

GENETIC ALGORITHM VERSUS ANT COLONY OPTIMIZATION ALGORITHM

Comparison of Performances in Robot Path Planning Application

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Abstract: This paper presents the results of a research that uses a simulation approach to compare the effectiveness and efficiency of two path planning algorithms. Genetic Algorithm (GA) and Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) Algorithm for Robot Path Planning (RPP) were tested in a global static environment. Both algorithms were applied within a global map that provides feasible nodes from start point to goal. Performances between both algorithms were compared and evaluated in terms of computational efficiency by measuring the speed and number of iterations, accuracy of solution, solution variation and convergence behavior.

1 INTRODUCTION

Path planning (PP) research covers a wide area of robotics research that includes PP in static (Charles.W.Warren, 1993) (Xin, 2005) and dynamic environments (Mei, 2006) (Stentz, 1994). By assuming a robot has knowledge of the environment before it moves, the application of a model based approach to solve RPP problem in a global static environment was used in this research.

Examples of traditional approaches proposed by previous researchers to solve RPP problems are artificial potential field (Khatib, 1985), neural network (Xin, 2005), distance wave transform (Zelinsky, Oct 1993), heuristic algorithm known as A* algorithm (Charles.W.Warren, 1993) (Hart et al., 1968), and D* algorithm (Yahja, 2000). It has been proven in various researches that these algorithms were able to find global path successfully and that the various methods has its own strengths and limitations over others in certain aspect of path planning.

Recently, due to the evolution of PP algorithms (PPAs), researchers are viewing RPP problem as an optimization problem (Sariff, June 2006). This newer method focuses on finding an optimal path from start to destination point while satisfying the optimization criteria for the robot path, such as a short path with small computation time. In order to

solve the PP problem, the applications of artificial technologies (Netnevitsky, 2002) itself have been expanded by utilizing approaches such as Evolutionary Computation; Genetic Algorithm (N.Sivanandam, 2008) (Nagib, 2004) (Tu, 2003) (Ramakrishnan, 2001) and Swarm Intelligence; Ant Colony Optimization (Dorigo, 2004) (Dorigo and Gambardella, 1997) (Gengqian et al., 2005) in RPP research areas. Compared to the traditional approaches, this method provides robust and effective search techniques for optimization purposes which were widely used to solve the RPP problem.

Since its appearance in 1975 (Goldberg, 1994), GA has been used in solving many RPP optimization problems. GA is a search technique inspired by biology where it works based on the principle of the fittest of the chromosomes. With its ability to work with parallel search techniques, the use of GA contributed to the success of many RPP research. For example, (Nagib, 2004) proposed the use of GA to find robot path based on a map of free space nodes. (Sugihara, 1997) and (Ramakrishnan, 2001) also proposed the used of GA with different encoding techniques to ensure GA can find optimal path without depending on the feasible nodes given in the map. (Hu, 2004) modified classical GA by incorporating the domain knowledge into specialized operator to improve GA performances when it works in environments that consists of obstacles. Previous

research indicates that GA can be used to solve RPP in different applications and that the GA process to find the optimal path is affected by the representation of the solution, fitness function evaluation and genetic operators selection.

ACO, compared to GA is a newer optimization method. Introduced by (Dorigo, 2004) in approximately 1992, the application of this algorithm in RPP research increased rapidly as it is a powerful tool for solving hard combinatorial optimizations problem. ACO was inspired by analogy of behavior of real ants, when looking for foods. (Zheng, 2007) proposed the use of ACO to find robot path based on map of MAKLINK graph. (Mei, 2006) combined ACO with Artificial Potential Field to produced the path planning in dynamic environment. (Gengqian et al., 2005) have proven that ACO can find optimal path in their grid map by proposing its own probability equation. However, a literature study shows that the application of ACO to solve RPP problems has not been explored in detail.

The purpose of the research presented herewith is to examine the performances of ACO and GA in a given map (Sariff, 2009). The performances of both algorithm will be evaluated and compared in terms of computational efficiency, accuracy of solution, solution variation and convergence behavior. The goal is to enhance knowledge of optimization algorithms in RPP research area. In this paper, the mapping and path planning algorithms construction is first discussed. Then results and discussions provided. Finally, a conclusion that compares and summarizes the performances of ACO and GA is presented.

2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Figure 1 illustrates the method applied within this research. The robot environment must initially be mapped using an appropriate global map (described in section 2.1 below). This map will create an output of nodes represented by xy coordinates. Then, GA and ACO will start to initialize the population of path using its own approaches from start to goal by using all the provided nodes including the start, goal and all intermediate nodes.

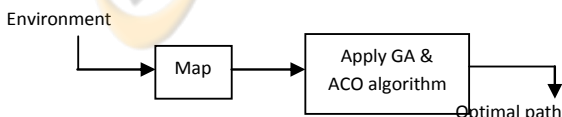


Figure 1: Proposed Method.

During the initialization, the integer number represented by each node will be used. However, during the evaluation, the real x-y coordinates will be used. At the end of the process, the optimal path will be found.

2.1 Environment Modeling

In this research, a 2D grid map with size 10x10 cm was used where the free space nodes (white cell) represents the area the robot can traverse including the robot size. The obstacles area (black cell) represents the boundary of obstacles with the safety region and the yellow grid represents the feasible free space nodes that can be traversed by the robot as shown in Figure 2. The feasible free space nodes have been located and routed randomly within this grid map by assuming the nodes are the free space nodes extract from the mapping algorithm itself. By using this map, the algorithm will start finding a solution by initializing the population of feasible path to goal based on the feasible nodes or unfeasible nodes (need to be added) available as shown in Figure 3.

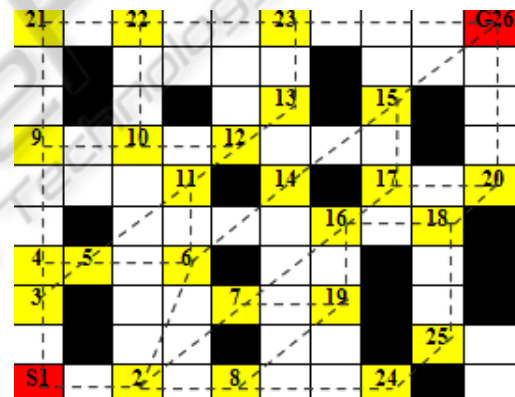


Figure 2: Global feasible map with 26 free space feasible nodes.

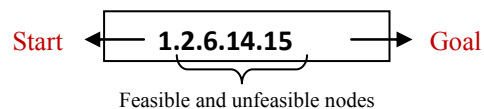


Figure 3: A sample of population consists of feasible nodes of Figure 2.

2.2 Genetic Algorithm Design for RPP

The outline of GA is given in Figure 4. The initial solutions of the RPP problem will initialize in population randomly. In the first case, the population will initialize based on the feasible nodes provided in the global map only. With the complete

population, the fitness is evaluated by using the formula below:

$$\text{Fitness node} = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Total Fitness} = \begin{cases} \sum \text{Fitness node} & ; \text{Feasible} \\ 100 & ; \text{Unfeasible} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

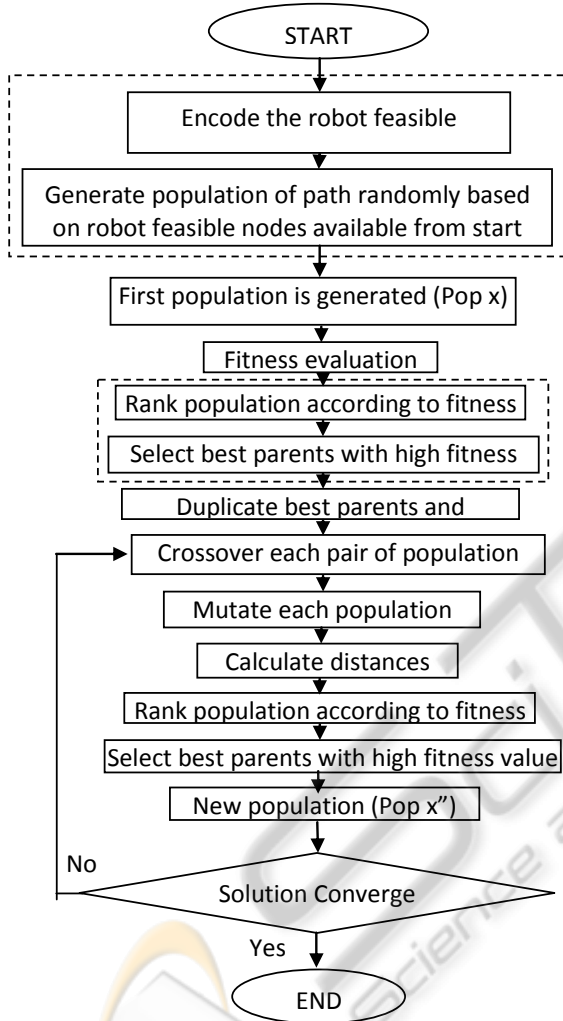


Figure 4: Outline of GA for RPP of a mobile robot.

After the fitness of each population has been evaluated, it will be ranked using an elitism approach. The shorter path will be represented with a high fitness value and will be selected to be carried forward to the next generation while the long path represented with a low fitness value will be eliminated and removed from the population. The good parents which is carried forward to the next generation will produce the diversity of population that consists of a good child from the genetic operators process. Then this process is repeated until

all of the GA population found the same optimal path with no difference of the fitness value where the distance is equal to 0. It is at this moment, that the solution converges. The type of GA and important parameters specifications related with GA used in this experimental research is defined in Table 1 below:

Table 1: GA Parameter Specifications.

| GA properties | Properties |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|
| Type of GA | Classical GA |
| Chromosomes type | Fixed length chromosomes |
| Population Size | 50 |
| Chromosomes length | 15 |
| Selection type | Elitism |
| Crossover type | Two point crossover |
| Mutation type | Flip bit |
| Crossover rate | 0.75 of the population size |
| Mutation rate | 0.75 of the population size |
| Convergence Criteria | Max-min of 20 pop ≤ 0.001 |
| Maximum Iteration | 40 |

2.3 Ant Colony Optimization Design for RPP

ACO algorithm used in this experiment is the Ant System (AS) algorithm as proposed by (Dorigo, 2004). However, a new heuristic equation of state transition rules is proposed for the RPP purposes. The evaluation fitness and ACO parameter setting was created based on the requirements of this research.

The design of AS for RPP was divided into three important rules which are state transition rules, local update rules and global update rules. At the beginning, ants will determine the next node to be visited by using the state transition rules based on heuristic and pheromone laid down by the ants as shown in derivation below:

$$\text{Probability } ij = \text{heuristic} * \text{pheromone} \quad (3)$$

$$= \left[\frac{1}{\text{distance between vector start to subpath and start to perpendicular subpath with reference goal}} \right]^\beta * (\text{trail} / \sum \text{trail})^\alpha$$

*β=heuristic coefficient, α=pheromone trail coefficient

An accurate value of distance by heuristic equation and the higher amount of pheromone of the visited node will be obtained by the ants that have higher probability to choose that nodes. Within these rules, ants can balance between the exploration and exploitation from the relatives coefficient provided, known as alpha and beta. During the construction of

the path, the pheromone will be reduced locally by the given evaporation rate by using the formula of update local rules below:

$$T_{ij} \text{ (new trail)} \leftarrow (1-\rho) * t_{ij} \text{ (old trail)}, \quad (4)$$

* ρ = evaporation rate

After all the ants complete the path to goal, then the process of global updating is applied where ants will deposits its pheromone based on the path distance.

$$t_{ij} \leftarrow t_{ij} + \sum \Delta t_{ij}^k \quad (5)$$

Δt_{ij}^k = amount pheromone of ant m deposits on the path it has visited. It's defined as below:

$$\Delta t_{ij}^k = \begin{cases} Q/C^k & ;\text{if arc } (i,j) \text{ belongs to path } P^k \\ 0 & ;\text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

where Q is number of nodes and C^k is the length of path P^k built by the ants.

The amount of pheromone will continuously be updated until it attracts more ants from the next generation to follow the shorter path. Finally, the optimal robot path is found by using behavior of ants' concept as shown in Figure 5 below.

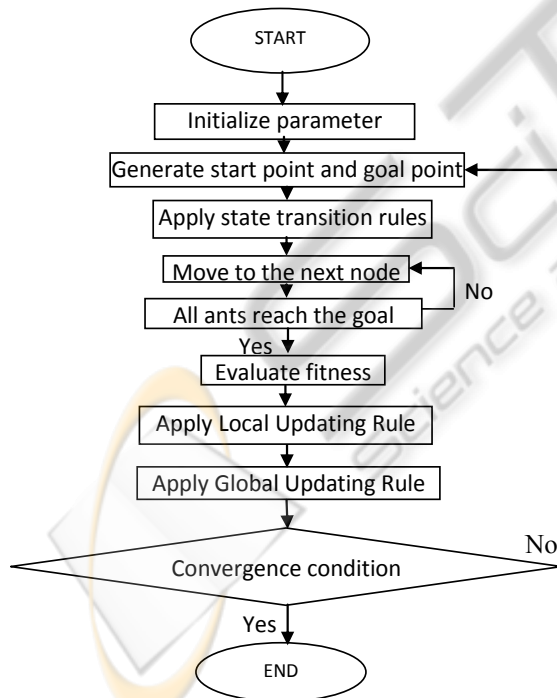


Figure 5: Outline of ACO for RPP of a mobile robot.

The parameter specifications of ACO utilized in this experiment is shown in Table 2.

Table 2: ACO Parameter Specifications.

| ACO Properties | Properties |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Population of ants | 50 (same as GA) |
| Length of ants junction | 15 (same as GA) |
| Pheromone coefficient, β | 5 |
| Heuristic coefficient, α | 5 |
| Evaporation rate, ρ | 0.5 |
| Convergence condition | Max-min of 20 pop ≤ 0.001 (same as GA) |
| Maximum Iteration | 40 (same as GA) |

2.4 Experiment

The method described is then translated and coded into MATLAB source code by using an appropriate function available within MATLAB 7.0.4. The simulation was carried out using a computer with Intel (R) Celeron (R) M processor 1.5 GHz with 504MB of RAM. Various Simulation results were then recorded based on the evaluation criteria required for experiment outcomes such as optimal path, path cost, time, number of iterations, etc.

3 RESULTS & DISCUSSIONS

3.1 Comparison of GA and ACO Computational Efficiency

The computational efficiency of both algorithms was measured by observing the computation time and number of iteration found by algorithms in 5 test runs. The optimal path found by both algorithms is a path with connection of feasible nodes 1.2.6.14.15.26 as shown in Figure 6 below with the path cost that is equal to 13.648 cm. The average time and iteration value is illustrated in Tables 3 and 4 below while Figures 7 and 8 below have been proposed to differentiate the values between both algorithms in each run time.

Based on results tabulated in Tables 3 and 4 below, the average time required by ACO to find the optimal path (in 5 test runs) is smaller compared to GA which shows that ACO can perform faster than GA. The computation time found by ACO in each run time is mostly less than 100 seconds while GA run times are in general more than 100 seconds with the highest run of more than 300 seconds. One of the factors that influence the increment of time and iteration is the population being initialized. The way ACO initializes the population by using a state transition rules is more efficient compared to GA that is based on random approaches. With the efficient derivation of state transition rules, ants

capable to determine the next node to be visited near the optimal node which will produce the population of ants that traverse near the optimal path to goal. During this process, ants will choose the nodes with high probability value (near the optimal node) and abandon the nodes with low probability value (far from optimal node). The effect of this process is that the number of optimal path from one generation to the next generation will increased rapidly and will simultaneously drive ACO to converge faster than GA.

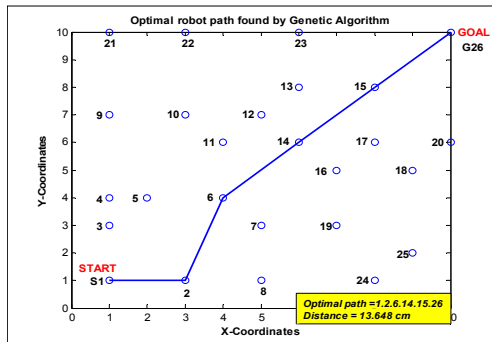


Figure 6: Optimal path found by GA in 1st test run.

However, with the GA, there is no rules to determine the optimal node as GA uses the random based approach. This will cause the number of optimal path in each generation increase in constantly because population of optimal path is keep changing depends on the random process itself. Therefore as results, GA needs more time and iteration compared to ACO in order to face with the difficulties of this random approach.

In addition, the way both algorithms carry forward the optimal path from one generation to the next generations will also influence the time and iteration the algorithms require to converge. ACO will carry forward the updated pheromone values each time it return back to the start point after it reach the goal point. The pheromone value carried by the ants is depending on the selected path traverse by the ants itself where this value will guide the next ants to choose the path for the next generations. Effect from the efficient local and global updating process, ACO shows the rapid increment of optimal path population in each generation which will drive ACO to converge faster compared to GA.

Vice versa with ACO, GA will select the good population (good parent) which have the highest fitness to be carry forward to the next generation. After that, this population will be duplicated and it will go through some of the process known as crossover and mutation to produce the next child. However, because the process to cross and mutate

will also determine randomly so the chances to get a good child from a good parent also become difficult and inconstant. Therefore, the increment of optimal path population in each generation is also not rapidly increase like ACO where it need more time and more generations to find the optimal path to goal. This has been proven in results illustrated in Tables 3 and 4 below where the average time and iteration in five test run times for ACO is smaller compared to GA.

Table 3: Computation Time & Iteration of GA.

| Number of run | Optimal path | Distance (cm) | Time(sec) | Iteration |
|---------------|----------------|---------------|-----------|-----------|
| 1 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 | 111.838 | 10 |
| 2 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 | 147.958 | 7 |
| 3 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 | 114.362 | 8 |
| 4 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 | 310.464 | 7 |
| 5 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 | 101.278 | 8 |
| Avg Total | | 13.648 | 157.18 | 8 |

Table 4: Computation Time & Iteration of ACO.

| Number of run | Optimal path | Distance (cm) | Time(sec) | Iteration |
|---------------|----------------|---------------|-----------|-----------|
| 1 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 | 104.606 | 4 |
| 2 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 | 44.4 | 4 |
| 3 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 | 73.552 | 6 |
| 4 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 | 43.635 | 4 |
| 5 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 | 49.297 | 4 |
| Avg Total | | 13.648 | 63.098 | 4.4 |

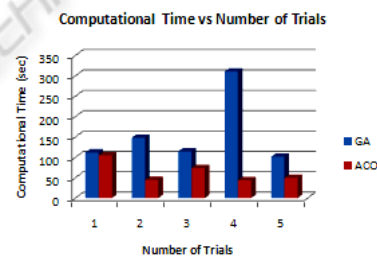


Figure 7: GA and ACO computation time.

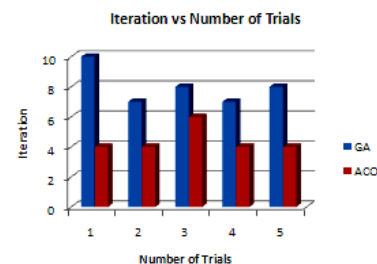


Figure 8: GA and ACO iteration.

3.2 Comparison of GA and ACO Accuracy of Solutions

The accuracy of the solution provided by both algorithms in finding the optimized path can be

measured from the quality of the path found in each test run times. The path is optimal if the path is complete, feasible (not obstruct by obstacles, from start to finish point), shorter and require small computation time. For this comparison purposes, the path based on results is tabulated in Table 5 below.

As depicted, in 5 test runs, ACO could generate 100% of optimal path in 5 test runs while only 60% of optimal path was generate by GA in 5 test runs. This shows that ACO can work effectively because the optimal path found each time the solution converge. However it was different with GA where affect from the random process, it will somehow cause GA to converge although it still in premature solution. Thus will cause the path being produced is not optimal, not feasible and not complete to goal as example shown in the 2nd and 3rd test run in Table 5 below. Although the path cost is less compare to other run time, it was still not considered as an optimal path because the path is not feasible and not complete to goal. As a result, there are only 3 test runs among 5 test runs that GA can obtained optimal path which is equal to 13.648 cm distance.

Table 5: Optimal Path Found by GA & ACO.

| No | GA | | ACO | |
|----|-------------------|----------|----------------|----------|
| | Optimal path | Distance | Optimal path | Distance |
| 1 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 |
| 2 | 1.3.5.11.12.13.26 | 13.5431 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 |
| 3 | 1.2.7.16.17.26 | 13.5431 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 |
| 4 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 |
| 5 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 | 1.2.6.14.15.26 | 13.648 |

3.3 Comparison of GA and ACO Solution Variation

The fitness of the path population will be evaluated after the population being initialized at initial stage of both algorithm processes. This fitness value represents accumulate data of distance obtained in each generations and can be used to determine the solution variation of both algorithms. This achieved by measuring the different between the maximum and minimum distance in each generation or by calculating the mean and standard deviation of the path distance in the generations itself. Table 6 and 7 tabulated below illustrates the reading of the maximum distance, minimum distance, differences between max and min distance, mean and standard deviation of the distance in 5th test runs. The reading of the distance is referring to the fitness value of the 1st population obtained at the 1st generation of the algorithm process.

Based on the results found, average distances between maximum and minimum value of ACO is

smaller compared to GA which is in ratio 1:9 or equal to 3 and 45. This is because ACO consists of accurate and robust initialization approach that capable to drive ants in the next generation to choose path which is near the optimal path while abandon the path which is far from the optimal path. This process then will affect the range of distance to be optimized by ACO in each generation is smaller compared to GA. Therefore, ACO can converge faster and the number of iteration also will be reduced. Table 7 above illustrate the range of distance found by ACO in the 1st generation which is differs from GA.

Table 6: Fitness Value of GA Populations.

| Number of run | Max distance | Min distance | Differences (Δ max-min) | Mean, μ | Sd, δ | Iteration |
|---------------|--------------|--------------|-------------------------|---------|-------|-----------|
| 1 | 58.03 | 13.65 | 44.382 | 22.99 | 0.22 | 10 |
| 2 | 60.45 | 13.65 | 46.799 | 23.06 | 0.31 | 7 |
| 3 | 58.36 | 13.65 | 44.712 | 22.92 | 0.26 | 8 |
| 4 | 60.45 | 13.65 | 46.799 | 23.09 | 0.31 | 7 |
| 5 | 58.34 | 13.65 | 44.692 | 22.89 | 0.26 | 8 |
| Avg | 59.126 | 13.65 | 45.477 | 22.99 | 0.27 | 8 |

Table 7: Fitness Value of Ants Populations.

| Number of run | Max distance | Min distance | Differences (Δ max-min) | Mean, μ | Sd, δ | Iteration |
|---------------|--------------|--------------|-------------------------|---------|---------|-----------|
| 1 | 18 | 13.65 | 4.352 | 13.781 | 0.00008 | 4 |
| 2 | 17.42 | 13.65 | 3.766 | 13.733 | 0.00004 | 4 |
| 3 | 17.42 | 13.65 | 3.766 | 13.835 | 0.00012 | 6 |
| 4 | 18 | 13.65 | 4.352 | 13.883 | 0.00028 | 4 |
| 5 | 14.49 | 13.65 | 0.837 | 13.723 | 0.00003 | 4 |
| Avg | 17.066 | 13.65 | 3.415 | 13.79 | 0.00011 | 22 |

For GA, there is no rules has been used to initialize the population where it based on random approaches. Effect from this process, the population in the initial generations will consists of optimal and non optimal path that will generate variety values of distance. This will cause the range of distance to be optimized by GA is bigger than ACO. Moreover, although GA will carry forward the optimal path to the next generation during the selection process, the possibility to obtain the population consists of non optimal child will repeated again. This is because the point to cross and mutate the chromosomes also will determine randomly and thus cause to the increment of the optimized data. As a result, it shows that the random initialization process of GA from one generation to other generation had cause GA to optimize the wide range of distance. Thus will also cause to the increment of time and iteration GA ta-

kes to find optimal solution.

The calculation of mean and standard deviation of the path distance of the 1st iteration in each test runs has been used to verify the range of distance optimized by both algorithms. Based on the results found in Tables 6 and 7 above, the value of the mean and standard deviation of ACO is smaller compared to GA. With the value of standard deviation of ACO which is approximate to 0, it can be proven that population of ACO are mostly consists of optimal path population because the data to be optimized is in a small range and near to 0 compared to GA. As a result, ACO will work efficiently and meet the convergence earlier compared to GA.

3.4 Comparison of GA and ACO Convergence Behavior

The efficiency of both algorithms to find optimal path during convergence time can be measured by observing the increment number of optimal path to goal in each generations as results tabulated in Table 8 and 9 below. In this experiment, the solution converge when the differences between maximum and minimum fitness of 20 of the 1st population is equal or less than 0.0001 (≤ 0.0001). This means that the algorithm will continuously repeat its process until the solution meets the requirement of the convergence that will drive the algorithm to stop its process.

Based on the results found, GA capable to find optimal path and converge around 215.361 sec in 7th iteration while ACO around 104.606 sec in 4th iteration. In GA, the increment of the optimal path population is slow and steady. 3 optimal paths found at initial stage of the random process which then followed by 4,5,7,13,17 and finally reach more than 20 population at the moment the solution converge at the 7th iteration. It was different with ACO where the number of optimal path population is increasing rapidly due to efficient rules provided. Start with 8 populations at the first place then continues with 11, 13 and finally 20 population in 4th times of iteration. From here, it has been proven that the number of optimal path increment from one generation to other generation also can be used to differentiate performances between both algorithms. ACO is the robust and efficient techniques compare to GA where it will not only increase optimal path rapidly but it capable to trigger itself to find the path faster with only a small number of iteration. The sufficient amount of population required for ACO to converge is the range of data to be minimized is in a big range as easy to found compared to GA.

Besides that, the change of the range of distance

in every generation also shows the efficiency of both algorithms reach the convergence solution. In ACO, the data to be optimized is decreased constantly and rapidly proportional to the increment of the number of population in each generation. This has been proven with the value of maximum distance, mean and standard deviation that will continuously decreasing until the solution converge at 4th generation as shown in Table 8 above. At the last generation where the solution converges, the value of mean is equal to the value of optimal path distance while the standard deviation is equal to 0 which shows that the solution converges efficiently. During this moment, ants will follow the same path and the path distance traverse by ants also become similar and the solution will reach convergence easily in a small computation time and a small number of iteration.

Table 8: GA converge at 7th generation.

| Iteration | Mean, μ | Sd, δ | Max | Min | Number of optimal population |
|-----------|-------------|--------------|--------|-------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 15.843 | 0.096 | 18 | 13.65 | 3 |
| 2 | 25.749 | 3.661 | 54.477 | 13.65 | 4 |
| 3 | 29.147 | 6.005 | 57.69 | 13.65 | 5 |
| 4 | 26.469 | 4.109 | 60.447 | 13.65 | 7 |
| 5 | 24.699 | 3.053 | 57.189 | 13.65 | 13 |
| 6 | 24.328 | 2.852 | 56.617 | 13.65 | 17 |
| 7 | 17.226 | 0.32 | 52.503 | 13.65 | 27(converge) |
| Avg | 23.352 | 20.096 | 50.989 | 13.65 | 7 |

Table 9: ACO converge at 4th generation.

| Iteration | Mean, μ | Sd, δ | Max | Min | Number of optimal population |
|-----------|-------------|--------------|-------|-------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 13.956 | 0.002 | 18 | 13.65 | 8 |
| 2 | 13.805 | 0.0005 | 14.49 | 13.65 | 11 |
| 3 | 13.713 | 0.00008 | 13.90 | 13.65 | 13 |
| 4 | 13.648 | 0 | 13.65 | 13.65 | 20(converge) |
| Avg | 13.781 | 0.0006 | 15.01 | 13.65 | 13 |

It was different with GA where the data of distance in each generation will keep changing and not constantly decreased like ACO. This is because the way this algorithm remains and increases the optimal path population in each generation was based on the random approaches. Effect from this random process, the population may consists of population of optimal or non-optimal population that consists variety amount of distance that will simultaneously contribute to inconstant distance value in each generations. With this inconstant value, the range data to be optimized in each generation cannot be predicted where sometimes it will converge in a small computation time and iteration if the range of data is small while

sometimes it need a long time and more iteration to converge if the range of data to be minimized is in a big range as results shown in Table 9 above.

4 CONCLUSIONS

The research indicates that GA and ACO were able to find an optimal path in feasible global static environments. The results show that for the selected environments, ACO has the capability to work more efficiently and more accurately than GA. This is because the computation time and iteration takes to find the optimal path is smaller. In addition, the optimal path found in each time run shows the accuracy of ACO. Furthermore, the range of data to be optimized is also smaller compared to GA which will also drive ACO behaviour to converge efficient and effectively. However, the advantages and limitations of both algorithms can be further explored to expand the applications of both optimization algorithms in RPP research area.

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