

# Seeker Optimization Algorithm

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**Abstract.** A novel swarm intelligence paradigm called seeker optimization algorithm (SOA) for the real-parameter optimization is proposed in this paper. The SOA is based on the concept of simulating the act of humans' intelligent search with their memory, experience, and uncertainty reasoning. In this sense, the individual of this population is called seeker or searcher just from which the new algorithm' name is derived. After given start point, search direction, search radius, and trust degree, every seeker moves to a new position (next solution) based on his social learning, cognitive learning, and uncertainty reasoning. The algorithm's performance was studied using several typically complex functions. In almost all cases studied, SOA is superior to continuous genetic algorithm (GA) and particle swarm optimization (PSO) in all optimization quality, robustness and efficiency.

## 1 Introduction

The evolutionary computation (EC) community has shown a significant interest in optimization for many years. In particular, there has been a focus on global optimization of numerical, real-valued 'black-box' problems for which exact and analytical methods do not apply. Recently, real-parameter genetic algorithm (GA) [1, 2], particle swarm optimization (PSO) [3] and differential evolution (DE) [4] have been introduced and particularly PSO has received increasing interest from the EC community. These techniques have shown great promise in several real-world applications. However, the diversity of algorithms is encouraged by the 'No Free Lunch' theorem [5, 6], and it is valuable to propose new algorithms.

Optimization problems can often be viewed as the search for an optimal solution through a range of possible solutions. In the continuous decision variable spaces, there exists a neighborhood region close to the global extremum. In this region, the fitness values of the decision variables are inversely proportional to their distances from the global extremum based on the Intermediate Value Theorem. That is, better points are likely to be found in the neighbourhood of families of good points. Hence, search is intensified in regions containing good solutions [7]. It can be believed that one must find the near optimal solutions in the narrower

neighborhood of the point with higher fitness value, while he must find them in the wider neighborhood of the point with lower fitness value. The algorithm called seeker (or searcher) optimization algorithm (SOA) presented in this paper aims to mimic the behavior of the search group mainly in terms of uncertainty reasoning, at this point where the new algorithm is intensively different from the existing search techniques.

Apparently, the behavior rules mentioned above are described by natural linguistic terms. In order to exploit the rules, cloud model [8], as a model of the uncertainty transition between a linguistic term of a qualitative concept and its quantitative data is introduced into new algorithm. The cloud theory [8] is derived and advanced from fuzzy logic theory, but improves the weakness of rigid specification and too much certainty, which comes into conflict with the human recognition process, appearing in commonly used transition models. The preservation of the uncertainty in transition makes cloud theory well meet the need of real life situation, and has already been used successfully in intelligent control [9], data mining [10], etc..

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes cloud theory. In section 3, we introduce the SOA in details. And the algorithm parameters are discussed in section 4. Convergence analysis is shown in section 5. Then, we compare the SOA with continuous GA and PSO by use of typical function optimization in section 6. Finally, the conclusions and future work are presented in section 7.

## 2 Cloud Theory

**DEFINITION 1.** [8,10] Let  $U$  be the set,  $U=\{u\}$ , as the universe of discourse, and  $T$  a linguistic term associated with  $U$ . The membership degree of  $u$  in  $U$  to the linguistic term  $T$ ,  $C_T(u)$ , is a random number with a stable tendency. A cloud is a mapping from the universe of discourse  $U$  to the unit interval  $[0,1]$ . That is,  $C_T(u): U \rightarrow [0,1]$ ;  $\forall u \in U, u \rightarrow C_T(u)$ .

In the definition above, the mapping from  $U$  to the interval  $[0,1]$  is a one-point to multi-point transition, which shows the uncertainty. So the degree of membership of  $u$  to  $[0,1]$  is a probability distribution rather than a fixed value, which is different from the fuzzy logic.

The normal clouds are most useful in representing linguistic terms of vague concepts because normal distributions have been supported by the results in every branch of both social and natural sciences. A normal cloud is defined with three digital characteristics, expected value  $Ex$ , entropy  $En$  and hyperentropy  $He$  (Fig. 1).

The  $Ex$  is the position at  $U$  corresponding to the center of gravity of the cloud.  $En$  is a measure of the coverage of the concept within the universe of discourse.  $He$  is the entropy of the entropy  $En$ , and is a measure of dispersion of the cloud drops.

Given the three parameters ( $Ex, En, He$ ) of a normal cloud model, the cloud with  $n$  cloud drops is generated by the following algorithm called basic normal cloud generator [10].

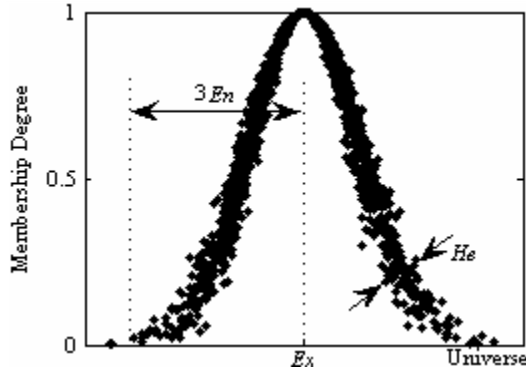
**Algorithm 1.** Basic normal cloud generator

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Input:  $Ex, En, He, n$ 
Output:  $\{(x_1, \mu_1), \dots, (x_n, \mu_n)\}$ 
for  $i = 1$  to  $n$ 
     $En' = \text{RANDN}(En, He)$ 
     $x_i = \text{RANDN}(Ex, En')$ 
     $\mu_i = e^{\frac{-(x_i - Ex)^2}{2(En')^2}}$ 
     $\text{cloud}(x_i, \mu_i)$ 
end.

```

Here, the function  $\text{RANDN}(a, b)$  produces a normally distributed random number with mean  $a$  and standard deviation  $b$ . the  $\text{cloud}(x_i, \mu_i)$  is the  $i$ th cloud drop in the universe. In my personal view, cloud models may be partly and originally similar to particle systems [11].



**Fig. 1.** Illustration of the three digital characteristics of a normal cloud

### 3 Seeker Optimization Algorithm

In the SOA, every seeker has a start position vector  $\bar{c}$ , which may be viewed as expected value  $Ex$  of cloud model, as the start location to find next solution. Moreover, each seeker holds a search radius  $\bar{r}$  which is equivalent to the  $En'$  of cloud model, a trust degree  $\bar{\mu}$  described by membership degree of cloud model, and a search direction  $\bar{d}$  showing him where to go.

At each time step  $t$ , the search decision-making is conducted to choice the four parameters and the seeker moves to a new position  $\bar{x}(t+1)$ . The update of the position from the start position is a process of uncertainty reasoning, and determined by a like Y-conditional cloud generator [10] as follows:

$$x_{ij}(t+1) = c_{ij} + d_{ij} r_{ij} (-\ln(\mu_{ij}))^{0.5}. \quad (1)$$

where “ $i$ ” is the index of seekers, and “ $j$ ” is the index of variable dimensions.

The pseudocode of the main algorithm is presented as follows.

```

begin
  t ← 0;
  generating S positions randomly and uniformly;
  repeat
    evaluating each seeker;
    giving search parameters: start position, search
      direction, search radius, and trust degree;
    updating positions using (1);
    t ← t + 1;
  until t = Tmax
end.

```

## 4 Algorithm Parameters

In this section, we introduce how to decide the parameters in (1).

### 4.1 Start Point Vector

Intuitively, start position vector  $\bar{c}$  is set to current position  $\bar{x}(t)$ . Inspired by PSO, Every seeker contains a memory storing its own best position so far  $\bar{p}$  and a global best position  $\bar{g}$  obtained through communication with its fellow neighbor seekers. In this paper, the whole search group was classified into  $k=3$  neighbourhoods according to the indexes of the seeker group. Then,

$$\bar{c} = \bar{x}(t) + \phi_1(\bar{p}(t) - \bar{x}(t)) + \phi_2(\bar{g}(t) - \bar{x}(t)). \quad (2)$$

where  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  are real numbers chosen uniformly and randomly in the interval  $[0,1]$ .

### 4.2 Search Direction

In our opinion, each seeker has four significant directions called local temporal direction  $\bar{d}_{lt}$ , local spacial direction  $\bar{d}_{ls}$ , global temporal direction  $\bar{d}_{gt}$ , global spacial direction  $\bar{d}_{gs}$ , respectively.

$$\bar{d}_{lt} = \begin{cases} \text{sign}(\bar{x}(t) - \bar{x}(t-1)) & \text{if } \text{fit}(\bar{x}(t)) \geq \text{fit}(\bar{x}(t-1)) \\ \text{sign}(\bar{x}(t-1) - \bar{x}(t)) & \text{if } \text{fit}(\bar{x}(t)) < \text{fit}(\bar{x}(t-1)) \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

$$\bar{d}_{ls} = \text{sign}(\bar{x}'(t) - \bar{x}(t)) \quad (4)$$

$$\bar{d}_{gt} = \text{sign}(\bar{p}(t) - \bar{x}(t)) \quad (5)$$

$$\bar{d}_{gs} = \text{sign}(\bar{g}(t) - \bar{x}(t)) \quad (6)$$

where  $\text{sign}(\cdot)$  is signum function,  $\bar{x}'(t)$  is the position of the seeker with the largest fitness in a given neighborhood region,  $\text{fit}(\bar{x}(t))$  is the fitness function of  $\bar{x}(t)$ .

Then, search direction is assigned depending on the four directions. In our experiments in this paper, we give search direction as follows.

$$\bar{d} = \text{sign}(\omega(\text{sign}(\text{fit}(\bar{x}(t)) - \text{fit}(\bar{x}(t-1))))(\bar{x}(t) - \bar{x}(t-1)) + \varphi_1(\bar{p}(t) - \bar{x}(t)) + \varphi_2(\bar{g}(t) - \bar{x}(t))) \quad (7)$$

where  $\omega$  is the inertia weight, and  $\omega = (T_{\max} - t) / T_{\max}$ .  $\varphi_1$  and  $\varphi_2$  are real numbers chosen uniformly and at random in a given interval  $[0, 1]$ .

The expression (2) and (7) are thought to adhere to the principle of self-organized aggregation behaviors [12].

### 4.3 Search Radius

It is crucial but difficult how to rationally give search radius. For unimodal optimization problems, the performance of algorithm maybe is relatively insensitive to search radius within certain range. But for multimodal problems, different search radius may result to different performance of algorithm especially when dealing with different problems. In this paper, the cloud generator based method is first introduced to give search radius.

**Algorithm 2.** The cloud based method of search radius

$$\begin{aligned} En_r &= \bar{x}_{\max} - \bar{x}_{\min} ; \\ He_r &= En_r / 10 ; \\ \bar{r}' &= \text{RANDN}(En_r, He_r) ; \\ \bar{r} &= \text{RAND}(0, \bar{r}') . \end{aligned}$$

where  $\bar{x}_{\max}$  and  $\bar{x}_{\min}$  are the positions with the maximum fitness and the minimum fitness within its fellow neighbor, respectively. Such as, the  $En$  may be viewed as the “known” region of the problem domain, and the seekers from inside this region to outside this region are respectively kept under from a fine-grained search to a coarse-grained search. The function  $\text{RAND}(0, \bar{r}')$  is given as real numbers chosen uniformly and randomly in a given interval  $[0, \bar{r}']$ .

The mathematic expected curve (MEC) of a membership cloud may be considered as its membership function from the fuzzy set theory point of view [9]. In order to decrease computing time, the simple method of search radius was expressed as  $\bar{r} = \text{RAND}(0, En_r)$  where  $En_r$  is presented as **ALGORITHM 2**. That is to say, fuzzy logic was used to deal with uncertainty reasoning.

### 4.4 Trust Degree

The parameter  $\mu$  is, in fact, the grade of membership from cloud model and fuzzy set theory. According to the discussion in section 1, the uncertainty rule of intelligent search is described as “If {fitness is large}, Then {search radius is small}”. The

linear membership function was used for “*large*” of “*fitness*”. Namely, it is directly proportional to the fitness of  $\bar{x}(t)$  or the index of the ascensive sort order of the fitness of  $\bar{x}(t)$  (we applied the latter in our experiments). That is, the best position so far has the maximum  $\mu_{\max}=1.0$ , while other position has a  $\mu<1.0$ , and the worst position so far has the minimum  $\mu_{\min}$ . The expression is presented as (8) and (9).

$$\mu_i = \mu_{\max} - \frac{S - I_i}{S - 1} (\mu_{\max} - \mu_{\min}). \quad (8)$$

$$\mu_{ij} = \text{RAND}(\mu_i, 1) \quad (9)$$

where  $S$  is the neighbor search group size, and  $I_i$  is the index (sequence number) of  $\bar{x}_i(t)$  after sorting the fitnesses of neighbor seekers in ascending order.

Meanwhile, The Gaussian membership function  $\text{MEC}_A(x) = e^{-(x-Ex)^2 / 2En^2}$  was used for “*small*” of “*search radius*”. Based on “*3En*” rule [13] which shows that the elements beyond  $Ex \pm 3En$  in the universe of discourse can be neglected for a linguistic atom [9],  $\mu_{\min}=0.0111$  is given at the point  $x = Ex \pm 3En$  where  $\text{MEC}_A(Ex \pm 3En) = 0.0111$ .

## 5 Convergence Analysis

From (2) and (8), when  $\bar{x}_i(t) = \bar{g}(t)$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq S$ , it is apparently given that  $\bar{c}_i(t) = \bar{g}(t)$  and  $\mu_i(t) = 1.0$ . Then (1) gives  $\bar{x}_i(t+1) = \bar{g}(t)$  and  $\text{fit}(\bar{x}_i(t+1)) = \text{fit}(\bar{x}_i(t)) = \text{fit}(\bar{g}(t))$ . Hence, the maximum fitness of the  $t+1$  step is larger than or, at least, equal to the maximum fitness of the  $t$  step. As a result, the SOA is convergent. But it is not determinate that the algorithm can be convergent to the global optimum. The further mathematical convergence analysis will be still left for future.

## 6 Function Optimization

In this section, the experiments will be discussed to compare the performance of the SOA, PSO and continuous genetic algorithm (GA). We used the MATLAB codes of PSO with adaptive inertia weight and continuous GA presented by [2]. In the experiments, the parameters of the PSO are that: learning rate  $c_1 = c_2 = 2$ , inertia weight linearly decreased from 0.9 to 0.4 with run time increasing [14]. The parameters of the continuous GA are that: the fraction of population kept was set 0.8, the mutation rate was set 0.1.

17 typical functions with varying complexities and varying number of variables (NV) were employed. They are as follows.

F1 Goldstein-Price function

$$F1 = [1 + (x_1 + x_2 + 1)^2(19 - 14x_1 + 3x_1^2 - 14x_2 + 6x_1x_2 + 3x_2^2)] \times [30 + (2x_1 - 3x_2)^2(18 - 32x_1 + 12x_1^2 + 48x_2 - 36x_1x_2 + 27x_2^2)], -2 \leq x_i \leq 2, i = 1, 2 \quad (10)$$

F2 DeJong's  $f_2$

$$F2 = 100(x_1^2 - x_2)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2, -2.048 \leq x_i \leq 2.048, i = 1, 2 \quad (11)$$

F3 DeJong's  $f_5$

$$F3 = 1/(0.002 + \sum_{j=1}^{25} \frac{1}{j + \sum_{i=1}^2 (x_i - a_{ij})^6}), -65.536 \leq x_i \leq 65.536, i = 1, 2 \quad (12)$$

F4 DeJong's  $f_6$

$$F4 = 0.5 + \frac{\sin^2 \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2} - 0.5}{\left[1.0 + 0.001(x_1^2 + x_2^2)\right]^2}, -100 \leq x_i \leq 100, i = 1, 2 \quad (13)$$

F5 DeJong's  $f_7$

$$F5 = (x_1^2 + x_2^2)^{0.25} [\sin^2(50(x_1^2 + x_2^2)^{0.1}) + 1.0], -100 \leq x_i \leq 100, i = 1, 2 \quad (14)$$

F6 Goldstein's function

$$F6 = x^6 - 15x^4 + 27x^2 + 250; -10 \leq x \leq 10 \quad (15)$$

F7 Griewangk's function

$$F7 = \sum_{i=1}^D \frac{x_i^2}{4000} + \prod_{i=1}^D \cos\left(\frac{x_i}{\sqrt{i}}\right) + 1; D = 10, -512 \leq x_i \leq 512 \quad (16)$$

F8 Hyper-Ellipsoid function

$$F8 = \sum_{i=1}^{100} i^2 x_i^2; -1 \leq x_i \leq 1 \quad (17)$$

F9 Rastrigin's function

$$F9 = 10D + \sum_{i=1}^D (x_i^2 - 10 \cos(2\pi x_i)); D = 15, -10 \leq x_i \leq 10 \quad (18)$$

F10 Schwefel's 2.21 function

$$F10 = \max_i \{ |x_i|, i = 1, \dots \}; -10 \leq x_i \leq 10 \quad (19)$$

F11 Schwefel's 2.22 function

$$F11 = \sum_{i=1}^5 |x_i| + \prod_{i=1}^5 |x_i|; -10 \leq x_i \leq 10 \quad (20)$$

F12 Schwefel's 2.23 function

$$F12 = \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i^{10}; -10 \leq x_i \leq 10 \quad (21)$$

F13 Shubert's function

$$F13 = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^5 i \bullet \cos[(i+1)x_1 + i] \right\} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^5 i \bullet \cos[(i+1)x_2 + i] \right\} + 0.5[(x_1 + 1.42513)^2 + (x_2 + 0.80032)^2] - 10 \leq x_i \leq 10 \quad (22)$$

F14 Simple square sum function

$$F14 = x_1^2 + x_2^2; -5 \leq x_{1,2} \leq 5 \quad (23)$$

F15 Six-Peak function

$$F15 = (4 - 2.1x_1^2 + x_1^4/3)x_1^2 + x_1x_2 + (-4 + x_2^2)x_2^2, -3 \leq x_{1,2} \leq 3 \quad (24)$$

F16 Yan and Ma's function

$$F16 = \frac{x_1 + x_2}{2} - \cos(20\pi x_1) \bullet \cos(20\pi x_2) + 2; -10 \leq x_{1,2} \leq 10 \quad (25)$$

F17 Yan and Ma's function

$$F17 = 0.1 \left\{ \sin^2(3\pi x_1) + \sum_{i=1}^{D-1} (x_i - 1)^2 \bullet [1 + \sin^2(3\pi x_{i+1})] + (x_D - 1)^2 [1 + \sin^2(2\pi x_D)] \right\} D = 5, -5 \leq x_i \leq 5 \quad (26)$$

As a measure of performance, we consider the average number of generations (AG) that the algorithms require to generate a solution with a certain high fitness value. In order to compare the ability to prevent the convergence of the algorithms to a local optimum, we also evaluate the performance of the algorithms in terms of the number of runs (NR) (out of 10 trials) for which the algorithms get stuck at a local optimum. When the algorithm fails to achieve the near global optimum, that is, the absolute value of the best function value minus the ideal function value (IV) is larger than 0.0001, after a maximum number of generations (MNG), we conclude that it has gotten stuck at a local optimum and does not generate a solution with a given high fitness value. Besides, the best function values (BV) of repetitious experiments, the average values of the best solutions (AV), and the standard deviations of the function values of the best solutions (STD) are also compared.

In all our experiments, we have used a population size of 100 for all functions. Furthermore, the expression  $En_r = \bar{x}_{\max} - \bar{x}_{avg}$  was used for search radius when functions F13, F16, and F7-11 were optimized. Here,  $\bar{x}_{avg}$  is the average value of the points in a same neighbourhood. The results of experiments are presented in Table 1.

As seen from Table 1, the SOA outperforms the GA and the PSO. For all the functions optimized here, the values of the BVs and AVs of SOA are better than the ones of GA and PSO, especially the values of NRs of SOA are smaller, which shows SOA has better potential to get the global optimum. Besides, the values of AGs of SOA are greatly less than that of GA and PSO, which shows SOA has higher convergent speed. Moreover, SOA has less STDs, which shows SOA is more robust.



**Table 1.** Comparisons of performance of SOA, GA and PSO

Functions	Algo.	AG	NR	BV	AV	STD
F1 (NV=2, IV=3, MNG=1000)	GA	153.8	0	3	3	1.6922e-005
	PSO	109	0	3	3	0
	SOA	20.9	0	3	3	0
F2 (NV=2, IV=0, MNG=1000)	GA	902.8	0	5.2587e-005	0.011178	0.014291
	PSO	77.1	0	7.3463e-030	2.7379e-026	7.3804e-026
	SOA	42.9	0	0	0	0
F3 (NV=2, IV=0.998, MNG=1000)	GA	115.2	0	0.998	0.998	1.9642e-010
	PSO	80.3	0	0.998	0.998	1.655e-016
	SOA	70.7	0	0.998	0.998	1.4803e-016
F4 (NV=2, IV=0, MNG=1000)	GA	191	1	0	1.4098e-005	4.4572e-005
	PSO	72.3	0	0	0	0
	SOA	16.5	0	0	0	0
F5 (NV=2, IV=0, MNG=3000)	GA	3000	10	0.00029844	0.0073763	0.010015
	PSO	853.5	0	8.7414e-060	2.8635e-058	5.1778e-058
	SOA	97.8	0	0	0	0
F6 (NV=0, IV=7, MNG=1000)	GA	18.7	0	7	7	0
	PSO	28.9	0	7	7	0
	SOA	20.6	0	7	7	2.1843e-008
F7 (NV=10, IV=0, MNG=3000)	GA	3000	10	0.53597	0.81229	0.17299
	PSO	3000	10	0.029509	0.068525	0.021366
	SOA	476.8	0	0	1.9209e-007	3.9966e-007
F8 (NV=100, IV=0, MNG=3000)	GA	3000	10	13628	17236	2211.2
	PSO	3000	10	0.004186196	348.9081	331.593447
	SOA	78.6	0	1.9066e-103	5.0255e-097	1.4066e-096
F9 (NV=15, IV=0, MNG=3000)	GA	3000	10	13.188	24.484	7.2147
	PSO	3000	10	1.989918	3.88034	1.720125
	SOA	706.6	0	0	0	0
F10 (NV=5, IV=0, MNG=3000)	GA	3000	10	0.0058716	0.01661	0.007963
	PSO	995.4	0	1.7342e-072	1.8576e-070	2.1241e-070
	SOA	136.7	0	1.3200e-128	5.1487e-080	1.6181e-079
F11 (NV=5, IV=0, MNG=3000)	GA	3000	10	0.000801	0.0023801	0.0011435
	PSO	971.1	0	9.02340e-087	4.7115e-084	5.6996e-084
	SOA	137.3	0	3.5094e-127	3.6511e-125	5.5413e-125
F12 (NV=5, IV=0, MNG=3000)	GA	89.7	0	1.1076e-029	1.8645e-022	3.7167e-022
	PSO	13.7	0	0	0	0
	SOA	8.2	0	8.0952e-134	5.934e-057	1.8158e-056
F13 (IV=-186.7309, NV=2, MNG=3000)	GA	2086.4	6	-186.73	-186.5	0.20155
	PSO	446.9	5	-186.7309088	-186.7309088	2.9959e-014
	SOA	2247.1	3	-186.730901	-186.7309079	0.000120
F14 (NV=2, IV=0, MNG=1000)	GA	25.5	0	2.2357e-019	3.0517e-007	5.2728e-007
	PSO	28.8	0	2.2862e-088	4.7246e-084	1.4408e-083
	SOA	9.1	0	0	1.2337e-253	0
F15 (IV=-1.031628, NV=2, MNG=1000)	GA	29.9	0	-1.0316	-1.0316	1.7246e-008
	PSO	41.8	0	-1.031628	-1.031628	2.3406e-016
	SOA	13.7	0	-1.0316	-1.0316	2.3406e-016
F16 (NV=2, IV=1, MNG=3000)	GA	2142.3	6	1	1.0013	0.0012818
	PSO	1169.3	0	1	1	0
	SOA	117.4	0	1	1	4.1659e-009
F17 (NV=5, IV=0, MNG=3000)	GA	991	0	6.7894e-008	4.5504e-006	6.1197e-006
	PSO	455.2	0	1.3498e-032	1.3498e-032	2.8850e-048
	SOA	51.6	0	1.3450e-032	1.3500e-032	2.8850e-048

## 7 Conclusions and Future Work

In this research, a novel optimization algorithm based on the concept of simulating the act of human's intelligent search was introduced whose performance in terms of robustness and efficiency was studied with a challenging set of benchmark problems. The SOA performed very well, converging to near global optimal solutions when solving different classes of problems with different degrees of complexities. In all cases studied, SOA was faster, more robust and more efficient than GA and PSO in finding the global optimum.

Future research will include practical applications, and theoretical analysis to better understand this algorithm's convergence properties and the effects of the parameters on its performance.

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