Automated Design of a Genetic Algorithm for Image Segmentation Using the Iterated Local Search

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Keywords: Genetic Algorithm, Automated Design, Image Segmentation, Iterated Local Search.

Abstract: Image thresholding is a fundamental technique used in image processing for segmentation. This is the process of determining optimal thresholds for an image. When the number of thresholds exceeds two, that is, multilevel thresholding, the computational complexity of the process increases exponentially. This has resulted in the popularity of addressing this problem by using metaheuristic methods. However, metaheuristics are parameterised and their effectiveness depends on their configuration, which is often performed manually using an iterative trial-and-error approach. This leads to less effective designs that yield less accurate thresholds and longer design times. This study proposes using an Iterated Local Search to configure a low-level metaheuristic, namely, a Genetic Algorithm(GA), to solve the multilevel threshold problem. The performance of the proposed approach was compared with that of a manually designed standard GA approach, and evaluated using T2 weighted Magnetic Resonance images of the brain. Furthermore, the proposed approach is compared with two other metaheuristic algorithms for the same problem. The results showed that the automatically designed genetic algorithm significantly outperformed the standard genetic algorithm approach and the other two algorithms on the set objective function. Although the runtimes were higher than those of the manual design approach, better thresholds were obtained.

1 INTRODUCTION

Image segmentation is an essential process for image analysis. It involves techniques used to partition an image into distinct regions, with the hope that each partitioned part belongs to a different object within the image. Segmentation is prominent in facial recognition and pedestrian detection among the numerous image-processing techniques. Image segmentation processes are predominantly preprocessing steps. Image segmentation aims to simplify image data to enable ease of manipulation. Image thresholding is an image-segmentation technique that separates an image into two or more regions based on the intensity values of the pixels. The most common thresholding techniques are based on manipulating the histograms of grayscale-level images (Amiriebrahimabadi et al., 2024). Thresholding attempts to discriminate an object from the background or other objects based on the pixel intensity values of the object. There are two approaches to thresholding: bi-level thresholding and multilevel thresholding. The approaches are

Several techniques are used to determine optimal threshold values for bi-level thresholding with Otsu's method (Ostu, 1979) and Kapur's entropy method (Kapur et al., 1985) being the most widely used. These non-parametric exhaustive methods have proved to be highly effective for bi-level thresholding. However, as threshold levels increase beyond the bi-level, Otsu and Kapur's methods become computationally expensive. As a result, the use of metaheuristic methods, specifically genetic algorithms (Holland, 1973) to solve multilevel thresholding problems has gained prominence in recent years(Abualigah et al., 2023). However, the effectiveness of metaheuristics depends significantly on their configuration (Martín-Santamaría et al., 2024). Therefore, this study proposes automating the design of metaheuristics to solve the multilevel thresholding problem. The pro-

Nyathi, T.

Automated Design of a Genetic Algorithm for Image Segmentation Using the Iterated Local Search. DOI: 10.5220/0012908500003837 Paper published under CC license (CC BY-NC-ND 4.0) In *Proceedings of the 16th International Joint Conference on Computational Intelligence (IJCCI 2024)*, pages 189-196 ISBN: 978-989-758-721-4; ISSN: 2184-3236 Proceedings Copyright © 2024 by SCITEPRESS – Science and Technology Publications, Lda.

categorised by the number of thresholds *k*. For bilevel thresholding, there is one threshold (*k*=1), one class is the range of pixel intensity values representing the object and the other representing the background. In multilevel thresholding, $k > 1$ and determining the optimal multilevel threshold value(s) is not trivial (Abualigah et al., 2023).

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posed approach uses the Iterated Local Search (ILS) algorithm (Lourenço et al., 2019) to search the design space for the best GA design that solves the MLT problem. To demonstrate its effectiveness the proposed approach used a threshold of ten T2-weighted pulse sequences (Tsushima et al., 2003) Magnetic Resonance brain images for $k = 2,3$ and 4. The results are compared to a manually designed approach, the results of the Particle Swarm Optimisation (Kennedy and Eberhart, 1995), and a real number encoded genetic algorithm obtained from the literature. The contributions of this study are as follows:

- To propose a novel ILS approach to configuring GAs that can be used to solve the MLT problem.
- To demonstrate that the proposed ILS approach configures GAs more effectively than a manually configured GA.
- To demonstrate that using ILS to search for GA designs is beneficial and improves the results obtained from the GA.

This paper is arranged as follows: Section 2 outlines the field of automated design. Section 3 presents the multilevel thresholding problem, and Section 4 is an outline of the GA. The Iterated Local Search is presented in Section 5. Section 6 is the proposed approach followed by the experimental setup in Section 7 and the results in Section 8. The conclusion and future research are outlined in Section 9.

SCIENCE *AND* TECHNO 2 AUTOMATED DESIGN OF

METHAHEURISTICS

The design of metaheuristics has long been viewed as a combinatorial optimisation problem. It is still driven by human expertise, which is influenced by intuition and bias and is evaluated through trial-anderror approaches (Martín-Santamaría et al., 2024). It involves trial runs in which parameter values are iteratively changed. The parameter values that yield the best objective value outputs are used in the final configuration. The manual design search space is usually restricted based on the experience of algorithm designers. The development of automated design techniques for metaheuristics is a specialized field that aims to create or customize metaheuristic algorithms for specific optimisation problems. The goal is to enhance the efficiency of the design process by automating some or all aspects of it, resulting in potentially more effective algorithms. The literature presents two approaches to automated design: offline and online (Zhao et al., 2023). In offline approaches, the automated design process occurs inde-

pendently of the problem that needs to be solved. Online design involves the adaptation of a metaheuristic during execution. Offline approaches are simpler to implement and less computationally expensive (Zhao et al., 2023). Several approaches for the configuration of metaheuristics have been proposed, such as *irace* (López-Ibáñez et al., 2016) and *ParamsILS* (Hutter et al., 2007) although none have been widely adopted. In its most basic form of automated design, an algorithm is decomposed into its basic design components and possible values, and placed at a low level. A designer algorithm operates at a higher level and combines different low-level components into a valid algorithm. The designed algorithms are evaluated on a problem, and the best-performing algorithm is proposed as the solution.

In this study the automated design of a genetic algorithm is proposed. Genetic algorithms are one of the most popular evolutionary algorithms; thus, it is not surprising that the automated design of GAs has been previously proposed. In the earliest study on automating a GA, a GA was used at a higher level to configure a lower-level GA (Grefenstette, 1986). Subsequently, several studies have proposed using various other algorithms to configure genetic algorithms. Despite the potential benefits of automated design, it is still an evolving field, and manual approaches may outperform automated methods. The time and effort required to develop effective metaheuristics can be significantly reduced using automated design techniques. The high-level algorithm can also suffer from the same design flaws as the low-level algorithm. In this study, we propose using an Iterated Local Search algorithm as the high-level algorithm. The ILS algorithm replaces an algorithm designer and searches in a search space of GA designs. This algorithm has the advantage of being simple to implement. ILS has a low computational cost and very few parameters to configure. The next section reviews the multilevel thresholding problem.

3 MULTILEVEL THRESHOLDING

Multilevel thresholding is a systematic way of segmenting a greyscale image *I* into *k+1* subregions/classes. In this case *k* thresholds are required and are defined as $\{t_1, t_2, t_3, \ldots, t_k\}$.

$$
c_0 = g(x, y) \in I | 0 \le g(x, y) \le t_1 - 1 \tag{1}
$$

$$
c_1 = g(x, y) \in I | t_1 \le g(x, y) \le t_2 - 1 \tag{2}
$$

$$
c_k = g(x, y) \in I | t_k \le g(x, y) \le L - 1 \tag{3}
$$

In Equations 1, 2 and 3 c_k represents the k_{th} subregion, while L represents the number of greyscale levels. This problem involves searching for the best threshold values within the space of thresholds in the range of 0 - L. This is an NP problem and the use of exact methods leads to the search complexity growing exponentially as the number of thresholds increases as $O(L^{k-1})$. The effectiveness of the determined thresholds is generally evaluated by minimizing or maximizing an objective function. While Kapur's entropy and Otsu's methods are primarily used for binary thresholding, with modifications, they can both be extended to multilevel thresholding. This study used Kapur's method as the objective function because of its calculation speed. The objective is to achieve optimal class separation by maximizing intraclass entropy and minimizing inter-class information leakage. The Kapur's entropy can be extended for the MLT problem as follows: If *k* values from the following threshold values $\{t_1, t_2, t_3, \ldots, t_k\}$ dissect the image into distinct regions. The probability p*ⁱ* can be defined as:

$$
p_i = \frac{h(i)}{\sum_{i=0}^{L-1} h(i)}
$$
(4)

where $h(i)$ represents the grey scale level and $\sum_{i=0}^{L-1} h(i)$ is the total number of pixels, while *L* is the number of levels. Kapur's entropy is given as follows:

$$
f(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n) = H_0 + H_1 + \dots + H_k \tag{5}
$$

To evaluate multilevel problems Kapur's entropy is extended as follows.

$$
H_0 = -\sum_{i=0}^{t_1-1} \frac{p_i}{\omega_0} \ln \frac{p_i}{\omega_0}, \quad where \quad \omega_0 = \sum_{i=0}^{t_1-1} p_i \quad (6)
$$

$$
H_k = -\sum_{i=t_k}^{L-1} \frac{p_i}{\omega_k} \ln \frac{p_i}{\omega_k}, \quad where \quad \omega_k = \sum_{i=k}^{L-1} p_i \quad (7)
$$

Numerous metaheuristics have been employed to solve the multilevel thresholding problems. In a recent survey (Amiriebrahimabadi et al., 2024) describes the use of evolutionary algorithms such as genetic algorithms. In the early years, metaheuristics were commonly used independently; however, to improve performance, the latest approaches employ hybridised metaheuristics (Amiriebrahimabadi et al., 2024).

The next section reviews genetic algorithms.

4 GENETIC ALGORITHMS

Algorithm 1 outlines a genetic algorithm.

Genetic Algorithms have been widely applied in multilevel thresholding owing to their computational

Data: Population *P*, Fitness function *F*,
\nCrossover rate
$$
p_c
$$
, Mutation rate p_m
\n**Result:** Optimal solution
\nInitialize population *P*;
\nEvaluate the fitness of each individual;
\nwhile *termination condition not met* do
\nSelect parents for crossover;
\nApply crossover with probability p_c ;
\nApply mutation with probability p_m ;
\nEvaluate the fitness of new individuals;
\nUpdate the population;
\nend
\nreturn best individual from final population;
\nAlgorithm 1: Genetic Algorithm (Holland, 1973).

efficiency. When applied to MLT problems, integer encoding is the most commonly used encoding method (Manikandan et al., 2014). Each individual is a complete solution to an MLT problem, in which each gene is an integer that represents a threshold. The general mode of operation of most techniques that employ GAs begins by generating random thresholds. The thresholds are iteratively adjusted using variation operators to improve the objective function. Genetic algorithms have been used to threshold magnetic resonance brain scan images(Manikandan et al., 2014). Binary encoding has been used to threshold a subset of benchmark problems (de Oliveira and Yamanaka, 2018). Studies in the literature employ a wide range of population sizes. Ranging from a population size of 20 and 30 (de Oliveira and Yamanaka, 2018). Fitness proportionate and tournament selections are the most commonly used parent selection methods. Otsu's and Kapur's methods are the most commonly used fitness functions. The most commonly applied variation operators are crossover and mutation operators. Single-point crossover has been widely used at a rate of 10%. Another widely used crossover method is simulated binary crossover (SBX) (Manikandan et al., 2014). A study (Sun et al., 2016) used fitness proportionate selection and discrete mutation as genetic operators to threshold benchmark images at levels 2,3,4 and 5, using Otsu and Kapur'e entropy as fitness functions. In the following study, 100 generations were set as the termination criteria. Most studies (Hammouche et al., 2008) have used the generational approach to update the population. In that study, a population size of 100 was used, with Kapur entropy configured as the fitness function. Single point crossover was used at a rate of 90% and mutation rate of 1%. In another study (Abbasgholipour et al., 2011), a GA was used to solve the thresholding problem by using string encoding with a population size of 12. Tournament selection

was performed, using, a tournament size of 4. Single point crossover (80%), mutation (16%), and 400 generations were the termination criteria. Medical image segmentation is an important area where thresholding algorithms are applied such as a study (Manikandan et al., 2014) where a GA was used to threshold the MRI brain scan images using real number encoding. Simulated binary crossover (SBX) was applied at a probability rate of 80% and mutation probability rate of 1 %. A population size of 50 was used and the termination criteria was 10000 generations. Variations in GAs for solving the MLT problem can also be found in the literature (Lai and Tseng, 2004).

5 ITERATED LOCAL SEARCH

Iterated Local Search is a metaheuristic algorithm which is effective at solving a wide range of optimisation problems. It involves three steps: perturbation, local search and evaluation of an acceptance criterion.

```
Data: Initial solution s_0, perturb function N,
         Iteration limit T
  Result: Improved solution
 s_{best} \leftarrow s_0;s' \leftarrow s_0;t \leftarrow 0;while t < T do
      s' \leftarrow perturb(s'); // Generate a
       neighbour solution
      s
′ ← localSearch(s
′
) ; // Apply local
        search to s
′
      if fitness(s') > fitness(s_{best}) then
           s_{best} \leftarrow s';
      end
      t \leftarrow t + 1;
  end
 return sbest;
Algorithm 2: Iterated Local Search (Lourenço et al.,
2003).
```
Algorithm 2 presents the outline of the ILS algorithm. The algorithm begins by creating a random initial solution s_0 using a constructive heuristic. The algorithm then goes through a cycle of applying three operators, perturbation, local search, and acceptance criteria, until a stopping criterion is achieved. Perturbation accepts a solution and makes changes that become new starting points of the local search. This enables the ILS to escape local optima (Lourenço et al., 2003). In the next step, a local search is applied to the initial solution. This involves searching the neigh-

bourhood of the current solution, in this case *s'*, by making small changes to *s'*. The acceptance criterion determines whether a new solution should replace the current optimal solution.

5.1 Automated Design Using Iterated Local Search

Previous studies have shown that an ILS algorithm effectively configures other algorithms. In one of the earliest uses of ILS as an algorithm configurator, (Hutter et al., 2007) proposed an approach called ParamsILS. This approach was used to configure four algorithms and was shown to outperform the manually configured algorithms. Variants of ParmaILS, namely BasicILS and FocusedILS, have been proposed. A concise review of the applications of the ILS algorithm is presented in (Lourenco et al., 2019).

6 PROPOSED APPROACH

The challenge of designing an evolutionary algorithm that can achieve optimal performance in solving the multilevel thresholding problem involves finding a design that can balance exploration and exploitation effectively. To achieve this, an ILS algorithm was used to search the configuration space of the GA. The proposed approach was based on the ILS algorithm presented in Section 5. The first step of the ILS for the GA, herein termed ILSGA, was to create an initial solution s_0 . An initial solution was randomly created from the GA design components, as presented in Table 1. An ILSGA solution was represented as a chromosome of nine genes. Each gene (G) represents a design decision as specified in Table 1.

Table 1: GA Design Decisions.

G	Parameter	Range of Possible Values
0	popSize	$50 - 200$
1	selection	0-tourn, 1-fit prop, 2- rank
$\overline{2}$	crossover	0-1point, 1-SBXT, 2-BLXT
3	crossrate	$0-100%$
4	mutation	0-bit \overline{flip} , 1- gauss, 2-cauchy
5	mutrate	$0-100%$
6	termination	50-150
7	control flow	0 – none, 1- create
8	init	0 – random, 1- sensible

The first column indexes the design-decision genes of the genetic algorithm. The second column describes the design decisions. Column 3 presents the range of possible values for each design decision. Each range of values represents the values found in the literature commonly used to configure a GA. Gene 0 determines the GA population size from within the range of 50 to 200. Gene 1 specifies the parent selection method from one of three possible methods i.e. tournament selection, fitness proportionate and rank selection. Gene 2 is used to determine the crossover operator. Three options are available: 0-uniform crossover, 1-Simulated Binary Crossover (SBX, eta = 0.2 , mu = rand $(0,1)$, and 2- Blend Crossover (BLX, alpha =0.5) (Manikandan et al., 2014). Gene 3 specifies the crossover rate, and gene 4 specifies the mutation operator. Gene 4 options are uniform mutation, gaussian mutation and Cauchy mutation(Rudolph, 1997). The mutation rate is specified by gene 5. Gene 6 determines the number of generations, which is also the termination criterion from a value of 50 to 200. Gene 7 specifies the control flow of the GA. If this gene is configured to be a value of 0, the evolution of the GA runs normally; however, if it is configured to a value of 1, the algorithm will abruptly create a new population at a random point during the run. This behaviour allows the algorithm to escape a local optimum. Gene 8 determines the starting position of the algorithm. If the gene is set to 0, the thresholds of the initial population are randomly selected from the range of $0 - 255$. If the gene is set to a value of 1, bounded sensible initialisation is used for example, for a 2-level threshold GA individual, the two thresholds are randomly obtained from bounded ranges as follows: threshold one 0-127 and threshold two 128-255.

6.1 Iterated Local Search Genetic Algorithm- ILSGA

An initial ILSGA solution is randomly created from a range of possible values. The ILSGA solution is a GA configuration used to solve the MLT problem. Kapur's entropy presented in Section 3 was used as the fitness function of the underlying GA, which was subsequently used as the objective function of the ILSGA. The initial solution is used to configure a GA applied to an MLT problem, and the fitness value of the best-performing GA is assigned to the ILSGA as its objective value. A local search was then conducted on the ILSGA solution. The number of neighbours considered was randomly selected from 2 to 9. In this study, a neighbour was considered as a single alteration to any of the nine genes of an ILSGA solution, without considering the value of the gene in the change. The algorithm may consider two or all nine neighbours. The selected neighbouring solution was applied to the MLT problem. The acceptance criterion

used was the improving only criterion (*Best(s,s")*) and is given by Equation 8:

$$
s = Best(s, s") = s" \textbf{if } f(s") > f(s) \textbf{else} = s \qquad (8)
$$

Where f(s) is the objective function. The bestperforming becomes the new solution. Therefore, a new ILSGA solution is accepted only if it outperforms the current solution. After this step, a perturbation was applied. The perturbation operator mutates one or more genes in the solution. This perturbed solution becomes the new starting point for the local search. This cycle was continued for a fixed number of iterations until convergence was achieved.

7 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

To evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed approach ten T2-weighted MRI images obtained from the Harvard Medical School web-based medical image repository were used as test images specifically Slices 22,32,42,52,62,72,82,92,102 and 112. Six experiments were conducted for each of the ten images. A manually designed standard GA was used to establish 2-level, 3-level and 4-level thresholds. Similarly, the ILSGA algorithm was applied to solve for the 2-level, 3-level and 4-level thresholds. To establish the parameter values for each threshold level for the standard GA design, test runs were conducted using values from the literature as the starting points. An iterative trial-and-error parameter tuning approach was applied until the best-performing set of parameters, based on the test runs, was established. These are presented in Table 2

The simulations were conducted at the Centre for High-Performance Computing (CHPC) Lengau Cluster. Java 1.8 was used as the software development platform on the Netbeans 8.1 Integrated Development Environment.

Param	2T	3T	4T
Popsize	200	200	200
Selection	Tourn	Tourn	Tourn
Tourn size	8	10	10
Crossover	1 -point	1-point	Uniform
Crossrate	0.85	0.80	0.70
Mutation	Random	Random	Uniform
MutRate	0.25	0.30	0.25
Termination	200	200	200

Table 2: Standard GA Parameters.

Im		ILSGA	SGA	PSO	RGA	Im	т	ILSGA	SGA	PSO	RGA
22	2	11.1665	11.1665	9.2136	9.2155	72	2	11.5713	11.5707	9.4163	9.4205
	3	14.3145	14.3145	11.3290	11.7333		3	14.5270	14.5227	11.4144	11.6935
	4	17.1510	17.1387	13.5003	13.9555		4	17.3750	17.3257	13.5094	13.8463
32	2	11.3694	11.3694	9.2617	9.2645	82	2	11.3492	11.3492	9.1847	9.1910
	3	14.4216	14.4209	11.3367	11.6835		3	14.3630	14.3612	11.0248	11.4269
	4	17.3015	17.3038	13.4849	13.9406		4	17.1757	17.1531	13.2558	13.5191
42	2	11.4938	11.4916	9.2568	9.2585	92	2	10.6614	10.6612	8.7750	8.7906
	3	14.4656	14.4641	11.3036	11.5779		3	13.5962	13.5763	10.6335	11.1640
	4	17.3378	17.3291	13.5556	13.865		4	16.3146	16.2432	12.9568	13.2974
52	2	11.3897	11.3888	9.2433	9.2447	102	2	10.3586	10.3586	8.5127	8.5283
	3	14.4421	14.4390	11.2299	11.5795		3	13.4379	13.4335	10.6913	10.9277
	4	17.2938	17.2021	13.3646	13.7502		4	16.1471	16.1337	12.5920	13.1320
62	2	11.4731	11.4717	9.3073	9.3367	112	2	9.7462	9.7462	8.1308	8.1476
	3	14.5211	14.4960	11.3313	11.6745		3	12.6918	12.6776	10.0312	10.6029
	4	17.3975	17.3223	13.4960	13.7812		4	15.7416	15.7128	12.3148	13.0591

Table 3: Kapur's Entropy Results.

Table 4: Image Thresholds.

Image	T	ILSGA	GA	$\overline{\text{PSO}}$	RGA
Slice ₂₂	$\overline{2}$	95,177	95,177	97,184	96,184
	$\overline{3}$	61,115,178	61, 115, 229	69,138,207	58,115,185
	$\overline{4}$	56, 108, 159, 189	58, 113, 182, 246	83,116,175,207	44,87,131,186
Slice 32	\overline{c}	110,185	110, 185	107,185	109,185
	$\overline{3}$	56, 115, 185	60, 118, 247	74,157,192	53,116,185
	$\overline{4}$	56, 114, 175, 207	55,113,230,250	95,125,164,194	39, 84, 131, 189
Slice 42	$\overline{2}$	112,182	113, 182	111,183	114,183
	$\overline{3}$	83, 130, 183	83, 131, 222	80,148,178	84, 132, 187
	$\overline{4}$	76, 120, 169, 214	58,112,236,250	81,125,164,197	30,75,127,188
Slice 52	$\overline{2}$	118,181	120,181	119,186	118,185
	$\overline{3}$	112, 167, 204	111, 167, 237	89,113,187	109,165,203
	4	92, 128, 170, 205	82, 122, 182, 248	79, 111, 141, 208	91,131,174,209
Slice 62	$\overline{2}$	120,182	119,183	109,186	121,187
	$\overline{3}$	110, 166, 213	115,162,205	112, 167, 187	101,147,196
	$\overline{4}$	98, 136, 176, 213	87, 127, 151, 235	85,134,180,203	94, 134, 175, 211
Slice 72	$\overline{2}$	116,175	118,177	116,177	117,179
	$\overline{3}$	98, 139, 184	97,140,233	96,178,207	99,141,187
	$\overline{4}$	96, 133, 174, 212	98, 139, 151, 213	96, 124, 161, 187	99,140,179,213
Slice 82	$\overline{2}$	113,173	113,173	110,170	111,169
	$\overline{3}$	109, 158, 203	109,158,225	103,136,198	103,146,190
	$\overline{4}$	98, 134, 173, 213	95,138,190,192	100,129,167,188	$\overline{98,133,169,210}$
Slice 92	$\overline{2}$	108,168	109,168	109,175	109,174
	3	102, 144, 186	98,146,242	115, 134, 178	94,142,190
	$\overline{4}$	98, 135, 168, 199	105, 139, 170, 230	77, 107, 149, 194	97,136,173,211
Slice 102	$\overline{2}$	114,168	114, 168	98,166	107,174
	$\overline{3}$	95, 142, 186	95, 142, 242	113,145,180	94,142,190
	$\overline{4}$	91, 131, 164, 201	90,125,128,248	$\overline{84,124,165,189}$	1,63,120,174
Slice 112	$\overline{2}$	100,150	100, 150	109,162	106, 163
	$\overline{3}$	94, 135, 173	94, 138, 247	104, 163, 216	1,70,142
	$\overline{4}$	6,62,122,169	5, 56, 209, 233	63,130,153,206	1,65,123,172

8 RESULTS

Table 3 presents the performance results of the four algorithms using Kapur's entropy as a metric. Columns 1 and 7 present the image problem instances. Columns 2 and 8 present the thresholds considered 2,3 and 4, respectively. The remaining columns present the algorithms used in this study. Columns 3 and 9 show the results obtained by the ILS GA and columns 4 and 10 show the results of the standard GA. The results of two algorithms, namely PSO and the real genetic algorithm (RGA), applied to the same images obtained from (Manikandan et al., 2014) are also presented. Columns 5 and 11 show the PSO results and columns 6 and 12 show the RGA results. The best result from 30 independent runs is reported for each image for each of the three threshold levels considered for the ILSGA and SGA algorithms. From the results across all images, on the 2 level thresholds, the ILSGA algorithm performed better than SGA on five images and equivalently on the other five images. On the 3-level thresholds, ILSGA performed better on nine images and equivalently on one image, slice22. On the 4-level thresholds, the ILS GA algorithm performed better on nine images and worse on slice 32. From the presented values, the ILSGA and SGA algorithms perform better than the PSO and RGA algorithms reported in the literature. However, this assertion is cautionary, as differences in experimental settings and image sizes may lead to disparities in the results. Table 4 presents the threshold values achieved for each image by each algorithm at the considered threshold level. An analysis of the threshold values revealed that the values obtained for the 2-level threshold were almost identical across all algorithms. For the 3-level and 4-level thresholds, the differences are wider than for the 2-level but the values are within the same range. To evaluate the significance of the differences in performance between ILSGA and SGA, the Wilcoxon rank sum test at a 5% significance level was used (Wilcoxon, 1992). The differences in performance were found to be significant where ILSGA performed significantly better than the standard GA approach.

Table 5 presents a sample of GA designs that were evolved using the ILSGA algorithm. The first and second columns show the image and threshold levels, respectively. The third column presents the parameters of the GA design, as listed in Table 1. The numbers in brackets indicate the number of times the ILS algorithm accepts a new set of parameters. The fourth column shows the design time (in milliseconds). For example, in the first row for the image slice 22 2-level threshold, the population size is 77

Table 5: ILSGA Designs.

Im	т	GA Design	Time
22	2	77,1,2,60,0,10,87,1,0(4)	18721
	3	152, 1, 2, 70, 2, 20, 119, 1, 1(12)	58341
	4	$99,2,1,80,1,10,102,1,0$ (4)	51656
62	$\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{L}}$	159,2,0,30,0,80,98,1,0(3)	65154
	3	$189, 1, 0, 20, 0, 60, 144, 1, 1$ (6)	47705
	4	77,2,2,80,1,50,51,0,1(6)	56301
102	$\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{L}}$	172,0,2,50,2,10,120,1,0(3)	60953
	3	184,1,1,30,2,20,144,0,1(5)	57887
	4	179,0,2,50,2,40,153,1,1(5)	54139

and the fitness proportionate is selected as the selection method. The crossover operator is set to BLXT at a probability rate of 60%. A bit-flip mutation was applied at a probability rate of 10 %. ILSGA was applied for 87 iterations. The process runs for 18721 milliseconds and four perturbations were accepted as new solutions. Figure 1 shows a visual illustration of the comparison between thresholded MRI images and those obtained from (Manikandan et al., 2014). The first row refers to slice 22. T2 is the output of the 2 level thresholding while T3 is the 3-level thresholding from the ILS GA. Images labelled T2* and T3* were extracted from (Manikandan et al., 2014). It can be seen that there are slight differences between those obtained from the ILSGA and those obtained from (Manikandan et al., 2014). This is in line with the obtained objective function values.

Figure 1: Comparison of Segmented Images.

9 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

This study proposes an automated genetic algorithm design using an Iterated Local Search algorithm approach. The effectiveness of the proposed approach was evaluated using T2-weighted axial brain MR. The automated design-evolved GA achieved better results on the objective function metric than the standard manually designed GA. The automated design of metaheuristics has proven to be effective in the majority of problem domains where metaheuristics have achieved success. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the efficacy of an automated design in the domain of image segmentation, specifically multilevel thresholding. Additionally, the design time of the GA is less than that of the manual approach, which can range from one day to several days as the search space of parameter values is very wide. Future work will involve a comparative analysis between ILS and a more complex algorithm. The use of an algorithm more complex than ILS may achieve better results since the ILS searches in the locality of an initial solution and can be vulnerable to local optimal. Additionally, consideration of a larger number of specimen images will be investigated.

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