DISTRIBUTED QUERY PROCESSING USING PARTICLE SWARM OPTIMIZATION

A dissertation submitted to the Jawaharlal Nehru University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of

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IN

COMPUTER SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

BY

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JULY 2012

Dedicated to my Parents



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DECLARATION

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled "Distributed Query Processing using **Particle Swarm Optimization**" is being submitted to the School of Computer and Systems Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of **Master of Technology** in **Computer Science & Technology**, is a record of bonafide work carried out by me under the supervision of **Dr. T.V. Vijay Kumar**.

The matter embodied in the dissertation has not been submitted in part or full to any University or Institution for the award of any degree or diploma.

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that this dissertation entitled "Distributed Query Processing using **Particle Swarm Optimization**" submitted by **Mr. Amit Kumar**, to the School of Computer and Systems Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, for the award of degree of **Master of Technology** in **Computer Science & Technology**, is a research work carried out by him under the supervision of **Dr. T. V. Vijay Kumar**.

Dr. T. V. Vijay Kumar (Supervisor)

> Prof. Karmeshu (Dean)

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CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: Introduction	1
1.1 Distributed Query Processing	
1.1.1 Related Work	
1.2 The Problem	
1.3 Aim	
1.4 Organization of the Dissertation	
CHAPTER 2: Distributed Query Plan Generation using PSO	9.
2.1 Swarm Intelligence	1
2.1.1 Basic Principles of Swarm Intelligence	1
2.1.2 Swarm Intelligence Techniques.	1
2.1.2.1 Stochastic Diffusion Search]
2.1.2.2 Ant Colony Optimization.	1
2.1.2.3 Particle Swarm Optimization	1
2.2 Particle Swarm Optimization.	1
2.3 Refinements in PSO	1
2.3.1 The Concept of Inertia Weight	1
2.3.2 The Concept of Neighborhood.	1
2.3.3 The Concept of Constriction Coefficient.]
2.3.4 Hybrid PSO Algorithms	1
2.4 Further Refinements in PSO	1
2.4.1 Comprehensive Learning Particle Swarm Optimization (CLPSO)	
2.4.2 CLPSO's Search Behavior.	1
2.5 PSO method for Discrete Optimization Problems	
2.5.1 The Set-Based CLPSO	
2.6 Query Plan Generation.	- -
2.7 An Example	,
2.8 Experimental Results	-
CHAPTER 3: Distributed Query Plan Generation using MOPSO	35
3.1 Multi-Objective Optimization	33
3.2 Particle Swarm Optimization for Multi-Objective Problems	-
3.2.1 Non-Pareto Based Approaches.	
3.2.1.1 Aggregated Approaches	-
3.2.1.2 Non-Aggregated Approaches.	2
3.2.2 Pareto Based Approaches.	4
3.2.2.1 S-CLPPSO	4
3.3 Query Plan Generation.	4
3.4 An Example	2
3.5 Experimental Results	
CHAPTER 4: Conclusion	61
References	

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

A distributed database encompasses coherent data, disseminated over the sites of a computer network [CP84]. A Distributed Database Management System (DDBMS) deals with managing such distributed databases. It presents a simple and unified interface to the users so that they can access the databases as if the data is not distributed [OV91]. A DDBMS is illustrated in Figure 1.1 showing data distributed over databases connected by a network.

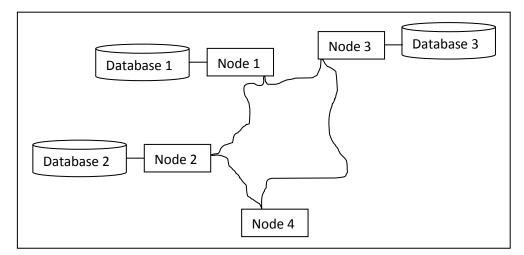


Figure 1.1: An example DDBMS

1.1 Distributed Query Processing

In query processing, the aim is to formulate algorithms that analyze queries and convert the queries into a set of data manipulation operations [OV91] as shown in figure 1.2

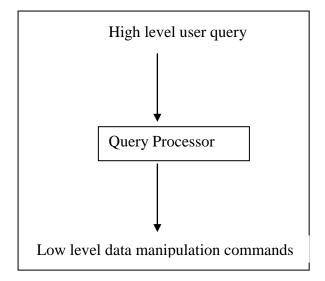


Figure 1.2: Query Processing

The query processing problem is much more complicated in distributed environments, as there are various parameters affecting the performance [AHH09]. In distributed environment, it is possible that the relations required in a query may be fragmented or replicated thereby leading to additional communication costs [OV91]. Furthermore, the query response time may become very high due to processing of distributed query at multiple sites. The performance of a DDBMS is determined by its ability to process queries in an effective and efficient manner [RM97]. Distributed query processing involves CPU, I/O and communication cost. However, it is the communication cost that constitutes the major cost of query processing [KYY82]. In order to answer the distributed queries, data is transmitted among the participating database sites, which incurs communication cost [YC84]. Hence, in order to reduce the communication cost, various strategies for executing a distributed query over the network are devised in distributed query optimization.

Processing distributed join queries typically involves three phases i.e. copy identification, reduction, and assembly [YC84]. In copy identification phase, files required by the query are selected for processing [YC84] [MLR90] [YC83]. In the reduction phase, local selection, projection and semijoins are used to reduce the size of

data that needs to be transmitted in order to perform join operations [RM97]. In the assembly phase, files are processed to get the final output. In this phase reduced files may have to be transmitted to join sites every so often to accomplish join operations. Additionally the final output may have to be transmitted to the result site. Join sites and join order must be determined for this phase [RM97].

1.1.1 Related Work

Earlier research in distributed query processing has typically focused on only one of the three phases of query processing discussed above. The reduction phase has received the most attention. The objective in the reduction phase is to find a minimum cost semi join sequence that fully reduces the relations required by a query [RM97]. A relation required by a query is said to be fully reduced if all its rows, not satisfying the qualification of the query, have been removed prior to transmitting it to the join site [YC84] [YC83]. In the reduction phase it is assumed that the local processing cost is trivial likewise it is assumed that all join operations are performed at the result site [AHY83] [BC81] [BG+81] [HY79] [LW86] [PV88] [S86] [SW91] [YL89]. Using semi joins can reduce the amount of data that need to be transmitted; then again it can also drastically increase local processing costs. Semi joins effectively perform the join twice – once to reduce one of the relations and again to join the reduced relation with the other relation [RM97] as shown in Figure 1.3.

R	l ₁	F	R ₂		В	С		Α	В	С
Α	В	В	С		b ₁	C ₂		a_1	b ₁	C ₂
a_1	b_1	b_1	C ₂		b ₂	C_1		a ₂	b ₁	C ₂
a_2	b_1	b ₂	C1		b ₂	C ₄		a ₂	b ₂	C_1
a_2	b ₂	b ₂	C ₄		b ₇	C ₂		a ₂	b ₂	C ₄
a_2	b_4	b ₅	C ₂	R. after	som	iioin	P. NP.	a_4	b ₇	C ₂
a ₃ a ₄	b ₄ b ₇	b ₆ b ₇	C ₄ C ₂				sultir om R	-	ation	
a_4	b ₉	b ₈	C ₃							

Figure 1.3: Examples of semijoin and join operations.

The use of semi joins must be considered more carefully as the local processing cost may become more significant compared to data communication costs [CY93][CY94][CY88][LM+85][LC85][ML86] [ME92].

Several approaches exist in literature that focuses on copy identification and assembly ignoring reduction. In these approaches, local processing costs are considered imperative, and joins are used as query processing technique [MR95] [MLR90]. These algorithms determine the optimum join order, join methods and join sites in order to minimize the sum of communication cost and local processing cost. According to [RM97] the sites at which joins are performed and the join-order have a crucial effect on the overall query processing cost. These needs to be included in query optimization to globally optimize distributed query processing. The fundamental assumption in these approaches is that data is stored non-redundantly. Some approaches use both semi joins and joins. These approaches identify beneficial semi joins, join order and join sites to reduce the local processing costs as well as communication costs [LW86]. In these approaches it is assumed that relations are pre-selected. These algorithms have a high computational complexity, which limits its applicability [YL89].

In distributed query processing, copy identification is an important issue as the cost of processing a query varies significantly with respect to the file copies used [RM97]. The number of possible solutions grows exponentially with respect to the number of files [RM97]. Thus optimal copy identification and the determination of an optimal query processing strategy are interdependent. The use of criteria such as minimization of sites containing required files is not likely to result in globally optimal solutions [YC84] [YC83].

1.2 The Problem

A large number of queries are posed against distributed databases spread across the globe. These queries need to be processed efficiently. For this purpose, optimal query processing strategies generating efficient query processing plans are devised. In distributed database systems, due to replication of relations at multiple sites, the relations required to answer a query may require access of data from many sites. This leads to exponential increase in the number of possible alternative query plans to process a query [IK90]. However, it is not computationally feasible to explore all possible query plans in such a large search space [IK90]. This problem in literature is referred to as a combinatorial optimization problem in distributed databases [JK84]. The query plan that gives rise to cost-effective query processing is considered

necessary and should be generated for a given query [VSV11]. The problem, discussed in [VSV11], has been addressed in this dissertation. This problem can be illustrated with the help of following example:

Consider a query that accesses four relations R_1 , R_2 , R_3 and R_4 , which are distributed across multiple sites. The relation-site matrix is shown in Figure 1.4.

Relations	Sites			
R ₁	S ₂	S_4	S ₆	S_8
R ₂	S ₂	S ₃	S ₅	S ₇
R ₃	S_2	\mathbf{S}_1	S ₉	S ₉
R ₄	S_2	S ₃	S_4	S_2

Figure 1.4: Relation-site matrix

The valid query plans are given in Figure 1.5.

8 5 2 2	R_1 in site S_8 , R_2 in site S_5 , R_3 in site S_2 and R_4 in site S_2
4 5 9 2	R_1 in site S_4 , R_2 in site S_5 , R_3 in site S_9 and R_4 in site S_2
2 2 2 3	R_1 in site S_2 , R_2 in site S_2 , R_3 in site S_2 and R_4 in site S_3
2 2 2 2	R_1 in site S_2 , R_2 in site S_2 , R_3 in site S_2 and R_4 in site S_2
5 5 2 2	R_1 in site S_5 , R_2 in site S_5 , R_3 in site S_2 and R_4 in site S_2

Figure 1.5: Query Plans

As the number of sites containing the relations accessed by the query increases, the number of possible valid query plans also increases. One way to generate query plans that lead to efficient query processing is by reducing the number of sites involved in query processing [VSV11]. As the number of distinct sites involved in processing the query decreases, the site-to-site communication cost decreases. Thus, the query plan should involve less number of sites. For the query plans, given in Figure 1.5, the first query plan involves 3 sites, the second query plan involves 4 sites, the third query plan involves 2 sites and the fourth query plan involves only 1 site. Accordingly, the fourth query plan is preferred over others, as it involves the least number of sites i.e. 1.

In case the numbers of sites involved in the query plans are equal, the query plan having sites with higher concentration of relations is more desirable [VSV11]. Since in this case the join operations between relations are performed at a single site. For the query plans in Figure 1.5, the third and the fifth query plans involve the same number of sites, i.e. 2. The third query plan has three relations R_1 , R_2 and R_3 in site S_2 and relation R_4 at site S_3 whereas the fifth query plan has two relations each in site S_5 and in site S_2 . So, the third query plan has a higher concentration of relations at an individual site i.e. 3 and therefore should be preferred over the fifth query plan.

The above two aspects are used to define a 'close' query plan in [VSV11]. The query plan involving fewer sites, and having higher concentration of relations, is considered more 'close' and is preferred over the others. For the query plans in Figure 1.5, the ordering of query plans, based on descending order of closeness, is given in Figure 1.6.

2 2 2 2	R_1 in site S_2 , R_2 in site S_2 , R_3 in site S_2 and R_4 in site S_2
2 2 2 3	R_1 in site S_2 , R_2 in site S_2 , R_3 in site S_2 and R_4 in site S_3
5 5 2 2	R_1 in site S_5 , R_2 in site S_5 , R_3 in site S_2 and R_4 in site S_2
8 5 2 2	R_1 in site S_8 , R_2 in site S_5 , R_3 in site S_2 and R_4 in site S_2
4 5 9 2	R_1 in site S_4 , R_2 in site S_5 , R_3 in site S_9 and R_4 in site S_2

Figure 1.6: Query Plans ordered based on "close" Query Plans

The query plans higher in the order involve fewer sites and higher concentration and therefore should be generated before query plans that are lower in the order involving larger number of sites.

Based on the two aspects discussed above, a cost function, that computes the cost of proximity of data relevant for answering a user query, is defined in [VSV11]. This cost, referred to as Query Processing Cost (QPC), is given below:

$$QPC = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \frac{S_i}{N} \left(1 - \frac{S_i}{N} \right)$$

Where *M* is the number of sites accessed by the query plan S_i is the number of times the i^{th} site is used in query plan, *N* is the number of relations accessed by the query.

The QPC varies between zero and (N-1)/N. Zero indicates that all the relations accessed by the queries, reside at the same site. (N-1)/N indicates that each of the relations, accessed by the query, is in different sites. The query plans having less QPC are considered "close" and therefore are generated before the ones having higher QPC.

1.3 Aim

The query plan generation problem, based on the above heuristic, has been solved using Genetic Algorithms in [VSV11]. In this dissertation, an attempt has been made to solve this query plan generation problem using particle swarm optimization. The dissertation aims to address this problem in the following manner:

- (i) A query plan generation problem is formulated as a single objective optimization problem where the objective is to minimize the Query Processing Cost, as defined above. This problem is solved using Set based Comprehensive Learning Particle Swarm Optimization (S-CLPSO). The performance of the S-CLPSO based approach is compared with the query plan generation approach based on Genetic algorithms.
- (ii) The query processing cost (QPC), as discussed above, defines "close" query plans as those that involve fewer sites and higher concentration of relations in sites. The former can be formulated as the site communication cost (SCC) and the latter can be formulated as the relation concentration gain (RCG). These formulations, which are motivated by [PV02(c)], are given below:

Objective 1: The first objective considered is the minimization of total communication cost. It is based on the number of sites required to process a user query, lesser the number of sites involved in query processing, lesser will be the communication between the sites. As a result, query processing will be efficient. So if s is the number of sites being used and m is the number of communications then this objective can be calculated by the following expression:

$Min \ SCC = m \times s$

Where s is the number of sites being used and m is the number of communications

Objective 2: Another objective considered is that if there are more than one query plans having the minimum number of required sites, the query plan having sites with greater concentration of relations provides efficient results and shall accordingly be preferred over the others. So if n is the number of relations in the query and c_i is the count of sites and arranged in decreasing order then this objective can be calculated by the following expression:

$$Max RCG = \sum_{i=1}^{s} (n-i+1)c_i$$

Where n is the number of relations in the query, c_i is the count of sites arranged in decreasing order and s is the number of sites involved.

Thus, minimizing QPC comprises of minimizing SCC and maximizing RCG. So, the single objective query plan generation problem is formulated as a bi-objective query plan generation problem with the two objectives namely minimizing SCC and maximizing RCG. This bi-objective problem is solved using Set based Comprehensive Learning Parallel Particle Swarm Optimization (S-CLPPSO). The performance of the S-CLPPSO based approach is compared with the single-objective query plan generation approach based on S-CLPSO.

1.4 Organization of the Dissertation

The dissertation is organized as follows: Chapter 2 discusses query plan generation using single-objective particle swarm optimization (PSO). The bi-objective query plan generation problem is solved using multi-objective particle swarm optimization (MOPSO) technique in chapter 3. Chapter 4 is conclusion.

CHAPTER 2

Distributed Query Plan Generation Using PSO

In nature, a large number of insects and other small organisms are generally organized in hierarchies, e.g. ants, bees and fish etc. In these organisms although each individual agent has limited responses, the agents all together exhibit fascinating behavior and obvious traits of intelligence. For example, fish maintain a greater mutual distance when swimming carefree, while they come together in very dense groups in the presence of predators [U4]. In order to preserve the personal integrity of each member of the group, the members of the group respond collectively against the external threats. The swarm is able to change its current form rapidly by breaking into smaller parts and then reuniting again when there is no danger. This observed behavior of natural systems has stimulated scientific curiosity regarding the underlying rules that produce this behavior. Systems, where such collective phenomena occur, prepare the ground for the development of swarm intelligence [U7].

2.1 Swarm Intelligence

Swarm intelligence is a branch of artificial intelligence that studies the collective behavior and emergent properties of complex, self-organized, decentralized systems with social structure [U16]. Although each agent has a very limited action space with no central control, the aggregated behavior of the whole swarm exhibits traits of intelligence i.e. an ability to react to environmental changes and decision-making capacities [U5]. Notwithstanding their physical or structural differences, such systems share common properties based on **five** basic principles of swarm intelligence, which are discussed next.

2.1.1 Basic Principles of Swarm Intelligence

The five basic principles of swarm intelligence are: proximity, quality, diverse responses, stability and adaptability [M94]. Proximity is the ability to perform space and time computation. The group should be able to do elementary space and time computations. Since space and time translate into energy expenditure, the group should have some capability to calculate the benefit of a particular response to the environment in these terms [SK86]. Quality is the ability to respond to environmental quality factors. The group should be able to respond not only to time and space considerations, but also to the quality factors, e.g. quality of foodstuffs or safety of location. Diverse **Responses** are the ability to deliver a multiplicity of different responses. The group should not allocate all of its resource along extremely narrow lines. It should seek to allocate its resources along many modes as assurance against the abrupt change in anyone of them due to environmental fluctuations. Stability is the ability to preserve robust behaviors under mild environmental changes. The group should not change its behavior from one mode to another with every fluctuation of the environment. Such changes consume energy without producing a useful return for the investment. Adaptability is the ability to change behavior when it is dictated by external factors. When the rewards for changing a behavioral mode are expected to be worth the investment in energy, the group should be able to change its behavioral mode.

2.1.2 Swarm Intelligence Techniques

Three main swarm intelligence optimization algorithms are: Stochastic Diffusion Search, Ant Colony optimization and Particle Swarm Optimization [B89] [D92] [EK95].

2.1.2.1 Stochastic Diffusion Search (SDS)

It is an agent-based probabilistic global search and optimization technique [B89]. It is particularly suitable to problems in which the objective function can be decomposed into multiple independent partial-functions [U6]. In this technique, each agent maintains a hypothesis that is iteratively tested by evaluating a randomly selected partial objective function parameterized by the agent's current hypothesis [U18]. Agents share hypotheses via a one-to-one communication approach. A positive feedback mechanism ensures that a population of agents eventually becomes stable around the global-best solution.

2.1.2.2 Ant Colony Optimization (ACO)

It is a novel metaheuristic, which is inspired by the foraging behavior of real ants, for solving combinatorial or other optimization problem [D92]. When real ants search for food, in the beginning they search the area surrounding their nest in an erratic manner. Once an ant finds food source, during the return trip, this ant lays down a chemical substance called pheromone on the ground. The deposited pheromone guides other ants to the food source. This indirect communication between the ants, via the pheromone trail, is known as stigmergy [U15]. This stigmergy facilitates them to locate the shortest path between their nest and food source. Artificial ants, imitating the real ants, locate optimal solutions by exploring and exploiting search space representing all possible solutions and record their positions and the quality of their solutions in order to achieve better results in subsequent iterations [U2].

2.1.2.3 Particle Swarm Optimization

Particle swarm optimization (PSO) is a population based stochastic optimization technique designed for continuous nonlinear optimization problem [U12]. It is based on the simulation of the social behavior of birds within a flock. In an experiment, given in

[EK95], an attempt to graphically simulate the elegant and erratic choreography of a bird flock was carried out [EK95]. The aim was to determine patterns that govern the ability of birds to fly synchronously and to abruptly change direction with a regrouping in an optimal formation [SM+08]. From the initial idea, the concept developed into a simple and efficient Optimization technique.

This dissertation focuses on solving distributed query plan generation problem using particle swarm optimization, which is discussed in detail next.

2.2 Particle Swarm Optimization

In Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), particles are simply the agents that fly through the search space and simultaneously record the best position that they have hitherto come across. This value is identified as personal best or *pbest* and is possibly communicated at times. Another best value that is recorded by the PSO is the best value attained up to now by any particle in the swarm. This value is called global best or *gbest*.

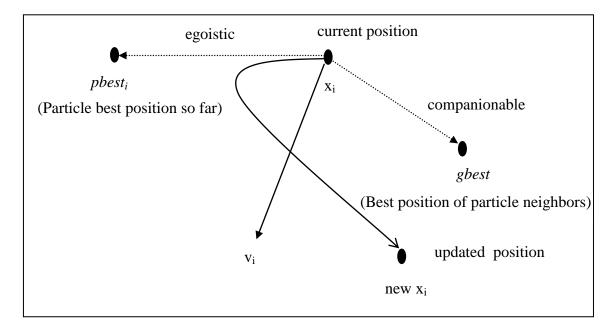


Figure 2.1: Basic Concept of PSO [U17]

Figure 2.1 represents the basic concept of PSO which is to accelerate each particle toward its *pbest* and the *gbest* locations, with a random weighted acceleration at each time step in order to update its position [U11].

The original version of PSO [EK95] is defined by the following equations (1) and (2) as:

$$v_{id}(t+1) = v_{id}(t) + c_1 r_1 \left(p_{id}(t) - x_{id}(t) \right) + c_2 r_2 \left(p_{gd}(t) - x_{id}(t) \right)$$
(1)

$$x_{id}(t+1) = x_{id}(t) + v_{id}(t+1)$$
(2)

$$i = 1, 2..., N, d = 1, 2, ..., n$$

Where *i* is the particle, *t* denotes the iteration counter, r_1 and r_2 are random variables uniformly distributed within [0,1], c_1 and c_2 are weighting factors also called cognitive and social parameters respectively, *g* represents the index of the particle with the best fitness, and *d* is the dth dimension. $v_{id}(t)$ denotes velocity of the particle at time't'. $p_{id}(t)$ denotes personal best position of the particle at time 't'. $x_{id}(t)$ is the position of the particle at time 't'. $p_{gd}(t)$ denotes the global best position of the particle at time 't'. $x_{id}(t+1)$ denotes the position of the particle at time 't+1'. $v_{id}(t+1)$ denotes the velocity of the particle at time't+1'. The update of position $x_{id}(t+1)$ and velocity $v_{id}(t+1)$ of *i*th particle in the swarm [PV88]] is shown in Figure 2.2.

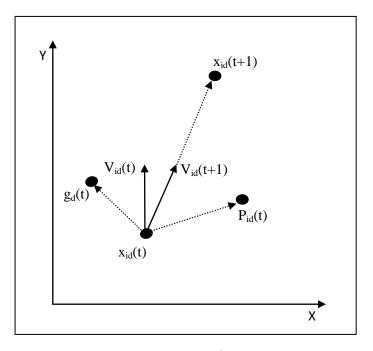


Figure 2.2: Position and velocity update of *i*th particle in the swarm [U10]

In every iteration, after the update and evaluation of particle's position and velocity is completed, the *pbest* and *gbest* positions (memory) are also updated. The flow chart describing the PSO algorithm is shown in Figure 2.3.

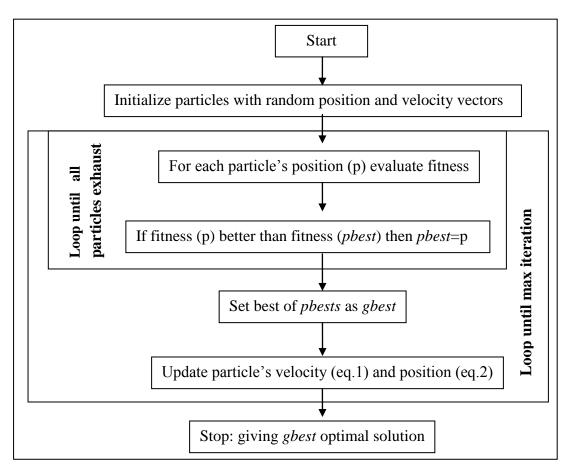


Figure 2.3: Flow chart depicting the General PSO Algorithm [U19]

2.3 Refinements in PSO

Early PSO variants performed satisfactorily for simple optimization problems. However, their crucial deficiencies were revealed as soon as they were applied on harder problems with large search spaces and a multitude of local minima.

2.3.1 The Concept of Inertia Weight

The first significant issue was the swarm explosion effect. This deficiency was due to uncontrollable increase in the magnitude of velocities. For this purpose, a new parameter, ω called inertia weight, was introduced in equation (1), resulting in a new PSO variant [ES98] defined by the following equations (3) and (4) as:

$$v_{id}(t+1) = \omega v_{id}(t) + c_1 r_1 \left(p_{id}(t) - x_{id}(t) \right) + c_2 r_2 \left(p_{gd}(t) - x_{id}(t) \right)$$
(3)

 $x_{id}(t+1) = x_{id}(t) + v_{id}(t+1)$ (4)

$$i = 1, 2, ..., N, d = 1, 2, ..., n$$

The inertia weight parameter can be varied as per the requirement for global and local search. A large inertia weight is more suitable for global search, and a small inertia weight ensures local search [SE98]. The inertia weight ω is selected such that the effect of $v_{id}(t)$ fades away gradually over iterations.

2.3.2 The Concept of Neighborhood

The global information exchange scheme allows each particle to know instantly the overall best position after each iteration. This might lead to pre-mature convergence. For this purpose, the concept of neighborhood was introduced with the main idea to limit the information exchange amongst the neighbor and not amongst all particles in the swarm [K99] [MKN03]. Each particle assumes a set of particles to be in its neighborhood and in each iteration, it communicates its best position only to the neighboring particles, instead of the whole swarm. So (global best) p_{gd} is changed to (local best) p_{ld} in equation (1) resulting in a new PSO variant [K99] [MKN03] defined by the following equations (5) and (6) as:

$$v_{id}(t+1) = \omega v_{id}(t) + c_1 r_1 \left(p_{id}(t) - x_{id}(t) \right) + c_2 r_2 \left(p_{ld}(t) - x_{id}(t) \right)$$
(5)

$$x_{id}(t+1) = x_{id}(t) + v_{id}(t+1)$$
(6)

i = 1, 2, ..., N, d = 1, 2, ..., n

The scheme for determining the neighbors of each particle is called neighborhood topology [K99][MKN03]. In case of complex problem, PSO considering small neighborhood performs better, while PSO considering a large neighborhood is more useful on simple problems [ZSD10]. Also, topology can change with time instead of remaining fixed throughout the execution. Such dynamic topologies have been used in multiobjective optimization problems [HE02]. Nevertheless, the vast majority of local best (lbest) models in literature are based on ring or star topology, as shown in Figure 2.4.

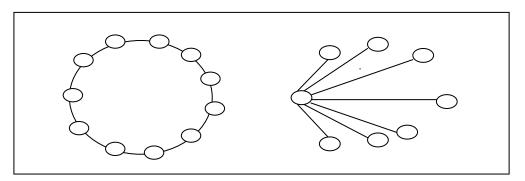


Figure 2.4: Common neighborhood topologies of PSO: ring (left) and star (right) [U13]

2.3.3 The Concept of Constriction Coefficient

Another method for controlling the velocities of particles is to use another parameter called constriction coefficient or constriction factor (χ) [CK02]. This modified version is defined by the following equations (7) and (8) as:

$$\begin{aligned} v_{id}(t+1) &= \chi \left[\omega v_{id}(t) + c_1 r_1 \left(p_{id}(t) - x_{id}(t) \right) + c_2 r_2 \left(p_{gd}(t) - x_{id}(t) \right) \right] & (7) \\ x_{id}(t+1) &= x_{id}(t) + v_{id}(t+1) \\ i &= 1, 2, \dots, N, \quad d = 1, 2, \dots, n \end{aligned}$$

Where χ is a parameter called constriction coefficient or constriction factor, while the rest of the parameters remain the same as in the case of previously described PSO models.

$$\chi = \frac{2}{\left|2-\phi-\sqrt{(\phi^2-4\phi)}\right|}$$
, Where $\phi = c_1 + c_2$, and $\phi > 4$

2.3.4 Hybrid PSO Algorithms

There are numerous variants of Hybrid PSO algorithms proposed in the literature that utilize basic mechanism of PSO and the natural selection mechanism, crossover, and mutation which is usually considered in Evolutionary Computing methods such as Genetic Algorithm [LRK01]. In [PPV07], a memetic algorithm based hybrid PSO approach that uses the random walk with directional exploitation local search method was proposed.

2.4 Further Refinements in PSO

Premature convergence in solving multimodal problems with large search spaces is the main drawback in most of the variants of PSO [RMN11]. In the original PSO [EK95], each particle learns from its *pbest* and *gbest* simultaneously [BH07]. The problem with this approach is that all particles in the swarm learn from the *gbest* even if the current *gbest* is far from the global optimum [PBP09]. In such circumstances, particles may simply be attracted and confined into a local optimum if the search environment is complex with various local solutions. To overcome this, three novel learning strategies were proposed in [LQ+04] to improve the performance of original PSO [EK95]. The three versions are: elite learning PSO (ELPSO), multi-exemplars learning PSO (MLPSO), and comprehensive learning PSO (CLPSO). The distributed query plan generation approach presented in this chapter is based on CLPSO discussed next.

2.4.1 Comprehensive Learning Particle Swarm Optimizer (CLPSO)

In CLPSO [LS+06], for each particle, any one of the particle in the swarm can be used as an exemplar to be learned from i.e. any one of the particles' *pbest*, including it, is used to update the velocity of a particular particle [LS+06]. Each dimension of a particle can also choose to learn from a different exemplar. With this novel learning strategy the particles have more choice in terms of exemplars to learn from. The particles can fly through a large search space. In this strategy, better quality solutions are generated effectively by using the information in the swarm.

The velocity and position updating equation in CLPSO [LS+06], for a d-dimensional problem are defined by the following equations (9) and (10) as:

$$V_i^d = \omega * V_i^d + c * rand_i^d * \left(pbest_{f_i(d)}^d - X_i^d\right)$$
(9)

$$X_i^d = X_i^d + V_i^d \tag{10}$$

Where $f_i(d)$ defines which particle's *pbest* the *i*th particle should follow on the d^{th} dimension. $pbest_{f_i(d)}^d$ can be the corresponding dimension of any particle's *pbest* including its own *pbest*, and the decision depends on the learning probability. Different initial learning probability values for different particles are set at the beginning of searching and are kept stable throughout the whole searching process.

For each dimension of particle, a random number is generated. If this random number is larger than learning probability of the particle then the corresponding dimension will learn from its own *pbest* otherwise it randomly chooses two particles out of the population, excluding itself, This is followed by comparing the fitness values of their *pbest* of the chosen two particles' and selecting the one with a better fitness values of *pbest* as an exemplar for the dimension. If a particle is an exemplar of itself on all dimensions then a dimension is chosen randomly to learn from the dimension of some other randomly chosen particle's *pbest*. New exemplars are chosen for a particle when it fails to improve itself over a pre-specified generation.

2.4.2 CLPSO's Search Behavior

The differences between the search behavior of the original PSO [EK95] and the CLPSO [LS06] were discussed in [LS+06]. In CLPSO, instead of using particle's own *pbest* and *gbest* as the exemplars, all particles' *pbest* can be considered as exemplar to

guide particle's flying direction. These operations increase the particles' initial diversity and enable the swarm to overcome premature convergence problem. Further, in the original PSO, for a certain dimension, if the *pbest* and *gbest* are on opposite sides of the particle's current position as shown in Figure 2.5, the *pbest* and *gbest* may make the particle oscillate. However, the *gbest* is more likely to provide a larger momentum, as |gbest - X| is likely to be larger than the |pbest - X|. Hence, the *gbest* may influence the particle to move in its direction even if it is in a local optimum region far from the global optimum [LS+06].

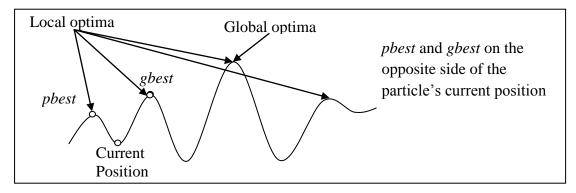


Figure 2.5: Oscillation of particle between gbest and pbest

If *pbest* and *gbest* are on the same side of the particle's current position and points to the same local optima (as shown in Figure 2.6), the particle will move in that direction and it may be impossible to jump out of the local optimum area once its falls into the same local optimum region where the *gbest* is [LS+06]. However, in CLPSO, the particle can fly in other directions by learning from other particles' *pbest* when the particle's *pbest* and *gbest* fall into the same local optimum region. Hence, CLPSO strategy has the ability to jump out of local optimum via the cooperative behavior of the whole swarm.

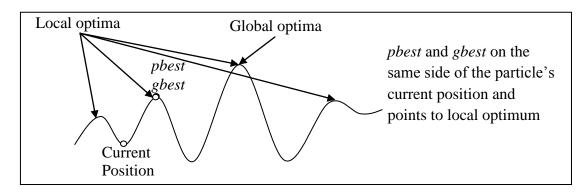


Figure 2.6: Entrapment of particle in local optima

2.5 PSO method for Discrete Optimization Problems

The original PSO is simple and efficient. It has been successful in solving a number of continuous optimization problems [EK95]. However it is not applicable for a discrete search i.e. if the position of each particle is bound to a discrete set of values. In order to extend PSO to solve discrete optimization problem, a number of discrete particle swarm optimization algorithms have been proposed in literature. The first discrete version was proposed in [KE97]. It was based on binary coding scheme. The bottleneck with this approach was that the binary coding scheme has applications in limited types of optimization problems in the discrete space. In [CZ+10], various discrete PSO (DPSO) algorithms were classified into four types. The first type is the swap-operatorbased DPSO algorithm proposed in [C04]. In this algorithm, the position of a particle is defined as a permutation of numbers. Velocity is any operator which, when applied to a position during an iteration, gives another position. Thus, it is a permutation of elements i.e. a list of transpositions. In [WH+03], a similar approach was applied for solving travelling salesman problem. The second type of DPSO algorithms are those which use space transformation techniques [SAA02] [SH06] [PW+04(a)]. In these algorithms, the position is defined as a real vector, and thus a space transformation technique is used to convert the position into its corresponding solution. The third types of DPSO algorithms define the position and velocity as a fuzzy matrix [PW+04(b)][LTL07] [WW07]. These algorithms require a defuzzification method to decode the fuzzy matrix into a feasible solution to the problem. The fourth type comprises hybrid approaches. In these approaches, the pure PSO algorithm is integrated with some other meta-heuristics [WW+07] [AMR05]. In addition to the above approaches, there exist approaches that use some problem dependent local search techniques with standard PSO algorithms to solve specific problems.

In [CZ+10], Set-based Particle Swarm Optimization (S-PSO) algorithm was proposed. It was based on the concept of set theory and probability theory. This algorithm provides a more generalized framework and is applicable to a varied class of discrete optimization problems. In S-PSO, the velocity and position updating rules are similar to that of original PSO [EK95] except that all the related arithmetic operators used in these equations are redefined on crisp sets and sets with probabilities. The parameters used in the earlier PSO, the acceleration coefficients and the inertia weight play a similar role in S-PSO. In addition to the original PSO, different improved variants of the original PSO can be extended to their corresponding discrete versions following the representation scheme in S-PSO [CZ+10].

In this dissertation, the discrete version of the CLPSO algorithm, i.e. the set-based CLPSO is used to solve distributed query plan generation problem, discussed in Chapter 1, the set-based CLPSO is discussed next.

2.5.1 The Set-Based CLPSO

The set-based CLPSO algorithm is based on a problem of finding a subset from a universal set, which satisfies some constraints and optimizes a problem specific objective function. It defines the problem as defined in [LK73]. The set-based CLPSO (S-CLPSO) algorithm uses a representation scheme similar to set based representation scheme in [CZ+10]. S-CLPSO, as in [LK73], represents each candidate solution as a crisp subset X out of the universal set E. The universal set E can be divided into n dimensions, i.e. $E = E^1 \cup E^2 \cup ... \cup E^n$. A candidate solution to the problem $X \subseteq E$ can also be divided into n dimensions, i.e. $X = X^1 \cup X^2 \cup ... \cup X^n$, where $X^j \subseteq E^j$. X satisfies the constraints Ω . The objective of the problem is to find a feasible solution X^* that optimizes f.

Velocity Updating: The velocity updating rule in S-CLPSO is the same as in [LS+06], i.e.

$$V_i^j \leftarrow \omega V_i^j + cr^j \left(PBest_{fi(j)}^j - X_i^j \right)$$

However positions, velocities and all related arithmetic operators in the above equations are redefined in the discrete space according to [CZ+10].

Position: Position is defined, according to [CZ+10], as a feasible solution to the problem. The position of the ith particle is X_i ($X_i \subseteq E$). The position is composed of n dimensions [CZ+10] as given under

$$Xi = Xi^1 \cup Xi^2 \cup ... \cup Xi^n$$
 and $X^j \subseteq E^j$ (j=1, 2... n)

Velocity: Velocity is defined as a set with possibilities. Given a crisp set E, a set with possibilities V defined on E is given by [CZ+10]

 $V = \{e/p (e) | e \in E\}, each element e \in E \text{ has a possibility } p (e) \in [0, 1] \text{ in } V.$ In the jth dimension,

 $V_i^j = \{ e/p \ (e) \ | e \in E^j \}$ is a set with possibilities defined on E^j .

Coefficient ×**Velocity:** The product of a coefficient c ($c \ge 0$) and velocity i.e. a set with possibilities V = {e/p (e) |e \in E} is defined as [CZ+10]

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{cV} &= \{ \mathrm{e}/\mathrm{p}'(\mathrm{e}) \mid \mathrm{e} \in \mathrm{E} \}, \\ \mathrm{p}'(\mathrm{e}) &= \begin{cases} 1, & if \ c \times p(e) > 1 \\ c \times p(e), & otherwise \end{cases} \end{aligned} \end{aligned}$$

Position – Position: The difference between two positions is defined by using the traditional definition of the minus operator between two crisp sets [CZ+10]. Given two crisp sets A and B, the relative complement A–B of B in A is given by [CZ+10]

 $A - B = \{e \mid e \in A \text{ and } e \notin B\}$

Coefficient × (**Position** – **Position**): The multiplication operator between a coefficient c ($c \ge 0$) and a crisp set E' (Position–Position) is defined as [CZ+10]

$$cE' = \{e/p'(e) | e \in E\},\$$

$$p'(e) = \begin{cases} 1, & if \ e \in E' \ and \ c > 1\\ c, & if \ e \in E' \ and \ 0 \le c \le 1\\ 0, & if \ e \notin E' \end{cases}$$

Velocity + **Velocity:** The plus operator between two sets $V_1 = \{e/p_1 (e) | e \in E\}$ and $V_2 = \{e/p_2 (e) | e \in E\}$ with possibilities is defined as [CZ+10]

$$V_1 + V_2 = \{e/max (p_1 (e), p_2 (e)) | e \in E\}$$

When the velocity of the particle V_i is updated, the particle adjusts its current position X_i to build a new position X'_i .

Position Updating: A new method was defined in [CZ+10] to update the position of a particle after its velocity has been updated. For this purpose, a particle learns from some elements of the updated velocity. First the set with probability V_i is converted into a crisp set. In each iteration, a random number $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ is generated for each particle. If the probability p (e) for each element e in the jth dimension is not smaller than α , element e is retained in the crisp set, i.e.

$$cut_{\alpha} (V_i^J) = \{ e | e/p (e) \in V_i^J \text{ and } p (e) \ge \alpha \}$$

Now the particle *i* learns from the elements in $cut_{\alpha}(V_i^j)$ to build a new position. If the construction of new position X_i^j is not finished and there is no available element in $cut_{\alpha}(V_i^j)$, particle *i* reuses the elements in the previous X_i^j to build new X_i^j . The constraints Ω must be taken into account during the construction.

2.6 Query Plan Generation

S-CLPSO algorithm is used to solve the Distributed query plan generation problem. The algorithm considers a relation-site matrix that represents all the possible sites where a relation is available. For a given query, the relations accessed by the query are considered. Using the site-relation matrix, the sites where the relations accessed by the query reside are identified. Many possible query plans or combinations of site-relation may exist and each such combination represents a particle, which is represented as an ordered pair of relation-site combination. The universal set E consists of relations and all possible ordered pairs of each of them with the sites where they reside. Each query plan X_i is a subset of the universal set E, that is, $X \subseteq E$. X can also be divided into n dimensions, i.e. $X = X^1 \cup X^2 \cup ... \cup X^n$, where $X^j \subseteq E^j$. X is a feasible query plan only if it contains all the relations accessed by a query and each relation is selected from one of the sites from amongst all the sites where it resides in. The velocity of a particle (query plan) is the relation-site ordered pair and the randomly associated probability with it. The query plan generation algorithm based on S-CLPSO is given in Figure 2.7.

For the given user query, the algorithm first generates a universal relation set E for the relations accessed by the query (Step1). Next, the initial population of particles along with their velocities is randomly generated using the site-relation matrix (Step2).

The fitness of each particle (query plan) is computed using the (Query Processing Cost (QPC)) function given in [VSV11] (Step3). Initially the *pbest* value of any particle (query plan) is initialized to current position (Step4). Now, for each particle of the population ps, learning probability P_c is computed (Step6). Next, the velocity of all the particles of the population is updated (Step7). In order to update the velocity of a particle, for each of dimension of the particle (query plan), a random number is generated. If the random number is larger than its learning probability P_c^i then its corresponding dimension will learn from its own *pbest* otherwise it will learn from another particle's *pbest*. In the latter case, two particles are chosen randomly, excluding the particle whose velocity is being updated. The QPC values of their pbest are compared and the one with lower *pbest* value is considered as exemplar for the given particle. After the

velocity has been updated, the position of the particle is accordingly updated. Next, QPC of the updated particle (query plan) is computed (step 8). The *pbest* value and topKQueryPlan are accordingly updated (step 9, Step10). These steps are repeated until a pre-specified number of generations are completed or no improvement is observed over a pre-specified number of generations (Step11). At the end, the top-K query plans are produced as output (Step12).

T	
Input:	rsm: relation-site matrix
	ps : Population Size
	max_iter: Maximum number of iterations
	ω : Inertia weight // linearly decreasing from 0.9 to 0.4
	c: Cognitive acceleration constant (2.0)
Output:	
Method	
Step1:	Obtain the universal set E based on the available relation site matrix rsm.
Step2:	Generate initial particles (query plans) and their associated velocities randomly from the available relation site matrix equal to the Population size ps
Step3:	from the available relation site matrix equal to the Population size, ps.
steps:	Calculate the fitness (query plan cost) of each particle. $-M = S_i \left(1 - S_i \right)$
	$f = QPC = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \frac{S_i}{N} \left(1 - \frac{S_i}{N} \right)$
	Where M is the number of sites accessed by the query plan,
	S_i is the number of times the i^{th} site is used in query plan,
	N is the number of relations accessed by the query.
Step4:	Set $pbest_i = X_i$ for all $1 \le i \le ps(swarm \ size)$
Step5:	For each particle of the swarm do steps 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10.
Step6:	Calculate learning probability (Pc_i) for the i th particle as:
	$\left(ern\left(\frac{10(i-1)}{i}\right)-1\right)$
	$Pc_{i} = 0.05 + 0.45 * \frac{\left(exp\left(\frac{10(i-1)}{ps-1}\right) - 1\right)}{(exp(10) - 1)}$
	Where, ps is the total number of particles in the swarm.
Step7:	For each dimension of the particle do steps a and b
	(a) Generate a random number $(rand_i)$
	(b) IF $rand_i > Pc_i$
	Update position and velocity using $pbest_i$;
	ELSE
	Choose two particles (p and q) randomly;
	Compare the fitness values of their <i>pbest</i> and find the winner particle (say p);
	Use the winner's <i>pbest</i> (<i>pbest</i> _p) as exemplar for the chosen dimension
	Update position and velocity using $pbest_p$;
Step8:	IF a particle is an exemplar of itself on all dimensions
	Randomly choose one dimension to learn from the dimension of some other
Stop0.	randomly chosen particle's <i>pbest</i> .
Step9: Step10:	Calculate the query plan cost of the updated particle Update the <i>pbest</i> of the particle
-	Update Top K query plan
-	IF (iteration < max_iter and not stagnated) GOTO Step 6.
-	Return Top K query plan as TopkQueryPlan
Supro.	

Figure 2.7: Query Plan Generation Algorithm using S-CLPSO

2.7 An Example

Input:

A relation-site matrix (rsm) that represents eight relations R_1 , R_2 , R_3 , R_4 , R_5 , R_6 , R_7 , R_8 distributed among eight sites S_1 , S_2 , S_3 , S_4 , S_5 , S_6 , S_7 , S_8 is shown in Figure 2.8.

Relations \Sites	S_1	S_2	S_3	S ₄	S_5	S ₆	S ₇	S ₈
R ₁	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
\mathbf{R}_2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
R ₃	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1
R ₄	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0
R ₅	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1
R ₆	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
R ₇	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
R ₈	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0

Consider a query that accesses the relations R_3 , R_4 , R_7 and R_8

Let

Population Size (ps) =5,

Maximum number of iteration (max_iter) =20,

Inertial Weight ω =linearly decreasing from 0.9 to 0.4,

Cognitive acceleration constant c=2.0

Step 1: Using rsm, the universal set E is given by:

$$E = \bigcup_{i=1}^{8} E^i$$

Where

$$E^{1} = \{(1,1), (1,3), (1,4), (1,5), (1,7), (1,8)\}$$

$$E^{2} = \{(2,1), (2,1), (2,5), (2,6)\}$$

$$E^{3} = \{(3,2), (3,3), (3,5), (3,6), (3,7), (3,8)\}$$

$$E^{4} = \{(4,1), (4,2), (4,3), (4,5), (4,7)\}$$

$$E^{5} = \{(5,1), (5,2), (5,4), (5,5), (5,6), (5,7), (5,8)\}$$

$$E^{6} = \{(6,3), (6,4), (6,5), (6,6), (6,7), (6,8)\}$$

$$E^{7} = \{(7,2), (7,3), (7,4), (7,5), (7,6), (7,7), (7,9)\}$$

$$E^{8} = \{(8,1), (8,2), (8,3), (8,4), (8,5), (8,6)\}$$

Step 2: The randomly generated initial particles (query plans) along with their associated velocities are given in Figure 2.9.

Particle	Position	Velocity
(i)	X_i	V_i
1	$\{(3,2),(4,3),(7,2),(8,3)\}$	{(3,2) /.2176,(4,1) /.0815,(7,4) /.0519,(8,1)
2	$\{(3,5),(4,2),(7,2),(8,2)\}$	{(3,5) /.3906,(4,2) /.0086,(7,7) /.1176,(8,4)
3	{(3,3),(4,7),(7,6),(8,6)}	{(3,5) /.6670,(4,3) /.0498,(7,5) /.4397,(8,2)
4	{(3,2),(4,7),(7,4),(8,3)}	{(3,3) /.9206,(4,5) /.3756,(7,5) /.6369,(8,6)
5	$\{(3,6),(4,7),(7,6),(8,4)\}$	{(3,2) /.0878,(4,2) /.9573,(7,4) /.3035,(8,2)

Figure 2.9: Initial particles and their velocities

Step 3: The fitness defined as the query processing cost of each particle is computed,

using the formula of QPC [50] given below, is shown in Figure 2.10

Particles (i)	$f_i = QPC_i = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \frac{S_i}{N} \left(1 - \frac{S_i}{N}\right)$
1	0.5000
2	0.3750
3	0.6250
4	0.7500
5	0.6250

Figure 2.10: Initial QPC of particles

Step 4: Initially for each of the five particles (query plans) X₁, X₂, X₃, X₄ and X₅

 $pbest_i = X_i$, where i=1 to 5

Step 5: Velocity update for the first particle (query plan) X₁ is computed as:

Learning Probability (Pc_1) for the particle X₁ is computed using the equation:

$$Pc_{i} = 0.05 + 0.45 * \frac{\left(exp\left(\frac{10(i-1)}{ps-1}\right) - 1\right)}{(exp(10) - 1)}$$
$$Pc_{i} = 0.0500$$

For each dimension $j(1 \le j \le 4)$ a random number is generated and compared with the learning probability Pc_1 to choose the particles amongst X_{1} , X_{2} , X_{3} , X_{4} and X_5 from whose *pbest* X_1 has to learn from.

Suppose for j=1, random number generated is 0.3900, which is greater than Pc₁. Thus, the first dimension would learn from *pbest* of particle X₁ and thus X₁ will learn from its own *pbest* i.e. $f_1(1)=1$

$$pbest_{f_{1}(1)}^{1} = pbest_{1}^{1}$$
$$(pbest_{1}^{1} - x_{1}^{1}) = \{(3, 2) - (3, 2)\} = [\emptyset\}$$

Suppose for j=2, random number generated is 0.0342, which is less than Pc₁. Thus two particles X₅ and X₂ are randomly generated. Since the fitness of X₂ i.e. QPC₂ is 0.3750 is less than QPC₅ 0.6250 of X₅, particle X₂ is selected i.e. $f_1(2)=2$

$$pbest_{f_1(2)}^2 = pbest_2^2$$
$$(pbest_2^2 - x_1^2) = \{(4, 2)-(4, 3)\} = \{(4, 2)\}$$

Suppose for j=3, random number generated is 0.4941, which is greater than Pc₁. Thus, the third dimension would learn from *pbest* of particle X₁ and thus X₁ will learn from its own *pbest* i.e. $f_1(3)=1$

$$pbest_1^3 = pbest_1^3$$
$$(pbest_1^3 - x_1^3) = \{(7, 2) - (7, 2)\} = \{\emptyset\}$$

Suppose for j=4, random number generated is 0.2602, which is greater than Pc₁. Thus, the fourth dimension would learn from *pbest* of particle X₁ and thus X₁ will learn from its own *pbest* i.e. $f_1(4)=1$

$$pbest_{1}^{4} = pbest_{1}^{4}$$
$$(pbest_{1}^{4} - x_{1}^{4}) = \{(8, 3) - (8, 3)\} = \{\emptyset\}$$

Next, the velocity of the particle X₁ is updated using the velocity update equation:

 $v_i^j \leftarrow \omega v_i^j + cr^j \left(pbest_{f_i(j)}^j - x_i^j \right)$

For this, the inertia component value of particle X_1 for each dimension is computed using the following rule:

The product of a coefficient c ($c \ge 0$) and velocity i.e. a set with possibilities V = {e/p (e) |e \in E} is defined as:

$$cV = \{e/p'(e) | e \in E\},\$$
$$p'(e) = \begin{cases} 1, & ifc \times p(e) > \\ c \times p(e), & otherwise \end{cases}$$

The inertia component value for each dimension is shown in Figure 2.11

ω	v_1^j	ωv_1^j
0.9	$v_1^1 = \{(3,2)/.2176\}$	$\omega v_1^1 = \{(3,2) / .1958\}$
0.9	$v_1^2 = \{(4,1)/.0815\}$	$\omega v_1^2 = \{(4,1) / .0734 \}$
0.9	$v_1^3 = \{(7,4)/.0519\}$	$\omega v_1^3 = \{(7,4) / .0467\}$
0.9	$v_1^4 = \{(8,1) / .0587\}$	$\omega v_1^4 = \{(8,1) / .0528 \}$

Figure 2.10: Updated inertia component

Thus the inertia of the particle X_1 is

 $\omega V_1 = \{(3,2) \ /.1958, (4,1) \ /.0734, (7,4) \ /.0467, (8,1) \ /.0528\}$

Next, cognitive component values of particle X₁for each dimension are computed using the following rule:

The multiplication operator between a coefficient c ($c \ge 0$) and a crisp set E' (Position–Position) is defined as:

$$cE' = \{e/p'(e) | e \in E\},\$$

$$p'(e) = \begin{cases}
1, & if e \in E' and c > 1 \\
c, & if e \in E' and \ 0 \le c \le 1 \\
0, & if e \notin E'
\end{cases}$$

The cognitive component computation for each dimension of particle X_1 is shown in Figure 2.12.

c	r ^j	$\left(pbest_{f_i(j)}^j - x_i^j\right)$	$c \mathbb{P} \left[pbest_{f_i(j)}^j - x_i^j \right]$
2.0	0.3245	{Ø}	{Ø}
2.0	0.4665	{(4,2)}	{(4,2)/0.9331
2.0	0.0564	{Ø}	{Ø}
2.0	0.9323	{Ø}	{Ø}

Figure 2.11: Updated cognitive component

Thus the cognitive component of the particle is

 $c * rand * (pbest_{f_1} - x_1) = \{(4, 2) / .9331\}$

Now, new updated velocity is computed using the following rule:

The plus operator between two sets $V_1 = \{e/p_1 (e) | e \in E\}$ and $V_2 = \{e/p_2 (e) | e \in E\}$ with possibilities is defined as:

$$V_{1} + V_{2} = \{e/\max (p_{1} (e), p_{2} (e)) | e \in E\}$$

$$V'_{1} = \omega V_{1} + c * rand * (pbest_{f_{1}} - x_{1})$$

$$= \{(3,2) / .1958, (4,1) / .0734, (7,4) / .0467, (8,1) / .0528\} + \{(4, 2) / .9331\}$$

$$= \{(3, 2) / 0.1958, (4, 2) / 0.9331, (7, 4) / 0.0467, (8, 1) / 0.0528\}$$

Next, the position of the particle is updated using the updated velocity. The current position X_1 = {(3, 2), (4, 3), (7, 2), (8, 3)} is updated to a new position X'_1 in the following manner

 $X_i' \leftarrow position updating (X_i, V_i)$

First, the set with possibilities V_i is converted into a crisp set. For each dimension, a random number $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ is generated for each particle. For each element *e* in the jth dimension, if it's corresponding possibility p (e) in Vi^j is not smaller than α , element e is reserved in a crisp set, that is:

$$cut_{\alpha}(V_i^j) = \{ e | e/p (e) \in V_i^j \text{ and } p (e) \ge \alpha \}.$$

The crisp set for V_1 is shown in Figure 2.13

j	α	p(e)	Comparison between α and p(e)
1	0.7356	0.1958	$p(e) \le \alpha$
2	0.0421	0.9331	$p(e) \ge \alpha$
3	0.1259	0.0467	$p(e) \le \alpha$
4	0.6421	0.0528	$p(e) \le \alpha$

Figure 2.12	Crisp Set for V ₁
-------------	------------------------------

Elements *e* reserved in a crisp set: $cut_{\alpha}(V_1) = \{(4, 2)\}$. So, element $\{(4, 2)\}$ would be used for updating the current position $\{(3, 2), (4, 3), (7, 2), (8, 3)\}$ of particle X_1 .

The new updated Position would have the relation R_4 accessed from site S_2 i.e.

 $X_{1}^{'} = \{(3, 2), (4, 2), (7, 2), (8, 3)\}$

The fitness value (QPC) of X_1' is $f_1' = 0.3750$

Similarly, the velocity and position for other three particles are updated. The updated position and velocity of particles X_1 , X_2 , X_3 , X_4 and X_5 are given in Figure 2.14.

i	Updated Position (X _i ')	Updated Velocity (Vi')
1	$\{(3, 2), (4, 2), (7, 2), (8, 3)\}$	{(3, 2)/0.1958,(4,2)/0.9331,(7, 4)/0.0467,(8,1)/0.0528}
2	$\{(3, 5), (4, 2), (7, 2), (8, 6)\}$	{(3, 5)/0.3515,(4,2)/0.0078,(7, 7)/0.1058,(8,6)/0.4737}
3	$\{(3, 5), (4, 7), (7, 5), (8, 2)\}$	{(3, 5)/0.6003,(4,3)/0.0448,(7, 5)/0.3957,(8,2)/0.4945}
4	$\{(3,3), (4,5), (7,5), (8,3)\}$	{(3, 3)/0.8286,(4,5)/0.3380,(7, 5)/0.5732,(8,6)/0.5249}
5	$\{(3, 6), (4, 7), (7, 6), (8, 4)\}$	{(3, 2)/0.0790,(4,2)/0.8615,(7, 4)/0.2732,(8,2)/0.4646}

Figure 2.13: Updated Position and Velocity

The updated QPC of the particles X1, X2, X3, X4 and X5 are shown in Figure 2.15

i	Updated QPC (f _i ')	
1	0.6250	
2	0.3750	
3	0.6250	
4	0.5000	
5	0.6250	

Figure 2.14: Updated QPC

In a similar manner, the position and velocities are updated of the particles X_1 , X_2 , X_3 , X_4 and X_5 for a pre-specified number of iterations. The top-4 query plans generated after 20 iterations is shown in Figure 2.16

Query Plans	QPC
$\{(3, 2), (4, 2), (7, 2), (8, 2)\}$	0.0000
$\{(3, 2), (4, 2), (7, 2), (8, 3)\}$	0.3750
$\{(3, 6), (4, 7), (7, 6), (8, 6)\}$	0.3750
$\{(3, 3), (4, 5), (7, 5), (8, 3)\}$	0.5000

Figure 2.15: Top-4 query plans

2.8 Experimental Results

The GA based query plan generation algorithm and S-CLPSO based query plan generation algorithm are implemented in MATLAB 7.4 in Windows XP environment. The two algorithms were compared by conducting experiments on an Intel based 2 GHz PC having 1 GB RAM. The comparisons were carried out on parameters like number of relations, average query processing cost (QPC), top-K query plans and number of iterations.

First, line graphs were plotted to compare S-CLPSO and GA based algorithms on Average QPC against the number of iterations for selecting top-10 query plans. These graphs for the number of relations n=6, 8, 10, 12 and 14 are shown in figures 2.16, 2.17, 2.18, 2.19 and 2.20 respectively. Line graphs for different pairs of crossover and mutation probabilities ($GA(P_c, P_m)$) were plotted.

It can be observed from the graphs that the GA based algorithm (crossover probability 0.6 and mutation probability 0.05), in case of 6 and 8 relations, is able to generate Top-10 query plans having almost equal average QPC. Whereas, for higher number of relations, i.e. for 10, 12, 14 relations the S-CLPSO based algorithm is able to generate top-10 query plans with relatively lower average QPC. So, it can be said that, as the number of relations in the query increases, the S-CLPSO based algorithm, in comparison to GA based algorithm, is able to generate relatively better query plans with respect to the cost of query processing.

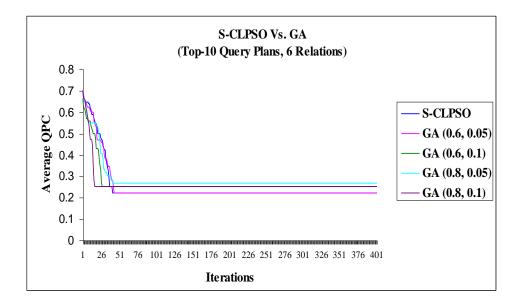


Figure 2.16: S-CLPSO vs. GA – Average QPC vs. Iterations (Top-10 Query Plans, 6 Relations)

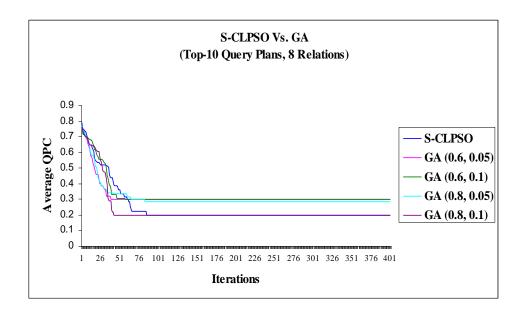


Figure 2.17: S-CLPSO vs. GA – Average QPC vs. Iterations (Top-10 Query Plans, 8 Relations)

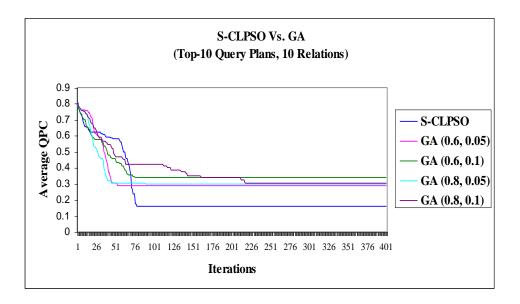


Figure 2.18: S-CLPSO vs. GA – Average QPC vs. Iterations (Top-10 Query Plans, 10 Relations)

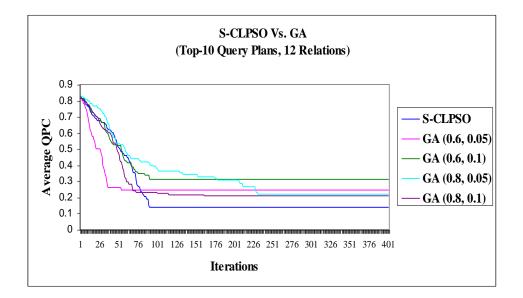


Figure 2.19: S-CLPSO vs. GA – Average QPC vs. Iterations (Top-10 Query Plans, 12 Relations)

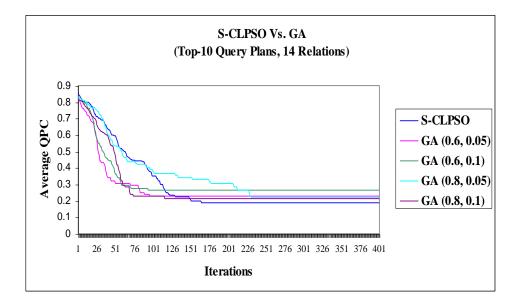


Figure 2.20: S-CLPSO vs. GA – Average QPC vs. Iterations (Top-10 Query Plans, 14 Relations)

Next, graphs were plotted to compare S-CLPSO and GA based algorithms on Average QPC value for selecting Top-K query plans(K=6, 8, 10, 12, 14) generated after 400 iterations. These graphs, plotted for relations 6, 8, 10, 12 and 14, are shown in figures 2.21, 2.22, 2.23, 2.24 and 2.25 respectively. These graphs show that S-CLPSO generate Top-K query plans with almost equal average QPC for 6 and 8 relations but is able to generate Top-K query plans with relatively lower average QPC for 10, 12 and 14 relations. Thus, it can be said that for higher number of relations, S-CLPSO is able to generate good quality Top-K plans with relatively lower average QPC.



Figure 2.21: S-CLPSO vs. GA – Average QPC vs. Top-K Query Plans (6 Relations, 400 iterations)

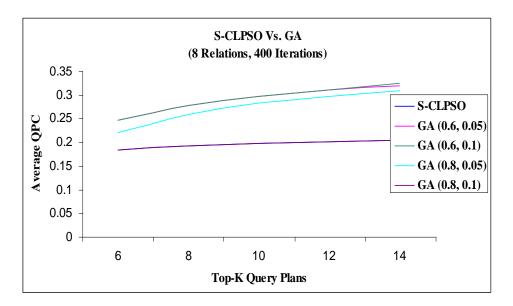


Figure 2.22: S-CLPSO vs. GA – Average QPC vs. Top-K Query Plans (8 Relations, 400 iterations)

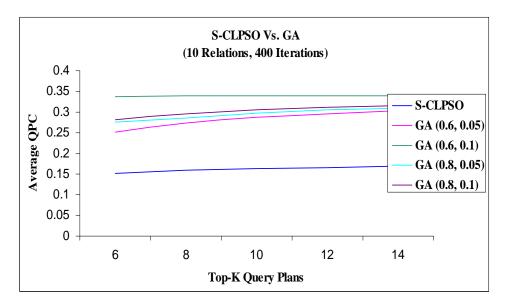


Figure 2.23: S-CLPSO vs. GA – Average QPC vs. Top-K Query Plans (10 Relations, 400 iterations)

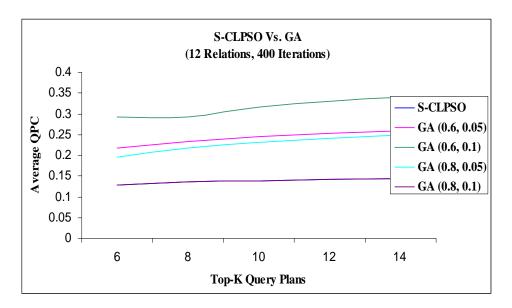


Figure 2.24: S-CLPSO vs. GA – Average QPC vs. Top-K Query Plans (12 Relations, 400 iterations)

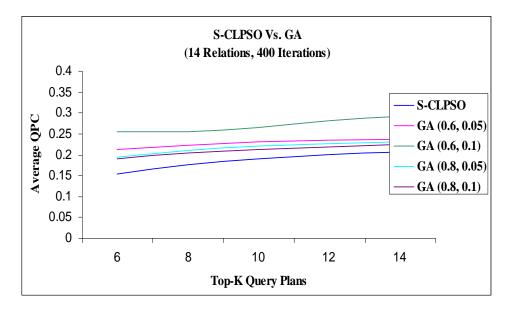


Figure 2.25: S-CLPSO vs. GA – Average QPC vs. Top-K Query Plans (14 Relations, 400 iterations)

CHAPTER 3

Distributed Query Plan Generation Using MOPSO

In this day and age, ubiquitously, it is observed that it is atypical for any problem to involve only a single value or objective. In order to find any holistic solution to the problem, there is a need to optimize various objectives or parameters [U8]. Maximizing profit and minimizing the cost of a product, maximizing performance and minimizing fuel consumption of a vehicle and minimizing weight while maximizing the strength of a particular component are some of the few examples of multi-objective optimization problems [U3]. In today's world, Multi-objective optimization problems can be found by and large in various fields, e.g. product and process design, automobile design, aircraft design and finance etc [U3].

3.1 Multi-Objective Optimization

Multi-Objective optimization is defined in [U9] as "the process of simultaneously optimizing two or more conflicting and /or incommensurable objectives subject to certain constraints". In these problems, optimal decisions need to be taken in the

presence of trade-offs between two or more conflicting objectives e.g. maximizing profit and minimizing the cost of a product [U3].

If it is assumed that the objectives are to be minimized, the Multi-Objective optimization problem can be expressed mathematically as [U3]:

m

$$\int_{x}^{uin} [\mu_1(x), \mu_2(x), \dots, \mu_n(x)]^T$$

s.t.
$$g(x) \le 0$$
$$h(x) = 0$$
$$x_l \le x \le x_u$$

Where μ_i is the *i*th objective function, *g* and *h* are the inequality and equality constraints, respectively, and *x* is the vector of optimization or decision variables.

The objective functions, $\mu_i(x)$ may be conflicting with each other and thus the detection of a single global minimum is impossible. So, instead of achieving a unique solution to the problem, the solution would be a set of Pareto optimal points [U9]. Solutions are said to be Pareto optimal if no objective can be improved without sacrificing at least another objective [SAA02]. Suppose $u = (u_1, u_2, ..., u_k)^T$ and $v = (v_1, v_2, ..., v_k)^T$ are two k-dimensional vectors then the following are defined as [PV10]:

Pareto Dominance: - The vector u is said to dominate vector v, if and only if the following holds:

 $u_i \le v_i$, for all i = 1, 2, ..., k, and, $u_i < v_i$, for at least one component *i*. This property is known as Pareto dominance [PV10].

Pareto Optimality: - A solution, $x \in A$, of the multi-objective problem is said to be Pareto optimal, if and only if there is no other solution, $y \in A$, such that f(y) dominates f(x). Alternatively, it can be said that x is non-dominated with respect to A. Here $A \subset R^n$ is n-dimensional search space [PV10].

Pareto optimal set:-The set of all Pareto optimal solutions is called Pareto optimal set, P*[PV10].

Pareto Front:-The set of vector function values of all Pareto optimal solutions is called Pareto Front [PV10].

$$PF^* = \{ f(x) \colon x \in P^* \}$$

Pareto optimal surface or the Pareto Front can be represented graphically as shown in figure 3.1 [U14]. In this figure, *Pareto optimality* in the bi-objective case is illustrated. Here, points *A* and *B* are non-dominated solutions residing on the Pareto front. Neither is better than the other. Point *A* has a smaller value of f_2 than point *B*, but a larger value of f_1 . Likewise, point *B* has a smaller value of f_1 than point *A*, but a larger value of f_2 . Solution *A* and solution *B* are not dominated by any other solution on the Pareto front, or Pareto-optimal surface. There exists no solution which has a better value with respect to both the objective functions f_1 and f_2 [U14].

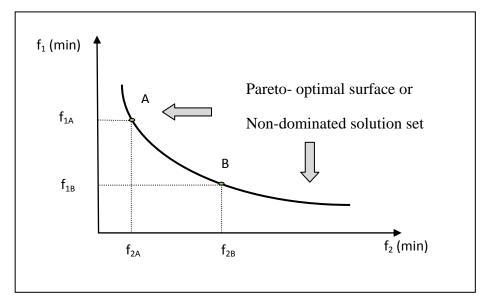


Figure 3.1: Pareto-optimal surface for a bi-objective problem [U14]

Multi-Objective optimization aims at "maximizing the number of elements of the Pareto optimal set found, minimizing the distance of the Pareto front produced by the algorithm with respect to the true (global) Pareto front and maximizing the spread of solutions found, so as to have a distribution of vectors as smooth and uniform as possible"[ZDT00]. Additionally, the goal is to achieve and monitor convergence towards true Pareto-front in order to avoid local convergence. The Pareto optimal fronts for bi-objective problems are illustrated in Figure 3.2.

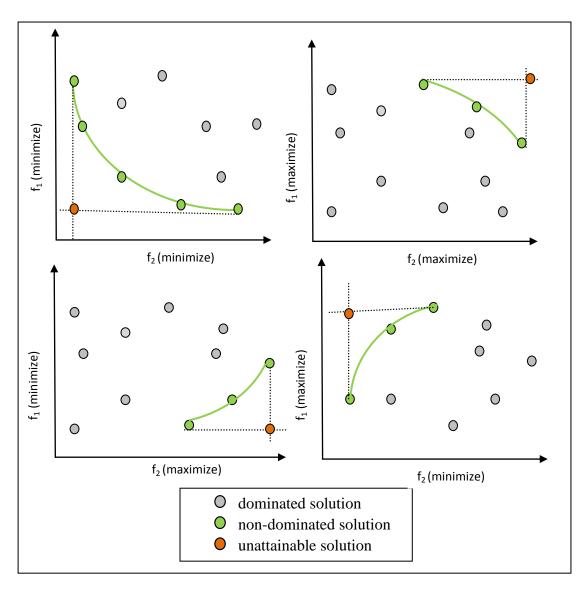


Figure 3.2: Examples of Pareto Optimal sets with Two Objective Functions

3.2 Particle Swarm Optimization for Multi-Objective Problems

It is generally observed that particle swarm optimization has a high speed of convergence when applied to a single-objective problem. This particular feature has been a motivation behind it being used for solving multi-objective problems [KE01]. Multi-objective particle swarm optimization (PSO) can be divided into two categories [RC06 (a)] namely PSO Variants that exploit each objective function separately and variants based on Pareto Dominance. The former is referred here as Non-Pareto based approaches and the latter is referred to as Pareto based approaches. These are discussed next.

3.2.1 Non-Pareto Based Approaches

This category consists of two types of approaches [PV10] namely approaches that combine all objective functions in a single one, referred here as Aggregated Approaches, and approaches that consider each objective function in turn for the evaluation of particles, referred here as Non-Aggregated Approaches. These approaches are discussed next:

3.2.1.1 Aggregated Approaches

These are the approaches that combine all the objectives of the problem into a single objective. In other words, the multi-objective problem is converted into a single-objective problem [RC06 (a)].

$$F(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i f_i(x),$$

Where w_i are non-negative weights, such that:

$$\sum_{i=1}^k w_i = 1.$$

If weights are fixed during a run then it is called conventional weighted aggregation (CWA). This algorithm has to be applied repeatedly with different weight settings to detect a desirable number of non-dominated solutions with only a single solution attained per run. Moreover, CWA is unable to detect solutions in concave regions of the Pareto front. In order to resolve these limitations dynamically adjusted weights, such as bang-bang weighted aggregation (BWA) were suggested in [JOS01]. For biobjective problems, the weights in BWA are adapted as follows:

$$w_1(t) = sign(sin(2\pi t/a)), \qquad w_2(t) = 1 - w_1(t),$$

Where a is user-defined adaptation frequency, and t stands for the iteration number.

The sign function used in BWA causes the weights to change abruptly so that the algorithm continues to move towards the Pareto front. Another approach proposed in [JOS01] is the dynamic weighted aggregation (DWA), the weights in DWA are adapted as follows:

 $w_1(t) = |sin(2\pi t/a)|, \qquad w_2(t) = 1 - w_1(t).$

DWA performs better in comparison to BWA in problems involving convex Pareto fronts. However, in case of problems involving concave Pareto fronts, the performance

of both the techniques is more or less the same. Another multi-objective particle swarm optimization algorithm based on weighted aggregation approach was proposed in [PV02 (b)] [PV02 (a)] to solve bi-objective problems. This algorithm uses all three types of aggregating functions: CWA, BWA, and DWA. In [BMR04] a similar approach that uses linear aggregation functions was proposed. In this approach the whole swarm in divided into various sub-swarms, each of the sub-swarm uses a different set of weights. The best particle of each sub-swarm is used as a leader to guide other members of the sub-swarm. In [MCL04], another aggregating approach based on dynamically modified weights was proposed.

3.2.1.2 Non-Aggregated Approaches

In these approaches, each particle is evaluated only with one objective function at a time, and the best positions are determined following the standard single-objective PSO rules, using the corresponding objective function. These can be further categorized as lexicographic ordering approaches and sub-population based approaches.

Lexicographic Ordering Approaches: These approaches are based on ranking schemes that determine the importance of each objective function and rank the objectives accordingly. In order to obtain the optimum solution, the objective functions are minimized one by one. The most important objective function is minimized at the outset and then minimization procedure continues according to the assigned order of importance of the objectives [M99]. However, this approach is sensitive to the ordering of the objectives and is useful only when there are few objective functions [C99]. In [HE02] another similar ordering scheme was proposed where each objective function is optimized separately. The best positions of the particles are stored as non-dominated solutions. In this scheme external archive is not used. However, in a later version of this approach [HES03], an external archive was incorporated.

Sub-Population Based Approaches: These approaches use various sub-populations, which exchange information among themselves. In [PTV04], a vector evaluated PSO (VEPSO) scheme was proposed. This scheme employs one swarm per objective function and evaluation is carried out with this objective function while best positions of one swarm are used to update velocities of another swarm with a different objective function. In [CT04], a scheme similar to VEPSO was proposed called multi-species PSO. This scheme uses various sub-swarms, where each such sub-swarm is evaluated

with one objective function. Information of best particles in a swarm is communicated to neighboring sub-swarms.

3.2.2 Pareto Based Approaches

In these approaches the concept of Pareto dominance plays an important role. In order to guide the particles, some elite particles that are non-dominated solutions with respect to the swarm are used. Furthermore some other decisive factors such as swarm diversity and Pareto front spread are also taken into account. In [MC99], an algorithm based on Pareto dominance was presented in an unpublished document. In this approach, both an individual and a group search are performed simultaneously. The major drawback of this algorithm was that it did not adopt any scheme to maintain diversity [MC99]. In [RL02] a new algorithm was proposed that uses Pareto dominance and combines concepts of evolutionary techniques with the particle swarm optimization technique. This approach uses crowding distance to maintain diversity and a multilevel sieve to handle constraints. In [FS02], another approach was presented that made use of an unconstrained elite archive to store the non-dominated individuals found along the search process. This archive interacts with the primary population in order to define local guides. Similar schemes were put forward in [CL02] [CPL04]. In [CPL04], the proposed MOPSO stored the non-dominated solutions in an archive also referred to as repository. In addition, the search space is divided in hypercubes where each hypercube is assigned a fitness value, inversely proportional to the number of particles in it. Roulette wheel selection is then used to select a hypercube and a leader from it. In [MT03], a sigma method was recommended in which the best local guides for each particle are adopted to improve the convergence and diversity of a MOPSO approach. The use of the sigma values increases the selection pressure of the algorithm. A hybrid approach called non-dominated sorting particle swarm optimizer was given in [L03]. This approach incorporates the main mechanisms of the NSGA-II [DP+02] in a PSO algorithm. In [PC04], a new approach was presented that uses the concept of Pareto dominance to decide the flight direction of a particle. This algorithm divides the population of particles into several sub-swarms by using clustering techniques so as to provide a better distribution of solutions in decision variable space. In each sub-swarm, a PSO algorithm is executed by using own set of leaders. These different sub-swarms

exchange information. In this approach, no external archive is used since the migration of leaders among the sub-swarms ensures elitism. In [RC05], another approach based on Pareto dominance that uses nearest neighbor density estimator in order to select leaders for the particles was proposed. As opposed to other typical approaches, this algorithm makes use of two external archives. One external archive is used to store the leaders currently used for performing the flight and another for storing the final solutions. The concept of dominance is used to select the particles that will remain in the archive of final solutions. In order to retain a fixed number of non-dominated solutions (leaders) in the archive, the density estimator factor is used. In [RN05], multiobjective particle swarm optimization based on Crowding Distance (MOPSO-CD) was proposed. This approach uses crowding distance to facilitate the selection of global best particle. It is also used to delete non-dominated solutions from the external archive. Mutation is utilized in order to maintain diversity of non-dominated solutions in the archive. Several other approaches of multi-objective particle swarm optimization have been reported in [RC06 (a)] [RC06 (b)] [PV08] [ZZ10]. In [ZZ10], a parallel particle swarm optimization (PPSO) algorithm was presented to solve the multi-objective optimization problems.

Parallel Particle Swarm Optimization (PPSO) algorithm exploits the intrinsic parallel characteristics of the PSO algorithm to solve multi-objective problems. The basic idea is to exploit as many swarms as the number of objectives in the multi-objective problem. Each of these swarms use the same evolutionary mechanism and simultaneously optimizes objectives assigned to them [ZZ10]. These different swarms communicate and share information among them through an external archive, which stores the non-dominated solutions found by different swarms. The velocity is updated using the following equation [ZZ10]:

 $V_{id}^{m} = \omega V_{id}^{m} + c_1 r_{1d} (P_{id}^{m} - X_{id}^{m}) + c_2 r_{2d} (G_d^{m} - X_{id}^{m}) + c_3 r_{3d} (A_{id}^{m} - X_{id}^{m})$ Where d is the dimension, and the position update is as:

$$X_{id}^m = X_{id}^m + V_{id}^m$$

In the velocity update equation, the term $c_3 r_{3d} (A_{id}^m - X_{id}^m)$ represents the sharing information from the archive that influences the particle to fly along the Pareto front. The term A_i^m is a non-dominated solution selected by the i^{th} particle in the m^{th} swarm randomly picked from the archive. The achieve A is initially empty and is updated in every generation. There is a limit on the number of non-dominated solutions the archive can store i.e. the archive has a maximum size (Max_Arch). At any particular iteration, the *pbest* of each particle in each swarm and the solutions of the archive from the previous iteration are used to select Max_Arch number of non-dominated solutions. In order to select this fixed number of non-dominated solutions, non-dominated sorting algorithm [DP+02] is used. PPSO algorithm achieves the goal of multi-objective optimizations by ensuring population diversity, so that a good number of non-dominated solutions can be obtained. It avoids the difficulty associated with fitness assignment [DP+02]. Due to sharing of search information through the external archive, the swarms are not attracted to the margin of Pareto front [ZZ10]. According to [ZZ10], since PPSO uses each swarm to optimize a single objective, any standard or improved PSO [ZZ+09] [ZZ+10] can be used to solve a single objective problem. In this dissertation, Set Based Comprehensive Learning PSO (S-CLPPSO) algorithm has been used to solve the multiobjective distributed query plan generation problem given in Chapter 1. This algorithm is discussed next.

3.2.2.1 S-CLPPSO

S-CLPPSO algorithm uses as many swarms as the number of objectives in the multiobjective problem. Each swarm optimizes only one of the objectives using S-CLPSO. These swarms work in parallel. An external archive is used to store the non-dominated solutions found by different swarms in each iteration. The swarms share search information and communicate with each other through the external archive. The evolutionary mechanisms in each swarm are similar, just like a standard S-CLPSO. In every generation, for the m^{th} swarm, the velocity of each particle *i* is updated as:

$$V_{id}^{m} = \omega V_{id}^{m} + c_{1} r_{1d}^{m} \left(pbest_{f_{i}(d)}^{m} - X_{id}^{m} \right) + c_{3} r_{3d} \left(A_{id}^{m} - X_{id}^{m} \right)$$

Where d is the dimension and the term $c_3r_{3d}(A_{id}^m - X_{id}^m)$ represents the share information from the archive. A_i^m is a non-dominated solution, which is randomly selected by the i^{th} particle in the m^{th} swarm, stored in the archive. The representation scheme and the interpretation of all other operators are same as in S-CLPSO discussed in chapter 2. Subsequently, the updated velocity is used to update the position of the particle. The archive A, which is initially empty, is updated after each iteration in order to keep a fixed number of non-dominated solutions (Max_Arch). The archive is updated in the following manner. First, a set S is initialized as empty. Then the *pbest* of each particle in each swarm is added into the set S. Then all the solutions in the old archive *A* are added into the set S. Later, non-dominated sorting strategy [DP+02] is performed on solutions in the set S to find Max_Arch solutions, which are then stored in the archive. The query plan generation algorithm, presented in this dissertation, is based on S-CLPPSO. This algorithm is discussed next.

3.3 Query Plan Generation

The multi-objective problem comprises of optimizing the two objectives namely Minimizing Site Communication Cost (SCC) and Maximizing the Relation Concentration Gain (RCG) as discussed in chapter 1. In this case, two objectives have to be optimized, so two swarms S_1 and S_2 are used. Each swarm optimizes only one of the objectives using S-CLPSO. These swarms work in parallel. An external archive is used to store the non-dominated solutions found by both the swarms in each iteration. The two swarms share search information and communicate with each other through the external archive.

The algorithm considers a relation-site matrix that comprises of relations and their respective sites. For a given query, the relations accessed by the query are considered. Using the relation-site matrix, sites where the relations accessed by the query reside are identified. Many possible query plans or combinations of site-relation may exist and each such combination represents a particle, which is represented as an ordered pair of relation-site combination. The universal set E consists of relations and all possible ordered pairs of each of them with the sites where they reside. Each query plan X_i is a subset of the universal set E, that is, $X \subseteq E$. X can also be divided into n dimensions, i.e. $X = X^1 \cup X^2 \cup ... \cup X^n$, where $X^j \subseteq E^j$. X is a feasible query plan only if it contains all the relations accessed by a query and each relation is selected from one of the sites from amongst all the sites where it resides in. The velocity of a particle (query plan) is the relation-site ordered pair and the randomly associated probability associated with it. The query plan generation algorithm based on S-CLPPSO is given in Figure 3.3

Innut						
Input:	rsm: relation-site matrix					
	ps : Population size in each of the two swarms					
	max_iter: Maximum number of iterations					
	ω: Inertia weight // linearly decreasing from 0.9 to 0.4					
	c_1 : Cognitive acceleration constant (2.0)					
	$c_{3:}$ Inter swarm communication constant (2.0)					
Output						
	TopkQueryPlan - Top K query plan					
Method						
	Obtain the universal set E based on the available relation site matrix rsm.					
Step2:	For each swarm generate initial particles (query plans) and their associated velocities randomly					
	from the available relation site matrix equal to the Population size, ps.					
Step3:	For the two swarms, compute the objective function values:					
Stepe:	Swarm 1					
	$SCC = m \times s$					
	Where s is the number of sites being used and m is the number of communications					
	Swarm 2					
	$RCG = \sum_{i=1}^{S} (n-i+1)c_i$					
	Where n is the number of relations in the query and c_i is the count of sites arranged in					
	decreasing order.					
Step4:	For each swarm, set $pbest_i = X_i$ for all $1 \le i \le ps(swarm \ size)$					
-	Set external archive size (EXA_size) =k;					
	Initialize EXA= { };					
Sten6.	For each swarm do step 7					
-						
-	For each particle of the swarm do steps 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12. Compute learning probability (Pc_i) for the i th particle as:					
Steps:						
	$\left(exp\left(\frac{10(t-1)}{ns-1}\right)-1\right)$					
	$Pc_{i} = 0.05 + 0.45 * \frac{\left(exp\left(\frac{10(i-1)}{ps-1}\right) - 1\right)}{(exp(10) - 1)}$					
	Where, ps is the total number of particles in the swarm.					
Step9:	For each dimension of the particle do steps a and b					
Step ?!	(a) Generate a random number ($rand_i$)					
	(b) IF $rand_i > Pc_i$					
	Update position and velocity using $pbest_i$;					
	ELSE					
	Choose two particles (p and q) randomly;					
	Compare the fitness values of their <i>pbest</i> and find the winner particle (say p);					
	Use the winner's <i>pbest</i> (<i>pbest</i> _{p}) as exemplar for the chosen dimension					
	Update position and velocity using $pbest_p$;					
Step10:	If a particle is an exemplar of itself on all dimensions					
	Randomly choose one dimension to learn from the dimension of some other randomly					
	chosen particle's <i>pbest</i> .					
Step11:	Compute the respective cost of the updated particle					
Step12:	Update the <i>pbest</i> of the particle					
Step13:	Update the external archive (EXA)					
Step14:	IF (iteration < max_iter AND not stagnated)					
G	GOTO Step 6.					
Step15:	Return Top K query plan as TopkQueryPlan					



For the given user query, the algorithm first generates a universal relation set E for the relations accessed by the query (Step1). Next, the initial population of particles along with their velocities is randomly generated using the site-relation matrix in both the swarms. (Step2).

The cost of each particle (query plan), with respect to the objective of the swarm, is computed using the respective objective functions (SCC or RCG) given in chapter 1(Step3). Initially the *pbest* value of any particle (query plan) is initialized to current position in both the swarm (Step4). The size of the external archive is set to be k (where k denotes the number of top query plans to be generated) and the archive is initialized as empty set (Step 5). Now, in both the swarms, for each particle of the population ps, learning probability P_c is computed, Thereafter the velocity and position of all the particles of the population are updated (Step 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10). Next, the respective cost value of the updated particle (query plan) is computed in both the swarms (step 11). The *pbest* values of the particles in both the swarms are also updated (Step12). The external archive is also updated using non-dominated sorting (Step 13). These steps are repeated until a pre-specified number of iterations are completed or no improvement is observed over a pre-specified number of iterations (Step14). At the end, the top-K query plans are produced as output from the external archive (Step15).

3.4 An Example

Input:

A relation-site matrix (rsm) that represents eight relations R1, R2, R3, R4, R5, R6, R7, R8
distributed among eight sites S_1 , S_2 , S_3 , S_4 , S_5 , S_6 , S_7 , S_8 is shown in Figure 3.4.

Relations \Sites	S_1	S_2	S_3	S ₄	S_5	S ₆	S_7	S ₈
R ₁	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
\mathbf{R}_2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
\mathbf{R}_3	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1
R ₄	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0
\mathbf{R}_5	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1
R ₆	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
R ₇	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
R ₈	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0

Figure 3.4: Relation-Site Matrix

Consider a query that accesses relations R_3 , R_4 , R_7 and R_8 . The objective is to generate top-4 query plans.

Let

Population Size in each of the two swarms (ps) =5, Maximum number of iteration (max_iter) =20, Inertial Weight ω =linearly decreasing from 0.9 to 0.4, Cognitive acceleration constant c₁=2.0 Inter swarm communication constant c₂ =2.0

Step 1: Using matrix rsm, the universal set E is given by:

$$E = \bigcup_{i=1}^{8} E^i$$

Where

$$E^{1} = \{(1,1), (1,3), (1,4), (1,5), (1,7), (1,8)\}$$

$$E^{2} = \{(2,1), (2,1), (2,5), (2,6)\}$$

$$E^{3} = \{(3,2), (3,3), (3,5), (3,6), (3,7), (3,8)\}$$

$$E^{4} = \{(4,1), (4,2), (4,3), (4,5), (4,7)\}$$

$$E^{5} = \{(5,1), (5,2), (5,4), (5,5), (5,6), (5,7), (5,8)\}$$

$$E^{6} = \{(6,3), (6,4), (6,5), (6,6), (6,7), (6,8)\}$$

$$E^{7} = \{(7,2), (7,3), (7,4), (7,5), (7,6), (7,7), (7,9)\}$$

$$E^{8} = \{(8,1), (8,2), (8,3), (8,4), (8,5), (8,6)\}$$

Step 2: The randomly generated initial particles (query plans) along with their associated velocities for swarm1 and swarm2 are given in Figure 3.5 and in Figure 3.6 respectively.

Particle	Position	Velocity
(i)	X_i	V_i
1	{(3,5),(4,5),(7,4),(8,6)}	{(3,6) /.5097,(4,1) /.7418,(7,3) /.4612,(8,6) /.4151}
2	{(3,7),(4,7),(7,5),(8,2)}	{(3,6) /.6320,(4,5) /.7626,(7,2) /.8225,(8,3) /.9805}
3	{(3,2),(4,3),(7,4),(8,2)}	{(3,5) /.3935,(4,7) /.0632,(7,6) /.8355,(8,6) /.5607}
4	{(3,7),(4,1),(7,3),(8,4)}	{(3,2) /.4397,(4,3) /.7157,(7,7) /.5093,(8,6) /.5296}
5	$\{(3,5),(4,3),(7,5),(8,4)\}$	{(3,2) /.8641,(4,5) /.4011,(7,6) /.6800,(8,5) /.3404}

Figure 3.5: Initial particles and their velocities in Swarm 1

Particle	Position	Velocity
(i)	X_i	V_i
1	{(3,7),(4,7),(7,6),(8,5)}	{(3,7) /.9403,(4,5) /.0664,(7,6) /.0121,(8,6) /.1747}
2	{(3,2),(4,7),(7,4),(8,2)}	{(3,3) /.3335,(4,3) /.2677,(7,2) /.5165,(8,2) /.6427}
3	{(3,6),(4,5),(7,5),(8,2)}	{(3,6) /.6206,(4,5) /.0334,(7,5) /.9865,(8,2) /.3556}
4	{(3,3),(4,7),(7,4),(8,4)}	{(3,3) /.9796,(4,7) /.2852,(7,3) /.6300,(8,2) /.6187}
5	{(3,2),(4,1),(7,3),(8,2)}	{(3,7) /.1266,(4,3) /.4364,(7,6) /.3924,(8,2) /.7773}

Figure 3.6: Initial particles and their velocities in Swarm 2

Step 3: The objective function values for the two swarms are given in Figure 3.7 and Figure 3.8 respectively

Particles (i)	$SCC = m \times s$
1	6
2	6
3	6
4	12
5	6

Figure 3.7: fitness values of particles in Swarm1

Particles (i)	$RCG = \sum_{i=1}^{s} (n-i+1)c_i$
1	13
2	13
3	13
4	13
5	13

Figure 3.8: fitness values of particles in Swarm2

Step 4: For each particle in each of the two swarms

 $pbest_i = X_i$ for all $1 \le i \le ps(swarm \ size)$

Step5: External archive size (EXA_size) =4

Initially the external archive is empty i.e. EXA= { }

Step 6: Next, the velocity and position of each particle in each of the two swarms is updated using the following rule:

$$V_{id}^{m} = \omega V_{id}^{m} + c_{1} r_{1d}^{m} \left(pbest_{f_{i}(d)}^{m} - X_{id}^{m} \right) + c_{3} r_{3d} \left(A_{id}^{m} - X_{id}^{m} \right)$$

Since the external archive is empty initially, the above equation is modified to:

$$v_i^j \leftarrow \omega v_i^j + cr^j \left(pbest_{f_i(j)}^j - x_i^j \right)$$

First, a random number $r \in [0, 1]$ is generated. If r is larger than parameter P_c then $f_i(j) = i$. Otherwise, the algorithm applies the tournament selection to randomly select two particles. The particle with a better fitness value is selected as $f_i(j)$. In this sense, $pbest_{f_{i(j)}}^j$ can be the corresponding dimension of any particle's *pbest* position. S-CLPSO algorithm is applied to particles in swarm1 and particles in swarm2 in the same manner as was applied in solving the single objective problem in Chapter 2. The updated position, updated velocity and the respective cost value of particles in swarm1 and swarm2 are given in Figure 3.9 and 3.10 respectively.

i	Updated Position (X _i ')	Updated Velocity (V _i ')	Updated SCC
1	$\{(3, 5), (4, 1), (7, 5), (8, 6)\}$	{(3, 6)/0.8463,(4,1)/0.0598,(7, 5)/0.2379,(8,6)/0.1572}	6
2	$\{(3, 7), (4, 7), (7, 4), (8, 3)\}$	{(3, 6)/0.3001,(4,5)/0.2409,(7, 4)/1.000,(8,3)/0.5785}	6
3	$\{(3, 2), (4, 3), (7, 6), (8, 4)\}$	{(3, 5)/0.5585,(4,7)/0.0301,(7, 6)/0.8879,(8,4)/1.000}	12
4	$\{(3, 2), (4, 1), (7, 4), (8, 4)\}$	{(3, 2)/0.8816,(4,3)/0.2567,(7, 4)/1.000,(8,6)/0.5568}	6
5	$\{(3, 5), (4, 5), (7, 6), (8, 6)\}$	{(3, 2)/0.1139,(4,2)/0.3927,(7, 4)/0.3532,(8,2)/0.6996}	2

Figure 3.9: Updated position and velocities after first iteration in Swarm 1

i	Updated Position (X _i ')	Updated Velocity (V _i ')	Updated RCG
1	$\{(3, 7), (4, 7), (7, 6), (8, 5)\}$	{(3, 7)/0.9403,(4,5)/0.0664,(7, 3)/0.0121,(8,6)/0.1747}	13
2	$\{(3, 2), (4, 7), (7, 4), (8, 2)\}$	{(3, 3)/0.3335,(4,3)/0.2677,(7, 6)/0.5135,(8,2)/0.6427}	13
3	$\{(3, 6), (4, 5), (7, 5), (8, 2)\}$	{(3, 6)/0.6206,(4,5)/0.0334,(7, 5)/0.9865,(8,2)/0.3556}	13
4	$\{(3, 3), (4, 7), (7, 4), (8, 2)\}$	{(3, 3)/0.9796,(4,7)/0.2852,(7, 5)/0.6300,(8,2)/0.6187}	10
5	$\{(3, 2), (4, 3), (7, 3), (8, 2)\}$	{(3, 2)/0.1266,(4,2)/0.4364,(7, 4)/0.3924,(8,2)/0.7773}	14

Figure 3.10: Updated position and velocities after first iteration in Swarm 2

After first iteration the non-dominated particles in the External Archive are:

 $EXA = \{\{(3,5), (4,5), (7,6), (8,6)\}, \{(3,2), (4,3), (7,3), (8,2)\}, \\ \{(3,5), (4,1), (7,5), (8,6)\}, \{(3,7), (4,7), (7,4), (8,3)\}\}$

Since after the first iteration the external archive contains four non-dominated solutions, the velocity and position of each particle in each of the two swarms is updated using the following rule:

$$V_{id}^{m} = \omega V_{id}^{m} + c_{1} r_{1d}^{m} \left(pbest_{f_{i}(d)}^{m} - X_{id}^{m} \right) + c_{3} r_{3d} \left(A_{id}^{m} - X_{id}^{m} \right)$$

Iteration 2: Swarm1: First Particle

Position after first iteration

 $X_1' = \{(3, 5), (4, 1), (7, 5), (8, 6)\}$

Velocity after first iteration

 $V_1' = \{(3, 6)/0.8463, (4, 1)/0.0598, (7, 5)/0.2379, (8, 6)/0.1572\}$ $pbest_1 = \{(3,5), (4,5), (7,4), (8,6)\}$

Next, the velocity of the first particle X_1' is updated using the velocity update equation:

$$V_{id}^{m} = \underbrace{\omega V_{id}^{m}}_{\text{Inertia}} + \underbrace{c_{1}r_{1d}^{m}\left(pbest_{f_{i}(d)}^{m} - X_{id}^{m}\right)}_{\text{Component}} + \underbrace{c_{3}r_{3d}\left(A_{id}^{m} - X_{id}^{m}\right)}_{\text{External Archive Component}}$$

Computation of Inertia component

The inertia component value of particle X_1' for each dimension is computed using the following rule:

The product of a coefficient c (c ≥ 0) and velocity i.e. a set with possibilities V = {e/p (e) |e $\in E$ } is defined as:

$$cV = \{e/p'(e) | e \in E\},$$

$$p'(e) = \left\{ \begin{array}{cc} 1, & ifc \times p(e) > 1\\ c \times p(e), & otherwise \end{array} \right\}$$

The value of the inertia weight ω for the second iteration is calculated using the following rule:

$$\omega' = \omega_{max} - (\omega_{max} - \omega_{min}) \times \left(\frac{\text{cureent iteration}}{\text{maximum iteration}}\right)$$
$$\omega' = 0.9 - (0.9 - 0.4) \times \left(\frac{2}{20}\right) = 0.85$$

The inertia component value for each dimension is shown in Figure 3.11

ω	v_1^j	$\omega' v_1^j$
0.85	$v_1^1 = \{(3,6)/.8463\}$	$\omega' v_1^1 = \{(3,6) / .7193 \}$
0.85	$v_1^2 = \{(4,1)/.0598\}$	$\omega' v_1^2 = \{(4,1) / .0508\}$
0.85	$v_1^3 = \{(7,5)/.2379\}$	$\omega' v_1^3 = \{(7,5) / .2022\}$
0.85	$v_1^4 = \{(8,6) / .1572\}$	$\omega' v_1^4 = \{(8,6) / .1336 \}$

Figure 3.11: Updated inertia component

Thus the inertia of the particle X_1' is

 $\omega' V_1' = \{(3,6) / .7193, (4,1) / .0508, (7,5) / .2022, (8,1) / .1336\}$

Computation of Cognitive component

In order to compute the cognitive component values Learning Probability (Pc_1) for the particle X₁' is computed using the equation:

$$Pc_{i} = 0.05 + 0.45 * \frac{\left(exp\left(\frac{10(i-1)}{ps-1}\right) - 1\right)}{(exp(10) - 1)}$$
$$Pc_{i} = 0.0500$$

For each dimension $j(1 \le j \le 4)$, a random number is generated and compared with the learning probability Pc_1 to choose particles amongst $X_1' X_2' X_3' X_4'$ and X_5' from whose *pbest* X_1' has to learn from.

Suppose for j=1, random number generated is 0.9542, which is greater than Pc_1 . Thus, the first dimension would learn from *pbest* of particle X₁' and thus X₁' will learn from its own *pbest* i.e. $f_1(1)=1$

$$pbest_{f_{1}(1)}^{1} = pbest_{1}^{1}$$
$$(pbest_{1}^{1} - x_{1}^{1}) = \{(3, 5) - (3, 5)\} = \{\emptyset\}$$

Suppose for *j*=2, random number generated is 0.6502, which is greater than Pc_1 . Thus, the second dimension would learn from *pbest* of particle X_1' and thus X_1' will learn from its own *pbest* i.e. $f_1(1)=1$

$$pbest_{f_1(1)}^1 = pbest_1^1$$
$$(pbest_1^1 - x_1^1) = \{(4, 5)-(3, 1)\} = \{(4, 5)\}$$

Suppose for j=3, random number generated is 0.0301, which is less than Pc_1 . Thus two particles X_2' and X_4' are randomly chosen. The fitness values of *pbest* of both the particles are shown in Figure 3.12

Particles	pbest _i	SCC _i
X2′	{(3,7),(4,7),(7,5),(8,2)}	6
X_4'	$\{(3,2),(4,3),(7,4),(8,2)\}$	6

Figure 3.12: fitness values of *pbest* of particles

Since the fitness value of both the particles is same, any one of the two particles can be selected as an exemplar. Suppose particle X_2' is selected i.e. $f_1(3)=2$

$$pbest_{f_1(3)}^3 = pbest_2^3$$
$$(pbest_2^3 - x_1^3) = \{(7, 5) - (7, 5)\} = \{\emptyset\}$$

Suppose for j=4, random number generated is 0.2602, which is greater than Pc_1 . Thus, the fourth dimension would learn from *pbest* of particle X₁'and thus X₁' will learn from its own *pbest* i.e. $f_1(4)=1$

$$pbest_{1}^{4} = pbest_{1}^{4}$$
$$(pbest_{1}^{4} - x_{1}^{4}) = \{(8, 6) - (8, 6)\} = \{\emptyset\}$$

Next, cognitive component values of particle X_1' for each dimension are computed using the following rule:

The multiplication operator between a coefficient c ($c \ge 0$) and a crisp set E' (Position–Position) is defined as:

$$cE' = \{e/p'(e) | e \in E\},\$$

$$p'(e) = \begin{cases}
1, & if e \in E' and c > 1 \\
c, & if e \in E' and \ 0 \le c \le 1 \\
0, & if e \notin E'
\end{cases}$$

The cognitive component computation for each dimension of particle X_1' is shown in Figure 3.13.

C ₁	r ^j	$\left(pbest_{f_i(j)}^j - x_i^j\right)$	$cr^{j}\left(pbest^{j}_{f_{i}(j)}-x^{j}_{i} ight)$
2.0	0.3235	{Ø}	{Ø}
2.0	0.6665	{(4,5)}	{(4,5)/1.000}
2.0	0.0264	{Ø}	{Ø}
2.0	0.2323	{Ø}	{Ø}

Figure 3.13: Updated cognitive component

Thus the cognitive component of the particle is

$$c_1 r_1 \left(pbest_{f_1} - x_1 \right) = \{(4, 5) / 1.0000\}$$

Computation of External Archive component

In order to compute the External Archive component for each dimension j ($1 \le j \le 4$), the particle chooses an exemplar m from the external archive and that particular dimension learns from chosen element.

After the first iteration the external archive contains the following four non-dominated solutions as shown in figure 3.14:

Particle (i)	Positions
1	{(3,5),(4,5),(7,6),(8,6)}
2	$\{(3,2),(4,3),(7,3),(8,2)\}$
3	$\{(3,5),(4,5),(7,4),(8,6)\}$
4	{(3,7),(4,7),(7,5),(8,2)}

Figure 3.14: external archive

Current position, $X_1' = \{(3, 5), (4, 1), (7, 5), (8, 6)\}$

The External archive component computation for each dimension of particle X_1' is shown in Figure 3.15.

j	<i>C</i> ₃	r_3	т	A_1^m	$\left(A_{ij}^m - X_{ij}^m\right)$	$c_3 r_3 \left(A_{ij}^m - X_{ij}^m \right)$
1	2.0	0.3263	4	{(3,7),(4,7),(7,5),(8,2)}	$\{(3,7)\} - \{(3,5)\} = \{(3,7)\}$	{(3,7)/0.6526}
2	2.0	0.2626	2	{(3,2),(4,3),(7,3),(8,2)}	$\{(4,3)\} - \{(4,1)\} = \{(4,3)\}$	{(4,3)/0.5252}
3	2.0	0.2162	4	{(3,7),(4,7),(7,5),(8,2)}	$\{(7,5)\} - \{(7,5)\} = \{\emptyset\}$	{Ø}
4	2.0	0.9749	1	{(3,5),(4,5),(7,6),(8,6)}	$\{(8,6)\} - \{(8,6)\} = \{\emptyset\}$	{Ø}

Figure 3.15: updated External archive components

Thus, the External archive component of the particle is:

$$c_3r_3(A_i^m - X_i^m) = \{(3, 7)/0.6526, (4, 3)/0.5252\}$$

Now, new updated velocity is computed using the following rule:

The plus operator between two sets $V_1 = \{e/p1 \ (e) | e \in E\}$ and $V_2 = \{e/p2 \ (e) | e \in E\}$ with possibilities is defined as:

 $V_1 + V_2 = \{e/max \ (p1 \ (e), \ p2 \ (e)) \ | e \in E\}$

Using the three components computed above, the updated velocity after the second iteration is computed as:

$$V_{1}^{''} = \omega V_{1}^{'} + c_{1}r_{1} \left(pbest_{f_{1}} - x_{1} \right) + c_{3}r_{3} \left(A_{i}^{m} - X_{i}^{m} \right)$$

$$\omega V_{1}^{'} = \{ (3,6) /.7193, (4,1) /.0508, (7,5) /.2022, (8,1) /.1336 \}$$

$$c_{1}r_{1} \left(pbest_{f_{1}} - x_{1} \right) = \{ (4,5) / 1.0000 \}$$

$$c_{3}r_{3} \left(A_{i}^{m} - X_{i}^{m} \right) = \{ (3,7) / 0.6526, (4,3) / 0.5252 \}$$

Thus, the updated velocity of the particle after the second iteration is:

 $V_1^{''} = \{(3,6) / .7193, (4,5) / 1.000, (7,5) / .2022, (8,1) / .1336\}$

Next, the position of the particle is updated using the updated velocity. The current position, $X_1' = \{(3, 5), (4, 1), (7, 5), (8, 6)\}$ is updated to a new position X_1'' in the following manner:

First, the set with possibilities $V_1^{''}$ is converted into a crisp set. For each dimension, a random number $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ is generated for each particle. For each element *e* in the jth dimension, if it's corresponding possibility p (e) in Vi^j is not smaller than α , element e is reserved in a crisp set, that is:

$$cut_{\alpha}(V_i^j) = \{ e | e/p (e) \in V_i^j \text{ and } p (e) \ge \alpha \}$$

The crisp set for V_1 is shown in Figure 3.16

j	α	p(e)	Comparison between α and $p(e)$
1	0.1356	0.7193	$p(e) \ge \alpha$
2	0.9421	1.000	$p(e) \ge \alpha$
3	0.7259	0.2022	$p(e) \le \alpha$
4	0.4421	0.1336	$p(e) \le \alpha$

Figure 3.16: Crisp Set for V_1''

Elements *e* reserved in a crisp set $cut_{\alpha}(V_1) = \{(3, 6), (4, 5)\}$. So, elements $\{(3, 6), (4, 5)\}$ would be used for updating the current position $\{(3, 5), (4, 1), (7, 5), (8, 6)\}$ of particle X₁'. The new updated Position would have the relation R₃ accessed from site S₆ and R₄ accessed from site S₅ i.e. $X_1'' = \{(3, 6), (4, 5), (7, 5), (8, 6)\}$. Similarly, the velocity and position for other particles are also updated in both the swarms. The above procedure continues till a pre-specified twenty iterations. The non-dominated solutions from the external archive are reported as the top-4 query plans.

Query Plans
$\{(3,5),(4,5),(7,5),(8,5)\}$
$\{(3, 6), (4, 5), (7, 6), (8, 6)\}$
$\{(3,5),(4,3),(7,5),(8,5)\}$
$\{(3,5),(4,5),(7,3),(8,5)\}$

Figure 3.17: Top-4 query plans

3.5 Experimental Results

The S-CLPSO based query plan generation algorithm and S-CLPPSO based query plan generation algorithm are implemented in MATLAB 7.4 in Windows XP environment. The two algorithms were compared by conducting experiments on an Intel based 2 GHz PC having 1 GB RAM. The comparisons were carried out on parameters like number of relations, average query processing cost (QPC), top-K query plans and number of iterations.

First, line graphs were plotted to compare S-CLPSO and S-CLPPSO based algorithms on Average QPC against the number of iterations for selecting top-10 query plans. These graphs for the number of relations n=6, 8, 10, 12 and 14 are shown in figures 3.18, 3.19, 3.20, 3.21 and 3.22 respectively.

It can be observed from the graphs that the S-CLPSO based algorithm, in case of 6, 8 and 10 relations, is able to generate Top-10 query plans having almost equal average QPC. Whereas, for higher number of relations, i.e. for 12 and 14 relations, the S-CLPPSO based algorithm is able to generate top-10 query plans with relatively lower average QPC. So, it can be said that, as the number of relations in the query increases, the S-CLPPSO based algorithm, in comparison to S-CLPSO based algorithm, is able to generate relatively better query plans with respect to the cost of query processing.

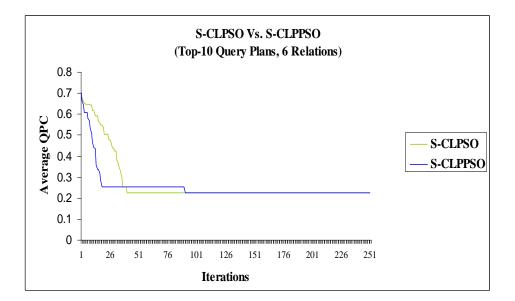


Figure 3.18: S-CLPSO vs. S-CLPPSO – Average QPC vs. Iterations (Top-10 Query Plans, 6 Relations)

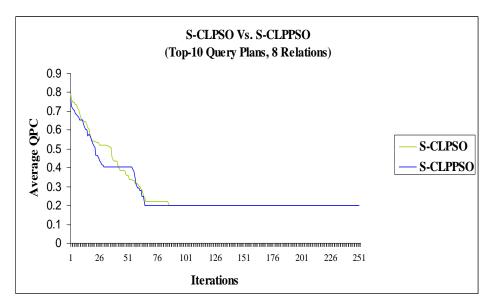


Figure 3.19: S-CLPSO vs. S-CLPPSO – Average QPC vs. Iterations (Top-10 Query Plans, 8 Relations)

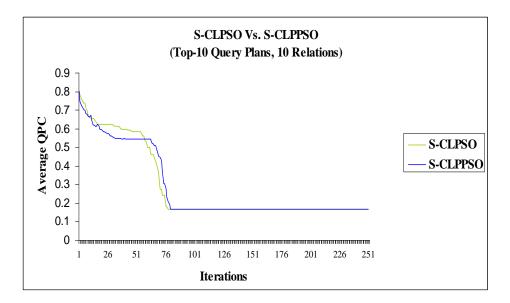


Figure 3.20: S-CLPSO vs. S-CLPPSO – Average QPC vs. Iterations (Top-10 Query Plans, 10 Relations)

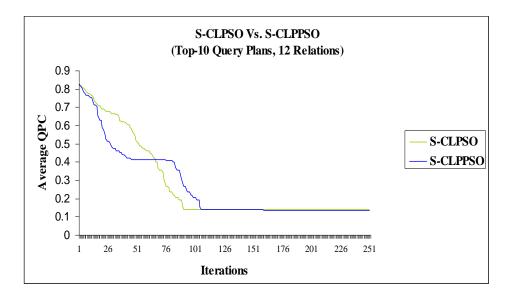


Figure 3.21: S-CLPSO vs. S-CLPPSO – Average QPC vs. Iterations (Top-10 Query Plans, 12 Relations)

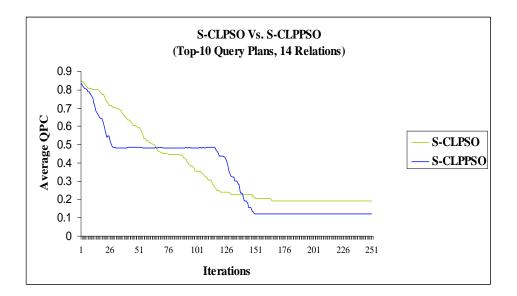


Figure 3.22: S-CLPSO vs. S-CLPPSO – Average QPC vs. Iterations (Top-10 Query Plans, 14 Relations)

Next, graphs were plotted to compare S-CLPSO and S-CLPPSO based algorithms on Average QPC value for selecting Top-K query plans(K=6, 8, 10, 12, 14) generated after 400 iterations. These graphs, plotted for relations 6, 8, 10, 12 and 14, are shown in figures 3.23, 3.24, 3.25, 3.26 and 3.27 respectively.

These graphs show that S-CLPSO and S-CLPPSO generate Top-K query plans with almost equal average QPC for 6, 8 and 10 relations. Whereas, S-CLPPSO, in comparison S-CLPSO, is able to generate Top-K query plans with relatively lower average QPC for 12 and 14 relations. Thus, it can be said that for higher number of relations, S-CLPPSO is able to generate good quality Top-K plans with relatively lower average QPC.

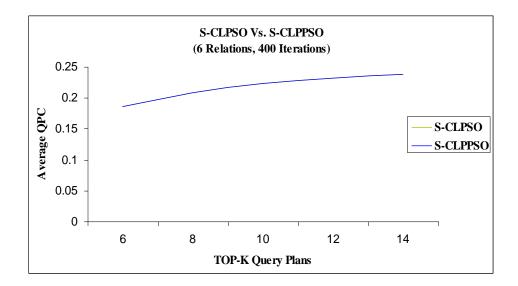


Figure 3.23: S-CLPSO vs. S-CLPPSO – Average QPC vs. Top-K Query Plans (6 Relations, 400 iterations)

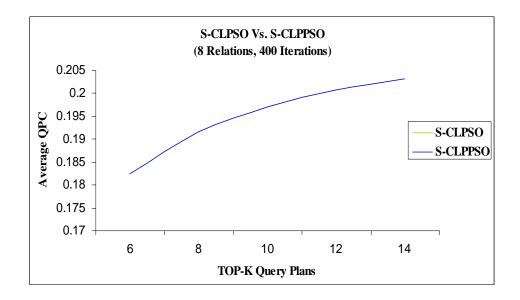


Figure 3.24: S-CLPSO vs. S-CLPPSO – Average QPC vs. Top-K Query Plans (8 Relations, 400 iterations)

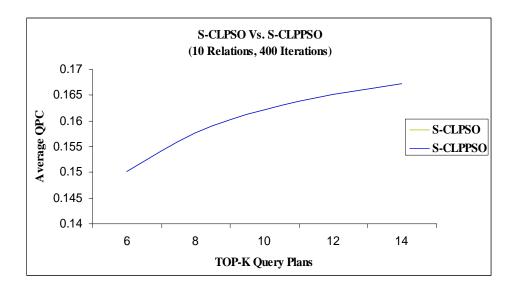


Figure 3.25: S-CLPSO vs. S-CLPPSO – Average QPC vs. Top-K Query Plans (10 Relations, 400 iterations)

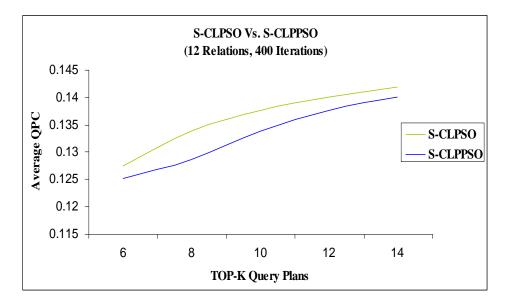


Figure 3.26: S-CLPSO vs. S-CLPPSO – Average QPC vs. Top-K Query Plans (12 Relations, 400 iterations)

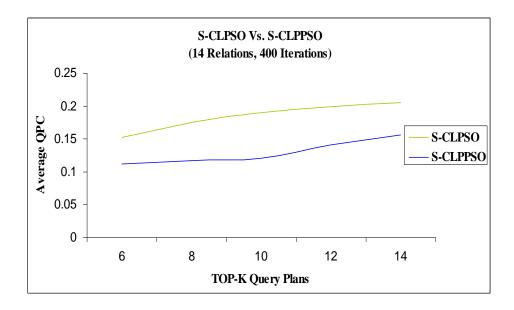


Figure 3.27: S-CLPSO vs. S-CLPPSO – Average QPC vs. Top-K Query Plans (14 Relations, 400 iterations)

CHAPTER 4

Conclusion

The aim of distributed query processing is to process distributed queries in an efficient manner. This would require devising an effective and efficient distributed query processing strategy that would minimize the total query processing cost. This is possible if the query plans constructed using the strategy involve fewer numbers of sites for processing thereby incurring less communication overhead. This dissertation addresses the distributed query plan generation problem, which has been solved using GA in [VSV11]. In this dissertation, particle swarm optimization is used to solve this problem.

First, the distributed query plan generation problem is solved using single-objective particle swarm optimization with the objective to minimize the query processing cost (QPC), as defined in [VSV11]. Set-based Comprehensive Learning Particle Swarm optimization technique is used to generate Top-K query plans for a distributed query. Experiment based comparison of this algorithm with GA based distributed query plan generation algorithm [VSV11] is carried out. The experimental results show that for higher number of relations the S-CLPSO based algorithm is able to generate relatively better quality top-K query plans.

Next, the single-objective distributed query plan generation problem is formulated as a bi-objective distributed query plan generation problem. The two objectives being minimization of site communication cost (SCC) and maximization of relation concentration gain (RCG). These are motivated by the cost functions in [PV02]. This problem is solved using multi-objective particle swarm optimization technique S-CLPPSO. The experiment based comparison of S-CLPPSO with the S-CLPSO based distributed query plan generation algorithm shows that the S-CLPPSO algorithm is able to generate comparatively better quality query plans for higher number of relations in the user query.

It can therefore be concluded that the S-CLPPSO based algorithm performs relatively better amongst the three algorithms with S-CLPSO algorithm having a slight edge over the GA based algorithm.

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