

**Bachelor Project**



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Technical  
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**Faculty of Electrical Engineering  
Department of Cybernetics**

## **Evolutionary Algorithms with Indirect Representation**

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**Study program: Open Informatics**

**Specialisation: Artificial Intelligence and Computer Science**

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Guidelines:

- 1) Review state-of-the-art methods for solving the Capacitated Arc Routing Problem (CARP), focusing on metaheuristics and evolutionary algorithms with indirect representation.
- 2) Collect available data sets used to benchmark the methods in the literature.
- 3) Study the algorithm IREANN introduced in [3].
- 4) Propose a method for the IREANN algorithm to identify high-level solution components on the fly and use them in the subsequent phases of the evolutionary process.
- 5) Implement the proposed method.
- 6) Experimentally evaluate and analyze the proposed extension of the IREANN algorithm on the CARP problem.

Bibliography / sources:

- [1] Ke Tang, Yi Mei, and Xin Yao: Memetic algorithm with extended neighborhood search for capacitated arc routing problems, IEEE Transactions on Evolutionary Computation 13 (2009), no. 5, 1151–1166
- [2] Júnior Bonfim et al.: A biased random-key genetic algorithm using dotted board model for solving two-dimensional irregular strip packing problems. 2020 IEEE Congress on Evolutionary Computation (CEC), DOI: 10.1109/CEC48606.2020.9185794, 2020
- [3] Ji í Kubalík, Michal Snížek: A novel evolutionary algorithm with indirect representation and extended nearest neighbor constructive procedure for solving routing problems. ISDA 2014: 156-161
- [4] Chen Jiang, Rong-Quan Yang, Bo Yuan: An evolutionary algorithm with indirect representation for droplet routing in digital microfluidic biochips, Engineering Applications of Artificial Intelligence, Volume 115, 2022, 105305

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## Declaration

I declare that the presented work was developed independently and that I have listed all sources of information used within it in accordance with the methodical instructions for observing the ethical principles in the preparation of university theses.

Prague, 26. May 2023

## Abstract

This thesis proposes an extension to the IREANN evolutionary algorithm to enhance its performance in combinatorial optimization problems, specifically the Capacitated Arc Routing Problem (CARP). The extension allows valuable information about superior solution features to be shared across the entire population during computation. This propagation mechanism, applied periodically, enhances the nearest neighbor heuristic, thereby improving the overall optimization capabilities of the algorithm. The effectiveness of these modifications is empirically tested using standard CARP benchmark datasets.

**Keywords:** evolutionary computation, local search, metaheuristics, genetic algorithm, nearest neighbor heuristic

**Supervisor:** Ing. Jiří Kubalík, Ph.D.

## Abstrakt

Tato práce navrhuje rozšíření evolučního algoritmu IREANN s cílem zvýšit jeho výkonnost v kombinatorických optimalizačních problémech, konkrétně v problému CARP (Capacitated Arc Routing Problem). Rozšíření umožňuje, aby se během výpočtu sdílely cenné informace o vynikajících vlastnostech řešení napříč celou populací. Tento pravidelně aplikovaný mechanismus šíření informací vylepšuje heuristiku nejbližšího souseda, a tím zlepšuje celkové optimalizační schopnosti algoritmu. Účinnost těchto úprav je empiricky testována pomocí standardních referenčních datových sad CARP.

**Klíčová slova:** evoluční algoritmus, lokální prohledávání, metaheuristiky, genetický algoritmus, heuristika nejbližšího souseda

**Překlad názvu:** Evoluční algoritmy s nepřímou reprezentací

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

Combinatorial optimization problems are a class of challenging tasks that involve finding the best arrangement or combination of discrete elements from a large set of possibilities. These problems arise in various fields, such as logistics, scheduling, network design, and resource allocation. Examples of combinatorial optimization problems include the traveling salesman problem (TSP), the knapsack problem, or the graph coloring problem to name only a few. The complexity of these problems lies in the exponential growth of possible solutions as the problem size increases, making it computationally infeasible to search the entire solution space.

Metaheuristics have emerged as a powerful technique to face the computational challenges posed by complex combinatorial problems. Metaheuristics provide a flexible and robust framework for addressing optimization challenges by operating at a higher level of abstraction. These algorithms offer a unique approach to problem-solving by exploring large solution spaces efficiently and effectively. They are particularly well-suited for combinatorial optimization problems where traditional methods, such as linear programming, integer programming, etc., struggle due to the high-dimensional and non-linear nature of the search space.

Among many other, evolutionary algorithms (EAs) represent a powerful class of metaheuristics that have demonstrated remarkable effectiveness in solving combinatorial optimization problems. Inspired by the principles of natural evolution, these algorithms emulate the process of natural selection and adaptation to guide the search for optimal or near-optimal solutions. They typically work with a population of individuals, where each individual represents a possible solution to the problem at hand. On top of what EAs can offer, it is common practise to integrate local search techniques in order to enhance the performance. Local search focuses on exploring the neighborhood of a given solution to find better nearby solutions. By combining local search with evolutionary algorithms, the search process benefits from both global exploration and local exploitation, leading to improved solution quality and convergence.

An example of such evolutionary based algorithm is IREANN, introduced by Kubalík and Snížek in [KS14]. IREANN uses an indirect representation

and a so-called nearest neighbor heuristic, which is a constructive procedure suited for routing problems. Both of these concepts used in IREANN are heavily exploited in this thesis. Local search heuristics might be incorporated to IREANN to yield even better performance.

However, given the nature of IREANN's indirect representation functionality, improvements made by local search heuristics would only affect the single individual whose neighborhood of solution space was searched. The information about local improvements can not be easily passed between other individuals in a population.

The objective of this thesis is to propose an extension to the IREANN algorithm that enables the propagation of valuable information about high-quality features of individual solutions across the entire population during computation. This extension aims to ensure that the entire population can potentially benefit from the insights gained from individually discovered superior features, thereby enhancing the overall performance and optimization capabilities of the algorithm.

The principle of enhancing the algorithm is to incorporate a mechanism that during computation captures and retains information about the features that contribute the most to high-quality solutions. The mechanism involves periodically storing the relevant information which is subsequently used in the nearest neighbor heuristic, and serves as a proxy to information about the actual distance. The whole algorithm was specifically designed to solve the Capacitated arc routing problem (CARP), which is more challenging than the famous TSP and introduces more constraints.

Several slight modifications of above mentioned approach have been implemented as a result of this thesis. The effects of proposed extension on solution quality were empirically verified by testing on standard available CARP benchmark datasets.

The thesis is structured as follows. Chapter 2 formally defines the Capacitated Arc Routing Problem. Chapter 3 gives an overview of related work. Preliminaries are introduced in chapter 4. The extension to IREANN is proposed in chapter 5 and the experiments are carried out in chapter 6.

## Chapter 2

### Problem definition

The capacitated arc routing problem (CARP), firstly introduced by Golden and Wong [GW81], is a subject in combinatorial optimization, commonly appearing in operations research and transportation logistics. In this chapter, we will provide a formal definition of the CARP, establish relevant terminology, and underline the basic properties that characterize this complex problem.

The Capacitated Arc Routing Problem (CARP) is a variant of the arc routing problem where a fleet of vehicles of uniform capacity is used to service a set of arcs or edges in a network. The fundamental challenge is to design the minimum cost set of routes such that each vehicle originates and terminates at a depot, each edge in the network requiring service is traversed by exactly one vehicle, and the total demand serviced by any vehicle does not exceed its capacity.

The problem is defined on a connected, undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$ , where  $V$  is the set of vertices and  $E$  is the set of edges. Every edge  $e \in E$  has a non-negative cost or length  $c_e$  and a non-negative demand for service  $d_e$ . The edges with positive demand make up the subset of the required edges  $E_R$ . In CARP, the graph is typically undirected, meaning that each edge can be traversed in either direction with equal cost. Throughout this thesis, the terms cost and distance are used interchangeably. The demand  $d_e$  of an edge  $e$  represents the quantity of some resource or service that must be delivered along that edge. Each vehicle has a maximum capacity  $Q$  and the total demand of all edges in its route cannot exceed this capacity. Given a vehicle capacity  $Q$ , the CARP consists of finding a set of vehicle routes of minimum cost, such that every required edge is serviced by exactly one vehicle, each route starts and ends at a prespecified vertex  $v_0 \in V$  (the depot) and the total demand serviced by a route does not exceed the vehicle capacity  $Q$ . The number of maximum vehicles  $K$  used is also constrained. Golden and Wong [GW81] show that the CARP is NP-hard.



## Chapter 3

### Related work

The Capacitated Arc Routing Problem (CARP) is known to be NP-hard. Due to its complexity, it is possible to solve it exactly only for small-sized instances. Instances of large size usually make use of heuristic, more specifically metaheuristic approaches.

This chapter provides an overview of known techniques and algorithms that have been utilized in the literature to solve instances of the CARP.

#### 3.1 Exact and lower bound methods

Lower bound methods provide a tight lower bound on its optimal cost. Such a bound is helpful when evaluating larger CARP instances, where heuristic approach has to be employed, since solving them exactly would be computationally too demanding and not feasible at all. Thus, achieving a solution which is close to a lower bound might be a good measure of quality for heuristic algorithms. A simplified integer linear model was proposed by Belenguer and Benavent [BB03]. The sparse formulation used does not lead to a valid CARP solutions, but presents very tight lower bounds for the problem. Only one integer is used for each edge, which results in not being able to say which vehicles service which edges.

First possible way of solving CARP is based on transforming the problem into a node routing problem and then using existing VRP methods to solve it. Quality of the solution depends on how well, meaning how compact such a transformation can get. The goal is for the dimension to not increase drastically. First transformation of its kind was introduced by Pearn, Assad and Golden [PAG87] which reduced the CARP problem into CVRP problem, but was regarded as unpractical, the resulted graph had too many vertices. Similar transformation was then proposed by Longo, Aragao and Uchoa [LdU06], which further reduced the number of vertices. More recently, a compact transformation was introduced recently by Les Foulds et al. [FLM15] where the number of nodes is at most larger only by one than the number of edges. A adapted version of branch-and-cut-and-price algorithm for CVRPs was used to obtain the results. The authors managed to solve all of the

instances from the *gdb* dataset, however some instances in the larger dataset *egl* were not solved satisfactorily.

As mentioned by Bode and Irnich [BI12], converting arc routing problems into node routing ones has significant drawbacks, which are models with inherent symmetry, dense underlying networks or models with huge number of vertices. Therefore, it is worth considering specialized CARP methods to address these issues. Specialized exact algorithms for CARP often involve solving integer programs using branch-and-cut or branch-and-bound combined with column generation. Branch-and-cut uses a cutting plane approach, in which inequalities are added to the optimization problem. By adding these cuts, the feasible region of the subproblems can be further restricted, which can help the algorithm find the optimal solution more efficiently. Column generation, on the other hand, involves iteratively generating and adding columns (variables) to the problem's constraint matrix until an optimal solution is found. Mentioned algorithms are used in [BI12], [BCL13] to solve instances with up to 190 nodes to optimality. Instances with number of nodes greater than 200 remain unsolved by exact approaches.

## 3.2 Heuristics

Heuristics algorithms are approximate methods that are used to quickly find a solution to an optimization problem that is likely to be close to the optimal solution. They are typically used when the exact optimization problem is too computationally expensive to solve in a reasonable amount of time, which is the case for solving larger instances of the CARP. The main focus will be on meta-heuristics, which represent more general techniques applicable to wide range of optimization problems.

One of the most famous algorithms for solving CARP is a tabu search algorithm called CARPET proposed by Hertz, Laporte and Mittaz [HLM00]. In CARPET, a solution is represented by a set of nodes representing all traversed edges. Solutions violating vehicle capacity are accepted but penalized. The search process in a tabu search is guided by the tabu rules, which specify which moves are allowed and which are "tabu" (forbidden) at each step. Number of improvement procedures which are used in the search process are presented in CARPET (Shorten, Drop, Add, Paste, Cut, Switch and Postopt).

Subsequently, Hertz and Mittaz in [HM01] applied a new algorithm to solve the CARP, which is the Variable Neighborhood Descent algorithm (VND). It replaces the framework of the tabu search with the framework of the variable neighborhood search and achieves slightly better solutions. It involves exploring a sequence of neighborhoods around the current solution. Several descents with different neighborhoods are performed until a local optimum for all considered neighborhoods is reached. However successful the solutions, the encoding used by CARPET and VND leads to intricate improving procedure, thus potentially making the search space vast.

Lacomme, Prins and Ramdane-Chérif [LPRC01] proposed a memetic algorithm (LMA), a genetic algorithm hybridized with a local search. Genetic part of the algorithm is inspired by the process of natural evolution and use techniques such as selection, crossover, and mutation to search for the optimal solution to a problem. Based on this evaluation, the algorithm selects the fittest individuals to survive and reproduce, and combines their genetic material through crossover to create new offspring. Mutation is then used to introduce random changes to the genetic material of the offspring, in order to explore a wider range of potential solutions. MA uses a more compact and natural encoding. Each edge is represented by only two indices, one for each direction. A route can then be defined by a list of such indices. Two consecutive edges in a route are connected by implicit shortest paths, which can be computed in advance. This encoding scheme is very useful when only fraction of edges are required and has been used in almost all metaheuristics published after CARPET and VND. MA achieves is more successful on the standard testing sets than CARPET, while also being twice as fast.

Are recent tabu search algorithm for solving a modified version of the original CARP problem was recently proposed in [LZJQ18]. They consider split-delivery CARP (SDCARP), which generalizes conventional CARP by allowing an arc to be serviced by more than one vehicle. Forest-based tabu search utilizing forest-based neighborhood operators is used in this approach.

A similar memetic algorithm to (LMA) with extended neighborhood search (MAENS) was proposed in [TMY09]. This work proposed a novel local search operator, which is capable of searching using large step sizes and is less likely to become trapped in locally optimal solutions.

To tackle the largest CARP benchmark instances, Mei, Tang and Yao [MLY13] present a mechanism called Random Route Grouping (RRG) designed to decompose the large-scale CARP (LSCARP). RRG is combined with a cooperative co-evolution (CC) model to give yield impressive result on large datasets. The cooperative co-evolution framework is a natural way to implement divide-and-conquer strategy. Generally, CC is a type of evolutionary algorithm that involves the simultaneous evolution of multiple subpopulations, or "species," that are interdependent and work together to find a solution to a problem. A bit later, authors of [MLY14] improve on the decomposition procedure by incorporating information about the quality of the best solution found in the search.

Another group of possible meta-heuristic approaches are ant-colony algorithms, which are inspired by the behaviour of ant colonies. A set of artificial ants is initialized at selected locations of the network, the network is then explored by the ants which are combining local information (the cost of the arc connecting the current node to the next one), with the global information (pheromone levels on the arcs). Pheromone levels store the information about the quality of the solutions found so far. Ants deposit pheromones on the arcs as they traverse, which influences the behaviour of other ants. Tirkolae et al. [TAH<sup>+</sup>19] introduce an ant colony based metaheuristic with some modifications. They use a modified version of the Ant Colony Opti-

mization algorithm derived from Ant System called Max-Min Ant System (MMAS). MMAS was firstly presented by Stützle and Hoos in [SH00], their main contribution was the introduction of upper and lower bounds for the value of the pheromones which avoids stagnation of the search. [TAH<sup>+</sup>19] further improves the performance of MMAS by utilizing a mechanism called Pheromone Trial Smoothing (PTS), which results in preventing premature convergence, avoiding local optima and increasing efficient search space.

In [MLRR11], a biased random key genetic algorithm is combined with a local search. Optimal or near optimal solutions were obtained while achieving small computation times during testing on sets of CARP benchmark instances. Classical local search methods which “fine-tune” its solutions are used to potentially find better ones. Local search might be applied in different ways. One is to pass the best solution found by RKGGA to a local search algorithm to be further optimized, another possibility is to use local search as a mutation operator within RKGGA.

Open CARP is a variant of the original CARP problem which releases the constraint which states that routes must begin and end at a depot, which means that the routes in this variant do not have form cycles. A recent work of [AU18] deals with the open CARP by introducing a Hybrid genetic algorithm, whose main features is standard genetic algorithm combined with local search and feasibility procedure which is responsible for obtaining a feasible solution from chromosome. Feasibilization proved to have substantial role on performance. It also includes a population restart which avoids premature convergence of the population, which happens when the genetic diversity is low and only small are of the search space is being explored.

In some cases, the demand for a product or service may be uncertain or subject to random fluctuations. Such behaviour is modeled by one of the most recently studied variant of the CARP problem, the Uncertain CARP (UCARP). It was proposed to better reflect the aspects of real-world problems. In UCARP, the travel cost between vertices in the graph and demand of tasks is unknown in advance, and is revealed during the process of executing the services. In this case, a preplanned solution may become worse or even infeasible. Authors of [WMZY21] propose a novel genetic programming approach, which simplifies the routing policies during the evolutionary process using a niching technique, which leads to a more interpretable policies. Niching is a technique used to preserve diversity among populations of solutions. It avoids aforementioned premature convergence, where the algorithm would get stuck in a local optimum. Instead of having a single population of solutions that all evolve together, niching involves dividing the population into subpopulations, or niches. These niches contain solutions that are similar to each other, but distinct from those in other niches. This way, the search space is expanded, increasing the chances of finding the best solution.



# Chapter 4

## Preliminaries

### 4.1 Evolutionary Algorithms

Evolutionary Algorithms (EAs) are a diverse family of optimization techniques rooted in the principles of biological evolution. Mimicking nature’s underlying processes, they use mechanisms inspired by natural selection and genetics to solve complex search and optimization problems. The general approach of EAs is to maintain a population of candidate solutions for the problem at hand and to iteratively improve this population over time. They are characterized by their population-based search approach, their utilization of stochastic processes, and their capability of maintaining and exploring a diversity of solutions. This provides an inherent robustness, allowing for a versatile exploration of the search space, and makes EAs well-suited for a wide range of problems, including those with large and intricate search spaces, non-linear relationships, or poorly understood fitness landscapes. The versatility of EAs is showcased in the “Humies” competition, hosted at <https://human-competitive.org/>. This competition serves as a platform to demonstrate how EAs can excel in various domains by producing solutions that are comparable to or even outperform those created by human designers.

The main operators utilized within EAs are selection, crossover (or recombination), and mutation, which emulate the mechanisms of survival of the fittest, mating, and random genetic mutation respectively.

Pseudocode of a general evolutionary algorithm:

- 1: Initialize population  $P_0$
- 2: **while** termination condition is not met **do**
- 3:   Evaluate fitness of individuals in  $P_t$
- 4:   Select parents from  $P_t$
- 5:   Generate offspring by crossover and mutation
- 6:   Evaluate fitness of offspring
- 7:   Select individuals for  $P_{t+1}$  from parents and offspring
- 8: **end while**

Above, the provided pseudocode outlines a general evolutionary algorithm in five steps. First, it creates the initial population of candidate solutions.

Then, the algorithm iteratively evaluates the fitness of individuals in the current population. Next, parents are selected from the population, and offspring are generated through crossover and mutation operations. The fitness of the offspring is then evaluated. Finally, individuals for the next population are selected from both the parents and the offspring. This iterative process continues until the termination condition is met, which usually is the maximum number of generations. The pseudocode serves as a flexible template for implementing various evolutionary algorithms tailored to specific optimization problems.

It is necessary to provide a summary of key terms and concepts commonly used in evolutionary algorithms. A few of the most important terms were selected from [HGBT] by Beyer et al.

Term	Description
Gene	The fundamental unit in an individual's solution, representing a specific piece of information or parameter.
Genotype	The complete set of genes that make up an individual's solution. It represents the encoded solution in the search space.
Phenotype	The manifestation of the genotype in the problem space, denoting the actual solution to the problem.
Individual	Represents a single solution to the optimization problem, characterized by its genotype and associated phenotype.
Fitness	The quality or suitability of a solution, measured by a problem-specific fitness function.
Population	The collection of individuals in a given generation, representing the pool of current solutions in the search space.
Evolution	The iterative process of generating new populations with potentially improved fitness over generations through selection, crossover, and mutation.

**Table 4.1:** Key Concepts in Evolutionary Algorithms

While all EAs share these commonalities, different types of EAs have emerged, customizing these concepts to particular problem types or application areas. Each type has its unique features and specializations, with notable examples including Genetic Algorithms, Genetic Programming, Differential Evolution, Evolution Strategies, and Evolutionary Programming [M<sup>+</sup>18]. Genetic algorithms and their memetic extension will be discussed in further detail below.

Genetic Algorithms (GAs) constitute a significant branch of EAs, with a strong emphasis on the mechanisms of natural selection and genetics. Taking inspiration from Charles Darwin's theory of natural evolution, GAs maintain a population of candidate solutions that evolve over generations. They were introduced by Holland and Goldberg [MG<sup>+</sup>95].

Although GAs are a part of the broader EA family, their distinctive feature lies in their particular implementation of the evolutionary principles. The

concrete representation of solutions as chromosomes, the clear distinction of generations, and the straightforward usage of genetic operators make GAs a robust and versatile tool for a wide array of optimization problems.

Each individual solution in a GA is characterized by a set of parameters or variables, encoded in a data structure analogous to a chromosome. These chromosomes can be binary strings, real-valued vectors, or other appropriate structures depending on the specific problem being addressed.

The fitness of each individual is assessed using an objective function specific to the problem, similar to how an individual organism's fitness for survival might be measured in nature. This objective function acts as the primary evaluator and driver for the progression of solutions, pushing the evolution process towards optimal or near-optimal solutions.

GA operates using three main genetic operators:

- **Selection:** This operator mimics the survival of the fittest principle. It selects the individuals with higher fitness values to pass their genes to the next generation.
- **Crossover (or Recombination):** It emulates the genetic recombination observed in nature, where offspring inherit genetic information from their parents. In GA, it is a method to create new candidate solutions by combining parts of the 'chromosomes' of two or more selected individuals from the current population.
- **Mutation:** This operator introduces random modifications in the chromosome of individuals, promoting genetic diversity and enabling the exploration of new areas of the search space.

## 4.2 Local Search Procedures

Local search optimization is a crucial aspect of evolutionary algorithms, providing an exploration of the neighborhood of solutions to refine the global search. It can greatly enhance the performance of the evolutionary algorithm by allowing it to find better solutions that might be missed in the course of the global search. [BKK14]

A local search is conducted by perturbing the current solution slightly to create a neighboring solution, then comparing the fitness of the new solution to the fitness of the current solution. If the new solution is better (i.e., it has a higher fitness), it replaces the current solution, and the process is repeated. This is commonly known as hill climbing, since it can be visualized as climbing the peak of a fitness landscape.

Given the stochastic nature of evolutionary algorithms, the incorporation of local search techniques adds an additional layer of robustness and effectiveness to the solution process. As a result, evolutionary algorithms provide a strong global search capability, local search on the other hand allows for refinement and exploitation of the best solutions found, which again provides a balance between exploring and exploiting possible solutions.



```

1: Initialize  $n$  single node components  $start_i = i, end_i = i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ 
2:  $j \leftarrow 1$ 
3: do
4:   Take  $j$ -th city,  $P[j]$ , from the priority list  $P$ 
5:   Identify component  $C_k$  to which city  $P[j]$  belongs
6:   if  $P[j]$  is either  $start_k$  or  $end_k$  of  $C_k$  then
7:      $N \leftarrow \text{nearestNeighbor}(P[j])$ 
8:     add edge  $(N, P[j])$ 
9:   else
10:     $N_1 \leftarrow \text{nearestNeighbor}(start_k)$ 
11:     $N_2 \leftarrow \text{nearestNeighbor}(end_k)$ 
12:    if  $\text{dist}(N_1, start_k) \leq \text{dist}(N_1, end_k)$  then
13:      add edge  $(N_1, start_k)$ 
14:    else
15:      add edge  $(N_2, end_k)$ 
16:    end if
17:  end if
18:   $j++$ 
19: while  $j \leq n$ 

```

**Figure 4.1:** The extended nearest neighbor construction procedure

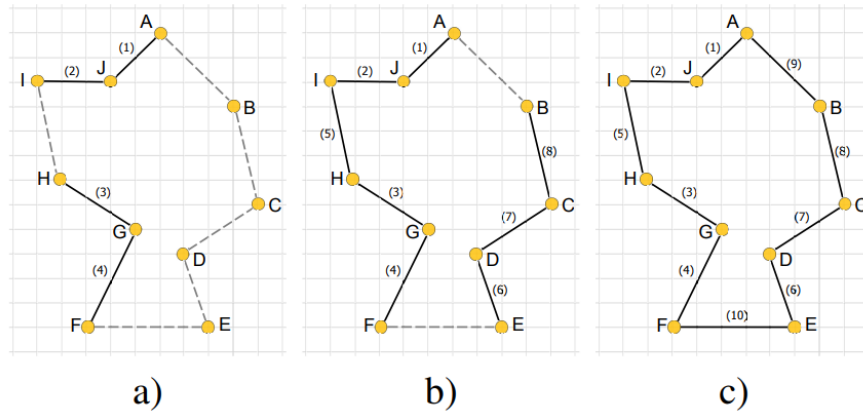
“Constructive Nearest Neighbor Procedure” are used interchangeably in this thesis. The procedure begins with  $n$  separate route components. Each route component, denoted as  $C_k$ , is marked by its boundary cities  $start_k, end_k$ . Initially, every city serves as its own distinct component, implying  $start_i = i$  and  $end_i = i$  for each city  $i$  from 1 to  $n$ .

Throughout the procedure, the algorithm iterates over the priority list, using the nearest neighbor heuristic at each step. At each iteration  $i$ , it processes an element from the priority list  $P[i]$ . Depending on  $P[i]$ , a component  $C_k$  is identified, which may contain one or multiple nodes.

If  $P[i]$  turns out to be a boundary node of  $C_k$ , the procedure picks the city closest to  $P[i]$  and adds it to the route. Alternatively, if  $P[i]$  is not a boundary node, it locates the nearest neighbors of the boundary nodes  $start_k$  and  $end_k$  of the component  $C_k$ , labeled as  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ . Of the two possible edges  $(N_1, start_k)$  and  $(N_2, end_k)$ , the one with the shorter distance is chosen and added to the route.

At every step, the process merges two components into a single one. This sequence of actions repeats until only a single component is left, symbolizing the final route.

Figure 4.2 provides a graphical illustration of this procedure, constructing a route from the priority list  $P = \{A, I, H, F, J, E, C, D, G, B\}$ . As observed, 4.2 a) processes  $\{A, I, H, F\}$ , wherein each step selects the shortest link to a node’s neighbor, leading to two components  $\{A, J, I\}$  and  $\{F, G, H\}$ . However, when the node J is considered, it’s already part of a component and not a boundary node. Hence, the nearest neighbor is sought from nodes



**Figure 4.2:** Example of the extended nearest neighbor constructive procedure (source: [KS14])

I and A. Since the link between I and H is shorter than that between A and B, the components are connected through the I and H edge. The final route, as shown in 4.2 c), is derived by applying the same rules to the remaining priority list.

As previously mentioned, several priority lists might eventually represent the same route. In this straightforward instance,  $\{A, I, H, F, J, E, C, D, G, B\}$ ,  $\{I, C, E, B, H, F, A, J, G, D\}$ , and  $\{F, A, C, H, I, E, D, B, G, J\}$  all lead to the same final route.

## Chapter 5

### Proposed method

This chapter proposes an extended version of the original IREANN algorithm, whose main contribution is the incorporation of a feature extraction and propagation mechanism. This mechanism aims to leverage high-quality features from individual solutions and propagate the knowledge across the entire population. The primary purpose is to increase the algorithm's effectiveness in dealing with complex combinatorial optimization problems. This mechanism is described in detail in section 5.2.

As a test case for the extended IREANN, an arc routing problem named the Capacitated Arc Routing Problem (CARP) was chosen. However, IREANN was originally designed to solve the Travelling Salesman Problem, a vehicle routing problem. That implies some changes to the core IREANN algorithm were necessary to adapt it to the nuances of CARP. CARP introduces additional complexities not present in the Travelling Salesman Problem. It is a more complex problem that not only requires routing, but also involves servicing edges or arcs with specific demands while defining capacity constraints of the vehicles.

The adjustment of the inner representation of routes for each individual in the population and the modification of the nearest neighbor heuristic is crucial for the domain of the CARP, furthermore the adaptation of local search operators specifically for CARP, which play a crucial role in the algorithm's efficiency, is also required.

On the other hand, the core components of the evolutionary framework, specifically, the selection, crossover, and mutation operators remain largely unchanged. This is because these genetic operators are fundamentally problem-independent and can be applied in the same way across a wide variety of combinatorial optimization problems.

#### 5.1 IREANN customizations to CARP

In CARP, the atomic element shifts from a node to an edge. Instead of cities as it is the case in TSP, the entities to be visited are now the required edges of a graph, each having a specific demand to be serviced. This change





to which the edge  $P[i]$  belongs,  $C_i$ , is identified. Nearest available neighbors to the  $start_i$  and  $end_i$  boundary nodes of the component  $C_i$ ,  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ , are found.  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  have to meet several constraints imposed by the CARP definition. Firstly, both  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  have to be boundary nodes of some other components  $C_j$ ,  $C_k$  where  $i \neq j$  and  $i \neq k$ .

Secondly, only boundary nodes of  $C_l$ , such that the sum of demands along components  $C_i$  and  $C_l$  is less or equal to the maximum capacity  $Q$ , are considered. This is to ensure that the maximum vehicle capacity constraint  $Q$  will not be violated.

Finally, the shorter path out of  $(N_1, start_i)$  and  $(N_2, end_i)$  is added to a constructed solution while merging together the component  $C_i$  with the component containing the selected boundary node ( $N_1$  or  $N_2$ ). A path between two arbitrary nodes,  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ , refers to the shortest possible path on the entire graph  $G$ . It is important to stress, that this path can potentially include passing even a required edge. By definition, the passing of required edges without servicing them is permitted. This allows for more flexibility in finding the shortest path between the specified nodes.

Note, that it is possible that no other node in the entire graph with its corresponding component satisfies the vehicle capacity constraint. That situation would result in continuing to  $(i+1)$ -th step right away, without extending any component. The procedure ends after all  $n$  required edges from priority list have been processed. At the end, we are left with a certain number of components  $|\mathcal{C}| \leq n$ , i.e. multiple separate routes, where each route is served by a single vehicle.  $|\mathcal{C}|$  might be greater than the maximum number of vehicles allowed  $K$ , which would make the constructed set of routes an invalid solution, this drawback is discussed in further detail in Section 5.1.3.

To sum up the differences between the original constructive procedure for TSP and this modified version for CARP, most notably we have to check each candidate whether it satisfies the constraint imposed by the CARP definition. The rest of the procedure is very similar, we are just dealing with edges instead of individual nodes.

### ■ 5.1.3 Solution feasibility

Because of the nature of the capacitated arc routing problem, the challenge of solution feasibility arises. After the evaluation of given individual using the nearest neighbor constructive procedure, it is possible the resulting set of routes violates the constraint of maximum vehicle used. Such problem would not come up if the goal was to solve the Travelling salesman problem using similar heuristic to CNRP, but for the CARP which defines the maximum vehicle constraint, solutions violating this constraint are not acceptable.

Another constraint is the maximum capacity of each vehicle, meaning that the sum of demands of each required edge in a single route must not exceed the defined limit  $Q$ , which is same for the whole fleet. The solutions however can not possibly violate this constraint thanks to the way the routes are



corresponding phenotype, which serves as the basis for computing the final fitness, which is the output of this procedure.

To make it clear, in the case of our implementation of extended IREANN algorithm for the CARP, genotype is the priority list of required edges, which is what mainly defines each individual. However, because of the indirect representation aspect (see Section 5.1.1), this priority list (genotype) is converted into the actual set of routes (phenotype) the fleet of vehicle has to travel through via the means of CNNP (see Section 5.1). It is this set of routes upon which the fitness is computed, not the priority list. Because of the reasons stated in Sections 5.1.3, we can not simply define the fitness of an individual by a single number representing the cumulative cost of its set of routes. We also need to capture the count of such set of routes, in order to be able to tell whether the individual violates the maximum vehicle constraint.

As a result, the fitness is represented by the pair of values being (1) the total cumulative cost of the set of routes computed by the CNNP, and (2) the number of routes in such a set of routes.

### ■ 5.1.5 Comparison of Individuals

For the reasons stated in Section 5.1.3, we have to come up with a mechanism which incentivizes the population to converge to a state where there are only individuals with valid number of vehicles.

Ultimately, the desired functionality is to be able to tell which individuals are the fittest with respect to each other. That enables us to create hierarchy within given population of individuals, giving the more fit individuals higher chance of “survival” through the selection operator, which is the main driving force behind the evolutionary process towards finding optimal solutions.

We are not able to establish such a hierarchy just by sorting the population by the measure of the cumulative cost of all the routes in an individual’s solution. Although that is the end goal of the whole computation, to find a solution that minimizes this attribute, we can not neglect the number of vehicles used during this process. The reason behind that is the possibility of a situation where a solution with lower cumulative cost and a number of vehicles over the limit  $K$  would be considered more fit than a solution with satisfactory number of vehicles and a greater cost. Put simply, a solution that violates the constraints defined by CARP (i.e., one with  $|\mathcal{C}| > K$ ) would be considered more fit than a valid one, which is obviously an undesirable behaviour which would disable the evolutionary process from achieving any progress.

Optimization of both the cost and vehicle count at the same time is not possible. Hence, the fitness evaluation will prioritize driving the vehicle count down first, and after that optimize the total routes cost when a satisfactory vehicle count has been reached. This desired functionality is achieved by designing a custom comparator, that decides which one of two individuals is “more” fit. This comparator is utilized to sort the population, which results in having an ordered sequence of individuals with the fittest ones at the



### ■ 5.1.7 Crossover

After performing the tournament selection process on the current population, a pair of parent individuals is selected. For each pair of parents, two offspring are created using crossover and mutation operators.

We used an *order-based crossover*, defined by Syswerda in [Sys91]. The crossover constructs an offspring so that first several cities randomly chosen from the priority list of the first parent are copied to the offspring into the same positions as they appear in the parent. The remaining positions are filled in with the remaining cities, in the same relative order as in the second parent.

### ■ 5.1.8 Mutation

Mutation operator is very simple, it randomly changes the position of a single edge in the priority list. While some argue that memetic algorithms may not require a mutation operator due to the local search component, we have chosen to retain it in our algorithm. The mutation operator provides an additional source of exploration and helps maintain genetic diversity within the population.

### ■ 5.1.9 Local search optimization

Local search procedures, introduced in 4.2 play a crucial role in yielding competitive results [M<sup>+</sup>18].

We implemented several local search procedures, which operate on the phenotype level of solutions. That means, we try to tweak the inner solution representation ever so slightly (i.e., modify the set of routes in one of many ways), while seeking improvement in the objective function. If we come across such an improvement, we incorporate it into the representation of given individual.

Our implementation of local search operators was heavily inspired by the work [TMY09] by Tang, Mei and Yao. They presented one of the most famous algorithms for solving the capacitated arc routing problem, abbreviated the “MAENS”. Several local search heuristics utilized in MAENS were in some form adopted for this implementation.

Firstly, we list three traditional move operators, namely the single insertion, reversal and 2-opt moves. All of the moves mentioned operate in a deterministic manner, trying out every possible combination looking for improvement in the fitness score. A greedy approach is favored, which means that if an improvement is found, it is applied right away.

#### ■ Single insertion

In single insert move, an edge is removed from its current position and reinserted into another position in the sequence of edges. Edge might be



duplicate individuals within the population. Duplicates can limit the exploration capability of the algorithm by occupying multiple slots with identical solutions, reducing the diversity of available genetic material. By preventing duplicates, the algorithm is encouraged to explore a wider range of solutions, increasing the chances of finding better and more diverse solutions.

It would be easy to ensure that there are no two individuals with the same genotype, i.e. priority list. But if two individuals have exactly the same priority lists, they might still be different on the phenotype level. Their inner representation might differ thanks to the local search procedures applied. That is why we came up with a way of checking for duplicity on a deeper level, where the inner representation of each individual is considered. Basically, two individuals are deemed identical, if the set of routes each of them possesses, is exactly the same.

There still may be cases where allowing a certain degree of duplicity can be advantageous. To address this, we introduce a parameter called *maxDuplicates*, which specifies the maximum number of identical individuals with the same set of routes that are allowed to proceed to the next generation. This parameter offers a level of control over the tolerance for duplicity within the population.

### ■ 5.1.11 Extended IREANN algorithm

All the components discussed in this chapter are combined to form an extended IREANN algorithm, which addresses the capacitated arc routing problem. The proposed algorithm falls under the category of memetic algorithms and builds upon the IREANN algorithm [KS14], incorporating modifications specific to the CARP, as well as a mechanism, which during computation identifies high-quality features and propagates that information across the entire population (described in detail in Chapter 5.2).

Figure 5.2 gives an overview of the extended IREANN in pseudocode. As we can see, the computation consists of *maxGenerations* number of total generations. Firstly, an initial population of candidate solutions is created by means of random perturbation of a list of all required edges. All of these individuals in the initial population are expected to be of a very poor quality.

During each iteration of the evolutionary process, a new population of offspring individuals, referred to as the "interPopulation," is created. This interPopulation is the same size as the original population. Depending on the value of parameters *probCross* and *probMutation*, a different way of generating an offspring might be employed. *probCross* represent the probability, that offsprings will be, in given iteration, generated via the means of crossover operator. *ProbMutation* represents the probability those offspring are further mutated to achieve more genetic variety. With probability  $1 - \text{probCross}$ , the offspring in that single generation will have the same priority lists as their parent, except they are just mutated. It is reasonable to keep the value of parameter *probCross* close to 1.

The fitness of each new offspring created in the interPopulation is then evaluated through a process described in Section 5.1.4. This fitness score is







The proposed extension is incorporated into the pseudocode provided in figure 5.2. The core of the extension is on lines 8 to 22. It relies on the analysis procedure that is conducted with a certain frequency, see lines 11 and 16. The analysis scans the population for high-quality features among the fittest individuals. Using that information, it then alters the data in a data structure we have nicknamed the “journal”. Journal serves as an augmented version of the distance table used in the CNNP. We refer to distance table as a structure, which for every boundary node dictates the order of its nearest neighbors (every other boundary nodes), by the traditional measure of actual distance provided by the Floyd’s algorithm. When the CNNP needs to evaluate the nearest neighbor of a given boundary node, it iterates over this ordered list, the first boundary node to satisfy the constraints defined by CARP is returned as the nearest neighbor. In extended IREANN, we have renamed the distance table to journal. Journal adds a layer of additional information on top of the actual distances between nodes. This information isn’t about physical distances between nodes in the graph  $G$ , but rather about the “value” of connecting two nodes based on previous successful solutions. For every node, journal keeps track of an ordered list of nearest neighbors, just like the distance table. However, the metric for a “nearest” neighbor has shifted from the original distance to a more insightful measure. This measure takes into account not only the spatial proximity of the two nodes, but also the success ratio of the link between the two nodes as justified by the evolutionary process so far.

For every two boundary nodes on the graph  $G$ , the journal incorporates the information obtained from analysis. Information about the average fitness of a solution that realizes the connection between these two nodes, on top of the information about actual distance. The order of nearest neighbors for a particular node  $u$  is thus determined by the average quality of the solutions in which the neighbors are linked to the node  $u$ , rather than only by the actual distance. This shift in metric combines both spatial and solution-quality information, making it a composite indicator.

The main idea behind using the journal derived from analysis, is that final routes present only in elite individuals are very likely to carry important information. This information, if harnessed effectively, holds significant potential in constructing high-quality solutions in subsequent generations. That is why we introduce a new parameter  $N$ , which determines the number of best individuals, which will be analyzed.

After assembling the journal from analysis of the best  $N$  individuals in population, it is then passed to the CNNP, where it substitutes the original distance table during the route construction process. In other words, the journal acts as an augmented distance table that not only includes the original distance information but also represents the accumulated wisdom from previous generations’ successful solutions. It should be noted that the journal doesn’t replace the original distance table completely. If a connection to a given node is not present in any of the elite individuals (i.e., it was not observed in their routes), priority of such nodes is derived from the distance

table. But while keeping the priority of all the nodes, to which the connections were observed in elite individuals, higher.

Journal derived from analysis is not immediately used from the first generation of the population. Instead, we introduce a *warm-up* phase, during which the journal derived only from the original distance table is used. We define a new parameter  $M$ , which tells how many generations from beginning this warm-up phase spans over. The motivation behind this decision is to allow the evolution enough time to manifest the original distance information at first, and use the journal derived from analysis later when it gets harder to make improvements in the objective function.

After the *warm-up* phase, journal derived from analysis is employed in subsequent generations and is rederived periodically every  $k$  generations. This  $k$  number of generation is called a *period*. In each generation of one period, the same journal is used to evaluate individuals. Separating the evolution process into periods serves two main purposes: it mitigates the risk of oscillation of the computation and provides a sufficient number of generations so that the evolutionary process is able to converge toward increasingly better solutions.

Therefore, the journal not only collects the wisdom of the past generations but also adapts to new knowledge that is continuously being generated as the algorithm evolves the population. By doing so, newly emerging patterns in the elite portion of population are recognized and incorporated into the journal’s understanding of beneficial connections between nodes.

However, if the information in the journal becomes too dominant, the algorithm runs into the risk of becoming overly exploitative, potentially converging prematurely to sub-optimal solutions and losing its explorative capabilities. Moreover, in the worst-case scenario, the dominance of analysis derived information in journal could potentially lead to a diverging loop. This could occur if the algorithm is not able to find a new best solution within a single period. That would imply a new journal being derived from increasingly worse solutions. Using such a journal, we are not likely to discover a new best solution. If this cycles repeats, it inevitably leads to a downward spiral of performance.

To counter this, a mechanism allowing to get the computation back on track is incorporated into the algorithm. The algorithm stores the best individual found so far in *BSF\_solution* (see lines 6 and 10 of 5.2), along with the journal *BSF\_journal*, using which this *BSF\_solution* was constructed. Whenever a new *BSF\_solution* is discovered, *BSF\_journal* gets updated accordingly (see lines 9-13 of 5.2)

Furthermore, the whole process runs in *epochs*. An epoch is a sequence of periods during which the algorithm is permitted to continue without finding a new best solution. The parameter *maxEpochSize* is introduced to set the maximum size of the epoch. This value is essentially a patience parameter that dictates how long the algorithm will persist with the current journal before considering it unproductive. As a result, after these *maxEpochSize* periods have taken place, the journal is reset to *BSF\_journal* and a new epoch starts, see lines 18-19 of 5.2.

At the start of each new period, a new journal is derived from the analysis of elite individuals. Hence, the whole population is reevaluated using this new journal. Additionally, the whole population is perturbed (see line 21), meaning that the priority lists of every individual in population are randomly shuffled. The reason behind, is that at the end of each period, the population is not diverse (i.e., priority lists of individuals are similar), due to the effects of the evolutionary process. By shuffling the whole population, we aim to incentivize more exploration.

### ■ 5.2.1 Illustration of Analysis

Let's illustrate the workings of analysis on an example depicted in Figures 5.3a and 5.3b. The Figure 5.3a shows a valid solution to a CARP instance. Full lines represent required edges of the instance, connected by unrequired dashed edges. The depot is at the node numbered 0. Now let's look at what an entry in the journal (or distance table) of such example might look like. For node 10, the entry in purely distance-based journal would look like this: (11, 5, 4, 9, 12, 6, ...). Let's now suppose that the edge (9, 10) is the first edge to be evaluated by CNNP. In that case, the component with boundary edge 11 would be selected for merging, because 11 is the first element in the journal entry and it satisfies the CARP constraints. This is depicted in Fig. 5.3a where required edge (9, 10) is extended to another required edge (11, 12). Let's now suppose the analysis finds out, that elite solutions which connect node 10 with node 5 have on average better fitness than solutions which connect node 10 with node 11. No other connections than those two mentioned are observed in elite individuals. This scenario would result in placing node 5 before node 11 in our journal, even though the physical distance to 11 is shorter than to 5. The entry for node 10 in the journal derived from such analysis would now look like this: (**5**, **11**, 4, 9, 12, 6, ...). Then, when we want to extend the edge (9, 10), node number 5 is considered prior to node 11, despite being further from node 10 in terms of physical distance. Node number 5 satisfies the constraints which leads to a solution depicted in Fig. 5.3b, which is perhaps less costly than solution depicted by Fig. 5.3a. This implies, that journal contains two types of entries. First subset of its entries is made up by the nodes which are observed in elite solutions (and ordered by their average fitness). Followed by the second subset made up from the complement of the first subset. Their order is derived from original distance table.

### ■ 5.2.2 Analysis Versions

In this work, we implemented two variants of the analysis procedure, which will be described below. The first version of analysis only considers individual nodes on the graph  $G$  and is referred to as the "node analysis". As mentioned above, when analyzing a set of routes of a given individual, the average fitness of every connection is used as new metric for the nearest neighbor heuristic. A single connection is understood as a link between two required edges. In this

version, such a connection is defined by a pair of the boundary nodes, which are linked. This implies that during the CNNP, the nearest neighbor heuristic used only the boundary node as a key, upon which the journal returns the sequence of ordered nearest neighbors, ordered based on the new metric.

This version, as shown in Chapter 6 yields better performance, but only to a limited degree. The reason is that the node analysis only considers the boundary nodes when assembling the journal and when constructing a new route in CNNP. It does not consider the corresponding boundary edges at all. However, by the design of CARP, a single node might be part of multiple edges. This approach implies that CNNP does not differentiate between two candidate components, which have the same boundary node, but a different boundary edge. That inevitably leads to the loss of precision.

The second version, referred to as “edge analysis”, corrects this behaviour by changing what defines a single connection. In the case of edge analysis, it is the combination of boundary node and boundary edge, which defines each of the endpoints of a single connection. This approach aligns more closely with the specific structure of the CARP. It does not neglect to which boundary edge does the boundary node belong to, as it is the case with node analysis.

As a result, the journal captures much more precise information. It contains far more entries, because now the keys to the table provided by journal, are the pairs of nodes and edges, instead of solely nodes. This enables the CNNP to make better decisions when it comes to selecting the nearest neighbor of a component’s boundary node. Performance of both version of analyses is displayed in Chapter 6.

```

1: function EXTENDEDIREANN(popSize, maxGenerations, probCross, probMutation, tournament1, tournament2, maxDuplicates, M, k, maxEpochSize)
2:   j ← 0
3:   period ← 0
4:   journal ← deriveFrom(distanceTable)
5:   population ← createInitialPopulation(popSize)
6:   BSF_solution ← population[0]
7:   for i = 0 to maxGenerations do
8:     if  $i \geq M \wedge j \bmod k == 0$  then
9:       if population[0] is better than BSF then
10:        BSF_solution ← population[0]
11:        journal ← ANALYSIS(population)
12:        BSF_journal ← journal
13:        period ← 0
14:      else if period < maxEpochSize then
15:        period++
16:        journal = ANALYSIS(population)
17:      else
18:        period = 0
19:        journal = BSF_journal
20:      end if
21:      perturb(population)
22:      evaluate(population, journal)
23:    end if
24:    j++
25:    interPop ← empty list
26:    while |interPop| < popSize do
27:      parent1, parent2 ← tournamentSelection(population, tournament1, tournament2)
28:      if rand() < probCross then
29:        child1, child2 ← crossover(parent1, parent2)
30:        if rand() < probMutation then
31:          mutate(child1, child2)
32:        end if
33:      else
34:        child1 ← parent1.mutate()
35:        child2 ← parent2.mutate()
36:      end if
37:      evaluate(child1, child2, journal)
38:      localOptimization(child1, child2)
39:      interPop.add(child1, child2)
40:    end while
41:    population = population ∪ interPop
42:    population = sortPopulation(population)
43:    population = betterHalf(population)
44:    population ← deleteDuplicates(population, maxDuplicates)
45:  end for
46: end function

```

Figure 5.2: Pseudocode of the Extended IREANN



# Chapter 6

## Experiments

### 6.1 Compared algorithms

The primary goal of this chapter is to validate the effectiveness of proposed extension to the IREANN algorithm. This will be done by comparing the performance of the original IREANN and the extended one on standard CARP datasets. Versions of the algorithms that will be compared in this experimental study:

1. **NODE** - version of the extended IREANN that employs the “node” analysis, introduced in 5.2
2. **EDGE** - extended IREANN which uses the “edge” analysis
3. **VANILLA** - original IREANN version, one which does not incorporate any analysis functionality, thus its journal relies solely on the information provided by the distance table
4. **BASIC** - slightly modified vanilla version, which has the functionality of population perturbation at the start of each period, just as it is the case in versions node and edge. The motivation behind the creation of this basic version is that we wanted to show, that the superiority of solution quality of versions node and edge over version vanilla was not achieved just because the vanilla does not implement perturbation functionality.

### 6.2 Configuration of algorithms

The objective of this thesis was to propose an extension to the original IREANN algorithm and compare its performance with the original IREANN. Hence, hyperparameter values were not tuned to achieve optimal performance. Instead, we aimed for a common set of hyperparameters that are consistently applied across all versions of the algorithm, to ensure a fair comparison.

All the common hyperparameters to every version are displayed in Table 6.1. Most of the hyperparameters are necessary for all four versions, except

for  $N$ ,  $M$ ,  $k$  and  $maxEpoch$ , which are specific to versions **NODE** and **EDGE**. **BASIC** version also uses the parameters  $M$  and  $k$ . The number of generations and periods size vary in each experiment, more details are provided in Section 6.4

Different parameter configurations for each version of algorithm are needed throughout testing. All the used combinations are listed in Table 6.2

Hyperparameter	Value
Population Size ( $popSize$ )	300
Number of Generations ( $maxGen$ )	300, 1000
Number of Duplicate Solutions ( $duplicates$ )	1
Probability of Mutation ( $pMutation$ )	0.2
Probability of Crossover ( $pCross$ )	0.9
Tournament Size for Child 1 ( $tournament1$ )	7
Tournament Size for Child 2 ( $tournament2$ )	1
Number of Elite Individuals ( $N$ )	10
Warm-up Phase Length ( $M$ )	100
Period Size ( $k$ )	20, 100, 200
Maximum Number of Epochs ( $maxEpoch$ )	2

**Table 6.1:** Hyperparameter Configuration

Version	$M$	$k$	$maxGenerations$
VANILLA	-	-	1000
NODE100	100	100	1000
EDGE	100	20	300
BASIC20	100	20	300
NODE20	100	20	300
BASIC200	200	200	1000
NODE200	200	200	1000

**Table 6.2:** Algorithm configurations used in experiments

### 6.3 Datasets

All the experiments were carried out on a single renowned benchmark test set of CARP instances, called the *egl* set, introduced in [Egl94]. We chose this dataset because of its reasonable size and variety of its characteristic properties, which enables us to showcase various aspects of the proposed extended IREANN. There are total of 24 instances. These instances are derived from two graphs, each characterized by unique sets of required edges and capacity constraints. For our testing purposes, a subset of 8 of these instance was selected. Properties of each of them are presented in Table 6.3. It includes the total number of nodes on the graph  $G$ , number of required and unrequired edges and the constrained maximum number of vehicles a the capacity of single vehicle.



Name	Nodes	Required edges	Unrequired edges	Vehicles	Capacity
egl-e1-A	77	51	47	5	305
egl-e1-C	77	51	47	10	160
egl-e4-A	77	98	0	9	280
egl-e4-C	77	98	0	19	130
egl-s1-A	140	75	115	7	210
egl-s1-C	140	75	115	14	103
egl-s4-A	140	190	0	19	230
egl-s4-C	140	190	0	35	120

Table 6.3: Dataset Information

## 6.4 Experiments

Three experiment settings were created. Every experiment ran on each of 8 selected data instances. In order to ensure statistical reliability, each individual experiment for given data instance was executed 30 times with different seed configuration.

### 6.4.1 Experiment A

In the first experiment setting, we want to validate the effects of the extended IREANN (represented by NODE100 and EDGE) against the VANILLA, which implements neither the analysis nor the population perturbances. Parameters common to all algorithms are listed in Table 6.1.

Number of generations was set to 1000 for VANILLA and NODE100, EDGE only runs for 300.  $M$  is the same for node and edge versions, but different  $k$  was selected. Parameter  $k$  for NODE100 is at 100, while it is only 20 for the EDGE. Reason behind opting for  $k$  of only 20 and  $maxGenerations$  of only 300, is the empirical observation, that the EDGE converges much faster than other versions and does not need large period size.

We want show, that the result obtained by EDGE are superior to other versions even if it is given less number of generations and a smaller period size, which puts EDGE into a disadvantage.

### 6.4.2 Experiment B

The objective of the second experiment setting is to find out whether the BASIC20 (VANILLA version with population perturbation) is able to reach similar results as NODE20 and EDGE. If true, it would imply that the information obtained by analyses does not play crucial role and that the improvements are achieved just by perturbing the whole population.

All three versions share the same parameters, they run for 300 generations,  $M$  is set to 100 and  $k$  is 20.

### ■ 6.4.3 Experiment C

In this experiment, versions BASIC200, NODE200 and EDGE are compared. Greater values of parameters  $M$  and  $k$  for BASIC200 and NODE200 have been chosen than in experiment 6.4.2. We set both  $M$  and  $k$  of versions BASIC200 and NODE200 to 200. Raising the values of these parameters has two implications. Firstly, the warm-up phase is longer. Secondly, more generations within a single period are provided to the computation. We want to find out, if providing the algorithm with more generations within single period, could potentially lead to discovering new better solutions, which would not be discovered otherwise.

## ■ 6.5 Results

Results of all experiments are included in individual tables under each experiment's section. Detailed description of the algorithm versions used for each experiment is provided in Section 6.4.

Non-parametric statistical Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to compare distributions of results between algorithm versions of each experiment. In each experiment, the algorithm in first column was tested against the remaining two, which hold the resulting p-values in their columns.

Thirty independent runs were executed for each instance. Presented quality measures in each table are:

- median - The median value of the cost of the best solution over 30 runs
- best - The overall best solution over 30 runs
- vehicles/v - The median value of the vehicles used for the best solution over 30 runs. This found value is the same for each data instance over all algorithm version, that is why it is shown in only single column. This constraint was for every instance and for every version of algorithm satisfied in the very first generation of computation. Except for instances egl-e4-C and egl-s4-C, where a satisfactory solution was not found at all during any run of any version of algorithm.
- (p-value) - p-values returned by the Wilcoxon rank-sum test when testing BSF\_solution of 30 results

The last column of each result table includes the best known solution to each data instance taken from literature. The data was obtained from <https://logistik.bwl.uni-mainz.de/forschung/benchmarks/>.

Further, the convergence of all the algorithm versions for every instance is captured in graphs, available in appendix of this thesis. Only a few notable ones are displayed separately in this chapter.

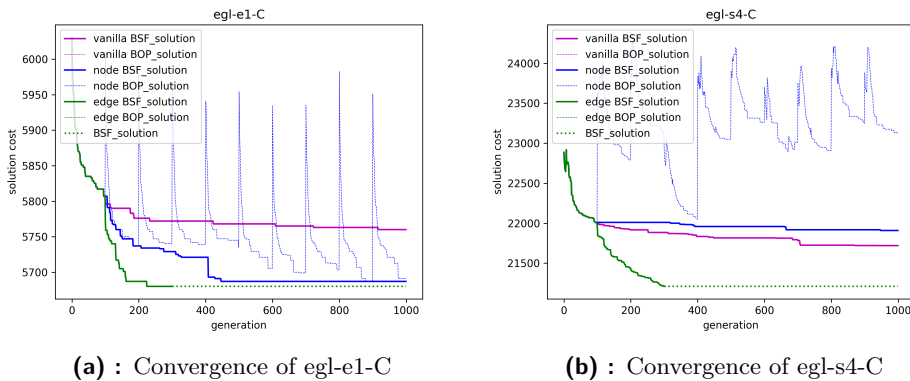
Data captured in graphs are the convergences of values:

- **BSF\_solution** - median value of the cost of best-so-far solution over 30 runs, drawn by full lines
- **BOP\_solution** - median value of the cost of best solution in current population over 30 lines, drawn by thinner dashed lines

### 6.5.1 Experiment A

Dataset	v	VANILLA		NODE100		EDGE		Best
		median	best	median (p-value)	best	median (p-value)	best	
egl-e1-A	5	3561	3548	3548 <b>(7.48e-6)</b>	3548	3548 <b>(7.32e-7)</b>	3548	3548
egl-e1-C	10	5760	5668	5687 <b>(2.23e-6)</b>	5603	5680 <b>(1.38e-5)</b>	5613	5595
egl-e4-A	9	6726	6578	6721 (0.657)	6617	6611 <b>(2.40e-6)</b>	6507	6395
egl-e4-C	20	11956	11764	11966 (0.473)	11790	11853 <b>(1.77e-8)</b>	11649	11529
egl-s1-A	7	5143	5035	5019 <b>(4.29e-11)</b>	5018	5018 <b>(6.37e-11)</b>	5018	5018
egl-s1-C	14	8690	8545	8605 <b>(2.01e-4)</b>	8519	8593 <b>(1.01e-4)</b>	8518	8518
egl-s4-A	19	13192	12951	13272 (0.196)	12982	12678 <b>(2.87e-11)</b>	12561	12140
egl-s4-C	36	21720	21245	21909 (0.01)	21626	21210 <b>(2.05e-10)</b>	21071	20380

**Table 6.4:** Result of Experiment A, p-values of test between NODE100 and VANILLA, between EDGE and VANILLA are shown, in bold if less than 0.01



**Figure 6.1:** Experiment A convergence comparison

Results of this experiment are presented in Table 6.4. We see, that **EDGE** always achieves better results than the **VANILLA**. **EDGE** reaches the best known

values for 3 of the data instances, while the VANILLA does so only for the first instance. Furthermore, on all instances EDGE is significantly better than VANILLA (at the  $\alpha = 1\%$  level), depicted under (p-value) column).

The overall performance of the NODE100 is not as convincing as the EDGE. To a great extent, the NODE100's performance is influenced by the nature of data instances it solves. It performs reasonably well on instances, which have larger number of unrequired edges. On the other hand, its performance is very poor on instances which have little to no unrequired edges. On half of the data instance, the performance of NODE100 is either worse than VANILLA, or difference is not statistically significant.

The absence of unrequired edges in a data instance does not seem to be a problem for the EDGE.

Two data instances egl-e1-C and egl-s4-C have been picked as an illustrative example in figure 6.1. In graph in Fig. 6.1a, NODE100 performs almost as well as the EDGE, because this instance has lot of unrequired edges, as shown in Table 6.3. Data instance in Fig. 6.1b does not have any unrequired edges, which results in the NODE100 performing worse than the vanilla.

From the two figures, we observe the superiority of convergence speed of the EDGE, despite having only 300 generations and  $k$  of 20.

## 6.5.2 Experiment B

Dataset	v	BASIC20		NODE20		EDGE		Best
		median	best	median	best	median	best	
egl-e1-A	5	3610	3548	3561 ( <b>4.64e-5</b> )	3548	3548 ( <b>3.06e-9</b> )	3548	3548
egl-e1-C	10	5791	5703	5719 ( <b>2.03e-7</b> )	5639	5680 ( <b>5.00e-9</b> )	5613	5595
egl-e4-A	9	6793	6644	6808 (0.107)	6644	6611 ( <b>2.05e-10</b> )	6507	6395
egl-e4-C	20	12008	11841	12022 (0.438)	11841	11853 ( <b>2.26e-10</b> )	11649	11529
egl-s1-A	7	5183	5066	5074 ( <b>4.44e-7</b> )	5038	5018 ( <b>3.51e-11</b> )	5018	5018
egl-s1-C	14	8766	8634	8748 (0.246)	8562	8593 ( <b>2.79e-9</b> )	8518	8518
egl-s4-A	19	13354	13221	13336 (0.684)	13221	12678 ( <b>2.87e-11</b> )	12561	12140
egl-s4-C	36	22000	21646	22000 (0.511)	21646	21210 ( <b>2.87e-11</b> )	21071	20380

**Table 6.5:** Result of Experiment B, p-values of test between NODE20 and BASIC20, between EDGE and BASIC20 are shown, in bold if less than 0.01

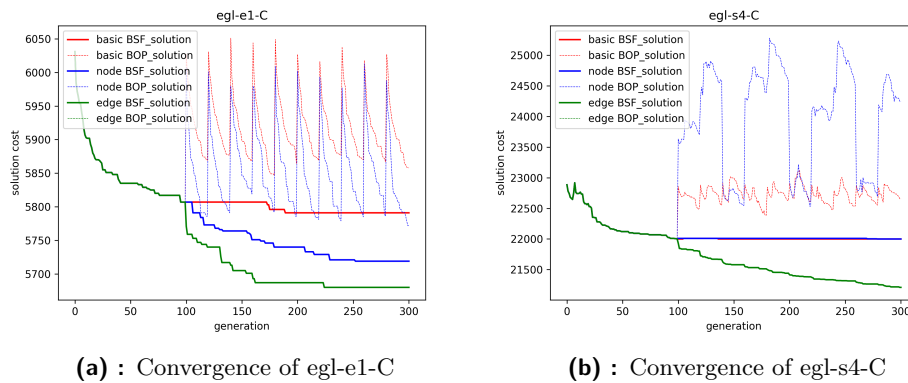
In the second experiment B, from the values of Table 6.5, we observe

similar pattern as in the previous experiment. **EDGE** dominates both of the two remaining versions on every data instance. **EDGE** is also significantly better (at the  $\alpha = 1\%$  level) on all of the runs. **BASIC20** performs even worse than **VANILLA** from previous experiment with given parameter configuration.

Examining the convergence graphs for each data instance in this experiment reveals that the **EDGE** effectively utilizes the information from the analysis. This results in continuous improvement of solution cost throughout the computation. This is the most fair comparison out of all experiments between all versions, because all the parameters  $M$ ,  $k$  and  $maxGenerations$  are the set same.

As illustrated in figure 6.2, **EDGE** performs well even on instances, at which **NODE20** fails. As discussed in previous experiment 6.5.1.

By looking at convergence graphs of the **BASIC20**'s **BOP\_solution** (red dashed line), we also hypothesize, that the computation is not given enough generation in a single period to be able to yield progressively better results. Effect of raising the value of parameters  $k$  are examined in the next experiment.



**Figure 6.2:** Experiment B convergence comparison

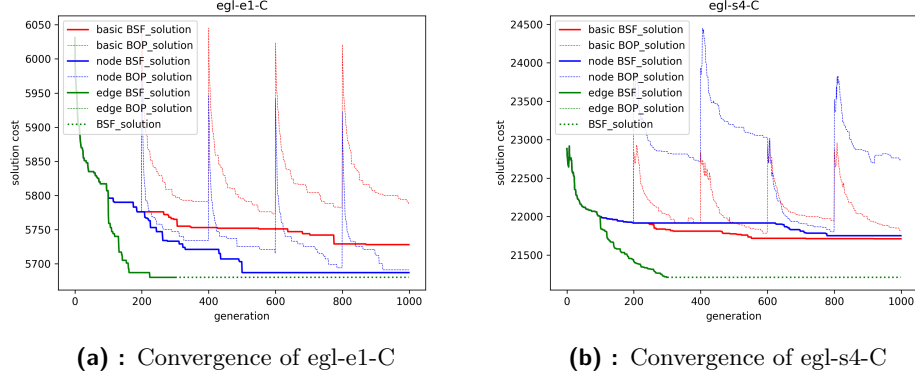
### 6.5.3 Experiment C

By raising the parameters  $M$  and  $k$  of **BASIC200** and **NODE200**, a minor improvement of the in terms of median values was achieved. Both versions were able to benefit from longer periods, which results in **BASIC200** outperforming the **VANILLA** from Experiment A by a little margin, as the differences in median cost between these version suggest. **NODE200** notices a slight boost in performance too, however its results on instances with no unrequired edges are still very poor.

This implies, that by having too small size of period, as it was the case in experiment B, we potentially lose out on discoveries of good solutions. Raising the parameters  $M$  and  $k$  of **EDGE** would most likely have little no effect, because the convergence is so fast even with low values of  $k$ .

During this experiment, **EDGE** again dominates over both **BASIC200** and **NODE200**. Summarized, the **EDGE** constantly provides the best performance


over all data instances out of all algorithm versions compared, while having significantly better solution (on the  $\alpha = 1\%$  level) all the time. Raising the  $k$  of **NODE** improves this version, but it still can not compete against **EDGE** over all the data instances. **EDGE** is more robust against different characteristics of individual data instances.



**Figure 6.3:** Experiment C convergence comparison

Dataset	v	BASIC200		NODE200		EDGE		Best
		median	best	median (p-value)	best	median (p-value)	best	
egl-e1-A	5	3561	3548	3548 <b>(1.49e-6)</b>	3548	3548 <b>(6.28e-7)</b>	3548	3548
egl-e1-C	10	5728	5677	5687 <b>(3.26e-5)</b>	5634	5680 <b>(5.72e-4)</b>	5613	5595
egl-e4-A	9	6689	6598	6732 (0.174)	6594	6611 <b>(3.09e-6)</b>	6507	6395
egl-e4-C	20	11941	11783	11960 (0.074)	11783	11853 <b>(3.13e-7)</b>	11649	11529
egl-s1-A	7	5128	5054	5027 <b>(5.84e-10)</b>	5018	5018 <b>(6.37e-11)</b>	5018	5018
egl-s1-C	14	8660	8587	8652 (0.079)	8518	8593 <b>(4.58e-4)</b>	8518	8518
egl-s4-A	19	13123	12924	13232 <b>(0.0031)</b>	12989	12678 <b>(2.87e-11)</b>	12561	12140
egl-s4-C	36	21712	21334	21752 <b>(0.0042)</b>	21549	21210 <b>(8.56e-11)</b>	21071	20380

**Table 6.6:** Result of Experiment C, p-values of test between **NODE200** and **BASIC200**, between **EDGE** and **BASIC200** are shown, in bold if less than 0.01



## Chapter 7

### Conclusion

This thesis proposes an extended version of the IREANN algorithm specifically adapted for the Capacitated Arc Routing Problem (CARP). The extension builds upon the established IREANN algorithm, mainly utilizing its indirect representation and nearest neighbor heuristic functionality. It incorporates a mechanism that identifies high-quality features during the calculation and makes use of this information when evaluating individuals in subsequent generations.

This mechanism is called the “analysis”. It periodically computes characteristics contributing to high-quality solutions. This mechanism, combined with the original distance table, gives rise to a modified data structure, named as the “journal.” This journal, which maintains an ordered list of nearest neighbors for each node, uses a composite measure incorporating both spatial proximity and solution-quality information to enhance the process of constructing routes of the final solutions.

Two variants of this analysis procedure were developed: node analysis and edge analysis, with the latter demonstrating improved precision in the context of CARP. By taking into consideration both boundary nodes and edges, the edge analysis approach effectively utilized the problem’s structure, leading to better decision-making during the route construction process.

The goal of this thesis was not to reach state-of-the-art performance or to perfectly fine-tune the algorithm’s hyperparameters. Instead, the primary focus was to investigate and demonstrate the impact of the proposed analysis. Series of experiments were carried out on standard CARP benchmark datasets to evaluate the potential benefits and limitations of the extended algorithm. The results of experiments show that the extended IREANN consistently outperforms the original IREANN algorithm. In general, it generates better solutions and converges to them faster. However, for some data instances neither of the algorithm versions was able to generate valid solutions, which could be solved by designing custom heuristics. Statistical tests were conducted to evaluate the significance of these results, confirming the superiority of the extended IREANN algorithm over the original version in the studied scenarios.

The proposed extended IREANN is not limited to the domain of CARP. It

can be applied in similar fashion to other routing problems. Or any other permutation-based combinatorial optimization problem in general, which is able leverage the information about distance between solution's components.

Potential for further improvements of the proposed extension lies in fine-tuning the hyperparameters of both the underlying original IREANN algorithm, as well as those introduced by the extension itself. The overall effectiveness could be significantly boosted by incorporating more sophisticated local search techniques and by tweaking the exact order of existing ones.





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## **Appendix A**

### **Experiment graphs**

A. Experiment graphs

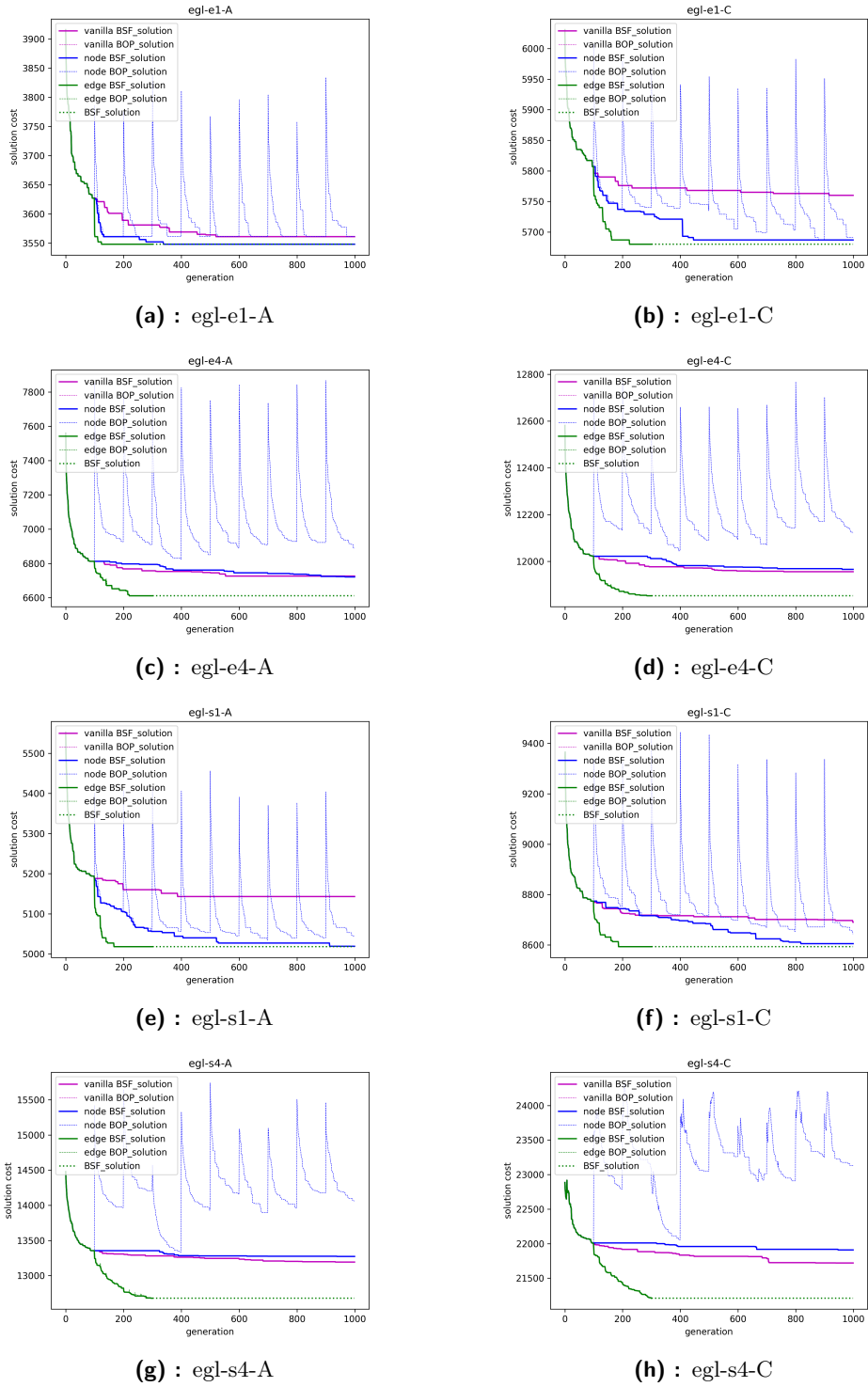
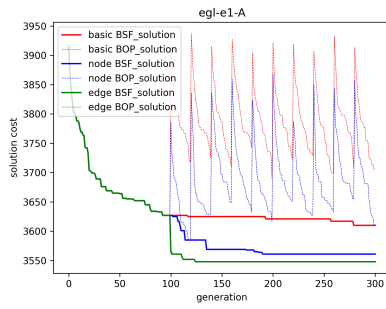
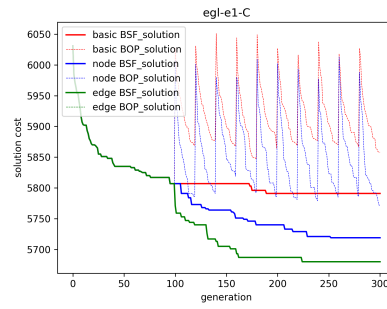


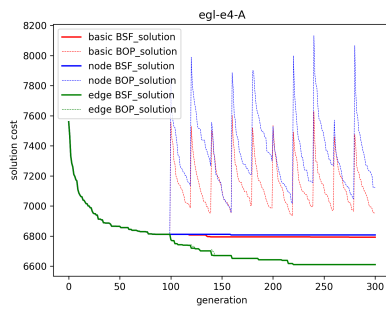
Figure A.1: Experiment A comparison



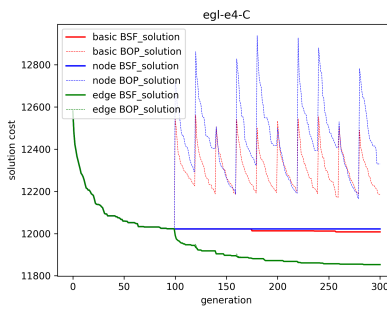
(a) : egl-e1-A



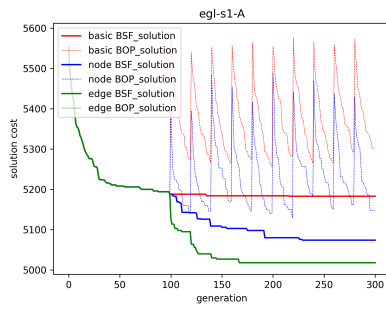
(b) : egl-e1-C



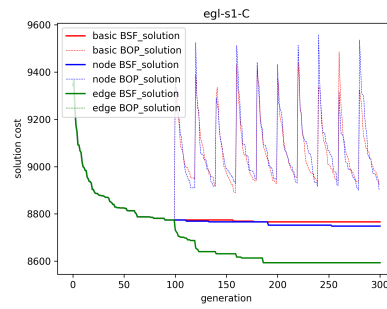
(c) : egl-e4-A



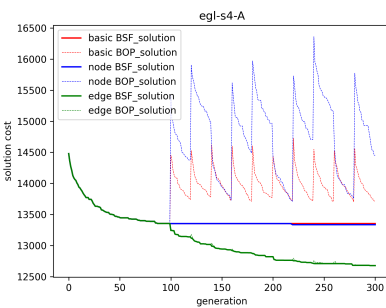
(d) : egl-e4-C



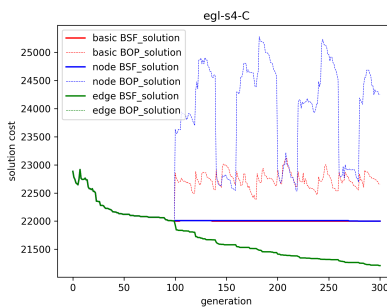
(e) : egl-s1-A



(f) : egl-s1-C



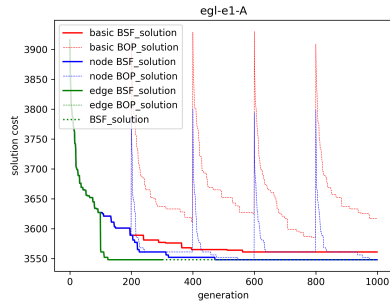
(g) : egl-s4-A



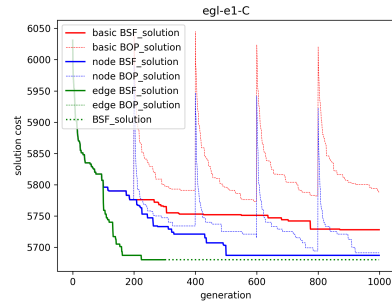
(h) : egl-s4-C

Figure A.2: Experiment B comparison

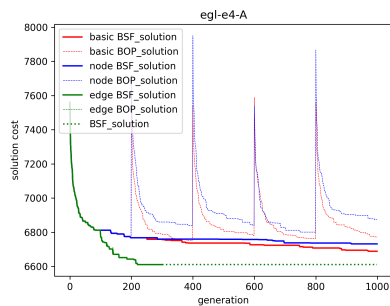
A. Experiment graphs



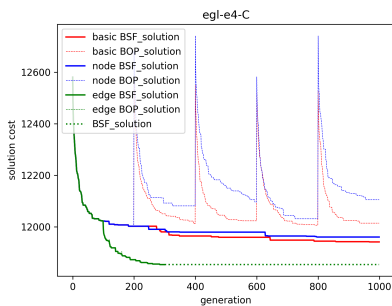
(a) : egl-e1-A



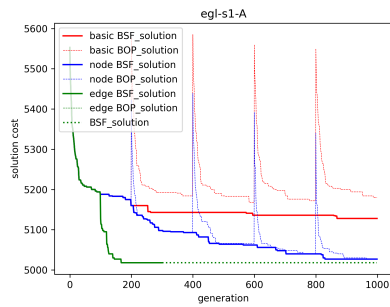
(b) : egl-e1-C



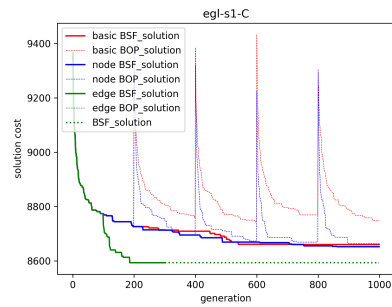
(c) : egl-e4-A



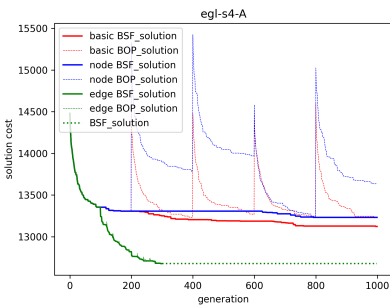
(d) : egl-e4-C



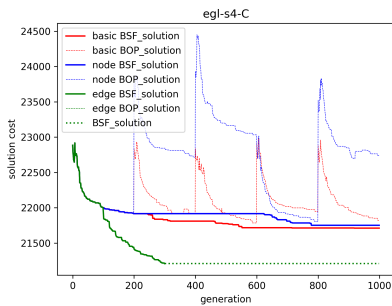
(e) : egl-s1-A



(f) : egl-s1-C



(g) : egl-s4-A



(h) : egl-s4-C

Figure A.3: Experiment C comparison