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# Adding Knowledge and Efficient Data Structures to Evolutionary Programming: A Cultural Algorithm for Constrained Optimization

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## Abstract

This paper proposes a technique in which domain knowledge obtained from the search is used to improve the performance of evolutionary programming. Our approach is based on the concept of a cultural algorithm and is applied to constrained optimization problems in which a map of the feasible region is used to guide the search more efficiently. Our implementation uses  $2^n$ -trees to store more efficiently this map of the feasible region. Our results indicate that the approach is able to produce very competitive results (we compared our results with respect to the homomorphous maps) at a considerably low computational cost.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Evolutionary Computation (EC) techniques have become increasingly popular in the last few years. This popularity is mainly due to the fact that EC techniques have been able to successfully solve a wide variety of complex problems [8].

However, EC techniques are normally used as “blind heuristics” in the sense that no specific domain knowledge is used or required. Nevertheless, several researchers have proposed different mechanisms to extract knowledge (or certain design patterns) from an evolutionary algorithm to improve convergence of another one (e.g., [23, 14]).

In this paper, we propose the use of a biological metaphor called “cultural algorithm” as a global optimization technique. Cultural algorithms are based on the following notion: in advanced societies, the improvement of individuals occurs beyond natural selection; besides the information that an individual pos-

seses within his genetic code (inherited from his ancestors) there is another component called “culture”. Culture can be seen as a sort of repository where individuals place the information acquired after years of experience. When a new individual has access to this library of information, it can learn things even when it has not experienced them directly. Humankind as a whole has reached its current degree of progress mainly due to culture.

In this paper, we propose an approach in which domain knowledge (using the concept of cultural algorithm) extracted during a run of an evolutionary algorithm is used to guide the search more efficiently in constrained optimization problems [18, 3].

## 2 NOTIONS OF CULTURAL ALGORITHMS

Some social researchers have suggested that culture might be symbolically encoded and transmitted within and between populations, as another inheritance mechanism [6, 20]. Using this idea, Reynolds [21] developed a computational model in which cultural evolution is seen as an inheritance process that operates at two levels: the micro-evolutionary and the macro-evolutionary levels.

At the micro-evolutionary level, individuals are described in terms of “behavioral traits” (which could be socially acceptable or unacceptable). These behavioral traits are passed from generation to generation using several socially motivated operators. At the macro-evolutionary level, individuals are able to generate “mappa” [20], or generalized descriptions of their experiences. Individual mappa can be merged and modified to form “group mappa” using a set of generic or problem specific operators. Both levels share a communication link. Reynolds [21] proposed the use of genetic algorithms to model the micro-evolutionary

process, and Version Spaces [19] to model the macro-evolutionary process of a cultural algorithm.

The main idea behind this approach is to preserve beliefs that are socially accepted and discard (or prune) unacceptable beliefs. Therefore, if we apply a cultural algorithm for global optimization, then acceptable beliefs can be seen as constraints that direct the population at the micro-evolutionary level [16].

### 3 PREVIOUS WORK

Reynolds et al. [22] and Chung & Reynolds [2] have explored the use of cultural algorithms for global optimization with very encouraging results. Chung and Reynolds [2] use a hybrid of evolutionary programming and GENOCOP [17] in which they incorporate an interval constraint-network [4] to represent the constraints of the problem at hand. An individual is considered as “acceptable” when it satisfies all the constraints of the problem. When that does not happen, then the belief space, *i.e.*, the intervals associated with the constraints, is adjusted. This approach is really a more sophisticated version of a repair algorithm in which an infeasible solution is made feasible by replacing its genes by a different value between its lower and upper bounds. Since GENOCOP assumes a convex search space, it is relatively easy to design operators that can exploit a search direction towards the boundary between the feasible and infeasible regions.

In more recent work, Jin and Reynolds [11] proposed an  $n$ -dimensional regional-based schema, called *belief-cell*, as an explicit mechanism that supports the acquisition, storage and integration of knowledge about non-linear constraints in a cultural algorithm. This *belief-cell* can be used to guide the search of an EC technique (evolutionary programming in this case) by pruning the instances of infeasible individuals and promoting the exploration of promising regions of the search space. The key aspect of this work is precisely how to represent and save the knowledge about the problem constraints in the belief space of the cultural algorithm.

The idea of Jin and Reynolds’ approach is to build a map of the search space similar to the “Divide-and-Label” approaches used for robot motion planning [13]. This map is built using information derived from evaluating the constraints of each individual in the population of the EC technique. The map is formed by dividing the search space in sub-areas called *cells*. Each cell can be classified as: feasible (if it lies completely on a feasible region), infeasible (if it lies completely on an infeasible region), semi-feasible (if it occupies part

of the feasible and part of the infeasible regions), or unknown (if that region has not been explored yet). This map is used to derive rules about how to guide the search of the EA (avoiding infeasible regions and promoting the exploration of feasible regions).

### 4 CONSTRAINED OPTIMIZATION

In this paper, we use cultural algorithms with evolutionary programming (CAEP) [2]. The basic idea is to “influence” the mutation operator (the only operator in evolutionary programming) so that current knowledge about the properties of the search space can be properly exploited.

In a cultural algorithm there are two main spaces: the normal population adopted with evolutionary programming and the belief space. The shared acquired knowledge is stored in the belief space during the evolution of the population. The interactions between these two spaces are described as follows [2]:

1. Select an initial population of  $p$  candidate solutions, from a uniform distribution within the given domain for each parameter from 1 to  $n$ .
2. Assess the performance score of each parent solution by a given objective function  $f$ .
3. Initialize the belief space with the given problem domain and candidate solutions.
4. Generate  $p$  new offspring solutions by applying a variation operator,  $V$ , as modified by the influence function,  $Influence$ . Now there are  $2p$  solutions in the population.
5. Assess the performance score of each offspring solutions by the given objective function  $f$ .
6. For each individual, select  $c$  competitors at random from the population of size  $2p$ . Conduct pairwise competitions between the individual and the competitors.
7. Select the  $p$  solutions that have the greatest number of wins to be parents for the next generation.
8. Update the belief space by accepting individuals using the acceptance function.
9. Go back to step 4 unless the available execution time is exhausted or an acceptable solution has been discovered.

Most of the steps previously described are the same as in evolutionary programming [7]. The acceptance

function accepts those individuals that can contribute with their knowledge to the belief space. The update function creates the new belief space with the beliefs of the accepted individuals. The idea is to add to the current knowledge the new knowledge acquired by the accepted individuals.

The function to generate offspring used in evolutionary programming is modified so that it includes the influence of the belief space in the generation of offspring. Evolutionary programming uses only mutation and the influence function indicates the most promising mutation direction. The remaining steps are the same used in evolutionary programming.

For unconstrained problems, Chung [1] proposes the use of two types of knowledge: (1) situational, which provides the exact point where the best individual of each generation was found; and (2) normative, which stores intervals for the decision variables of the problem that correspond to the regions where good results were found.

## 5 BELIEFS AS CONSTRAINTS

As we mentioned before, Jin and Reynolds [11] modified Chung’s proposal as to include in the belief space information about feasibility of the solutions. We will explain next the changes performed in more detail, since our current proposal is an extension of Jin & Reynolds’ algorithm.

First, Jin and Reynolds eliminated the situational knowledge and added constraints knowledge. Taking advantage of the intervals of good solutions that are stored in the normative portion of the belief space, they created what they called “belief cells”. These belief cells are a subdivision of the search space within the intervals of good solutions, such that feasibility of the cells can be determined. When the intervals of the variables are modified, the cells are also modified. As indicated before, there are 4 types of cells (see Figure 1)<sup>1</sup>: (1) feasible, (2) infeasible, (3) semi-feasible (contain part of both areas) and (4) unknown.

The influence that the belief space has on the generation of offspring consists of moving individuals that lie on infeasible cells towards feasible cells. Actually, in this process, semi-feasible cells are given preference because in most difficult constrained problems, the optimum lies on the boundary between the feasible and infeasible regions. However, Jin & Reynolds [11] do not modify the rules used to update the normative

<sup>1</sup>Other authors have also proposed the use of a map of the feasible region. See for example [15].

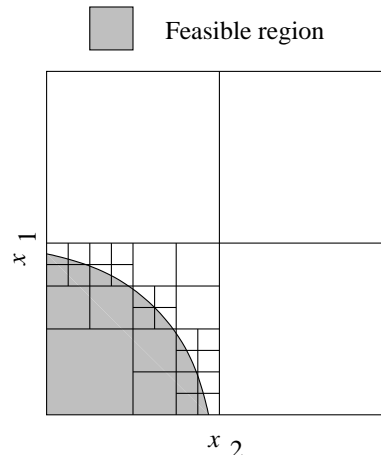


Figure 2: Graphical representation of the division of the semi-feasible cells.

part of the belief space proposed by Chung [1]: the intervals are expanded if the accepted individuals do not fit within them; conversely, they are tightened only if the accepted individuals have a better fitness. This may reduce the intervals towards infeasible regions in which the objective function values are higher.

## 6 PROPOSED APPROACH

The approach proposed here is a variation of Jin & Reynolds’ technique [11]. However, in our case, we incorporate spatial data structures ( $2^n$ -trees) in order to store the map of the feasible region more efficiently. Next we will describe the main differences between traditional evolutionary programming and our approach.

### 6.1 INITIALIZATION OF THE BELIEF SPACE

The lower and upper boundaries of the promising intervals for each variable are stored in the normative part of the belief space, together with the fitness for each extreme of the interval. This part is initialized putting in the boundaries of the variables the values given in the input data of the problem. The initial fitnesses in all cases are set to  $+\infty$ <sup>2</sup>.

Regarding the constraints of the problem, the interval given in the normative part is subdivided into  $s$  subintervals such that a portion of the search space is divided in hypercubes (see Figure 2). The following information of each hypercube is stored: number of feasible individuals (within that cell), number of infeasible individuals (within that cell), and the type of

<sup>2</sup>This is assuming a minimization problem.

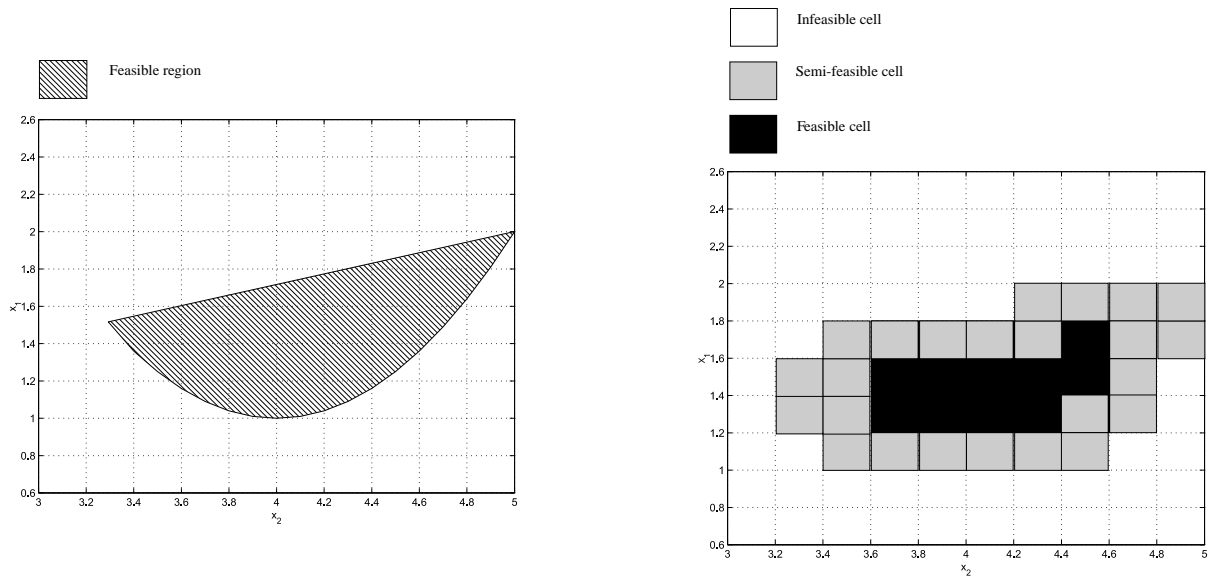


Figure 1: The figure at the left illustrates the feasible region of a problem. The figure at the right illustrates the representation of the constraints part of the belief space for the search space of the same problem. In this example, the intervals stored in the normative part must be  $[0.6, 2.6]$  for  $x_1$ , and  $[3, 5]$  for  $x_2$ .

region. The type of region depends on the feasibility of the individuals within. Four types are defined:

- if *feasible individuals* = 0 and *infeasible individuals* = 0, then *cell type* = *unknown*
- if *feasible individuals* > 0 and *infeasible individuals* = 0, then *cell type* = *feasible*
- if *feasible individuals* = 0 and *infeasible individuals* > 0, then *cell type* = *infeasible*
- if *feasible individuals* > 0 and *infeasible individuals* > 0, then *cell type* = *semi - feasible*

To initialize this part, all counters are set to zero and the cell type is initialized to “unknown” (other values could be used in this case, but that would obviously affect the performance of the algorithm).

## 6.2 UPDATING THE BELIEF SPACE

The constraints part of the belief space is updated at each generation, whereas the normative part is updated every  $k$  generations. The update of the constraints part consists only of adding any new individuals that fall into each region to the counter of feasible

individuals. The update of the normative part is more complex (that is the reason why it is not performed at every generation). When the interval of each variable is updated, the cells or hypercubes of the restrictions part are changed and the counters of feasible and infeasible individuals are reinitialized. Furthermore, this update is done taking into consideration only a portion of the population. Such a portion is selected by the function *accept()*, taking as a parameter (given by the user) the percentage of the total population size to be used.

In the approach proposed in this paper, the conditions to reduce the intervals are stronger: an interval is reduced only if the accepted individual has a better fitness AND it is feasible. In order to make this mechanism work, it is necessary to modify the acceptance function so that feasible individuals are preferred and fitness is adopted as a secondary criterion. If this is not done, then the condition for interval reduction will not hold most of the time because the accepted individuals are more likely to be infeasible.

## 6.3 INFLUENCE OF BELIEFS IN THE MUTATION OPERATOR

Mutation takes place for each variable of each individual, with the influence of the belief space and in accordance with the following rules:

- If the variable  $j$  of the parent is outside the in-

terval given by the normative part of the constraints, then we attempt to move within such interval through the use of a random variable.

- If the variable is within a feasible, a semi-feasible or an unknown hypercube, the perturbation is done trying to place it within the same hypercube or very close to it.
- Finally, if the variable is in an infeasible cell, we try to move it first to the closest semi-feasible cell. However, if none is found, we try to move it to the feasible or unknown closest cell. If that does not work either, then we move it to a random position within the interval defined by the normative part.

#### 6.4 TOURNAMENT SELECTION

The rules for updating the belief space may produce that knowledge becomes specialized at a slower rate. To improve the speed of the algorithm, we take advantage of the rules for performing tournament selection. After performing mutation, we will have a population of size  $2p$  ( $p$  parents generate  $p$  children). Tournament is performed considering the entire population (i.e., we use  $(\mu + \lambda)$  selection). Tournaments consist of  $c$  confrontations per individual, with the  $c$  opponents randomly chosen from the entire population. When the tournaments finish, the  $p$  individuals with the largest number of victories are selected to form the following generation. The tournament rules adopted for the current proposal are very similar to those adopted by Deb in his penalty approach based on feasibility [5]. However, unlike Deb’s approach, in our case, we never add violated constraints (as normally done with penalty-based approaches).

The new tournament rules adopted by our approach are the following:

1. If both individuals are feasible, or both are infeasible, then the individual with the best fitness value wins.
2. Otherwise, the feasible individual always wins.

#### 6.5 USE OF $2^n$ -TREES

One of the main drawbacks of Jin & Reynolds’ approach [11] is its intense memory usage. Since the belief maps of each decision variable has to be stored, the approach runs out of memory very fast and cannot possible handle problems with more than a few decision variables (memory requirements grow exponentially with the number of decision variables of the

problem). This led us to develop a scheme in which  $2^n$ -trees are used to partition the feasible region in cells so that with higher-dimensionality problems the memory usage is not exponentially increased. The idea was inspired by the popularity of spatial data structures to store efficiently navigation maps in robotics [13] and to represent efficiently 3D objects in computer graphics [10].

In order to be able to use  $2^n$ -trees within our implementation, we have to partition only the projection of the search space in some dimensions, since  $2^n$ -trees have practical use only when  $n \leq 4$ , where  $n$  corresponds to the number of decision variables of our problem [13]. An example of how to partition a 2D space using a quadtree with a depth of 2 is shown in Figure 3.

Note that the decision of how to partition decision variable space as to comply with this restriction is very important since the number of nodes used may be incremented rather than reduced! For example, if an octree is adopted, using a node division we will divide three dimensions and our tree will have  $2^3 + 1 = 9$  nodes in total. However, if we use a tree that divides only one dimension and through 3 successive divisions we partition a 3D space, the leaf nodes will have the same result that the octree but using 15 nodes.

From the previous discussion we can infer that we should use a  $2^n$ -tree with the largest possible  $n$ , but being careful of not using too much memory. Our conjecture is that  $n = 3$  is the largest number with which the problem remains manageable.

Once the number of dimensions to be partitioned has been decided, we have to decide which are the dimensions to be partitioned. The idea is to choose the 3D projection that best divides the search space into a feasible and an infeasible region (or regions). However, since the number of possible combinations of three dimensions grows exponentially with the number of variables, it soon becomes impossible to try them all. Therefore, we can choose a group of combinations to be tried such that the size of this group grows linearly with the number of variables of the problem. In order to determine the “goodness” of a certain partition, we have to count the number of feasible and infeasible individuals in each leaf node. A node will be considered good as long as one of these two values (i.e., feasible and infeasible individuals) tends to zero. For example, let’s assume that  $n_f$  is the number of feasible individuals in a certain node and that  $n_i$  is the number of infeasible individuals in that same node. Thus, a small number  $\min(n_f, n_i)$  in each node will indicate a good partition. From the previous discussion, we can say

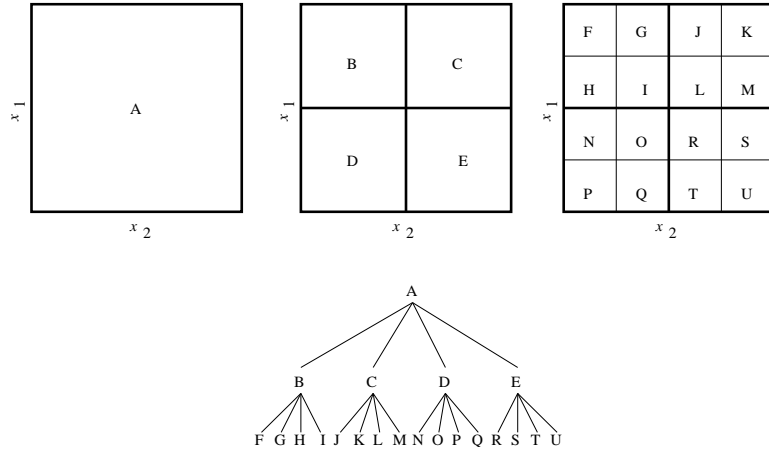


Figure 3: Example of the partition of a 2D space using a quadtree of depth two.

that we are looking for a partition that minimizes:

$$\lambda = \sum_{\text{leaf nodes}} \min(n_f, n_i)$$

Having this partition, we can continue partitioning with the same method until reaching the maximum allowable depth. Since we have tried several partitioning methods for a single node division, it is a better choice to choose a small depth limit so that no much time is spent in the creation of the tree.

The method described to expand nodes is only done for nodes corresponding to semi-feasible cells, and it stops when reaches the maximum depth of the tree. The tree is rebuilt every time the normative part is updated.

## 7 COMPARISON OF RESULTS

To validate our approach, we have used some test functions from the well-known benchmark proposed in [18] which has been often used in the literature to validate new constraint-handling techniques. The specific test functions used are the following:

### 1. g01:

Minimize:

$$f(\vec{x}) = 5 \sum_{i=1}^4 x_i - 5 \sum_{i=1}^4 x_i^2 - \sum_{i=5}^{13} x_i$$

subject to:

$$g_1(\vec{x}) = 2x_1 + 2x_2 + x_{10} + x_{11} - 10 \leq 0$$

$$g_2(\vec{x}) = 2x_1 + 2x_3 + x_{10} + x_{12} - 10 \leq 0$$

$$g_3(\vec{x}) = 2x_2 + 2x_3 + x_{11} + x_{12} - 10 \leq 0$$

$$g_4(\vec{x}) = -8x_1 + x_{10} \leq 0$$

$$g_5(\vec{x}) = -8x_2 + x_{11} \leq 0$$

$$g_6(\vec{x}) = -8x_3 + x_{12} \leq 0$$

$$g_7(\vec{x}) = -2x_4 - x_5 + x_{10} \leq 0$$

$$g_8(\vec{x}) = -2x_6 - x_7 + x_{11} \leq 0$$

$$g_9(\vec{x}) = -2x_8 - x_9 + x_{12} \leq 0$$

where the bounds are  $0 \leq x_i \leq 1$  ( $i = 1, \dots, 9$ ),  $0 \leq x_i \leq 100$  ( $i = 10, 11, 12$ ) and  $0 \leq x_{13} \leq 1$ .

### 2. g04:

Minimize:

$$f(\vec{x}) = 5.3578547x_3^2 + 0.8356891x_1x_5 + 37.293239x_1 - 40792.141$$

subject to:

$$\begin{aligned}
g_1(\vec{x}) &= 85.334407 + 0.0056858x_2x_5 + \\
&0.0006262x_1x_4 - 0.0022053x_3x_5 - 92 \leq 0 \\
g_2(\vec{x}) &= -85.334407 - 0.0056858x_2x_5 - \\
&0.0006262x_1x_4 + 0.0022053x_3x_5 \leq 0 \\
g_3(\vec{x}) &= 80.51249 + 0.0071317x_2x_5 + \\
&0.0029955x_1x_2 + 0.0021813x_3^2 - 110 \leq 0 \\
g_4(\vec{x}) &= -80.51249 - 0.0071317x_2x_5 - \\
&0.0029955x_1x_2 - 0.0021813x_3^2 + 90 \leq 0 \\
g_5(\vec{x}) &= 9.300961 + 0.0047026x_3x_5 + \\
&0.0012547x_1x_3 + 0.0019085x_3x_4 - 25 \leq 0 \\
g_6(\vec{x}) &= -9.300961 - 0.0047026x_3x_5 - \\
&0.0012547x_1x_3 - 0.0019085x_3x_4 + 20 \leq 0
\end{aligned}$$

where:  $78 \leq x_1 \leq 102$ ,  $33 \leq x_2 \leq 45$ ,  $27 \leq x_i \leq 45$  ( $i = 3, 4, 5$ ).

### 3. g08

Minimize:

$$f(\vec{x}) = \frac{\sin^3(2\pi x_1) \sin(2\pi x_2)}{x_1^3(x_1 + x_2)}$$

subject to:

$$\begin{aligned}
g_1(\vec{x}) &= x_1^2 - x_2 + 1 \leq 0 \\
g_2(\vec{x}) &= 1 - x_1 + (x_2 - 4)^2 \leq 0
\end{aligned}$$

where  $0 \leq x_1 \leq 10$ ,  $0 \leq x_2 \leq 10$ .

### 4. g12

Maximize:

$$f(\vec{x}) = (100 - (x_1 - 5)^2 - (x_2 - 5)^2 - (x_3 - 5)^2) / 100$$

subject to:

$$\begin{aligned}
g(\vec{x}) &= (x_1 - p)^2 + (x_2 - q)^2 + \\
&(x_3 - r)^2 - 0.0625 \leq 0
\end{aligned}$$

where:  $0 \leq x_i \leq 10$  ( $i = 1, 2, 3$ ), and  $p, q, r = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ . The feasible region of the search space consists of  $9^3$  disjointed spheres. A point  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  is feasible if and only if there exist  $p, q, r$  such that the above inequality holds.

The parameters used by our approach are the following: population size = 20, maximum number of generations = 2500, the normative part is updated at every 20 generations with the 25 % of the population

(acceptance %), tournaments consist of 10 encounters by individual (half the population size), the maximum depth of the octree is equal to the number of decision variables of the problem. These parameters were derived empirically after numerous experiments.

Our results are compared to the homomorphous maps of Koziel & Michalewicz [12] (one of the best current constraint-handling techniques for evolutionary algorithms known to date) in Table 1. The results of Koziel and Michalewicz were obtained with 1,400,000 fitness function evaluations, whereas our approach required only 50,020 fitness function evaluations.

As can be seen in Table 1, our approach produces very good results with respect to the homomorphous maps (which is considerably more difficult to implement) at a fraction of its computational cost. The main reason for this cost reduction is that the belief cells are used to guide the search of the evolutionary algorithm very efficiently, avoiding that it moves to unpromising regions of the search space.

## 8 CONCLUSIONS

We have presented an approach based on cultural algorithms and evolutionary programming for constrained optimization. The approach has provided good results at a relatively low computational cost. This suggests that the proper use of domain knowledge may certainly improve the performance of an evolutionary algorithm when this is properly done. Also, it suggests that such domain knowledge may be extracted during the evolutionary process in which we aim to reach the global optimum of a problem. This contrasts with the more conventional approach of using domain knowledge extracted from previous runs of an evolutionary algorithm (see for example [9]).

One of the main drawbacks of cultural algorithms in constrained search spaces (i.e., memory usage) is attacked using spatial data structures that can efficiently store the belief space. Our preliminary results reported in this paper indicate that the approach is a viable alternative, although it is obviously necessary to perform more experiments, particularly in problems with a higher number of decision variables. Such work is currently under way.

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Table 1: Comparison of the results for the test functions selected from [18] using  $2^n$ -trees. Our approach is called CAEP (Cultural Algorithms with Evolutionary Programming) and Koziel & Michalewicz’s approach [12] is denoted by KM.

TF	OPTIMAL	BEST RESULT		MEAN RESULT		WORST RESULT	
		CAEP	KM	CAEP	KM	CAEP	KM
g01	-15	-15.0	-14.7864	-13.7574	-14.7082	-12.0	-14.6154
g04	-30665.539	-30665.539	-30664.5	-30665.539	-30655.3	-30665.537	-30645.9
g08	-0.095825	-0.095825	-0.095825	-0.095825	-0.0891568	-0.095825	-0.0291438
g12	1.000	1.000	0.999999857	0.9994375	0.999134613	0.994375	0.991950498

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