# Hypervolume-Based Multi-Objective Path Relinking Algorithm

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**Abstract.** This paper presents a hypervolume-based multi-objective path relinking algorithm for approximating the Pareto optimal set of multi-objective combinatorial optimization problems. We focus on integrating path relinking techniques within a multi-objective local search as an initialization function. Then, we carry out a range of experiments on bi-objective flow shop problem and bi-objective quadratic assignment problem. Experimental results and a statistical comparison are reported in the paper. In comparison with the other algorithms, one version of our proposed algorithm is very competitive. Some directions for future research are highlighted.

**Keywords:** multi-objective optimization, hypervolume contribution, path relinking, local search, flow shop problem, quadratic assignment problem.

# 1 Introduction

Local search is an effective search strategy for both single objective optimization and multi-objective optimization. Particularly, local search requires a method to generate initial solutions. However, how to set the initialization methods still remains an open question in many cases, especially in multi-objective optimization. In this paper, we investigate path relinking [8] as an initialization method for hypervolume-based multi-objective local search (HBMOLS) [3].

The HBMOLS algorithm aims to generate a Pareto approximation set by improving an initial population. In this work, we use path relinking to construct paths and then select from each path a set of solutions to initialize a new population for HBMOLS. In order to evaluate the effectiveness of our proposed method, we show experimental results on the bi-objective flow shop problem and bi-objective quadratic assignment problem, and we compare them with the HBMOLS algorithm which initializes a new population using random mutations or crossover operator.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we present some basic notations and definitions related to multi-objective optimization. Then, in Section 3, we briefly review the literature using the path relinking techniques to solve multi-objective optimization problems. Afterwards, in Section 4, we describe the hypervolume-based multi-objective path relinking algorithm. Section 5 reports the computational results and analyzes the behavior of the proposed algorithm. Finally, the conclusions and perspectives are given in the last section.

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## 2 Multi-Objective Optimization

In this section, we recall some useful notations and definitions of multi-objective optimization. Let X denote the search space of the optimization problem under consideration and Z the corresponding objective space. Without loss of generality, we assume that  $Z = \Re^n$  and all n objectives are to be minimized. Each  $x \in X$  is assigned exactly one objective vector  $z \in Z$  on the basis of a vector function  $f : X \to Z$  with z = f(x). The mapping f defines the evaluation of a solution  $x \in X$ , and often one is interested in those solutions that are Pareto optimal with respect to f. The relation  $x_1 \succ x_2$  means that the solution  $x_1$  is *preferable* to  $x_2$ . The dominance relation between two solutions  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  is usually defined as follows:

**Definition 1.** A decision vector  $x_1$  is said to dominate another decision vector  $x_2$  (written as  $x_1 \succ x_2$ ), if  $f_i(x_1) \le f_i(x_2)$  for all  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$  and  $f_j(x_1) < f_j(x_2)$  for at least one  $j \in \{1, ..., n\}$ .

**Definition 2.**  $x \in S$  ( $S \subset X$ ) is said to be non-dominated if and only if there does not exist another solution  $x' \in S$  such that x' dominates x. When  $S \equiv X$ , x is said to be Pareto optimal.

**Definition 3.** *S* is said to be a non-dominated set if and only if *S* is composed of nondominated solutions. When *S* is composed of all the Pareto optimal solutions, *S* is said to be a Pareto optimal set.

In multi-objective optimization, there usually does not exist one optimal but a set of Pareto optimal solutions, which keeps the best compromise among all the objectives. Nevertheless, in most cases, it is not possible to compute the Pareto optimal set in a reasonable time. Then, we are interested in computing a non-dominated set, which is as close to the Pareto optimal set as possible. Therefore, the goal is often to identify a good Pareto approximation set.

## **3** Related Works

Path Relinking (PR) was initially proposed by Glover [8] as an effective search strategy, which has proved its efficiency in single objective optimization [8]. Its objective is to explore the search space by creating paths within a given set of high-quality solutions. In the following paragraphs, we focus on the studies dealing with multi-objective optimization problems.

Basseur et al. [2] propose a multi-objective approach to integrate PR techniques into an adaptive genetic algorithm, which is dedicated to obtaining a first well diversified Pareto approximation set. Based on this set, two solutions are randomly selected to generate a path. According to the distance measure defined in [2], there are many intermediate solutions which can be generated at each step of the PR procedure. Then, the authors apply a random aggregation of the objectives to determine which solution is selected from the possible eligible solutions. After linking these two solutions, a Pareto local search is applied in order to improve the quality of the non-dominated set generated by the PR algorithm. Experimental results on bi-objective flow shop problem show that this PR approach is very promising and efficient.

In [13], Pasia et al. present three PR approaches for solving a bi-objective flow shop problem. By using a straightforward implementation of the ant colony system, they first generate two pools of initial solutions, where one pool contains solutions that are good with respect to the makespan and the other one contains solutions that are good with respect to the total tardiness. Based on random insertion, all the solutions in both pools are improved by local search in order to obtain a non-dominated set. Then, the authors randomly select two solutions from this non-dominated set to construct a path. Along the path, some of the solutions are submitted for improvements. The authors propose three different strategies to define the heuristic bounds. Each strategy allows the solutions to undergo local search under the conditions based on the local nadir points. Computational results demonstrate that their proposed approaches are competitive.

In addition, two different versions of iterated Pareto local search (IPLS) algorithms, which are path-guided IPLS (pIPLS) and a combination of IPLS and pIPLS named rIPLS, are presented in [6]. The authors propose a path-guided mutation that generates solutions on the path linking two local optimal individuals. This mutation generates individuals at a certain distance from the initial solution to the guiding solution. Then, Pareto local search is restarted from the individual generated on the path. Experiments on bi-objective quadratic assignment problem show that pIPLS and rIPLS both outper-form the multi-restart Pareto local search algorithm.

## 4 Hypervolume-Based Multi-Objective Path Relinking Algorithm

This section describes the hypervolume-based multi-objective path relinking algorithm, which is a combination of the Hypervolume-Based Multi-Objective Local Search algorithm (HBMOLS) and the Multi-Objective Path Relinking algorithm (MOPR). The outline of the proposed algorithm is illustrated in Algorithm 1 and depicted in Fig. 1.

In this algorithm, all the solutions in an initial population are randomly generated. Then, each solution in the population is optimized by the HBMOLS algorithm [3], which is based on the Hypervolume Contribution Selection illustrated in Algorithm 2. The HBMOLS algorithm achieves the fitness assignment by using the hypervolume contribution indicator HC(x, P) defined in [3]. Afterwards, we randomly choose two solutions (an initial solution and a guiding solution) from the Pareto approximation set generated by HBMOLS, and we define a distance between these two solutions to construct a path. At each step, we generate only one new solution and make sure the distance between the new solution and the guiding solution decreases by 1.

After the path generation, a subset of solutions in the path are selected and used to initialize a new population P for HBMOLS. These solutions are potentially inserted into P, according to their corresponding hypervolume contribution. Actually, we propose four mechanisms to select a set of solutions from the generated path. These mechanisms are illustrated in Fig. 2 and described in detail below.

All: All the solutions in the path are selected to be inserted into the population P (solutions represented both in circle and in square in Fig. 2).

Algorithm 1. Hypervolume-Based Multi-Objective Path Relinking Algorithm
<b>Input</b> : N (Population size)
<b>Output</b> : A (Pareto approximation set)
<b>Initialization</b> : $P \leftarrow N$ randomly generated solutions
$A \leftarrow \text{Non dominated solutions of } P$
while Running time is not reached do
Local Search (HBMOLS):
1) Fitness Assignment: Calculate a fitness value for each $x \in P$ , i.e., $Fit(x) = HC(x, P)$
2) For each $x \in P$ do:
repeat
a) $x^* \leftarrow$ one randomly chosen unexplored neighbors of x
b) Progress $\leftarrow$ Hypervolume Contribution Selection $(P, x^*)$
<b>until</b> all neighbors are explored or Progress = True
3) $A \leftarrow$ Non dominated solutions of $A \bigcup P$ . If A does change, back to step 2
Path Relinking (MOPR):
1) $P' \leftarrow N$ randomly generated solutions
2) randomly choose an initial solution $x_i$ and a guiding solution $x_j$ from A
3) compute the distance $d_{ij}$ between $x_i$ and $x_j$
4) generate a set of solutions: $T = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{d_{ij}-1}\}$ along a path linking $x_i$ to $x_j$
5) select $n_{pr}$ solutions: $T' = \{y_1, y_2, \cdots, y_{n_{pr}}\}$ from the set T
6) for $i \leftarrow 1, \ldots, n_{pr}$ do
Hypervolume Contribution Selection $(P', y_i)$
end for
end while
Return A

- **Best:** The solutions in the path are divided into two sets, according to their Pareto dominance relations. The solutions belonging to the non-dominated set are selected. In Fig. 2, the solutions represented in square are selected, since they belong to the non-dominated set.
- **Middle:** The solutions located at the beginning or at the end of the path are similar to the initial solution or the guiding solution. These solutions could not be very useful, since HBMOLS will search the explored areas alike. One way to avoid this problem is to select a single solution, which is located in the middle of the path (solution represented in black circle in Fig. 2). In fact, this mechanism can be seen as a kind of crossover operator.
- *K*-Middle: Here, we also aim to avoid the problem of proximity of intermediate solutions to the initial solution and the guiding solution. Then, we propose to select a set of solutions located in the middle of the path. The number  $N_{KM}$  of these solutions is defined according to the length of generated path. We define this number by using the formula  $N_{KM} = \sqrt{N_{All}}$ , where  $N_{All}$  being the number of the solutions in the path, and  $N_{KM}$  is the greatest integer that is not bigger than  $\sqrt{N_{All}}$  (solutions located in the dashed circle in Fig. 2).

Algorithm 2. Hypervolume Contribution Selection				
Step:				
1) $P \leftarrow P \bigcup x^*$				
2) compute $x^*$ fitness: $HC(x^*, P)$ , then update all $z \in P$ fitness values:				
Fit(z) = HC(z, P)				
3) $w \leftarrow$ worst individual in P				
4) $P \leftarrow P \setminus \{w\}$ , then update all $z \in P$ fitness values: $Fit(z) = HC(z, P \setminus \{w\})$				
5) if $w \neq x^*$ , return True				



**Fig. 1.** A random population is initialized and provided as an entry to to HBMOLS, which generates a Pareto approximation set by improving the initial population. Then, MOPR generates a path between two solutions belonging to the Pareto approximation set provided by HBMOLS. A subset of solutions in the path is selected to initiate a new HBMOLS execution.

# 5 Computational Results

In order to evaluate the efficiency of our proposed algorithms, we carry out experiments on the bi-objective flow shop problem and bi-objective quadratic assignment problem. We compare four versions of hypervolume-based multi-objective path relinking algorithm (named PR\_A, PR\_B, PR\_M and PR\_KM) with two versions of HBMOLS (named RM and CO), which use random mutation and crossover operator as the initialization functions [1]. All the algorithms are programmed in C and compiled using Dev-C++ on a PC running Windows XP with Pentium 2.61 GHz CPU and 2 GB RAM.

#### 5.1 Performance Assessment Protocol

We evaluate the effectiveness of multi-objective optimization algorithms by using a test procedure that has been undertaken with the performance assessment package provided by Zitzler et al.<sup>1</sup>

The quality assessment protocol works as follows: we first create a set of 20 runs with different initial populations for each algorithm and each benchmark instance. Afterwards, we calculate the set  $PO^*$  in order to determine the quality of k different sets

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> http://www.tik.ee.ethz.ch/pisa/assessment.html



Fig. 2. The mechanisms of subset selection

 $A_0 \ldots A_{k-1}$  of non-dominated solutions (The set  $PO^*$  is generated by removing the dominated solutions from the union of k different sets, more details can be found in [19]). Furthermore, we define a reference point  $z = [w_1, w_2]$ , where  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  represent the worst values for each objective function in  $A_0 \cup \cdots \cup A_{k-1}$ . Then, the evaluation of a set  $A_i$  of solutions can be determined by finding the hypervolume difference between  $A_i$  and  $PO^*$  [19], which has to be as close to zero as possible.

For each algorithm, we compute 20 hypervolume differences corresponding to 20 runs, and perform the Mann-Whitney statistical test on the sets of hypervolume difference. In our experiments, we say that an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  outperforms an algorithm  $\mathcal{B}$  if the Mann-Whitney test provides a confidence level greater than 95%. The computational results are summarized in Tables 2 and 4 respectively. In these two tables, each line contains at least a value **in grey** for each instance, which corresponds to the best average hypervolume difference obtained by the corresponding algorithm. The values both **in italic** and **bold** mean that the corresponding algorithms are **not** statistically outperformed by the algorithm which obtains the best result (with a confidence level greater than 95%).

#### 5.2 Application to Bi-objective Flow Shop Problem

The Flow Shop Problem (FSP) is one of the most thoroughly studied machine scheduling problems, which schedules a set of jobs on a set of machines according to a specific order. In this paper, we focus on optimizing two objectives: total completion time and total tardiness.

#### 5.2.1 Bi-objective Flow Shop Problem

Generally, the FSP deals with n jobs  $\{J_1, J_2, ..., J_n\}$  and m machines  $\{M_1, M_2, ..., M_m\}$ , where each job has to be processed on all the machines in the

same machine sequence. Each machine could only process one job at a time, and the machines can not be interrupted once they start processing a job. As soon as the operation is finished, the machines become available.

Specifically, each job  $J_i$  is composed of m consecutive tasks  $\{t_{i1}, t_{i2}, ..., t_{im}\}$ , where  $t_{ij}$  represents the  $j^{th}$  task of the job  $J_i$  requiring the machine  $m_j$ . Each task  $t_{ij}$  is associated with a processing time  $p_{ij}$ , which is scheduled at the time  $s_{ij}$  and should be achieved before the due date  $d_j$ . Actually, we aim to minimize two objective functions: total completion time  $C_{max}$  and total tardiness T, which are formally defined as follows:

$$f_1 = C_{max} = \max_{i \in [1...n]} \{s_{im} + p_{im}\}$$
(1)

$$f_2 = T = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [\max(0, s_{im} + p_{im} - d_i)]$$
(2)

Both of them have been proven to be NP-hard [9,7]. In addition, all the FSP instances used in this paper are taken from Taillard benchmark instances and extended into biobjective case  $[17]^2$ .

#### 5.2.2 Path Generation

A candidate solution to FSP can be encoded as a permutation  $\mathcal{P}$  composed of  $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$  values, such that  $\mathcal{P}(i)$  denotes the job to be executed at the  $i^{th}$  position. As proved in [15], the insertion operator, which inserts a selected job to a designated position, is more effective than other operators in solving FSP. Moreover, the authors in [4] show the insertion operator is also very efficient in solving multi-objective FSPs.

Therefore, we decide to define our distance measure directly related to the insertion operator. This property allows us to to compute the minimum number of moves, which have to be applied on an initial solution to reach a guiding solution. As suggested in [2], we use the Longest Common Subsequence (LCS) between two solutions as a distance measure for path generation. The LCS can be calculated in  $O(n^2)$  by a dynamic programming algorithm, which is similar to the well known Needleman-Wunsch algorithm [5,14]. Then, the distance between two solutions is defined as the length of permutation minus the length of LCS.

After the distance computation, we generate a path in a random way. In this method, we randomly select a candidate job, and insert this job into a randomly selected position. In fact, this method consists of four main steps:

**Step 1:** We randomly select a candidate job from an initial solution. For example, in Fig. 3, the longest common subsequence between an initial solution and a guiding solution is colored in black, the remaining jobs are candidate jobs. In this example, the candidate job 15 is randomly selected.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Benchmarks available at

http://www.lifl.fr/ liefooga/benchmarks/index.html



Fig. 3. Path generation for flow shop problem

- **Step 2:** We find the position of the selected candidate job in the LCS of the guiding solution. In Fig. 3, the candidate job 15 is located between two jobs 9 and 10.
- **Step 3:** We find the insertion position for the selected candidate job in the LCS of the initial solution. As shown in Fig. 3, there are two possible insertion positions for the job 15: (9 13) and (13 10).
- Step 4: We insert the selected candidate job into a randomly selected insertion position to generate a new solution in the path. As illustrated in Fig. 3, we insert the job 15 into the randomly selected insertion position (9 13) to obtain a new solution. We continue the process in this manner until the distance between the new solution and the guiding solution equals to 0.

#### 5.2.3 Parameters Settings

The proposed algorithms require to set a few parameters, we mainly discuss two important ones: running time and population size.

**Running time:** The running time T is a key parameter in the experiments. We define the time T for each instance by Equation 3, in which  $N_{Job}$  and  $N_{Mac}$  represent the number of jobs and the number of machines of one instance,  $N_{Obj}$  represents the number of objectives (see Table 1).

$$T = \frac{N_{Job}^2 \times N_{Mac} \times N_{Obj}}{100} sec$$
(3)

T is defined according to the "difficulty" of instance. Indeed,  $N_{Job}$  defines the size of search space, which is  $N_{Job}$ !. Moreover, the roughness of landscape is strongly related with  $N_{Mac}$ . Then, we use this formula to obtain a good balance between the problem difficulty and the time allowed.

**Population size:** According to the results obtained in [1], the experiments realized previously on the IBMOLS algorithm showed that the best results are achieved with

a small population size N. We set this size from 10 to 40 individuals by Equation 4, relative to the size of tested instance (see Table 1).

$$|N| = \begin{cases} 10 : 0 < |N_{Job} \times N_{Mac}| < 500\\ 20 : 500 \le |N_{Job} \times N_{Mac}| < 1000\\ 30 : 1000 \le |N_{Job} \times N_{Mac}| < 2000\\ 40 : 2000 \le |N_{Job} \times N_{Mac}| < 3000 \end{cases}$$
(4)

Instance Dim Ν Т Instance Dim Ν Т 20\_05\_01\_ta001  $20 \times 5$  10 40" 50\_15\_01  $50 \times 15$ 20 12'30" 20\_10\_01\_ta011  $20 \times 10 \, 10$ 80" 50\_20\_01\_ta051  $50 \times 20$ 30 16'40" 20\_15\_01  $20 \times 15$ 10 2' 70\_05\_01  $70 \times 5$ 10 8'10" 20\_20\_01\_ta021  $20 \times 20$  10 2'40' 20 16'20' 70\_10\_01  $70 \times 10$ 30\_05\_01 30 × 5 10 1'30' 70\_15\_01 24'30"  $70 \times 15$ 30 30\_10\_01  $30 \times 10$ 10 3' 70\_20\_01  $70 \times 20$ 30 32'40" 30\_15\_01  $30 \times 15$ 10 4'30' 100\_05\_01\_ta061  $100 \times 5$ 20 16'40' 30\_20\_01  $30 \times 20 20$ 100\_10\_01\_ta071 33'20" 6'  $100 \times 10$ 30 50\_05\_01\_ta031  $50 \times 5$  10 4'10' 100\_15\_01  $100 \times 15$ 50' 30 50\_10\_01\_ta041  $50 \times 10 20 8'20''$ 100\_20\_01\_ta081  $100 \times 20$ 40 66'40'

**Table 1.** Parameter values used for bi-objective FSP instances  $(i_j_k \text{ represents the } k^{th} \text{ bi-objective FSP instance with } i \text{ jobs and } j \text{ machines}$ ): population size (N) and running time (T)

#### 5.2.4 Experimental Results

The computational results are summarized in Table 2. In this table, we observe that RM has a good performance on the first eight instances from 20\_5\_01 to 30\_20\_01. It obtains the best average hypervolume differences on these instances. On the other hand, PR\_KM outperforms the other algorithms on the remaining instances from 50\_5\_01 to 100\_20\_01, where almost all the best results are obtained by this algorithm. Additionally, CO is less effective in comparison with RM and PR\_KM.

From Table 2, we can see the path relinking techniques have a limited contribution on the small instances from 20\_5\_01 to 30\_20\_01. We suppose that, when the instance size is small, the length of the path is so short that it is difficult to find a set of solutions far enough from the initial and guiding solutions to initialize a new population. In this case, it is more useful to perform random moves in the search space as done in RM. When we consider the instances with more than 30 jobs, the length of the path is longer, which means we have more possibilities to explore new high quality areas in the search space. Therefore, PR\_KM has a good performance on the large instances from 50\_5\_01 to 100\_20\_01.

**Table 2.** Comparison of four versions of hypervolume-based multi-objective path relinking algorithm (PR\_A, PR\_B, PR\_M and PR\_KM) with two versions of HBMOLS (RM and CO) on 20 bi-objective FSP instances from 20\_5\_01 to 100\_20\_01. Each value in the table represents an average hypervolume difference.

Instance	Algorithm					
	PR_A	PR_B	PR_M	PR_KM	RM	CO
20_05_01_ta001	0.050496	0.076627	0.093801	0.067028	0.000260	0.005152
20_10_01_ta011	0.023355	0.055498	0.048349	0.034595	0.000739	0.027353
20_15_01	0.032433	0.073174	0.070448	0.037654	0.002330	0.037131
20_20_01_ta021	0.009737	0.034508	0.024761	0.010079	0.000077	0.044826
30_05_01	0.049260	0.081154	0.099705	0.040607	0.011844	0.062030
30_10_01	0.100098	0.200979	0.176367	0.088794	0.041814	0.116553
30_15_01	0.052479	0.096203	0.105293	0.048227	0.028186	0.054050
30_20_01	0.048423	0.064844	0.071167	0.040580	0.035835	0.051028
50_05_01_ta031	0.031220	0.083466	0.090345	0.022628	0.041017	0.056559
50_10_01_ta041	0.103891	0.149919	0.132192	0.079505	0.089703	0.116051
50_15_01	0.131563	0.173639	0.156972	0.091552	0.114880	0.131505
50_20_01_ta051	0.129671	0.176523	0.146388	0.093540	0.117150	0.141695
70_05_01	0.110650	0.191452	0.152058	0.096111	0.084047	0.146741
70_10_01	0.131195	0.177933	0.157369	0.119054	0.146445	0.172327
70_15_01	0.149831	0.174514	0.164179	0.134607	0.156965	0.178769
70_20_01	0.139377	0.183869	0.147617	0.102067	0.135491	0.137697
100_05_01_ta061	0.199309	0.359023	0.236139	0.157834	0.169815	0.175162
100_10_01_ta071	0.093883	0.121682	0.104086	0.071063	0.080287	0.086577
100_15_01	0.187296	0.205879	0.175943	0.128876	0.163312	0.174849
100_20_01_ta081	0.205930	0.220908	0.187275	0.131843	0.137246	0.180406

Compared with other versions of hypervolume-based multi-objective path relinking algorithms, the advantages of PR\_KM are very clear. As  $N_{KM}$  is smaller than  $N_{All}$ , in most cases, PR\_KM saves a lot of time during the initializing process, then it performs more effectively than PR\_A, especially on the large instances. Considering PR\_B, we select a set of non-dominated solutions from the path. However, these solutions are often close to the initializing a new population, which decreases the global effectiveness of PR\_B. For PR\_M, only one intermediate solution is selected from the path at each step, which means this algorithm spends a little time in the initializing process. Then, it is not very helpful to reinforce the population's diversity. For this reason, the effectiveness of PR\_M is affected.

#### 5.3 Application to Bi-objective Quadratic Assignment Problem

The quadratic assignment problem (QAP) is a classical combinatorial optimization problem both in theory and in practice. As one of the most difficult problems in the NP-hard class, it models many real-life problems in many areas such as the facility location, parallel and distribute computing, and combinatorial data analysis [11]. In our case, we concentrate on bi-objective quadratic assignment problem.

#### 5.3.1 Bi-objective Quadratic Assignment Problem

The quadratic assignment problem can be described as the problem of assigning a set of facilities to a set of locations with given distances between the locations and given flows between the facilities [12]. Given n facilities and n locations, three  $n \times n$  matrices D,  $F_1$  and  $F_2$ , where  $d_{ij}$  is the distance between location i and j, and  $f_{rs}^1$  and  $f_{rs}^2$  are two flows between two facilities r and s. The goal is to minimize the sum of the product between flows and distances. The objective of the QAP can then be formulated as follows:

$$\min_{\phi \in \Phi} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} d_{ij} f_{\phi_i \phi_j}^k, \ k \in \{1, 2\}$$
(5)

where  $\Phi$  is the set of all permutations of  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ , and  $\phi_i$  gives the location of item *i* in a solution  $\phi \in \Phi$ .

In this paper, all the tested instances of QAP are provided by R. E. Burkard et al.<sup>3</sup> In our case, a bi-objective QAP instance is generated by keeping the distance matrix of the first instance and using two different flow matrices. Moreover, we denote a bi-objective instance as N\_i\_ab (N represents the name of instance such as "esc") with a matrix of size i respectively. For example, esc\_32\_ab denotes a bi-objective instance named "esc", which is generated by two single-objective instances esc\_32\_a and esc\_32\_b.

#### 5.3.2 Path Generation

A candidate solution to QAP can be encoded as a permutation  $\mathcal{P}$  composed of  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  values, such that  $\mathcal{P}(i)$  denotes the facility to be assigned at the  $i^{th}$  location. As proved in [16], the swap operator, which exchanges two facilities in a permutation, is very effective for solving QAP. Then, we define the distance between two solutions directly related to the swap operator.

For QAP, we use the permutation distance and the cycle distance [18,14] as the distance measure. Actually, the distance between two solutions is defined as the permutation distance minus the cycle distance. Afterwards, we construct a path by randomly selecting an element from one cycle in a permutation and applying the swap operator to this element to obtain a new solution.

An example of path generation for QAP is illustrated in Fig. 4. In this example, there is one integer element (11) located at the same position in an initial solution and a guiding solution, then the permutation distance is 10. On the other hand, there are three cycles ( $\{3, 1, 2, 7, 8\}$ ,  $\{4, 5, 6\}$  and  $\{10, 9\}$ ) between these two permutations, so the cycle distance is 3. Therefore, the distance between the initial solution and the guiding solution is equal to 7.

Furthermore, there are 7 steps starting from the initial solution  $P_x$  to the guiding solution  $P_y$ , which allows us to generate 6 solutions on the path. For instance, we first randomly select a facility 2 from one cycle  $\{3, 1, 2, 7, 8\}$  in  $P_x$ , and we can observe the facility 2 is located at the second position in  $P_y$ . Then, we apply the swap operator to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Benchmarks available at http://www.seas.upenn.edu/qaplib/inst.html



Fig. 4. Path generation for quadratic assignment problem

two facilities 1 and 2 in  $P_x$  in order to generate a new solution. We continue this process until the distance between the new solution  $P_i$  and the guiding solution  $P_y$  is equal to 0.

## 5.3.3 Parameters Settings

Similar to the parameter settings in FSP, we consider two important parameters: running time and population size.

- **Running time:** We define the running time T for each instance by Equation 6, in which  $N_{Dis}$ ,  $N_{Flow}$  and  $N_{Obj}$  represent respectively the size of the distance matrix, the size of the flow matrix and the number of objectives in an instance (see Table 3).

$$T = N_{Dis} \times N_{Flow} \times N_{Obj} sec \tag{6}$$

- **Population size:** Here, we set this size from 10 to 30 individuals according to Equation 7, relatively to the size of the tested instance (see table 3).

$$|N| = \begin{cases} 10 : 0 < |N_{Dis} \times N_{Flow}| < 500\\ 20 : 500 \le |N_{Dis} \times N_{Flow}| < 1000\\ 30 : 1000 \le |N_{Dis} \times N_{Flow}| < 2000\\ 40 : 2000 \le |N_{Dis} \times N_{Flow}| < 3000 \end{cases}$$
(7)

Inst 1	Inst 2	Dim	Ν	Т
chr_12_a	chr_12_b	$12 \times 12$	10	4'48"
chr_15_a	chr_15_b	$15 \times 15$	10	7'30"
chr_20_a	chr_20_b	$20 \times 20$	10	13'20"
esc_16_a	esc_16_b	$16 \times 16$	10	8'32"
esc_32_a	esc_32_b	$32 \times 32$	30	16'20"
Lipa_30_a	Lipa_30_b	$30 \times 30$	20	15'
Ste_36_a	Ste_36_b	36 × 36	30	21'36"
tai_40_a	tai_40_b	$40 \times 40$	30	26'40"
tai_50_a	tai_50_b	$50 \times 50$	40	41'40"

**Table 3.** The instances of bi-objective quadratic assignment problem (Parameters: population size N, running time T)

#### 5.3.4 Experimental Results

The computational results for the bi-objective QAP are presented in Table 4. From this table, we can see RM has a good performance almost on all the instances. Particularly, it obtains the best average hypervolume differences on five instances. Moreover, PR\_KM also obtains very competitive results on all the instances, especially on the large instances, such as Lipa\_30\_ab, tai\_40\_ab and tai\_50\_ab. However, CO is statistically outperformed by RM and PR\_KM on most of the instances.

**Table 4.** Comparison of four versions of hypervolume-based multi-objective path relinking algorithm (PR\_A, PR\_B, PR\_M and PR\_KM) with two versions of HBMOLS (RM and CO) on 9 bi-objective QAP instances. Each value in the table represents an average hypervolume difference.

Instance	Algorithm					
	PR_A	PR_B	PR_M	PR_KM	RM	CO
chr_12_ab	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.013407
chr_15_ab	0.002988	0.010994	0.000000	0.002271	0.000000	0.026494
chr_20_ab	0.014042	0.025258	0.004827	0.005560	0.001899	0.017890
esc_16_ab	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
esc_32_ab	0.006312	0.008839	0.002594	0.003003	0.002433	0.007948
Lipa_30_ab	0.001956	0.002159	0.001369	0.001347	0.001433	0.003047
Ste_36_ab	0.304087	0.356747	0.669592	0.364021	0.215314	0.203776
tai_40_ab	0.037541	0.041880	0.031969	0.027092	0.046076	0.080534
tai_50_ab	0.038647	0.030516	0.040565	0.027077	0.048410	0.046201

According to the experimental results in table 4, RM has a better performance than PR\_KM on the first four instances. Since these instances are small and relatively easy

to solve, the PR\_KM and RM algorithms achieve the best results on three instances (chr\_12\_ab, chr\_15\_ab and esc\_16\_ab), where the average hypervolume differences are equal to 0. Furthermore, on these small instances, it is not easy for PR\_KM to construct a long path to find enough diversified solutions for initializing a new population. Then it is better to perform random moves in the search space or to select only one solution from the generated path as done in PR\_M. When the size of instance becomes larger, we can construct a longer path and select more useful solutions from the path, which means we have more chances to explore high quality areas in the objective space. Therefore, PR\_KM obtains the best value on the large instances such as tai\_50\_ab and a competitive value on the instance esc\_32\_ab. However, the instance Ste\_36\_ab is an exception, CO obtains the best value on this instance. In fact, only several non-dominated solutions are found in the population. We suppose that the search procedure is often trapped in some local optimums, then using crossover operator is a better way to be out of these traps.

## 6 Conclusions and Perspectives

In this paper, we present a hypervolume-based multi-objective path relinking algorithm, which is applied to the bi-objective flow shop problem and bi-objective quadratic assignment problem. This algorithm integrates the path relinking techniques into hypervol -umebased multi-objective local search as an initialization function, in order to find a Pareto approximation set. Actually, we provide a general scheme of path relinking algorithm, which can be used to deal with other multi-objective optimization problems.

Experimental results indicate one version of our proposed algorithms is very competitive in comparison with other algorithms. The performance analysis gives us a few directions for future research. The first possibility is to generate more intermediate solutions at each step, then one can construct several different paths simultaneously. Especially, for each path, it could give birth to another path in reverse direction. Second, it is worth proposing other mechanisms of subset selection. The new mechanisms could have the potential to obtain a better Pareto approximation set.

On the other hand, it should be very interesting to integrate MOPR into other metaheuristics such as tabu search, in order to evaluate its overall effectiveness. The cooperation of MOPR with exact methods can be also a promising search area. For instance, MOPR could be used to link Pareto optimal solutions found by an exact approach. Several approaches between MOPR and exact approaches could be defined, as those described in the taxonomy of Jourdan et al. [10].

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