



Neutrality through transcription and translation in genetic algorithm representation

Title	Neutrality through transcription and translation in genetic algorithm representation
Author(s)	Hill, Seamus;O'Riordan, Colm
Publication Date	2012-10-05
Publisher	SciTePress Digital Library
Repository DOI	10.5220/0004156702200225

Neutrality through Transcription & Translation in Genetic Algorithm Representation

Seamus Hill¹, Colm O’Riordan¹

¹*Discipline of Information Technology, College of Engineering and Informatics, National University of Ireland Galway, Galway, Ireland*
{seamus.hill, colm.oriordan}@nuigalway.ie

Keywords: Genetic Algorithms: Representation: Neutrality: Genotype-Phenotype Mapping: Transcription: Translation

Abstract: This paper examines the use of the biological concepts of transcription and translation, to introduce neutrality into the representation of a genetic algorithm (GA). The aim of the paper is to attempt to identify problem characteristics which may benefit from the inclusion of neutrality, through a basic adaptation of the concepts of transcription and translation, to create a genotype-phenotype map (GP-map) which introduces phenotypic variability. Neutrality can be viewed as a situation where a number of different genotypes represent the same phenotype. A modification of De Jong’s classic test suite was used to compare the performance of a simple generic algorithm (SGA) and a multi layered mapping genetic algorithm (MMGA), which incorporates the concepts of transcription and translation into its GP-map. The modified De Jong test suite was chosen as it is well understood and has been used in numerous comparisons over the years, thus allowing us to contrast the performance of the MMGA against other GA variations as well as attempting to identify problem characteristics in isolation. Initial results indicate that the neutrality introduced through the multi-layered mapping can prove beneficial for problems containing certain characteristics, in particular multidimensional, multimodal, continuous and deterministic.

1 Introduction

Genetic Algorithms (GAs) as outlined by (Holland, 1975) are optimisation techniques based on Darwinian survival of the fittest. In GAs the *genotype space* can be defined using distance metrics based on an operator (i.e. single bit-flip for binary spaces) to define a neighbourhood structure over the population of solutions. The *phenotype* on the other hand can be viewed as the final result, or a search space based on distance metrics between solutions. The neighbourhood structure contained within this space may bear little relationship to the neighbourhood found in the genotype space and is directly related to the complexity of the mapping from the representation to the solution (Eiben and Smith, 2003). The multi-layered mapping GA (MMGA), builds upon this and introduces complexity into the mapping between the genotype and phenotype through a simplified adaptation of the biological processes of *transcription* and *translation*. The motivation for using a multi-layered GA, is to further investigate possible advantages in using a fixed non-trivial GP-map, which introduces a more flexible phenotypic structure and a higher degree of pheno-

typic variability through the use of neutrality (Hill and O’Riordan, 2011). In order to achieve this we have chosen a modified version of De Jong’s test suite (De Jong, 1975), as it was originally designed to examine the performance of algorithms over various characteristics, measured in isolation and commonly found in many problem domains. The contribution of this paper is to obtain a better understanding of how the inclusion of neutrality associated with the complexity of the mapping, which develops a more flexible phenotypic structure, impacts on the algorithms search capabilities for each of the characteristics, viewed in isolation. The aim is to build on previous research and identify which characteristics may be most likely to benefit from the inclusion of neutrality and developing a better understanding of the types of problems where increased phenotypic variability may be advantageous.

The paper is laid out as follows; Section 2 introduces related work, Section 3 outlines the adaptation of the biological processes of transcription and translation. Section 4 describes the test suite chosen. With Section 5 outlining the experiments and Section 6 the conclusion.

2 Related Work

Neutrality can be defined as a situation where following a mutation one genotype changes to another genotype, but both genotypes represent the same phenotype (Kimura, 1968). This implies that as neutrality is introduced, the solution space increases without increasing the genotype space. Neutral representations have appeared in a number of genetic algorithms (GAs) over the past number of years. As a general rule, the introduction of neutrality into GAs can be divided into two categories, fitness landscapes and the focus of this paper, genotype-phenotype mappings (GP-map). Shipman (Shipman, 1999) found neutrality to be advantageous where neutral networks, introduced by Harvey and Thompson (Harvey and Thompson, 1996) - meaning points in a search space of equal fitness, are distributed over the search space with a high degree of connectivity between them.

Shakelton (Shackleton et al., 2000) and Shipman (Shipman et al., 2000) showed that neutrality could be introduced through the use of GP-maps. They used five different mappings to illustrate this, *static random mapping*, *trivial voting mapping*, *standard voting mappings*, *cellular automata mapping* and a *random Boolean network (RBN)*. The results obtained indicated that the amount of redundancy present was significant in relation to evolution. This approach of using mappings was extended by Ebner et al. (Ebner et al., 2001), who took two of the mappings, cellular automata and RBN with what they referred to as *phenotype-species mapping*. They outlined how high levels of mutation could be sustained by having neutral networks present. They also identified that neutral networks assist in maintaining diversity in the population, which may be advantageous in a changing environment. Similar conclusions were obtained in (Hill and O’Riordan, 2010) where the MMGA was applied to changing environments. Neutrality has also been introduced through the use of an adaptation of a translation table (Ashlock et al., 2011).

3 Multi-Layered Mapping Genetic Algorithms (MMGA)

The primary inspiration for the MMGA comes from the biological idea of *transcription* and *translation*. At a very basic level, the biological process of transcription involves the copying of information stored in DNA into an RNA molecule, which is complementary to one strand of the DNA. The process of translation then converts the RNA, using a pre-defined translation table, to manufacture proteins by

joining amino acids. These proteins can be viewed as a manifestation of the genetic code contained within DNA and act as organic catalysts in anatomy. The MMGA includes a multi-layered genotype-phenotype map which adopts a basic interpretation of the transcription and translation processes. The genotype of the MMGA representation is represented as a binary string which allows for the use of standard operators. The genotype is then converted into a string of characters from the alphabet $A, C, G,$ and T (which attempts to represent the template strand), with “00” representing A , “01” representing C , “10” representing G and “11” representing T . The mapping moves onto the next layer which creates a coding strand from the template strand using the four letter alphabet A, C, G, U (see Table 1). This final phase of the transcription stage creates the RNA sequence which is complementary to that of the DNA template strand and therefore is the same sequence as the DNA coding strand, with U in place of T . Following the transcription stage,

Transcription Stage		
Template Strand Map	Coding Strand Map	RNA Map
00 → A	A → T	T → U
01 → C	C → G	G → G
10 → G	G → C	C → C
11 → T	T → A	A → A

Table 1: Transcription Stage Consisting of Template Map, Coding Map & RNA Map

the translation stage compares the RNA sequence to a translation table which is generated at initialisation to create a mapping from the RNA sequence into a series of phenes which are then combined to create the phenotype. A neighbourhood equivalence examination is used by the MMGA to create a phene. In this paper we use two phenes, “0” and “1”, with each phene being represented by a combination of four characters from the alphabet A, C, G, U (see Tables 2 and 3). The outcome of this interpretation of transcription and translation introduces a level of neutrality into the GP-map.

Extract of Translation Table for Creating Phene ‘0’							
AAAA	AAAG	AACA	AACG	AAGA	AAGG	AAUA	AAUG
ACAA	ACAG	ACCA	ACCG	ACGA	ACGG	ACUA	ACUG
AGAA	AGAG	AGCA	AGCG	AGGA	AGGG	AGUA	AGUG
AUAA	AUAG	AUCA	AUCG	AUGA	AUGG	AUUA	AUUG
CAAA	CAAG	CACA	CACG	CAGA	CAGG	CAUA	CAUG
CCAA	CCAG	CCCA	CCCG	CCGA	CCGG	CCUA	CCUG
CGAA	CGAG	CGCA	CGCG	CGGA	CGGG	CGUA	CGUG
CUAA	CUAG	CUCA	CUCG	CUGA	CUGG	CUUA	CUUG

Table 2: Extract of Translation Table for the combining of *amino acids* to create Phene 0

Extract of Translation Table for Creating Phene '1'							
AAAC	AAAU	AACC	AACU	AAGC	AAGU	AAUC	AAUU
ACAC	ACAU	ACCC	ACCU	ACGC	ACGU	ACUC	ACUU
AGAC	AGAU	AGCC	AGCU	AGGC	AGGU	AGUC	AGUU
AUAC	AUAU	AUCC	AUCU	AUGC	AUGU	AUUC	AUUU
CAAC	CAAU	CACC	CACU	CAGC	CAGU	CAUC	CAUU
CCAC	CCAU	CCCC	CCCU	CCGC	CCGU	CCUC	CCUU
CGAC	CGAU	CGCC	CGCU	CGGC	CGGU	CGUC	CGUU
CUAC	CUAU	CUCC	CUCU	CUGC	CUGU	CUUC	CUUU

Table 3: Extract of Translation Table for the combining of amino acids to create Phene 1

4 Test Suite

The DeJong (De Jong, 1975) test suite was created as a test environment containing five minimising problems. The functions were chosen by De Jong because they represented many common difficulties found in optimisation problems.

4.1 The Sphere Function:

The first function (f_1) is relatively easy to optimise as it is smooth, convex and unimodal. This function is normally used to measure the efficiency of a particular algorithm. A graphical representation of the generalised Sphere function is shown in Figure 1 and the function has the following definition: $f_1 = \sum_{i=1}^2 x_i^2$, where $-5.12 \leq x_i \leq 5.12$.

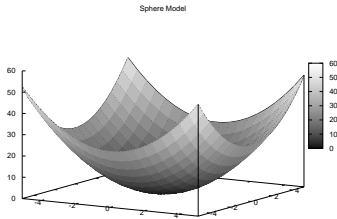


Figure 1: The Sphere Model.

4.2 Rosenbrock's Function:

The second function (f_2), Rosenbrock's function, is a frequently used optimisation problem. It is a two-dimensional function containing a deep valley, shaped like a parabola. Figure 2, illustrates Rosenbrock's function and the function has the following definition: $f_2 = 100(x_1^2 - x_2)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2$, where $-2.048 \leq x_i \leq 2.048$.

4.3 The Step Function

The third function (f_3), the Step function, represents problems with flat surfaces, which prove difficult for many algorithms as they don't provide information as

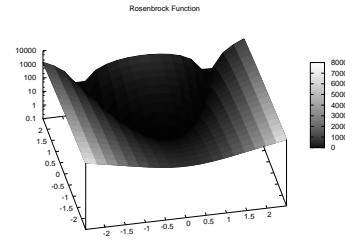


Figure 2: Rosenbrock's Function.

to the most advantageous direction. Figure 3 shows a plot for the Step function. The Step function has the following definition: $f_3 = \sum_{i=1}^5 \text{floor}(x_i)$, where $-5.12 \leq x_i \leq 5.12$.

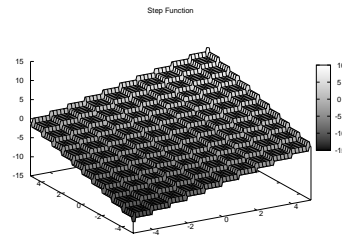


Figure 3: Step Function.

4.4 Quadratic Function with Noise

The fourth function (f_4) is a quadratic function which includes gaussian noise. For these experiments we are using a 30-dimensional function which contains noise to ensure that points return a different value each time they are evaluated. The plot for the Quadratic function without noise is illustrated in Figure 4. The Quadratic function with noise is defined as follows: $f_4 = \sum_{i=1}^{30} (ix_i^4 + \text{Gauss}(0, 1))$, where $-1.28 \leq x_i \leq 1.28$

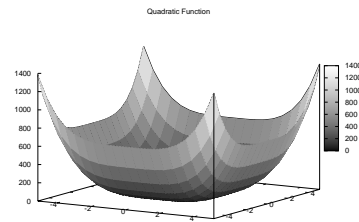


Figure 4: Quadratic Function.

4.5 Shekel's Foxhole Function:

The fifth and final function (f_5), Shekel's Foxhole, contains many local optima. This 2-dimensional function contains 25 different foxholes, each varying in depth, surrounded by relatively flat surfaces.

Shekel's Foxhole function has the following definition: $f_5(x_i) = 0.002 + \sum_{j=1}^{25} \left(\frac{1}{j} + \sum_{i=1}^2 (x_i - a_{ij})^6 \right)$, where $-65.536 \leq x_i \leq 65.536$

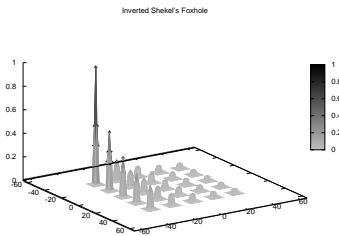


Figure 5: Shekel's Foxholes.

5 Experiment Results

The results of the experiments conducted in this paper are each averaged over 50 runs. We have taken De Jong's test suite which was originally designed as a minimising problem and changed them to maximising problems. The results outline both the on-line performance, that is the measure of the average fitness of all members of the population, and the off-line performance, that is maximum fitness of the population. The parameters used for the experiments are as follows; Crossover rate 0.70, Mutation rate 0.001, Population size 200. The number of generations varied for each set of experiments and are as follows; the Sphere Model ran for 100 generations, Rosenbrock's function for 2000 generations, the Step function for 500 generations, the Quadratic function with noise for 500 generations and finally Shekel's function for 500 generations.

5.1 The Sphere Model

The results of the Sphere model experiments are shown in Figure 6, which illustrates the findings for both the SGA and the MMGA, showing the off-line performance and on-line performance for each generation. The problem is three dimensional and the optimum is achieved where $x_1 = 0$, $x_2 = 0$ and $x_3 = 0$. In the experiments conducted, both the SGA and the MMGA locate the global optimum (i.e. $f_x = (0), x(i) = 0, i = 1 : n$, where $n = 3$) very quickly. Both the off-line and the on-line performance for the SGA are very similar, indicating that with the SGA, as the population converges towards the fittest individual the average is also converging towards the fittest level. The MMGA's off-line performance is similar to that of the SGA, however its on-line performance falls

short of that of the SGA, due to the level of neutrality present in the MMGA's representation. Although not visible in the figures, the earliest on average location of the optimum for the SGA is during generation 83, while the global optimum for the MMGA is located much sooner, on average during generation 25. Overall, the differences between the SGA and MMGA over this problem are negligible.

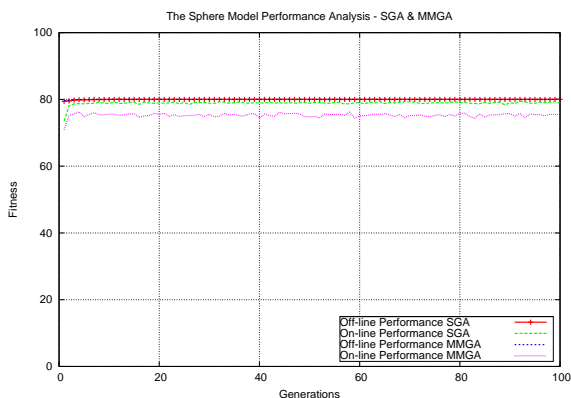


Figure 6: The Sphere Model - SGA & MMGA.

5.2 Rosenbrock's Function

The second set of experiments were carried out over Rosenbrock's function, with the intention of testing the performance of the algorithms in dealing with the repeatedly changing direction of the search. The global optimum for this two dimensional problems is where $x_1 = 1$ and $x_2 = 1$ (or when $f(x) = 0, x(i) = 1, i - 1 : n$, where $n = 2$). Figure 7 illustrates the performance of both GAs. The global optimum is lo-

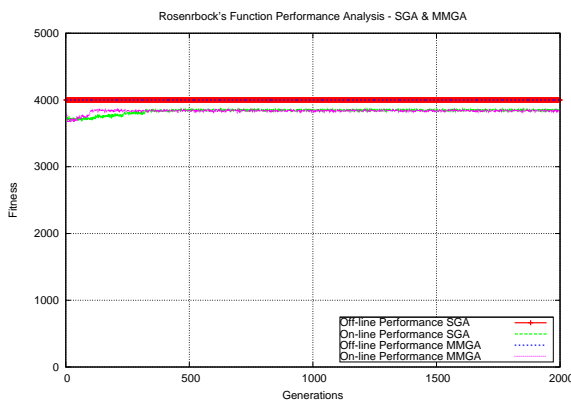


Figure 7: Rosenbrock's Saddle - SGA & MMGA

cated by the SGA, on average over the 50 runs, at generation 249 as the ridge is relatively easy to locate. The difficulty associated with this function lies in its ability to converge. The on-line performance of the population indicates the level of convergence. As was

the case with the Sphere Model experiments, the off-line and on-line performance moves closer together to as the search progresses. Looking at the off-line performance of the MMGA, it has located the global optimum quite quickly (on average during generation 99). This compares favourably with the SGA, indicating far fewer function evaluations for the MMGA in locating the optimum. Although both the on-line and off-line performances are close, it is interesting to note that the on-line performances appear quite similar for both the SGA and the MMGA. One possible reason for this is that due to the nature of the search space, convergence is not as easy to obtain as was the case with the Sphere function, and both the SGA and the MMGA experience similar difficulties. Overall, the off-line and on-line performance for both the SGA and the MMGA are relatively similar over this space.

5.3 Step Function

This function highlights an algorithms ability not to get trapped on a plateau of local optima. From Figure 8 we see that the SGA performs well and discovers the global optimum (with a fitness level of 30) on average at generation 203, indicating the SGA's off-line performance over the space. Also both the off-line and on-line performances for the SGA are almost identical at an early stage in the search. However, the MMGA discovers the global optimum, on average, during generation 4, which is a significant improvement over the off-line performance of the SGA. With regard to the on-line performance, there is little difference between both algorithms over this problem domain.

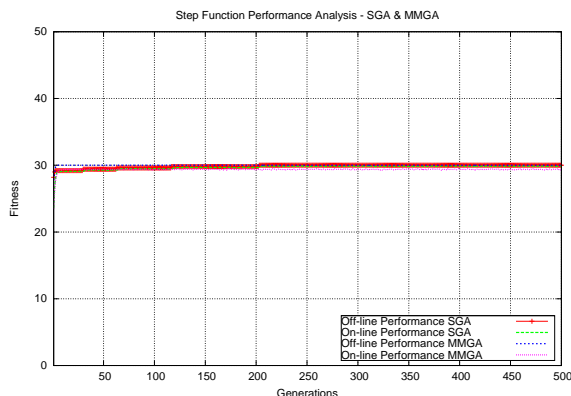


Figure 8: Step Function - SGA & MMGA

5.4 Quadratic Function with Noise

The quadratic function with noise was designed to allow the evaluation of the performance of an algorithm

over a landscape which is continuously altering due to the presence of noise. The results of the experiments are shown in Figure 9. The SGA's best off-line performance occurs on average at generation 492, illustrating the difficulty associated with noise in the search space. Also when we view the on-line performance we can see that it varies per generation again due to the presence of noise. The performances both off-line and on-line for the MMGA look quite similar to that of the SGA, with the best off-line performance for the MMGA occurred on average at generation 440. However, the MMGA recorded a higher off-line performance, which may indicate that in the presence of noise, there may be a benefit associated with the inclusion of the type of neutrality introduced by the MMGA.

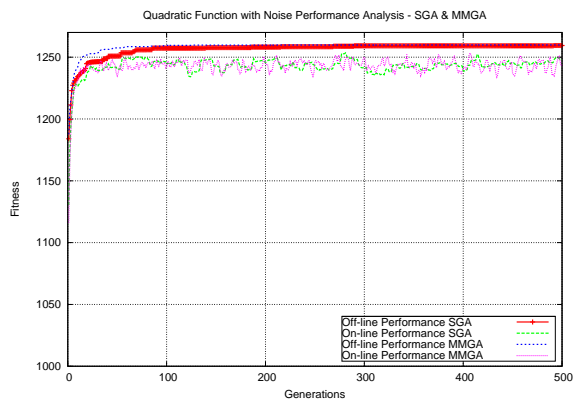


Figure 9: Quadratic Function with Noise - SGA & MMGA

5.5 Shekel's Foxhole's Function

The final set of experiments compare both algorithms over Shekel's Foxhole's function, with the results illustrated in Figure 10. Although both the SGA and the MMGA solved the problem, what is interesting is the way in which they achieved this. The SGA locates the global optimum, on average, during generation 266. The MMGA, on the other hand, locates the global optimum on average at approximately generation 50. The results indicate that there is a significant improvement in performance over the multi-modal landscape of Shekel's Foxholes by including an element of neutrality into the representation. One possible reason for this could be that the neutrality introduced through the multi-layered mapping, reduces the impact of operators such as mutation and crossover and proves beneficial in avoiding getting stuck in a local optima as the search progresses. By partially insulating from the effect of the operators the translation table assists in maintaining a level of knowledge of the domain developed as the search progresses. Overall, the

MMGA has both a better off-line and on-line performance over the SGA for the type of search space produced by Shekel’s function.

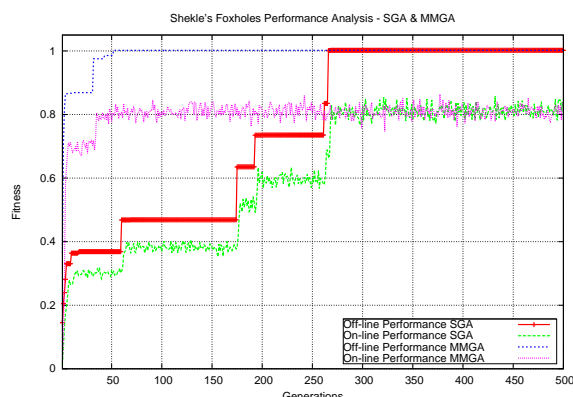


Figure 10: Shekel’s Foxholes - SGA & MMGA

5.6 Statistical Results

A Wilcoxon rank sum test was used to test for statistically significant between the SGA and MMGA and the results are outlined in Table 4.

Function	Results	Statistical Significance
f_1	Off-Line	Highly Significant
f_1	On-Line	Highly Significant
f_2	Off-Line	Highly Significant
f_2	On-Line	Highly Significant
f_3	Off-Line	Highly Significant
f_3	On-Line	Highly Significant
f_4	Off-Line	Highly Significant
f_4	On-Line	Not Significant
f_5	Off-Line	Highly Significant
f_5	On-Line	Highly Significant

Table 4: Wilcoxon Ranksum Test Results

6 Conclusion

Overall the experiments conducted show that for the characteristics present in the Sphere function, the Rosenbrock function, the Step function and the Quadratic function, the benefit of neutrality is not apparent at first sight and for many it is negligible. However, this is not the case for the Shekel’s Foxholes experiments, where the introduction of neutrality into the GP-map has been shown to be beneficial. By including an adaptation of the biological concepts of transcription and translation into a GA to introduce neutrality into the GP-map, the results of the experiments over the modified De Jong test suite, indicate classes of problems

which could possibly benefit from the inclusion of a multi-layered GP-map. The results appear to suggest that the problems most likely to benefit would contain a combination of characteristics such as, low-dimensionality, multi-modality, non-separable, continuous and deterministic.

The authors would like to acknowledge the support of NUI Galway’s Millennium Fund.

REFERENCES

- Ashlock, D., Schonfeld, J., and McNicholas, P. D. (2011). Translation tables: A genetic code in an evolutionary algorithm. In *IEEE Congress on Evolutionary Computation*, pages 2685–2692.
- De Jong, K. A. (1975). *An analysis of the behavior of a class of genetic adaptive systems*. PhD thesis, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. Dissertation Abstracts International 36(10), 5140B; UMI 76-9381.
- Ebner, M., Shackleton, M., and Shipman, R. (2001). How neutral networks influence evolvability. *Complex.*, 7(2):19–33.
- Eiben, A. E. and Smith, J. E. (2003). *Introduction to evolutionary computing*. Springer.
- Harvey, I. and Thompson, A. (1996). Through the labyrinth evolution finds a way: A silicon ridge. In *Proceedings of the First International Conference on Evolvable Systems: From Biology to Hardware*, volume 1259, pages 406–422. Springer Verlag.
- Hill, S. and O’Riordan, C. (2010). Solving fully deceptive problems in changing environments. In *Artificial Intelligence Cognitive Studies (AICS)*, pages 87–95.
- Hill, S. and O’Riordan, C. (2011). Examining the use of a non-trivial fixed genotype-phenotype mapping in genetic algorithms to induce phenotypic variability over deceptive uncertain landscapes. In *Proceedings of the 2011 Congress of Evolutionary Computation (CEC 2011)*. New Orleans, USA.
- Holland, J. H. (1975). *Adaptation in natural artificial systems*. University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.
- Kimura, M. (1968). Evolutionary Rate at the Molecular Level. *Nature*, 217(1):624–626.
- Shackleton, M. A., Shipman, R., and Ebner, M. (2000). An investigation of redundant genotype-phenotype mappings and their role in evolutionary search. In *Proceedings of the International Congress on Evolutionary Computation (CEC 2000)*, pages 493–500. IEEE Press.
- Shipman, R. (1999). Genetic Redundancy: Desirable or Problematic for Evolutionary Adaptation. In Dobnikar, A., Steele, N., Pearson, D. W., and Albrecht, R. F., editors, *Proceedings of the 4th international Conference on Artificial Neural Networks and Genetic Algorithms (ICANNGA ’99)*, pages 337–344, Berlin. Springer.
- Shipman, R., Shackleton, M., and Harvey, I. (2000). The use of neutral genotype-phenotype mappings for improved evolutionary search. *BT Technology Journal*, 18:103–111.