A Multiobjective Particle Swarm Optimizer Using Ring Topology for Solving Multimodal Multiobjective Problems

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Abstract—This paper presents a new particle swarm optimizer for solving multimodal multiobjective optimization problems which may have more than one Pareto-optimal solution corresponding to the same objective function value. The proposed method features an index-based ring topology to induce stable niches that allow the identification of a larger number of Pareto-optimal solutions, and adopts a special crowding distance concept as a density metric in the decision and objective spaces. The algorithm is shown to not only locate and maintain a larger number of Pareto-optimal solutions, but also to obtain good distributions in both the decision and objective spaces. In addition, new multimodal multiobjective optimization test functions and a novel performance indicator are designed for the purpose of assessing the performance of the proposed algorithms. An effectiveness validation study is carried out comparing the proposed method with five other algorithms using the benchmark functions to prove its effectiveness.

Index Terms—Benchmark functions, multimodal, multiobjective, particle swarm optimization (PSO), ring topology.

I. INTRODUCTION

ULTIOBJECTIVE optimization problems have two or more conflicting objectives to be optimized. Without loss of generality, the minimization multiobjective problem can be formulated as

min
$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = [f_1(\vec{x}), f_2(\vec{x}), \dots, f_m(\vec{x})]$$
 (1)

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This paper has supplementary downloadable material available at http://ieeexplore.ieee.org provided by the authors. This contains a document with the details of test functions and the PSs and PF obtained by different algorithms on SYM_PART simple and Omni-test. This material is 386 KB in size.

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subject to
$$g_i(\vec{x}) \le 0$$
 $i = 1, 2, ..., k$ (2)

$$h_i(\vec{x}) = 0 \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, p$$
 (3)

where $\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is an *n*-dimensional decision vector; \vec{f} is an *m*-dimensional objective vector; $g_i(\vec{x}) \leq 0$ (i = 1, 2, ..., k) represent inequality constraints; and $h_i(\vec{x}) =$ 0(j = 1, 2, ..., p) are equality constraints. The *n*-dimensional space consisting of all the possible values of the decision vector \vec{x} is known as the decision space, and the m-dimensional space composed of all the possible values of the objective vector f(x) is the *objective space*. In multiobjective optimization problems, different solutions can be compared according to the Pareto dominance relationship: given two feasible solutions \vec{x} and \vec{y} , solution \vec{x} is said to dominate \vec{y} if $f_i(\vec{x}) \leq f_i(\vec{y})$ for i = 1, ..., m and there exists at least one $j \in \{1, ..., m\}$ so that $f_i(\vec{x}) < f_i(\vec{y})$. A solution is said to be nondominated if it is not dominated by any other solution. The set of all the nondominated solutions in the decision space is called the Pareto-optimal set (PS). The Pareto front (PF) is the set of all the vectors in the objective space that correspond to the PS.

In multiobjective optimization problems there may exist two or more distinct PSs corresponding to the same PF. Arguably, finding one of these multiple PSs may be sufficient to obtain an acceptable solution for some problems. However, failing to identify more than one of the PSs may prevent the decision maker from considering solutions that could bring about improved performance. A simple real-world example is illustrated in the path-planning problem summarized in Fig. 1, where travelers desire to drive from a starting point to the destination in the least possible time and involving the fewest number of intersections. There are six nondominated options, with objective values as described in the caption of Fig. 1. It is known that {Option 1, Option 2, Option 3} and {Option 4, Option 5, Option 6} are two PSs that correspond to the same PF. However, the communal facilities encountered by these paths are different, as the figure shows that the gas station is accessible along the paths in {Option 1, Option 2, Option 3}, whereas there are no gas stations in the paths {Option 4, Option 5, Option 6}. The gas station is necessary for some travelers, while some other travelers want to avoid the gas station since it is not safe sometimes. If an algorithm obtains only one PS, it cannot meet the needs of different travelers. Hence, in this scenario it is of significant value to maintain more than one PS for the purpose of further decision making.

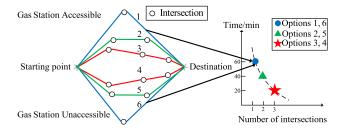


Fig. 1. Path planning problem. Option 1: 1 intersection, 60 min. Option 2: 2 intersections, 40 min. Option 3: 3 intersections, 20 min. Option 4: 3 intersections, 20 min. Option 5: 2 intersections, 40 min. Option 6: 1 intersection, 60 min.

A few real-world optimization problems with multiple PSs have already been identified in [1] and [2]. An in-depth analyses of these prior works leads to the conclusion that in practical applications engineers can take advantage of knowledge of a larger number of Pareto-optimal solutions. Furthermore, the costs of alternative Pareto-optimal solutions may differ significantly [3]. Therefore, it is of significant practical benefit to develop effective algorithms to solve optimization problems that may have more than one PS that maps to the same PF. In 2016, Liang *et al.* [4] referred to this class of problems as *multimodal multiobjective optimization problems*.

Multimodal optimization refers to locating not one optimum, but instead identifying a set of locally optimal solutions [5]. Traditionally, multimodal problems are posed as single-objective problems that may have more than one local optimum or several global optima. A most popular method to solve multimodal problems is niching technique [6] inspired on the way organisms evolve in nature. Numerous variations of niching methods have been proposed, including fitness sharing [7], [8], crowding [9], clearing [10], and speciation [11]. However, these niching methods involve a relatively large number of parameters, such as the sharing radius or crowding factor. These parameters are often difficult to set by the use of the algorithm, because they depend on specific characteristics of each optimization problem. To avoid introducing new parameters, Li [12] proposed an index-based ring-topology particle swarm optimization (PSO) algorithm for multimodal optimization. Its main characteristic is that it can form stable niches without any niching parameters.

As a stochastic optimization algorithm, PSO is a robust and effective optimization technology [13] that was first proposed in 1995 [14] to solve single-objective optimization problems. Subsequently, many PSO variants have been proposed to solve multiobjective or multimodal problems [15]–[19]. This paper proposes a new PSO variant for multimodal multiobjective optimization problems.

When solving multimodal multiobjective optimization problems, particular attention should be paid to the decision space. Note that niches can be induced in the decision space to assist in searching for more Pareto-optimal solutions. In addition, in principle a crowding-distance metric can be embedded in the decision space to play a role in environmental selection processes. These issues are addressed in this paper through the introduction of a new algorithm that the authors call multiobjective PSO using ring topology and special crowding distance (SCD) (MO_Ring_PSO_SCD) conceived for solving multimodal multiobjective problems. Ring topology is adopted to form stable niches and locate multiple optima. All the solutions are sorted according to two indicators called *nondominated ranking* and SCD. The net effect is that a larger number of Pareto-optimal solutions can be maintained.

This paper includes five major contributions. First, multimodal multiobjective problems are introduced, along with their dominant features, and a real-world application example is given as a practical illustration. Second, a novel multiobjective PSO using ring topology and SCD is proposed. The ring topology is effective for finding a larger number of Pareto-optimal solutions. Two elite archives are established to store the population history, and in addition, the SCD acts as a second criterion for environmental selection, which helps to maintain more Pareto-optimal solutions and improve their diversity. Third, new multimodal multiobjective test functions (MMFs) are designed, along with technical treatments of the problem function, feasible region, true PF and PSs. Fourth, this paper proposes the concept of Pareto sets proximity (PSP) as a new performance indicator that reflects both the overlap ratio and distance between the true and the obtained PSs. Fifth, the effectiveness of the new proposed algorithm is verified by: 1) comparing the performance of multiobjective PSO algorithms with and without ring topology or SCD; 2) comparing the new algorithm with three state-of-the-art multiobjective algorithms and two multimodal multiobjective algorithms; and 3) analyzing in the mechanics and convergence behavior of the MO_Ring_PSO_SCD in detail.

The reminder of this paper is organized as follows. Section II reviews related works. The proposed algorithm MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is described in Section III. Section IV proposes features and complexity of MMFs and Section V gives a novel performance indicator. Experiments and analysis are presented in Section VI. At last, this paper is concluded in Section VII.

II. RELATED WORKS

A. Prior Works on Manipulating the Distribution of the Solutions in the Decision Space

Prior researchers have developed tools for manipulating and analyzing the distribution of the solutions in the decision space. Deb and Tiwari [20] proposed the Omni-optimizer algorithm, where the concept of a crowding distance (CD) in the decision space was introduced and used to play a role in a nondominated sorting scheme. It is straight forward to recognize that, maintaining good distributions is not equivalent to locating more Pareto-optimal solutions. To that end, a supplementary operation should be introduced. Chan and Ray [21] adopted the concepts of Lebesgue contribution and neighborhood count to maintain diversity in the decision and objective spaces. The radius of the neighborhood, which plays a central role in this algorithm, is calculated as the maximum closest distance between the solution and its neighbors, and hence is a time consuming numerical operation.

Zhou et al. [22] proposed a probabilistic model based on a multiobjective evolutionary algorithm to simultaneously

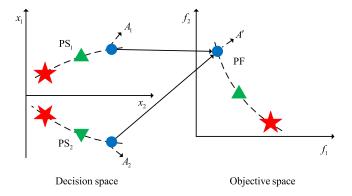


Fig. 2. Illustration of multimodal multiobjective problem.

approximate the PS and the PF. However, this algorithm can only deal with multiobjective problems of class II [22]. Other drawback of the method is the technique performs poorly when the PS is a linear manifold.

Liang et al. [4] defined the multimodal multiobjective optimization problem, which could be succinctly illustrated through the diagram in Fig. 2. The figure shows a simple diagram illustrating a case, where there are two PSs corresponding to the same PF. Liang et al. [4] proposed an algorithm called DN-NSGAII conceived for the purpose of locating more PSs. The technique first ranks solutions according to nondominated sorting scheme and the solutions in the same front are then sorted based on a decision-space CD. Therefore, in DN-NSGAII the nondominated and lesscrowded solutions in the decision space are preferred. It has been demonstrated that this algorithm can obtain more solutions than NSGAII [23] and various other commonly used multiobjective optimization approaches. However, the distribution of solutions in the decision space is not very good (see Fig. 9 (a) and (c) in [4]).

B. Framework of Particle Swarm Optimization

PSO is a population-based algorithm, which makes it particularly well suited for solving multimodal optimization problems. PSO was inspired by the social behavior of birds within a flock [14]. In this method, the historical personal best position of a point (also called *particle*) is denoted *pbest*, and the historical best position of its neighborhood is called *nbest*. Each particle in the swarm is led by *pbest* and *nbest* to fly from a starting position to a better area. Let $\vec{x}_i(t)$ and $\vec{v}_i(t)$ denote the position and velocity of particle p_i of the *t*th generation. They are updated according to the following equations:

$$\vec{x}_i(t) = \vec{x}_i(t-1) + \vec{v}_i(t)$$
 (4)

and

$$\vec{v}_i(t) = W \vec{v}_i(t-1) + C_1 r_1 (\vec{x}_{pbest_i} - \vec{x}_i(t))$$

$$+ C_2 r_2 (\vec{x}_{nbest_i} - \vec{x}_i(t))$$
(5)

where W is the inertia weight (often set to 0.7298, according to [24]), C_1 and C_2 are constants (which satisfy the equality $C_1 + C_2 = 4.1$ [24]) used to balance exploration and exploitation processes, and r_1 and r_2 are random values uniformly generated in the range [0, 1]. The key step in the PSO methodology is the selection of leaders for the current particles [25].

When extending PSO algorithms from the single-objective to the multiobjective case, three issues become of particular significance: 1) the selection of a leader particle; 2) the management of the distribution properties; and 3) the management of the convergence speed. Regarding the first issue, the leader-particle selection is a relatively straightforward procedure in single-objective optimization, where one can simply declare that particle with the largest fitness value is the best candidates to serve as leaders. In multiobjective optimization, however, the identification of a best leader among all the solutions may become a challenging task due to inherent conflicts introduced by the multiple objectives. In that case it is natural to give preference to nondominated solutions to serve as candidates for the leader designation. Concerning the second issue, it is necessary to develop of a methodology that can ensure a good distribution of solutions in the decision space and in the corresponding objective space. Finally, regarding the third issue, the PSO convergence speed has been addressed through a number of communication topologies. In particular, the star, ring, and von Neumann topologies are known to be effective in avoiding premature convergence. The topologybased PSO algorithms are reviewed and compared in [26]. However, these topological approaches cannot induce stable niches, and as a consequence in multimodal problems the population converges to a single solution instead of multiple solutions. In contrast, r3pso described in [12], which incorporates an index-based ring topology, has been demonstrated through experimental results that it can form stable niches. In addition, the algorithm does not require the introduction of niching parameters, which is an attractive feature. The three issues described here are addressed in the new algorithm described in the next section.

III. DESCRIPTION OF MO RING PSO SCD

As a population-based algorithm, PSO has the capability, and hence the natural advantage of searching for multiple optima in a single run. In multimodal multiobjective optimization problems, where a large number of Pareto-optimal solutions should be searched for and maintained, PSO is therefore a natural choice for use as an optimizer. Inspired by the single-objective particle swarm optimizer using ring topology proposed by Li [12], this paper proposes a multiobjective PSO algorithm with ring topology, and includes a SCD, which the authors denote by the acronym MO_Ring_PSO_SCD. In this section, the MO_Ring_PSO_SCD procedure is presented followed by a discussion of its underlying mechanism for the purpose of analyzing how and why the proposed algorithm can successfully address multimodal multiobjective problems. Finally, the novelty of the proposed algorithm is described and the convergence behavior of MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is compared with that of alternative algorithms.

A. Procedure of MO_Ring_PSO_SCD

In MO_Ring_PSO_SCD, the personal best archive (*PBA*) and the neighborhood best archive (*NBA*) are first established, and then the *pbest* and *gbest* are selected from the two respective archives. Ring topology is used to induce multiple

Algorithm 1 MO_Ring_PSO_SCD

```
1 //Initialize Population P(0)
       Evaluation(P(0))
3
  //Initialize PBA and NBA
4
       for i = 1: ParticleNumber
5
          PBA\{i\} = P_i(0)
6
          NBA\{i\} = PBA\{i\}
       end for
8
    while Generation < MaxGenerations do
9
       for i = 1: ParticleNumber
10
     //Sort particles in PBA and NBA
       Sorted PBA\{i\} = \text{non-dominated scd sort}(PBA\{i\})
11
12
       Sorted_NBA\{i\} = non-dominated_scd_sort(NBA\{i\})
13
     //Select pbest and nbest
14
          pbest_i = The first particle in Sorted_PBA\{i\}
15
          nbest_i = The first particle in Sorted_NBA\{i\}
16
          Update P_i(t) to P_i(t+1) according to (4) and (5)
17
          Evaluation(P_i(t+1))
18
     //Update PBA
19
     Put P_i(t+1) into PBA\{i\} and remove particles dominated by
     P_i(t+1)
20
      end for
21
     //Update NBA
22
       for i = 1: ParticleNumber
23
          if i = 1
24
          temp_NBA\{i\} = [PBA\{ParticleNumber\},
                   PBA{1}, PBA{2}]
25
          else if i = ParticleNumber
26
          temp_NBA\{i\} = [PBA\{ParticleNumber - 1\},
                      PBA{ParticleNumber}, PBA{1}]
27
          temp_NBA\{i\} = [PBA\{i-1\}, PBA\{i\}, PBA\{i+1\}]
28
29
          end if
30
       NBA\{i\} = non-dominated particles in temp_NBA\{i\}
31
          end for
32 end while
33 Output the non-dominated particles in NBA
```

niches. In addition, a special selection scheme is proposed to maintain more Pareto-optimal solutions. The procedure of MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is shown in Algorithm 1, where P represents the whole population and $P_i(t)$ stands for the ith particle at the tth generation. The personal best positions are retained in PBA, where the notation $PBA\{i\}$ represent the ith paticle's best positions found so far. The PBA acts as an "anchor" that provides a stable network for the whole population. Due to the use of the PBA, the position of each particle can be improved generation by generation in a stable fashion.

The neighborhood best positions are represented as NBA, where $NBA\{i\}$ denotes the best positions within the ith particle's neighborhood. There are three particles in each neighborhood and each particle interacts with its immediate neighbors on its right and left. Instead of using the global best positions of the whole population, the neighborhood best positions of each particle are employed to avoid having the population converge to a single point. Since the neighborhood is established using an index-based ring topology, particles in different neighborhood cannot interact with each other directly. The adoption of the NBA restricts the information transmission through the population, hence allowing the formation of multiple niches during the search.

The general procedure for implementing the MO Ring PSO SCD algorithm is as follows. First, whole population (P), the PBA and the NBA are initialized. Then, the *i*th particle's leaders (denoted as *pbest_i* and *nbest_i*) are, respectively, chosen from $PBA\{i\}$ and $NBA\{i\}$ according to the nondominated_scd_sort algorithm. After sorting, the first particle in the sorted $PBA\{i\}$ is chosen as $pbest_i$ and the first one in the sorted $NBA\{i\}$ is chosen as $nbest_i$. Then $P_i(t)$ is updated to $P_i(t+1)$ according to (4) and (5). After evaluation, $P_i(t+1)$ is stored into $PBA\{i\}$ and all particles dominated by $P_i(t + 1)$ are removed. Then $NBA\{i\}$ (the ith particle's NBA) is updated. The neighborhood of the ith particle (1 < i < ParticleNumber) includes the (i - 1)th particle, the *i*th particle and the (i + 1)th particle. The neighborhood of the first particle contains the last particle, the first particle and the second particle, while the neighborhood of the last particle contains the (ParticleNumber - 1)th particle, as well as the last and the first particles. The nondominated particles in the personal best archives of the ith particle's neighborhood are selected as the updated $NBA\{i\}$. The above steps are repeated until the termination conditions are met. The description of nondominated_scd_sort and the method to calculate the SCD are presented in the following parts.

- 1) Description of non-dominated_scd_sort: The nondominated_scd_sort is carried out in two steps. In the first step, the particles are sorted according to nondominated sorting scheme [23]. Then, in the second step the SCDs of nondominated particles are calculated. The nondominated solutions are ranked in descending order according to their SCDs. After sorting, the first particle is the nondominated solution with the largest SCD. Details of calculating the SCD are described in the next part.
- 2) Special Crowding Distance: The SCD used in the proposed algorithm is a modification of the approach implemented in the Omni-optimizer technique [20]. The modified procedure involves two steps. The first step involves the calculation of the CD, for each particle in the decision space and for its corresponding image in the objective space. In the second step, the CDs from the first step are used to assign an SCD metric to each particle in the decision and objective spaces, using a criterion described below.

To describe the first step of the SCD calculation procedure, let $CD_{i,x}$ be the CD of particle i in the decision space, $CD_{i,f}$ be the CD of the image of particle i in the objective space, and let $CD_{avg,x}$ and $CD_{avg,f}$, respectively, be the average CDsin the decision and objective spaces. Fig. 3 illustrates the procedure used to calculate the $CD_{i,x}$ in the decision space, for the simple case of five particles and two decision variables x_1 and x_2 . The calculation of the $CD_{i,f}$ in the objective space is carried out in an analogous fashion to that adopted for the decision space, following the reasoning illustrated with the assistance of Fig. 3(a) and (b), along with an obvious adaptation of the corresponding formula to denote elements in the objective space. However, when considering boundary points in the objective space (i.e., the analog of Fig. 3(c)), the proposed method adopts a new convention. More precisely, to a particle i which is the boundary point in the objective space, we assign the crowding metric as follows. In minimization

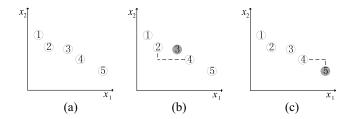


Fig. 3. Illustration of the proposed CD calculating method in decision space, (a) Rank the particles according to x_1 . (b) CD in decision space of particle 3, CD_{3,x} = $(|x_{1,4} - x_{1,2}|/|x_{1,5} - x_{1,1}|) + (|x_{2,4} - x_{2,2}|/|x_{2,5} - x_{2,1}|)(x_{i,j})$ represents the *i*th dimension value of the *j*th particle). (c) CD in decision space of boundary particle 5, CD_{5,x} = $2 * ((|x_{1,5} - x_{1,4}|/|x_{1,5} - x_{1,1}|) + (|x_{2,5} - x_{2,4}|/|x_{2,5} - x_{2,1}|))$. (Note that the CD in objective space of boundary is different from that of decision space).

problems, when particle i has the minimum value for the mth objective, the contribution of the mth objective in $CD_{i,f}$ is set to 1 and when it has the maximum value for the mth objective, the contribution of mth objective in $CD_{i,f}$ is set to 0. Conversely, in maximization problems, when particle i has the minimum value in the mth objective, the contribution of mth objective in $CD_{i,f}$ is set to 0. When particle i has the maximum value in the mth objective, the contribution of mth objective in $CD_{i,f}$ is set to 1. For example, assuming that Fig. 3(c) shows the distribution of five solutions to a minimization problem in the objective space, x_1 and x_2 in Fig. 3(c) are, respectively, replaced by f_1 and f_2 . Since particle 5 has the maximum value for the first objective. The contribution of the first objective in $CD_{5,f}$ is set to 0. However, particle 5 has the minimum value for the second objective. The contribution of the second objective in $CD_{5,f}$ is set to 1. Therefore, the $CD_{5,f} = (0+1) = 1$. This boundary-point metric assignment is a significant departure from the method in [20]. In Omni-optimizer, if particle i is the minimum solution in the mth objective, $CD_{i,f}$ is set to ∞ . Then the $CD_{avg,f}$ is equal to ∞ . In the stage of "Determine the final CD," there is no chance that $CD_{i,f} > CD_{avg,f}$ since the $CD_{avg,f}$ is equal

In the second step, the SCD_i , is assigned as

$$SCD_i = \max(CD_{i,x}, CD_{i,f})$$
 (6)

when either $CD_{i,x} > CD_{avg,x}$ or $CD_{i,f} > CD_{avg,f}$; otherwise we set

$$SCD_i = \min(CD_{i,x}, CD_{i,f}). \tag{7}$$

These equations show that the SCD concept involves a max or min selection step that involves crowding metrics from the decision and objective spaces. This methodology can therefore promote diversity in both spaces simultaneously.

B. Mechanism of MO_Ring_PSO_SCD

The combination of ring topology and the SCD can be used to advantage for solving multimodal multiobjective problems effectively. The reason is that a central characteristic of multimodal multiobjective problems is that there may be two or more Pareto-optimal solutions corresponding to the same point in the objective space. As soon as one of the

Pareto-optimal solutions is found, it is more likely to be chosen as a parent or leader for the next generation and the next population will be guided toward it. Therefore, the other Pareto-optimal solutions, which correspond to the same point in the objective space, become difficult to approach. Even though these alternative optimal solutions have been successfully located, it is hard for them to survive in the environmental selection process, because they crowd near the previous solution in the objective space [4]. An algorithm should have two kinds of capabilities to solve multimodal multiobjective problems, namely the ability to: 1) find as many as possible Pareto-optimal solutions and 2) maintain the Pareto-optimal solutions that correspond to the same point in the objective space. In MO_Ring_PSO_SCD, with the assistance of ring topology, each particle only exchanges information with its closed neighbors. Thus, niches are formed in the population, and consequently the diversity of population is improved. Therefore, MO Ring PSO SCD is able to search out more Pareto-optimal solutions. In addition, the use of the SCD as a second environmental selection criterion enables MO_Ring_PSO_SCD to maintain the Paretooptimal solutions that correspond to the same point in the objective space. For example, assume that solutions A_1 and A_2 have been located, as shown in Fig. 2. Their CD in the objective space is zero (because both solutions correspond to A'). However, the distance between the two solutions in the decision space is large. The SCD adaptively chooses the distance in the decision space as their CD according to (6). Therefore, A_1 and A_2 are both likely to be selected as leaders in different niches of the next generation. Guided by leaders, the particles in niches corresponding to A_1 and A_2 will fly toward them separately. Therefore, both PS₁ and PS₂ are likely to be obtained generation after generation. This provides a reason why the combination of ring topology and SCD, as implemented in MO Ring PSO SCD, leads to a more effective approach to multimodal multiobjective problems. Experimentally verification of the effectiveness of the proposed algorithm is given in Section VI-B.

C. Novelty and Convergence Behavior of MO_Ring_PSO_SCD

The inspiration for MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is from r3pso, while the SCD is an improved version from that used by the Omni-optimizer technique. The novelty of the MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is perhaps best to put into evidence by comparing and contrasting it with the r3pso and Omni-optimizer techniques and the related DN-NSGAII method.

The differences between MO_Ring_PSO_SCD and r3pso are as follows. First, r3pso is a single objective optimization algorithm. In contrast, MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is a multiobjective optimization technique. Second, the purpose of r3pso is to identify multiple local and global optima for single optimization problems, while MO_Ring_PSO_SCD aims to obtain several PSs (each containing multiple solutions) that correspond to the same PF. Therefore, the number of solutions that MO_Ring_PSO_SCD maintains is much greater

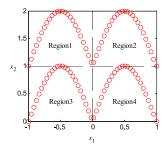


Fig. 4. Distribution of MMF4's PSs.

than that for r3pso method. Third, r3pso selects the *gbest* and *nbest* only according to fitness values, while in contrast, MO_Ring_PSO_SCD selects the *gbest* and *nbest* according to a dominated relationship and the SCD. There are numerous differences between MO_Ring_PSO_SCD and the Omnioptimizer method. The Omni-optimizer technique is similar to NSGAII, with a population that evolves by crossover and mutation. In contrast, the particles in MO_Ring_PSO_SCD are led by *pbest* and *gbest*. Both the MO_Ring_PSO_SCD and the Omni-optimizer methods make use of the CD in the decision space and objective space. However, the way MO_Ring_PSO_SCD deals with boundary points in objective space is significantly different from the Omni-optimizer. In addition, the topological structure in MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is fundamentally different from that of the Omni-optimizer.

The differences between MO_Ring_PSO_SCD and DN-NSGAII are presented as follows.

- DN-NSGAII is modified from NSGAII. In DN-NSGAII, the particles are changed by crossover and mutation. However, the framework of MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is multiobjective PSO. The positions of particles are changed according to *pbest* and *gbest*.
- There is no specific topology in DN-NSGAII. In contrast, ring topology is employed in MO_Ring_PSO_SCD. Each particle transfers information with its immediate neighbors.
- The CD in DN-NSGAII represents distance in decision space. However, MO_Ring_PSO_SCD employs SCD (the SCD makes use of distance in both decision space and objective space).

The MO_Ring_PSO_SCD, Omni-optimizer and DN-NSGAII algorithms are tested on MMF4 to reveal their differences in convergence behavior (note that r3pso is a single objective optimization algorithm, so it cannot be tested on the multimodal multiobjective problems and hence has been excluded from this comparison study). Test function MMF4, whose details are given in Appendix A in the supplementary material, has four PSs in its feasible region with a distribution as shown in Fig. 4. In Fig. 4, x_1 and x_2 represent the 2-D of the decision space. The feasible region of MMF4 is divided into four subregions, namely Region 1 $\{x_1 \in [-1, 0], x_2 \in [1, 2]\}$, Region 2 $\{x_1 \in (0, 1], x_2 \in [1, 2]\}$, Region 3 $\{x_1 \in [-1, 0], x_2 \in [0, 1]\}$, and Region 4 $\{x_1 \in (0, 1], x_2 \in [0, 1]\}$. There is one PS in each region. The proportion of solutions

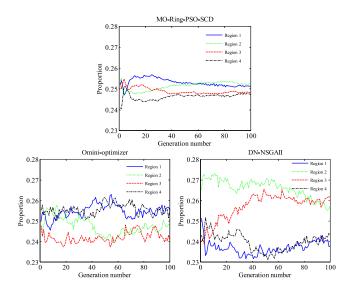


Fig. 5. Convergence behaviors of three algorithms: MO-Ring-PSO-SCD, Omini-optimizer, and DN-NSGAII.

in each region is calculated for every generation to show the algorithm's convergence behavior. Ideally, if the algorithm performs well on MMF4, the proportion of solutions in each of the four regions should converge to 25%. In this example, the population size of MO_Ring_PSO_SCD, Omni-optimizer, and DN-NSGAII is set to 800 and the maximal generation number is set to 100. All other parameters are the same as reported in Section VI-A. Each algorithm is run 20 times and the mean proportions of their solutions in each region from the 1st to the 100th generation are plotted in Fig. 5. The top figure of Fig. 5 shows the convergence behavior of the proposed MO Ring PSO SCD algorithm. As shown, the proportions of solutions in Regions 1 and 3 increase to a small extent while the proportions of Regions 2 and 4 solutions decrease slightly as the generation number reaches approximately 20. At approximately the 50th generation the proportion of solutions in each region approaches 25%. In addition, these proportions remain relatively constant from the 50th to 100th generation. In contrast, the convergence behavior of the Omni-optimizer method, as shown in the lower-left graph of Fig. 5, is inferior to that of MO_Ring_PSO_SCD. In fact, from the 40th to 100th generations the proportions of solutions for the Omnioptimizer approach in Regions 1 and 4 are larger than those in Regions 2 and 3. The proportion of solutions in each region fluctuates frequently throughout generations. The convergence behavior of DN-NSGAII is shown in the lower-right graph of Fig. 5. The proportions of solutions in Regions 2 and 3 are much greater than those of Regions 1 and 4. In addition, the proportion of solutions in each region is not constant as a function of the generation number.

From the above discussion, it follows that a central novelty of the MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is that the particles are led by *pbest* and *gbest*, where each particle transfers information with its immediate neighbors, and a dominance relationship and the SCD are employed for leader selection. The combination of these operations makes it possible for the MO_Ring_PSO_SCD method to solve multimodal multiobjective problems in an effective fashion.

¹All the supplementary materials for this article can be accessed from the website: http://www5.zzu.edu.cn/ecilab/info/1026/1091.htm.

TABLE I FEATURES OF TEST FUNCTIONS

Function name	Number of PSs	Overlap in every dimension
MMF1	2	×
MMF2	2	×
MMF3	2	✓
MMF4	4	×
MMF5	4	×
MMF6	4	✓
MMF7	2	×
MMF8	4	×
SYM-PART simple	9	✓
SYM-PART rotated	9	\checkmark
Omni-test(n=3)	27	✓

IV. TEST FUNCTIONS

Since the state of the knowledge for solving multimodal multiobjective optimization problems is still in its early stages of development, there are very few benchmark test functions documented in the literature. One of the aims of this paper is to define a set of MMFs with the following characteristics.

- 1) They should be multiobjective optimization functions.
- They should have more than one PS that corresponds to the same PF.
- 3) They should vary in their extent of complexity.

A simple way to design an MMF is to modify single modal multiobjective benchmark functions. First, the feasible region should be enlarged if it is too small. Then, novel PSs are copied into the new feasible region through shift or symmetry transformation. The complexity of MMF relates to the number of different PSs and the overlap among them.

Two simple MMFs, namely SS-UF1 and S-UF3, were designed in precious work by the Liang *et al.* [4]. For the details to design MMFs please refer to [4]. In this paper, these two MMFs are renamed as MMF1 and MMF2. In addition, six more complicated test functions MMF3–MMF8 are designed. Three other test functions, called SYM-PART simple [27], SYM-PART rotated [27], and the Omni-test function [20] with n = 3, are included in the scope of this paper.

Table I shows the most relevant features of the eleven test functions under consideration. The first column of Table I lists the names of all test functions considered in this paper. The second column, entitled *Number of PSs* reflects how many PSs correspond to the same PF, and the third column, *Overlap in every dimension*, indicates with a check $\max(\checkmark)$ when the PSs have overlaps in every dimension and with an mark (X) if they do not. Generally speaking, a test function whose PSs overlap in every dimension is more complex than a test function which does not show the same extent of dimensional overlap. In addition, a function is more complex when it has a larger number of PSs.

As is shown in Table I, the functions MMF1 and MMF2 have two PSs, and their PSs do not overlap in every dimension. Hence, MMF1 and MMF2 are relatively simple functions. Next, MMF3 has two PSs which overlap in every dimension. Therefore, MMF3 is more complex than MMF1 and MMF2. Function MMF4 and MMF8, which in contrasts

to the other functions in the table has a concave PF, have four PSs that do not overlap in every dimension. MMF6 have four PSs which overlap in every dimension. The PSs of MMF7 are irregular curves which are shown in Appendix A in the supplementary material. Function SYM-PART rotated is generated from a simple rotation of SYM-PART simple, and is thus more complex than SYM-PART simple. To make the visualization more accessible, the dimension of the decision space *n* is set to 3 in the Omni-test, which is indicated in Table I. Omni-test has the largest number of PSs which overlap in every dimension. Therefore, Omni-test is the most complex among the eleven test functions. Further details of the eleven test functions are given in Appendix A in the supplementary material.

V. PERFORMANCE INDICATORS

In this paper, the PSP

$$PSP = \frac{CR}{IGDX} \tag{8}$$

is proposed as a new indicator to reflect the similarity between the obtained PSs and the true PSs, where *CR* is the *cover rate* and *IGDX* [22] is the *inverted generational distance* in the decision space. The cover rate (CR) is a modification of the maximum spread (MS) [28]

$$MS = \sqrt{\frac{1}{m} \sum_{l=1}^{m} \delta_l} \tag{9}$$

where

$$\delta_l = \left(\frac{\min(f_l^{\text{max}}, F_l^{\text{max}}) - \max(f_l^{\text{min}}, F_l^{\text{min}})}{F_l^{\text{max}} - F_l^{\text{min}}}\right)^2 \tag{10}$$

and, where m is the dimensionality of objective space, f_l^{\max} and f_l^{\min} are, respectively, the maximum and minimum of obtained PF for the lth objective, F_l^{\max} and F_l^{\min} are the maximum and minimum of the true PF for the lth objective. Note that if $f_l^{\min} \geq F_l^{\max}$, then $\delta_l = 0$. The MS is conceived to reveal how well obtained PF covers the true PF. The larger the MS value is, the better the obtained PF covers the true PF. The limiting value MS = 1 means the obtained PF covers completely the true PF.

The MS indicator has a number of disadvantages. In particular, it ignores the situation, where $f_l^{\max} \leq F_l^{\min}$. In addition, the mean value of δ (given by $(1/m)\sum_{l=1}^m \delta_l$) is heavily affected when $\delta_l=1$, because the maximum of δ is equal to 1. To introduce an indicator into decision space and properly represent overlap ratio between true PS and obtained PS, we introduce CR defined as

$$CR = \left(\prod_{l=1}^{n} \delta_{l}\right)^{1/2n}$$

$$\delta_{l} = \begin{cases} 1 & V_{l}^{\max} = V_{l}^{\min} \\ 0 & v_{l}^{\min} \geq V_{l}^{\max} \|v_{l}^{\max} \leq V_{l}^{\min} \\ \left(\frac{\min(v_{l}^{\max}, V_{l}^{\max}) - \max(v_{l}^{\min}, V_{l}^{\min})}{V_{l}^{\max} - V_{l}^{\min}}\right)^{2} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$(11)$$

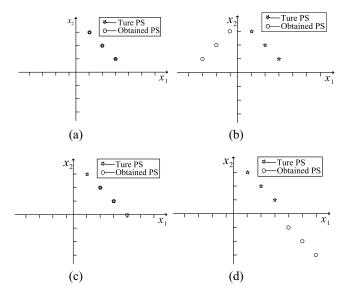


Fig. 6. Four scenarios for comparing the performance of the MS and CR indicators. (a) MS = 1, CR = 1. (b) MS = 1, CR = 0. (c) MS = 0.5, CR = 0.5. (d) MS = 0.7, CR = 0.

where n is the dimensionality of decision space; v_l^{\max} and v_l^{\min} are, respectively, the maximum and minimum of obtained PS for the lth variable; V_l^{\max} and V_l^{\min} are the maximum and minimum of the true PS for the lth variable.

Four representative scenarios are shown in Fig. 6 to illustrate the differences in the values of the MS and CR indicators. It can be concluded in Fig. 6 that, in scenarios (a) and (c), MS is equal to CR. However, in scenarios (b) and (d), it is obvious that there is no overlap between true PS and obtained PS, but the MS values are not equal to 0 while the CR adopts the value 0 accurately reflecting the total lack of overlap. It is clear that CR is able to adequately address the situation, where $f_l^{\max} \leq F_l^{\min}$; furthermore, in contrast to the MS, the CR remains unaffected by the limiting case, where $\delta_l = 1$. Therefore, the proposed indicator CR is more appropriate than MS. In the conclusion, CR can show overlap ratio between true PS and obtained PS. Larger CR values are desirable.

However, CR cannot show the diversity and convergence of the obtained solutions. A new indicator inverted generational distance (IGDX) is proposed by Zhou $et\ al.$ [22] to evaluate the diversity and convergence in the decision space. IGDX values represent the average distance (Euclidean distance) between the obtained solutions and reference solutions (true PS) in decision space. Let P^* denote a set of uniformly distributed points along the true PS. Let O denote a set of obtained solutions. The IGDX can be calculated as the average distance from P^* to O

$$IGDX(O, P^*) = \frac{\sum_{v \in P^*} d(v, O)}{|P^*|}$$
 (13)

where d(v, O) is the minimum Euclidean distance between v and the points in O. Smaller IGDX values are desirable.

CR and IGDX are combined as PSP according to (8). PSP can not only reflect the convergence of obtained PS, but also represent overlap ratio between true PS and obtained PS. Larger PSP values are desirable.

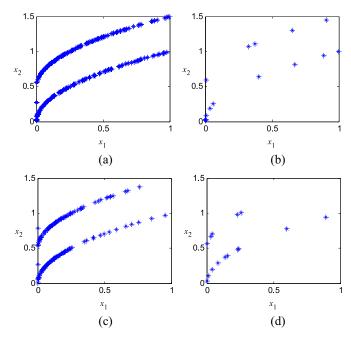


Fig. 7. Comparison of PSs obtained by multiobjective PSO algorithms on MMF3. PSs obtained by (a) MO_Ring_PSO_SCD, (b) MO_PSO_SCD, (c) MO_Ring_PSO, and (d) MO_PSO.

VI. EXPERIMENTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Experimental Setups

As is well known, different algorithms may favor different population sizes. In addition, the optimal population size is different for different test functions. Therefore, it is impossible to set one population size that is suitable for all algorithms and test functions. In Sections VI-B and VI-C a population size of 800 is taken as an example to put into evidence details of the results produced by the algorithms. Then Section VI-D shows experimental results with different population sizes to properly analyze the effect of population size. For the purpose of unbiased comparison, the maximal number of evaluations is set to 80 000 for all the algorithms. All the experiments are carried out 20 times. In MO_Ring_PSO_SCD, both C_1 and C_2 are set to 2.05 and W is set to 0.7298 in (5). Other parameters are set as the corresponding references [4], [20], [23], [29], [30].

B. Experimental Verification of the Effectiveness of the Proposed Algorithm

To demonstrate the effectiveness of ring topology and of the SCD, multiobjective PSO algorithms with and without ring topology or SCD are tested on all the test functions. The *PSP* values of the four algorithms are analyzed by rank sum test. The *PSP* values and *h* values of rank sum test are shown in Table II. The Pareto-optimal solutions obtained by multiobjective PSO algorithms on MMF3 are shown in Fig. 7. In Table I and Fig. 7, MO_PSO represents simple multiobjective PSO without ring topology and SCD. MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is multiobjective PSO with only ring topology. MO_PSO_SCD is multiobjective PSO with both ring topology and SCD. It can be concluded from Table II and

	MO_Ring_PSO_SCD	MO_PSO_SCD	MO_Ring_PSO	MO_PSO
	mean \pm std dev	mean \pm std dev	mean \pm std dev	mean \pm std dev
	mean ± std dev	(h)	(h)	(h)
MMF1	66.80 ± 2.89	3.25 ± 0.35	42.17 ± 2.51	3.05 ± 0.73
	00.80 ± 2.89	(1)	(1)	(1)
MMF2	98.13 ± 12.91	8.92 ± 2.20	22.82 ± 7.19	4.01 ± 1.88
		(1)	(1)	(1)
MMF3	132.71 ± 23.13	6.87 ± 1.57	34.42 ± 9.45	5.60 ± 1.99
		(1)	(1)	(1)
MMF4	115.30 ± 4.33	1.61 ± 0.32	43.54 ± 3.53	1.67 ± 0.38
		(1)	(1)	(1)
MMF5	32.91 ± 1.27	2.19 ± 0.33	24.05 ± 0.94	2.13 ± 0.44
		(1)	(1)	(1)
MMF6	36.01 ± 1.26	2.48 ± 0.27	27.39 ± 1.25	2.28 ± 0.41
		(1)	(1)	(1)
MMF7	108.01 ± 5.88	3.59 ± 0.44	78.58 ± 2.92	4.23 ± 0.80
		(1)	(1)	(1)
MMF8	47.21 ± 1.42	1.06 ± 0.24	32.51 ± 1.98	1.45 ± 0.33
		(1)	(1)	(1)
SYM-PART simple	21.46 ± 1.01	0.50 ± 0.14	15.26 ± 0.94	0.56 ± 0.41
1		(1)	(1)	(1)
SYM-PART rotated	18.27 ± 1.52	1.06 ± 0.44	14.78 ± 0.82	0.47 ± 0.31
		(1)	(1)	(1)
Omni-test	$\textbf{11.45} \pm 0.58$	0.78 ± 0.09	5.68 ± 1.40	0.69 ± 0.07
		(1)	(1)	(1)

TABLE II ${\it PSP} \ {\tt Values} \ {\tt of} \ {\tt Multiobjective} \ {\tt PSO} \ {\tt With} \ {\tt and} \ {\tt Without} \ {\tt Ring} \ {\tt Topology} \ {\tt or} \ {\tt SCD}$

Fig. 7 that MO_Ring_PSO is much better than MO_PSO, while MO_PSO_SCD is a little better than MO_PSO. In short, the inclusion of both ring topology and SCD are effective for improving performance. In addition, MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is the best performer over all the eleven test functions. The rank sum test results show that there are significant differences among MO_Ring_PSO_SCD and the other three algorithms. Why these two operates are effective in solving multimodal multiobjective optimization? The reasons are analyzed in the following paragraphs.

Ring topology enables the proposed algorithm to locate enough Pareto-optimal solutions. It is proved that ring topology induces stable niches in decision space [12]. Therefore, the particles evolve within their own niches. Every niche has its own leader. If the leaders are well-distributed in the decision space, it is more likely to locate more Pareto-optimal solutions.

The introducing of SCD improves the population diversity and helps maintain more Pareto-optimal solutions. The less crowded solutions are preferred. Therefore, the diversity of obtained solution is improved. In environmental selection, if solutions are crowded in objective space but far away from each other in decision space, they are able to survive according to their SCDs.

In the conclusion, both ring topology and SCD make MO_Ring_PSO_SCD more excellent in solving multimodal multiobjective problems.

C. Comparison With Other Algorithms

MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is compared with five algorithms on eleven test functions. Two measure indicators, *PSP* and hypervolume (*Hv*) are adopted to compare the performances of different algorithms. *PSP* reflects the quality of the obtained PSs in decision space and *Hv* reflects the quality of obtained

PF in objective space. Larger *Hv* and *PSP* are more favorable. The statistical results of *PSP* values are shown in Fig. 8 by box-plots. The *Hv* values of different algorithms are shown in Table III.

In Fig. 8, MO_Ring_PSO_SCD, Omni-optimizer, DN-NSGAII, NSGAII, MOEAD, and SPEA2 are numbered 1–6, respectively. As can be verified from the results, the mean *PSP* values for MO_Ring_PSO_SCD are highest on all test functions except MMF7 since the PSs of MMF7 are in an irregular geometry. Omni-optimizer ranks second on MMF1 and MMF3. On the other test functions, the performances of Omni-optimizer and DN-NSGAII are similar. These two algorithms are a somewhat better than NSGAII, MOEAD, and SPEA2, because that both Omni-optimizer and DN-NSGAII employ the CD in the decision space for environmental selection. However, the *PSP* values of Omni-optimizer and DN-NSGAII are not stable, because their variances are relatively large.

The reason why NSGAII, MOEAD, and SPEA2 perform poorly on all test functions is that these methods consider only the CD in the objective space. The *PSP* values of all algorithms are lowest on Omni-test among all the test functions, which can demonstrate that Omni-test is the most complex test function among them.

In Table III, the *Hv* values of Omni-optimizer on MMF2, MMF3, and MMF6 are highest among the algorithms. NSGAII obtains the highest *Hv* values on MMF1, MMF5, MMF7, MMF8, and Omni-test functions. MOEAD is the best on MMF4 and SYM-PART simple test functions. DN-NSGAII obtains the best *Hv* value on SYM-PART rotated test function. MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is comparable with all the other algorithms on all the eleven test functions, though it is not the best. In fact, the *Hv* values for all the algorithms are close to each other. The reason is that all the algorithms consider the distribution in the objective space.

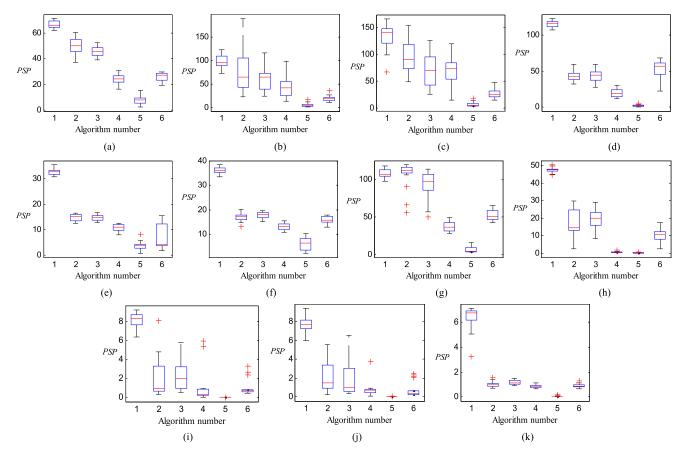


Fig. 8. Box-plots of *PSP* values of different algorithms on eleven test functions. The numerals on the horizontal axis of each plot indicate the following algorithms: 1 = MO_Ring_PSO_SCD, 2 = mni-optimizer, 3 = DN-NSGAII, 4 = NSGAII, 5 = MOEAD, and 6 = SPEA2. (a) MMF1. (b) MMF2. (c) MMF3. (d) MMF4. (e) MMF5. (f) MMF6. (g) MMF7. (h) MMF8. (i) SYM-PART simple. (j) SYM-PART rotated. (k) Omni-test.

TABLE III

Hv Values of Different Algorithms

	MO_Ring_PSO_SCD	Omni-optimizer	DN-NSGAII	NSGAII	MOEAD	SPEA2
	$mean \pm std \ dev$	$mean \pm std \ dev$	$mean \pm std \ dev$	$mean \pm std \ dev$	$mean \pm std \; dev$	$mean \pm std \ dev$
MMF1	3.66 ± 4.54 e-04	3.67 ± 2.43 e-05	3.66 ± 1.12 e-03	3.67 ± 1.26e-03	3.67 ± 4.93 e-04	3.66 ± 3.09 e-04
MMF2	3.65 ± 7.61 e-03	$\textbf{3.67} \pm \textbf{4.69e-05}$	$3.66 \pm 9.08\text{e-}03$	$3.66 \pm 4.82e-03$	3.67 ± 6.26 e-04	3.62 ± 3.49 e-02
MMF3	3.65 ± 6.63 e-03	$\textbf{3.67} \pm \textbf{2.52e-05}$	3.67 ± 5.25 e-04	$3.66 \pm 1.14e-02$	3.67 ± 3.62 e-04	3.64 ± 6.33 e-03
MMF4	3.30 ± 9.54 e-04	$3.32 \pm 3.84e-05$	3.18 ± 3.31 e-04	$3.32 \pm 2.18e-06$	$3.33 \pm 2.75 \text{e-}06$	$3.30 \pm 3.71e-03$
MMF5	3.66 ± 3.89 e-04	$3.67 \pm 1.81e-05$	$3.67 \pm 3.22e-04$	$3.67 \pm 1.69e-05$	3.67 ± 6.34 e-04	$3.66 \pm 9.62e-04$
MMF6	3.66 ± 3.33 e-04	$3.67 \pm 2.19e-05$	$3.66 \pm 1.41e-03$	3.67 ± 8.45 e-05	$3.67 \pm 4.36e-04$	$3.66 \pm 1.77e-04$
MMF7	$3.67 \pm 2.10e-04$	$3.67 \pm 4.44e-05$	$3.66 \pm 1.24e-03$	$3.67 \pm 1.73e-05$	3.67 ± 2.46 e-04	3.66 ± 8.05 e-04
MMF8	3.21 ± 1.09 e-03	$3.21 \pm 1.20e-04$	$3.21 \pm 1.22e-03$	$3.21 \pm 7.70e\text{-}05$	3.21 ± 2.93 e-04	$3.21 \pm 2.38e-03$
SYM-PART simple	1.30 ± 1.65 e-03	$1.32 \pm 3.21e-04$	1.32 ± 1.94 e-04	$1.32 \pm 2.32e-04$	1.32 ± 8.66 e-05	1.32 ± 5.25 e-04
SYM-PART rotated	1.29 ± 3.55 e-03	$1.32 \pm 2.55 e$ -04	$\textbf{1.32} \pm \textbf{4.49e-04}$	$1.32 \pm 2.41e-04$	1.32 ± 9.68 e-04	1.32 ± 1.09 e-02
Omni-test	$61.93 \pm 2.14e-01$	62.06 ± 2.46 e-04	$62.06 \pm 3.95 \text{e-}04$	$62.06 \pm 1.20 \text{e-}04$	62.06 ± 5.07 e-03	$61.94 \pm 4.09e-02$

Two typical test functions SYM-PART simple and Omnitest are chosen to reveal the obtained PSs and PF for the algorithms. The PSs obtained by different algorithms on SYM_PART simple and Omni-test are shown in Figs. A12 and A13 in Appendix B in the supplementary material. It is obvious that MO_Ring_PSO_SCD obtains the largest number of Pareto-optimal solutions. The SYM-PART simple test function has nine PSs. Omni-optimizer and DN-NSGAII obtain five of them (several of the obtained PSs are not complete). MOEAD obtains only one PS. A similar situation arises with the Omni-test function, as shown in Fig. A12 in the supplementary material, which illustrates the fact that

it is difficult to locate and maintain several PSs simultaneously without niching operation. The PFs obtained by different algorithms on SYM-PART simple and Omni-test are shown in Figs. A14 and A15 in Appendix B in the supplementary material. From these figures, it is concluded that all of the six algorithms obtain well-distributed PF on the SYM-PART simple test function. Note that under the Omni-test, the PF of the MO_Ring_PSO_SCD method is not as good as the PFs of Omni-optimizer, DN-NSGAII, and of NSGAII.

In the conclusion, MO_Ring_PSO_SCD obtains the best distribution in decision space on all the eleven test problems except MMF7. Though MO_Ring_PSO_SCD does not obtain

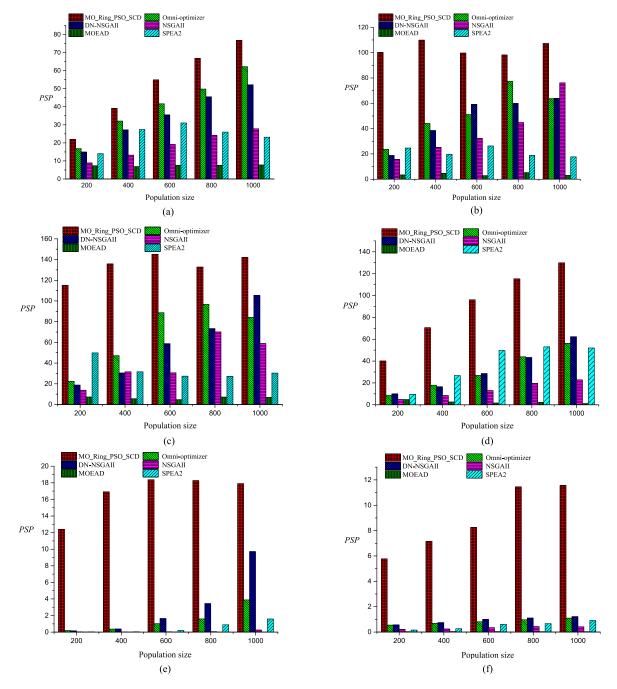


Fig. 9. *PSP* values with different population sizes. *PSP* values on (a) MMF1 with different population sizes, (b) MMF2 with different population sizes, (c) MMF3 with different population sizes, (d) MMF4 with different population sizes, (e) SYM-PART rotated with different population sizes, and (f) Omni-test with different population sizes.

the best distribution in objective space, it is competitive with that of the other algorithms.

D. Experimental Results With Different Population Sizes

The population size affects the performance of most algorithms. In this section, different population sizes are investigated for six of the test functions. The mean *PSP* values for a total of 20 experimental runs are presented in Fig. 9(a)–(f). The figures show that MO_Ring_PSO_SCD achieves the largest *PSP* values under different population sizes for the test functions under consideration. The results validate the claim

that the proposed method is effective in solving multimodal multiobjective problems.

The results reported in Fig. 9 also confirm that, as expected, the performance of the algorithms is affected by varying population size. However, the optimal population size for each algorithm varies for the different test functions. With respect to MMF1, the Fig. 9(a) shows that the *PSP* values of all algorithms increases along with the population size, except for the SPEA2 and MOEAD methods. The results obtained with MO_Ring_PSO_SCD do not change much on MMF2, and the *PSP* value of MO_Ring_PSO_SCD is largest when the population size is 400. In contrast, Omni-optimizer achieves

its largest *PSP* values when the population size is 800. As for MMF3 both Omni-optimizer and NSGAII perform best with a population size of 800. SPEA2 performs better than Omni-optimizer, DN-NSGAII, NSGAII, and MOEAD on MMF4. Therefore, SPEA2 is relatively suitable for problems of the kind represented by MMF4. Finally, from Fig. 9(e) and (f) it is noted that, with the exception of MO_Ring_PSO_SCD, which displays consistently good performance, all the other algorithms perform poorly on the relatively complex functions.

VII. CONCLUSION

To solve multimodal multiobjective problems, a multiobjective PSO using ring topology and special crowding distance is proposed. The ring topology helps to induce stable niches, so that much more Pareto-optimal solutions can be located. In addition, the special crowding distance considers the crowding distance both in decision and objective space to maintain multiple PSs. The proposed algorithm is compared with five algorithms, three of which are state-of-the-art multiobjective algorithms and two are multimodal multiobjective algorithms. All the algorithms are tested on eleven MMFs. Results show that the proposed algorithm is superior to the others in decision space distribution. However, MO_Ring_PSO_SCD does not perform best on MMFs with irregular PSs, such as MMF7. In addition, Omni-optimizer and NSGAII are better than the proposed algorithm in the objective space.

In our future work, new MMFs of different complexity will be proposed. Moreover, the MO_Ring_PSO_SCD will be improved and it will be applied to real world applications. Only problems with multiple global PSs are included in this paper. Arguable, there must be problems with multiple local PSs which have been excluded from the scope of this paper and that should be a relevant topic for future research.

An intriguing approach to evaluate is the inclusion of multimodal many-objective optimization test functions, for which the ε -dominance distance approach in [31] has performed to advantage. The algorithm proposed by the authors outperforms the ε -dominance distance and the CD in NSGAIIr [32], though details are omitted in this paper for brevity. Future work should include other varieties of test functions to develop a more comprehensive comparative performance analysis for multimodal many-objective optimization problems.

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APPENDIX

A. Details of test functions

MMF1 [4]

$$\begin{cases} f_1 = |x_1 - 2| \\ f_2 = 1 - \sqrt{|x_1 - 2|} + 2(x_2 - \sin(6\pi |x_1 - 2| + \pi))^2 \end{cases}$$
 (A1)

where $1 \le x_1 \le 3$, $-1 \le x_2 \le 1$.

Its true PS is

$$\begin{cases} x_1 = x_1 \\ x_2 = \sin(6\pi |x_1 - 2| + \pi) \end{cases}$$

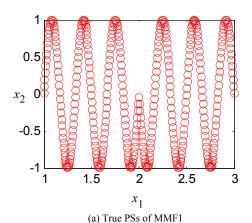
where $1 \le x_1 \le 3$.

Its true PF is

$$f_2 = 1 - \sqrt{f_1} \tag{A3}$$

where $0 \le f_1 \le 1$.

Its true PS and PF are illustrated in Fig. A1.



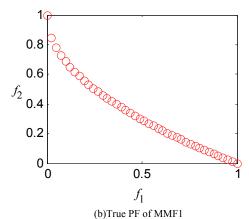


Fig. A1. Illustration of the true PSs and PF of MMF1.

MMF2 [4]

$$\begin{cases} f_1 = x_1 \\ \begin{cases} 1 - \sqrt{x_1} + 2(4(x_2 - \sqrt{x_1})^2 \\ -2\cos(\frac{20(x_2 - \sqrt{x_1})\pi}{\sqrt{2}}) + 2), & 0 \le x_2 \le 1 \end{cases} \\ f_2 = \begin{cases} 1 - \sqrt{x_1} + 2(4(x_2 - 1 - \sqrt{x_1})^2 \\ -\cos(\frac{20(x_2 - 1 - \sqrt{x_1})\pi}{\sqrt{2}}) + 2), & 1 < x_2 \le 2 \end{cases}$$
(A4)

(A2) where $0 \le x_1 \le 1$, $0 \le x_2 \le 2$.

Its true PS is

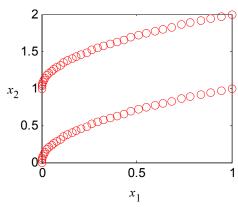
$$\begin{cases} x_2 = x_2 \\ x_1 = \begin{cases} x_2^2 & 0 \le x_2 \le 1 \\ (x_2 - 1)^2 & 1 < x_2 \le 2 \end{cases}$$
 (A5)

Its true PF is

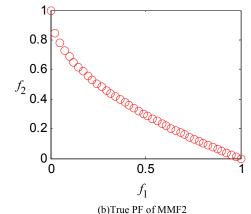
$$f_2 = 1 - \sqrt{f_1} \tag{A6}$$

where $0 \le f_1 \le 1$.

Its true PS and PF are illustrated in Fig. A2.



(a) True PSs of MMF2



(b) True PF of MMF2 Fig. A2. Illustration of the true PSs and PF of MMF2.

MMF3

where $0 \le x_1 \le 1$, $0 \le x_2 \le 1.5$.

Its true PS is

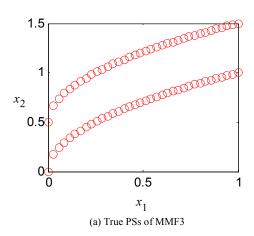
$$\begin{cases} x_2 = x_2 \\ x_1 = \begin{cases} x_2^2 & 0 \le x_2 \le 0.5, 0.5 < x_2 < 1 & 0.25 < x_1 \le 1 \text{ (A8)} \\ (x_2 - 0.5)^2 & 1 \le x_2 \le 1.5, 0 \le x_1 < 0.25 & 0.5 < x_2 < 1 \end{cases}$$

Its true PF is

$$f_2 = 1 - \sqrt{f_1} \tag{A9}$$

where $0 \le f_1 \le 1$.

Its true PS and PF are illustrated in Fig. A3.



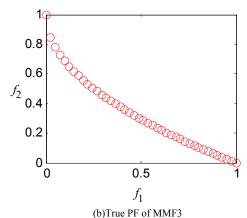


Fig. A3. Illustration of the true PSs and PF of MMF3.

MMF4

$$\begin{cases} f_1 = |x_1| \\ f_2 = \begin{cases} 1 - x_1^2 + 2(x_2 - \sin(\pi |x_1|))^2 & 0 \le x_2 < 1 \\ 1 - x_1^2 + 2(x_2 - 1 - \sin(\pi |x_1|))^2 & 1 \le x_2 \le 2 \end{cases}$$
 (A10)

where $-1 \le x_1 \le 1$, $0 \le x_2 \le 2$.

Its true PS is

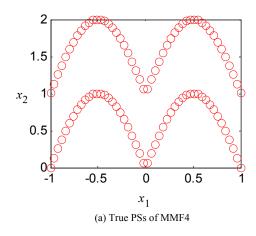
$$\begin{cases} x_1 = x_1 \\ x_2 = \begin{cases} \sin(\pi |x_1|) & 0 \le x_2 \le 1 \\ \sin(\pi |x_1|) + 1 & 1 < x_2 \le 2 \end{cases}$$
 (A11)

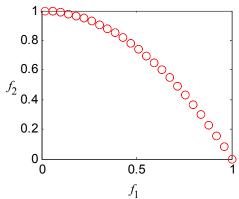
Its true PF is

$$f_2 = 1 - f_1^2 \tag{A12}$$

where $0 \le f_1 \le 1$.

Its true PS and PF are illustrated in Fig. A4.





(b)True PF of MMF4 Fig. A4. Illustration of the true PSs and PF of MMF4.

MMF5

$$\begin{cases} f_1 = |x_1 - 2| \\ f_2 = \begin{cases} 1 - \sqrt{|x_1 - 2|} + 2(x_2 - \sin(6\pi |x_1 - 2| + \pi))^2 & -1 \le x_2 \le 1 \\ 1 - \sqrt{|x_1 - 2|} + 2(x_2 - 2 - \sin(6\pi |x_1 - 2| + \pi))^2 & 1 < x_2 \le 3 \end{cases}$$

(A13)

where $-1 \le x_1 \le 3$, $1 \le x_2 \le 3$.

Its true PS is

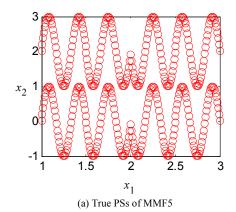
$$x_2 = \begin{cases} \sin(6\pi \mid x_1 - 2 \mid +\pi) & -1 \le x_2 \le 1\\ \sin(6\pi \mid x_1 - 2 \mid +\pi) + 2 & 1 < x_2 \le 3 \end{cases}$$
 (A14)

Its true PF is

$$f_2 = 1 - \sqrt{f_1} \tag{A15}$$

where $0 \le f_1 \le 1$.

Its true PS and PF are illustrated in Fig. A5.



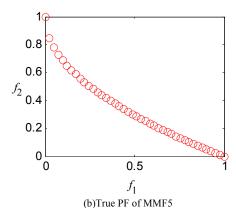


Fig. A5. Illustration of the true PSs and PF of MMF5.

MMF6

$$\begin{cases} f_1 = |x_1 - 2| \\ f_2 = \begin{cases} 1 - \sqrt{|x_1 - 2|} + 2(x_2 - \sin(6\pi |x_1 - 2| + \pi))^2 & -1 \le x_2 \le 1 \\ 1 - \sqrt{|x_1 - 2|} + 2(x_2 - 1 - \sin(6\pi |x_1 - 2| + \pi))^2 & 1 < x_2 \le 3 \end{cases}$$

(A16)

where $-1 \le x_1 \le 3$, $1 \le x_2 \le 2$.

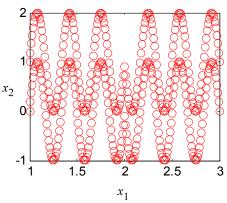
Its true PS is

$$x_{2} = \begin{cases} \sin(6\pi \mid x_{1} - 2 \mid +\pi) & -1 \le x_{2} \le 1\\ \sin(6\pi \mid x_{1} - 2 \mid +\pi) + 1 & 1 < x_{2} \le 2 \end{cases}$$
Its true PF is

$$f_2 = 1 - \sqrt{f_1} \tag{A18}$$

where $0 \le f_1 \le 1$.

Its true PS and PF are illustrated in Fig. A6.



(a) True PSs of MMF6

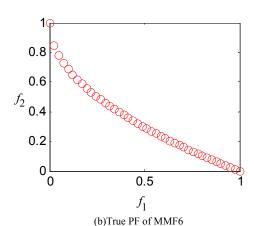


Fig. A6. Illustration of the true PSs and PF of MMF6.

MMF7

$$\begin{cases} f_1 = |x_1 - 2| \\ f_2 = 1 - \sqrt{|x_1 - 2|} + \left\{ x_2 - [0.3|x_1 - 2|^2 \cdot \cos(24\pi |x_1 - 2| + 4\pi) + 0.6|x_1 - 2| \right\} \cdot \sin(6\pi |x_1 - 2| + \pi) \end{cases}$$
(A19)

where $1 \le x_1 \le 3$, $-1 \le x_2 \le 1$.

Its true PS is

$$x_2 = [0.3|x_1 - 2|^2 \cos(24\pi |x_1 - 2| + 4\pi) + 0.6|x_1 - 2|]$$

$$\cdot \sin(6\pi |x_1 - 2| + \pi)$$
(A20)

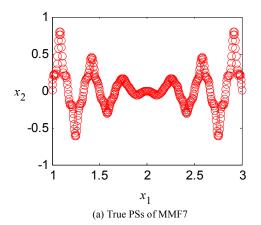
where $1 \le x_1 \le 3$.

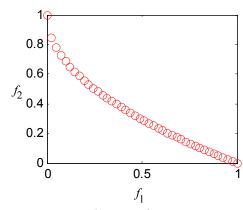
Its true PF is

$$f_2 = 1 - \sqrt{f_1}$$
 (A21)

where $0 \le f_1 \le 1$.

Its true PS and PF are illustrated in Fig. A7.





(b)True PF of MMF7 Fig. A7. Illustration of the true PSs and PF of MMF7.

MMF8

$$\begin{cases} f_1 = \sin|x_1| \\ f_2 = \begin{cases} \sqrt{1 - (\sin|x_1|)^2} + 2(x_2 - \sin|x_1| - |x_1|)^2 & 0 \le x_2 \le 4 \\ \sqrt{1 - (\sin|x_1|)^2} + 2(x_2 - 4 - \sin|x_1| - |x_1|)^2 & 4 < x_2 \le 9 \end{cases}$$
(A22)

where $-\pi \le x_1 \le \pi$, $0 \le x_2 \le 9$.

Its true PS is

$$x_{2} = \begin{cases} \sin|x_{1}| + |x_{1}| & 0 \le x_{2} \le 4\\ \sin|x_{1}| + |x_{1}| + 4 & 4 < x_{2} \le 9 \end{cases}$$
 (A23)

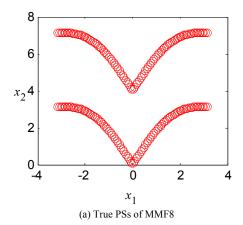
where $-\pi \le x_1 \le \pi$.

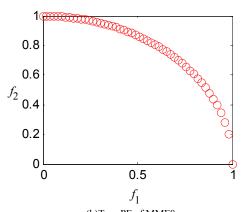
Its true PF is

$$f_2 = \sqrt{1 - f_1^2} \tag{A24}$$

where $0 \le f_1 \le 1$.

Its true PS and PF are illustrated in Fig. A8.





(b)True PF of MMF8 Fig. A8. Illustration of the true PSs and PF of MMF8.

SYM-PART simple [27]

$$\begin{cases} \hat{t}_1 = \operatorname{sgn}(x_1) \times \left[\frac{|x_1| - (a + \frac{c}{2})}{2a + c} \right] \\ \hat{t}_2 = \operatorname{sgn}(x_2) \times \left[\frac{|x_2| - \frac{b}{2}}{b} \right] \end{cases}$$
(A25)

$$t_i = \operatorname{sgn}(\hat{t}_i) \times \min\left\{ |\hat{t}_i|, 1 \right\}$$
 (A26)

$$\begin{cases} p_1 = x_1 - t_1(c + 2a) \\ p_2 = x_2 - t_2 b \end{cases}$$
 (A27)

$$\begin{cases} f_1 = (p_1 + a)^2 + p_2^2 \\ f_2 = (p_1 - a)^2 + p_2^2 \end{cases}$$
 (A28)

where $x_i \in [-20, 20]$.

Its true PS is

$$\begin{cases} x_1 = p_1 \\ x_2 = 0 \end{cases} \tag{A29}$$

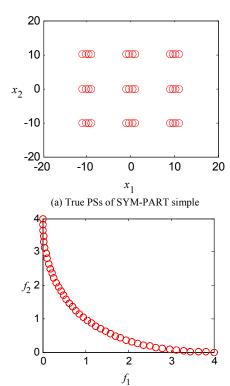
Its true PF is

$$\begin{cases} f_1 = 4a^2v^2 \\ f_2 = 4a^2(1-v)^2 \end{cases}$$
 (A30)

where $v \in [0,1]$.

In this paper, a = 1, b = 10, c = 8.

Its true PS and PF are illustrated in Fig. A9.



(b)True PF of SYM-PART simple Fig. A9. Illustration of the true PSs and PF of SYM-PART simple.

SYM-PART rotated [27]

$$\begin{cases} r_1 = (\cos \omega) \times x_1 - (\sin \omega) \times x_2 \\ r_2 = (\sin \omega) \times x_1 + (\cos \omega) \times x_2 \end{cases}$$
(A31)

$$\begin{cases} \hat{t}_1 = \operatorname{sgn}(r_1) \times \left\lceil \frac{|r_1| - (a + \frac{c}{2})}{2a + c} \right\rceil \\ \hat{t}_2 = \operatorname{sgn}(r_2) \times \left\lceil \frac{|r_2| - \frac{b}{2}}{b} \right\rceil \end{cases}$$
(A32)

$$t_i = \operatorname{sgn}(\hat{t}_i) \times \min\{|\hat{t}_i|, 1\}$$

$$\begin{cases} p_1 = x_1 - t_1(c + 2a) \\ p_2 = x_2 - t_2b \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} f_1 = (p_1 + a)^2 + p_2^2 \\ f_2 = (p_1 - a)^2 + p_2^2 \end{cases}$$
 (A35)

where $x_i \in [-20, 20]$

Its true PS is

$$\begin{cases} x_1 = p_1 \\ x_2 = 0 \end{cases} \tag{A36}$$

where $x_1 \in [-a, a]$.

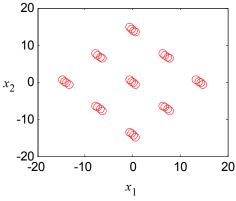
Its true PF is

$$\begin{cases} f_1 = 4a^2v^2 \\ f_2 = 4a^2(1-v)^2 \end{cases}$$
 (A37)

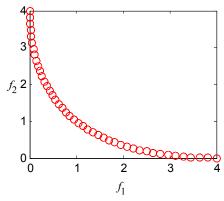
where $v \in [0,1]$.

In this paper, $w = \frac{\pi}{4}$, a = 1, b = 10, c = 8.

Its true PS and PF are illustrated in Fig. A10.



(a) True PSs of SYM-PART rotated



(b)True PF of SYM-PART rotated Fig. A10. Illustration of the true PSs and PF of SYM-PART rotated.

32) Omni-test [20]

$$\begin{cases} f_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sin(\pi x_i) \\ f_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \cos(\pi x_i) \end{cases}$$
 (A38)

where $x_i \in [0,6]$.

(A33) Its true PS is

$$x_i \in [2m+1, 2m+3/2]$$
 (A39)

(A34) where m is integer.

Its true PF is

$$f_2 = -\sqrt{n^2 - f_1^2} \tag{A40}$$

where $-n \le f_1 \le 0$.

When n = 3, its true PS and PF are illustrated in Fig. A11.

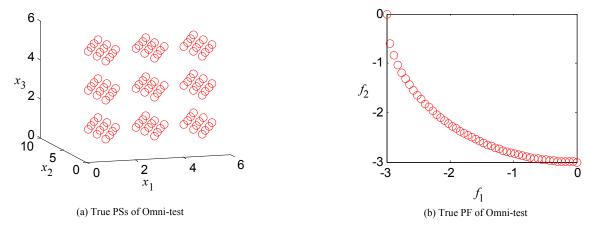
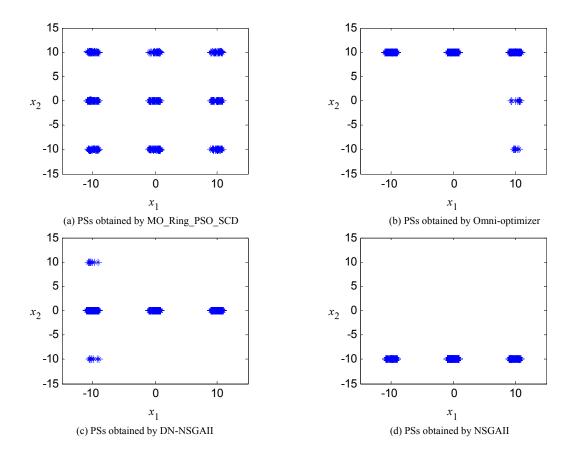


Fig. A11. Illustration of the true PSs and PF of Omni-test.

B. The PSs and PF obtained by different algorithms on SYM_PART simple and Omni-test



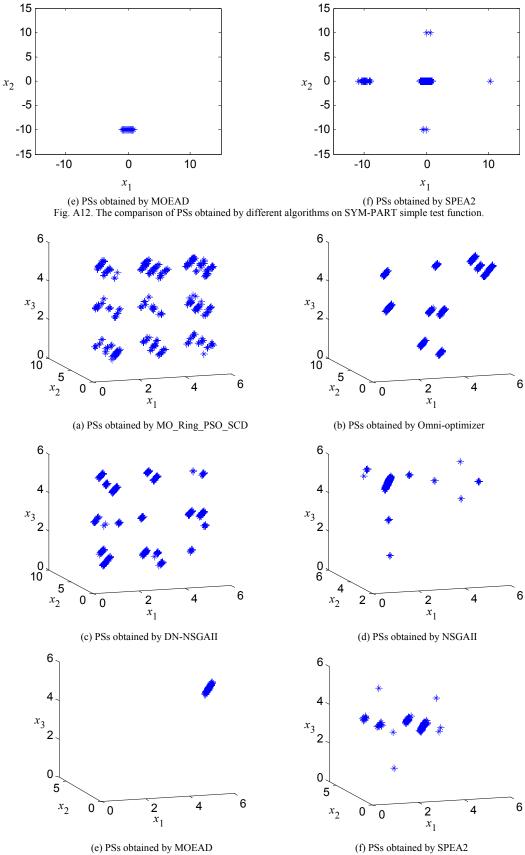


Fig. A13. The comparison of PSs obtained by different algorithms on Omni-test function.

