

# A Comparative Study of Eighteen Self-adaptive Metaheuristic Algorithms for Truss Sizing Optimisation

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## Abstract

Performance comparison of meta-heuristics (MHs) is conducted for truss sizing design. Six traditional truss sizing design problems with mass objective function subject to displacement and stress constraints were employed for performance test. The test problems have two types with and without including buckling constraints. Eighteen self-adaptive MHs from literature are employed to tackle the truss sizing problems. The results from implementing the self-adaptive MHs are compared in terms of convergence rate and consistency. It is found that for the test problem without buckling constraints, the top two optimisers according to the statistical Wilcoxon rank sum tests are Success-History Based Adaptive Differential Evolution with Linear Population Size Reduction (L-SHADE) and Success-History Based Adaptive Differential Evolution (SHADE) while the top two optimiser for the test problems with buckling constraints is L-SHADE and L-SHADE with Eigenvector-Based Crossover and Successful-Parent-Selecting Framework (SPS-L-SHADE-EIG). The buckling constraints are significantly important and should be included to truss design subjected to static loads.

Keywords: *meta-heuristics, self-adaptive algorithms, truss sizing optimisation, buckling constraints, performance comparison*

## 1. Introduction

Over the last few decades, needs for optimum design of truss structures tend to increase since a light weight structure which is safe under given loading conditions is desired. The truss optimisation problem is usually posed to find a set of design variables such as topology (Noilublao and Bureerat, 2011; Richardson, Adriaenssens *et al.*, 2012; Ahrari, Atai *et al.*, 2015; Li, 2014; Richardson, Coelho *et al.*, 2016; Yang, Zhang *et al.*, 2015; Yang, Zhang *et al.*, 2015), shape (Gholizadeh and Barzegar, 2012; Miguel and Fadel Miguel, 2012; Kaveh and Javadi, 2014), sizes (Degertekin and Hayalioglu, 2013; Kaveh and Khayatazad, 2013; Camp and Farshchin, 2014; Flager, Adya *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh *et al.*, 2014; Bekdaş *et al.*, 2015; Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015; Mortazavi and Toğan, 2017), combination of shape and sizes (Miguel and Fadel Miguel, 2012; Ahrari and Atai, 2013; Kaveh and Khayatazad, 2013; Pholdee and Bureerat, 2013; Pholdee and Bureerat, 2014a; Flager *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh and Javadi, 2014), or simultaneously combining all three type of variables (Noilublao and Bureerat, 2011; Noilublao and Bureerat, 2013; Ahrari *et al.*, 2015) of a structure in order to minimise structural mass while fulfilling strength (Camp and Farshchin, 2014; Flager *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh, Bakhshpoori *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh *et al.*, 2014; Bekdaş *et al.*, 2015; Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015; Dede and Ayvaz, 2015) and/

or vibration (Kaveh and Javadi, 2014; Kaveh and Zolghadr, 2014; Pholdee and Bureerat, 2014b; Kaveh and Ilchi Ghazaan, 2016; Kaveh and Ilchi Ghazaan, 2015; Kaveh and Mahdavi, 2015) constraints. Recently, research in sizing optimisation of truss structures can be classified into two groups based on types of structural analyses i.e. static or dynamic design. From literature, truss optimisation with static analysis is posed to minimise structural mass while nodal displacements and stresses on truss members are usually set as constraints (Ahrari and Atai, 2013; Degertekin and Hayalioglu, 2013; Camp and Farshchin, 2014; Flager *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh *et al.*, 2014; Bekdaş *et al.*, 2015; Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015; Dede and Ayvaz, 2015). For truss optimisation based on dynamic structural analysis, the objective function is to minimise structural mass while the constraints are natural frequencies of various modes (Gholizadeh and Barzegar, 2012; Miguel and Fadel Miguel, 2012; Kaveh and Javadi, 2014; Kaveh and Zolghadr, 2014; Pholdee and Bureerat, 2014b; Kaveh and Ilchi Ghazaan, 2016; Kaveh and Ilchi Ghazaan, 2015; Kaveh and Mahdavi, 2015). Both types of truss sizing design are known to have non-convex feasible regions (note that only statically indeterminate trusses (Hajela, 1990; Stolpe and Svanberg, 2001; Beck *et al.*, 2010) may lead to non-convex feasible regions in cases of static loading). This means that some traditional gradient-based optimisers may

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struggle to converge. As a consequence, meta-heuristics (MHs) have become an alternative optimiser for this task (Kaveh and Talatahari, 2009; Gholizadeh and Barzegar, 2012; Kaveh and Khayatazad, 2013; Camp and Farshchin, 2014; Flager *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh, Sheikholeslami *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh and Zolghadr, 2014; Bekdaş *et al.*, 2015; Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015; Dede and Ayvaz, 2015; Kaveh and Mahdavi, 2015).

For the design based on static analysis, there are numerous MHs having been proposed and reported worldwide (Ahrari and Atai, 2013; Degertekin and Hayalioglu, 2013; Kaveh and Khayatazad, 2013; Camp and Farshchin, 2014; Flager *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh *et al.*, 2014; Bekdaş *et al.*, 2015; Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015; Dede and Ayvaz, 2015; Richardson *et al.*, 2016; Yang *et al.*, 2015; Yang *et al.*, 2015). From the literature, most of them only considered stress and displacement constraints in the test problems as can be seen in (Camp and Farshchin, 2014; Flager *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh *et al.*, 2014; Bekdaş *et al.*, 2015; Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015; Dede and Ayvaz, 2015). Essentially, stress and displacement are said to be inevitable mechanical phenomena for structural design particularly for those truss members under tension loading. However, it is very important to check for buckling instability of members under compression because, normally, there is no guarantee that the inclusion of only stress failure constraints is adequate for structural safety. Therefore, truss sizing optimisation with the inclusion of buckling constraints should be examined.

The field of meta-heuristics which is one fast growing soft computing area has caught considerable attention from a great many researchers over the last few decades. Their use for structural optimisation has been investigated worldwide (Camp and Farshchin, 2014; Flager *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh and Javadi, 2014; Kaveh *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh and Zolghadr, 2014; Pholdee and Bureerat, 2014b; Bekdaş *et al.*, 2015; Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015; Dede and Ayvaz, 2015; Kaveh and Ilchi Ghazaan, 2015; Kaveh and Ilchi Ghazaan, 2016; Kaveh and Mahdavi, 2015; Hosseini *et al.*, 2016; Nariman, 2016; Sheikholeslami *et al.*, 2016). For truss optimisation, researchers tend to propose new or improved MHs and then compared their results with those optimisers that only appeared in the truss optimisation articles (Kaveh and Talatahari, 2009; Gholizadeh and Barzegar, 2012; Miguel and Fadel Miguel, 2012; Degertekin and Hayalioglu, 2013; Kaveh and Khayatazad, 2013; Kaveh and Javadi, 2014; Dede and Ayvaz, 2015). Nevertheless, there have been a great number of MHs proposed based on new search concepts (Baluja, 1994; Teh and Rangaiah, 2003; Rashedi *et al.*, 2009; Kaveh and Talatahari, 2010; Tan and Zhu, 2010; Yang and Deb, 2010; Husseinzadeh Kashan, 2011; Rao *et al.*, 2011; Yang and Hossein Gandomi, 2012; Kaveh and Khayatazad, 2013; Kaveh *et al.*, 2014; Bekdaş *et al.*, 2015; Dede and Ayvaz, 2015; Muthiah-Nakarajan and Noel, 2016; Zhao *et al.*, 2016), improvement of existing algorithms (Bureerat, 2011; Jia *et al.*, 2013; Baykasoğlu and Ozsoydan, 2014; Kaveh and Zolghadr, 2014; Talaei *et al.*, 2016; Meng and Pan, 2017), hybridisation (Kaveh and Talatahari, 2009; Kaveh *et al.*, 2014; Kaveh and

Javadi, 2014; Jung *et al.*, 2015; Kaveh and Ilchi Ghazaan, 2015; Kaveh and Mahdavi, 2015; Sheikholeslami *et al.*, 2016; Zhao *et al.*, 2016), and self-adaptive versions (Hansen *et al.*, 2003; Brest *et al.*, 2006; Liang *et al.*, 2006; García-Martínez *et al.*, 2008; Zhang and Sanderson, 2009; Mallipeddi *et al.*, 2011; Yong *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2012; Yong and Zixing, 2012; Tanabe and Fukunaga, 2013; Elsayed *et al.*, 2014; Lei *et al.*, 2014; Tanabe and Fukunaga, 2014; Lei *et al.*, 2015; Sallam *et al.*, 2015; Shu-Mei *et al.*, 2015). Self-adaptive meta-heuristics (SAMHs) are optimisers that can automatically tune their optimisation parameters during an optimisation run. Compared with other group, they are superior since users will not worry much about the parameter setting. It is unfortunate that most of the aforementioned algorithms were developed independently and have yet to be tested for truss optimisation. Therefore, comparative performance of such meta-heuristic algorithms for truss optimisation is important since the real best algorithm could be identified and it could provide refreshed information for the researchers in this field.

As a result, this paper has an intention to somewhat bridge the gap from the truss optimisation and general meta-heuristics fields. Comparative performance of many self-adaptive MHs (mostly well-established) for truss sizing design optimisation is conducted. The objective function is set to minimise structural mass while stress, displacement and buckling are set to be constraints. The MHs are employed to find the optima of six traditional truss sizing optimisation design problems, which can be grouped into the design problems with and without buckling constraints. Each method is employed to solve a particular problem 30 times whereas the results received from implementing those methods are compared statistically. Some top performance meta-heuristics are then discovered.

The rest of this paper is organised as follows. Section 2 gives details of the truss design problems used in this study. Details of numerical test and optimisation parameter settings of the optimisers are given in Section 3. Section 4 displays the performance comparison of the 18 self-adaptive meta-heuristics for solving the six truss sizing design problems. Finally, conclusions are drawn in Section 5.

## 2. Test Problems for Truss Sizing

Six traditional truss mass minimisation problems with sizing design variables will be used in this study (Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015). In this work, buckling constraints were considered for all design problems. Therefore, the optimisation problems are set to minimise truss mass subjected to displacement, stress and buckling constraints detailed and expressed as follows:

### 2.1 Ten Bar Truss

The 10-bar truss is shown in Fig. 1 (Degertekin, 2012; Degertekin and Hayalioglu, 2013; Camp and Farshchin, 2014; Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015). The structure is subjected to vertical ( $y$ -direction) applied forces  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  where the force  $P_1$  is applied on nodes 2 and 4 and  $P_2$  is acted on nodes 1 and 3. Two applied load

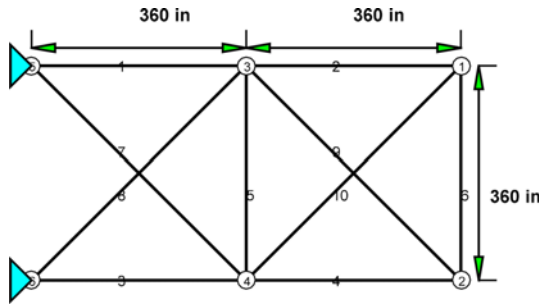


Fig. 1. Ten-bar Truss (Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015)

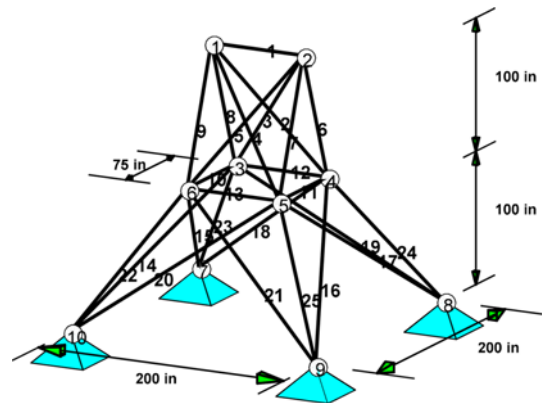


Fig. 2. Twenty-five Bar Space Truss (Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015)

conditions are used i.e.  $P_1 = -100$  kips and  $P_2 = 0$  kips for Case I, and  $P_1 = -150$  kips and  $P_2 = 50$  kips for Case II. The design variables comprise all cross-sectional areas of the truss members. Young modulus and density are respectively  $10^4$  ksi and  $0.1$  lb/in<sup>3</sup>. The design problem is posed to minimise truss mass subjected to displacement, stress and buckling constrains which is mathematically defined as:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) = \text{structural mass}$$

subject to

$$\frac{|d_{\max}|}{d_{\text{all}}} \leq 1$$

$$\frac{\sigma_{\max}}{\sigma_{\text{all}}} \leq 1$$

$$\frac{P_i}{P_{\text{cr},i}} \leq 1$$

$$0.1 \leq A_i \leq 70 \text{ in}^2$$

where  $\mathbf{x}^T = \{x_1, \dots, x_{10}\} = \{A_1, \dots, A_{10}\}$  is a vector of design variables,  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is mass of the truss.  $d_{\text{all}}$  and  $\sigma_{\text{all}}$  are the allowance stress and displacement which was set to be  $2$  in and  $25$  ksi, respectively. The variables  $d_{\max}$  and  $\sigma_{\max}$  imply the maximum displacement and stress due to the applied loads respectively.  $P_i$  and  $P_{\text{cr},i}$  are respectively applied compressive and critical buckling loads at the bar element number  $i$ .  $A_i$  is cross-sectional areas of all truss members.

In cases of bar element under compression,  $P_{\text{cr},i}$  can be calculated as:

$$P_{\text{cr},i} = \begin{cases} A_i \frac{\pi^2 E}{(l_i/r_i)^2} & ; \text{if } \frac{l_i}{r_i} < \sqrt{\frac{2\pi^2 E}{\sigma_{\text{all}}}} \\ A_i \sigma_{\text{all}} \left\{ 1 - \frac{\sigma_{\text{all}}}{4\pi^2 E} \left( \frac{l_i}{r_i} \right)^2 \right\} & ; \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where  $E$ ,  $l_i$  and  $r_i$  are modulus of elasticity, effective length and cross-section radius of gyration of the  $i$ -th element respectively.

## 2.2 Twenty Five Bar Space Truss

The truss is displayed in Fig. 2 (Degertekin, 2012; Degertekin and Hayalioglu, 2013; Camp and Farshchin, 2014; Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015; Bekdas *et al.*, 2017a). It is subjected to two cases of applied forces given in Table 1. All cross-sectional areas of the truss

Table 1. Loading Conditions for the Twenty Five Bar Space Truss (Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015)

Node	Condition 1			Condition 2		
	$F_x$	$F_y$	$F_z$	$F_x$	$F_y$	$F_z$
1	0.0	20.0	-5.0	1.0	10.0	-5.0
2	0.0	-20.0	-5.0	0.0	10.0	-5.0
3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.0
6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.0

Table 2. Groups of Cross-sectional Areas of the Twenty Five Bar Space Truss and Their Allowable Stress Values (Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015)

Element groups	Element numbers in the groups	Allowable compressive stresses (ksi)	Allowable tension stresses (ksi)
1	1	35.092	40.0
2	2-5	11.590	40.0
3	6-9	17.305	40.0
4	10-11	35.092	40.0
5	12-13	35.092	40.0
6	14-17	6.7590	40.0
7	18-21	6.9590	40.0
8	22-25	11.082	40.0

members are assigned as design variables which are divided into 8 groups as given in Table 2. Truss member density and Young modulus are  $0.1$  lb/in<sup>3</sup> and  $10^4$  ksi. The mass minimisation problem is set to minimise structural mass subjected to displacement, stress and buckling constraints, which is written as:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) = \text{structural mass}$$

subject to

$$\frac{|d_{\max,j}|}{d_{\text{all}}} \leq 1$$

$$\frac{\sigma_{\max,j}}{\sigma_{\text{all}}} \leq 1$$

$$\frac{P_{i,j}}{P_{\text{cr},i,j}} \leq 1$$

$$0.01 \leq A_i \leq 10 \text{ in}^2$$

(3)

where  $\mathbf{x}^T = \{x_1, \dots, x_{10}\}$  is a vector of design variables,  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is mass of the truss.  $d_{all}$  is displacement which was set to be 0.35 while  $\sigma_{all}$  is an allowable stress reported in Table 2. The variables  $d_{max,j}$  and  $\sigma_{max,j}$  are respectively the maximum displacement and stress due to the  $j^{th}$  loading case.  $P_{i,j}$  and  $P_{cr,i,j}$  are respectively applied compressive and critical buckling loads at the bar element number  $i$  of the  $j^{th}$  load case.  $A_i$  are the cross-sectional areas of all truss members.

### 2.3 Seventy Two Bar Space truss

The 72-bar truss is displayed in Fig. 3 (Degertekin, 2012; Degertekin and Hayalioglu, 2013; Camp and Farshchin, 2014; Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015; Bekdas *et al.*, 2017a). It is acted on by two loading cases as detailed in Table 3. The design variables consist of the cross-sectional areas of all members grouped into 16 set as reported in Table 4. Young modulus and element density are  $10^4$  ksi and  $0.1 \text{ lb/in}^3$  respectively. The optimal truss sizing problem is posed to minimise structural mass subjected to stress, displacement and buckling constraints, which is written as:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) &= \text{structural mass} \\ \text{subject to} \\ \frac{|d_{max,j}|}{d_{all}} &\leq 1 \\ \frac{\sigma_{max,j}}{\sigma_{all}} &\leq 1 \\ \frac{P_{i,j}}{P_{cr,i,j}} &\leq 1 \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

$A_{min} \leq A_i \leq A_{max}$  in<sup>2</sup>  
 where  $\mathbf{x}^T = \{x_1, \dots, x_{16}\}$  is a design vector.  $d_{all}$  and  $\sigma_{all}$  are the

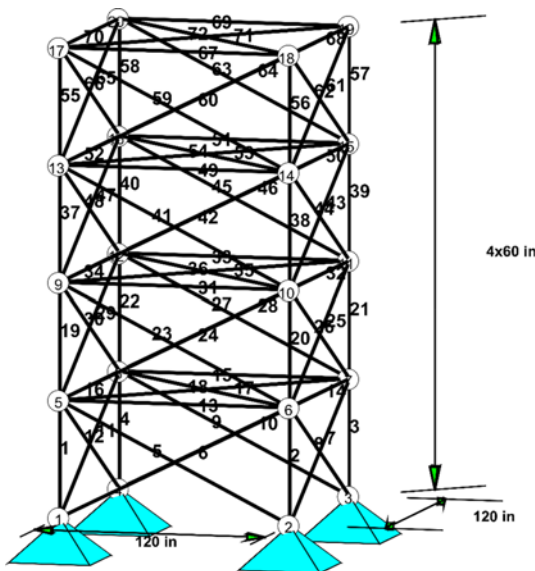


Fig. 3. Seventy Two Bar Space Truss (Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015)

Table 3. Loading Condition for 72- bar Space Truss (Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015)

Node	Condition 1			Condition 2		
	$F_x$	$F_y$	$F_z$	$F_x$	$F_y$	$F_z$
17	5.0	5.0	-5.0	0.0	0.0	-5.0
18	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-5.0
19	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-5.0
20	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-5.0

Table 4. Element Groups of the 72-bar Space Truss (Pholdee and Bureerat, 2014b)

Element groups	Element numbers in the groups
1	1-4
2	5-12
3	13-16
4	17-18
5	19-22
6	23-30
7	31-34
8	35-36
9	37-40
10	41-48
11	49-52
12	53-54
13	55-58
14	59-66
15	67-70
16	71-72

allowance stress and displacement which was set to be 0.25 in and 25 ksi, respectively. The variables  $d_{max,j}$  and  $\sigma_{max,j}$  are the maximum deflection and stress due to the  $j^{th}$  loading condition respectively.  $P_{i,j}$  and  $P_{cr,i,j}$  are respectively applied compressive and critical buckling loads at the bar element number  $i$  of the  $j^{th}$  load case respectively.  $A_i$  are the cross-sectional areas of all truss members. The parameters  $A_{min}$  are assigned as  $0.1 \text{ in}^2$  for design Case I and  $0.01 \text{ in}^2$  for Case II. The value of  $A_{max}$  is set to be  $35 \text{ in}^2$  for both design cases.

### 2.4 Two Hundred Bar Plane Truss

The 200-bar plane truss is depicted in Fig. 4 (Degertekin, 2012; Degertekin and Hayalioglu, 2013; Camp and Farshchin, 2014; Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015; Bekdas *et al.*, 2017a). It is applied by three load cases as (1)  $x$ -direction 1.0 kip acting on nodes 1, 6, 15, 20, 29, 34, 43, 48, 57, 62 and 71 (2)  $y$ -direction 10.0 kips acting on nodes 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 36, 38, 40, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 50, 52, 54, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 64, 66, 68, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74 and 75 (3) condition (1) and (2) combined. The cross-sectional areas of all truss members are set as design variables where they are grouped into 29 groups as shown in Table 5. Modulus of elasticity and truss element density are 30,000 ksi and  $0.283 \text{ lb/in}^3$  respectively. The optimal truss sizing problem is posed to minimise structural mass subjected to stress

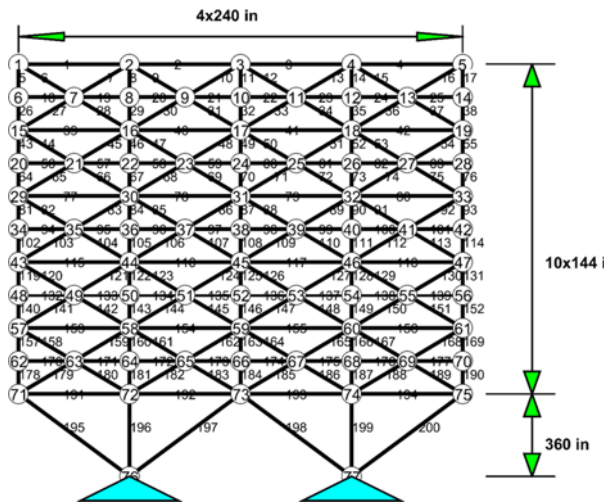


Fig. 4. Two Hundred Bar Plane Truss (Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015)

Table 5. Element Groups of the 200-bar Plane Truss (Bureerat and Pholdee, 2015)

Element groups	Element numbers in the groups
1	1, 2, 3, 4
2	5, 8, 11, 14, 17
3	19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24
4	18, 25, 56, 63, 94, 101, 132, 139, 170, 177
5	26, 29, 32, 35, 38
6	6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15, 16, 27, 28, 30, 31, 33, 34, 36, 37
7	39, 40, 41, 42
8	43, 46, 49, 52, 55
9	57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62
10	64, 67, 70, 73, 76
11	44, 45, 47, 48, 50, 51, 53, 54, 65, 66, 68, 69, 71, 72, 74, 75
12	77, 78, 79, 80
13	81, 84, 87, 90, 93
14	95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100
15	102, 105, 108, 111, 114
16	82, 83, 85, 86, 88, 89, 91, 92, 103, 104, 106, 107, 109, 110, 112, 113
17	115, 116, 117, 118
18	119, 122, 125, 128, 131
19	133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138
20	140, 143, 146, 149, 152
21	120, 121, 123, 124, 126, 127, 129, 130, 141, 142, 144, 145, 147, 148, 150, 151
22	153, 154, 155, 156
23	157, 160, 163, 166, 169
24	171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176
25	178, 181, 184, 187, 190
26	158, 159, 161, 162, 164, 165, 167, 168, 179, 180, 182, 183, 185, 186, 188, 189
27	191, 192, 193, 194
28	195, 197, 198, 200
29	196, 199

and buckling constraints, which is written as:

$$\begin{aligned} & \min f(\mathbf{x}) = \text{structural mass} \\ & \text{subject to} \\ & \frac{\sigma_{\max, j}}{\sigma_{all}} \leq 1 \\ & \frac{P_{i, j}}{P_{cr, i, j}} \leq 1 \\ & 0.1 \leq A_i \leq 30 \text{ in}^2 \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

where  $\mathbf{x}^T = \{x_1, \dots, x_{29}\}$  is a vector of design variables.  $\sigma_{all}$  is the allowance stress which was set to be 10 ksi, respectively. The variables  $\sigma_{\max, j}$  are the maximum stress of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  loading condition.  $P_{i, j}$  and  $P_{cr, i, j}$  are respectively applied compressive and critical buckling loads at the bar element number  $i$  of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  load case respectively.  $A_i$  are the cross-sectional areas of all truss elements.

In conclusion, there are six test problems of truss sizing. Two problems are from the 10-bar truss, one from the 25-bar truss, other two from the 72-bar truss, and another one from the 200-bar truss. The numbers of design variables for the test problems are 10, 10, 8, 16, 16, and 29 respectively.

Apart from the six test problems mentioned above, 2 test problems of the 25-bar and 72-bar trusses with all truss elements being assigned as design variables without grouping them are also used for performance test. For the 25-bar truss, the design problem with ungrouped element members as design variables (Bekdas *et al.*, 2017b) is considered with loading conditions as shown in Table 6. The lower and upper bounds for all element cross-sections are set to be 0.01 in<sup>2</sup> and 3.4 in<sup>2</sup>, respectively.

For the 72-bar truss, the design problem with ungrouped element members as design variables (Bekdas *et al.*, 2017b) is considered with loading conditions as show in Table 7. The lower and upper bound for all element cross-sections are set to be 0.1 in<sup>2</sup> and 3 in<sup>2</sup>, respectively.

Table 6. Load Cases for the Twenty-five Bar Space Truss Without Grouping Element Member (Bekdas *et al.*, 2017b)

Node	Condition 1			Condition 2		
	$F_x$	$F_y$	$F_z$	$F_x$	$F_y$	$F_z$
1	1.0	10.0	-5.0	0.0	20.0	-5.0
2	0.0	10.0	-5.0	0.0	-20.0	-5.0
3	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Table 7. Loading Conditions for the 72 bar Space Truss Without Grouping Element Member (Bekdas *et al.*, 2017b)

Node	Condition 1			Condition 2		
	$F_x$	$F_y$	$F_z$	$F_x$	$F_y$	$F_z$
17	-5.0	-5.0	-5.0	5.0	5.0	-5.0
18	-5.0	-5.0	-5.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
19	-5.0	-5.0	-5.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
20	-5.0	-5.0	-5.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

### 3. Self-adaptive Meta-heuristics Used in This Study

In this work, eight teen self-adaptive MHs were compared by implementing them to solve the six optimal truss sizing test problems. The reason only self-adaptive meta-heuristics are employed is because this can avoid controversy in optimisation parameter settings (such as crossover and mutation rates in genetic algorithms), which is always an issue when implementing such optimisers. Those SAMHs (details of notations are given in the corresponding references of those algorithms) are:

1. Adaptive Differential Evolution (JADE) (Zhang and Sanderson, 2009).
2. Evolution Strategy with Covariance Matrix Adaptation (CMAES) (Hansen *et al.*, 2003).
3. Composite Differential Evolution (CoDE) (Yong *et al.*, 2011).
4. Comprehensive Learning Particle Swarm Optimizer (CLPSO) (Liang *et al.*, 2006).
5. Ensemble of Mutation Strategies and Control Parameters with the Differential Evolution (EPSDE) (Mallipeddi *et al.*, 2011).
6. Hybrid Global and Local Real-Coded Genetic Algorithms (GL-25) (García-Martínez *et al.*, 2008).
7. Self-Adaptive Control Parameter in Differential Evolution (jDE) (Brest, Greiner *et al.*, 2006).
8. Self-Adaptive Differential Evolution (SaDE) (Qin *et al.*, 2009).
9. Combining Multiobjective Optimization with Differential Evolution (CMODE) (Yong and Zixing, 2012).
10. Improved  $(\mu + \lambda)$ -Constrained Differential Evolution (ICDE) (Jia *et al.*, 2013).
11. Orthogonal Crossover Based Differential Evolution (OXDE) (Wang *et al.*, 2012).
12. Success-History Based Adaptive Differential Evolution (SHADE) (Tanabe and Fukunaga, 2013).
13. United Multi-Operator Evolutionary Algorithms (UMOEAs) (Elsayed *et al.*, 2014)
14. SHADE with Linear Population Size Reduction (L-SHADE) (Tanabe and Fukunaga, 2014)
15. Covariance Matrix Learning and Searching Preference (CMLSP) (Lei *et al.*, 2014).
16. L-Shade with Eigenvector-Based Crossover and Successful-Parent-Selecting Framework (SPS-L-SHADE-EIG) (Shu-Mei *et al.*, 2015).
17. Improved Covariance Matrix Learning and Searching Preference (ICMLSP) (Lei *et al.*, 2015).
18. Neurodynamic Differential Evolution Algorithm (L-SHADE-ND) (Sallam *et al.*, 2015).

Each optimiser is run to tackle each optimisation problem for 30 independent runs (Pholdee and Bureerat, 2014b). The comparative results are performed with two experiments: optimisation design with and without considering buckling constraints. With the exception of the test problem VI, the

population size, for all test problems, is set to be  $n_p = 50$  while the number of generations is 200. For the test problem VI, the number of generations and the population size are 250 and 80 respectively. Any optimiser that uses different population size and number of loops will be terminated with the total number of functions evaluations (FEs) equal to  $50 \times 200$  for the first five test cases and  $80 \times 250$  for Case VI. It should be noted that  $50 \times 200 = 10,000$  FEs for Case I-V and  $80 \times 250 = 20,000$  FEs for Case VI can be considered insufficient for some meta-heuristics according to the literature; nevertheless, this value is set so as to look for only really powerful algorithms. The penalty function employed in this paper is the Kaveh-Zolghadr technique, which can be expressed as:

$$f_p(\mathbf{x}) = (1 + \varepsilon_1 \cdot v)^{\varepsilon_2} \quad (6)$$

where  $f_p$  is a penalised objective function used for converting a constrained problem to an equivalent unconstrained problem. The variables  $\varepsilon_1$  and  $\varepsilon_2$  are selected considering the exploration and exploitation rates of the search space.

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{ng} v_i \quad (7)$$

where  $ng$  and  $v_i$  are the number of constrain the constraints violation. The  $v_i$  for displacement, stress and buckling constraints can be calculate as follow:

$$v_i = \begin{cases} \max(\frac{d_{max}}{d_{all}} - 1, 0) \\ \max(\frac{\sigma_{max}}{\sigma_{all}} - 1, 0) \\ \max(\max(\frac{P_i}{P_{cr,i}} - 1), 0) \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

The technique was proven to be effective in cases of truss sizing subjected to natural frequency constraints (Kaveh and Zolghadr, 2012).

## 4. Results and Discussion

### 4.1 Comparatives Results of the Trusses Optimisation Without Buckling Constraints

Having performed 30 optimisation runs of 18 SAMHs for solving the six truss sizing design problems, the comparative results of the six design cases are shown in Table 8. It should be note that only top two best performers are shown in the tables. The mean values of objective functions are used to measure the search convergence of the MHs. The lower mean objective function value satisfying all constraints the better search convergence.

For the measure of search convergence based on the mean objective function values of the design problems without considering buckling constraints, SHADE is the best for the all design cases except for the Case III while the best performer for the Case III is L-SHADE. The second best for the Case II, Case IV, Case V and Case VI is L-SHADE while the second best for



Table 8. Comparative Performance for Case I-VI

Design Problem	Objective function (Weight, lb)			
	Without buckling constraints		With buckling constraints	
	Best (mean ± std)	Second best (mean ± std)	Best (mean ± std)	Second best (mean ± std)
Case I	SHADE (5060.961 ± 0.061)	SPS-L-SHADE-EIG (5061.332 ± 0.4711)	L-SHADE (8741.060 ± 163.89)	SPS-L-SHADE-EIG (8753.553 ± 164.19)
Case II	SHADE (4677.412 ± 0.3657)	L-SHADE (4677.768 ± 1.2787)	SPS-L-SHADE-EIG (8220.654 ± 5.3910)	SHADE (8246.900 ± 37.331)
Case III	L-SHADE (545.163 ± 0.0006)	SHADE (545.166 ± 0.0032)	L-SHADE SPS-L-SHADE-EIG (1623.212 ± 0.0025,0.0033)	-
Case IV	SHADE (379.985 ± 0.2285)	L-SHADE (380.036 ± 0.3802)	SPS-L-SHADE-EIG (1274.927 ± 6.4514)	L-SHADE (1279.792 ± 12.1403)
Case V	SHADE (364.261 ± 0.2280)	L-SHADE (364.399 ± 0.2854)	SPS-L-SHADE-EIG (1269.523 ± 8.1007)	L-SHADE (1270.900 ± 14.2772)
Case VI	SHADE (26109.67 ± 187.34)	L-SHADE (26197.27 ± 398.28)	SPS-L-SHADE-EIG (58662.63 ± 244.24)	SHADE (58961.50 ± 476.66)

Table 9. Top Five Optimisers Based on Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test for All Problems

Problem	MHs	Ranking Case I	Ranking Case II	Ranking Case III	Ranking Case IV	Ranking Case V	Ranking Case VI	Sum	Ranking All
Without buckling constraints	CMAES	3	3	2	4	8	6	26	4
	L-SHADE	2	1	1	1	1	2	8	1
	SPS-L-SHADE-EIG	3	3	3	4	4	2	19	3
	SHADE	1	1	3	1	1	1	8	1
	ICMLSP	3	3	5	3	1	11	26	4
With buckling constraints	JADE	5	4	4	4	4	4	25	4
	jDE	6	8	6	5	5	6	36	5
	L-SHADE	1	1	1	1	1	2	7	1
	SPS-L-SHADE-EIG	2	1	2	1	1	1	8	2
	SHADE	3	3	3	3	3	2	17	3

the design Case I and Case III are SPS-L-SHADE-EIG and SHADE, respectively.

For solving the six truss sizing design problems with buckling constraints, the best optimiser for the design Case I is L-SHADE while the best performer for the rest is SPS-L-SHADE-EIG. For the design Case III, the SPS-L-SHADE-EIG and L-SHADE obtained the same best mean objective function value. The second best for Case I, Case IV and Case V are SPS-L-SHADE-EIG, L-SHADE, and L-SHADE, respectively, while the second best for the rest is SHADE.

Additionally, the ranking of MHs is carried out using the statistical Wilcoxon rank sum test (Pholdee and Bureerat, 2013). The null hypothesis for the Wilcoxon rank sum test is that, for a particular test problem, the median of 30 objective function values (from 30 runs of each optimiser) obtained from method *I* is not different from the median of 30 objective function values obtained from using method *J* at the 5% significance level. If the null hypothesis is rejected and the median from method *J* is lower, the element *IJ* of the matrix is set to be '1'. After summing up all values in the matrix columns, the best optimiser is the one that has the highest score. More details of this performance assessment are given in (Pholdee and Bureerat, 2014b). Note that this comparison is made if and only if both

optimisers *I* and *J* give feasible solutions for all optimisation runs. If such a condition does not hold, between methods *I* or *J*, the method that give more feasible solutions for all runs is the winner. In case that both of them fail to find feasible solutions for all runs, one having lower constraint violation will win; otherwise, both of them are equal (Pholdee and Bureerat, 2014b).

Table 9 shows top 5 optimisers from the 18 implemented optimisers when solving all truss sizing design problems with and without buckling constraint based on the Wilcoxon rank sum test. For the design problems without considering bucking constraints, after summing up the ranking numbers of all design cases, it is found that SHADE and LSHADE are equally good as the best overall optimiser while the SPS-L-SHADE-EIG and ICMLSP are the third and fourth best, respectively. For the design problems with bucking constraints, L-SHADE is the best optimiser while the second best is SPS-L-SHADE-EIG. SHADE and JADE are the third and fourth best respectively.

In this work, the self-adaptive meta-heuristics are coded in MATLAB computing language (Pholdee and Bureerat, 2014b). Most of them are downloaded from their respective authors while some of them are created by the authors of this article following the details in the references. In addition, the number of function evaluations for searching optima is limited to 10,000 for

Table 10. Best Results Obtained from This Study for Case I-III

Problems	Case I		Case II		Case III	
	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Buckling Constraint Inclusion						
Optimiser	L-SHADE	L-SHADE	L-SHADE	L-SHADE	L-SHADE	L-SHADE, SPS-L-SHADE-EIG CMASE
Set of optimum design variable (Detailed in section 2)	30.5138	17.6822	23.5348	13.6549	0.0100	0.0100
	0.1000	0.1000	0.1000	3.3098	1.9871	5.5265
	23.2211	57.0877	25.2745	63.8208	2.9935	5.3385
	15.2332	40.6217	14.3773	40.7563	0.0100	0.0100
	0.1000	0.1000	0.1000	0.1000	0.0100	0.9159
	0.5508	0.1000	1.9697	2.4409	0.6840	3.9525
	7.4540	7.4164	12.3938	11.7427	1.6769	6.9541
	21.0268	69.1659	12.8314	49.8125	2.6621	5.6652
	21.5250	12.5494	20.3244	11.9802		
	0.1000	0.1000	0.1000	0.1000		
Weight (Ib)	5,060.86	8,707.83	4,676.92	8,215.89	545.163	1,623.21
Max stress constraint (load 1)	0	0	0	0	0	-0.7608
Max stress constraint (load 2)	None	None	None	None	-0.1958	-0.7746
Max displacement constraint (load 1)	0	0	0	0	0	-0.6209
Max displacement constraint (load 2)	None	None	None	None	0	-0.6015
Max buckling constraint (load 1)	215.8330	0	1,247.7	0	133.1585	0
Max buckling constraint (load 2)	None	None	None	None	277.7786	0
No. of analyses	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000

Case I-V and 20,000 for Case VI. Such numbers of function evaluations may be inadequate for some implemented optimisers.

Tables 10-11 show the comparison between the best results found in this study for all design cases based on the analyses with and without buckling constraints. The minimum objective function values and percentage of constraints violation of stress, displacement and buckling are present in these tables. In cases of the problems without buckling, the best results found in this study for all design cases except for the Case IV and Case V is L-SHADE while ICMLSP produces the best solutions for Case IV and Case V. In cases of the problems with buckling constraints, the best results found in this study for the design Case I-V is obtained by using L-SHADE while SPS-L-SHADE-EIG gives the best results for the Case VI. For the design Case III, L-SHADE and SPS-L-SHADE-EIG give the best results.

From literature, the best results obtained from the recently published work by Khatibinia and Yazdanib, 2017 for Cases I-II and Cases IV-VI without considering buckling constraints are respectively 5060.9 Ib (5060.9 ± 0), 4677.0 Ib (4677.2 ± 0.1), 379.6 Ib (379.6 ± 0), 363.8 Ib (363.9 ± 0), and 25461.0 Ib (25547.4 ± 110.1 Ib), with 10,500 function evaluations. For Case II, the best result is obtained from Degertekin et al., 2017 as 545.13 Ib (545.47 ± 0.476) within 7,653 function evaluations. It should be noted that those previously reported numbers are of the form *Best (Mean ± Standard deviation)*. By comparing to Tables 8, 10 and 11, it was found that the results obtained from the self-adaptive algorithms used in this study are comparable with so far best results in the literature. New best results for Cases I and II are reported in the present study for the optimisation problem without buckling constraints. Also, all the optimum results reported in this paper when taking into account

buckling constraints can be used as the new baseline results for future investigation.

In cases of having buckling constraints, the minimum mass obtained are significantly higher. According to the constraint violation check in the tables, it is shown that the results which ignored buckling in the design are not safe from buckling instability. This implies that, in reality, the buckling constraints should be added to a truss design problem ensuring that the designed structure fulfils all safety requirements. Moreover, the results presented in this paper could be considered as the initial benchmark results for truss optimisation with buckling constraints in which following researchers could use for testing their developed algorithms.

The comparative results for the test problems of 25-bar truss and 72-bar truss with ungrouped design variables are shown in Table 12. Based on the mean objective function value, CMAES and L-SHADE are the best performer for both 25-bar truss and 72-bar truss, respectively. The second best for the 25-bar truss is SHADE while SPS-L-SHADE-EIG is the second best for the 72-bar truss. The optimum results obtained from Bekdas *et al.*, 2017 are 543.20 Ib and 360.518 Ib, for the 25-bar truss and the 72-bar truss, respectively, with 2,000,000 function evaluations. The minimum weight for the 25-bar truss and the 72-bar truss are obtained by SHADE and ICMLSP which are 544.301 Ib and 393.785 Ib, respectively with 10,000 function evaluations.

## 5. Conclusions

This paper gathers many self-adaptive meta-heuristic algorithms and implements them on truss sizing optimisation with stress, displacement and buckling constraints. Based on the six



Table 11. Best rEsults Obtained from This Study for Case IV-VI

Problems	Case IV		Case V		Case VI	
	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Buckling Analysis						
Optimiser	ICMLSP	L-SHADE	ICMLSP	L-SHADE	L-SHADE	SPS-L-SHADE-EIG
Set of optimum design variable (Detailed in section 2)	1.8718	1.9688	1.8655	1.9521	0.1161	1.3371
	0.5120	1.9257	0.5159	1.9138	0.9964	2.5234
	0.1001	0.3415	0.0100	0.3129	0.1115	0.4490
	0.1000	0.1001	0.0100	0.0100	0.1000	0.8701
	1.2617	1.5198	1.2891	1.5213	2.0027	3.9995
	0.5143	1.9361	0.5183	1.9369	0.2831	2.9417
	0.1000	0.4739	0.0100	0.5121	0.1301	1.3491
	0.1001	0.8243	0.0103	0.9188	3.0565	4.7238
	0.5345	1.4980	0.5305	1.5059	0.2275	4.0212
	0.5140	1.7757	0.5238	1.7608	4.0566	5.7211
	0.1001	0.1004	0.0100	0.0127	0.4615	3.8652
	0.1002	0.3359	0.1199	0.2350	0.1185	1.3861
	0.1563	1.4693	0.1658	1.4868	5.4152	6.9662
	0.5442	2.2854	0.5357	2.2415	0.1903	0.5488
	0.4133	1.6476	0.4493	1.6705	6.4146	7.9665
	0.5803	2.7727	0.5589	2.8074	0.5987	4.4182
					0.1781	1.4343
					8.0388	9.6447
					0.1119	0.4474
					9.0195	10.6536
					0.7627	4.8760
					0.2368	1.7949
					10.9545	12.4617
					0.1045	0.9154
					12.0040	13.4759
				0.9461	5.7288	
				6.5914	5.7879	
				10.8910	27.3881	
				13.8166	28.8912	
Weight (lb)	379.65	1,265.25	363.87	1,253.23	25,553.20	58,168.61
Max stress constraint (load 1)	-0.3389	-0.8550	-0.3242	-0.8534	0	-0.8851
Max stress constraint (load 2)	0	-0.8693	0	-0.8686	0	-0.2089
Max stress constraint (load 3)	None	None	None	None	0	-0.1644
Max displacement constraint (load 1)	0	-0.5842	0	-0.5815	None	None
Max displacement constraint (load 2)	-0.0132	-0.7103	-0.0094	-0.7080	None	None
Max displacement constraint (load 3)	None	None	None	None	None	None
Max buckling constraint (load 1)	56.2119	0	915.7888	0	116.4961	-0.0018
Max buckling constraint (load 2)	72.3094	0	402.5494	0	34.4200	-0.0002
Max buckling constraint (load 3)	None	None	None	None	60.1155	-0.0001
No. of analyses	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	20,000	20,000

Table 12. Comparative Results for the Trusses with Ungrouped Design Variables

Design problems	Objective function (Weight, lb)	
	Best (mean±std)	Second best (mean±std)
25-bar truss with ungrouped design variables	CMAES (545.127±0.5256)	SHADE (545.316±0.6408)
72-bar truss with ungrouped design variables	L-SHADE (394.032±0.2488)	SPS-L-SHADE-EIG (394.292±0.444)

traditional test problems, the performances of the optimisers are compared. The results shown that the top three meta-heuristics for all test problems with and without buckling constraints, are L-SHADE, SHADE and SPS-L-SHADE-EIG. The constraint violation check reveals that buckling is one important design constraint for truss sizing design. The results reported in this

paper are said to be the new baselines for those who want to develop meta-heuristics for solving optimal truss sizing.

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