# A Statistical comparative analysis of Simulated Annealing and Variable Neighborhood Search for the Geographic Clustering Problem

## Un Análisis Estadístico Comparativo de Recocido Simulado y Búsqueda de Vecindad Variable para el Problema de Agregación Geográfica

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Abstract. This paper describes a factorial statistical study that compares the quality of solutions produced by two heuristics: Simulated Annealing (SA) and Variable Neighborhood Search (VNS). These methods are used to solve the Geographic Clustering Problem (GCP), and the quality of the solutions produced for specific times has been compared. With the goal of comparing the quality of the solutions, where both heuristics participate in an impartial evaluation, time has been the only common element considered for VNS and SA. At this point, two experiments were designed and the factorial corresponding parameters for each heuristic were carefully modeled leaving time as the cost function. In instances of 24 objects, the experiments involved the execution of two sets of tests recording the results of the different response times and the associated values of the objective function for each heuristic and instance conditions. The solution to this problem requires a partitioning process where each group is composed of objects that fulfill better the objective: the minimum accumulated distance from the objects to the centroid of each group. The GCP is a combinatorial NP-hard problem (Bação, Lobo and Painho, 2004).

**Keywords:** Algorithms, Design, Experimentation, Geographic Clustering Problem, Heuristics.

**Resumen.** Este artículo describe un estudio estadístico factorial para comparar la calidad de las soluciones de dos heurísticas: Recocido Simulado (RS) y Búsqueda en Entorno Variable (BEV). Estos métodos son usados para resolver el

problema de agregación geográfica, y se han comparado de acuerdo a la calidad de las soluciones obtenidas en tiempos específicos estimados. Con el objetivo de comparar la calidad de las soluciones, donde las dos heurísticas participen en una evaluación equitativa, se ha considerado el tiempo como el único elemento común para BEV y RS. En este punto, se diseñaron dos modelaron experimentos factoriales donde se cuidadosamente los parámetros correspondientes para cada heurística dejando como función de costo al tiempo. Estos experimentos implicaron la ejecución de dos conjuntos de pruebas para instancias de 24 objetos registrándose los resultados de los diferentes tiempos de respuesta y los valores asociados de la función objetivo para cada heurística. La solución a este problema requiere un proceso de particionamiento donde cada grupo está formado de objetos que cumplen mejor con el objetivo: la distancia mínima acumulada de los objetos al centroide en cada grupo. El problema de agregación geográfica es combinatorio NP-duro (Bação, Lobo and Painho, 2004). Palabras clave: Algoritmos, Diseño, Experimentación, Problema de Agrupamiento Geográfico, Heurísticas.

## 1 Introduction

The GCP consists in the classification of objects in geographic units that meet certain objectives, mainly the geometric compactness (Bação, Lobo and

Painho, 2004). The geographic units that have been considered correspond to AGEBs (Basic Geo-Statistical Areas) from the metropolitan zone of the Toluca Valley (MZTV) (INEGI, 2000).

The GCP problem belongs to the Territorial Design (TD) category and it is understood as the problem of grouping small geographic areas (basic areas) in larger geographical clusters called territories, in such a way that the acceptable grouping is one that meets certain predetermined criteria (Zoltners and Sinha, 1983). The criteria or properties to meet in GCP problems depend on the constraint space and the geometric compactness (Murtagh, 1991). The NP-hard condition of the GCP implies having to solve a large number of geographic tasks that emphasizes the classification process directed towards meeting an objective.

Therefore, this problem is usually explained with a description in terms of an optimization objective modeled mathematically as a cost function complemented by the characteristics of the problem expressed as constraints. The NP-hard nature of this problem justifies the use of heuristics to obtain good solutions in a reasonable amount of time. The GCP is a special case of the classic clustering problem, but with the requirement of compactness, connectedness and/or homogeneity in some cases (Murtagh, 1991; Zoltners and Sinha, 1983).

To solve the GCP, we developed our own partitioning algorithm that minimizes the distances between the objects, in order to obtain compactness between the AGEBs (Bernábe, 2009 and 2009a). However, the primary goal of this research goes beyond presenting the solutions generated by VNS (Hansen and Mladenovic, 1996 and 2003) and SA (Kirkpatrick, Gelatt and Vecchi, 1983).

Our main contribution is centered exactly in this point: we used the optimal solutions obtained with SA (Bernábe, 2009) and compared them with the solutions generated with VNS for the GCP (Bernábe, 2009a) using a Box Behnken experimental design (Montgomery, 1991) with different selected times, to evaluate the quality of the solutions.

This paper is organized as follows. In section 2 we present the mathematical model for the GCP. Section 3 describes the solution to the GCP with SA and with VNS. Section 4 describes the results obtained for the Box Behnken design with VNS and section 5 presents the Box Behnken design with SA. Finally some conclusions are presented in section 6.

# 2 Mathematical model for the Geographic Clustering Problem (GCP)

Many approaches have been used to solve the GCP. The method utilized in this research to solve the AGEBs conglomerate design is similar to the method presented in (Bação, Lobo and Painho, 2004), where the authors implemented a genetic algorithm for a similar zone design problem.

In the GCP solved here, the AGEBs are geographical units where each AGEB is separated by different distances of non uniform geometric structure, because the AGEBs are spatial data and its geographical localization is given by latitude and longitude, it was easier to calculate the distances between them (Zamora, 2006). The AGEBs are clustered in territories (groups) that are very close geographically, in order to minimize the distances between them.

Basically, the strategy is to randomly choose AGEBs as centroids to identify the territory (group). Those AGEBs that are not centroids and have the shortest distance to a specific centroid-AGEB are members of the same territory or cluster. This informal idea is the definition of geometrical compactness.

The definition of compactness for geographic units is included in Definition 1:

**Definition 1**. Let  $Z = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  be the set of n objects to cluster; the objective is to divide Z in k groups  $G_1 G_2 ..., G_k = Z$  with k < n, such that:

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{k} G_i = Z$$
  

$$G_i \cap G_j = \phi, \ i \neq j$$
  

$$|G_i| \ge 1 \quad i = 1, ..., k$$

A group  $G_m$  with  $|G_m| > 1$  is compact if every object  $t \in Gm$  satisfies:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \operatorname{Min} d(t,i) &< \operatorname{Min} d(t,j) \\ i \in G_m, i \neq t & j \in Z - G_m \end{array}$$

A group  $G_m$  with  $|G_m| = 1$  is compact only if its object t satisfies:

$$\begin{array}{ll} Min \ d(t,i) &< Min \ d(t,l) \\ i \in Z - \{t\} & j,l \in Gf \ \forall \ f \neq m \end{array}$$
 (1)

The neighborhood criterion between objects, needed to achieve the compactness, is given by the pairs of distances described in (1). Using this definition of compactness we will proceed to describe the model for the GCP.

Effectively, it is possible to rewrite definition 1 and extend it to a general optimization model for geographical partitioning, in this way the data, restrictions and objective function are identified. So it is understood that the GCP model may have different algorithmic translation (pseudo code) and/or implementations when a heuristic method is introduced (Bernábe, 2009 and 2009a).

In this work the model had two extensions with variants in the implementation owing to, among other things, the difference in obtaining neighboring solutions for each heuristic: a) Model for GCP with SA and b) Model for GCP with VNS. A model with different capacity can be built with the inclusion of another heuristic method, and hybrid between RS and VNS for example; this is a work in progress.

There is a detailed explanation with pseudo code in section 3 about how SA and VNS obtain their respective neighboring solutions for this problem.

## 2.1 Model GCP

The following describes the model for GCP.

#### Data

 $U_g$  = total of AGEBs Let the initial set of *n* geographical units be  $U_g = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\}$  where

 $x_i$  is the  $i^{th}$  geographical unit ( $i = U_g$  index)

k is the number of the zone (group).

The following variables are defined to refer to the different groups:

 $Z_i$  is the set of geographical units that belong to the

*i<sup>th</sup>* zone

n is the number of geographical units  $C_t$  is the centroid

d(i, j) is the Euclidean distance from node i to node j (from one AGEB to another)

## Constraints

 $Z_i \neq \phi$  for i = 1,..,k (nonempty groups)  $Z_i \cap Z_j = \phi$  for  $i \neq j$  (the same AGEBs cannot be in different groups)  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{k} Z_i = U_g$  (The union of all the groups are all the AGEBs).

## **Objective Function**

k

Once the number of centroids (k) is decided ( $C_t$  with

i = 1,..,k), the centroids will be randomly selected and the AGEBs will be assigned to the nearest centroids. Then, for each AGEBi, the objective function is defined as the minimum of the sum of the distances between the centroids (for each k), and the AGEBs assigned to them (each AGEB is assigned to the closest centroid).

For every k (where k = 1,..,n) the sum of the distances from every AGEBs assigned to each centroid is calculated, and the minimum is selected. Therefore the objective function can be written as:

$$Min_{=1,\ldots,n_{it}} \{ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \sum_{i \in C_t} d(i, c_t) \}$$
(2)

where  $n_{it}$  is the number of iterations.

# 3 Variable Neighborhood Search (VNS) and Simulated Annealing (SA) in the Geographical Clustering Problem

In this section the VNS and SA are introduced, as they are commonly discussed in the literature, and also the algorithmic adaptation of each heuristic to the geographical clustering model.

## 3.1 The Variable Neighborhood Search (VNS)

The VNS metaheuristic, proposed by Hansen and Mladenovic (1996 and 2003) is based on the observation that local minima tend to cluster in one or more areas of the searching space. Therefore when a local optimum is found, one can get advantage of the information it contains. For example, the value of several variables may be equal or close to their values at the global optimum. Looking for better solutions, VNS starts exploring, first the nearby neighborhoods of its current solution, and gradually the more distant ones. There is a current solution  $S_a$  and a neighborhood of order *k* associated to each iteration of VNS. Two steps are executed in every iteration: first, the generation of a neighbor solution of  $S_a$ , named  $S_p \in N_k(S_a)$ , and second, the application of a local search

procedure on  $S_{p}$ , that leads to a new solution Sol. If Sol improves the current solution  $S_{a}$ , then the searching procedure will restart now from *sol* using k = 1. Otherwise, k is incremented and the procedure is repeated from  $S_{a}$ . The algorithm stops after a certain number of times that the complete exploration sequence  $N_{1}$ ; $N_{2}$ ; ...; $N_{kmax}$  is performed.

The following algorithm shows how the solutions are obtained (Pelta, 2000).

#### **Procedure Variable Neighborhood Search**

```
BEGIN
/* Nk: k=1,..., kmax, neighborhood structures */
/* Sa: current solution */
/* Sp: neighbor solution of Sa */
/* Sol: local optima solution */
REPEAT UNTIL (END) DO
    k ← 1
  REPEAT UNTIL (k\leftarrowkmax) DO
/* Generate neighbor Sp of the \textbf{k}^{\text{th}} neighborhood
of Sa(Sp∈Nk(Sa))*/
     Sol \leftarrow LocalSearch (Sp);
       IF (Sol is better than Sa) THEN Sa ← Sol;
       ELSE k \leftarrow k + 1
  END DO
END DO
END
```

With the inclusion of the model for GCP and the general procedure for VNS, a custom algorithm was obtained for Geographical Clustering with VNS.

## 3.1.1 Algorithm for solving GCP with VNS

INPUT: Number of groups of objects corresponding to the K centroids, parameter values for VNS and the distances matrix. OUTPUT: Three files. File 1 has the AGEBs belonging to each group, the parameters values, the initial and final execution time and number of iterations. File 2 has the iteration number associated with the best value of the objective function. File 3 has graphical values to integrate the results with a Geographical Information System.

```
Let n be the number of objects to classify U_{g(i,j)} denotes that the object i is assigned to the centroid j for i=1,\ldots,n; j=1,\ldots,k
Let M=\{M_1,M_2,\ldots,M_k\} be a solution of K centroids MaxVNS /* maximum number of iterations to go over all the neighborhood search */
MaxLS /* number of iterations of Local Search (LS) for each neighborhood */
```

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#### 1. Generate initial random centroids:

```
M = \{M_1, M_2, ..., M_k\}
BEGIN
Current cost < Cost (M)
WHILE cont < MaxVNS DO
 BEGIN
 k-neighborhood ← 1
  WHILE kneighborhood <> n DO
   BEGIN
    C ← Generates a random solution with
    a k-neighborhood
    Sol neighborhood ← LocalSearch (C);
     ΤF
     (Cost(Sol neighborhood) < current cost)
     THEN
     M ← Sol neighborhood;
     ELSE
      k-neighborhood < k-neighborhood +1;
     ENDIF
   END WHILE
    END
END WHILE
Cont 🗲 cont+1
END
```

### 2. Cost Function (Sol)

/\* Determine the quality of the solution Sol, how much the objective is minimized \*/ BEGIN i  $\leftarrow$  1 /\* Initialize the first object \*/ cost  $\leftarrow$  0 WHILE (i  $\leq$  n) DO BEGIN /\* For each object in Ug do \*/ IF (Ug\_i is not a centroid) THEN BEGIN /\* Represents the distance between the object and the Sol1 (first centroid where Sol represents the set of centroids). The distance between each object and its nearest centroid is calculated \*/ j ← 2 /\* Go to the second centroid \*/ WHILE  $(j \leq k)$  THEN BEGIN IF (dist (Sol; , Ugi) < dmin) THEN /\*Calculate the distance between the object i and the Sol; (another centroid) \*/ dmin  $\leftarrow$  dist (Sol<sub>j</sub>, Ug<sub>i</sub>) END IF j ← j + 1 /\* Go to the next centroid \*/ END WHILE cost  $\leftarrow$  cost + dmin END IF i **←**i + 1 END WHILE Cost(Sol) ← cost END

## Remarks about VNS in GCP

The former pseudo code describes how neighbor solutions are obtained, moreover, it is observed that an initial solution is of the form (c1, c2, ..., ck) where K specifies the number of territories (groups) and the centroids are chosen at random.

If a neighbor solution in geographical clustering means to change a centroid ci for another ci' then it is necessary to determine which centroids are changed and which remain fixed to ensure the creation of a neighbor solution. For example, when c1, the first element of the solution, is kept fixed, a neighborhood is created by varying the last component ck with ck'. Evidently, if the initial solution is (c1, c2, ..., ck) then (c1, c2, ..., ck') can be considered a neighbor solution. The criterion to establish the method for changing the centroid that is not fixed consists in randomly choosing another centroid ci' to replace centroid ci using a distance threshold between ci and ci' within a given interval.

However, changing the centroid of one territory will necessarily generate a change in at least one of the other territories since a rearrangement of its members is invariably generated.

The objective function is calculated between the centroids and the objects of its respective clusters, if there is an improvement in the solution, it is taken into account, otherwise another centroid is chosen until the stopping criterion is met (like the VNS criteria).

When a solution is generated within a neighborhood, it is supplied to the local search procedure in order to find a local optimum (that improves the solution) or until the maximum number of iterations is reached. When the solution of the local search procedure is returned (either improved or not), it is evaluated in order to decide whether a solution of the same neighborhood is generated (if there is an improvement) or a new neighborhood is selected (if there is no improvement over the current solution). Clarifying, the expression "centroid" in the algorithms described here does not mean the object at the center of the groups, in this case it could be at any coordinate within the group (territory).

The general VNS procedure does not state that the number of neighborhoods must be equal to the number of objects, but this rule was adopted during the algorithmic and implementation phases due to its usefulness for the problem being solved.

Finally, the Local Search (LS) algorithm improves the search of the current solution in its neighborhood. It can end up finding a better solution or reaching the maximum number of iterations. The maximum number of iterations avoids the algorithm cycling in the case that a better solution cannot be found.

## 3.2 The Simulated Annealing (SA)

The SA algorithm is a neighborhood-based search method characterized by an acceptance criterion for neighboring solutions that adapts itself at run time. It uses a parameter called temperature (T), that according to its value determines the degree in which worse neighboring solutions can be accepted. The temperature variable is initialized with a high value, called initial temperature T<sub>0</sub> and is reduced with each iteration through a cooling temperature mechanism (cooling factor  $\alpha$ ) until a final temperature  $(T_f)$  is reached. During each iteration a concrete number of neighbors L(T) is generated, which may be fixed for all the execution time or may change for each iteration. Each time a neighbor is generated, an acceptance criterion is applied to determine if it will substitute the current solution (Kirkpatrick, Gelatt and Vecchi, 1983).

If the neighbor solution is better than the current one, it is automatically accepted, as a classic local search would do (LS). On the contrary, if it is worse, there still exists the possibility for the neighbor to substitute the current solution. This allows the algorithm to escape from local optima, where LS would get trapped. The higher the temperature, the more likely it is to accept worse solutions. In this way, the algorithm accepts solutions much worse than the current one at the beginning of the execution (exploring) but not at the end (exploiting).

At the stage of transition between solutions a new neighbor solution (candidate) is generated by randomly disturbing any centroid (replacing it with another object), and the cost difference between the current solution and the neighbor is calculated. A smaller cost difference increases the probability of accepting worse solutions. Every time a neighbor is generated the acceptance criterion is applied to determine whether it replaces the current solution.

The cost difference in this problem depends on the objective function, which is formulated to minimize distances from the objects to the centroids. Furthermore, L(T) must be "big enough", in this case of geographical clustering it is fixed in such a way as to reaching a stationary state for that temperature.

The general procedure for simulated annealing is

presented as follows (Dowsland, 2003):

## Procedure Simulated Annealing (SA)

```
INPUT (To, \alpha, L(t), T<sub>f</sub>)
т← то
/* Initial value for the control parameter* /
Scur 🗲 Generate initial solution
WHILE T \geq Tf DO
/* Stopping condition */
   BEGIN
     FOR cont < 1 TO L(T) DO
/* Cooling speed(T) */
       BEGIN
        /* Creation of a new solution */
       \partial \leftarrow \text{cost}(\text{Scand}) - \text{cost}(\text{Scur})
 /* Computation of cost difference */
         IF (U(0,1) < e^{(-\partial/T)} OR \partial<0)
          THEN Scur← Scand
/* Acceptance criterion*/
       END
        τ←α*Τ
/* Cooling mechanism */
   END
{/* WRITE as solution the best of the
  visited Scur*/}
```

By incorporating this procedure (Dowsland, 2003) to the geographical clustering model, an appropriate algorithm for geographical clustering with simulated annealing is obtained.

## 3.2.1 Algorithm for solving GCP with VNS

Simulated annealing and partitioning algorithm for the geographical clustering problem.

INPUT: Number of groups of objects corresponding to the K centroids, Parameter values for SA and the distances matrix.

OUTPUT: Three files. File 1 has the AGEBs belonging to each group, the parameters values, the initial and final execution time and number of iterations. File 2 has the iteration number associated with the best value of the objective function. File 3 has graphical values to integrate the results with a Geographical Information System.

Let n be the number of objects to classify Ug(i,j) denotes object i is assigned to centroid j for i = 1, ..., n and j = 1, ..., k Let  $M=\{M1, M2, ..., Mk\}$  be a solution with k centroids Let  $T_0$  be the initial temperature Let  $T_f$  be the final temperature Let L(t) be the number of iterations to be performed with temperature t

1. Randomly generate the initial solution M ={M1, M2, ..., Mk} /\* Obtain the initial solution. Any AGEB can be a randomly chosen centroid \*/ BEGIN Current cost <- Cost(M)@ /\* This assignment already represents an initial solution or it is a proposed solution generated by the previous iteration. The following steps generate another solution (neighbor solution) to determine how good it is compared to the current one and decide whether it is replaced or not \*/ WHILE T>=Tf /\* While the system has not cooled down \*/ FOR count=1 to L(t) DO  $/\,\star\,$  Number of iterations to perform with the same temperature (Parameter of SA) \*/ C <- Random solution /\* A solution to be compared to 0 is generated \*/ Cost cand <- Cost(C) /\* The cost of the candidate solution just generated is obtained \*/  $\partial$  <- Cost\_cand - Current\_cost /\* Cost difference to obtain the probability of accepting the candidate solution \*/ IF U(0,1) <  $e-\partial/T$  or  $\partial<0$  THEN /\* If the acceptance probability is still high \*/ M < -C/\* The candidate solution is accepted \*/ Current cost <- Cost cand END IF END FOR t <-  $\alpha$ \*t /\* The system is cooling down \*/ END WHILE END

#### 2. Function Cost(Sol)

```
/* Determines how good the solution Sol */
i <- 1 /* Initializes the first object */
Cost < - 0
WHILE i<= n /* for each object in Ug do */
 IF \text{Ug}_{\text{i}} is not a centroid THEN
dmin <- dist(Sol1, Uqi)
/*represents the distance from the object Ug_i to
Sol_1 (first centroid, where Sol represents the
set of all centroids). The distance from each
object to the nearest centroid is calculated
(distance from the object Ug<sub>i</sub>, which is not
centroid to Sol1, which is centroid ^{\star/}
 j <- 2 /* proceeds to the second centroid */
 WHILE j<= k THEN
  IF dist(Sol<sub>i</sub>, Ug<sub>i</sub>) < dmin
/* The distance from the object Ugi to Soli
(another centroid) is calculated ^{\star/}
  dmin <- dist(Solj, Ugi)
  END IF
   i <- i+1
 END WHILE
Cost(Sol) <- cost
```

## **4 Statistical Analysis**

With the purpose of developing systematic experiments to evaluate the locality of the solutions from the heuristics discussed here, several experimental schemes can be proposed, such as factorial designs, fractional factorial designs, Box Behnken designs or central composite designs (Montgomery, 1991). A matrix  $D(n \times k)$  represents some of these schemes, where n is the number of combinations (treatments) for the values of the k factors (input variables for the process, parameters in this case) and there are r possible answers for each of the n combinations; with the information produced by the experiment, it is possible to individually model each of the r answers. As a general rule this models are linear or quadratic and are a function of the k factors.

To develop a comparative statistical analysis about the quality of the solutions as a function of time between VNS and SA, the Box Behnken factorial was employed.

The characteristics of this type of design make it easy to carry out experiments, defining adapted levels of the design parameters. Furthermore, it is a rotary design that uses equal variance for all the experimentation points that have the same distance to the center of the design, and it is possible to make sequential experiments in the pruned regions, in order to study the individual effects of the control parameters and its combined effects (Montgomery, 1991).

The experimental process in this work was performed in stages. The first allowed determining the values of the parameters that improved the quality of the solutions independently of time. The second stage takes the levels that influence the experiment in the first stage; the most important values were analyzed in parallel and thus it was possible to perform new random tests around these parameters; lastly, an experimental design area was detected. These results contributed to modeling an experiment where the heuristics parameters were calibrated so that they executed in a specific time.

For the comparative study, the determination of the parameter levels used for both heuristics when modeling the experiment has been supported in previous works (Bernábe, 2009 and 2009a).

Before introducing the development of the experiment, it is convenient to mention that 171 census variables were considered, which describe the 473 geo-statistical areas (AGEBs) for the

Metropolitan Zone of the Toluca Valley. The AGEB information has been taken from the latest household and population census (INEGI, 2000).

# 4.1 The Experimental Box Benhken design for VNS

In order to approach the comparative analysis, the VNS experiment reported previously has been revisited (Bernábe, 2009a).

The parameter controls for VNS are: neighborhood structures (NS), local search iterations (LS) and the number of groups (G).

The parameter levels used in the experiment can be seen in Table 1.

 Table 1. Experimentation Level for VNS

Parameter	High	Center	Low
LS	848	530	212
NS	640	400	160
G	24	18	12

In Table 2 we show results for 15 configurations with VNS. The nomenclature used is: NS, LS, G (Groups that mean territory), and OBJ (Objective Value).

Test	G	LS	NS	OBJ
1	12	212	400	15.4535
2	24	212	400	10.9011
3	12	848	400	15.1598
4	24	848	400	10.8866
5	12	530	160	15.3206
6	24	530	160	11.0177
7	12	530	640	15.3221
8	24	530	640	10.8371
9	18	212	160	12.8541
10	18	848	160	12.4411
11	18	212	640	12.6957
12	18	848	640	12.4726
13	18	530	400	12.5597
14	18	530	400	12.5667

Table 2. Configuration for VNS

In instance number 8, with 24 groups and parameters LS = 530 and NS = 640, the cost function was 10.8371. This is the closest value to the optimal objective. The objective value obtained with PAM (Partitioning Around Medoids) (Rousseeuw, Hubert and Struyf, 1997) is 9.279. In contrast, PAM managed to get the same solution in 27 hours, while the VNS algorithm got it in 13 minutes, with 616529 iterations and 16 accepted solutions. The evolution of the iterations and the objective value can be seen in Fig. 1. This instance has been chosen as a representative example of the experiment designed, because it was found that 24 groups is a turning point for our multivariate statistical study.

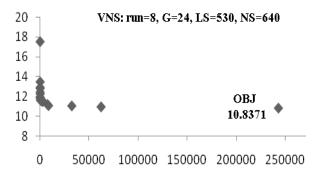


Fig. 1. OBJ vs. Number of iterations for VNS: (Run=8, G=24, LS=530, NS=640, OBJ=10.8371)

## 4.2 Experimental Box Benhken design for SA

The SA experiment that is discussed next (Bernábe, 2009) and the VNS previously described were considered for the comparative statistical analysis presented in section 4.4.

To obtain the instances evaluated with the SA heuristic, we developed a Box-Behnken design. The three levels determined for the experiment, are shown in Table 3.

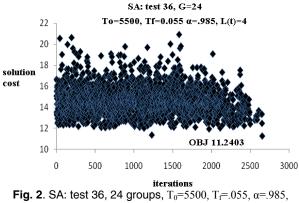
Table 3.	Simulated	Annealing	Levels
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Parameter	High	Central	Low
$T_0$	5500	5250	5000
$T_{f}$	0.1	0.055	0.01
А	0.99	0.985	0.98
L(t)	5	4	3
Groups	24	18	12

These levels originated 46 trials that are shown in Table 4. The nomenclature used in the Table 3 and Table 4 is:  $T_0$  (Initial Temperature),  $T_f$  (Final Temperature),  $\alpha$  (cooling factor),  $L_t$  (L(t)), G (Groups), OBJ (Objective Function)

Test	$T_{\theta}$	$T_{f}$	α	L(t)	G	OBJ
1	5000	0.01	0.985	4	18	13.5279
2	5500	0.01	0.985	4	18	13.5878
3	5000	0.1	0.985	4	18	14.0342
4	5500	0.1	0.985	4	18	14.1222
5	5250	0.055	0.98	3	18	13.9166
6	5250	0.055	0.99	3	18	14.1286
7	5250	0.055	0.98	5	18	13.2346
8	5250	0.055	0.99	5	18	13.8935
9	5250	0.01	0.985	4	12	16.2161
10	5250	0.1	0.985	4	12	16.553
11	5250	0.01	0.985	4	24	11.5392
12	5250	0.1	0.985	4	24	12.0292
13	5000	0.055	0.98	4	18	16.3016
14	5500	0.055	0.98	4	18	14.095
15	5000	0.055	0.99	4	18	13.9159
16	5500	0.055	0.99	4	18	13.9545
17	5250	0.055	0.985	3	12	15.6353
18	5250	0.055	0.985	5	12	16.0845
19	5250	0.055	0.985	3	24	12.3314
20	5250	0.055	0.985	5	24	11.6377
21	5250	0.01	0.98	4	18	13.5198
22	5250	0.1	0.98	4	18	14.304
23	5250	0.01	0.99	4	18	13.3445
24	5250	0.1	0.99	4	18	13.7725
25	5000	0.055	0.985	3	18	13.6595
26	5500	0.055	0.985	3	18	13.5348
27	5000	0.055	0.985	5	18	14.0258
28	5500	0.055	0.985	5	18	13.0667
29	5250	0.055	0.98	4	12	16.8496
30	5250	0.055	0.99	4	12	17.1076
31	5250	0.055	0.98	4	24	12.2146
32	5250	0.055	0.99	4	24	11.7276
33	5000	0.055	0.985	4	12	16.6959
34	5500	0.055	0.985	4	12	16.7826
35	5000	0.055	0.985	4	24	11.8841
36	5500	0.055	0.985	4	24	11.2403
37	5250	0.01	0.985	3	18	13.5575
38	5250	0.1	0.985	3	18	13.2107
39	5250	0.01	0.985	5	18	13.6996
40	5250	0.1	0.985	5	18	14.7604
41	5250	0.055	0.985	4	18	13.9274
42	5250	0.055	0.985	4	18	13.8217
43	5250	0.055	0.985	4	18	13.5833
44	5250	0.055	0.985	4	18	13.9886
45	5250	0.055	0.985	4	18	13.6392
46	5250	0.055	0.985	4	18	12.9008

In test 36 there are 24 groups with the parameters:  $T_0$ =5500,  $T_i$ =0.055,  $\alpha$ =0.985, L(t)=4, and an objective function of 11.2403. This is the best result, the closest to the optimum obtained with PAM that was of 9.279. In contrast the time required by PAM to generate the exact solution, was 27 hours, while the SA, with 3,049 iterations and 2,183 accepted solutions, reduced the computational time to a range of 2 to 10 seconds. The behavior of the objective function with the number of iterations can be seen in Figure 2.



L(t)=4, OBJ=11.2403

It is necessary to clarify that the reduction in run time from 2 to 10 seconds that SA achieves is due to the instance cited is small with "low" parameters, particularly in L(t) and  $\alpha$ . In general, reviewing the regression model for this experiment (Bernábe, 2009), it is assumed that L(t) and  $\alpha$  are determining parameters for a higher computational cost. There is work in progress to model the dependency of these two parameters as a function of time.

#### 4.3 Heuristics evaluation

From the results obtained in the last sections, we obtain the parameters used for solving the GCP that accompanied the best objective function value. In the case of VNS:

• A value of NS close to 640 units, independently of the group size, will yield better values in the objective function.

• The best objective values were found for LS values between 848 and 530.

In the case of SA:

• An initial temperature close to 5000 units, gave a better convergence to the optimum regardless of the number of groups.

• A final temperature of 0.01 with  $\alpha$ = 0.98 gave the best minimum value for the objective function.

• It is obvious that for both VNS and SA the number of groups is directly proportional to the quality of the solutions.

The experiment for both heuristics used the results obtained with the empirical combinations, where 24 proved to be a good number of groups. For this reason, Tables 1 and 3 used 24 groups.

We performed a two tails T-Student hypothesis test on the solutions produced by both heuristics. We used results from instances number 8 and 36 of Tables 2 and 4 and repeated them, 10 times for VNS and RS, respectively. We used 13 degrees of freedom, and a marginal error of media  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . The statistical value obtained with the test, of 37.7 showed that the null hypothesis establishing that the quality of the solutions obtained with RS and VNS is the same, should be rejected. With the null hypothesis rejected, a new right-tailed T test where performed to test if the quality of the solutions with the two methodologies showed a statistical difference. Results verified the right-tailed alternative hypothesis about the difference in the quality of the solutions obtained with VNS and with RS. The statistical evidence allowed us to conclude that under the conditions of the experiment proposed in this paper the quality of solutions generated with VNS is better than the solutions obtained with SA (Bernábe, 2009b).

#### 4.4 Modeling response times for the heuristics

So far we have described experiments to evaluate VNS and SA, however the aim of this study is to compare the quality of the cost functions of both. To develop this comparison we have conducted two experiments that allow us to make a modeling of time to calculate each of the heuristics. Once we have identified the adequate times, we make several preliminary tests to find the best levels of the parameters for both.

The following tables show the levels used for each design heuristics and design for the respective tests.

## 4.4.1 Modeling response times for VNS

Taking the results from section 4.1, a new set of 35 random duplicates (instances) to build a central composite design since only two parameters are calibrated as a cost function (Montgomery, 1991). Table 5 shows the composed design levels for VNS and Table 6, the experiments performed with VNS. The factorial experiments require the test to be performed to be random, "Standard Order", tables 6 and 8 show the order in which the test were performed.

Table 5. Composite design levels for VNS

Parameter	High	Low
LS	916	158
NS	1092	190

**Table 6.** Configuration for VNS according to the experimental design

Test	Standard Order	NS	LS	Τ
1	13	641	537	314
2	12	641	537	314
3	4	1092	916	509
4	9	641	537	312
5	8	641	1073	313
6	6	1279	537	624
7	7	641	101	130
8	10	641	537	318
9	3	190	916	90
10	11	641	537	287
11	1	190	158	90
12	2	1092	158	1050
13	5	3.19	537	3

According to the central composed design levels presented in Table 5 and the instances of Table 6 to obtain the second order regression model for VNS. The values of the parameter of the respective model are:

#### Model for VNS

Term	Coefficient
Constant 309	
NS	282.153
LS	-35.275
NS*NS	44.063
LS*LS	-1.938
NS*LS	-135.250

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Fig. 3 shows that applying the coefficient values in the model for VNS, the parameters to be used by VNS, with 24 groups, and in a 100 seconds test, in order to get the corresponding objective function value, can be obtained. The figure shows that to obtain a cost function in 100 seconds the parameters in VNS must be NS=265 and LS=539 (the values are approximated to the nearest integer).

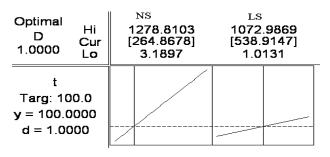


Fig. 3. VNS Parameters for t=100

The contour graph of Fig. 4 shows the areas of experimentation for the times of 200, 400, 600 and 800 seconds. If we set NS = 1159.3 and LS= 1051.71, VNS got a solution in 400.187 seconds.

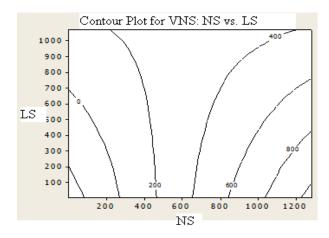


Fig. 4. Example of a Contour Plot for VNS

## 4.4.2 Modeling response times for RS

In view of the results from subsection 4.2, an additional set of 35 random runs was performed which contributed to define the BB for time modeling in SA.

Tables 7 and 8 show a series of tests that respond to the design and the experiments performed with SA.

Table 7. Box Benhken levels for SA

Parameter	High	Low
$T_0$	50000	500
$T_{f}$	0.1	0.01
α	0.99	0.98
L(t)	1000	5

 
 Table 8. Configuration for Simulated Annealing according to the experimental design

Test	Std. Order	Τo	Tt	α	Lt	t
1	5	25250	0.055	0.98	5	2
2	2	50000	0.01	0.985	502.5	174
3	10	50000	0.055	0.98	502.5	119
4	14	25250	0.1	0.985	5	3
5	13	25250	0.01	0.985	5	1
6	16	25250	0.1	0.985	1000	285
7	17	500	0.055	0.985	5	2
8	27	25250	0.055	0.985	502.5	154
9	22	25250	0.1	0.98	502.5	129
10	6	25250	0.055	0.99	5	2
11	7	25250	0.055	0.98	1000	219
12	4	50000	0.1	0.985	502.5	150
13	12	50000	0.055	0.99	502.5	239
14	19	500	0.055	0.985	1000	209
15	23	25250	0.01	0.99	502.5	262
16	15	25250	0.01	0.985	1000	354
17	21	25250	0.01	0.98	502.5	126
18	3	500	0.1	0.985	502.5	96
19	25	25250	0.055	0.985	502.5	156
20	8	25250	0.055	0.99	1000	444
21	1	500	0.01	0.985	502.5	125
22	11	500	0.055	0.99	502.5	158
23	18	50000	0.055	0.985	5	2
24	24	25250	0.1	0.99	502.5	217
25	20	50000	0.055	0.985	1000	313
26	9	500	0.055	0.98	502.5	76
27	26	25250	0.055	0.985	502.5	152

These experiments were used to develop the models used to estimate the calculation times for our tests with both heuristics.

The regression model that yields a good adjustment for SA has the following values for the heuristic parameters:

## Model for SA

Term	Coefficient
Constant	154
T <sub>0</sub>	27.583
T <sub>f</sub>	-13.5
α	54.25
L	151
$T_0 * T_0$	-23.583
$T_f T_f$	8.792
α * α	17.667
L*L	-1.958
$T_0 * T_f$	1.25
$T_0^* \alpha$	9.5
T <sub>0</sub> *L	26
$T_f^* \alpha$	-12
T <sub>f</sub> *L	-17.75
a*L	56.250

Fig. 5 shows an example of the model described. SA parameter values for 24 groups were used to get a solution (objective function value) in 100 seconds ( $T_0$ =14600,  $T_f$ =.0735,  $\alpha$  =.9832 y L(t)=420). In the SA model and figure 5 it is understood that L is the same as L(t).

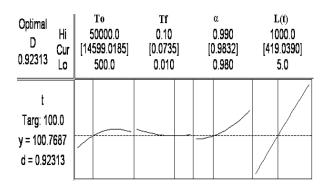


Fig. 5 Example of parameters for SA, with a time of 100 seconds

Moreover, the contour graph shown in Fig. 6, indicates the experimentation zones t = 120, 140, 160, and 180 seconds. For example, when  $\alpha$  (cooling factor) is maintained in .985 and L(t) at 502.5, SA needs 160.044 seconds, we must have  $T_0{=}39377.3$ , and  $T_f{=}0.06309.$ 

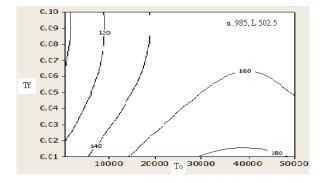


Fig. 6 Contour graph for SA (t vs. T<sub>f</sub>, T<sub>0</sub>)

With models for SA and VNS and results taken from figures similar to 3, 4, 5 and 6, several tests were developed using times of 100, 150, 200, 250, 300, 350 and 400 seconds in both heuristics calculation; calculating the appropriate parameter levels that allow us to conduct this test. Table 9 summarizes the results of the objective functions for each of the computing times indicated.

Test	Time T (sec.)	<b>Objetive</b> VNS	Objetive SA
1	100	11.14000	11.46780
2	150	10.78029	11.48480
3	200	10.55189	11.04380
4	250	10.59820	11.18271
5	300	10.89140	11.14000
6	350	10.59820	11.01810

Table 9. Time VS Objective Value for SA and VNS

Figures 7 and 8 show the evolution of the best results obtained for VNS and SA, according to Table 9.

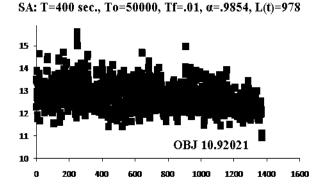


Fig. 7. SA with objective value=10.92021, T=400 seconds and  $T_0{=}50000,\,T_f{=}{.}01,\,\alpha{=}{.}9854,\,L(t){=}978$ 

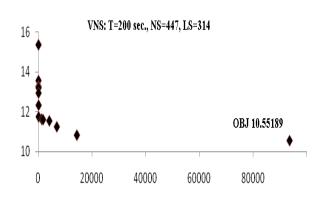


Fig. 8. VNS with OBJ=10.55, T=200 seconds, NS=447, LS=314

From Table 9, it can be concluded that the cost function for the VNS heuristic is of better quality than SA because the vast majority of cases have a better objective function value.

## **5** Conclusions

Throughout this work we have found that VNS performed better than SA in the GCP with small problems of 24 groups or territories. The methodology used in this article allowed us to verify the initial assumption about the quality of the objective value when separate experiments were performed for VNS and SA, observing that VNS performed better than SA. Using this information, we tested statistically the hypotheses and finally developed a statistical model to estimate the calculation time needed to perform the tests for VNS and SA; using these times and recording the best

value obtained for the objective function, to evaluate the quality of the solutions for both heuristics with the same calculation time, as can be seen in Table 9.

Higher parameter values imply longer computing time but not necessarily better quality of the solutions, for this a parameter adjustment must be found that allows to obtain a near-optimum value for short computing times, which is just what was done in this paper.

As a future work, a new experiment for different group size and experimentation region can be designed. Furthermore, an experiment for GCP with two objectives: compactness and homogeneity can be performed.

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