

Combining an evolutionary algorithm with data mining to solve a single-vehicle routing problem

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Abstract

The aim of this work is to present some alternatives to improve the performance of an evolutionary algorithm applied to the problem known as the oil collecting vehicle routing problem. Some proposals based on the insertion of local search and data mining (DM) modules in a genetic algorithm (GA) are presented. Four algorithms were developed: a GA, a GA with a local search procedure, a GA including a DM module and a GA including local search and DM. Experimental results demonstrate that the incorporation of DM and local search modules in GA can improve the solution quality produced by this method.

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1. Introduction

Evolutionary algorithms and genetic algorithms (GA), its most popular representative, are part of the research area of artificial intelligence inspired by the natural evolution theory and genetics, known as evolutionary computation. Those algorithms try to simulate some aspects of Darwin's natural selection and have been used in several areas to solve problems considered intractable (NP-complete and NP-hard). Although these methods provide a general tool for solving optimization problems, their traditional versions [26,11,15] do not demonstrate much efficiency in the resolution of high complexity combinatorial optimization (CO) problems. This deficiency has led researchers to propose new hybrid evolutionary algorithms (HEA) [8,24,5], sometimes named “memetic algorithms” ([20,21], which usually combine better constructive algorithms, local search and specialized crossover operators. The outcome of these hybrid versions is generally better than independent versions of these algorithms. In this paper we propose an HEA for a routing problem which incorporates all features cited before plus an additional module of data mining (DM), which tries to

discover relevant patterns in the best solutions found so far, in order to guide the search process to promising regions of the search space. After presenting the problem, we describe a GA and afterwards, three improved versions: GA with local search, GA with DM and GA with DM and local search.

2. The oil collecting vehicle routing problem

Concerning oil exploitation, there is a class of onshore wells called artificial lift wells where the use of auxiliary methods for the elevation of fluids (oil and water) is necessary. In this case, a fixed system of beam pump is used when the well has a high productivity. Because oil is not a renewable product, the production of such wells will diminish until the utilization of equipment permanently allocated to them will become economically unfeasible. The exploitation of low productivity wells can be done by mobile equipment coupled to a truck. This vehicle has to perform daily tours visiting wells, starting and finishing at the oil treatment station (OTS), where separation of oil from water occurs. Usually the mobile collector is not able to visit all wells in a single day. In this context, arises the problem called oil collecting vehicle routing problem (OCVRP). In this problem, the objective is to collect the maximum amount of oil in a single day, starting and

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finishing the route at OTS, respecting time constraints. The OCVRP can be considered as a generalization of the traveling salesman problem (TSP) which is classified as NP-hard. Thus, it is possibly harder to solve than the TSP.

Formally, given a set $W = \{1, \dots, n\}$ of locations, where location 1 represents OTS and all other locations represent wells, let p_i be the estimated daily production of well $i \in W$ ($p_1 = 0$), t_{ij} be the estimated time for traveling from location i to location j and L the time limit for routes, the OCVRP can be formulated as the following mixed integer programming (MIP) problem:

$$\text{Maximize : } f(x) = \sum_{i \in W} s_i p_i \quad (1)$$

$$\text{subject to : } \sum_{j \in W, j \neq i} x_{ij} = s_i \quad \forall i \in W \quad (2)$$

$$\sum_{i \in W, i \neq j} x_{ij} = s_j \quad \forall j \in W \quad (3)$$

$$x_{ij} \leq (|W| - 1) x_{ij} \quad \forall i, j \in W, i \neq j \quad (4)$$

$$\sum_{j \in W, j \neq 1} y_{1j} = \left(\sum_{i \in W} s_i \right) - 1 \quad (5)$$

$$\sum_{i \in W, i \neq j} y_{ij} - \sum_{k \in W, k \neq j} y_{jk} = s_j \quad \forall j \in W - \{1\} \quad (6)$$

$$\sum_{i \in W, j \in W, i \neq j} t_{ij} x_{ij} \leq L \quad (7)$$

$$s_1 = 1 \quad (8)$$

$$s_i \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall i \in W, i \neq 1 \quad (9)$$

$$x_{ij} \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall i, j \in W, i \neq j, \quad (10)$$

where s_i indicates if well i will be visited, that is, whether it is part of the route ($s_i = 1$) or not ($s_i = 0$) and x_{ij} indicates whether arc (i, j) will be included on the route ($x_{ij} = 1$) or not ($x_{ij} = 0$). Constraints (2) and (3) ensure that for active wells, and only for these wells, there must be one input and one output arc included in the route. Constraints (4)–(6) are subtour-elimination constraints, where y_{ij} represents the “flow” in arc (i, j) [22]. Constraint (7) prevents from exceeding the time limit, and constraint (8) ensures that OTS is included in the route.

Although for routing problems in general there are some recent successful applications of GAs [5,19,24], for problems similar to OCVRP, such as the traveling purchaser problem [25], the prize collecting problem [4] and the orienteering problem [12], they are scarce [13].

3. Genetic algorithm

This section describes an overview of the GA proposed to solve the OCVRP. In order to represent a solution, we employ a direct representation, where each individual is coded by a variable size list of integer numbers, where genes correspond to wells pertaining to route coded by an individual. The last gene of each individual always

represents the oil treatment station, using 1 to code it. The position of a well in this list represents its order in the route. A sample individual is showed in Fig. 1. In this case, the following route is represented: OTS - well 16 - well 34 - ... - well 58 - well 44 - OTS. Note that the route always starts at OTS, in spite of the first gene not representing it. Throughout the text, we will denote individuals by *ind* and $wells(ind)$ will denote the number of wells of individual *ind*. Also, ind_i will denote the i th visited well (or OTS, for $ind_{wells(ind)+1}$) and $time(ind)$ will denote the time needed to perform the route encoded in *ind*. The fitness function is exactly the objective function presented in Section 2.

To generate the initial population, individuals are constructed using an iterative procedure, similar to the constructive phase of GRASP [7,29]. They are built taking into account a greedy criterion which is used to define which wells can be included in partial solutions. This criterion is based on p_i/t_{ji} ratio, where p_i is the production rate of the candidate well i and t_{ji} is the time spent to travel from the last well j included in the partial solution to the well i . Thus, at each iteration, a well is selected from a list that contains all wells not yet included in the solution, with p_i/t_{ji} ratio in the range $[r_{min}, r_{max}]$. Let \bar{r} be the greatest p_i/t_{ji} ratio among all wells not yet included in the solution and \underline{r} be the smallest ratio among these same wells then $r_{min} = \bar{r} - \alpha(\bar{r} - \underline{r})$ and $r_{max} = \bar{r}$. The α parameter should be selected in the range $[0,1]$, allowing the choice of the randomization degree of individual generation. This process is executed while the total time consumed on the route being constructed has not reached the time limit L . Once the addition of a given well $w \in W$ produces a partial route with an associated time greater or equal than the time limit (not including the time to return to OTS), the reparation procedure is started.

The reparation procedure transforms an incomplete, infeasible solution, into a complete, feasible one, in the following way: in order to turn the OTS inclusion possible, this procedure removes, iteratively, the last well in the route until the solution including OTS satisfies the time limit constraint.

Our GA uses a genetic operator different from traditional crossover operators. A new individual (offspring) is generated from np solutions (parents) of the current population, where np varies from one up to the size of the population. Each parent solution is chosen by a tournament procedure that selects the fittest individual from a set of k individuals randomly selected from the population.

The crossover operator proposed here combines information from parent solutions and the heuristic criterion employed in the constructive phase, as follows: during each iteration of offspring generation, a well is chosen to take



Fig. 1. Example of an individual.

part in the route. This well is randomly chosen from a list of remaining wells taking into account a probability distribution that favors the addition of wells with the highest $\gamma_i = (1 + \zeta_{ji}) * (p_i/t_{ji})$, where ζ_{ji} is the frequency which well i (candidate well) is the successor of well j (last well added to the partial solution) in parent solutions. The probability of choosing a given well is proportional to the position of this well in a list sorted by non-ascending order of the greedy criterion γ_i , as suggested in [6]. In this work, polynomial distribution probability was chosen. This process is executed while the total time consumed on the route being constructed has not reached the time limit. It is important to note that our crossover operator does not rely only on information from parent solutions, allowing the occurrence of offsprings with genetic code not available on parents. Thus, there is no need of incorporating a mutation operator. During the evolutionary process, the population remains at a fixed size, i.e., the insertion of β new individuals substitutes the β worst individuals in the population.

3.1. GA with local search

Local search is a post-optimization procedure that allows a systematic search in a solution space by using a neighborhood structure [17]. In this work two neighborhood structures were used, aimed at increasing the amount of collected oil for a feasible solution for the problem (base solution).

In both neighborhoods, whose pseudo-codes are shown in Figs. 2 and 3, a set U of wells not yet included in the current solution is maintained. The first neighborhood— \mathcal{N}_1 (procedure Insert), tries to add into the current solution each well pertaining to set U , searching for the first possible position for insertion, from 0, before the first visited well, until $wells(ind)$, after the last one. In line 7, $insertion(ind, u, k)$ represents the increase in time resulting from the insertion of u in the route of ind , at position k .

The second neighborhood— \mathcal{N}_2 (procedure Swap), tries to exchange each well from the current solution with

```

procedure Swap(ind)
1: start:
2: for  $k \leftarrow 1$  to  $wells(ind)$  do
3:    $U \leftarrow W \setminus \{ind_1, \dots, ind_{wells(ind)+1}\}$ 
4:   Remove from  $U$  wells with production  $< p_{ind_k}$ 
5:   while  $|U| > 0$  do
6:      $u \leftarrow i \in U \mid p_i \geq p_j \forall j \in U$ 
7:      $U \leftarrow U \setminus \{u\}$ 
8:     if  $time(ind) + exchanging(ind, u, ind_k) \leq L$  then
9:       Replace  $ind_k$  by  $u$  in  $ind$ 
10:      goto start
11:    end if
12:  end while
13: end for
end.

```

Fig. 3. Pseudo-code for Swap.

another from set U . In line 8, $exchanging(ind, u, ind_k)$ represents the variation in time needed to perform the route encoded in ind derived from the replacement of well ind_k by well u in ind . First fit criterion is used in both neighborhoods and the search in a given neighborhood is re-started whenever a better solution is found. Elements are accessed in the set U in non-increasing order. Local search operators are applied in newly created solutions from crossover operations and from the DM intensification procedure, explained in the following section. The probability of applying local search in these individuals, with neighborhoods \mathcal{N}_1 and \mathcal{N}_2 are controlled by parameters $prob_{\mathcal{N}_1}$ and $prob_{\mathcal{N}_2}$.

3.2. GA with DM

With the aim of accelerating the occurrence of high quality solutions in the population, we propose the incorporation of a DM module in the GA. This module aims to discover patterns (subroutes) which are commonly found in the best solutions of the population. This approach significantly differs from current applications that combine GAs and DM because, until now, most of the efforts deal with the development of GAs as optimization methods to solve DM problems [14,10], such as the discovery of association, classification and clustering rules, which is not our case. The process starts with the creation of an elite set of solutions (ES), which will keep the s best solutions generated in the search process. Initially, the first s solutions generated are inserted in the ES. Afterwards, this set is updated whenever a solution which is better than the worst solution in ES and different from all others ES solutions is generated. The ES will be the database in which we will try to discover relevant patterns. In order to do this, we implemented an Apriori like algorithm [1,2], which discovers frequent contiguous sequences in the ES. Although there are very efficient algorithms for mining sequential patterns, we chose to implement a simpler one, for two reasons: at first, our ES size will be significantly

```

procedure Insert(ind)
1: start:
2:  $U \leftarrow W \setminus \{ind_1, \dots, ind_{wells(ind)+1}\}$ 
3: while  $|U| > 0$  do
4:    $u \leftarrow i \in U \mid p_i \geq p_j \forall j \in U$ 
5:    $U \leftarrow U \setminus \{u\}$ 
6:   for  $k \leftarrow 0$  to  $wells(ind)$  do
7:     if  $time(ind) + insertion(ind, u, k) \leq L$  then
8:       Insert well  $u$  in  $ind$  at position  $k$ 
9:       goto start
10:    end if
11:  end for
12: end while
end.

```

Fig. 2. Pseudo-code for Insert.

smaller than databases which are generally considered for DM (for this type of CO problem, good solutions are computationally expensive to produce); secondly, we focused on the specific problem of finding contiguous sequences, which is easier to solve than more general sequence pattern mining problems [9,23]. The algorithm receives the minimum support as an input parameter. This parameter is related to the size of ES and defines the minimum number of occurrences in ES that one sequence must have to be considered frequent. Thus, the algorithm will discover all sequences (subroutes in the ES) of all sizes (≥ 1), which satisfy the minimal support. For instance, a minimum support of 0.5, indicates that at least half of ES solutions must incorporate the considered sequence.

Once a set of frequent sequences is available, it is used to guide the construction of new individuals, in the following way: new individuals are built using a constructive procedure similar to the one used to build new solutions from crossover operations, except that no information of frequency in parent solutions is available ($\zeta_{ij} = 0, \forall i, j$), furthermore, whenever a well is selected to be added to the partial solution, a set of valid subroutes is built. This set contains only frequent sequences whose wells do not appear in the partial solution, starting with the selected well. If more than one subroute is found, we randomly choose from the available ones. The sequence chosen is incorporated in partial solution. Since time limit constraint can easily be violated through the addition of a sequence of

wells, the reparation operator presented in Section 3 is applied. If no valid subroute is found in DM results, only the selected well is added. Each time that the DM module is triggered, β new individuals are generated using data mining information. As in crossover operator, population remains at a fixed size.

Remark that the discovery of relevant patterns relies on having a good set of elite solutions. In the beginning of the search the average fitness of population continually increases, causing frequent changes in ES. Hence, data mining is only worth applying after some iterations have been processed. Also, after the first DM execution, newer ones must only occur if the ES was modified. The parameter μ controls how often the DM module will be activated. On setting up this parameter, very small values shall not be used, in order to avoid premature convergence.

3.3. GA with DM and local search

The application of DM can be used together with local search procedures, through the application of local search in new individuals from crossover operator and from DM procedure. This configures the most complete version of GA proposed here, named genetic algorithm with data mining and local search (GADMLS). The pseudo-code for this algorithm is presented in Fig. 4. Initial population is generated using the greedy randomized constructive (GRC) procedure (line 3), which was described in Section 3.

```

procedure GADMLS(popSize,np,s, $\beta$ , $\alpha$ ,sup, $\mu$ ,probN1,probN2)
1: gen  $\leftarrow$  1; NewIndividuals  $\leftarrow$   $\emptyset$ ; EliteSet  $\leftarrow$   $\emptyset$ ;
2: bestSolution  $\leftarrow$   $\emptyset$ ;
3: P  $\leftarrow$  GRC( $\alpha$ ,popSize);
4: while not StoppingCriterionReached() do
5:   NewIndividuals  $\leftarrow$  Offspring(P,  $\beta$ , np)
6:   for each ind  $\in$  NewIndividuals do
7:     Execute, with probability probN1: Insert(ind);
8:     Execute, with probability probN2: Swap(ind);
9:   end for
10:  P  $\leftarrow$  P  $\cup$  NewIndividuals;
11:  P  $\leftarrow$  P \ Worst(P,  $\beta$ );
12:  Update EliteSet using P;
13:  if (gen > 0 and gen mod  $\mu$  = 0) then
14:    Discover sequences SEQ with minimum support sup in EliteSet;
15:    NewIndividuals  $\leftarrow$  GRCDM(SEQ,  $\beta$ );
16:    for each ind  $\in$  NewIndividuals do
17:      Execute, with probability probN1: Insert(ind);
18:      Execute, with probability probN2: Swap(ind);
19:    end for
20:    P  $\leftarrow$  P  $\cup$  NewIndividuals;
21:    P  $\leftarrow$  P \ Worst(P,  $\beta$ );
22:  end if
23:  Update bestSolution;
24:  gen ++;
25: end while
26: Return bestSolution;
end.

```

Fig. 4. Pseudo-code for GADMLS.

Function *Offspring* (line 5) indicates the application of crossover operator using np parent solutions from population P to generate each one of the β new individuals. To keep a fixed population size through generations, β worst individuals of population (function *Worst*) are removed whenever β new individuals are included. In the application of data mining (lines 14 and 15), β new individuals are generated using the discovered frequent sequences *SEQ* by the *GRC* procedure *GRC*, whose functioning was described in Section 3.2. The best solution of all generations (with the highest value of fitness function $f(x)$, where x is the evaluated solution) is kept and returned by the algorithm. Simpler versions of this algorithm (GA without local search and/or DM) are just as the algorithm in Fig. 4, except by the removal of modules of DM (lines 13–22) and/or local search (calls to *Insert* and *Swap*).

3.4. Computational results

To the best of our knowledge no set of instances were made publicly available to the OCVRP. Thus, a set of

instances (Table 1) with different characteristics were generated. Instances incorporate distances from TSP-library problems [28] which can be found at [27]. For each TSP-library problem used, four problems were generated, with different well productions and different time limits. Time limits were defined in a way that no trivial solution was possible (including all wells): these values are always a fraction of the optimal tour length. The naming convention used for problems was the following: *sourceTSP_maxProd_timeLimitF*. Where *sourceTSP* is the name of the original TSP instance. Production of wells was randomly generated using uniform distribution in the interval $\{1, \dots, maxProd\}$. Time limit for each instance is *timeLimitF* percent of the optimal tour length from TSP-Library. In Table 1, columns “rows”, “columns” and “binaries” are related to the dimensions of the generated MIP problems: number of constraints, variables and binary variables, respectively.

Algorithms were coded in C and compiled with the GCC 3.3.4 compiler, using flag `-O2`. Running times were measured with the `getrusage` function. Pseudo random

Table 1
Problem characteristics

P. Id.	Problem name	Rows	Columns	Binaries	Execution time limit (s)
1	ulysses22_1000_40	529	945	483	5
2	ulysses22_1000_70	529	945	483	7
3	ulysses22_100000_40	529	945	483	4
4	ulysses22_100000_70	529	945	483	7
5	att48_1000_40	2401	4559	2303	9
6	att48_1000_70	2401	4559	2303	13
7	att48_100000_40	2401	4559	2303	9
8	att48_100000_70	2401	4559	2303	13
9	st70_1000_40	5041	9729	4899	16
10	st70_1000_70	5041	9729	4899	25
11	st70_100000_40	5041	9729	4899	16
12	st70_100000_70	5041	9729	4899	25
13	ch130_1000_40	17,161	33,669	16,899	57
14	ch130_1000_70	17,161	33,669	16,899	92
15	ch130_100000_40	17,161	33,669	16,899	59
16	ch130_100000_70	17,161	33,669	16,899	93
17	d198_1000_40	39,601	78,209	39,203	189
18	d198_1000_70	39,601	78,209	39,203	276
19	d198_100000_40	39,601	78,209	39,203	160
20	d198_100000_70	39,601	78,209	39,203	272
21	a280_1000_40	78,961	156,519	78,399	227
22	a280_1000_70	78,961	156,519	78,399	396
23	a280_100000_40	78,961	156,519	78,399	227
24	a280_100000_70	78,961	156,519	78,399	396
25	pr439_1000_40	193,600	385,002	192,720	809
26	pr439_1000_70	193,600	385,002	192,720	1401
27	pr439_100000_40	193,600	385,002	192,720	797
28	pr439_100000_70	193,600	385,002	192,720	1389
29	pcb442_1000_40	196,249	390,285	195,363	683
30	pcb442_1000_70	196,249	390,285	195,363	1126
31	pcb442_100000_40	196,249	390,285	195,363	697
32	pcb442_100000_70	196,249	390,285	195,363	1137
33	att532_1000_40	284,089	565,515	283,023	1359
34	att532_1000_70	284,089	565,515	283,023	2019
35	att532_100000_40	284,089	565,515	283,023	1356
36	att532_100000_70	284,089	565,515	283,023	2041

numbers were generated using Mersenne twister generator [18]. Experiments were executed in a microcomputer with an Athlon XP 1800+ processor and 512 Megabytes of RAM, running the Linux operating system, kernel 2.4.29.

In this section the simplest algorithm will be referred as GA, while its composition with local search will be referred as GALS, the hybrid version with data mining will be referred as GADM and GADMLS indicates the version which includes local search and data mining.

In order to compare different versions of algorithms, we stipulated fixed time limits (stopping criterion in the algorithm of Fig. 4), for each instance. Execution time limits are proportional to instances dimensions, as follows: given a instance i , the allowed execution time tl_i is: $tl_i = tc_i * \kappa$, where tc_i is the time needed to build a solution using the constructive algorithm described in Section 3 and κ is a sufficiently large constant (20,000 in our experiments).

The following parameters were used in our GA:

- Population size ($popSize$): 500.
- New individuals (β): 50.
- Number of parents (np): 50.
- Randomization degree (α): 0.5.
- Tournament individuals: 2.

Versions with the DM module had the additional parameters:

- Minimum support ($minSup$): 0.5.
- Elite set size: (s): 5.
- Mining interval: (μ): 50.

For versions with local search, all new solutions were transformed in local optima with respect to both neighborhoods, i.e.: $prob_{\mathcal{N}_1} = 1.0$ and $prob_{\mathcal{N}_2} = 1.0$.

In Table 2, we show the average solution value, with standard deviation, produced in 10 independent executions (different random seeds), for different versions of our

algorithms. Results in bold indicate the better average results. As can be seen, in 80% of problems, the outcome of version with DM (GADM) is better than the outcome of version without this module (GA). In any case, the hybrid GA with DM and local search obtained, overall, the best results: it produced the best average solution in 22 out of the 36 problem instances.

In another experiment, the objective was to verify the empirical probability distribution of reaching a given solution target value (i.e. find a solution with value as good as the target solution value) in function of time, for different algorithms. In this experiment we try to assess how fast these algorithms can generate good solutions. For this experiment, a bigger instance was created: d657_1000000_70. The solution values were chosen in a way that the slowest algorithm could terminate in a reasonable amount of time. Execution times of 100 independent runs were computed. The experiment design follows the proposal of [3]. Results of each algorithm were plotted (Fig. 5) by associating the i th smallest running time rt_i with the probability $p_i = (i - 0.5)/100$, which generates points $i = (rt_i, p_i)$, for $i = 1, \dots, 100$. A simple analysis of results can be done considering the alignment of curves: leftmost aligned curves indicate an algorithm with faster convergence, while rightmost aligned curves indicate slower algorithms. The results show that the simplest version (GA) takes considerably more time to achieve high cumulative probability values (>0.5). Versions with DM and/or local search perform much faster. There is a probability of 50% of GA to reach the target at 1,250 seconds, while for other algorithms it takes approximately 850 s, as shown in Fig. 5.

To validate our experiments, we used the ILOG CPLEX 9.0 [16] to optimally solve the proposed instances. It successfully solved all problems generated from ulysses22 TSP-Library instance. Nevertheless, for bigger problems (48 and 70 nodes), the solver unexpectedly halted after some days of processing, when memory consumption was too high (greater than 10 Gigabytes). Optimal solution

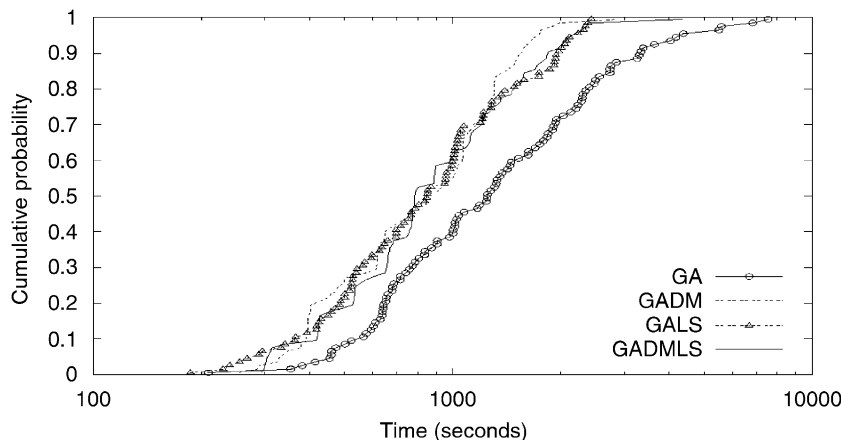


Fig. 5. Empirical probability distribution of reaching target solution value.

Table 2

Results for 10 independent executions for different problems (solution values multiplied by 10^{-3})

P. Id.	GA		GADM		GALS		GADMLS	
	Average	Std. Dev.	Average	Std. Dev.	Average	Std. Dev.	Average	Std. Dev.
1	8.40	0.03	8.40	0.03	8.41	0.00	8.41	0.00
2	11.31	0.00	11.31	0.00	11.36	0.10	11.45	0.12
3	746.19	3.69	745.37	3.25	759.15	0.00	759.15	0.00
4	1,117.19	16.28	1,124.79	8.86	1,141.91	0.00	1,141.91	0.00
5	13.10	0.28	13.18	0.08	14.02	0.27	13.99	0.28
6	18.92	0.16	19.02	0.24	19.64	0.15	19.70	0.16
7	1,270.40	13.43	1,308.53	22.53	1,352.57	19.72	1,346.40	18.89
8	1,851.49	18.06	1,862.42	32.19	1,943.11	26.65	1,945.70	17.88
9	15.61	0.35	15.75	0.47	16.80	0.27	16.82	0.20
10	24.84	0.41	25.33	0.33	26.26	0.51	26.33	0.54
11	1,762.64	44.00	1,779.50	14.11	1,907.32	37.24	1,913.16	26.12
12	2,487.01	27.35	2,488.42	49.14	2,656.04	50.52	2,667.70	42.24
13	30.61	0.55	30.81	0.63	32.58	0.76	32.50	0.70
14	46.37	1.13	46.39	0.78	48.16	0.54	48.11	0.88
15	2,980.01	75.93	3,009.10	61.25	3,118.62	49.14	3,188.91	89.06
16	4,511.45	68.03	4,585.47	77.92	4,738.50	96.30	4,765.40	49.70
17	35.65	0.87	36.01	0.62	38.93	0.72	39.37	0.55
18	67.31	0.72	67.65	0.83	70.84	0.85	70.39	0.95
19	3,810.39	55.55	3,878.00	83.29	4,025.35	90.83	4,033.73	36.44
20	7,384.82	85.15	7,450.16	103.09	7,773.92	98.03	7,789.02	121.83
21	46.84	0.53	47.96	1.29	50.06	0.92	49.80	1.23
22	78.07	0.97	78.76	1.73	83.16	1.38	83.58	1.41
23	4,986.12	132.21	4,914.60	56.48	5,265.43	118.35	5,292.82	170.79
24	8,258.49	86.84	8,429.63	155.41	8,817.44	160.33	8,708.05	101.63
25	91.78	1.69	91.44	1.29	96.34	1.07	94.68	1.10
26	138.83	1.28	142.43	1.06	144.37	1.67	143.53	1.69
27	9,588.19	244.18	9,750.25	128.91	10,033.14	240.47	10,029.48	309.57
28	14,344.72	108.31	14,491.22	153.81	14,848.62	139.11	14,763.11	134.69
29	82.30	1.24	82.17	1.51	86.71	1.34	87.16	1.68
30	132.15	1.69	133.29	2.04	138.05	1.52	136.61	1.55
31	8,288.89	135.66	8,194.22	160.61	8,709.20	187.28	8,605.22	102.23
32	12,958.52	172.69	13,198.49	315.53	13,526.36	78.17	13,670.47	196.76
33	124.29	1.56	125.86	2.21	128.19	2.51	127.48	1.84
34	176.58	1.53	177.11	0.95	178.59	2.28	179.57	2.09
35	12,483.73	201.48	12,531.07	150.40	12,620.18	192.57	12,624.20	254.79
36	17,661.23	162.54	17,693.57	182.05	17,853.19	138.80	17,876.98	143.68

Table 3

Optimal solutions (solution values multiplied by 10^{-3})

Problem	Optimal solution
ulysses22_1000_40	8.41
ulysses22_1000_70	11.56
ulysses22_1000000_40	759.15
ulysses22_1000000_70	1,141.91

values are shown in Table 3. Our heuristic methods, with DM and local search, always produced optimal solutions for three of four instances with known optimal solutions.

4. Conclusions and future works

In this work we presented three improved versions of an evolutionary algorithm. Versions which include local search and/or data mining (DM) were presented. Although applications of genetic algorithms (GAs) with local search

are abundant in the literature, the application of DM to improve the results of evolutionary algorithms is still scarce. The DM module proposed corresponds to an intensification strategy, since it tries to discover good features in the best solutions found so far and to apply them in the generation of new solutions. The addition of the DM module into the GA significantly improved this method and the hybrid version with local search (GADMLS), on average, produced the better results. Results could be improved if other interactions between modules and/or a more exhaustive set of experiments were conducted (perhaps, larger running times would benefit the more computationally expensive version—GADMLS). Nonetheless, our proposal looks very promising, specially considering problems in which it is difficult to devise efficient local search algorithms.

Since these hybrid versions consume considerable computational resources, an interesting future work is the development of parallel versions.

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