

### **Performance comparison of fve metaheuristic nature‑inspired algorithms to fnd near‑OGRs for WDM systems**

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#### **Abstract**

The metaheuristic approaches inspired by the nature are becoming powerful optimizing algorithms for solving NP-complete problems. This paper presents fve nature-inspired metaheuristic optimization algorithms to fnd near-optimal Golomb ruler (OGR) sequences in a reasonable time. In order to improve the search space and further improve the convergence speed and optimization precision of the metaheuristic algorithms, the improved algorithms based on mutation strategy and Lévy-fight search distribution are proposed. These two strategies help the metaheuristic algorithms to jump out of the local optimum, improve the global search ability so as to maintain the good population diversity. The OGRs found their potential application in channel-allocation method to suppress the four-wave mixing crosstalk in optical wavelength division multiplexing systems. The results conclude that the proposed algorithms are superior to the existing conventional computing algorithms i.e. extended quadratic congruence and search algorithm and nature-inspired optimization algorithms i.e. genetic algorithms, biogeography based optimization and simple big bang– big crunch to fnd near-OGRs in terms of ruler length, total optical channel bandwidth and computation time. The idea of computational complexity for the proposed algorithms is represented through the Big O notation. In order to validate the proposed algorithms, the non-parametric statistical Wilcoxon analysis is being considered.

**Keywords** Channel spacing · Conventional computing · Equally and unequally spaced channel allocation · Four-wave mixing · Metaheuristic · Nature-inspired algorithm · Nearoptimal Golomb ruler · Optimization

#### **1 Introduction**

There exists a rich collection of nonlinear optical effects (Kwong and Yang [1997;](#page-45-0) Aggar-wal [2001;](#page-44-0) Thing et al. [2004;](#page-45-1) Babcock [1953](#page-44-1); Singh and Bansal [2013](#page-45-2)) in optical WDM systems, each of which manifests itself in a unique way. Out of these nonlinearities, the FWM

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crosstalk signal is the major dominant noise efects in optical WDM systems employing equal channel spacing (ECS). Four-wave mixing is a third-order nonlinear optical efect in which two or more wavelengths (or frequencies) combine and produce several mixing products. For uniformly spaced WDM channels, the generated FWM product terms fall onto other active channels in the band, causing inter-channel crosstalk. The performance can be substantially improved if FWM crosstalk generation at the channel frequencies is prevented. The efficiency of FWM signals depends on the channel spacing and fiber dispersion. If the frequency separation of any two channels of an optical WDM system is diferent from that of any other pair of channels, no FWM crosstalk signals will be generated at any of the channel frequencies (Kwong and Yang [1997;](#page-45-0) Aggarwal [2001;](#page-44-0) Thing et al. [2004;](#page-45-1) Babcock [1953](#page-44-1); Singh and Bansal [2013](#page-45-2)).

To suppress the FWM signals in optical WDM systems, unequally spaced channel allocation (USCA) algorithms (Kwong and Yang [1997](#page-45-0); Sardesai [1999;](#page-45-3) Forghieri et al. [1995;](#page-44-2) Hwang and Tonguz [1998;](#page-45-4) Tonguz and Hwang [1998](#page-45-5); Atkinson et al. [1986;](#page-44-3) Randhawa et al. [2009\)](#page-45-6) have been proposed, having the limitation of increased channel bandwidth requirement compared to equally spaced channel allocation (ESCA). This paper proposes an unequally spaced optical bandwidth channel allocation algorithm by taking into consideration the concept of near-OGRs (Babcock [1953;](#page-44-1) Bloom and Golomb [1977](#page-44-4); Shearer [1998](#page-45-7)) to suppress FWM crosstalk in optical WDM systems.

Studies have been shown that Golomb rulers represent a class of NP-complete ([http://](http://theinf1.informatik.uni-jena.de/teaching/ss10/oberseminar-ss10) [theinf1.informatik.uni-jena.de/teaching/ss10/oberseminar-ss10\)](http://theinf1.informatik.uni-jena.de/teaching/ss10/oberseminar-ss10) problems. For higher order marks, the exhaustive computer search (Robinson [1979](#page-45-8); Shearer [1990](#page-45-9)) of such problems is difficult. Numerous algorithms (Robinson [1979;](#page-45-8) Shearer [1990](#page-45-9); Galinier et al. [2001;](#page-44-5) Leitao [2004](#page-45-10); Rankin [1993](#page-45-11); Cotta et al. [2006\)](#page-44-6) have been proposed to tackle Golomb ruler problem. To date, no efficient algorithm is known for finding the shortest length ruler. The realization of nature-inspired metaheuristic optimization algorithms such as Tabu search (TS) (Cotta et al. [2006](#page-44-6)), Memetic approach (Cotta et al. [2006](#page-44-6)), Genetic algorithms (GAs) (Soliday et al. [1995;](#page-45-12) Robinson [2000](#page-45-13); Ayari et al. [2010](#page-44-7); Dotú and Hentenryck [2005](#page-44-8)) and its hybridizations (HGA) (Ayari et al. [2010\)](#page-44-7), hybrid evolutionary (HE) algorithms (Dotú and Hentenryck [2005\)](#page-44-8), Biogeography based optimization (BBO) (Bansal [2014\)](#page-44-9) and Big bang–big crunch (BB–BC) (Bansal [2017;](#page-44-10) Bansal and Sharma [2017\)](#page-44-11) in fnding relatively good solutions to such NP-complete problems provides a good starting point for algorithms of fnding near-OGRs. Therefore, nature-inspired algorithms seem to be very efective solutions for such NP-complete problems. This paper proposes the application of fve nature-inspired algorithms namely BB–BC algorithm, Firefy algorithm (FA), Bat algorithm (BA), Cuckoo search algorithm (CSA), Flower pollination algorithm (FPA) and their modifed forms to fnd either optimal or near-optimal rulers in a reasonable time and their performance comparison with the existing conventional and nature-inspired algorithms to find near-OGRs.

#### **2 Golomb rulers**

Babcock [\(1953](#page-44-1)) frstly introduced the concept of *Golomb rulers*, and further was described by Bloom and Golomb ([1977\)](#page-44-4). According to the literatures (Colannino [2003;](#page-44-12) Dimitromanolakis [2002](#page-44-13); Dollas et al. [1998\)](#page-44-14), all of rulers' up to 8-marks introduced in Babcock ([1953\)](#page-44-1) are optimal; the 9- and 10-marks are near-optimal.

*Golomb rulers* are an ordered set of unevenly marks at positive integer locations such that no distinct pairs of numbers from the set have the same diference ([http://www.distr](http://www.distributed.net/ogr) [ibuted.net/ogr;](http://www.distributed.net/ogr) Bansal [2019](#page-44-15); Drakakis and Rickard [2010](#page-44-16); Drakakis [2009\)](#page-44-17). This means that an *n*-mark Golomb ruler  $G = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_{n-1}, x_n\}$   $x_1 < x_2 < ... < x_{n-1} < x_n$  is an ordered set of *n* diferent positive integer numbers such that all the positive diferences

$$
|x_i - x_j|, \ \ x_i, x_j \in G \quad \forall \ i > j \text{ or } i \neq j \tag{1}
$$

are distinct (Bansal [2017](#page-44-10)). And

$$
\forall i, j, k, l \in \{1, 2, \dots, n - 1, n\}, x_i - x_j = x_k - x_l \Leftrightarrow i = k \land j = l. \tag{2}
$$

The positive integer numbers are referred to as *order* or *marks*. The number of marks on a ruler is referred to as the *ruler size*. The diference between the largest and smallest number is referred to as the *ruler length RL*, i.e.

$$
RL = \max(G) - \min(G) = x_n - x_1 \tag{3}
$$

where

$$
\max(G) = \max\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n\} = x_n
$$
 (4)

and

$$
\min(G) = \min\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n\} = x_1
$$
\n(5)

Generally, the frst mark *x*1 of set *G* may be assumed on position 0. Then the *n*-mark Golomb ruler set becomes  $G = \{0, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n\}$  and the *RL* of such *n*-mark set *G* is  $x_n$ .

An OGR is the shortest length ruler for a given number of marks ([http://mathworld.](http://mathworld.wolfram.com/PerfectRuler.html) [wolfram.com/PerfectRuler.html](http://mathworld.wolfram.com/PerfectRuler.html); [http://mathworld.wolfram.com/GolombRuler.html\)](http://mathworld.wolfram.com/GolombRuler.html). There can be multiple diferent OGRs for a specifc number of marks. However, the unique optimal Golomb 4-marks ruler is shown in Fig. [1,](#page-2-0) which measures all the distances from 0 to 6.

A perfect Golomb ruler measures all the integer distances from 0 to *RL* [\(http://thein](http://theinf1.informatik.uni-jena.de/teaching/ss10/oberseminar-ss10) [f1.informatik.uni-jena.de/teaching/ss10/oberseminar-ss10;](http://theinf1.informatik.uni-jena.de/teaching/ss10/oberseminar-ss10) Soliday et al. [1995\)](#page-45-12). The ruler length *RL* of perfect Golomb ruler set *G* is (Rankin [1993\)](#page-45-11):

$$
RL = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i
$$
 (6)

For example, the set  $(0, 1, 3, 7, 12, 20)$  $(0, 1, 3, 7, 12, 20)$  $(0, 1, 3, 7, 12, 20)$ , shown in Fig. 2 is a non-optimal 6-marks Golomb ruler with a length of 20. As from the diferences it is clear that the numbers 10, 14, 15, 16, 18 are missing, so it is not a perfect Golomb ruler set. The distance associated between each pair of marks is also shown in Fig. [2](#page-3-0).

**Fig. 1** A 4-marks OGR with its

<span id="page-2-0"></span>



<span id="page-3-0"></span>**Fig. 2** A 6-marks non-OGR with its associated distances

The OGRs found their potential applications in radio frequency allocation, computer communication network, sensor placement in X-ray crystallography, circuit layout, pulse phase modulation, self-orthogonal codes, VLSI architecture, geographical mapping, coding theory, linear arrays, ftness landscape analysis, radio astronomy, antenna design for radar missions, sonar applications and NASA missions in astrophysics, planetary and earth sciences (Babcock [1953;](#page-44-1) Bloom and Golomb [1977](#page-44-4); Rankin [1993](#page-45-11); Soliday et al. [1995;](#page-45-12) Dimitromanolakis [2002](#page-44-13); Dollas et al. [1998;](#page-44-14) Lam and Sarwate [1988](#page-45-14); Lavoie et al. [1991;](#page-45-15) Robinson and Bernstein [1967](#page-45-16); Cotta and Fernández [2005](#page-44-18); Fang and Sandrin [1977;](#page-44-19) Blum et al. [1974;](#page-44-20) Memarsadegh [2013;](#page-45-17) <http://encompass.gsfc.nasa.gov/cases.html>).

On applying OGRs to the channel allocation, it was possible to achieve the smallest distinct number to be used for the optical WDM channel allocation problem. As the diference between any two numbers is distinct, the new FWM frequency signals generated would not fall into the one already assigned for the carrier channels.

#### **3 Nature‑inspired metaheuristic algorithms**

Due to highly nonlinearity and complexity of the problem of interest, design optimization in engineering felds tends to be very challenging. As conventional computing algorithms are local search algorithm, so they are not the best tools for highly nonlinear global optimization, and thus often miss the global optimality. In addition, design solutions have to be robust, low cost, subject to uncertainty in parameters and tolerance for imprecision of available components and materials. Nature-inspired algorithms are now among the most widely used optimization algorithms. The guiding principle is to devise algorithms of computation that lead to an acceptable solution at low cost by seeking for an approximate solution to a precisely/imprecisely formulated problem (Cotta and Hemert [2008;](#page-44-21) Yang [2010a](#page-45-18), [2012a,](#page-46-0) [2013a;](#page-46-1) Koziel and Yang [2011](#page-45-19); Rajasekaran and Vijayalakshmi Pai [2004;](#page-45-20) Mitchell [2004\)](#page-45-21).

This section is devoted to the brief overview of nature-inspired optimization algorithms based on the theories of big bang and big crunch called BB–BC, fash pattern of frefies called FA, the echolocation characteristics of microbats called BA, brood parasitism of cuckoo species called CSA and fow pollination process of fowering plants called FPA.

The power of nature-inspired optimization algorithms lies in how faster the algorithms explore the new possible solutions and how efficiently they exploit the solutions to make them better. Although all optimization algorithms in their simplifed form works well in the exploitation (the fne search around a local optimal), there are some problems in the global exploration of the search space. If all of the solutions in the initial phase of the optimization algorithm are collected in a small part of search space, the algorithms may not fnd the optimal result and with a high probability, it may be trapped in that sub-domain. One can consider a large number for solutions to avoid this shortcoming, but it causes an increase in the function calculations as well as the computational costs and time. So for the optimization algorithms, there is a need by which exploration and exploitation can be enhanced and the algorithms can work more efficiently. By keeping this in mind two features, fitness (cost) based mutation strategy and random walk i.e. Lévy-fight distribution are introduced in the proposed metaheuristic algorithms, which is the main technical contribution of this paper. The Lévy fights distribution is much faster than the normal random walk. Lévy flights can reduce the required number of metaheuristic algorithms iterations by  $\sim$  4 orders compared to normal random walk (Mareli and Twala  $2018$ ). Both the mutation and Lévy fight strategies help the metaheuristic algorithms to jump out of the local optimum, avoid the premature convergence of the algorithm and improve the global search ability so as to maintain the good population diversity. In all the modifed algorithms, the mutation rate probability is determined based on the fitness value. The mutation rate probability  $MR_i^t$  of each solution  $x_i$  at running iteration index  $t$ , mathematically is given by:

$$
MR_i^t = \frac{f_i^t}{Max(f^t)}
$$
\n<sup>(7)</sup>

where  $f_i$  is the fitness value of each solution  $x_i$  at iteration index *t*, and  $Max(f^t)$  is the maximum ftness value in the population at iteration *t*. For all proposed algorithms, the mutation equation (Storn and Price [1997](#page-45-23); Price et al. [2005\)](#page-45-24) use throughout this paper is:

$$
x_i^t = x_i^{t-1} + p_m(x_{best}^{t-1} - x_i^{t-1}) + p_m(x_{r_1}^{t-1} - x_{r_2}^{t-1})
$$
\n(8)

where  $x_i^t$  is the population at running iteration index *t*,  $x_{best}^{t-1} = x_*^{t-1}$  is the current global best solution at iteration one less than running iteration index  $t$ ,  $p_m$  is mutation operator,  $r_1$  and  $r<sub>2</sub>$  are uniformly distributed random integer numbers between 1 to size of the given problem. The numbers  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are different from running index. Typical values of  $p_m$  are same as in GA i.e. 0.001 to 0.05. The mutation strategy increases the chances for a good solution, but a high mutation rate  $(p_m = 0.5$  and 1.0) results in too much exploration and is disadvantageous to the improvement of candidate solutions. As  $p<sub>m</sub>$  decreases from 1.0 to 0.01, optimization ability increases greatly, but as  $p_m$  continues to decrease to 0.001, optimization ability decreases rapidly. A small value of  $p_m$  is not able to sufficiently increase solution diversity (Bansal [2014\)](#page-44-9).

The Lévy fight distribution (Yang [2012b\)](#page-46-2) used for all proposed algorithms in this paper mathematically is given by:

<span id="page-4-0"></span>
$$
L(\lambda) \sim \frac{\lambda \Gamma(\lambda) \sin(\pi \lambda/2)}{\pi} \frac{1}{s^{1+\lambda}}, \quad (s \gg s_0 > 0)
$$
 (9)

Here,  $\Gamma(\lambda)$  is the standard gamma distribution valid for large steps i.e. for  $s > 0$ . Throughout the paper,  $\lambda = 3/2$  is used. In theory, it is required that  $|s_0| \gg 0$ , but in practice s. can be as small as 0.1 (Yang 2012b)  $s_0$  can be as small as 0.1 (Yang [2012b\)](#page-46-2).

By introducing these two features in the simplifed forms of proposed algorithms, the basic concept of search space is modifed i.e. the proposed algorithms can explore new search space by the mutation and random walk. A fundamental beneft of using mutation and Lévy fight strategies with nature-inspired algorithms in this paper is their ability to improve its solutions over time, which does not seem in the existing algorithms (Cotta et al. [2006;](#page-44-6) Soliday et al. [1995](#page-45-12); Robinson [2000](#page-45-13); Ayari et al. [2010](#page-44-7); Dotú and Hentenryck [2005;](#page-44-8) Bansal [2014](#page-44-9), [2017;](#page-44-10) Bansal and Sharma [2017\)](#page-44-11) to fnd near-OGRs.

#### **3.1 Big bang–big crunch optimization algorithm and its modifed forms**

Erol and Eksin [\(2006](#page-44-22)), inspired by the theories of the evolution of universe; namely, the Big bang and Big crunch theory, developed a metaheuristic algorithm called Big bang–big crunch (BB–BC) optimization algorithm. BB–BC algorithm has two phases: Big bang phase where candidate solutions are randomly distributed over the search space and big crunch phase where a contraction procedure calculates a center of mass or the best ft individual for the population (Erol and Eksin [2006](#page-44-22); Afshar and Motaei [2011;](#page-44-23) Tabakov [2011;](#page-45-25) Yesil and Urbas [2010\)](#page-46-3). In BB–BC, the centre of mass mathematically is computed by:

$$
x_c = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{Popsize} \frac{1}{f_i} x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{Popsize} \frac{1}{f_i}}
$$
(10)

where  $x_c$  = position of the center of mass;  $x_i$  = position of candidate *i*;  $f_i$  = fitness (cost) value of candidate  $i$ ; and  $Popsize =$ population size. Instead of the center of mass, the best ft individual can also be chosen as the starting point in the big bang phase. The new candidates (*xnew*) around the centre of mass are calculated by adding or subtracting a normal random number whose value decreases as the iterations elapse. This can be formalized as by (Erol and Eksin [2006](#page-44-22)):

<span id="page-5-0"></span>
$$
x_{new} = x_c + r \times c_1 \times \frac{(x_{\text{max}} - x_{\text{min}})}{1 + t/c_2}
$$
 (11)

where *r* is a random number with a standard normal distribution,  $c_1$  is a parameter for limiting the size of the search space, parameter  $c<sub>2</sub>$  denotes after how many iterations the search space will be restricted to half,  $x_{max}$  and  $x_{min}$  are the upper and lower limits of elite pool, and *t* is the iteration index.

If ftness based mutation strategy is introduced in the simple BB–BC algorithm, a new *Big bang*–*big crunch algorithm with mutation* (BB–BCM) can be formulated.

On adding Lévy-fight distributions in the simple BB–BC algorithm, another new *Lévy*–*fight Big bang*–*big crunch algorithm* (LBB–BC) can be formulated. For LBB–BC, Eq. [\(11\)](#page-5-0) is randomized via Lévy fights as:

$$
x_{new} = x_c + r \times c_1 \times \frac{(x_{\text{max}} - x_{\text{min}})}{1 + t/c_2} \oplus L(\lambda)
$$
 (12)

The product  $\oplus$  means entrywise multiplications and  $L(\lambda)$  is the Lévy flight based step size given mathematically by Eq. [\(9\)](#page-4-0).

If ftness based mutation strategy is applied to LBB–BC algorithm, *Lévy fight Big bang*–*big crunch with mutation* (LBB–BCM) algorithm can be formulated.

Based upon the above discussions, the corresponding general pseudo-code for modifed BB–BC algorithm (MBB–BC) can be summarized in Fig. [3](#page-6-0). If the lines 17–22 in Fig. [3](#page-6-0) are removed and Lévy fight distributions in lines 14–16 are not used, then Fig. [3](#page-6-0) represents the general pseudo-code for BB–BC algorithm. If from lines 14–16 Lévy fight distributions are not used, then Fig. [3](#page-6-0) corresponds to the general pseudo-code for BB–BCM algorithm. If no modifcations in Fig. [3](#page-6-0) are performed, then it represents the pseudo-code for LBB–BCM algorithm.

#### **3.2 Firefy algorithm and its modifed forms**

 $MB$ 

Yang ([2010a,](#page-45-18) [2012a](#page-46-0), [2013a\)](#page-46-1), Koziel and Yang [\(2011](#page-45-19)) inspired by the fashing pattern and characteristics of frefies, developed a novel optimization algorithm called Firefy inspired algorithm or Firefy algorithm (FA). For describing this algorithm, FA uses the following three idealized rules:

- 1. All frefies are unisex so that one frefy will be attracted to other frefies regardless of their sex;
- 2. The attractiveness is proportional to the brightness and they both decrease as their distance increases. If there is no brighter one than a particular frefy, it will move randomly;
- 3. The brightness of a frefy is determined by the landscape of the objective function.

In FA, the variation of light intensity and the formulation of attractiveness are two main issues. For maximum optimization problems, the brightness *I* of a frefy at a particular

<span id="page-6-0"></span>

location *X* can simply be proportional to the objective function i.e.  $I(X) \propto f(X)$  (Yang [2010a](#page-45-18), [b,](#page-46-4) [c](#page-46-5), [2011a,](#page-46-6) [b,](#page-46-7) [2012a](#page-46-0), [2013a;](#page-46-1) Koziel and Yang [2011](#page-45-19); Yang and Deb [2010a](#page-46-8); Yang and He [2013\)](#page-46-9). As both the light intensity and attractiveness decreases as the distance from the source increases, the variations of the light intensity and attractiveness should be monotonically decreasing functions. For a given medium with a fixed light absorption coefficient  $\gamma$ , the light intensity  $I(r)$  varies with the distance  $r$  between any two fireflies (Yang [2010b](#page-46-4)) as:

$$
I = I_0 e^{-\gamma r} \tag{13}
$$

where  $I_0$  denotes the original light intensity.

As attractiveness of a frefy is proportional to the light intensity seen by the neighboring fireflies, therefore the attractiveness  $\beta$  of a firefly with the distance *r* is given by:

<span id="page-7-0"></span>
$$
\beta(r) = \beta_0 e^{-\gamma r^2} \tag{14}
$$

where  $\beta_0$  is the attractiveness at  $r=0$ .

The distance between any two fireflies  $i$  and  $j$  at locations  $X_i$  and  $X_j$ , respectively, is the Cartesian distance as given by (Yang [2010b](#page-46-4)):

$$
r_{ij} = \|X_i - X_j\| = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{d} (x_{i,k} - x_{j,k})^2}
$$
 (15)

where  $x_{i,k}$  is the *k*th component of the spatial coordinate  $X_i$  of  $i^{\text{th}}$  firefly and *d* is the number of dimensions in search space. The movement of a frefy *i* is attracted to another brighter firefly *j* is determined by (Yang [2010b\)](#page-46-4):

$$
X_i = X_i + \beta_0 e^{-\gamma r_{ij}^2} (X_j - X_i) + \alpha (rand - 0.5)
$$
 (16)

where the second term is due to the attraction and the third term is randomization with a control parameter  $\alpha$ , which makes the more efficient exploration of the search space. For most cases in the implementation, $\beta_0 = 1$  and  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ .

If mutation strategy is combined with the above mentioned three idealized rules, *Firefy algorithm with mutation* (FAM) can be formulated. All the parameters and equations for FAM are same as for simple FA. Only the diference between algorithms FAM and simple FA is that mutation strategy is added to simple FA.

By combining the characteristics of Lévy fights with the simple FA, another new algorithm named, *Lévy fight Firefy algorithm* (LFA) can be formulated. For LFA, the third term in Eq. ([16](#page-7-0)) is randomized via Lévy fights. The frefy movement equation for LFA is approximated by:

$$
X_i = X_i + \beta_0 e^{-\gamma r_{ij}^2} (X_j - X_i) + \alpha \operatorname{sign}(\operatorname{rand} - 0.5) \oplus L(\lambda)
$$
 (17)

The term *sign*(*rand* − 0.5), where *rand* ∈ [0, 1] essentially provides a random direction, while the random step length is drawn from a Lévy distribution having an infinite variance with an infnite mean. In LFA the steps of frefy motion are essentially a random walk process.

If both algorithms FAM and LFA are combine into a single algorithm, then *Lévy fight Firefy algorithm with mutation* (LFAM) can be formulated.

The corresponding general pseudo-code for modifed FA (MFA) is shown in Fig. [4.](#page-8-0) If lines 15–20 in Fig. [4](#page-8-0) are removed and in line 13 Lévy fight distributions are not used, then

<span id="page-8-0"></span>**Fig. 4** General pseudo-code for MFA



Fig. [4](#page-8-0) corresponds to the general pseudo-code for simple FA. If Lévy fight distributions in line 13 are not used in Fig. [4,](#page-8-0) then it corresponds to the general pseudo-code for FAM and if no modifcations in Fig. [4](#page-8-0) are performed then it represents the general pseudo-code for LFAM algorithm.

#### **3.3 Bat algorithm and its modifed forms**

Yang ([2010a,](#page-45-18) [c](#page-46-10), [2011b](#page-46-7), [2012a,](#page-46-0) Yang [2013a](#page-46-1)) and Koziel and Yang ([2011\)](#page-45-19), inspired by the echolocation characteristics of microbats, introduced a novel optimization algorithm called Bat algorithm (BA). For describing this new algorithm, the author in Yang ([2010c\)](#page-46-10) uses the following three idealized rules:

- 1. To sense the distance, all bats use echolocation and they also *know* the surroundings in some magical way;
- 2. Bats fly randomly with velocity  $v_i$  at position  $x_i$ , with a fixed frequency range  $[f_{min}, f_{max}]$ , fixed wavelength range  $[\lambda_{min}, \lambda_{max}]$ , varying its pulse emission rate  $r \in [0, 1]$ , and loudness  $A_0$  to hunt for prey, depending on the proximity of their target;
- 3. Although the loudness can vary in diferent ways, it is assume that the loudness varies from a minimum constant (positive) *Amin* to a large *A*<sup>0</sup> .

In BA, each bat is defined by its position  $x_i$ , velocity  $v_i$ , frequency  $f_i$ , loudness  $A_i$ , and the emission pulse rate  $r_i$  in a *d*-dimensional search space. Among all the bats, there is a current global best solution  $x_*$  which is located after comparing all the solutions among all the

bats. The new velocities  $v_i^t$  and solutions  $x_i^t$  at step *t* are given by (Yang [2010c](#page-46-10), [2013a](#page-46-1), [b](#page-46-11); Li et al. [2019;](#page-45-26) Guo et al. [2019](#page-45-27)):

$$
f_i = f_{\text{min}} + (f_{\text{max}} - f_{\text{min}})\beta \tag{18}
$$

$$
v_i^t = v_i^{t-1} + (x_i^{t-1} - x_*)f_i
$$
\n(19)

$$
x_i^t = x_i^{t-1} + v_i^{t-1}
$$
\n(20)

where  $\beta \in [0, 1]$  is a random vector drawn from a uniform distribution. A random walk is used for local search that modifies the current best solution according to Eq. [\(21\)](#page-9-0):

<span id="page-9-0"></span>
$$
x_{new} = x_{best} + \varepsilon A^t \tag{21}
$$

where  $x_{best} = x_*$ ,  $\varepsilon \in [-1, 1]$  is a scaling factor and  $A<sup>t</sup>$  is loudness. Further the loudness *A* and pulse rate  $r$  are updated according to the Eqs.  $(22)$  $(22)$  $(22)$  and  $(23)$  respectively as iterations proceed:

<span id="page-9-2"></span><span id="page-9-1"></span>
$$
A_i^t = \alpha A_i^{t-1} \tag{22}
$$

$$
r_i^t = r_i^0 [1 - e^{-\gamma t}] \tag{23}
$$

where  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma$  are constants and for simplicity,  $\alpha = \gamma$  is chosen. For most of the simulation  $\alpha = \gamma = 0.9$  is used (Yang [2010c\)](#page-46-10).

By combining the characteristics of mutation and Lévy fights strategies with the simple BA, three new algorithms, namely, *Bat algorithm with mutation* (BAM), *Lévy fight Bat algorithm* (LBA) and *Lévy fight Bat algorithm with mutation* (LBAM) can be formulated. For LBA, the modification performed in Eq.  $(21)$  is given by:

$$
x_{new} = x_{best} + \varepsilon A^t \oplus L(\lambda)
$$
 (24)

Based on these idealizations, the basic steps of BA can be described as a general pseudo-code shown in Fig. [5.](#page-10-0) In Fig. [5](#page-10-0), if the concept of Lévy fights in lines 11, 12 and mutation (lines 17–22) are omitted, then Fig. [5](#page-10-0) corresponds to the general pseudo-code for simple BA. If only the concept of mutation (lines 17–22) is not used in Fig. [5](#page-10-0), then it corresponds to the pseudo-code for LBA, otherwise Fig. [5](#page-10-0) shows the general pseudo-code for LBAM algorithm.

#### **3.4 Cuckoo search algorithm and its modifed form**

Yang and Deb [\(2010b\)](#page-46-12), Gandomi et al. [\(2013](#page-44-24)), Yang and Deb [\(2014](#page-46-13)), inspired by brood parasitism of some cuckoo species, developed a nature-inspired metaheuristic optimization algorithm called Cuckoo search algorithm (CSA). In addition, CSA algorithm is enhanced by the Lévy fights trajectory of some birds, rather than by simple random walks. For describing this algorithm, Yang et al. uses the following three idealized rules:

- 1. Each Cuckoo lays one egg at a time, and dumps it in a randomly chosen nest;
- 2. The best nest with high quality of eggs (solution) are carried over to the next iterations;

<span id="page-10-0"></span>**Fig. 5** General pseudo-code for MBA



3. The number of available host nests is fxed, and a host can discover an alien egg with probability  $p_a \in [0,1]$ . In this case, the host bird can either throw the egg away or simply abandon the nest so as to build a completely new nest in a new location.

For simplicity, the last assumption can be approximated by a fraction  $p_a$  of the *n* host nests being replaced by new nests (with new random solutions). For a maximization problem, the quality i.e. ftness of a solution can simply be proportional to the value of the objective function. When new solutions  $x<sup>t</sup>$  are generating for, say, a cuckoo *i*, a Lévy fight is performed as approximated by (Iglesias et al. [2018](#page-45-28)):

$$
x_i^t = x_i^{t-1} + \alpha \oplus L(\lambda)
$$
 (25)

where  $\alpha > 0$  is the step size, which should be related to the scale of the specified problem.

As authors in Yang and Deb ([2010b\)](#page-46-12), already introduced the Lévy fights distribution concept to enhance the performance, so only mutation strategy is applied to simple CSA to explore the search space. The new modifed algorithm so formulated is named as *Cuckoo search algorithm with mutation* (CSAM). The basic steps of CSAM can be summarized as the pseudo-code shown in Fig. [6.](#page-11-0) If the concept of mutation (lines 9 to 14) is withdrawn from Fig. [6](#page-11-0), then it corresponds to general pseudo-code for simple CSA.





#### **3.5 Flower pollination algorithm and its modifed form**

Yang ([2012b\)](#page-46-2) and Yang et al. [\(2014](#page-46-14)), inspired by the fow pollination process of fowering plants, introduced an optimization algorithm called Flower pollination algorithm (FPA). For describing this metaheuristic algorithm, the following four idealized rules were used:

- 1. For global pollination process, biotic cross-pollination is used and pollen-carrying pollinators obey Lévy fights distributions.
- 2. For local pollination, abiotic and self-pollination are used.
- 3. Pollinators such as insects can develop fower constancy, which is equivalent to a reproduction probability that is proportional to the similarity of two fowers involved.
- 4. The interaction of local pollination and global pollination can be controlled by a switch probability  $p \in [0,1]$ , with a slight bias towards local pollination.

In FPA, the global pollination and local pollination are two main steps. In the global pollination step, fower pollens are carried by pollinators such as insects, and pollens can travel over a long distance because insects can often fy and travel over a much longer range. The frst rule and fower constancy (i.e. third rule) can be written mathematically into a single equation (Yang [2012b\)](#page-46-2):

$$
x_i^t = x_i^{t-1} + \gamma L(\lambda)(x - x_i^{t-1})
$$
\n(26)

where  $x_i^t$  is the pollen *i* or solution vector  $x_i$  at iteration *t*,  $x_*$  is the current best solution (i.e. most fttest) found among all solutions at the current iteration and *γ* is a scaling factor to control the step size. The Lévy flight based step size  $L(\lambda)$  corresponds to strength of the pollination. Since insects may travel over a long distance with various distance steps, a

CSAM

<span id="page-11-0"></span>**Fig. 6** General pseudo-code for

Lévy flight can be used to mimic this characteristic efficiently. That is,  $L > 0$  is drawn from a Lévy fight distribution.

For local pollination, the second rule and fower constancy can be written mathematically by a single equation:

$$
x_i^t = x_i^{t-1} + \in (x_j^{t-1} - x_k^{t-1})
$$
\n(27)

where  $x_i^{t-1}$  and  $x_k^{t-1}$  are pollens from different flowers of the same plant species. This essentially mimics the flower constancy in a limited neighborhood. Mathematically, if  $x_j^t$  and  $x_k^t$ are selected from the same population, this become a local random walk if ∈ is drawn from a uniform distribution in [0,1]. Pollination may also occur in a fower from the neighboring fower than by the far away fowers. For this, a switch probability (i.e. fourth rule) or proximity probability  $p$  can be used to switch between global pollination and local pollination.

Like CSA, the author in Yang ([2012b](#page-46-2)) already introduced the concept of Lévy fight distributions in FPA, so only mutation based on ftness value is added to simple FPA. The new algorithm so formed is named in this paper as *Flower pollination algorithm with mutation* (FPAM) which is summarized as pseudo-code shown in Fig. [7](#page-12-0). The only diference in the pseudo-code for FPA and FPAM is only the addition of mutation (lines 19–24) in Fig. [7.](#page-12-0) If lines 19–24 are not used in Fig. [7](#page-12-0) then it corresponds to the general pseudo-code for simple FPA.

<span id="page-12-0"></span>



#### **4 Finding near‑OGRs: problem formulation**

Both simplicity and efficiency attracts researchers towards natural phenomenon to solve NP–complete and complex optimization problems. The frst problem investigated in this research is to fnd Golomb rulers for unequal channel allocation. Second problem is to obtain either optimal or near-OGRs through nature-inspired metaheuristic algorithms by optimizing the ruler length so as to conserve the total occupied optical channel bandwidth.

If each individual element in an obtained set (i.e. non-negative integer location) is a Golomb ruler, the sum of all elements of an individual set forms the total occupied optical channel bandwidth. Thus if the spacing between any pair of channels in a Golomb ruler set *G* is denoted as *CS*, an individual element is as *IE* and the total number of channels/marks is *n*, then the ruler length *RL* and the total optical channel bandwidth *TBW* are approximated by the following equations:

**Ruler Length (***RL***):**

<span id="page-13-0"></span>
$$
RL = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (CS)_i
$$
 (28a)

subject to  $(CS)_i \neq (CS)_i$ 

Alternatively, Eq.  $(28a)$  can also be approximated as:

$$
RL = IE(n) - IE(1)
$$
\n(28b)

**Total Bandwidth (***TBW***):**

<span id="page-13-1"></span>
$$
TBW = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (IE)_i.
$$
 (29)

subject to  $(IE)_i \neq (IE)_i$ 

where  $i, j = 1, 2, \ldots, n$  with  $i \neq j$  are distinct in both Eqs. (28) and [\(29](#page-13-1)).

#### **4.1 Nature‑inspired algorithms to fnd near‑OGRs**

The general pseudo-code to fnd near-OGRs by using nature-inspired optimization algorithms proposed in this paper is shown in Fig. [8.](#page-14-0) The core of the proposed algorithms is lines 19–30 which fnd Golomb rulers for a number of iterations or until either an optimal or near–to–optimal solution is found. Also the size of the generated population must be equal at the end of iteration to the initial population size (*Popsize*). Since there are many solutions, a replacement strategy must be performed as shown in Fig. [8](#page-14-0) to remove the worst individuals. This mean that the proposed algorithms maintain a fxed population of rulers and performs a fxed number of iterations until either an optimal or near–to–optimal solution is found.

1. Nature-Inspired Optimization Algorithms to Find Near-OGRs			
2. Begin			
3.	$/*$ Parameter initialization $*/$		
4.	Define operating parameters for nature-inspired optimization algorithms;		
5.		Initialize the number of channels, lower and upper bound on the ruler length;	
6.		/* <i>Popsize</i> is the population size input by the user $*/$ While not Popsize	
7.		Generate a random set of candidates (integer population);	
8.		/* Number of integers in candidates is being equal to the number of channels */	
9.		Check Golombness of each candidates;	
10.		If Golombness is satisfied	
11.		Retain that candidate;	
12.		Else	
13.	Remove that particular candidate from the generated population;		
14.		End if	
15.		End while	
16.		Compute the fitness values; /* fitness value represents the cost value i.e. ruler length and total optical channel bandwidth */	
17.		Rank the candidates from best to worst based on fitness values;	
18.	$/*$ End of parameter initialization $*/$		
19.	$/*$ t is a termination criterion $*$ / While not t		
20.	$A$ :	Call any nature–inspired optimization algorithm to determine new optimal set of candidates;	
21.		Recheck Golombness of updated candidates;	
22.		If Golombness is satisfied	
23.		Retain that candidate and then go to <b>B</b> ;	
24.		Else	
25.		Retain the previous generated candidate and then go to A;	
26.		/* Previous generated candidate is being equal to the candidate generated into the parameter initialization step*/	
27.		End if	
28	$\mathbf{B}$ :	Recompute the fitness values of the modified candidates;	
29.		Rank the candidates from best to worst based on fitness values and find the current best;	
30. End while			
31.	Display the near-OGR sequences;		
	32. End		

<span id="page-14-0"></span>**Fig. 8** General pseudo-code to fnd near-OGR sequences by using nature-inspired optimization algorithms

#### **5 Simulation results**

This section presents the performance of proposed optimization algorithms and their performance comparison with best known OGRs (Bloom and Golomb [1977](#page-44-4); Shearer [1990](#page-45-9); Rankin [1993;](#page-45-11) Colannino [2003;](#page-44-12) Dollas et al. [1998](#page-44-14); [http://mathworld.wolfram.com/](http://mathworld.wolfram.com/GolombRuler.html) [GolombRuler.html](http://mathworld.wolfram.com/GolombRuler.html)), two of the conventional computing algorithms i.e. EQC and SA (Kwong and Yang [1997;](#page-45-0) Randhawa et al. [2009](#page-45-6)) and three nature-inspired algorithms i.e. GAs (Bansal [2014\)](#page-44-9), BBO (Bansal [2014\)](#page-44-9) and simple BB–BC (Bansal and Sharma [2017\)](#page-44-11), of fnding unequal channel spacing. All the proposed algorithms to fnd near-OGRs have coded and tested in Matlab–R2017a language running under Windows 7, 64–bit operating system. The algorithms have been executed on Intel(R) core<sup>TM</sup> 2 Duo CPU T6600  $\circ$ 2.20 GHz processor Laptop with a RAM of 3 Gb and hard drive of 320 Gb.

#### **5.1 Parameters selection for the proposed algorithms**

To fnd either optimal or near-optimal solutions after a number of careful experimentation, following optimum parameter values of proposed algorithms have fnally been settled as shown

<span id="page-14-1"></span>

<span id="page-15-0"></span>**Table 2** Simulation parameters



## <span id="page-15-1"></span>**Table 3** Simulation parameters



#### <span id="page-15-2"></span>**Table 4** Simulation parameters for CSA and CSAM



#### <span id="page-15-3"></span>**Table 5** Simulation parameters for FPA and FPAM



in Tables [1](#page-14-1), [2](#page-15-0), [3](#page-15-1), [4](#page-15-2) and [5](#page-15-3). The selection of a suitable parameter values for nature-inspired algorithms are problem specifc as there are no concrete rules.

#### **5.2 Near‑OGR sequences**

With the above mentioned parameters setting, the large numbers of sets of trials for various marks/channels were conducted. Each algorithm was executed 20 times until near-optimal solution was found. The generated near-OGRs for diferent marks by proposed metaheuristic algorithms are shown in ["Appendix"](#page-31-0). It has been verified that all the generated sequences are Golomb rulers. Although the proposed metaheuristic algorithms fnd same near-OGRs, but the diference is in required maximum number of iterations and computational time which is discussed in the following subsections.

#### **5.3 Infuence of selecting diferent population size on the performance of proposed algorithms**

In this subsection, the infuence of selecting diferent *Popsize* on the performance of proposed optimization algorithms for diferent values of channels is examined. The increased *Popsize* increases the diversity of potential solutions, and helps to explore the search space. But as the *Popsize* increase, the computation time required to get either the optimal or nearoptimal solutions increase slightly as the diversity of possible solutions increase. But after some limit, it is not useful to increase *Popsize*, because it does not help in solving the problem faster. The choice of the best *Popsize* for nature-inspired optimization algorithms depends on the type of the problem (Bansal [2019\)](#page-44-15).

Golomb rulers realized from 10- to 16-marks by TS (Cotta et al. [2006](#page-44-6)), maximum *Popsize* set was 190. The hybrid approach proposed in (Ayari et al. [2010](#page-44-7)) to fnd Golomb rulers from 11- to 23-marks, the *Popsize* was set between 20 and 2000. The near-OGRs found by the HE algorithms (Dotú and Hentenryck [2005](#page-44-8)), maximum *Popsize* set was 50. For the algorithms GAs and BBO (Bansal [2014](#page-44-9)), to fnd near-OGRs, maximum *Popsize* set was 30.

With the above mentioned parameter settings, the experiment with *Popsize* varying from 10 to 100 for all the proposed metaheuristic algorithms was performed. It was noted that *Popsize* has little significant effect on the performance of all proposed metaheuristic algorithms. By carefully looking at the results, the *Popsize* of 10 in all proposed algorithms was found to be adequate for fnding near-OGRs.

#### **5.4 Infuence of increasing iterations on total optical channel bandwidth**

The choice of the best maximum iteration for metaheuristic algorithms is always critical for specifc problems. Increasing the numbers of iteration, will increase the possibility of reaching optimal solutions and promoting the exploitation of the search space so as to obtain the global optimization abilities of the metaheuristic algorithms. This will maintain a better population diversity and the global search ability is improved, which efficiently improves the accuracy and efficiency of the metaheuristic algorithms. This is because after a number of iteration, it is necessary to search from a diferent path so as to get improved solutions. The algorithm efectively jumps out of the local optimal value and continues to optimize. This means, the chance to fnd the correct search direction increases considerably.

In this subsection the infuence of increasing the number of iterations on proposed algorithms with the same parameter settings as mentioned above subsections is examined. By increasing the number of iterations, the total optical channel bandwidth tends to decrease; it means that the rulers reach their optimal or near-optimal values after certain iterations. This is the point where no further improvement is seen. Figure [9](#page-17-0) illustrates the influence of increasing iterations on the performance of proposed algorithms for various channels. It is noted that the iterations have little efect for low value marks. But for higher order marks, the iterations have a great effect on the total optical channel bandwidth i.e. total optical bandwidth gets optimized after a certain numbers of iterations.

In literatures (Cotta et al. [2006](#page-44-6)) and (Ayari et al. [2010\)](#page-44-7), the maximum numbers of iterations (*Maxiter*) for TS algorithm to fnd Golomb rulers were set to 10000 and 30000 respectively. The hybrid approach proposed in (Ayari et al. [2010](#page-44-7)) to fnd Golomb rulers



<span id="page-17-0"></span>**Fig. 9** Infuence of iterations on *TBW* for **a** BB-BCM; **b** LBB-BC; **c** LBB-BCM; **d** FA; **e** FAM; **f** LFA; **g** LFAM; **h** BA; **i** BAM; **j** LBA; **k** LBAM; **l** CSA; **m** CSAM; **n** FPA; and **o** FPAM for various channels

the maximum number of iterations set were 100000. In (Bansal [2014](#page-44-9)), it was noted that to fnd near-OGRs, hybrid evolutionary algorithms (Dotú and Hentenryck [2005](#page-44-8)) get stabilized in and around 10000 iterations, while GAs and BBO algorithms stabilized in and around 5000 iterations. By carefully looking at the results, it is concluded that all the proposed optimization algorithms in this paper to fnd either optimal or near-OGRs stabilized in or around 1000 iterations. To fnd *n*-channel near-OGRs, the value of *Maxiter* parameter during the simulations was selected to 50 times the number of channel (*n*), i.e. *Maxiter* =  $50 \times n$ . In summary, the FPAM algorithm shows stronger optimization performance and higher optimization efficiency and faster convergence rate than the other algorithms.

#### **5.5 Performance comparison of proposed algorithms with previous existing algorithms in terms of ruler length and total optical channel bandwidth**

Table [6](#page-19-0) enlists the ruler length and total occupied channel bandwidth by different sequences obtained from the proposed algorithms after 20 executions and their performance comparison with best known OGRs (best solutions), EQC, SA, GAs, BBO and simple BB–BC. According to (Kwong and Yang [1997\)](#page-45-0), the applications of EQC and SA is restricted to prime powers only, so the ruler length and total occupied channel bandwidth for EQC and SA are presented by a dash line in Table [6.](#page-19-0) Comparing the experimental results obtained from the proposed algorithms with best known OGRs and existing algorithms, it is noted that there is a signifcant improvement in the ruler length and thus the total occupied channel bandwidth that is, the results gets better.

From Table [6](#page-19-0), it is also observed that simulation results are particularly impressive. First observe that for all the proposed algorithms, the ruler length obtained up to 13-marks is same as that of best known OGRs and the total optical channel bandwidth occupied for marks 5 to 9 and 11 is smaller than the best known OGRs, while all the other rulers obtained are either optimal or near-optimal. Second observe that the algorithms BB–BCM and LBB–BC do not fnd best known rulers after 7-marks, but fnds near-optimal rulers for 8- to 20-marks. Algorithm LBB–BCM can fnd best optimal rulers up to 8-marks, but fnds near-optimal rulers after 8-marks. FA can fnd best rulers for up to 11-marks. Algorithms FAM and LFA can fnd best rulers for up to 12-marks and near-optimal rulers after 12-marks. By combining algorithms FAM and LFA into a single algorithm named LFAM, best OGRs up to 16-marks and near-optimal rulers for  $17-$  to  $20$ -marks can be find efficiently. BA, BAM and LBA can fnd best rulers up to 17-marks and near-optimal rulers for 18- to 20-marks. The algorithms LBAM, CSA, CSAM, FPA and FPAM can fnd best rulers up to 20-marks very efciently and efectively in a reasonable computational time.

From simulation results, it is concluded that modifed forms of the proposed algorithms to fnd near-OGRs, slightly outperforms the algorithms presented in their simplifed forms. As illustrated in Table [6](#page-19-0) for higher order marks, the algorithms CSA, FPA, BA and their modifed forms outperforms the other algorithms in terms of both the ruler length and total occupied channel bandwidth. Figure [10](#page-28-0) shows the graphical representation of Table [6.](#page-19-0)

#### **5.6 Performance comparison of proposed algorithms in terms of computational time**

Finding Golomb rulers is an extremely challenging optimization problem. The OGRs generation by exhaustive parallel search algorithms for higher order marks is computationally very time consuming, which took several hours, months, even years of calculation on the network of several thousand computers (Shearer [1998;](#page-45-7) Rankin [1993;](#page-45-11) Dollas et al. [1998;](#page-44-14) [http://www.distributed.net/ogr\)](http://www.distributed.net/ogr). For example, rulers with 20- to 26-marks were found by

<span id="page-19-0"></span>













**Table 6** (continued)





# **Table 6** (continued)







<span id="page-28-0"></span>**Fig. 10** Comparison of proposed algorithms in terms of **a** *RL* and **b** *TBW* with the other existing algorithms

<span id="page-28-1"></span>



distributed OGR project ([http://www.distributed.net/ogr\)](http://www.distributed.net/ogr) which took several years of calculations on many computers to prove the optimality of the rulers.

This subsection is devoted to report the experimental average *CPU time* taken to fnd either optimal or near-OGRs by the proposed algorithms and their comparison with the computation time taken by existing algorithms (Shearer [1990](#page-45-9); Rankin [1993;](#page-45-11) Soliday et al. [1995;](#page-45-12) Ayari et al. [2010](#page-44-7); Bansal [2014](#page-44-9), [2017;](#page-44-10) Bansal and Sharma [2017;](#page-44-11) Dollas et al. [1998;](#page-44-14) [http://www.distributed.net/ogr\)](http://www.distributed.net/ogr). Figure [11](#page-28-1) illustrates the average *CPU time* taken by proposed metaheuristic algorithms to fnd near-OGRs up to 20-marks. In (Soliday et al. [1995](#page-45-12)), it is identifed that to fnd Golomb rulers from heuristic based exhaustive search algorithm, the times varied from 0.035 s to 6 weeks for 5- to 13-marks ruler, whereas by non-heuristic exhaustive search algorithms took approximately 12.57 min for 10-marks, 2.28 years for 12-marks,  $2.07 \times 10^4$  years for 14-marks,  $3.92 \times 10^9$  years for 16-marks,  $1.61 \times 10^{15}$  years for 18-marks and  $9.36 \times 10^{20}$  years for 20-marks ruler. In (Ayari et al. [2010](#page-44-7)), it is reported that *CPU time* taken by TS algorithm to fnd OGRs is around 0.1 s for 5-marks, 720 s for 10-marks, 960 s for 11-marks, 1913s for 12-marks and 2516 s (around 41 min) for 13-marks. The OGRs realized by HGA (Ayari et al. [2010\)](#page-44-7) took around 5 h for 11-marks, 8 h for 12-marks, and 11 h for 13-marks. The OGRs realized by the exhaustive search algorithms in (Shearer [1990\)](#page-45-9) for 14- and 16-marks, took nearly one hour and hundred hours respectively, while 17-, 18- and 19-marks OGRs realized in (Rankin [1993](#page-45-11)) and (Dollas et al. [1998](#page-44-14)), took around 1440, 8600 and 36200 CPU hours (nearly seven months) respectively on a Sun Sparc Classic workstation. Also, the near-OGRs realized up to 20-marks by algorithms GAs and BBO (Bansal [2014\)](#page-44-9), the maximum execution time was approximately 31 h i.e. nearly 1.3 days, while for BB–BC (Bansal and Sharma [2017\)](#page-44-11) the maximum execution time was around 28 h i.e. almost 1.1 days.

It is noted that for proposed algorithms, the average *CPU time* varied from 0.000 s for 3-marks ruler to approximately 27 h for 20-marks ruler. The maximum and minimum execution time taken by the proposed algorithms for 20-marks ruler is about 27 and 19 h, respectively. By introducing the concept of mutation and

Lévy fight strategies with the proposed algorithms, the minimum execution time is reduced to approximately 18 h i.e. less than one day. This represents the improvement achieved by the use of proposed optimization algorithms and their modifed forms to fnd near-OGRs. From Fig. [11,](#page-28-1) it is further observed that algorithm FPAM outperforms the other algorithms in terms of computational time.

#### **5.7 Maximum computation complexity of proposed algorithms in terms of big O notation**

The nature-inspired metaheuristic algorithms are stochastic process that execute randomly operations. For this reason, it is not practical to conduct a complexity analysis from a deterministic point of view. However, it is possible to have an idea of this complexity through the mathematical notation called Big O notation.

To fnd the optimal solutions, the proposed metaheuristic algorithms have an initialization stage and a subsequent stage of iterations. The computational complexity of natureinspired algorithm depends upon *n*, *Popsize* and *Maxiter*:

Computation complexity = 
$$
O(n \times Popsize \times Maxiter)
$$
 (30)

For all the proposed metaheuristic algorithms, the maximum computational complexity in terms of Big O notation is

Computation complexity = 
$$
O(n \times 10 \times 50 \times n) = O(500n^2)
$$
 (31)

Thus the computational complexity for all the proposed metaheuristic algorithms is directly proportional to the square of the input mark/channel value.

<span id="page-30-0"></span>

#### **5.8 Wilcoxon rank‑sum test of proposed algorithms**

In order to validate the proposed algorithms, the non-parametric statistical analysis with 5% signifcance level is conducted to analyze and rank the algorithms. With the non-parametric statistical analysis, we can make sure that the results are not caused by chance (Li et al. [2019\)](#page-45-26). The Wilcoxon rank-sum statistical analysis (García et al. [2009](#page-44-25)) is performed on *RL*, *TBW* and *CPU time*. The Wilcoxon statistical comparison analysis between FPAM and other algorithms are listed in Table [7.](#page-30-0) Since the algorithms BA, CSA, FPA and their improved forms fnd same near-OGR sequences at diferent computational time so the *RL* and *TBW p* value is shown by a dash line in Table [7.](#page-30-0) In this experiment *p* value  $\lt 0.05$  and  $h=1$  indicate that the difference between the two data is significant.

#### **6 Conclusions and future scope**

In this paper, WDM channel allocation algorithm by considering the concept of OGRs is presented. Finding OGRs through conventional computing algorithms is computationally hard problem because as the number of marks increases, the search for OGRs

rises exponentially. The aim to use metaheuristic algorithms is not necessarily to produce perfect solutions, but to produce the near–to–optimal solutions under the given constraints. Even if exact algorithms are able to fnd optimal/near-OGRs, they remain unpractical in terms of computational time. This paper presented the application of fve nature-inspired metaheuristic algorithms (BB–BC, FA, BA, CSA and FPA) to solve near-OGRs problem. The main technical contribution of this paper was to modify the nature-inspired metaheuristic algorithms by applying mutation and Lévy fight strategies. The proposed algorithms have been validated and compared with other existing algorithms to fnd near-OGRs. It has been observed that modifed forms fnds near-OGRs very efficiently and effectively than their simplified forms. The enumerated near-OGRs were compared with those enumerated through existing conventional and nature-inspired algorithms in terms of iterations, ruler length, total optical channel bandwidth and computational time. Simulations and comparison show that the proposed algorithms are superior to the existing algorithms. From preliminary results it is also concluded that for large order marks, MFA outperforms FA and MBB–BC, MBA outperforms MFA and BA, CSAM outperforms MBA and CSA, while FPAM is slightly outperforms CSAM and FPA in terms of ruler length, total channel bandwidth, experimental computation time and maximum number of iterations needed to fnd near-OGRs. The results obtained from simulation experiment and Wilcoxon rank-sum analysis show that the proposed FPAM is potentially more superior in terms of exploitation and exploration abilities, success rate and convergence speed compared with the other algorithms in solving such a NP–complete problem.

To date, none of the researchers show the implementation of their algorithm in real optical WDM systems in order to see the complexity of realizing the unequal channel spacing. Although numerous algorithms have been suggested for fnding near-OGRs, yet there is no uniformly accepted formulation. So, in order for these algorithms to be of practical use, it is desired that the performance of these algorithms for higher order OGRs up to about several thousand channels may be evaluated and may be used to provide unequal channel spacing in real WDM system. Though this process will be very time consuming yet this needs be done for this work to be of some use in the feld of communication engineering.

#### <span id="page-31-0"></span>**Appendix**

Tables [8](#page-32-0) and [9](#page-38-0) lists the near-OGRs found by proposed algorithms for various marks.



<span id="page-32-0"></span>**Table 8** Near-OGRs found by MBB–BC, FA and MFA





**Table 8** (continued)







<span id="page-38-0"></span>











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