

Lecture 23,

Genetic Algorithms.

Note Title

5/30/2006

Inspired by evolution. Represent potential solutions to a specific problem on a data structure like a chromosome.

Implementation

- Initial population of random chromosomes
- Allocate reproduction opportunities so that chromosomes which represent a better solution to the target problem have more chance to reproduce.

Broader Sense. Any population-based model that uses selection and recombination operators to generate new samples in a search space.

Optimize : $F(x_1, \dots, x_L)$

variables x_i are discrete
(usually a power of two).

require evaluating $F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_L)$ to be fast (because we need to do this for each) member of the population.

Page 2.

Size of the search space is large $\sim 2^L$

Canonical Genetic Algorithm:

Initialize strings at random

Evaluate each string and assign a fitness function.

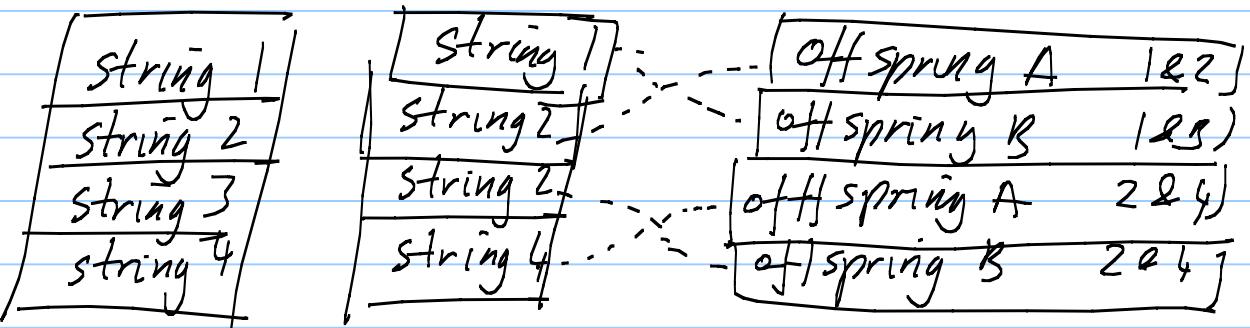
$$\text{Canonical fitness } \frac{F(x)}{F}$$

/ Here F is
the average
for the population.

Execution in two stages:

(1) Current Population selection is applied to create an intermediate population.

(2) Recombination & Mutation are applied to the intermediate population to create the next population.



Current Generation

Intermediate Generation

Next Generation.

Page 3.

Probability that strings are selected (duplicated) is proportional to their current fitness $\frac{f(x)}{\bar{f}}$.

Several ways to do selection.

(1) Spin the Roulette wheel

"stochastic sampling with replacement"

(2) "remainder stochastic sampling".

For each x s.t. $\frac{f(x)}{\bar{f}} > 1$

take the integer portion $\lceil \frac{f(x)}{\bar{f}} \rceil$ and

place this number of copies in the intermediate population. All strings place additional copies with prob according to the fractional portion.

(e.g. $\frac{f(x)}{\bar{f}} = 1.36$ places one copy of x and another copy with probability 0.36)

~~Page 4.~~

Next recombination

crossover is applied to randomly paired strings with probability P_c .

Recombine these strings to form two new strings.

E.G.

11010 | 0110010110
y x yy x | y x x y y y x y x x y

$x=1, y=0$
or
 $x=0, y=1$

gives two offsprings

11010 y x x y y y x y x x y
y x y y x 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1

Mutation

For each bit of the string, mutate with probability P_m ($P_m \approx 0.01$)

Output next population.

~~Page~~^{5.} Why does this work?

It encourages strings with good fitness to reproduce — and discourages those with poor fitness.

Mutation is similar to standard MCGC — with mutation there is no interaction between strings.

Crossover & Recombination are new.

Schema Hypothesis

suppose a subpart of the problem can be encoded easily.

E.g. 010101****^{wildcards}

a string with wildcards is called a schemata.

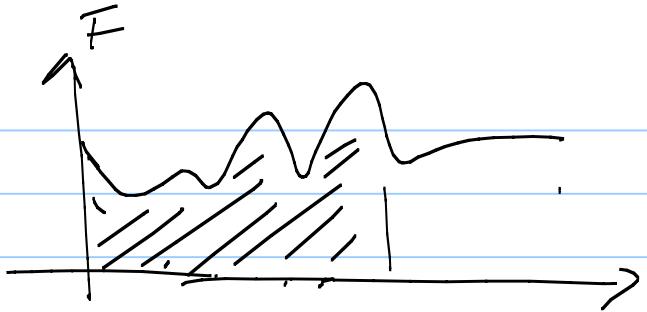
Low order hyperplanes are sampled by numerous strings in the population.

Implicit Parallelism — many hyperplanes computations are simultaneously solved in parallel.

Page 6.

Alternative View.

~~0 * + ... *~~ spans first
half of space (shaded //)
~~1 * + ... *~~ spans second
half of space.

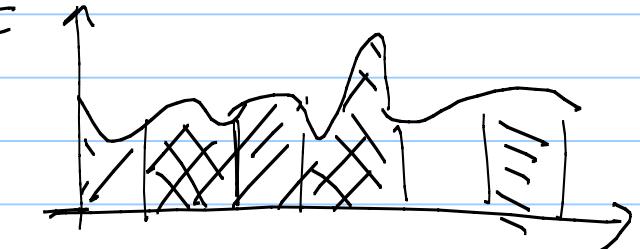


strings with ~~0 * + ... *~~ have on average better fitness than those ~~1 * + ... *~~
So ~~0 * + ... *~~ will be encouraged.

The strings with
~~** 1 * * * * * *~~

are shaded \\\

Shows that ~~0 * 1 * * * * *~~ strings
are good.

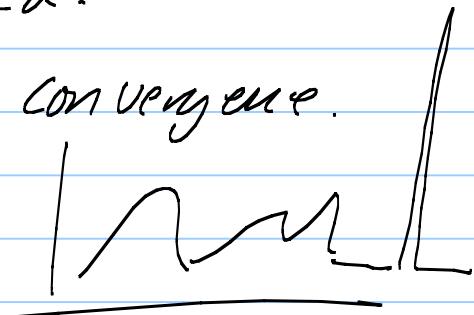


Local optima do not affect this.

Crossover & Recombination allows good partial solutions to be selected.

But doesn't guarantee convergence.

E.g. had to find
a narrow spike.



Page 7

What does recombination do?

Order-1 hyperplanes (e.g. * y * * . *)
are unaffected.

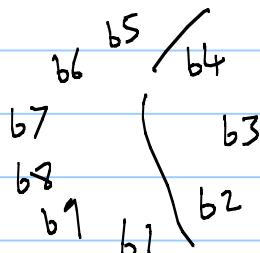
Order-2 hyperplanes

for 1-point crossover

$b_1 \leftarrow *$... $\cdot *$ \rightarrow prob of bits separated is $\frac{1}{L-1}$
 $b_1 \leftarrow *$... $\cdot *$ $\leftarrow 1$ \rightarrow prob of bits separated is $\frac{L-1}{L-1} = 1$.

Hence order is very important..

2-point crossover

- two randomly chosen crossover points

- exchange the segment that falls between these two points.

(Note: 1-point crossover is a special case, where one crossover point always occurs between the first and last bits).

Bits which are close together are less likely to be affected by crossover.

Favours compact representations.

Page 8.

Define the length of a schema to be the distance between the first and last bit.

****1***0***10***^{length}

The Schema theorem provides a lower bound on the change in sampling rate for a single hyperplane.

$M(H, t)$ be no. of strings sampling hyperplane H at time t .

$$M(H, t + \text{interval}) = M(H, t) \frac{F(H, t)}{F}$$

|| Here $F(H, t)$
|| is the average
|| fitness of string
|| in H .

$$M(H, t+1) = (1 - p_c) M(H, t) \frac{F(H, t)}{F}$$

$$+ p_c \left\{ M(H, t) \frac{F(H, t)}{F} (1 - \text{losses}) \rightarrow \text{gains} \right\}$$

Conservation Assumption

crossover within the defining length of the schema is always disruptive.

E.g. Schema 11**...*

If string 1110101 were combined with 100000 or 010000 then no disruptions will occur.

Also recombining 1000.. with 010...0 could give a gain.

Ignore gains

Page 9

Conservative Assumption:

ignore gains, treat all disruptions as losses.

$$\text{thus } M(H_{t+1}) \geq (1-p_c) M(H_t) \frac{F(H_t)}{F}$$

$$+ p_c \left\{ M(H_t) \frac{F(H_t)}{F} (1 - \text{disruption}) \right\}$$

$$\text{Description is } \frac{\Delta(H)}{L-1} (1 - p(H_t))$$

$\Delta(H)$ is the defining length associated with 1-point crossover.

($p(H_t)$ is the proportional representation of H_t obtained by dividing $M(H_t)$ by the population size)

Scheme Theorem

$$p(H_{t+1}) \geq p(H_t) \frac{F(H_t)}{F} \left\{ 1 - p_c \frac{\Delta(H)}{L-1} (1 - p(H_t) \frac{F(H_t)}{F}) \right\}$$

Scheme Theorem suggests that mutation is less important than crossover.

But mutation is necessary to prevent the system from getting stuck - e.g. 0.00.

Page 10.

Note : 1-point crossover is easy to model analytically.

But 2-point crossover is better for minimizing crossover disruption.

How effective are genetic algorithms?

Claim :

The standard genetic algorithm works poorly on most problems.

Non-standard genetic algorithms, which incorporate knowledge of specific problems work better.

Hybrids are good - combine existing algorithms with population methods.

Page 11,

Evolutionary Monte Carlo

$$\pi(\underline{x}) \propto e^{-E(\underline{x})}, \quad \underline{x} \in \mathcal{X} \text{ sample space.}$$

$\underline{\mathcal{X}} = \{\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2, \dots, \underline{x}_m\}$ population
 m temperatures, $\underline{T} = (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m)$

ordered $t_1 > t_2 > \dots > t_{m-1} > t_m$.

Each chromosome \underline{x}_i has a temperature t_i .

Gibbs for i^{th} chromosome is $e^{-E(\underline{x}_i)/t_i}$.

$$\pi_i(\underline{x}_i) = \frac{1}{Z_i(t_i)} e^{-E(\underline{x}_i)/t_i}$$

$$\pi(\underline{x}) = \frac{1}{Z(T)} e^{-\sum_{i=1}^m E(\underline{x}_i)/t_i}. \quad Z(T) = \prod_i Z_i(t_i).$$

$$\underline{x}_i = (b_{i,1}, \dots, b_{i,d}) \quad b_{i,j} = 0 \text{ or } 1.$$

Mutation select x_k at random,
 mutate x_k to y_k .

$$\text{New population } \underline{Y} = \{\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{y}_k, \dots, \underline{x}_N\}$$

Accept with prob $\min(1, r_m)$
 $r_m = e^{-(E(\underline{y}_k) - E(\underline{x}_k)) / k}$

Crossover: \underline{x}_i & \underline{x}_j are selected
 to generate two offsprings \underline{y}_i & \underline{y}_j

Page 12

New population $\underline{Y} = \{\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{y}_i, \dots, \underline{y}_j, \dots, \underline{x}_m\}$

accepted with probability $\min\{1, r_c\}$

$$r_c = \exp \left\{ - \frac{(E(\underline{y}_j) - E(\underline{x}_i))}{t_i} - \frac{(E(\underline{y}_j) - E(\underline{x}_j))}{t_j} \right\} / \frac{T(\underline{y}|\underline{x})}{T(\underline{x}|\underline{y})}$$

Transition

$$T(\underline{y}|\underline{x}) = P[(\underline{x}_i, \underline{x}) | \underline{x}] P[(\underline{y}_i, \underline{y}_j) | (\underline{x}_i, \underline{x}_j)]$$

\dagger
selection
probability of
 $(\underline{x}_i, \underline{x}_j)$ from \underline{x}

prob. of.
generation.
 $y_i \& y_j$

e.g. Could have
 $P[(\underline{x}_i, \underline{x}_j) | \underline{x}] \propto \{ e^{-E(\underline{x}_i)/t_i} + e^{-E(\underline{x}_j)/t_j} \}$
weighted samples. $x_i \neq x_j$

Page 13

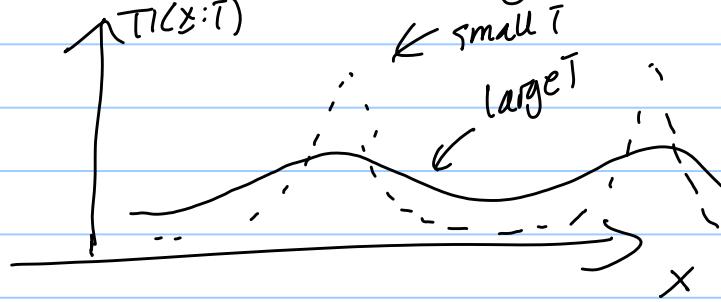
Simulated Annealing

Want to sample from $\pi(x) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-E(x)}$.

Introduce a temperature T , create a family of distributions $\pi(x; T) = \frac{1}{Z(T)} e^{-E(x)/T}$

These all have the same peaks - at places where $E(x)$ is small - but distribution with larger T are smoother.

So it is usually quicker to sample $\pi(x; T)$ for large T . (easier to sample a smooth distribution)



Key Idea of SA

Sample from $\pi(x; T)$ for large T

e.g. by Metropolis-Hastings

after M iterations, x^1, \dots, x^M

reduce $T \rightarrow T\gamma$ ($\gamma < 1$)

and sample x^{M+1}, \dots, x^{M+1} from $\pi(x; T\gamma)$

repeat until $T=1$.

i.e. $T\gamma^n = 1$, n number of times

you decrease T

Question - what value for M ? what value of γ ?

Answer - Problem dependant - find by experiments

Page 4

You can also apply S.A. to find the lowest energy states \rightarrow i.e. $\hat{x} = \underset{x}{\text{arg min}} E(x)$

$$\pi(x; T) = \frac{1}{Z(T)} e^{-E(x)/T}$$

As $T \rightarrow 0$

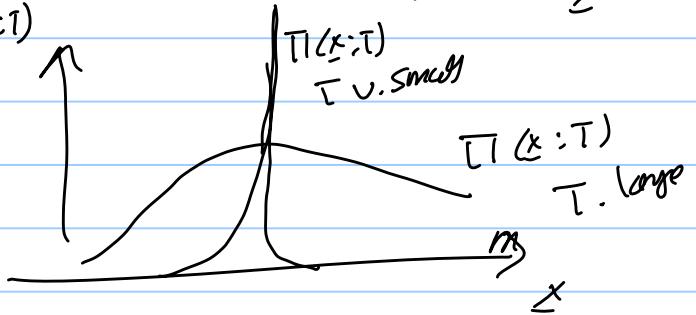
$$\pi(x; T) = 0, x \neq \underset{x}{\text{arg min}} E(x)$$

Sample from $\pi(x; T)$ $\pi(x; T)$

start with T - large
gradually reduce T

$T \rightarrow 2T$

until $T \approx 0$.



For M.tl. \rightarrow Proposed $\pi(x^{t+1}|x^t)$

$$\text{Accept } \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\pi(x^{t+1}; T)}{\pi(x^t; T)} \cdot \frac{\pi(x^t|x^{t+1})}{\pi(x^{t+1}|x^t)} \right\}$$

$$\frac{\pi(x^{t+1}; T)}{\pi(x^t; T)} = e^{-\langle E(x^{t+1}) - E(x^t) \rangle / T}$$

So as T decreases you alter the acceptance probability.

Note: S.A. is useful for some problems.

It is not as successful as originally hoped.

Theoretical proofs exist which guarantee convergence - but they require extremely slow smoothing rates (γ) - so not useful in practice.