the same value for that gene
- *population convergence*: when all genes have converged
 - average fitness approaches best

Example Stopping Criteria

Case 1:

number of generations = 250

- loop repeated 250 times
- best individual at each generation found
- overall best individual becomes solution

Example Stopping Criteria

Case 2:

objective: maximize the number of 1s

goal: to find the individual with 1 for all gene locations

- loop repeated forever
- best individual at each generation found
- terminates when goal individual found

Example Stopping Criteria

Case 3:

95% of 4 is 4

gene convergence: 4 individuals must have same value for a gene location

population convergence: 5 gene locations must be converged

Example converged populations:

Example 1:	Example 2:	Example 3:
i1: 11010	i1: 00000	i1: 11111
i2: 11010	i2: 00000	i2: 11111
i3: 11010	i3: 00000	i3: 11111
i4: 11010	i4: 00000	i4: 11111

Example Problems

Function Optimization

Objective:

Find the set of integers x_i which maximize the function f .

$$f(x_i) = \sum_i x_i^2 \quad i=1,2,3$$
$$-512 < x_i \leq 512$$

Function Optimization

Representation:

- 1024 integers in given interval
- 10 bits needed

0 : 0000000000 (-511)
1 : 0000000001 (-510)
2 : 0000000010 (-509)
...
1023 : 1111111111 (512)

Function Optimization

Individual:

- function has 3 parameters:
 x_1, x_2, x_3 ($-512 < x_i \leq 512$)
- 10 bits for each x_i
- chromosome has 30 bits

Function Optimization

Example chromosome:

110010101011000000000000000110

x_1 x_2 x_3
 $x_1 = (810 - 511) = 299$
 $x_2 = (768 - 511) = 257$
 $x_3 = (6 - 511) = -505$
fitness = $(299)^2 + (257)^2 + (-505)^2$
= 410475

Function Optimization

what if x_i were real numbers?

interval: $-5.12 < x_i \leq 5.12$

- possible to use binary
 - precision of 2 digits after decimal
 - use 1024 different integers (divide number by 100)
- use other representations (e.g. real)

Function Optimization

what if representation has redundancy?

e.g. interval: $-5.4 < x_i < 5.4$

0/1 Knapsack Problem

Objective:

$$\max \sum_i v_i * x_i \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, \text{item_count}$$
$$\text{subject to } \sum_i w_i * x_i \leq W$$

$x_i = 0 / 1$ (shows whether item i is in sack or not)

0/1 Knapsack Problem

Example item set:

- (1) w= 2, v=10
- (2) w= 6, v= 3
- (3) w=10, v= 8
- (4) w= 7, v=16
- (5) w= 4, v=25

Example feasible solutions:

- items: {1,2,5} ⇒ weight=12
value= 38
- items: {3} ⇒ weight=10
value= 8
- items: {4,5} ⇒ weight=11
value= 41
- items: {2} ⇒ weight=6
value= 3

Example knapsack capacity: W = 12

0/1 Knapsack Problem

Representation:

5 items ⇒ chromosome length 5

Example chromosomes:

- 11001 ⇒ items {1,2,5} included in sack
- 00100 ⇒ items {3} included in sack
- 00011 ⇒ items {4,5} included in sack
- 01000 ⇒ items {2} included in sack

0/1 Knapsack Problem

- Can fitness be total weight of subset?
 - what if overweight?
- how to handle overweight subsets?
 - delete?
 - penalize?
 - by how much?
 - make correction?

Exercise Problem

In the Boolean satisfiability problem (SAT), the task is to make a compound statement of Boolean variables evaluate to TRUE. For example consider the following problem of 16 variables given in conjunctive normal form:

$$F = (x_5 \vee \bar{x}_{12} \vee x_{16}) \wedge (\bar{x}_4 \vee \bar{x}_6) \wedge (x_2 \vee x_{13} \vee \bar{x}_7 \vee \bar{x}_9 \vee \bar{x}_{14}) \wedge (x_1 \vee \bar{x}_8 \vee x_{11} \vee x_{15}) \wedge (x_3 \vee \bar{x}_{10})$$

Here the task is to find the truth assignment for each variable x_i for all $i=1,2,\dots,16$ such that $F=TRUE$. Design a GA to solve this problem.

Genetic Algorithms: Representation of Individuals

Binary Representations

- simplest and most common
- chromosome: string of bits
 - genes: 0 / 1
- example:** binary representation of an integer
 - 3: 00011
 - 15: 01111
 - 16: 10000

Binary Representations

problem: Hamming distance between consecutive integers may be > 1

example: 5 bit binary representation

14: 01110 15: 01111 16: 10000

Probability of changing 15 into 16 by independent bit flips (mutation) is not same as changing it into 14! (*hamming cliffs*)

✓ Gray coding solves problem.

Gray Coding

- Hamming distance 1

Example: 3-bit Gray Code

integer	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
standard	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
gray	000	001	011	010	110	111	101	100

- algorithms exist for
 - gray \Rightarrow binary coding
 - binary \Rightarrow gray coding

Integer Representations

- binary representations may not always be best choice
 - another representation may be more natural for a specific problem
- e.g. for optimization of a function with integer variables

Integer Representations

- values may be
 - unrestricted (all integers)
 - restricted to a finite set
 - e.g. {0,1,2,3}
 - e.g. {North,East,South,West}

Integer Representations

- any natural relations between possible values?
 - obvious for ordinal attributes (e.g. integers)
 - maybe no natural ordering for cardinal attributes (e.g. set of compass points)

Real-Valued / Floating Point Representations

- when genes take values from a continuous distribution
- vector of real values
 - floating point numbers
- genotype for solution becomes the vector $\langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \rangle$ with $x_i \in \mathfrak{R}$

Permutation Representations

- deciding on sequence of events
 - most natural representation is permutation of a set of integers
- in ordinary GA numbers may occur more than once on chromosome
 - invalid permutations!
- new variation operators needed

Permutation Representations

- two classes of problems
 - based on order of events
 - e.g. scheduling of jobs
 - Job-Shop Scheduling Problem
 - based on adjacencies
 - e.g. Travelling Salesperson Problem (TSP)
 - finding a complete tour of minimal length between n cities, visiting each city only once

Permutation Representations

- two ways to encode a permutation
 - i th element represents event that happens in that location in a sequence
 - value of i th element denotes position in sequence in which i th event occurs

Permutation Representations

Example (TSP):

4 cities A,B,C,D and permutation [3,1,2,4] denotes the tours:

first encoding type:

[C→A→ B→ D]

second encoding type:

[B→C→ A→ D]

Genetic Algorithms: Mutation

Mutation

- a variation operator
- create one offspring from one parent
- acts on genotype
- occurs at a mutation rate: p_m
 - behaviour of a GA depends on p_m

Bitwise Mutation

- flips bits
 - 0→1 and 1→0
- setting of p_m depends on nature of problem
 - usually (expected occurrence) between 1 gene per generation and 1 gene per offspring

Bitwise Mutation (Binary Representations)

1011000010 → 1001100000

Integer Representations: Random Resetting

- bit flipping extended
- acts on genotype
- mutation rate: p_m
- a permissible random value chosen
- most suitable for cardinal attributes

Integer Representations: Creep Mutation

- designed for ordinal attributes
- acts on genotype
- mutation rate: p_m

Integer Representations: Creep Mutation

- add small (positive / negative) integer to gene value
 - random value
 - sampled from a distribution
 - symmetric around 0
 - with higher probability of small changes

Integer Representations: Creep Mutation

- *step size* is important
 - controlled by parameters
 - setting of parameters important
- different mutation operators may be used together
 - e.g. "big creep" with "little creep"
 - e.g. "little creep" with "random resetting" (different rates)

Floating-Point Representations: Mutation

- allele values come from a continuous distribution
- previously discussed mutation forms not applicable
- special mutation operators required

Floating-Point Representations: Mutation Operators

- change allele values randomly within its domain
 - upper and lower boundaries
 - U_i and L_i respectively

$$\langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \rangle \rightarrow \langle x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_n \rangle$$

where $x_i, x'_i \in [L_i, U_i]$

Floating-Point Representations: Uniform Mutation

- values of x_i drawn uniformly randomly from the $[L_i, U_i]$
 - analogous to
 - bit flipping for binary representations
 - random resetting for integer representations
- usually used with positionwise mutation probability

Floating-Point Representations: Non-Uniform Mutation with a Fixed Distribution

- most common form
- analogous to creep mutation for integer representations
- add an amount to gene value
- amount randomly drawn from a distribution

Floating-Point Representations: Non-Uniform Mutation

- Gaussian distribution (normal distribution)
 - with mean 0
 - user-specified standard deviation
 - may have to adjust to interval $[L_i, U_i]$

Floating-Point Representations: Non-Uniform Mutation

- Gaussian distribution
 - 2/3 of samples lie within one standard deviation of mean
 - most changes small but probability of very large changes > 0
- Cauchy distribution with same standard deviation
 - probability of higher values more than in gaussian distribution

Floating-Point Representations: Non-Uniform Mutation

- usually
 - applied to each gene with probability 1
 - p_m used to determine standard deviation of distribution
 - determines probability distribution of size of steps taken

Permutation Representations: Mutation Operators

- not possible to consider genes independently
- move alleles around in genome
- mutation probability shows probability of a string undergoing mutation

Permutation Representations: Swap Mutation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 → 1 5 3 4 2 6 7 8 9

Permutation Representations: Insert Mutation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 → 1 2 5 3 4 6 7 8 9

Permutation Representations: Scramble Mutation

- May act on whole string or a subset

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 → 1 3 5 4 2 6 7 8 9

Permutation Representations: Inversion Mutation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 → 1 5 4 3 2 6 7 8 9

Genetic Algorithms: Recombination

Recombination

- process for creating new individual
 - two or more parents
- term used interchangeably with crossover
 - mostly refers to 2 parents
- crossover rate p_c
 - typically in range $[0.5, 1.0]$
 - acts on parent pair

Recombination

- two parents selected randomly
- a r.v. drawn from $[0, 1)$
- if value $< p_c$ two offspring created through recombination
- else two offspring created asexually
 - copy of parents

Binary Representations: One-Point Crossover

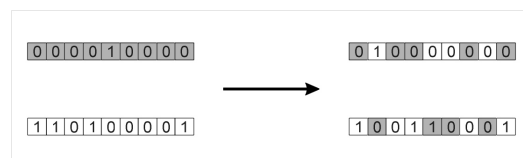


Binary Representations: N-Point Crossover



Example: $N=2$

Binary Representations: Uniform Crossover



Assume array: $[0.35, 0.62, 0.18, 0.42, 0.83, 0.76, 0.39, 0.51, 0.36]$

Binary Representations: Crossover

- positional bias
 - e.g. in 1-point crossover bias against keeping bits at head and tail of string together
- distributional bias
 - in uniform crossover bias is towards transmitting 50% of genes from each parent

Integer Representations: Crossover

- same as in binary representations
- blending is not useful
 - averaging even and odd integers produce a non-integer !

Floating-Point Representations: Recombination

- discrete recombination
 - similar to crossover operators for bit-strings
 - alleles have floating-point representations
 - offspring z , parents x and y
value of allele i in offspring:
 $z_i = x_i$ or $z_i = y_i$ with equal probability

Floating-Point Representations: Recombination

- intermediate or arithmetic recombination
 - for each gene position
 - new allele value between those of parents
 $z_i = \alpha x_i + (1 - \alpha) y_i$ where α in $[0, 1]$
 - new allele values
 - averaging reduces range of values in population

Floating-Point Representations: Arithmetic Recombination

- sometimes random α
- usually constant $\alpha = 0.5$
 - uniform arithmetic recombination
- 3 types
 - simple a. r.
 - single a. r.
 - whole a. r.

Floating-Point Representations: Simple Arithmetic Recombination

- pick random recombination point k

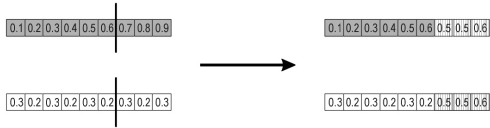
child1:

$\langle x_1, \dots, x_k, \alpha y_{k+1} + (1 - \alpha) x_{k+1}, \dots, \alpha y_n + (1 - \alpha) x_n \rangle$

child2:

$\langle y_1, \dots, y_k, \alpha x_{k+1} + (1 - \alpha) y_{k+1}, \dots, \alpha x_n + (1 - \alpha) y_n \rangle$

Floating-Point Representations: Simple Arithmetic Recombination



Example: $k=8, \alpha=0.5$

Floating-Point Representations: Single Arithmetic Recombination

- pick a random allele k

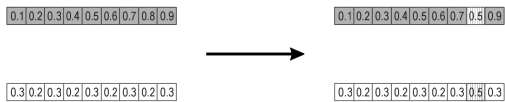
child1:

$$\langle x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, \alpha y_k + (1 - \alpha) x_k, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n \rangle$$

child2:

$$\langle y_1, \dots, y_{k-1}, \alpha x_k + (1 - \alpha) y_k, y_{k+1}, \dots, y_n \rangle$$

Floating-Point Representations: Single Arithmetic Recombination



Example: $k=3, \alpha=0.5$

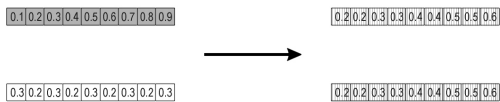
Floating-Point Representations: Whole Arithmetic Recombination

- most commonly used
- takes weighted sum of alleles from parents

$$Child1 = \alpha \cdot \bar{x} + (1 - \alpha) \cdot \bar{y}$$

$$Child2 = \alpha \cdot \bar{y} + (1 - \alpha) \cdot \bar{x}$$

Floating-Point Representations: Whole Arithmetic Recombination



Note: if $\alpha=0.5$ two offspring are identical!

Permutation Representations: Recombination

- requires specially designed operators
- for adjacency representations
 - partially mapped crossover (PMX)
 - edge crossover
- for order based representations
 - order crossover
 - cycle crossover

Multiparent Recombination

- more than two parents
- may be advantageous for some groups of problems
- not widely used in EC
- approaches grouped as:
 - based on allele frequencies
 - generalizing uniform crossover

Multiparent Recombination

- based on segmentation and recombination (e.g. diagonal crossover)
 - generalizing n-point crossover
- based on numerical operations on real valued alleles (e.g. the center of mass crossover)
 - generalizing arithmetic recombination operators

Genetic Algorithms: Fitness Functions

Fitness

- Fitness shows how good a solution candidate is
- Not always possible to use real (raw) fitness
 - Fitness determined by objective function(s) and constraint(s)
 - Sometimes approximate fitness functions needed

Fitness

- population convergence \Rightarrow fitness range decreases
 - premature convergence
 - good individuals take over population
 - slow finishing
 - when average nears best,
 - not enough diversity
 - can't drive population to optima
i.e. best and medium get equal chances

Fitness

- Fitness remapping schemes needed
 - Fitness scaling
 - Fitness windowing

Linear Scaling

If
 f : raw fitness and f' : scaled fitness
 then linear relationship,
 $f' = af + b$

Linear Scaling

a and b chosen such that

$$f'_{avg} = f_{avg} \text{ and } f'_{max} = C_{mult} * f_{avg}$$

where

C_{mult} : expected no. of copies of
 best individual in population

(Note: Typically for populations of size 50 to 100,
 $C_{mult} = 1.2$ to 2 is used.)

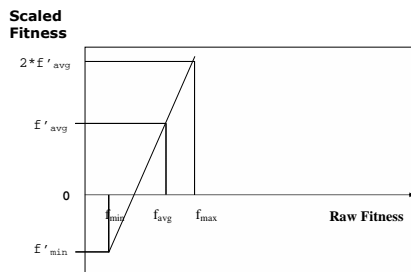
Linear Scaling



Linear Scaling

- In later runs,
 - average close to maximum
 - some very bad individuals greatly below population average
- ⇒ possible negative scaled fitnesses
- Solution: map minimum raw fitness to $f'_{min} = 0$

Linear Scaling



Sigma Scaling

- developed as improvement to linear scaling
 - to deal with negative values
 - to incorporate problem dependent information into the mapping
 - population average and standard deviation

Sigma Scaling

$$f' = f + (\bar{f} - c * \sigma)$$

- c**: small integer (usually set to 2)
- σ** : population's standard deviation

if $f' < 0$ then set $f' = 0$

Window Scaling

- Scaling window
 $f' = F - f$ where F is a constant and $F > f(x)$ for all x
 - scaling window W : determines how often F is updated
 - $W > 0 \Rightarrow F = \max\{f(x)\}$ for the last W generations
 - $W = 0 \Rightarrow$ infinite window size, i.e. $F = \max\{f(x)\}$ over all evaluations

Genetic Algorithms: Population Models

Population Models

- generational model
- steady state model

Generational Model

- population of individuals : size N
- mating pool (parents) : size N
- offspring formed from parents
- offspring replace parents
- offspring are next generation : size N

Steady State Model

- not whole population replaced
- N : population size ($M \leq N$)
 - M individuals replaced by M offspring
- generational gap
 - percentage of replaced
 - equal to M/N
- competition based on fitness

Genetic Algorithms: Parent Selection

Fitness Proportional Selection

- FPS
- e.g. roulette wheel selection
- selection probability depends on *absolute* fitness of individual compared to *absolute* fitness of rest of the population

Selection

- *Selection scheme*: process that selects an individual to go into the mating pool
- *Selection pressure*: degree to which the better individuals are favoured
 - if higher selection pressure, better individuals favoured more

Selection Pressure

- determines convergence rate
 - if too high, possible premature convergence
 - if too low, may take too long to find good solutions

Selection Schemes

- two types:
 - proportionate
 - ordinal based

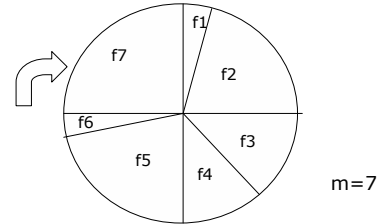
Fitness Proportionate Selection

- e.g. roulette-wheel selection (RWS)
- problems with FPS
 - premature convergence
 - almost no selection pressure when fitness values close together
 - may behave differently on transposed versions of same fitness function
 - e.g. consider $f(x)$ and $y(x)=f(x)+10$;

Fitness Proportionate Selection

- solutions
 - scaling
 - windowing

Roulette-Wheel Selection



Roulette-Wheel Selection

```

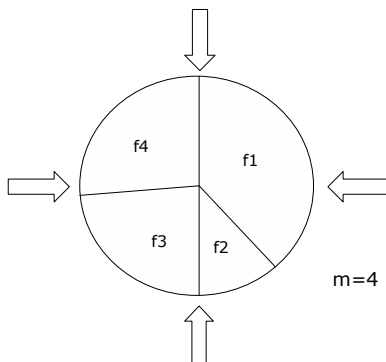
begin
  set current_member=1;
  while (current_member ≤ m)do
    pick uniform r.v. r from [0,1];
    set i=1;
    while (ai < r) do
      set i=i+1;
    od
    set mating_pool[current_member]=parents[i];
    set current_member=current_member+1;
  od
end
    
```

m: population size $a_i = \sum_1^i P_{sel}(i) \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m$

Stochastic Universal Sampling

- SUS
- one spin of wheel with m equally spaced arms
- cumulative selection probabilities
[a₁, a₂, ..., a_m]

Stochastic Universal Sampling



Stochastic Universal Sampling

```

begin
  set current_member=i=1;
  pick uniform r.v. r from [0,1/m];
  while (current_member ≤ m) do
    while (r ≤ a[i]) do
      set mating_pool[current_member]=parents[i];
      set r=r+1/m;
      set current_member=current_member+1;
    od
    set i=i+1;
  od
end
    
```

m: population size $a_i = \sum_1^i P_{sel}(i) \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m$

Ranking Selection

- ordinal based
- population sorted by fitness
- selection probabilities based on rank
- constant selection pressure
- how to allocate probabilities to ranks
 - can be any linear or non-linear function
 - e.g. linear ranking selection (LRS)

Linear Ranking

- parameter s : $1.0 < s \leq 2.0$
 - in generational GA s : no. of expected offspring allotted to best
- Assume best has rank m and worst 1
- selection probability of individual with rank i :

$$p_{sel}(rank_i) = \frac{(2-s)}{m} + \frac{2i(s-1)}{m(m-1)}$$

FPS x LRS

	Fitness	Rank	FP	LR (s=2)	LR (s=1.5)
A	1	1	0.1	0	0.167
B	5	3	0.5	0.67	0.5
C	4	2	0.4	0.33	0.33
Sum	10		1.0	1.0	1.0

Exponential Ranking

- with linear mapping
 - range of selection pressure limited
 - max $s=2$ (median fitness has 1 chance)
 - if wish to select above average more
 - exponential ranking

$$p_{sel}(rank_i) = \frac{1-e^{-i}}{c} \quad c: \text{normalization factor}$$

Tournament Selection

- ordinal based
- RWS and SUS uses info on whole population
 - info may not be available
 - population too large
 - population distributed on a parallel system
 - maybe no universal fitness definition (e.g. game playing, evol. art, evol. design)

Tournament Selection

- TS
- relies on an ordering relation to rank any n individuals
- most widely used approach
- tournament size k
 - if k large, more of the fitter individuals
 - controls selection pressure
 - $k=2$: lowest selection pressure

Tournament Selection

```
begin
  set current_member=1;
  while (current_member ≤ m)do
    pick k individuals randomly;
    select best from k individuals;
    denote this individual i;
    set mating_pool[current_member]=i;
    set current_member=current_member+1;
  od
end
```

m: population size k: tournament size

Genetic Algorithms: Survivor Selection

Survivor Selection

- a.k.a. replacement
- determines who survives into next generation
 - reduces $(m+1)$ to m
 - m population size (also no. of parents)
 - 1 no. of offspring at end of generation
- several replacement strategies

Age-Based Replacement

- fitness not taken into account
- each individual exists for same number of generations
 - in SGA only for 1 generation
- e.g. create 1 offspring and insert into population at each generation
 - FIFO
 - replace random (has more performance variance than FIFO; not recommended)

Fitness-Based Replacement

- uses fitness to select m individuals from $(m+1)$ (m parents, 1 offspring)
 - fitness based parent selection techniques
 - replace worst
 - fast increase in population mean
 - possible premature convergence
 - use very large populations or no-duplicates
 - elitism
 - keeps current best in population
 - replaces an individual (worst, most similar, etc)