Chaotic Quantum-behaved Particle Swarm Optimization Approach Applied to Inverse Heat Transfer Problem

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Abstract: Particle swarm optimization (PSO) algorithms are attracting attentions in recent years, due to their ability of keeping good balance between convergence and diversity maintenance. Several attempts have been made to improve the performance of the original PSO algorithm. Inspired by trajectory analysis of the PSO and quantum mechanics, a quantum-behaved particle swarm optimization (QPSO) algorithm was recently proposed. QPSO has shown some important advantages by providing high speed of convergence in specific problems, but it has a tendency to get stuck in a near optimal solution and one may find it difficult to improve solution accuracy by fine tuning. In this paper, a modified and efficient version of the QPSO combined with chaotic sequences (CQPSO) is proposed and evaluated. We conduct simulations to estimate the unknown variables of an inverse heat transfer problem to verify the performance of the proposed CQPSO method and show that the method can be competitive when compared with the classical QPSO.

1 INTRODUCTION

The particle swarm optimization (PSO) has been introduced in the middle of 90's (Kennedy and Eberhart, 1995); (Eberhart and Kennedy, 1995) and it is based on a "social interaction" metaphor in which the parameter space is searched by controlling the trajectories of a set of particles according to a swarm- or flock-like set of rules.

PSO is a fertile research paradigm and its simple structure has encouraged the exploration of algorithmic variations. Furthermore, PSO approaches are well known for their ability to deal with nonlinear and complex optimization problems. Details of different PSO approaches are presented in Parsopoulos and Vrahatis (2002), Eslami et al., (2012), and Khare and Rangnekar (2013).

One of the recent developments in PSO is the application of quantum laws of mechanics to observe the behavior of PSO. Inspired by quantum mechanics, Sun et al. (2004a, 2004b) proposed quantum-behaved particle swarm optimization (QPSO) which the state of a particle is depicted by wavefunction, instead of position and velocity. A wavefunction is a probability amplitude in quantum mechanics describing the quantum state of a particle and how it behaves.

The success of the search in QPSO is dependent on a good balance between two processes: exploration and exploitation. Exploration allows searching the entire search space by ensuring the redirection of the search toward new regions, while exploitation favors a quick convergence toward the optimum. Several studies (Coelho and Mariani, 2008); (Sun and Lu, 2010); (Sun et al., 2012) propose modifications in the QPSO algorithm to improve its performance in continuous optimization. A review of QPSO is presented in Fang et al. (2010).

On the other hand, due to its certainty, ergodicity and stochastic properties, chaotic sequences have been used to replace random numbers and to enhance the performance of metaheuristic optimization algorithms (Coelho and Pessôa, 2011); (Coelho and Mariani, 2012); (Peitgen et al., 2004). In this paper, a novel version of QPSO namely CQPSO is proposed in which QPSO is combined with chaotic sequences generated by a Hénon's map

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(Peitgen et al., 2004) to modify the local attractor strategy. The idea behind the inclusion of chaotic sequences is to facilitate the CQPSO to enhance the global search performance in preventing premature convergence to local minima when compared with the classical PSO and QPSO algorithms.

The goal of this study is to explore and analyze the performance of CQPSO when compared with classical PSO and QPSO estimating accurately the time-varying temperature field. The enthalpy formulation of the heat conduction process utilizes two dependent variables, enthalpy and temperature.

This paper is structured as follows: Basics of PSO approaches are presented in Section 2. Details of the inverse heat transfer problem and its formulation are explained in Section 3. The numerical results and discussions are presented in Section 4. Finally, the conclusions are given in Section 5.

2 PSO APPROACHES

In the next subsections first, a brief overview of the classical PSO and QPSO are provided; and finally, the proposed CQPSO is explained.

2.1 Classical PSO Algorithm

The PSO algorithm consists of changing the velocity that accelerates each particle (potential solutions) toward its *pbest* (personal best) and *gbest* (global best) locations. The procedure for implementing the global version of classical PSO is given by the following steps:

Step 1: Initialization of Swarm Positions and Velocities: Initialize a population (array) of particles with random positions and velocities in the n dimensional problem space using uniform probability distribution function.

Step 2: Evaluation of Particle's Fitness: Evaluate each particle's fitness value.

Step 3: Comparison to pbest (personal best): Compare each particle's fitness with the particle's *pbest*. If the current value is better than *pbest*, then set the *pbest* value equal to the current value and the *pbest* location equal to the current location in n-dimensional space.

Step 4: Comparison to gbest (global best): Compare the fitness with the population's overall previous best. If the current value is better than *gbest*, then reset *gbest* to the current particle's array index and value.

Step 5: Updating of each Particle's Velocity and Position: Change the velocity, v_i, and position of the particle, x_i, according to equations (1) and (2):

$$v_i(t+1) = w \cdot v_i(t) + c_1 \cdot ud \cdot [p_i(t) - x_i(t)] + c_2 \cdot Ud \cdot [p_g(t) - x_i(t)] \quad (1)$$

$$x_i(t+1) = x_i(t) + \Delta t \cdot v_i(t+1) \quad (2)$$

where i=1,2,…,N indicates the number of particles of population (swarm); t=1,2,…t_{max}, indicates the generations (iterations); $v_i = [v_{i1}, v_{i2}, ..., v_{in}]^T$ stands for the velocity of the i-th particle, $x_i = [x_{i1}, x_{i2}, ..., x_{in}]^T$ stands for the position of the i-th particle of population, and $p_i = [p_{i1}, p_{i2}, ..., p_{in}]^T$ represents the best previous position of the i-th particle. The inertia weight w plays the role of balancing the global and local searches. Parameter c_1 represents the "self-cognition" that pulls the particle to its own historical best position, helping explore local niches and maintaining the diversity of the swarm. Parameter c_2 represents the "social influence" that pushes the swarm to converge to the current globally best region, helping with fast convergence. In other words, positive constants c_1 and c_2 are the cognitive and social components, respectively (Ratnaweera et al., 2004). Index g represents the index of the best particle among all the particles in the swarm. Variables *ud* and *Ud* are two random numbers generated in the range [0,1]. Equation (2) represents the position update, according to its previous position and its velocity, considering $\Delta t = 1$.

Step 6: Repeating the evolutionary cycle: Return to *Step 2* until a stop criterion is met, usually a sufficiently good fitness or a maximum number of generations.

2.2 QPSO Algorithm

In the quantum model of a PSO called here QPSO, the state of a particle is depicted by wavefunction $\psi(x, t)$ (Schrödinger equation), instead of position and velocity of classical PSO. The probability of the particle's appearing in position x_i from probability density function $|\psi(x,t)|^2$, the form of which depends on the potential field the particle lies. Employing the Monte Carlo method, the particles move according to the following iterative equation (Sun et al., 2004a; 2004b):

$$\begin{cases} x_{i,j}(t+1) = p_i(t) + \beta \cdot \left| Mbest_j(t) - x_{i,j}(t) \right| \cdot \ln(1/u), & \text{if } k \geq 0.5 \\ x_{i,j}(t+1) = p_i(t) - \beta \cdot \left| Mbest_j(t) - x_{i,j}(t) \right| \cdot \ln(1/u), & \text{if } k < 0.5 \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

where $x_{i,j}(t+1)$ is the position for the j-th dimension of i-th particle in t-th generation (iteration); $Mbest_j(t)$ is the global point called *Mainstream Thought* or *Mean Best* (*Mbest*) for the j-th dimension; β is a design parameter called contraction-expansion coefficient; u and k are values generated according to a uniform probability distribution in range [0,1]; and $p_i(t)$ is local point (local attractor) defined in (Clerc and Kennedy, 2002). The *Mainstream Thought* or *Mean Best* (*Mbest*) is defined as the mean of the *pbest* positions of all particles and it given by

$$Mbest_j(t) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{j=1}^{N} p_{g,j}(t), \quad (4)$$

where g represents the index of the best particle among all the particles' swarm in j-th dimension. In this case, it is adopted

$$p_i(t) = \frac{c_1 \cdot p_{k,i} + c_2 \cdot p_{g,i}}{c_1 + c_2}, \quad (5)$$

where $p_{k,i}$ (*pbest*) represents the best previous i-th position of the k-th particle and $p_{g,i}$ (*gbest*) represents the i-th position of the best particle of the population. In the same form that the classical PSO, constants c_1 and c_2 are the cognitive and social components, respectively. The procedure for implementing the QPSO is given by the following steps (Sun et al., 2004a, 2004b):

Step 1: Initialization of Swarm Positions: Initialize a population (array) of particles with random positions in the n dimensional problem space using a uniform probability distribution function.

Step 2: Evaluation of Particle's Fitness: Evaluate the fitness value of each particle.

Step 3: Comparison of each Particle's Fitness with its Pbest (personal Best): Compare each particle's fitness with the particle's *pbest*. If the current value is better than *pbest*, then set a novel *pbest* value equals to the current value and the *pbest* location equals to the current location in n-dimensional space.

Step 4: Comparison of each Particle's Fitness with its Gbest (global best): Compare the fitness with the population's overall previous best. If the current value is better than *gbest*, then reset *gbest* to the current particle's array index and value.

Step 5: Updating of Global Point: Calculate the *Mbest* using equation (4).

Step 6: Updating of Particles' Position: Change the position of the particles using equations (3) and (5).

Step 7: Repeating the Evolutionary Cycle: Loop to *Step 2* until a stopping criterion is met. In this paper, it is adopted a maximum number of iterations (generations).

2.3 The Proposed CQPSO Algorithm

Recently, some applications of chaotic sequences in PSO and its variations have been investigated by the literature (Chuang et al., 2011; Mukhopadhyay and Banerjee, 2012; Yang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2011; Coelho and Lee, 2008; Acharjee and Goswami, 2010; Araujo and Coelho, 2008). Numerous examples and statistical results show that some chaotic sequences applied to PSO are able to increase the algorithm-exploitation capability in the search space and enhance its convergence rate.

An interesting dynamic system evidencing chaotic behavior is the Hénon's map. Hénon (1976) introduced this map as a simplified version of the Poincaré map of the Lorenz system (Lorenz, 1963), whose equation is given by:

$$y_1(t) = 1 - a \cdot (y_1(t-1))^2 + y_2(t-1) \quad (6)$$

$$y_2(t) = b \cdot y_1(t-1) \quad (7)$$

where t is the iteration number. The map depends on two parameters, a and b. The Hénon's map is used in this work for a=1.4 and b=0.3. The adopted values for a and b for which the Hénon's map has a strange attractor (details in Cao and Kirik, 2000).

This work proposes the CQPSO, a combination of classical QPSO and the Hénon's map sequences are represented by modification of c_1 and c_2 values. Furthermore, in CQPSO design, another Hénon's map using the same equations (6) and (7) where $y_2 \in [-0.3854, 0.3819]$ are used to generate the variables $h_1(t)$ and $h_2(t)$ normalized in the range [0.001, 1]. The initial value of $y_2(t)$ and $y_2(t-1)$ are given by random numbers generated in the range [0,1] in each run of CQPSO.

In the CQPSO approach, the parameters c_1 and c_2 used in the equation (5) are substituted by $h_1(t)$ and $h_2(t)$, respectively, and equation (8) is employed in *Step 6*. In this case, it is adopted

$$p_i(t) = \frac{h_1(t) \cdot p_{k,i} + h_2(t) \cdot p_{g,i}}{h_1(t) + h_2(t)}, \quad (8)$$

3 PHYSICAL PROBLEM

To solve inverse heat transfer problem (IHTP) there are several optimization techniques, allowing the determination of more than one thermo-physical

property and the understanding of complex materials (Da Silva et al., 2009). Unlike the conventional techniques, the resolution of the IHTP permits the determination of more than one thermo-physical property and the understanding of complex materials.

Nonlinear heat conduction problem, involving phase change, without internal heat generation, can be described by

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial ti} = \vec{\nabla}.\left[k(T)\vec{\nabla}T\right], \tag{9}$$

where k (W/m^{o}C) is the apparent thermal conductivity, T (^{o}C) is the temperature, and ti (s) is the time (Scheerlinck et al., 2001). The present work considers one-dimensional geometry in rectangular coordinates, simulating a product slab. The initial condition associate to equation (9) is given by

$$T(xc, ti) = T_0(xc);\ ti = t_0,\ xc \in [0, L], \tag{10}$$

where T_0 (^{o}C) is known temperature in initial time obtained through of experiment, t_0 (s) is initial time. In the surface (xc=0) the convective condition is considered,

$$-k(T)\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = h(T - T_\infty);\ x = 0,\ ti \geq 0, \tag{11}$$

where T_∞ (^{o}C) is the ambient temperature, h (W/m^{2o}C) is the surface heat transfer coefficient, and L is the half length in x direction. The boundary condition used in the center of the product slab (xc=L) was the classical zero flux, which is expressed by

$$k(T)\frac{\partial T}{\partial xc} = 0;\ xc = L,\ ti \geq 0. \tag{12}$$

Due to the characteristics of the mathematical problem, the simpler finite difference technique can be used for the solution of that partial differential equation. Knowing the food geometry and physical properties, as the boundary and initial conditions, enables one to solve the equations (9)-(12), thus determining the transient temperature distribution in the food. This kind of problem is called a direct problem. If any of these magnitudes or a combination of them is unknown, but experimental data are available on the temperature measured inside and/or on the external surface of the food, one has an inverse problem that allows one to determine the unknown magnitudes, provided those data contain sufficient information.

For the inverse problem of interest here, the apparent thermal conductivity is regarded as unknown quantity. For the estimation of such parameters, we consider known transient temperature measurements τ_n (^{o}C) taken at the center node of the food. Thus, in this work is desired to minimize the difference between experimental and predicted temperatures. Mathematically optimization problem to solve is:

$$\text{Min } f(k) \tag{13}$$

where the objective function f (fitness function) is given by

$$f(k) = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{t=1}^{Ns}[\tau_n^t - T_n^t(k)]^2}{N}}, \tag{14}$$

where T_n (^{o}C) is the temperature of the product at node central calculated numerically by finite difference method and Ns is the number of samples. It was proposed the use of a nonlinear function dependent of temperature to thermal conductivity,

$$k = \begin{cases} A_1 \exp(1/T), T < \text{-}1, \\ A_2 T + A_3, T \geq \text{-}1. \end{cases} \tag{15}$$

The proposed approach was analyzed for the case in which three parameters, A_j, were treated as unknowns where the lower and upper boundaries constraints used for them were $A_1 \in [10^{-10}, 0.05]$, $A_2 \in [-1,1]$ and $A_3 \in [0,1]$.

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the next subsections first, we applied the PSO approaches to two algebraic test functions. In a next stage, we utilized the PSO approaches for the solution of IHTP.

4.1 Benchmark Functions

To validate the effectiveness of PSO approaches, two well-known benchmark functions of unconstrained minimization problems with 30 dimensions are used.

Rastrigin function has many local minima and maxima, making it difficult to find the global optimum. Rastrigin function is a fairly difficult problem for optimization algorithms due to the large search space and large number of local minima. The Rastrigin function is given by

$$f_1(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left[10 + x_i^2 - 10\cos(2\pi x_i)\right] \tag{16}$$

with upper and lower bounds given by [-5.12, 5.12] for each dimension.

Rosenbrock's valley or Rosenbrock function

(Rosenbrock, 1960) is a classic optimization problem, also known as Banana function. The Rosenbrock function [31] is given

$$f_2(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1}\left(100(x_i^2 - x_{i+1})^2 + (x_i - 1)^2\right) \qquad (17)$$

with upper and lower bounds given by [-30,30] for each dimension. It is important mention here that the Rosenbrock function can be treated as a multimodal problem (Shang and Qiu, 2006). It has a narrow parabolic-shaped deep valley from the perceived local optima to the global optimum. To find the valley is trivial, but to achieve convergence to the global minimum is a difficult task.

The settings adopted in the tested PSO approaches for the benchmarks functions is the swarm size (population size) equal to 50 particles, 30 runs and the stopping criterion is 10,000 generations. In terms of classical PSO, $c_1 = c_2 = 2.05$ and the inertia factor linear decreasing of 0.9 to 0.4 during the iterations is adopted. QPSO and CQPSO use a linearly decreasing contraction-expansion coefficient (β) is used which starts at 1 and ends at 0.2.

Simulation results presented in Tables 1 and 2 showed that the CQPSO outperform the adopted PSO and QPSO on the basis of mean and standard deviation of the best objective function value of the total runs for the two benchmark functions.

Table 1: Optimization results of $f_1(x)$ in 30 runs.

Index	PSO	QPSO	CQPSO
Maximum (Worst)	0.9803	0.9723	0.8914
Mean	0.2105	0.1603	0.1297
Minimum (Best)	0.19×10^{-8}	0.23×10^{-15}	0.89×10^{-12}
Standard Deviation	0.3272	0.7218	0.0632

Table 2: Optimization results of $f_2(x)$ in 30 runs.

Index	PSO	QPSO	CQPSO
Maximum (Worst)	23.7934	22.1930	22.1185
Mean	42.7117	31.3839	25.0847
Minimum (Best)	23.1006	21.0594	19.0059
Standard Deviation	1.5973	0.6301	0.3421

4.2 IHTP Case

The setup adopted in IHTP for the PSO approaches is the swarm size (population size) equal to 20 particles and the stopping criterion is 100 generations. Optimization results are presented in Table 3. The CQPSO found the best convergence (mean) and best solution (minimum f) with f = 0.4213. The best parameters obtained by tested optimization methods are presented in Table 4 where can be observed that the CQPSO presented a promising R^2 in comparison to the classical PSO. Best result using CQPSO is illustrated by temperature profiles shown in Figure 1.

Table 3: Optimization results of $f(k)$ in 30 runs.

Index	PSO	QPSO	CQPSO
Maximum (Worst)	30.9319	29.3703	29.3252
Mean	18.0494	18.0468	17.9352
Minimum (Best)	0.4889	0.4669	0.4213
Standard Deviation	9.4806	9.4842	8.9836

Table 4: Best parameters obtained by methods.

Index	PSO	QPSO	CQPSO
A_1	0.02610	0.02605	0.02602
A_2	-0.00091	-0.00111	-0.00116
A_3	0.6545	0.6531	0.6637
R^2	0.9885	0.9898	0.9912
$f(k)$	0.4658	0.4469	0.4213

5 CONCLUSIONS

Simulation results demonstrate the feasibility and validity of the proposed CQPSO in terms of solution quality when compared with the classical PSO and QPSO algorithms in the IHTP and also two well-know benchmark functions.

CQPSO may be a promising and viable tool to deal with complex inverse heat problems. The future work includes the studies on how to improve the proposed CQPSO in terms of the self-tuning of control parameters. Furthermore, more extensive experimentation, hypothesis tests and statistical significance tests to compare different optimization approaches with CQPSO will be carried out to different case studies.

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