

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)

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]

can usually converge to a near optimal solution using limited computational resources [18] within a reasonable time compared to brute force and deterministic methods.

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

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

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

Antonio et al. proposed the cooperative coevolutionary generalized differential evolution 3 (CCGDE3) method [41], which used fixed grouping.

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

1. position variables, which affect only the diversity of the solution set;
2. distance variables, which affect only the convergence of the solution set; and
3. mixed variables, which affect both the diversity and the convergence of the solution set.

Therefore, position variables should be permuted to approximate the PF as comprehensively as possible. However, distance variables should be optimized so they can closely approach the PF.

To identify these variable types, the multi-objective evolutionary algorithm based on decision variable analyses (MOEA/DVA) [30] proposed a mechanism that used decision variable analyses (DVA) to categorize the position and mixed variables as diversity-related variables and to categorize distance variables as convergence-related variables. The convergence-related variables were separated into several groups that were then optimized under the CC framework.

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

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

The contributions of this paper can be summarized as follows:

1. Each objective is optimized by a subpopulation. Thus, the exploration with respect to each objective is enhanced, and all objectives are comprehensively optimized by an archive. Variables are grouped according to their properties and interactions, contributing to effective optimization.

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

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

2. Preliminaries

2.1. MOP and Variable Properties

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

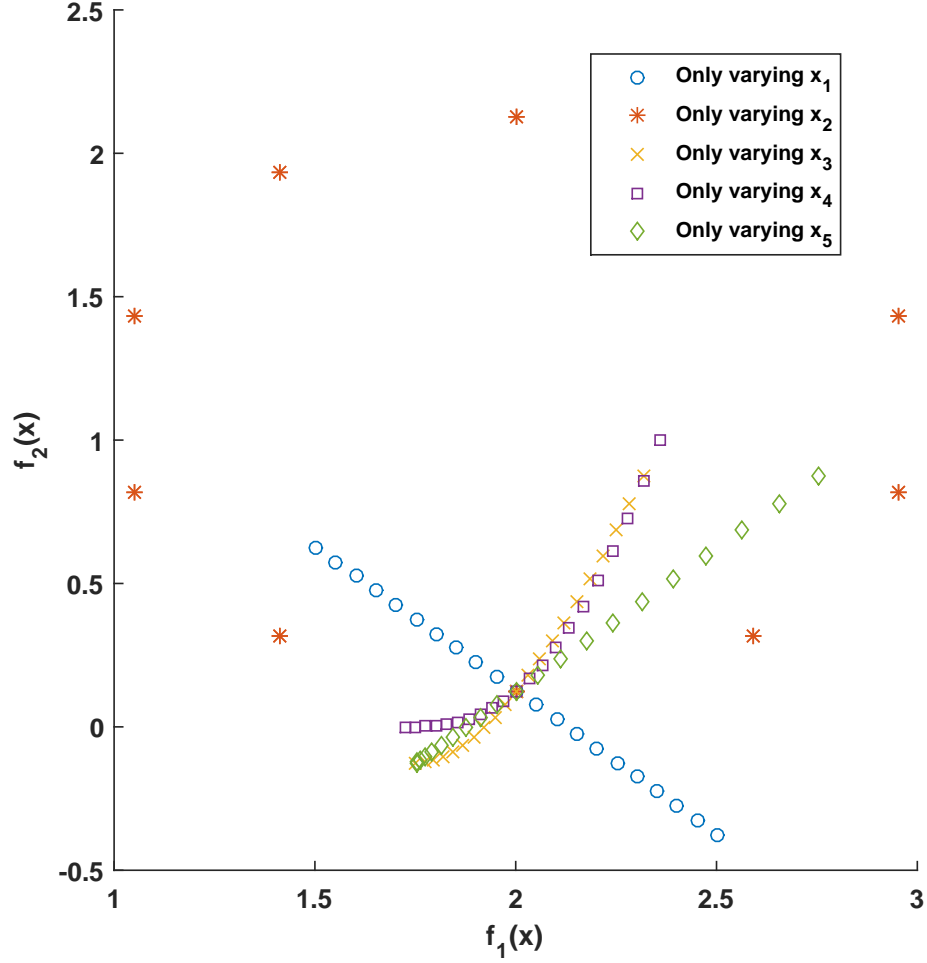


Figure 1: Image of solution sets for the MOP formulated in Eq. 2 by varying one variable while fixing the others to 0.5.

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

2.2. CC

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

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

2.3. Immune Algorithm

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

3. The Proposed Algorithm: DPCCMOLSIA

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

3.1. Variable Property and Interaction Analyses

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

3.2. Variable Grouping

Because more than one objective exists, the interactions among variables are obtained with respect to all the objectives by adopting the idea of gDG [40]. The diversity-related variables are separated into a single group. We group the convergence-related variables according to the following idea: if two variables interact with each other for any objective to be optimized in the current subpopulation/archive, we consider them to be interacting. For example, for the MOP formulated in Eq. 2, x_1 and x_2 are diversity-related variables, so they are allocated to a single group. For the convergence-related variables, x_3 and x_4 interact in f_1 and act independently in f_2 , so we allocate them to a single group in subpopulation 1 (only optimizing f_1), to separate groups in subpopulation 2 (only optimizing f_2), and to the same group in the archive (optimizing both f_1 and f_2); x_5 is independent from other variables 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  $AFF_{Ab}^G$ :
8      $POP_{Ab}^G \rightarrow POP_{sel}^G$ ,  $AFF_{Ab}^G \rightarrow AFF_{sel}^G$ ;
9   Cloning according to  $AFF_{sel}^G$ :
10     $POP_{sel}^G \rightarrow POP_{rep}^G$ ;
11   Hypermutation:
12     $POP_{rep}^G \rightarrow POP_{rep}^{G+1}$ ,  $AFF_{rep}^{G+1} = f(POP_{rep}^{G+1})$ ;
13   Insertion:
14     $POP_{Ab}^G + POP_{rep}^{G+1} \rightarrow POP_{Ab}^{G+1}$ ;
15    $G + +$ ;
```

Algorithm 2: DPCCMOLSIA

```
1 Initialization;
2 Variable property and interaction analyses;
3 Variable Grouping;
4 Parallelism implementation;
5 Optimization;
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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 ω_{SUB} and ω_{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 ∞ 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

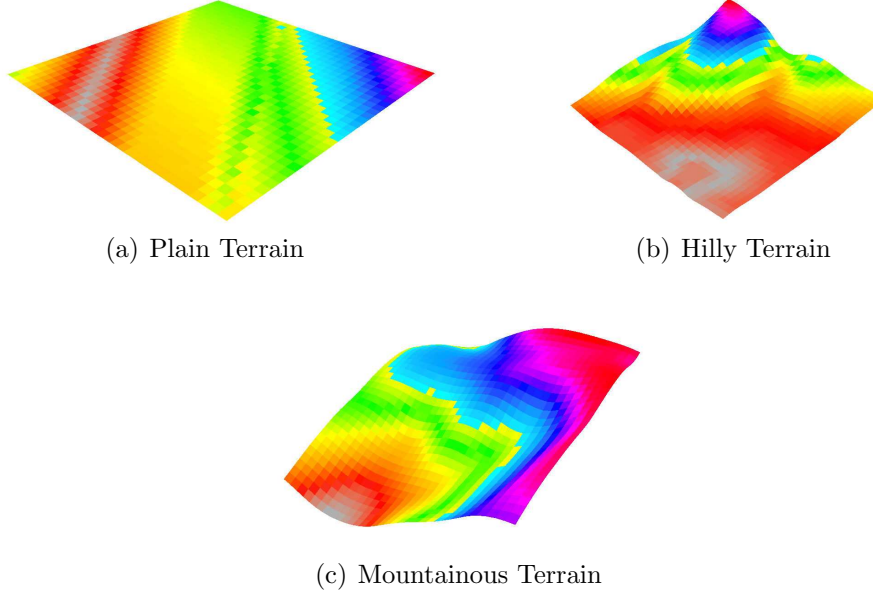


Figure 2: Illustration of 3D terrain data.

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

Finally, in Lines 8 and 9, we combine the new individuals with the current population to obtain the NP best individuals according to the Pareto dominance and crowding distance. When the number of nondominated individuals is less than NP , several dominated individuals are preserved.

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

4.1. 3D Deployment Problem and Terrain Data

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

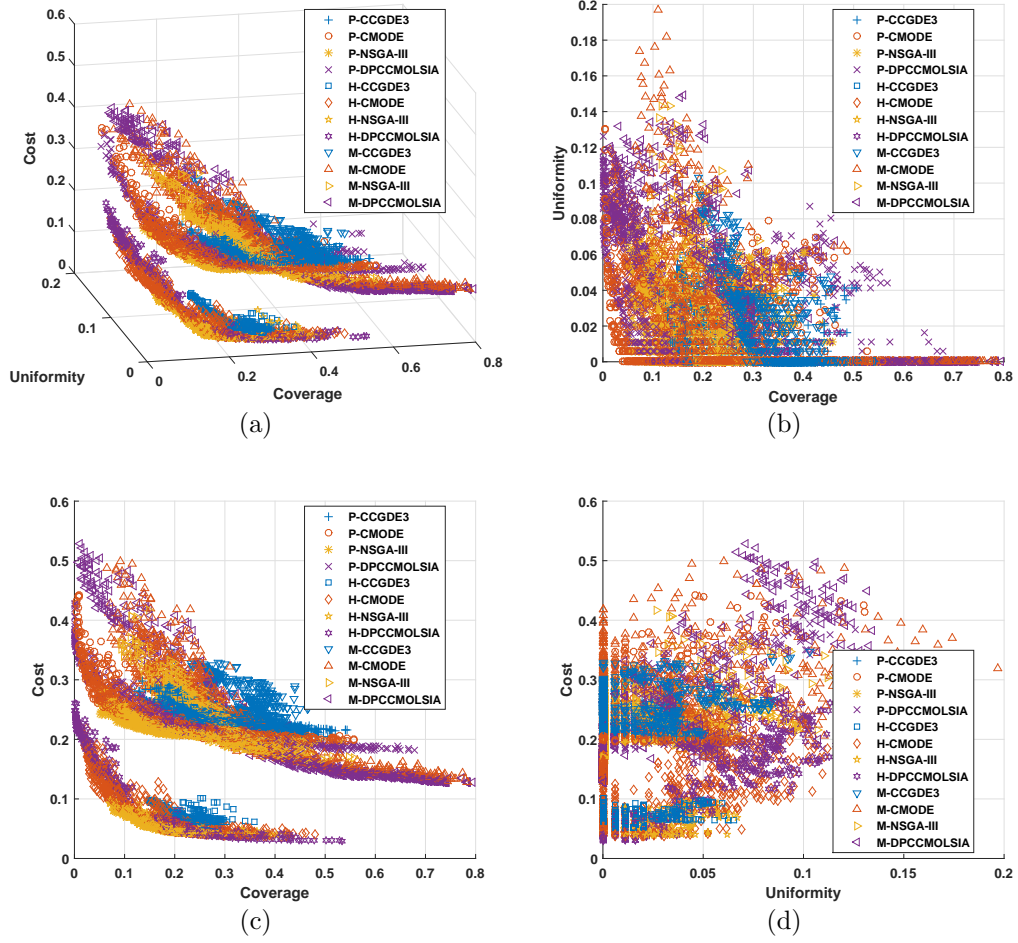


Figure 3: Visualization of solutions on all terrains.

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

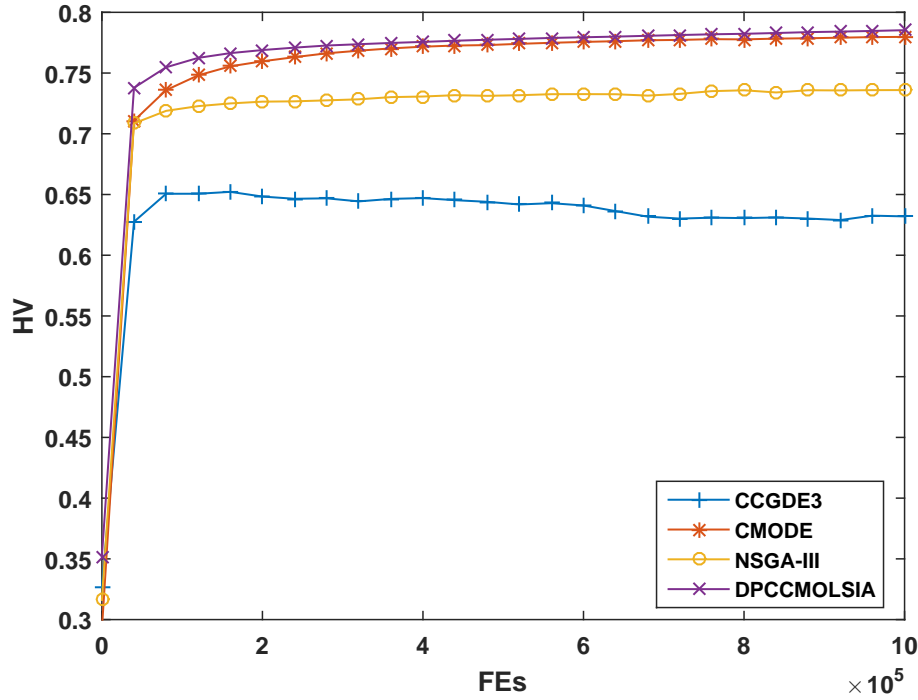


Figure 4: Convergence curves of HV on plain terrain.

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 con-
 306 vergence speed, but improves less later in the process, similar to CMODE.

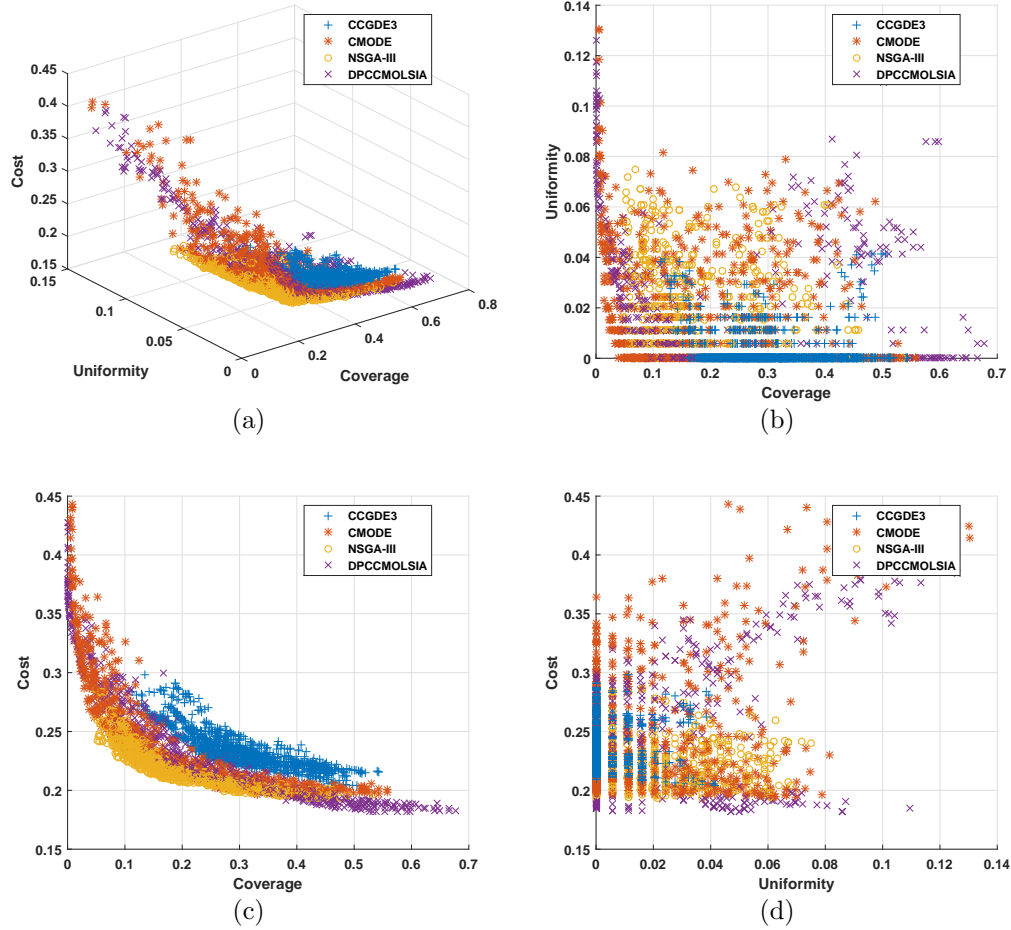


Figure 5: Visualization of solutions of plain terrain.

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

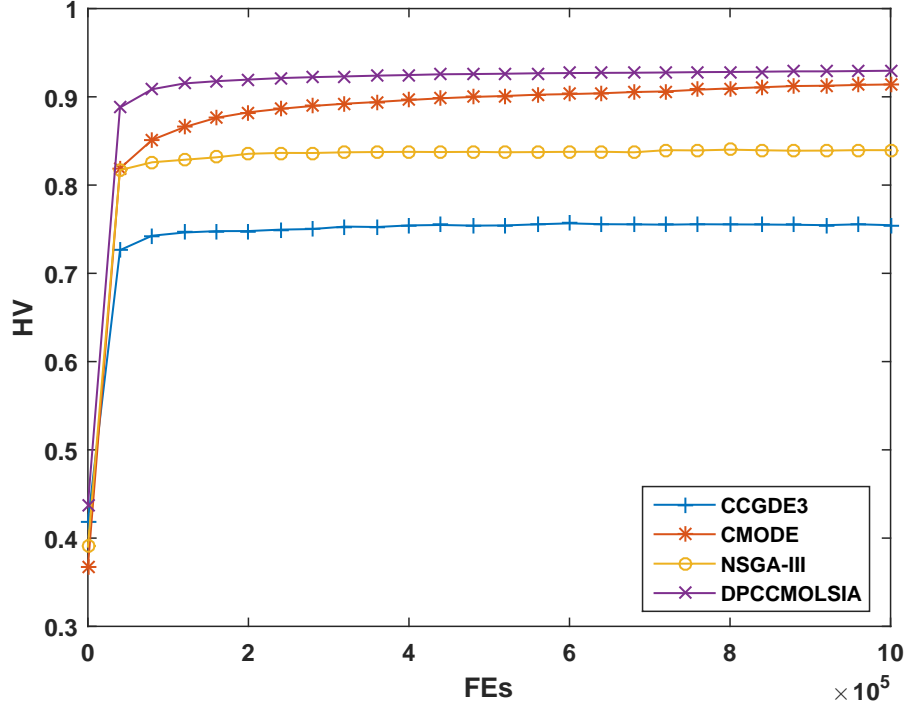


Figure 6: Convergence curves of HV on hilly terrain.

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

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

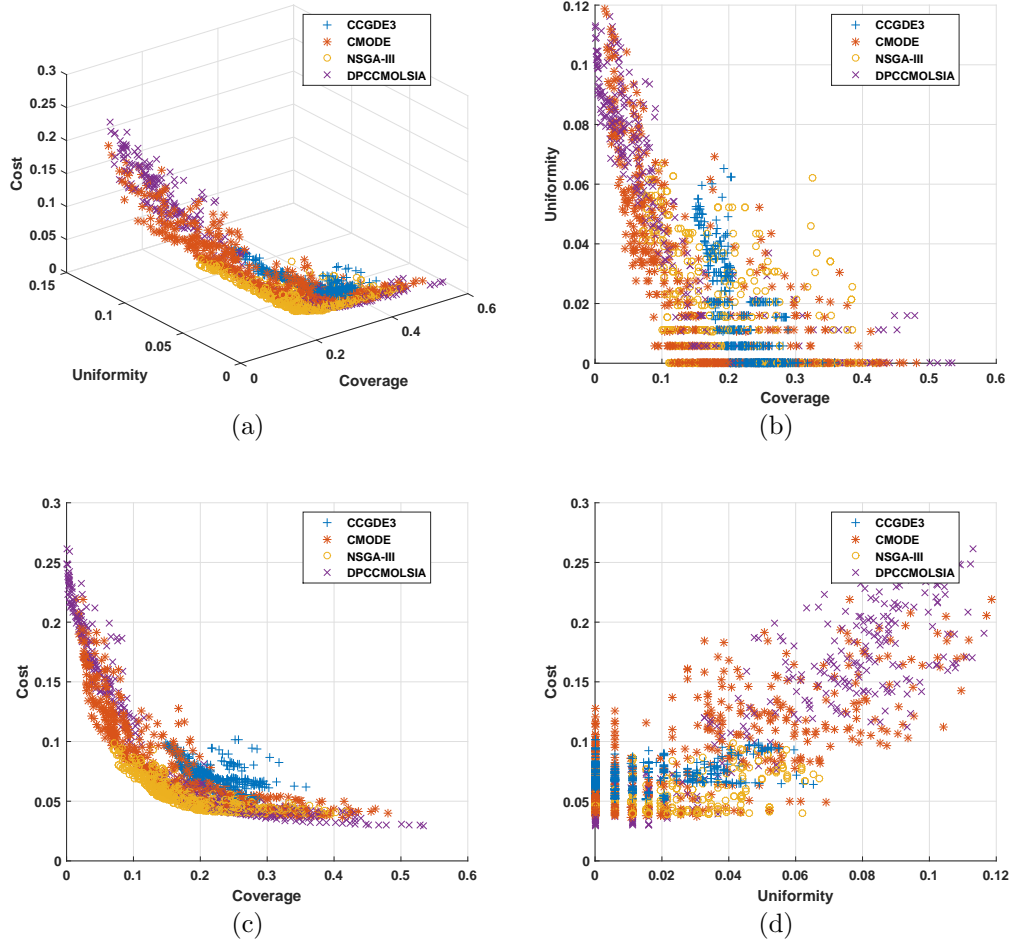


Figure 7: Visualization of solutions of hilly terrain.

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

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

4.4.3. Mountainous Terrain

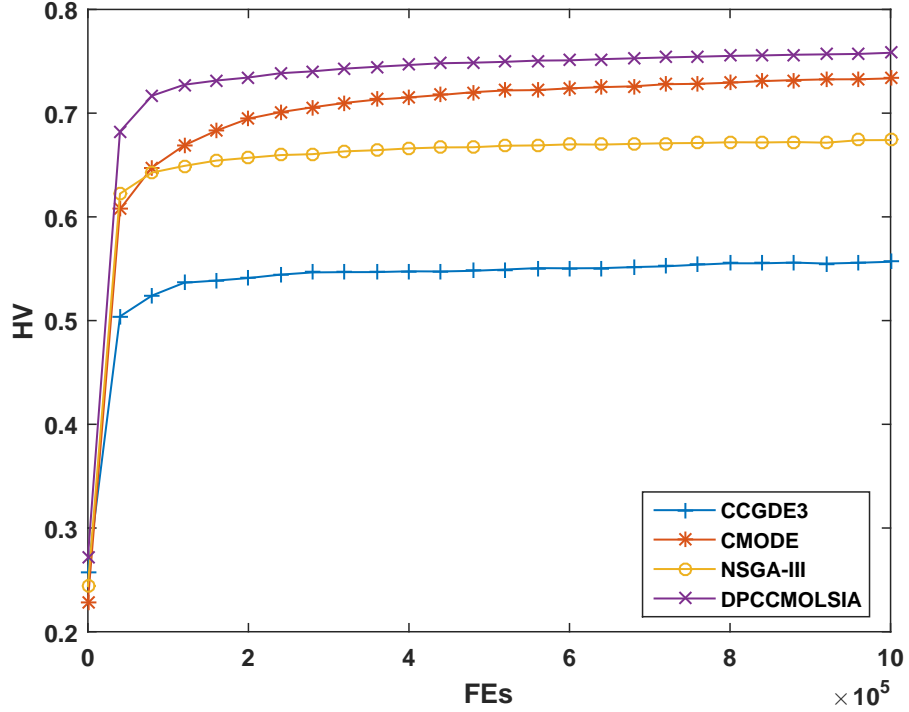


Figure 8: Convergence curves of HV on mountainous terrain.

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

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

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

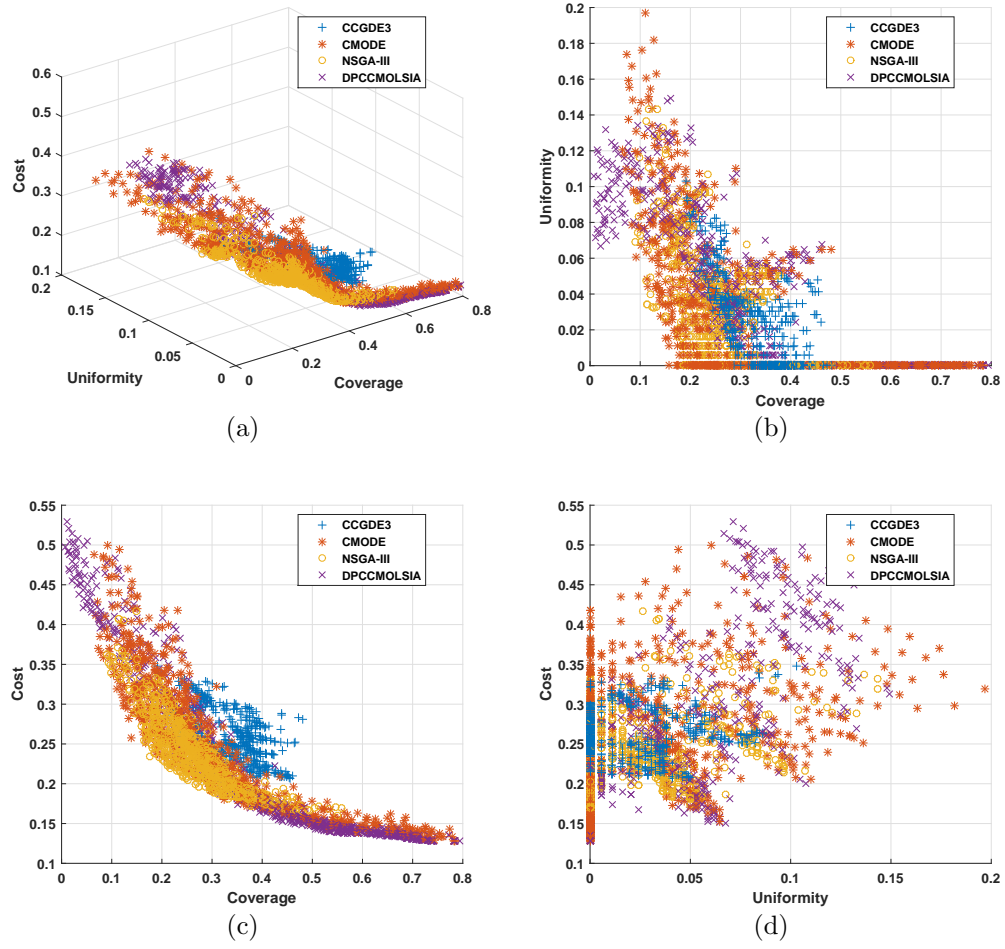


Figure 9: Visualization of solutions of mountainous terrain.

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 DPCCMOLSIA and the Speedup Ratios with Respect to DPCCMOLSIA

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

¹ 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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