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# REAL CODED GENETIC ALGORITHM (RCGA): A NEW RCGA MUTATOR CALLED SCALE TRUNCATED PARETO MUTATION

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#### ABSTRACT

This paper presents a comparison in the performance analysis between a newly developed mutation operator called Scaled Truncated Pareto Mutation (STPM) and an existing mutation operator called Log Logistic Mutation (LLM). STPM is used with Laplace Crossover (LX) taken from literature to form a new generational RCGA called LX-STPM. The performance of LX-STPM is compared with an existing RCGA called LX-LLM on a set of 10 benchmark global optimization test problems based on a few performance criterions to investigate the reliability, efficiency, accuracy and quality of solutions of both optimization algorithms. The final outcomes show that LX-STPM is far superior than LX-LLM at all aspects.

Keywords: Real Coded Genetic Algorithms, Mutation Operator, Crossover Operator, Global Optimization

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

In light of continuous optimization, the variables applied in the objective function can assume real numbers, as opposed to discrete or combinatorial optimization, in which the variables may be binary or integer. As such, continuous optimizations are compartmented into several paradigms with certain assumptions differing in the objective function, variables and constraints. In fact, many real life problems are modeled as continuous nonlinear optimization problems and this study seeks to find the optimal solution to these problems.

A global optimization problem is defined as:

given  $f: \mathfrak{R}^n \to \mathfrak{R}$  a continuous function and  $S \subset \mathfrak{R}^n$ , find its global minimum  $f^* = \min \{ f(x): x \in S \}$ and the set  $X^*$  of all global minimizers  $X^*(f) = \{x^* \in S: f(x^*) = f^*\}$  [1].

Global optimization algorithms are mainly categorized into deterministic and stochastic

approaches. A few common unconstrained deterministic techniques are like Simplex Method, Newton's Method, Quasi-Newton Methods and Conjugate Direction Methods. These techniques employ a rigid mathematical tabulation with no irregular elements. Said algorithms primarily use linear algebra to compute the gradient and Hessian of the response variables. Most importantly, they ensure a theoretical guarantee of finding the global minimum if not the local minimum whose objective function value differs by at worst  $\mathcal{E}$  from the global one for a given  $\mathcal{E} > 0$ .

Commonly used stochastic algorithms include Simulated Annealing, Particle Swarm Optimization, Game Theory-Based Optimization and Evolutionary Algorithms. Having said that, stochastic techniques offer only a guarantee in probability as it varies in the search procedure. The use stochastic techniques are advantageous in that it is less mathematically intricate, capable of an indepth search of the design space, quicker in

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tracking a global optimum, capable of performing on single and multi-objective optimization problems, and it is more well-suited to black-box formulations and glitch functions [2].

Evolutionary algorithms (EAs) involve the investigation of associated fields such as developmental biology population ecology, coevolutionary biology and population genetics. Many resources have been published on the theory of evolution including Darwin [3], Huxley [4] and Futuyma [5]. Scientific book publications such as Dennett [6] and Dawkins [7] are also available. Other seminal work by Koza [8] and Schwefel [9] deliberate on genetic programming and evolution strategies respectively.

Fogel [10] offers a comprehensive review of the history of research into the use of simulated evolutionary processes for problem solving. Two volumes of "*Evolutionary Computation*" by Bäck, Fogel and Michalewics [11, 12] covers the major techniques, theory and application of the processes. Prominent authors such as De Jong [13], Fogel [10] and Eiben and Smith [14] are responsible for modern books on the unified field of Evolutionary Computation and Evolutionary Algorithms.

Evolutionary algorithms (EA) consist of three population based heuristic methodologies which are genetic algorithms (GA), evolutionary programming and evolutionary strategies. GA is a programming method brought forth by Holland in the 1960s [15]. GA is a group of biologically motivated optimizations techniques that evolve a population of individuals who would thrive in the survival of the fittest going into the next generation. The central operations of GA are reproduction, crossover and mutation on populations. The crossover operator takes two genotypes and combines them to form a new one either by merging or by exchanging the values of the genes. The mutation operator modifies one or multiple genes. In short, GA works in three (3) steps:

- i) Form the problem and encode them into a set of binary strings;
- ii) Create a new population through reproduction and mating processes;
- iii) Evaluate the fitness and select the new generation.

The traditional and most common representation in GAs is binary encodings which they can be easily manipulated by reproduction operators to almost any desired representation. However, there persist several drawbacks of binary [16]. genetic representations Binary coded GAs (BCGA) are not proper for GAs searches and they are not able to assure that using GAs to solve problems of bounded complexity would be reliable and predictable [17]. Furthermore, BCGA was found to perform more effectively only on small and moderate size problems which detail precision in the solution are not critical. BCGA may certain intricacies dealing encounter with continuous search space. One difficulty which arises is the Hamming cliffs associated with certain strings, from which a transition to a neighboring solution (in real space) requires alteration of many bits. Grav code can alleviate the Hamming cliff problem but it needs huge computations [18].

The limitations of binary encoding are the main reasons for developing algorithms using real encoding of chromosomes representations. GAs which make use of real number vector representation of chromosomes are termed as Real Coded GA (RCGA). RCGA is used in a lot of applications and is recommended for optimization problems where the parameter space is continuous [19].

Prior works on RCGA have been found to be some specific applications, such as for chemometric problems, for the use of metaoperators to find the most adequate parameters for a standard GA, for numerical optimization on constant domains, etc [19, 20, 21, 22]. A review related to RCGA is presented in [23]. Researches of RCGA in recent years for function optimization have proven to outperform traditional bit string based representation [23, 24].

Many RCGA researchers are shifting their attention towards designing new crossover operators to improve the performance of function optimization [25]. There has also been studies conducted on the varieties of mutation techniques to improve the GAs performance [26].

The paper is presented as such:

- Section 2 presents literature review on real coded mutation operators.
- Section 3 describes the proposed STPM and other operators used in this study
- Section 4 discusses the proposed new RCGAs.
- Section 5 provides the 10 benchmarking functions.
- Section 6 explains the experimental setup.

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Section 7 includes discussions an	d explanation of	$\alpha L^{\alpha} x^{-\alpha-1}$	
results.		a des r	

Section 8 reaffirms previous notions with a conclusion.

#### 2. LITERATURE REVIEW ON MUTATION **OPERATORS**

Mutation operation functions to alter the offspring genes. A mutator will escalate the diversity of the population and this inadvertently allow GAs to explore and exploit the search space [27]. Literature reviews on mutation operations reported in [28, 29] encompasses random (uniform) mutation. non-uniform mutation. breeder GA mutation, boundary mutation, continuous modal mutation, Gaussian mutation, pointed directed mutation, discrete modal mutation, principal component analysis mutation, polynomial mutation operator, Makinen, Periaux and Toivanen mutation and wavelet mutation. Albayrak and Allahverdi [30] came up with a Greedy Sub Tour Mutation (GSTM) which employs classical and greedy techniques to find the shortest distance in the traveling salesman dilemma.

Several other forms of mutating operators found in the literature include mirror mutation, percentage mutation, edge mutation and tension vector mutation. The operation of mirror mutation and the binary bit-flipping mutation are similar. The percentage mutation replaces a gene with a random percentage of its value within the interval [80%, 120%]. The edge mutation and the tension vector mutation are based on the breadth-first (BF) force-based and tension vector methods respectively [31].

#### 3. THE PROPOSED SCALED TRUNCATED PARETO MUTATION (STPM) AND OTHER **OPERATORS USED IN THIS** STUDY

#### **3.1 STPM**

A Scaled Truncated Pareto Mutation operator is proposed. This operator is built based on the formula to generate Pareto random variables. The truncated Pareto distribution has three parameters  $\alpha$ . L and H.  $\alpha$  determines the shape, L denotes the lower bound, and H denotes the higher (upper) bound of the evaluation function to be optimised.

The probability density function is:

$$\frac{\alpha L^{\alpha} x^{-\alpha-1}}{1-(\frac{L}{H})^{\alpha}}$$

where,  $L \leq x \leq H$ , and  $\alpha > 0$ .

Applying inverse transformation, the equation for U as uniformly distributed function is defined as:

$$U = \frac{1 - L^{\alpha} x^{-\alpha}}{1 - (\frac{L}{H})^{\alpha}}$$

Also, *x* is truncated Pareto distributed as:

$$|x| = \left(-\frac{UH^{\alpha} - UL^{\alpha} - H^{\alpha}}{H^{\alpha}L^{\alpha}}\right)^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}}$$

A modulus, |x| is used to eliminate the possible imaginary number produce by the algorithm. To apply the Truncated Pareto Distribution as the mutation operator, an adjustable scale,  $\delta$  is introduced.  $\delta$  is added to make sure that x is not over-weighted. If x is over-weighted, there will be a chance of good chromosomes being alter in the process. Thus, the newly mutated offspring m is defined as:

$$m(|x|) = \begin{cases} P - \delta x (P-L), & \text{if } U < T \\ P + \delta X (H-P), & \text{if } U \ge T \end{cases}$$

where P is the parent, and T = (P - L)/(H - P), to determine the direction of the mutation. By experiment,  $\delta$  and  $\alpha$  are best kept at  $10^{-6}$  and 3 respectively. Hence this mutation operator is known as Scaled Truncated Pareto Mutation.

#### 3.2. Laplace Crossover (LX)

Deep and Thakur [25] advocated a new parent centric real coded crossover operator, so named the Laplace crossover (LX) as described below:

In LX, two offsprings  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are generated from a pair of parents K<sub>1</sub> and K<sub>2</sub> obtained after selection:

Generate a random number,  $u \in [0,1]$ ,

if 
$$u \le 0.5$$
;

 $C_1 = K_1 + \beta \ x \ d$ then  $C_2 = K_2 + \beta x d$ 

else if u > 0.5:

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then	$\mathbf{C}_1 = \mathbf{K}_1 - \mathbf{\beta} \mathbf{x} \mathbf{d}$	multimodal function	has	many	local	optima,	but

 $C_1 = K_1 - \beta x d$ 

#### **3.3.** Log Logistic Mutation (LLM)

Deep Kusum *et al* [32] suggested a distribution mutation according to Log Logistic distribution. A mutated solution, S is created in the area near the solution Z as follows:

Generate a random number,  $u \in [0,1]$ ,

if *u*< T;

then S = Z - 
$$\lambda$$
 (Z - L)

else if  $u \ge T$ ;

then 
$$S = Z + \lambda (U - Z)$$

Where  $\lambda$  is a random number following Log Logistic distribution,  $T = \frac{Z-L}{U-Z}$ , L and U are the lower and upper bounds of decision variable.

#### 4. THE PROPOSED NEW RCGAS

The objective of the present study is to introduce a newly designed mutation operator, STPM. STPM will make use of an existing crossover found in the literature namely LX to form a new RCGA namely LX-STPM. The performance of LX-STPM will be evaluated and compared with another RCGA from literature namely LX-LLM. Both of the RCGAs employ the same crossover, LX; therefore, a fair and unbiased comparison of performance between the two mutators can be made. Figure 1 shows the flow chart of both RCGAs used in this comparative study.

#### 5. TEN (10) BENCHMARKING FUNCTIONS

This section presents 10 diverse and unbiased chosen set of standard benchmark functions which are used to examine the performance analysis of LX-STPM and LX-LLM. These functions have diverse properties in terms of complexity and modality. The dimension, problem domain size and optimal solution are denoted by D,  $L \le xi \le U$  and  $f(x^*) = f(x1, x2, x3...xn)$  respectively. L and U represent the lower and upper bound of the variables. Function no. 1 to 5 are nonscalable and function no. 6 to 10 are scalable. That said, in a scalable function, the number of decision variables can be increased or decreased as per users desired. The number of variables for all the scalable benchmarking functions is fixed at 30. Α

multimodal function has many local optima, but only one global optimum. When the dimensionality of a problem increases, the search space will increase exponentially to the difficulty of a problem. As such, the potential for separation is a gauge of the difficulty of benchmark functions. The properties involved in such processes to determine the optimization level is elaborated in [33].

#### 5.1. The Formulas And Features Of The Five (5) Nonscalable Functions Are Given Below:

1. Easom 2D (Unimodal)

The global minimum has a small area relative to the search space.

 $\operatorname{Min} f(x) = -\cos(x_1)\cos(x_2)\exp(-(x_1 - \pi)^2 - (x_2 - \pi)^2)$ 

subject to  $-10 \le x_1, x_2 \le 10$ . The global minimum is located at  $x^* = f(\pi, \pi)$  and  $f(x^*) = -1$ 

2. Becker and Lago (Unimodal)

 $\operatorname{Min} f(x) = (|x_1| - 5)^2 + (|x_2| - 5)^2$ 

subject to  $-10 \le x_1$ ,  $x_2 \le 10$ . The function has four minima located at  $x^* = f(\pm 5, \pm 5)$ , all with  $f(x^*) = 0$ 

3. Bohachevsky 1 (Continuous, differentiable, separable, non-scalable, multimodal)

$$\operatorname{Min} f(x) = x_1^2 + 2x_2^2 - 0.3\cos(3\pi x_1) - 0.4\cos(4\pi x_2) + 0.7$$

subject to  $-50 \le x_1$ ,  $x_2 \le 50$ . The global minimum is located at  $x^* = f(0, 0)$  and  $f(x^*) = 0$ 

4. Eggcrate (Continuous, separable, non-scalable)

$$\operatorname{Min} f(x) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + 25(\sin^2 x_1 + \sin^2 x_2)$$

subject to  $-2\pi \le x_1$ ,  $x_2 \le 2\pi$ . The global minimum is located at  $x^* = f(0, 0)$  and  $f(x^*) = 0$ 

5. Periodic (Separable)

 $\operatorname{Min} f(x) = 1 + \sin^2 x_1 + \sin^2 x_2 - 0.1 \exp(-x_1^2 - x_2^2)$ 

subject to  $-10 \le x_1$ ,  $x_2 \le 10$ . The global minimum is located at  $x^* = f(0, 0)$  and  $f(x^*) = 0.9$ 

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#### 5.2 The Formulas And Features Of Five (5) Scalable Functions Are Given Below:

6. Sphere (Continuous, differentiable, separable, scalable, multimodal. This function is easily converge to the global optimum)

$$\operatorname{Min} f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2$$

subject to  $-5.12 \le x_i \le 5.12$ . The global minimum is located at  $x^* = f(0, 0, ..., 0)$  and  $f(x^*) = 0$ 

7. Rosenbrock (Continuous, differentiable, nonseparable, scalable, unimodal)

$$\operatorname{Min} f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} [100(x_{i+1} - x_i^2)^2 + (x_i - 1)^2]$$

subject to  $-30 \le x_1 \le 30$ . The global minimum is located at  $x^* = f(1, 1, 1, ..., 1)$  and  $f(x^*) = 0$ 

8. Rastrigin (Non-linear multimodal. This function is fairly difficult due to the large search space and large number of local minima.)

$$\operatorname{Min} f(\mathbf{x}) = 10\mathbf{n} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} [x_i^2 - 10\cos(2\pi x_i)]$$

subject to  $-5.12 \le x_i \le 5.12$ , i = 1, ..., n. The global minimum is located at  $x^* = f(0, 0, ..., 0)$  and  $f(x^*) = 0$ 

9. Schewefel problem 3 (Continuous, differentiable, non-separable, scalable, unimodal)

$$Min f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i| + \prod_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$

subject to  $-10 \le x_1 \le 10$ . The global minimum is located at  $x^* = f(0, 0, ..., 0)$  and  $f(x^*) = 0$ 

10. Griewank (Continuous, differentiable, nonseparable, scalable, multimodal)

$$\operatorname{Min} f(\mathbf{x}) = 1 + \frac{1}{4000} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - \prod_{i=1}^{n} \cos\left(\frac{x_i}{\sqrt{i}}\right)$$

subject to  $-600 \le x_i \le 600$ . The global minimum is located at  $x^* = f(0, 0, ..., 0)$  and  $f(x^*) = 0$ 

#### 6. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

The primary setback of GA is its several tuning variables which require proper setting. GAs major control parameters and operations which have significant impact on GA's solution quality includes population size, number of generations, crossover and mutation rates [34]. Both of the algorithms used tournament selection and both algorithms are elite preserving with elitism size one. Elitism prevents losing the best found solution so it can very rapidly increase performance of GA. A heavy experimentation study of various possible combinations of crossover probability, mutation rate and tournament size were carried out to determine the optimal parameter setting for both of the RCGAs.

The termination principles and populations size were taken from [32]. The termination principles depends on either an optimum solution found by the algorithm lies within the specified accuracy (0.01) of known optimum or the predetermined maximum number of generations (3,000) is reached, or whichever occurs earlier. Population size is assumed as ten (10) times the number of variables. Each GA has been run 100 times using same initial populations; each run is initiated using a different set of initial population.

*Table 1* shows the final parameter settings;  $P_c$ ,  $P_m$  and  $T_s$  represent crossover and mutation rate and tournament size respectively. We recommend these parameter settings for the present study based on the positive results obtained for majority problems. However, these parameters may not be suitable for other problems in general. According to [35] there has been no general conclusion drawn in relation to the optimum parameterization of operators. Both of the algorithms are implemented in MATLAB 2012 and the experiments are done on a Core i5 Processor with 2.40GHz speed and 4.00GB RAM under Windows 7 platform.

#### 7. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The present study is aimed at measuring the performance of the newly designed mutator, STPM for the criterions of accuracy, efficiency, reliability (robustness) and quality of solutions found. In this case, accuracy is measured by the degree of precision in locating global minima. Efficiency is measured by the number of function evaluations needed. Reliability (robustness) is measured by the number of successes in finding the global



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minimum, or at least approaching it sufficiently closely. All the performance evaluation criteria are calculated based on success run only and they are logged for each algorithm and benchmark function.

When  $f(x)_{\text{FoundOpt}} - f(x)_{\text{KnownOpt}} \le 0.01$ , it is defined as a success run, where  $f(x)_{\text{FoundOpt}}$  is the optimum value found when the algorithm terminates and  $f(x)_{\text{KnownOpt}}$  is the known global minimum of the problem.

Success rate (SR) =  $\frac{Number \ of \ successful \ runs}{Total \ number \ of \ runs} \ge 100$ 

Average error (AE) =  $\frac{\sum_{n} (f(x)_{FoundOpt} - f(x)_{KnownOpt})}{n}$ where, n is the total number of runs.

Average number of function evaluations (AFE).

*Table 2* shows the results of AFE and SR of all the ten (10) problems for both of the algorithms. It is observed that both algorithms are able to solve all the ten (10) problems. LX-STPM requires less function evaluation except function no 3. Both algorithms achieved 100% success rate for seven (7) of the problems (function no. 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 10). For the remaining three (3) problems (function no. 5, 7 and 9), LX-STPM achieved higher success rate. In 9 out of 10 problems, LX-STPM totally outperforms LX-LLM on both of the criterions. It proved that LX-STPM to be a more reliable and efficient algorithm.

*Table 3* shows the results of mean, standard deviation and AE of all the ten (10) problems for both algorithms. Mean and standard deviation of the objective functions are to compare the quality of the solutions found. All the mean objective function values and the corresponding standard deviations achieved by LX-STPM are lower than LX-LLM except function no 9. Furthermore, LX-STPM produced lower average error for all the problems, except function no. 3. In 8 out of 10 problems, LX-STPM totally outperforms LX-LLM on all three criterions. It proved that LX-STPM to be a more accurate algorithm.

#### 8. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, a real coded mutation operator called Scale Truncated Pareto Mutation (STPM) is proposed. This operator is implemented based on the formula to generate Pareto random variables. The performance of STPM is compared with an existing real coded mutation called Log Logistic Mutation (LLM). In order to have a fair comparison, both of the mutating operators made use of the same crossover called Laplace Crossover (LX) adapted from the literature. The performance of the two real coded genetic algorithms (RCGAs) which are LX-STPM and LX-LLM are tested on a set of 10 benchmark global optimization test problems. Optimal parameters were set up for both of the RCGAs to run the experiments. Numerical results presented in Table 2 shows that LX-STPM outperformed LX-LLM in all aspects and proved its reliability (robustness) and efficiency through the evaluation performance of success rate (SR) and average number of function evaluations (AFE) respectively. In the same light, numerical results in Table 3 shows that LX-STPM outperforms LX-LLM in all aspects and proved its accuracy through the evaluation performance of average error, mean of objective function and its corresponding standard deviation.

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Figure 1: Flow Chart Of Both RCGAs Used For Comparative Study

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GA name	Nonscalable				Scalable	
	$P_c$ $P_m$ $T_s$ $P_c$ $P_m$				Ts	
LX-STPM	0.65	0.02	3	0.7	0.003	5
LX-LLM	0.70	0.02	3	0.65	0.003	4

Table 1: Parameter Setting For LX-STPM And LX-LLM

Table 2: Computational Results Of Average Function Evaluation And Success Rate For All Ten (10) Problems

Function	Average Function Evaluation		Succ	Success Rate		
number	LX-STPM	LX-LLM	LX-STPM	LX-LLM		
F1	129	325	100	100		
F2	183	282	100	100		
F3	636	528	100	100		
F4	249	452	100	100		
F5	103	883	80	64		
F6	29,036	35,357	100	100		
F7	152,254	183,475	85	72		
F8	111,848	170,659	100	100		
F9	40,573	50,598	95	86		
F10	60,392	85,923	100	100		

Table 3: Computational Results Of Mean Of Objective Function And Its Corresponding Standard Deviation And Average Error For All Ten (10) Problems.

Function	unction Mean Stan		Standar	d deviation	Average Error	
number	LX-STPM	LX-LLM	LX-STPM	LX-LLM	LX-STPM	LX-LLM
F1	-9.98719E-01	-9.91523E-01	3.32749E-03	3.85425E-03	0.00528	0.00531
F2	6.17831E-03	8.18410E-03	2.87192E-03	5.04177E-03	0.00418	0.00556
F3	4.10057E-03	5.23552E-03	2.89004E-03	3.55337E-03	0.00610	0.00521
F4	3.06635E-03	4.46216E-03	1.51638E-03	3.19989E-03	0.00446	0.00583
F5	9.00470E-01	9.05827E-01	1.68268E-03	2.57211E-03	0.00047	0.01331
F6	5.65324E-03	5.72380E-03	3.53404E-03	4.07646E-03	0.00565	0.00731
F7	6.38204E-03	9.43741E-03	2.95392E-03	4.29061E-03	0.00638	0.01892
F8	7.44700E-03	8.56542E-03	1.55854E-03	2.99504E-03	0.00545	0.00621
F9	6.53018E-03	4.87891-E03	2.17720E-03	1.48336E-03	0.00653	0.00712
F10	7.92909E-03	9.71529-E03	5.16224E-05	9.12719E-05	0.00921	0.00997