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### Article

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# Distributed Parallel Cooperative Coevolutionary Multi-Objective Large-Scale Immune Algorithm for Deployment of Wireless Sensor Networks

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## Abstract

Using immune algorithms is generally a time-intensive process—especially for problems with a large number of variables. In this paper, we propose a distributed parallel cooperative coevolutionary multi-objective large-scale immune algorithm that is implemented using the message passing interface (MPI). The proposed algorithm is composed of three layers: objective, group and individual layers. First, for each objective in the multi-objective problem to be addressed, a subpopulation is used for optimization, and an archive population is used to optimize all the objectives. Second, the large number of variables are divided into several groups. Finally, individual evaluations are allocated across many core processing units, and calculations are performed in parallel. Consequently, the computation time is greatly reduced. The proposed algorithm integrates the idea of immune algorithms, which tend to explore sparse areas in the objective space and use simulated binary crossover for mutation. The proposed algorithm is employed to optimize the 3D terrain

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deployment of a wireless sensor network, which is a self-organization network. In experiments, compared with several state-of-the-art multi-objective evolutionary algorithms—the Cooperative Coevolutionary Generalized Differential Evolution 3, the Cooperative Multi-objective Differential Evolution and the Nondominated Sorting Genetic Algorithm III, the proposed algorithm addresses the deployment optimization problem efficiently and effectively.

*Keywords:* decision variable analysis (DVA), cooperative coevolution (CC), large-scale optimization, message passing interface (MPI), 3D terrain deployment, wireless sensor networks (WSNs)

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## 1. Introduction

Self-organization [1] refers to the automatic formation of an ordered structure from an initially disordered system based on some type of rule. In the deployment optimization procedure of the wireless sensor network (WSN) [2], through self-organization, the wireless sensor nodes were optimized to maximize the *Coverage*, optimize *Connectivity Uniformity* and minimize *Deployment Cost*. With the rapid development of sensor and wireless communication technologies, WSNs have been applied to various fields. The work of [3] showed the air temperature monitoring application of the wireless sensor networks. Shen et al. [4] described the wireless sensor nodes for the medical service. Zhang et al. [5] illustrated the k-barrier coverage problem of the wireless sensor networks. Zhou et al. [6] researched on the energy issue, in which, clustering and data compression were studied; while, Zhang et al. [7] utilized the mobile sinks to alleviate the communication burden.

Also, the response of the human immune system to antigens can be viewed as a process of self-organization. Based on this concept, the clonal selection algorithm (CLONALG) [8] was proposed, which can be used for global optimization problems (GOPs) and multi-objective optimization problems (MOPs) [9]. Xue et al. [10] described the self adaptive artificial bee colony algorithm which is different from the immune algorithm and can also be a self-organizing procedure.

In the real world, many problems require several objectives (usually conflicting) to be considered simultaneously. Multi-objective evolutionary algorithms (MOEAs) [11, 12, 13] are capable of generating a plurality of solutions in a single run, which is convenient for approximating the Pareto front (PF). For NP-hard problems, evolutionary algorithms (EAs) [14, 15, 16, 17]

27 can usually converge to a near optimal solution using limited computational  
28 resources [18] within a reasonable time compared to brute force and deter-  
29 ministic methods.

30 The first multi-objective immune algorithm (MOIA) was proposed in [19].  
31 In this study, the immune algorithm (IA) was combined with the genetic al-  
32 gorithm (GA), to improve the selection of individuals for evolution. Gong  
33 et al. [20] proposed the nondominated neighbor immune algorithm (NNIA),  
34 which was prone to select a small quantity of nondominated individuals in  
35 the sparse area for cloning, recombination and mutation. In [21], simulated  
36 binary crossover (SBX) and differential evolution (DE) were combined and  
37 applied to the cloned individuals in a hybrid evolutionary framework for  
38 MOIAs called HEIA, which performed well for both unimodal and multi-  
39 modal problems.

40 EAs are based on an iterative evolution of the population (the solutions),  
41 which is time-consuming—especially for expensive problems. Distributed  
42 evolutionary algorithms (dEAs) [22, 23] allocate the tedious computational  
43 burden across numerous computational nodes, greatly reducing the required  
44 time. Cloudde [24] used DEs with various parameters to optimize multiple  
45 populations in a distributed parallel manner, yielding a promising perfor-  
46 mance from both effect and efficiency aspects. [25] provided a comprehensive  
47 study concerning parallel/distributed MOEAs. Using the multi-objective  
48 optimization algorithm based on decomposition (MOEA/D) [13], parallel  
49 MOEA/Ds (pMOEA/Ds) [26] [27] were proposed.

50 Along with the arrival of “big data”, many problems become complex  
51 and it will be time-consuming and storage-consuming to solve them [28, 29].  
52 Similarly, many MOPs have a huge number of variables (more than 100  
53 variables [30]); some examples are classification [31], clustering [32], recom-  
54 mendation systems [33], and so on. However, the goal of traditional MOEAs  
55 is to solve multi-objective small-scale optimization problems (MOSSOPs);  
56 consequently, the traditional algorithms may be incapable of tackling multi-  
57 objective large-scale optimization problems (MOLSOPs) because of the “curse  
58 of dimensionality”. To optimize numerous variables, some promising ap-  
59 proaches first separate the variables into groups and then optimize them in  
60 a cooperative coevolutionary (CC) [34] manner. For large-scale global op-  
61 timization problems (LSGOPs), many grouping mechanisms have been ap-  
62 plied, including fixed grouping [34], random grouping [35], the Delta method  
63 [36], dynamic grouping [37], differential grouping (DG) [38], global differen-  
64 tial grouping (GDG) [39] and graph-based differential grouping (gDG) [40].

65 Antonio et al. proposed the cooperative coevolutionary generalized differen-  
66 tial evolution 3 (CCGDE3) method [41], which used fixed grouping.

67 MOLSOPs differ from LSGOPs in that no single solution can optimize all  
68 the conflicting objectives, instead, a set of solutions should be generated to  
69 approximate the PF. In MOLSOPs, variables have different properties [42]  
70 that can be classified as follows:

- 71 1. position variables, which affect only the diversity of the solution set;
- 72 2. distance variables, which affect only the convergence of the solution  
73 set; and
- 74 3. mixed variables, which affect both the diversity and the convergence of  
75 the solution set.

76 Therefore, position variables should be permuted to approximate the PF  
77 as comprehensively as possible. However, distance variables should be opti-  
78 mized so they can closely approach the PF.

79 To identify these variable types, the multi-objective evolutionary algo-  
80 rithm based on decision variable analyses (MOEA/DVA) [30] proposed a  
81 mechanism that used decision variable analyses (DVA) to categorize the po-  
82 sition and mixed variables as diversity-related variables and to categorize  
83 distance variables as convergence-related variables. The convergence-related  
84 variables were separated into several groups that were then optimized under  
85 the CC framework.

86 Using multiple populations can contribute to the optimization perfor-  
87 mance. In cooperative multi-objective differential evolution (CMODE) [43],  
88 each objective was optimized by a subpopulation, and an archive was used to  
89 maintain good solutions and optimize all objectives. This approach achieved  
90 good experimental results.

91 Compared to MOSSOPs, designing parallel/distributed MOEAs for MOL-  
92 SOPs will be more beneficial. In this paper, we propose the distributed paral-  
93 lel cooperative coevolutionary multi-objective large-scale immune algorithm  
94 (DPCCMOLSIA), which is aimed at solving MOLSOPs in an effective and  
95 efficient manner.

96 The contributions of this paper can be summarized as follows:

- 97 1. Each objective is optimized by a subpopulation. Thus, the exploration  
98 with respect to each objective is enhanced, and all objectives are com-  
99 prehensively optimized by an archive. Variables are grouped according  
100 to their properties and interactions, contributing to effective optimiza-  
101 tion.

- 102 2. The idea of IA is introduced, and more computational resources are  
 103 used to explore sparse areas in the objective space. When combined  
 104 with *SBX*, the performance can be enhanced.
- 105 3. We construct a three-layer parallel structure. The evaluations of in-  
 106 dividuals in different groups of multiple populations can then be per-  
 107 formed in parallel, which greatly reduces the computation time.

108 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 provides  
 109 some preliminary information required for this paper. The details of the  
 110 DPCCMOLSIA are discussed in Section 3. Then, in Section 4, we describe  
 111 the experimental study and present the corresponding analyses. Finally,  
 112 Section 5 concludes this paper.

## 113 2. Preliminaries

### 114 2.1. MOP and Variable Properties

115 An MOP involves several objectives that usually conflict with each other;  
 116 therefore, solving an MOP involves obtaining a set of solutions that approx-  
 117 imate the PF. For the minimization problem, we have the following formula:

$$\text{Minimize } F(\mathbf{X}) = \{f_1(\mathbf{X}), f_2(\mathbf{X}), \dots, f_M(\mathbf{X})\} \quad (1)$$

118 where  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_D)$  is a point in the solution space  $\mathfrak{R}^D$ . Here,  $D$   
 119 is the number of variables,  $f_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ , represents the objectives, and  
 120  $F(\mathbf{X})$  denotes the point that corresponds to  $\mathbf{X}$  in the objective space,  $\mathfrak{R}^M$ .

121 Due to the conflicts among the objectives, the types of the different vari-  
 122 ables involved can vary: these types can be classified as position, distance,  
 123 and mixed variables. For instance, consider the following MOP:

$$\begin{cases} f_1 = x_1 + \sin(4\pi x_2) + e^{x_3(x_4 - 0.05)} + x_5^2 \\ f_2 = 1 - x_1 - \cos(4\pi x_2) + x_3^2 + x_4^3 + x_5^2 \\ \text{s.t. } x_i \in [0, 1], i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

124 where  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are two objectives, and  $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4$  and  $x_5$  are decision  
 125 variables.

126 Fig. 1 illustrates the sampled solution sets by varying each variable in-  
 127 dividually while holding the others constant at 0.5. From the image, we can  
 128 determine the properties of the variables:  $x_1$  is a position variable, because it  
 129 influences only the diversity;  $x_2$  is a mixed variable because it influences both  
 130 the diversity and the convergence;  $x_3$  and  $x_4$  are distance variables, yet their

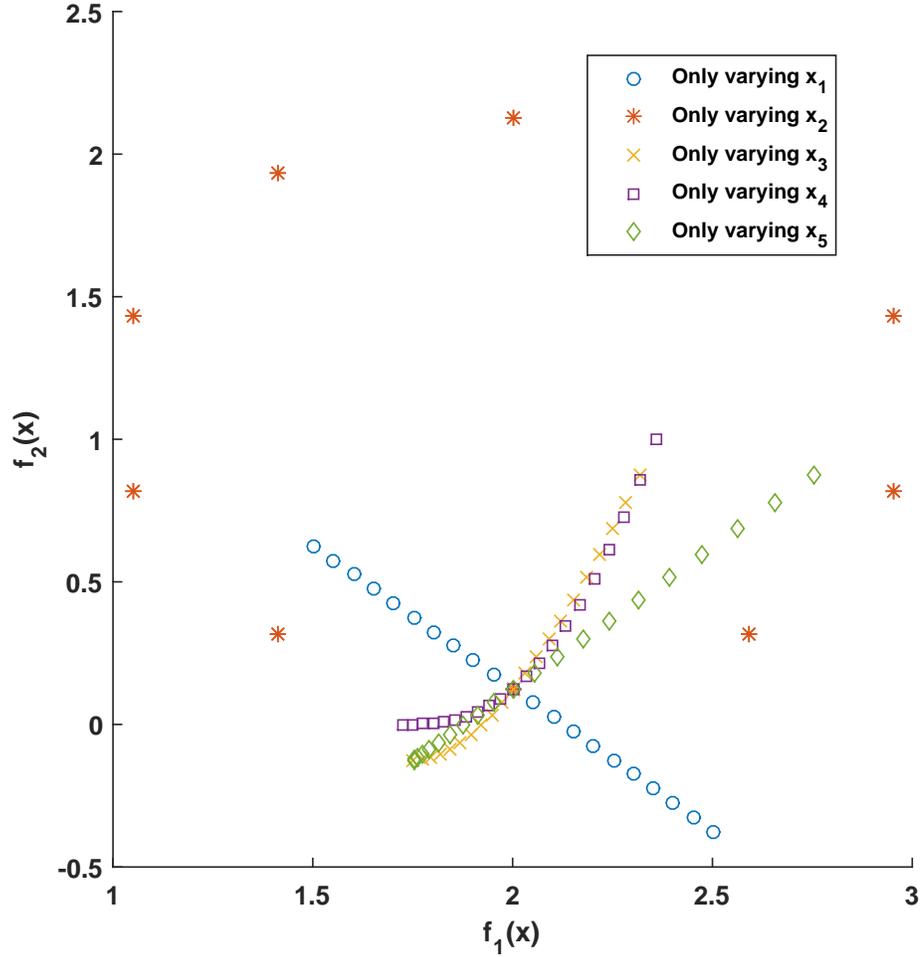


Figure 1: Image of solution sets for the MOP formulated in Eq. 2 by varying one variable while fixing the others to 0.5.

131 relative positions change a little with varying values; and  $x_5$  is a distance  
 132 variable, because it influences only the convergence.

### 133 2.2. CC

134 CC [34] divides a large number of variables into multiple subcomponents  
 135 that are optimized separately. For the fitness evaluation, the target subcom-

136 ponent is recombined with the representatives of the other components to  
137 form a complete solution.

### 138 2.3. Immune Algorithm

139 CLONALG was proposed in [8]; its process is detailed in Algorithm 1. In  
140 CLONALG, an *antibody* denotes a candidate solution, the optimal solution  
141 is seen as the *antigen*, and the *affinity* represents the fitness.

## 142 3. The Proposed Algorithm: DPCCMOLSIA

143 Algorithm 2 lists the main steps in the framework of DPCCMOLSIA.  
144 These main steps are described in detail in the following subsections.

### 145 3.1. Variable Property and Interaction Analyses

146 Variables are classified as position variables, distance variables and mixed  
147 variables according to their influences on diversity and convergence. At the  
148 end of this process, the position variables and mixed variables are categorized  
149 as diversity-related variables and the distance variables are categorized as  
150 convergence-related variables. For the MOP formulated in Eq. 2,  $x_1$  and  $x_2$   
151 are classified as diversity-related variables, while  $x_3$ ,  $x_4$  and  $x_5$  are classified  
152 as convergence-related variables.

### 153 3.2. Variable Grouping

154 Because more than one objective exists, the interactions among variables  
155 are obtained with respect to all the objectives by adopting the idea of gDG  
156 [40]. The diversity-related variables are separated into a single group. We  
157 group the convergence-related variables according to the following idea: for  
158 two variables interact with each other for any objective to be optimized in  
159 the current subpopulation/archive, we consider them to be interacting. For  
160 example, for the MOP formulated in Eq. 2,  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are diversity-related  
161 variables, so they are allocated to a single group. For the convergence-related  
162 variables,  $x_3$  and  $x_4$  interact in  $f_1$  and act independently in  $f_2$ , so we allocate  
163 them to a single group in subpopulation 1 (only optimizing  $f_1$ ), to separate  
164 groups in subpopulation 2 (only optimizing  $f_2$ ), and to the same group in the  
165 archive (optimizing both  $f_1$  and  $f_2$ );  $x_5$  is independent from other variables  
166 for both  $f_1$  and  $f_2$ , so it is in another separate group.

---

**Algorithm 1: CLONALG**

---

**Input:** number of variables:  $D$ ;  
number of antibodies:  $N_{Ab}$ ;  
number of generations:  $N_{gen}$ ;  
antibodies:  $POP_{Ab}$ ;  
number of antibodies to be selected:  $N_{sel}$ .

**Output:** final antibodies:  $POP_{Ab}$ ;  
final affinities:  $AFF_{Ab}$ .

```
/* Initialization */
1  $G = 0$ ;
2 Randomly initialize  $POP_{Ab}$ ;
3 Selected antibodies  $POP_{sel} = \phi$ ,  $AFF_{sel} = \phi$ ;
4 Reproduced antibodies  $POP_{rep} = \phi$ ,  $AFF_{rep} = \phi$ ;
/* Main Loop */
5 while  $G < N_{gen}$  do
6    $AFF_{Ab}^G = f(POP_{Ab}^G)$ ;
7   Selection according to  $AFF_{Ab}^G$ :
    $POP_{Ab}^G \rightarrow POP_{sel}^G$ ,  $AFF_{Ab}^G \rightarrow AFF_{sel}^G$ ;
8   Cloning according to  $AFF_{sel}^G$ :
    $POP_{sel}^G \rightarrow POP_{rep}^G$ ;
9   Hypermutation:
10   $POP_{rep}^G \rightarrow POP_{rep}^{G+1}$ ,  $AFF_{rep}^{G+1} = f(POP_{rep}^{G+1})$ ;
11  Insertion:
12   $POP_{Ab}^G + POP_{rep}^{G+1} \rightarrow POP_{Ab}^{G+1}$ ;
13   $G + +$ ;
```

---

---

**Algorithm 2: DPCCMOLSIA**

---

```
1 Initialization;
2 Variable property and interaction analyses;
3 Variable Grouping;
4 Parallelism implementation;
5 Optimization;
```

---

167 *3.3. Parallelism Implementation*

168 For MOLSOPs, especially expensive ones, parallelism can be beneficial.  
 169 DPCCMOLSIA is a distributed parallel algorithm implemented using the  
 170 MPI. In DPCCMOLSIA, the parallel structure has three layers.

171 Assuming that there are  $N^{CPU}$  CPU resources available, the variables  
 172 are divided to  $N_i^G$  groups. Here,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M + 1$ —that is to say, the  
 173 subpopulations are represented by  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$  and the archive is repre-  
 174 sented by  $i = M + 1$ . There are  $NP$  individuals in each subpopulation and  
 175 in the archive population. And the importances of each subpopulation and  
 176 the archive population are  $\omega_{SUB}$  and  $\omega_{ARC}$ , respectively. Then, we have the  
 177 following equation:

$$N_i^{CPU} = \frac{N_i^G \times \omega_i}{\sum N_i^G \times \omega_i} \times N^{CPU} \quad (3)$$

*s.t.*  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M + 1$ .

178 where

$$\omega_i = \begin{cases} \omega_{SUB} & \text{if } i = 1, 2, \dots, M \\ \omega_{ARC} & \text{if } i = M + 1 \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

179 and  $N_i^{CPU}$  is the number of CPUs allocated to the  $i$ -th subpopulation or the  
 180 archive.

$$N_{i,j}^{CPU} = \frac{N_i^{CPU}}{N_i^G} \quad (5)$$

*s.t.*  $j = 1, 2, \dots, N_i^G$ .

181 where  $N_{i,j}^{CPU}$  is the number of CPUs allocated to the  $j$ -th group in the  $i$ -th  
 182 subpopulation or the archive.

183 The evaluations of the individuals are allocated across the multiple CPUs  
 184 in each group.

$$N_{i,j,k}^{CPU} = \frac{NP}{N_{i,j}^{CPU}} \quad (6)$$

*s.t.*  $k = 1, 2, \dots, N_{i,j}^{CPU}$ .

185 where  $N_{i,j,k}^{CPU}$  is the number of individuals that are assigned to the  $k$ -th CPU  
 186 of the  $j$ -th group in the  $i$ -th subpopulation or the archive.

187 Therefore, based on the three-layer parallel structure, the evaluations of  
 188 the individuals in each group of all  $M + 1$  populations are conducted in  
 189 parallel, which substantially reduces the computation time.

190 To guarantee the optimization performance, information must be shared  
 191 among the groups. The communication strategy should be properly designed  
 192 [44, 45], for this purpose, we adopt von Neumann topology.

### 193 3.4. Evolution Combined with the Idea of IA

194 The overall evolution process is provided by Algorithm 3. The evolution of  
 195 each group in the subpopulations (Algorithm 4) or in the archive (Algorithm  
 196 5) is described in the following subsections.

#### 197 3.4.1. Subpopulations

198 In Line 2 of Algorithm 4, in the evolution, tour selection is employed to  
 199 choose 2 individuals from the full population. Then in Lines 3 and 4, we  
 200 use *SBX* to evolve variables in the target group and integrate with other  
 201 variables to form a complete individual.

$$\bar{X}_{i,j} = \begin{cases} SBX(X_i, X_{r_1}, X_{r_2}, j) & \text{if } j \in index \\ X_{r_3,j} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

202 where  $\bar{X}_i$  is the generated new solution,  $X_i$  is the target parent individual,  
 203  $X_{r_1}$  and  $X_{r_2}$  are the 2 reference individuals, *index* is the set of variables  
 204 optimized by the current group, and  $X_{r_3}$  is integrated with the optimized  
 205 variables to form a complete solution, which has the following form:

$$r_3 = \begin{cases} i & \text{if } r < \frac{G}{N_{gen}} \\ r_4 & \text{else if } r' < 0.5 \\ r_5 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

---

#### Algorithm 3: Evolution

---

**Input:** generation number:  $N_{gen}$ .

**Output:** final population:  $POP_{final}$ .

- 1 **for**  $G = 1 \rightarrow N_{gen}$  **do**
  - 2     Evolve all variable groups in the subpopulations (Algorithm 4) and  
    the archive (Algorithm 5) in parallel;
  - 3     Exchange information among the groups;
  - 4 Gather all the individuals from all groups to generate the final  
    population  $POP_{final}$ ;
-

---

**Algorithm 4:** Evolution of One Variable Group in Subpopulations

---

**Input:** number of individuals:  $NP$ ;  
population:  $POP_1$ .  
**Output:** new population:  $POP_{new1}$ .  
/\* Evolution \*/  
1 **for**  $i = 1 \rightarrow NP$  **do**  
2     Select 2 reference individuals;  
3     Use *SBX* to generate offspring  $i$ ;  
4     Integrate other variables with the generated offspring to form a  
   complete solution;  
5     Perform *polynomial mutation*;  
   /\* Evaluation \*/  
6     Allocate the generated solutions to the CPU resources in the group  
   and perform the evaluations in the CPUs in parallel;  
7     Collect the fitness values from the CPUs;  
   /\* Refinement \*/  
8     Combine the generated solutions with the old population;  
9     Obtain  $NP$  individuals based on their fitness values to the considered  
   objective  $\rightarrow POP_{new1}$ ;

---

206 where  $G$  is the number of the current generation and  $N_{gen}$  is the number of  
 207 the maximum generation. Here,  $r$  and  $r'$  are uniform random numbers in  
 208 the range of  $[0.0, 1.0]$  and  $r_4$  and  $r_5$  are 2 selected individuals through tour  
 209 selection. Then, in Line 5, *polynomial mutation* is performed.

210 In Lines 6 and 7, to evaluate the newly generated solutions, we use par-  
 211 allelism to alleviate the computational burden. This is the third layer of the  
 212 parallel structure of DPCCMOLSIA.

213 Finally, in Lines 8 and 9, the  $NP$  best individuals with respect to the  
 214 considered objective are preserved.

---

**Algorithm 5:** Evolution of One Variable Group in Archive

---

**Input:** number of individuals:  $NP$ ;  
 population:  $POP_2$ ;  
 maximum number of individuals to be selected:  $N_{sel}$ .  
**Output:** new population:  $POP_{new2}$ .

```

/* Selection */
1 Select  $N_{sel}$  individuals according to the Pareto dominance and
  crowding distance;
/* Clone */
2 Clone the selected individuals to a total number of  $NP$ ;
/* Evolution */
3 for  $i = 1 \rightarrow NP$  do
4   Select 2 reference individuals;
5   Use SBX to generate the offspring  $i$ ;
6   Integrate other variables to the generated offspring to form a
  complete solution;
7   Perform polynomial mutation;
/* Evaluation */
8 Allocate the generated solutions to the CPU resources in the group
  and perform evaluations on the CPUs in parallel;
9 Collect the fitness values from the CPUs;
/* Non-dominated sorting */
10 Combine the generated solutions with the old population;
11 Obtain  $NP$  individuals according to the Pareto dominance and
  crowding distance  $\rightarrow POP_{new2}$ ;
```

---

215 3.4.2. *Archive*

216 Traditionally, in each generation, all individuals take part in evolution.  
 217 However, this paper introduces the idea of IA, in which, in each genera-  
 218 tion, we select several best individuals and produce  $NP$  offspring, the whole  
 219 process of which is illustrated in Algorithm 5. In detail, the selection of indi-  
 220 viduals in Line 1 is determined by two criteria: non-dominance and crowding  
 221 distance. If the number of nondominated individuals is less than  $N_{sel}$ , we  
 222 select them all for cloning; otherwise, we select the  $N_{sel}$  individuals that have  
 223 larger crowding distances. In the cloning process in Line 2, the number of  
 224 clones of each selected individual is determined by the crowding distance.

$$N_i^C = \frac{dist_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{N_{sel}} dist_i} \times NP, \quad (9)$$

225 where  $N_i^C$  represents the replications of selected individual  $i$  and  $dist_i$  is its  
 226 crowding distance in the population, which is calculated as follows:

$$dist_i = \sum_{m=1}^M dist_i^m, \quad (10)$$

227 where,  $dist_i^m$  is the crowding distance of individual  $i$  with respect to objective  
 228  $m$ ,

$$dist_i^m = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } (i)^* = 1 \\ \frac{\tilde{f}_m^{(i)^*+1} - \tilde{f}_m^{(i)^*-1}}{\tilde{f}_m^{NP} - \tilde{f}_m^1} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

229 and  $\tilde{f}_m^{(i)^*}$  is the  $f_m^i$  sorted in ascending order. Finally,  $(i)^*$  is the new index  
 230 of individual  $i$  in the sorted sequence.

$$dist_i = \begin{cases} 2 \times dist_i^{max} & \text{if } dist_i = \infty \\ dist_i & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

231 and  $dist_i^{max}$  is the maximum crowding distance. Because there are  $\infty$  values  
 232 assigned to crowding distances, to calculate  $N_i^C$ , we have to convert them.

233 In Line 4 in the evolution process, we select 2 individuals from among  
 234 the  $N_{sel}$  selected individuals if  $N_{sel} > 2$ ; otherwise, the selection scope is the  
 235 whole population. Then in Lines 5 and 6, we use *SBX* to generate the target  
 236 individual. For the integration,  $r_4$  and  $r_5$  (Eq. 8) are 2 randomly selected  
 237 individuals from the  $N_{sel}$  best individuals used for cloning when  $N_{sel} > 2$  or

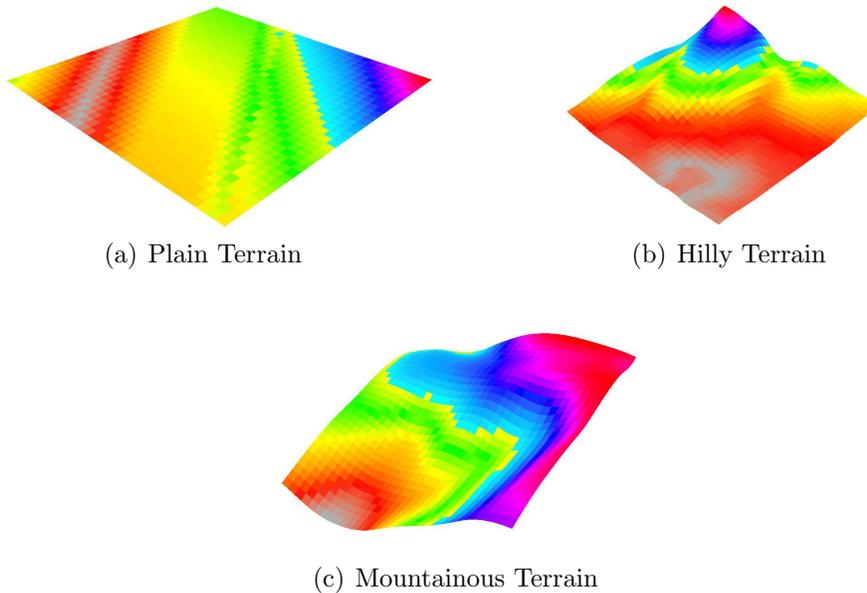


Figure 2: Illustration of 3D terrain data.

238 from the whole population when  $N_{sel} \leq 2$ . Then Line 7 performs *polynomial*  
 239 *mutation*.

240 Finally, in Lines 8 and 9, we combine the new individuals with the cur-  
 241 rent population to obtain the  $NP$  best individuals according to the Pareto  
 242 dominance and crowding distance. When the number of nondominated indi-  
 243 viduals is less than  $NP$ , several dominated individuals are preserved.

#### 244 4. Experimental Research: Application to 3D Terrain Deployment 245 of Heterogeneous Directional Sensor Networks

##### 246 4.1. 3D Deployment Problem and Terrain Data

247 We use the 3D deployment problem proposed in [2], which includes three  
 248 objectives: *Coverage*, *Connectivity Uniformity* and *Deployment Cost*. We  
 249 also use the same real-world 3D terrain data (Fig. 2), which is composed  
 250 of plain (Fig. 2(a)), hilly (Fig. 2(b)) and mountainous (Fig. 2(c)) terrains.  
 251 These three terrains have different characteristics that are used to verify the  
 252 proposed algorithm with respect to various conditions.

253 *4.2. Parameter Setup*

254 We compare DPCCMOLSIA with CCGDE3 [41], CMODE [43] and the  
255 nondominated sorting genetic algorithm III (NSGA-III) [46] in addressing  
256 the deployment optimization problem.

257 For all the algorithms, the optimization process is performed 20 times.  
258 The fitness evaluations (FEs) are set to  $10^4 \times D$ : here,  $D = 10^2$ .

259 To ensure a fair comparison, we set the population size,  $NP$ , to 120  
260 for all algorithms. Specifically, for CCGDE3, the population is split into  
261 2 subpopulations, each of which has 60 individuals. For CMODE, because  
262 there are 3 objectives that must be optimized, we used 3 subpopulations,  
263 each of which has 20 individuals, and set the maximum size of the archive  
264 to 120; for NSGA-III, we simply set  $NP$  to 120. For DPCCMOLSIA, each  
265 of the subpopulations and the archive population has 120 individuals, while  
266 the importance ratio of the subpopulation and the archive population is set  
267 to  $\omega_{SUB} : \omega_{ARC} = 1 : 6$ , and we finally select 120 individuals.

268  $DE$  is used in CCGDE3, and  $F$  and  $CR$  are set to 0.5 and 1.0, respectively.  
269  $SBX$  and *polynomial mutation* are used in NSGA-III and DPCCMOLSIA,  
270 and the distribution indexes are set to  $\eta_c = \eta_m = 20$ . The probabilities of  
271 crossover and mutation are set to  $p_c = 1.0$  and  $p_m = 1.0/D$ , respectively.

272 Additionally, for DPCCMOLSIA, we set  $N_{sel} = 0.1 \times NP$ , and the number  
273 of CPUs used is 72.

274 *4.3. Performance Indicator*

275 Because the optimal solutions are unknown, we use the hypervolume (HV)  
276 indicator [47] and visualize all the obtained solutions. The higher is the HV  
277 indicator value, the better is the optimization performance.

278 *4.4. Results and Analyses*

279 First, we demonstrate all the obtained final nondominated solutions after  
280 20 runs of each algorithm on each of the three terrains in Fig. 3. Here,  $P - *$   
281 denotes the results on plain terrain,  $H - *$  denotes the results on hilly terrain,  
282 and  $M - *$  denotes the results on mountainous terrain.

283 As Fig. 3 shows, the characteristics are quite different for the different  
284 terrains, while for the various algorithms on the same terrain, the solutions  
285 are only slightly different.

286 In general, for the plain terrain, all the algorithms perform better on the  
287 *Coverage* objective. For the hilly terrain, the algorithms tend to obtain good  
288 performance on the *Deployment Cost* objective. Finally, on the mountainous

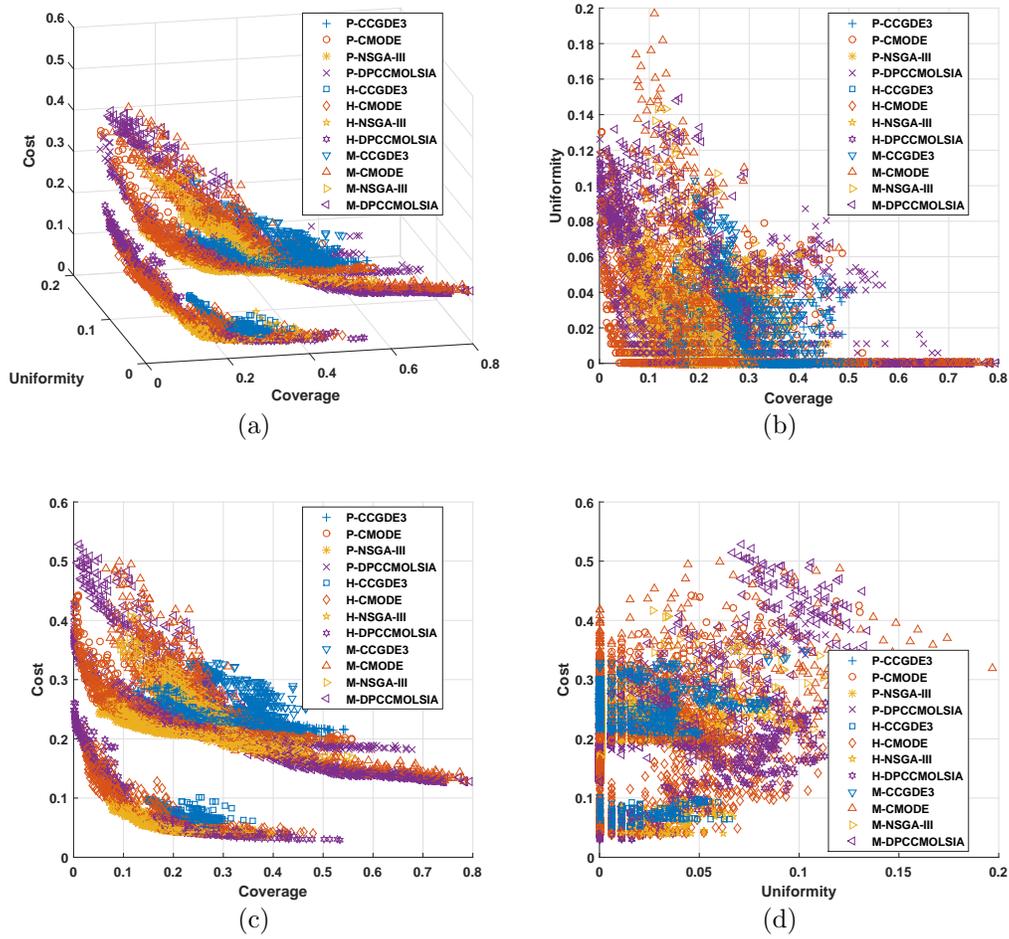


Figure 3: Visualization of solutions on all terrains.

289 terrain, the algorithms performances are all inferior to their performances on  
 290 the other two terrains. We can comment on the above phenomena as follows:

- 291 1. Because the plain terrain is flatter than the other two terrains, it is  
 292 easier to achieve better *Coverage*.
- 293 2. The hilly terrain has few changes in elevation, and algorithms tend to  
 294 deploy the sensor nodes in the low-lying areas, thus guaranteeing better  
 295 *Deployment Cost*.
- 296 3. The mountainous terrain has severe elevation changes, which makes it  
 297 much more difficult to address compared with the other two terrains;  
 298 consequently, the algorithms exhibit poor performances on this terrain.

299 In the following, we analyze the performances of the different algorithms  
 300 on each terrain in detail.

#### 301 4.4.1. Plain Terrain

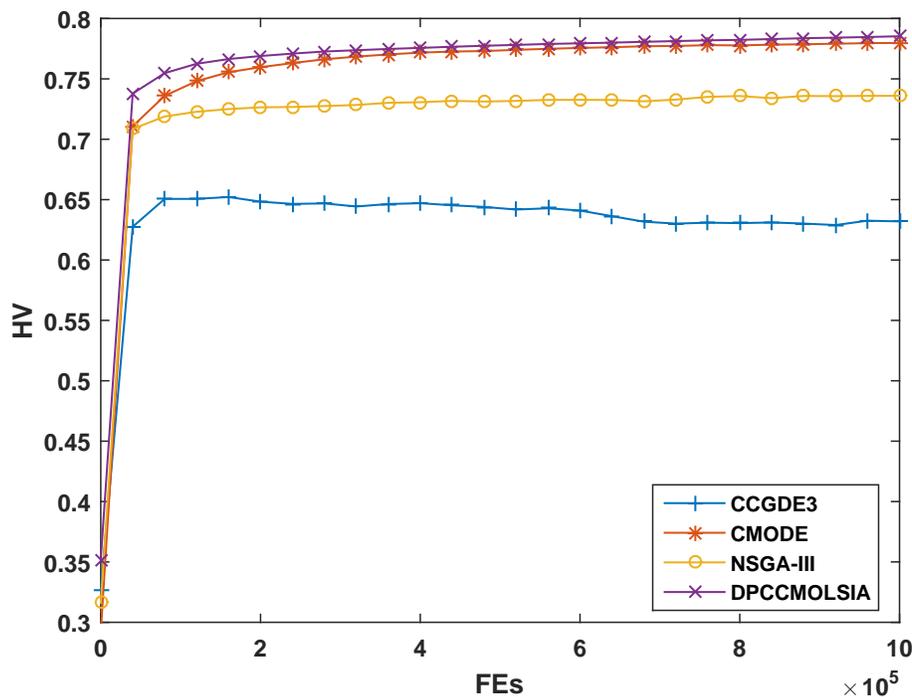


Figure 4: Convergence curves of HV on plain terrain.

302 The convergence curves of the HV indicator are illustrated in Fig. 4.  
 303 We can see that DPCCMOLSIA performs the best (0.785290), CMODE  
 304 slightly worse (0.779786), NSGA-III is third (0.735985), and CCGDE3 per-  
 305 forms the worst (0.631979). Moreover, DPCCMOLSIA has the fastest conver-  
 306 gence speed, but improves less later in the process, similar to CMODE.

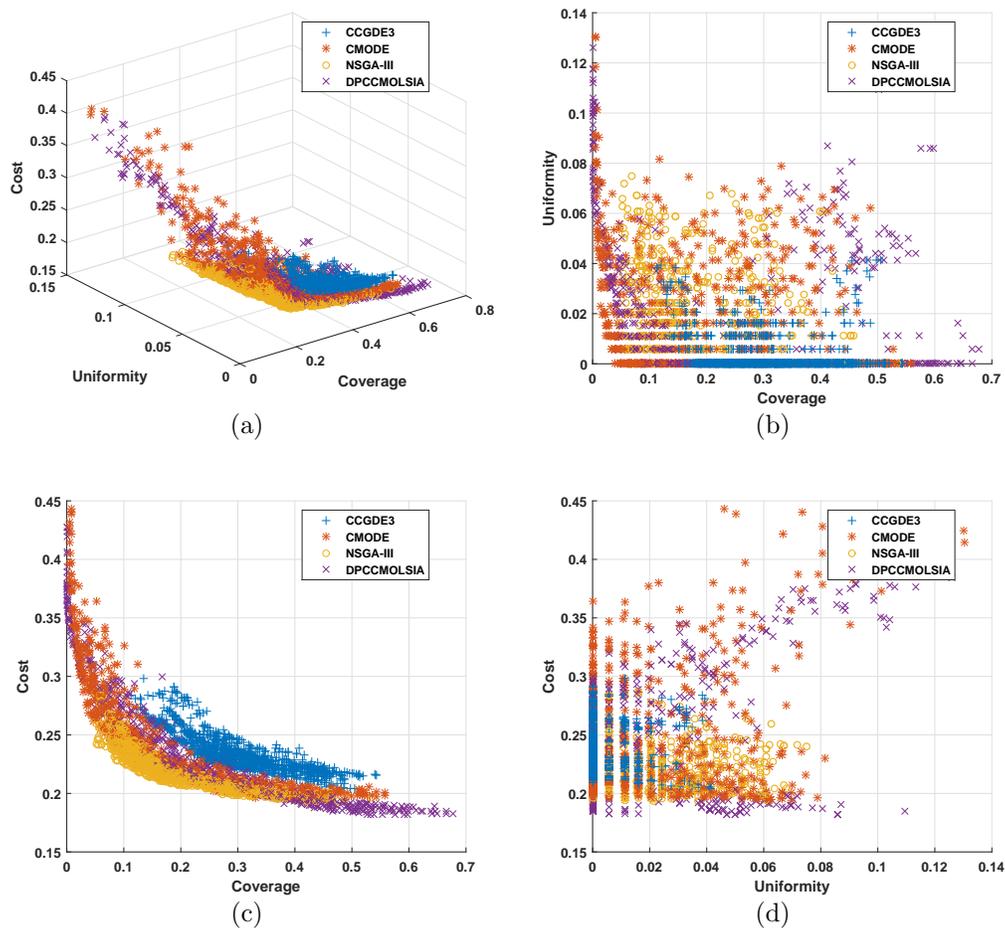


Figure 5: Visualization of solutions of plain terrain.

307 The visualization is shown in Fig. 5. In accordance with the HV indi-  
 308 cator and considering the diversity and convergence of solutions, the overall  
 309 performance of DPCCMOLSIA is the best.

310 *Coverage* is an important factor to consider in WSN deployment prob-

311 lems. From the visualization, we can see that DPCCMOLSIA is able to ob-  
 312 tain a very low fitness value (good performance) for the *Coverage* objective,  
 313 which validates its performance. Because the plain terrain is quite flat, it is  
 314 easier to optimize the objectives *Connectivity Uniformity* and *Deployment*  
 315 *Cost*.

316 On the whole, the performances of all the algorithms on the plain ter-  
 317 rain can be ordered as follows: DPCCMOLSIA > CMODE > NSGA-III >  
 318 CCGDE3.

#### 319 4.4.2. Hilly Terrain

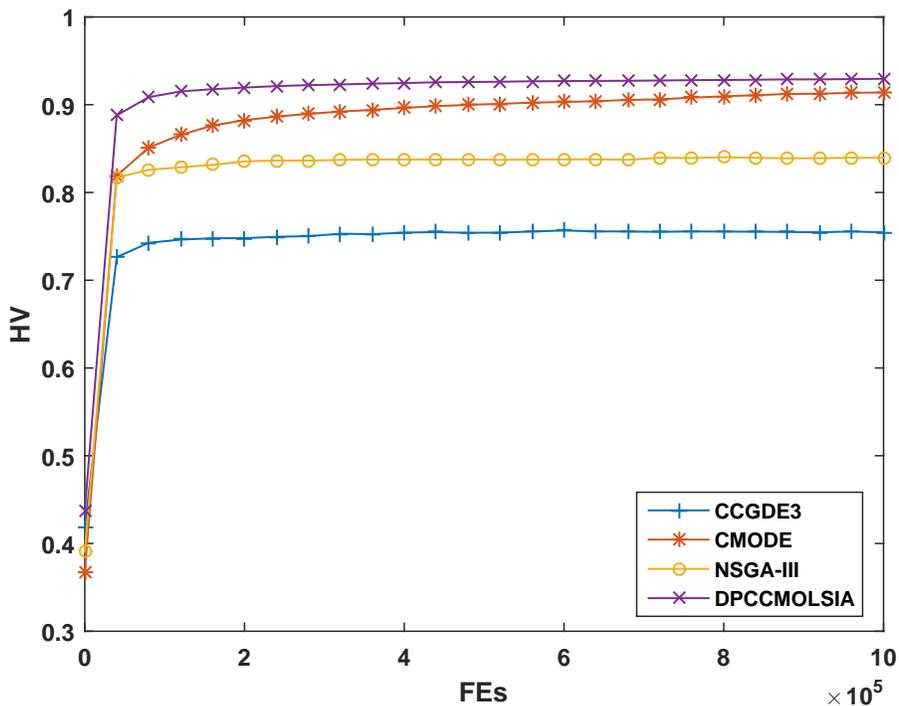


Figure 6: Convergence curves of HV on hilly terrain.

320 The convergence curves of the HV indicator for all the algorithms on the  
 321 hilly terrain are illustrated in Fig. 6.

322 From the HV indicator, again, DPCCMOLSIA performs best (0.929553);  
 323 CMODE is second (0.914022); NSGA-III is third (0.839551), and CCGDE3

324 is far worse (0.754544). The characteristics of all the algorithms are similar  
 325 to those described above for the plain terrain.

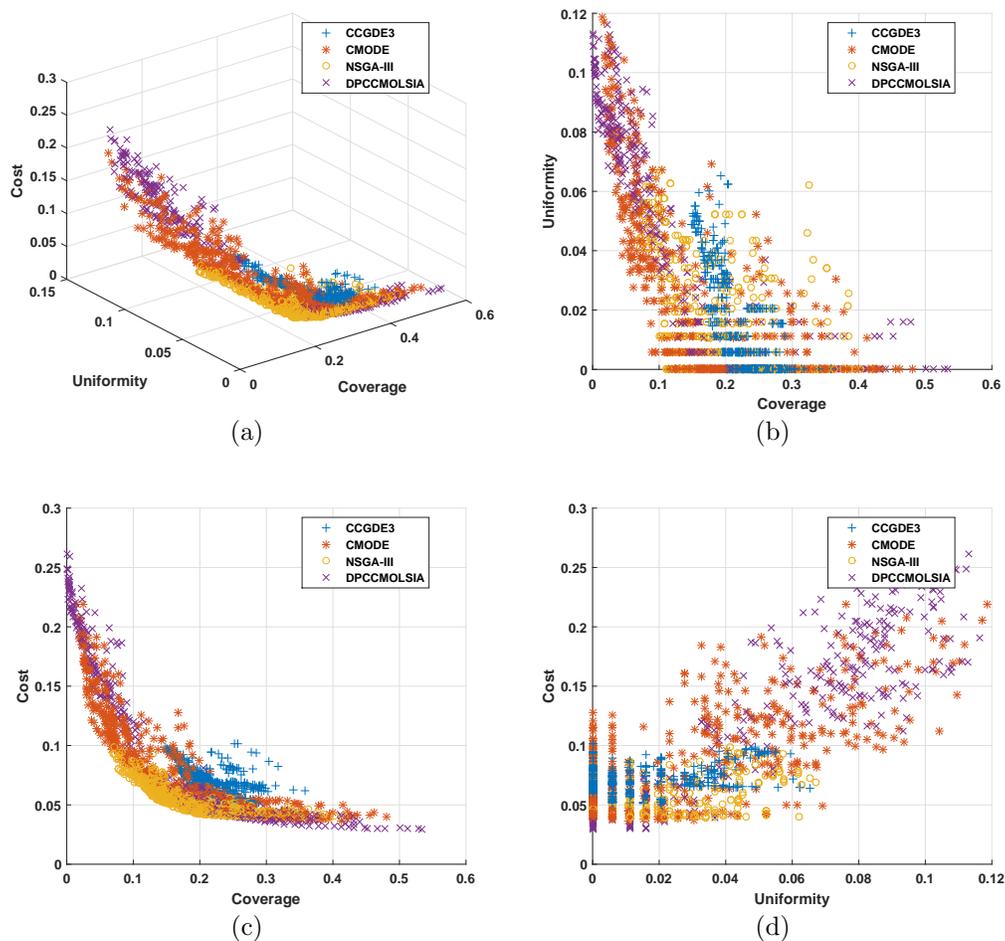


Figure 7: Visualization of solutions of hilly terrain.

326 The visualization of the solutions are shown in Fig. 7. Generally, DPCC-  
 327 MOLSIA more comprehensively approximates the optimal PF and still guar-  
 328 antees good *Coverage*. As mentioned above, because the elevation changes in  
 329 the hilly terrain are relatively small, the algorithms obtain a relatively good  
 330 *Deployment Cost*. However, to achieve better *Coverage*, the sensor nodes  
 331 should be deployed in higher areas, which results in a sharp increase in the  
 332 fitness of the objective *Deployment Cost*, as can be observed in Fig. 7(c).

333 Overall, the performances of the algorithms on hilly terrain can be ordered  
 334 as follows: DPCCMOLSIA > CMODE > NSGA-III > CCGDE3.

335 *4.4.3. Mountainous Terrain*

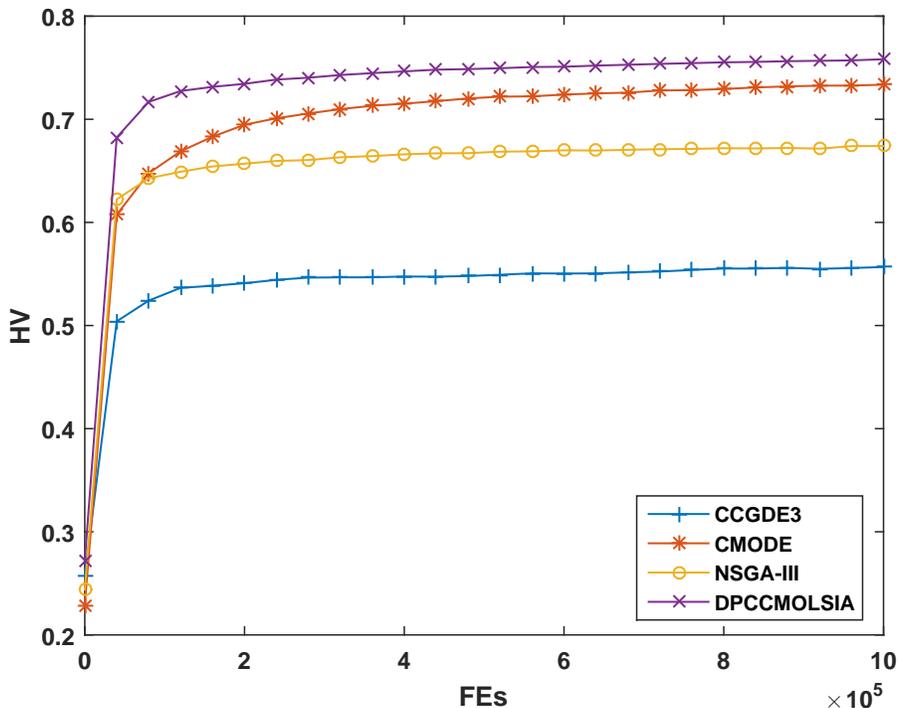


Figure 8: Convergence curves of HV on mountainous terrain.

336 The convergence curves of the HV indicator of DPCCMOLSIA, CMODE,  
 337 NSGA-III and CCGDE3 on mountainous terrain are illustrated in Fig. 8.

338 DPCCMOLSIA again obtains the highest HV indicator value (0.758215),  
 339 CMODE is a little worse (0.733522), NSGA-III is third (0.674049), and  
 340 CCGDE3 is the worst (0.556730). The characteristics of the different al-  
 341 gorithms are similar to those on the plain and hilly terrains.

342 Visualizations of the obtained solutions of all algorithms are shown in  
 343 Fig. 9. Overall, the DPCCMOLSIA algorithm performs the best. Because  
 344 mountainous terrain has severe altitude variations, it is much more difficult  
 345 for the algorithms to achieve a good optimization performance.

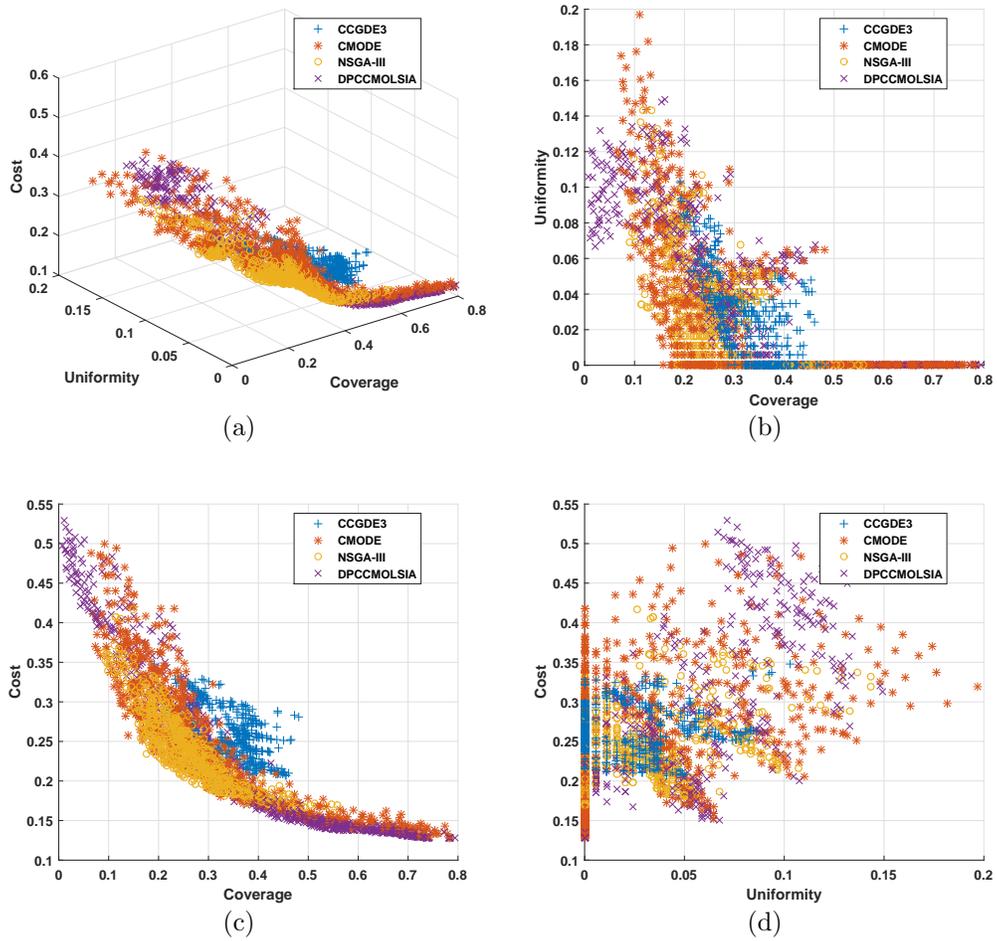


Figure 9: Visualization of solutions of mountainous terrain.

346 The performances of all four algorithms on mountainous terrain can be  
 347 ordered as follows: DPCCMOLSIA > CMODE > NSGA-III > CCGDE3.

348 Overall, comprehensively considering all the tested terrains, DPCCMOL-  
 349 SIA achieves the best optimization results; CMODE is a little worse; NSGA-  
 350 III is third; and CCGDE3 is well behind.

Table 1: Average Computation Time of CCGDE3, CMODE, NSGA-III and DPCCMOL-  
 SIA and the Speedup Ratios with Respect to DPCCMOLSIA

AVERAGE TIME	CCGDE3	CMODE	NSGA-III	DPCCMOLSIA
<b>Plain terrain</b>	2.32E+03	2.63E+03	2.52E+03	<b>8.48E+01</b> <sup>1</sup>
<b>Hilly terrain</b>	3.40E+03	3.58E+03	3.67E+03	<b>1.25E+02</b>
<b>Mountainous terrain</b>	3.06E+03	3.25E+03	3.28E+03	<b>1.13E+02</b>
<b>All terrains</b>	2.93E+03	3.15E+03	3.16E+03	<b>1.07E+02</b>
<b>Speedup Ratio</b>	2.73E+01	2.94E+01	2.94E+01	/

<sup>1</sup> Values in bold denote better performance.

351 Table 1 summarizes the computation time required by the various algo-  
 352 rithms. Compared to the serial algorithms, the computation time of DPCC-  
 353 MOLSIA is substantially reduced.

## 354 5. Conclusion and Prospect

355 In this paper, we proposed a distributed parallel cooperative coevolution-  
 356 ary multi-objective large-scale immune algorithm (DPCCMOLSIA), which  
 357 uses a three-layer parallel structure to substantially reduce the computation  
 358 time. By decomposing the objectives and variables, the original complex  
 359 MOLSOP is transformed into simpler, small-scale problems that are easier  
 360 to address. We verified the effectiveness and efficiency of DPCCMOLSIA  
 361 by testing it on a real-world problem in comparison with several other al-  
 362 gorithms (CCGDE3, CMODE and NSGA-III). In the future, we will plan  
 363 to continue the improvement of DPCCMOLSIA and test it on additional  
 364 real-world problems.

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