# Ant Colony Optimization: An Alternative Heuristic for Aerospace Design Applications 

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#### Abstract

A modified ant colony optimization (ACO) algorithm is applied to a set of solid-rocketmotor and single-stage solid missile design problems. A local search procedure is also integrated with the algorithm, adding a search intensification ability that compliments the ability of ACO to thoroughly explore a solution space. The goal of this work is to evaluate the effectiveness of the ant colony optimization scheme by comparing its solution output quality with those of other, well-known optimization methods. Performance is based on solution "fitness", or how closely each solution matches a specific set of performance objectives, as well as the number of calls to the objective function that are required in order to reach that solution. Additionally, an important performance criterion is to determine the algorithm's capabilities of finding, not only a single quality solution to a design problem, but also a diverse set of additional, near-optimal solutions.


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$\zeta \quad$ Pheromone Evaporation Rate$A C O$ Ant Colony Optimization
GA Genetic Algorithm
gl Propellant Grain Length$j \quad$ Solution Archive Index$k \quad$ Solution Archive Sizekfuel Propellant Fuel TypeNSP Number of Star PointsPDF Probability Density Function
PSO Particle Swarm Optimizationptang Star Point Angle$q \quad$ Pheromone Weight Distribution Parameter
$q_{\text {mod }} \quad$ ACO Elitism Parameterratio Nozzle Expansion Ratiorbi Outer Grain Radiusri Propellant Inner Grain RadiusRMSE Root Mean Square Error
rp Propellant Outer Grain Radius

RPSO Repulsive Particle Swarm Optimization

SRM Solid Rocket Motor

TBO Time until Burnout

TOF Time of Flight

## Chapter 1

## Introduction

As computational technology has continued to advance, the integration of optimization methods with modeling and simulation has become an increasingly valuable tool for engineering design purposes. This union has been particularly useful in situations where it is especially difficult or impossible to develop an analytic solution to a given problem.

Numerous successful optimization strategies have recently been developed and refined for this purpose. Amongst the most popular of these strategies are Genetic Algorithms (GAs), based on the theory of evolution, and Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), which is inspired by the principles of natural flocking behavior and social communication.

GAs in particular have been used extensively for aerospace design problems. Some examples include optimization of spacecraft controls [1,2], turbines [3], helicopter controls [4], flight trajectories [5], wings and airfoils [6, 7], missiles and rockets [8, 9], propellers [10] and inlets [11]. PSO methods have also been widely utiilized for various aerospace design efforts. Some examples include route planning [12] and propeller design [13] for UAVs, airfoil design [14], and aerodynamic shaping [15].

Other less well-known methods have also been used, along with various hybrids that attempt to combine strengths of different optimization schemes. However, aerospace design implementations of non-hybrid, ant colony methods have rarely been attempted. The ACO paradigm was chosen for the problems in this study because it was thought to be a good candidate for optimization of design problems involving multiple optima. It is important, when possible, to compare different optimization techniques in order to better understand their respective strengths and weaknesses. This encourages continuing improvement within the realm of numerical optimization, and is the primary goal of this work.

# Chapter 2 <br> Overview of Ant Colony Optimization 

### 2.1 Natural Inspiration

ACO algorithms are inspired by the foraging behaviors of some species of ants found in nature where it has been observed that a colony of ants is able to select paths of minimal length to sources of food $[16,17]$. The mechanism by which this is accomplished is the creation of bio-chemical trails that serve as a method of communication between individual members of the colony. This chemical, which is detectable by other members of a colony is known as trail pheromone.

Ants initially explore the area around their home nest in a random fashion. Upon encountering a food source, an ant will return to the nest, emitting a layer of pheromone to mark the path it has traveled. Other members of the colony are drawn toward this path as they probabilistically choose their foraging route based on the amount of pheromone present. These ants in turn emit their own pheromone, reinforcing good paths for others to follow. Eventually, the ants in the colony converge onto a single trail until the food source is exhausted, at which point the pheromone trail slowly evaporates. The evaporation effect allows the ants to explore new regions until a new food source is discovered. This explains how ants are able to recruit other colony members to one particular path, but for a large colony multiple paths to the same food source are often discovered. How then do the ants determine the best path? As a simple illustration, consider Figure 2.1. If a number of ants begin a journey from a nest and come to the first decision point, stochastically half of them will travel along the high path while half will choose the lower path. Assuming the ants are moving at the same rate of speed, those that choose the short path are the first to reach the food source and begin their return journey, thereby establishing a pheromone link more


Figure 2.1: Double Bridge Experiment [18]
rapidly than the ants that chose the longer route. In addition, pheromone that is added to the shorter path evaporates more slowly than that on the longer path. As ants continue to leave the nest they are increasingly drawn toward the shorter path. This selective bias continues to be reinforced as more ants complete their circuit until eventually almost all of the ants converge upon the optimal route

### 2.2 Artificial Algorithm

The natural ant model became the inspiration for the ACO algorithm, initially proposed by Marco Dorigo in 1992 where a population of "artificial ants" can be used to iteratively create and improve solutions to a given optimization problem [19]. ACO adopts the foraging principles from real ant colony behavior while also implementing several improvements including a tunable pheromone evaporation rate and an augmented ability for ants to calculate the quality of a particular solution and distribute differing levels of pheromone accordingly. After its introduction, many highly effective variants of the ACO algorithm were developed and implemented to solve a wide range of difficult combinatorial optimization problems. As
the name suggests, combinatorial problems involve finding optimal or near optimal permutations, links, and combinations of available components. Examples of such problems include the well known quadratic assignment [20] and traveling salesman problems [21, 22] where ACO has been proven to be very successful. In addition, ACO has been effectively used to solve various routing, scheduling, and data mining optimization problems [23].

Despite its success in the combinatorial realm, the algorithm was difficult to apply to problems of a continuous nature, as the ant colony paradigm is not intuitively applicable to problems of this type. The components of continuous problems are not partitioned into finite sets, which the original ant system requires. Several early attempts were made, however to remedy this shortcoming [24, 25]. The algorithms developed from many of these attempts borrowed several features of the original ACO model, but they did not follow it closely. In order to address this issue, Socha and Dorigo developed an algorithm in 2005 they named ACO-R that more closely adopted the spirit of the original method and could operate in continuous space natively [26]. The fundamental concept of ACO-R is that the discrete, probability distributions used in ACO are replaced by probability density functions or PDFs (see Figure 2.2) in the solution construction phase, and the pheromone distribution is accomplished by a large solution archive of weighted PDFs that combine to form a Gaussian kernel as shown in Figure 2.3.

## ACO-R Algorithm Methodology

First, the solution archive is filled with randomly generated solutions. These solutions are then ranked and given weights based on their quality.

$$
\begin{equation*}
w_{j}=\frac{1}{q k \sqrt{2 \pi}} \exp \frac{-(\operatorname{rank}(j)-1)^{2}}{k-1} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $j$ is a solutions index in the archive, $k$ is the total number of solutions, and $q$ is a parameter of the algorithm that determines how the weights are distributed. Lower values


Figure 2.2: Probability Density Function


Figure 2.3: Gaussian Kernel Construction
result in more elitist weight distributions, whereas higher values create more uniform distributions. These weight assignments are analogous to differing pheromone amounts and bias the selection of higher quality solutions within the search space. Each time a new "ant" constructs a solution, a new PDF is selected for each dimension from among the solution archive with a probability proportional to its weight. In this way, all of the solutions are given a chance to contribute, producing a diverse and robust exploration strategy.

After a specific PDF has been chosen for each component, a new solution is taken from a normal distribution oriented around its center. The standard deviation of this distribution is calculated using Equation 2.2.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma_{j}^{i}=\zeta \sum_{r=1}^{k} \frac{a b s\left(s_{i}^{r}-s_{i}^{j}\right)}{k-1} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

This equation sets the standard deviation of each variable $i$ as dependent on the average distance between the corresponding variable components of all the other $k$ solutions in the archive. In this way, the characteristics of each Gaussian PDF selected by the ants are affected by the positions of all the other ants in the archive. Pheromone evaporation rate is governed by the parameter $\zeta$ where a smaller value encourages fast convergence and a larger value encourages a more thorough exploration of the search domain.

Once $m$ new solutions have been generated, they replace the $m$ worst solutions in the current archive which is then resorted. This process functions in the same way as pheromone update by removing the impact of the worst solutions in the current pheromone model. It also ensures that new solutions will have at least some chance of being selected in the following iteration, regardless of their fitness, thus encouraging new exploration.

An optional final step of the ACO-R algorithm is to correlate variables using an orthogonal gram-schmidt process. For problems involving many variables, however, the computational effort required to implement this step has been found to be high, significantly reducing the algorithm's efficiency. [27,28].


Figure 2.4: Simple 1-D Illustration of Single Ant Cycle

The ordered methodology for the ACO-R algorithm is listed below and a flow chart is shown in Figure 2.5.

1) Generate an initial solution archive of feasible solutions randomly.
2) Evaluate the quality of each solution in the archive.
3) Rank solutions and create pheromone model by giving each solution a weight.
4) New ants are generated, choosing a solution with a probability proportional to its assigned weight.
5) Ants sample a PDF formed around each optimization variable of their chosen solution; combining sampled variables yields a new solution.
6) The solution archive is updated by replacing the $m$ worst solutions in the archive with $m$ new ant solutions.
7) Return to step 4 until stopping criteria are met.

### 2.3 Modifications

The basic ACO-R methodology was adopted (sans variable correlation) as the basis for the algorithm used for this research, while several modifications were made in order to achieve higher performance:
(A) Elitism

The first modification was that a higher emphasis was placed around searching the best-so-far solution in the archive in order to achieve quicker convergence. An extra tuning parameter $q_{\text {mod }}$ was created that controlled the probability that a newly generated "ant" sampled only the area around the best solution. A similar approach was taken by ref [28]. The reason for this modification was that after preliminary testing of the algorithm it was felt that the original $q$ weighting parameter was not able to give the amount of control wanted over convergence behavior. When elitism was attempted by setting the weighting parameter


Figure 2.5: ACO-R Algorithm Flow

| $q=0.2 \rightarrow$ | rank | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | P (\%) | 13.55 | 13.42 | 13.03 | 12.42 | 11.61 | 10.64 | 9.57 | 8.44 | 7.31 |
| $q=0.5 \rightarrow$ | rank | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|  | P (\%) | 17.21 | 16.79 | 15.59 | 13.78 | 11.59 | 9.28 | 7.08 | 5.13 | 3.54 |
| $q=0.8 \rightarrow$ | rank | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|  | P (\%) | 36.28 | 31.10 | 19.57 | 9.05 | 3.07 | 0.77 | 0.14 | 0.02 | 0.003 |

Figure 2.6: Effects of parameter "q" on PDF selection

| qmod $=0.4 \rightarrow$ | rank | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | P (\%) | 40.00 | 7.50 | 7.50 | 7.50 | 7.50 | 7.50 | 7.50 | 7.50 | 7.50 |
| qmod $=0.4 \rightarrow$ | rank | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|  | P (\%) | 40.00 | 11.51 | 11.16 | 10.16 | 8.69 | 6.98 | 5.27 | 3.74 | 2.49 |
| $q=0.5$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Figure 2.7: Effects of parameter " $q_{\text {mod }}$ " on PDF selection
to a very high value, the algorithm tended to converge very quickly, but at the expense of greatly reduced exploration ability. When the weighting parameter was set low, the algorithm tended to become unguided and inefficient. By guaranteeing that ants searched a certain percent of the time around the current best solution, while at the same time allowing more of the solutions at the bottom end of the archive to contribute, both exploration and intensification were encouraged. Figures 2.6 and 2.7 illustrate how both the original $q$ parameter and the added $q_{\text {mod }}$ parameter affect the selection probability " P " of a set of ranked solutions in an archive.

## (B) Diversification

A final modification was the addition of a diversification mechanism which was added in order to combat any potential instances of premature convergence. This was needed to balance the intensification effect on the algorithm caused by the local search integration. Each time the local search was called within the algorithm, a subroutine was enacted which
generated a temporary, independent ACO routine. An optional feature allowed the temporary ant colony to avoid searching the area close to where the main colony was converging by disallowing new solutions containing specified previously used values. A local search was then performed on the best member found by the rogue colony, and the resulting solution was then compared to the current best solution for the main ACO program. If the newly generated solution was found to be better than the current best, it is replaced by the new solution. Regardless of which solution is chosen as winner, a new solution archive is generated around the best solution according to a normal distribution with a standard deviation of 0.5 , which was chosen so that the solution archive converges much more aggressively than the original, yet retains semi-global optimization ability.

## (C) Local Search

The second modification was the addition of an integrated local search procedure. Two local search methods were tested: Hooke and Jeeves pattern search and the Nelder-Mead simplex method. As will be explained in chapter 3, both methods are derivative-free and are efficient tools for exploring a small, local region of a design space.

The ordered methodology adopted for the final modified algorithm is as follows:

1) Generate an initial solution archive of feasible solutions.
2) Run an elitist ACO-R cycle for a set number of iterations.
3) Perform local search around best member in the archive.
4) Generate an alternate solution and perform a local search on best member.
5) Compare solutions and re-initialize solution archive around winning member.
6) Repeat steps two through five until stopping criteria are satisfied.

## Chapter 3

Overview of Competing Algorithms and Complimentary Local Search Methods

### 3.1 Genetic Algorithm and Particle Swarm Methodology

A total of three different competing optimization methods are used at different points throughout this study to provide comparison and potential validation of the ACO algorithm. Two of these methods are fundamentally distinct genetic algorithm implementations. The first is the binary-coded genetic algorithm IMPROVE (Implicit Multi-objective PaRameter Optimization Via Evolution) developed by Anderson [29]. This algorithm has been used multiple times in previous optimization studies and has been shown to be an effective and robust tool for aerospace design optimization [30-32] and the second is a steady-state, realcoded GA.

Binary GAs function by converting all of the design variables for a given problem into a single bit string. A "population" of members is then formed and the resulting bit strings undergo processes similar to DNA strands in evolutionary theory. Desriable traits are kept alive through population "breeding" where the strongest members survive, and negative traits are eventually replaced and eliminated from the gene pool. To maintain diversity and avoid stagnation, new genetic material is introduced through mutations which occur at a fixed rate through the lifespan of the algorithm.

Real-coded GAs, unlike binary GAs, are able to operate on a continuous design space directly and enjoy some advantages over the binary GA such as generally quicker convergence. Another advantage is that bit resolution is not an issue as is often encountered with binary methods and binary hamming cliffs can be avoided. A disadvantage of the real-coded GA, however, is that it may converge too quickly and must rely on properly tuned mutation and crossover routines to perform effectively.

The third optimization method also used for optimizer comparison is a modifed Repulsive Particle Swarm Optimization (RPSO) method developed by Mishra [33]. PSO methods, first introduced by Kennedy and Eberhart [34], mimic the social behavior of a "swarm" of individuals; each are assigned a position and velocity and they "fly" around the solution space, working together collectively in a quest to discover quality solutions. PSO methods are attractive as they are easily implemented and can be directly applied to continuous design problems. The repulsive variation used for comparison in this work, is designed to exploit multiple optima in the solution space more thoroughly through the addition of a trajectory-influencing force which prevents individual swarm members from converging to the same location.

### 3.2 Direct Local Search Methods

An often crucial piece of creating a high-performance algorithm, involves the integration of an effective local search procedure. A class of methods known as direct search methods are a popular choice for use as a local search. Their attractiveness is based on the fact that they are often much more numerically efficient than global optimization heuristics in converging to a solution. Their drawback, however, is that they very easily can become trapped in local optima. If used as a global optimizer, this behavior is extremely detrimental, but when used as a local search within an already near-optimal region, rarely has a negative impact. Two local search methods were considered for integration with the ACO algorithm, the methodologies of which are explained in the following sections.

### 3.2.1 Pattern Search

The Pattern Search method was originally developed by Hooke and Jeeves in 1960 [35,36] as a direct search procedure. The method operates by creating a system of $2 N$ trial points for an $N$-dimensional problem by varying each parameter, one at a time, by a specified step size around the starting base-point. This step size is applied twice; once in a direction larger
and once in a direction smaller than value of the original parameter. Once the fitness of each point is evaluated during this exploratory phase, the point which yields the best solution is chosen to be the new base point and the process is repeated. If the exploratory moves fail to yield a new best solution, the step size is reduced by half. Once the radius of the pattern search has become sufficiently small, the program is terminated.


Figure 3.1: Hooke and Jeeves Pattern Search [37]

### 3.2.2 Nelder-Mead Simplex

First developed in 1965 [38], the Nelder-Mead Simplex Method is a well-known derivativefree, nonlinear optimization technique. The simplex algorithm operates by creating a system of $N+1$ vertices for an $N$-dimensional problem which then undergoes a series of reflections
and expansions in order to iteratively crawl its way towards a local optimal or near-optimal solution. For example, in two dimensions, the simplex takes the form of a triangle and in three dimensions, a tetrahedron. When consecutive iterations of simplex evolution are animated, it appears as though the simplex structure morphs its way toward a solution, earning it the common alternative name of the "amoeba method". Figure 3.2 illustrates the various ways the simplex structure can evolve within two-dimensional space.


Figure 3.2: 2-D Simplex Morphology

The rules governing simplex behavior can be described as follows:

1) Construct an initial simplex structure around the base point $x_{b}$.
2) The point with the worst initial fitness $x_{w}$ is reflected through the centroid of the simplex.
3) If the reflected point $x_{r}$ is a new best solution, expand the simplex and reflect further $x_{e}$.
4) If the new point is not a new best solution, but is still a good solution, start at the top and reflect again.
5) If the new point is a bad solution, contract the simplex $x_{c}$ and return to step two.
6) If successive contractions fail to find an improvement, contract each point $x^{\prime}$ within the simplex structure.

The simplex method is much more aggressive than the pattern search procedure which allows it to converge much more quickly over a well-behaved solution space. The downside of this characteristic is that, at times, the simplex may be confused by discontinuous or highdimensional problems. In order to combat this, a restart mechanism was encoded within the simplex subroutine which allowed the algorithm to reset mid-run if needed.

Chapter 4<br>Star-Grain Solid Rocket Motor Design Optimization

### 4.1 Solid Rocket Motor System Background

A solid rocket motor is composed of a solid propellant, incased in a typically cylindrical casing. The internal burning surface, known as the grain, is processed into a single basic geometric form that determines a rockets performance characteristics over time. One of the more common and versatile grain patterns for tactical missiles is the star grain. This specific design was chosen as the optimization case for the algorithm. The star grain geometry definition approach used for this work was described by Barrere [39], and a review of the analysis method was provided by Hartfield [40]. Star grain patterns can be designed with as few as three star-points and as many as the upper teens, with an odd number of star points being more prevalent due to an inherently increased stability. This is because the star points within an even-numbered motor can sometimes interfere with one another due to their higher symmetry characteristics. The six design variables used to fully describe star grain, cross-sectional geometry are shown in Figure 4.1.

### 4.2 Optimization Procedure

A FORTRAN code developed by Drs. Jenkins, Burkhalter, and Hartfield of the Auburn University Aerospace Department was available that was capable of determining SRM burnback performance. To run the code, a set of design parameters, including the six crosssectional parameters shown in Figure 4.1 and the additional three components, grain length, nozzle expansion ratio, and fuel type bring the total number of optimization variables to


Figure 4.1: Star Grain Cross Sectional Geometry [40]
nine. These nine parameters, listed in Table 4.1, determine the performance of an individual star grain rocket motor and were therefore chosen to be the input parameters for the optimizer.

Seven of the design variables are inherently continuous, while the number of star points NSP and the fuel type can only exist as integer values. To avoid an extra complication due to mixed variable optimization, both the $N S P$ variable and fuel type were encoded as continuous within the algorithm and then simply converted to the nearest integer value via truncation whenever the SRM subroutine was called to perform a calculation. This handling of the integer values creates some reason for concern as it has the potential to create discontinuities within the solution space. However, the cycling and diversification modifications to the algorithm proved to be sufficient to handle any such problems in preliminary test runs.

It is often desirable to design a SRM to match a pre-specified flight characteristic as closely as possible. For this problem, the characteristics to be optimized are the amount

Table 4.1: SRM Optimization Design Parameters

| Design Variable | Description |
| :---: | :---: |
| $R p v a r=(R p+f) / R b o d y$ | Propellant outer radius ratio |
| Rivar $=R i / R p$ | Propellant inner radius ratio |
| $R o$ | Outer grain radius |
| $e p s$ | Star width |
| Nsp | Number of star points |
| $k f u e l$ | Propellant fuel type |
| $g l$ | Grain length |
| fvar $=f / R p$ | Fillet radius ratio |
| $D$ star | Nozzle expansion ratio |

of thrust produced by the SRM and its internal chamber pressure. The success of the optimization is determined by how closely a SRM can be designed to match a specified chamber pressure or thrust trend with respect to time. The ability to match this curve will be calculated by taking the average root mean squared error or RMSE over the course of an alloted burn time, where RMSE is the sum of the variances between the desired curve and the curve generated by the best solution found by the optimizer. This was accomplished by breaking the SRM performance-time data into intervals of 0.01 seconds using simple linear interpolation between output data points generated by the code.

In order to determine the best local search procedure to use with the ACO algorithm for the SRM burnback cases, it was allowed to run without the local search procedure twenty different times. The points generated by each run were then operated on by both the pattern search and simplex methods. Each local search procedure was allowed to run until either convergence, or after 500 function calls were completed - whichever came first. The simplex method proved to be the better performer for this problem as can be seen by the results in Table 4.2, and was adopted as the local search procedure for the SRM curve-matching problems.

Table 4.2: Local Search Performance Comparison

| Method | Average Solution Improvement (\%) |
| :---: | :---: |
| N.M. Simplex | 72.8 |
| Pattern Search | 46.2 |

### 4.3 SRM Curve Matching Problems and Results

Three cases were considered in order to test the algorithm:

## Random Burn Profile

This problem was chosen to be the first attempted; it was the easiest challenge since a solution was guaranteed to exist within the solution space. For this reason, the problem could be used to determine initially if the optimizer was, in fact, working correctly. Also, it functioned as a baseline for parameter tuning purposes. To set up the objective function, each design variable was given a single randomly assigned value within its design range and this set of values was input into the SRM code. The program then output corresponding data about the thrust and chamber pressure over time which was then used as the objective function for the optimizer.

The algorithm was able to achieve a very close match for the first problem, obtaining a best solution of only 0.0077 percent RMSE and never returning a solution worse than 0.0724 percent RMSE, demonstrating a high degree of consistency. The best grain design found by the optimizer is shown in Figure 4.2 and the resulting burn profile is shown in Figure 4.3.

## Neutral Burn Profile

For the second problem, a neutral burn match was attempted where the SRM optimizer was tasked with the job of maintaining a constant chamber pressure of 500 psia over a twenty-second burn duration. As illustrated in Figure 4.4, a close match of 0.109 percent RMSE was found for the problem. The optimized grain cross-section is shown in Figure 4.5.


Figure 4.2: Optimized SRM Grain Geometry - Random Burn


Figure 4.3: Chamber Pressure vs Time Curve - Random Burn Profile


Figure 4.4: Chamber Pressure vs Time Match - Neutral Burn Profile


Figure 4.5: Optimized SRM Grain Geometry - Neutral Burn

## Regressive-Progressive Burn Profile

A regressive-progressive motor burns in such a way that it produces a gradually diminishing thrust up to a certain point along its burn duration, at which point thrust begins to increase until the motors tail-off point is reached. A problem of this type was created where thrust begain at 80000 psia, was reduced to 60000 psia at ten seconds, and then increased back to 80000 psia after twenty seconds. A thrust curve was used in place of a pressure curve for this optimization attempt. This does not affect the problem significantly as changes in pressure were directly correlated to changes in thrust for the set of design variables used.

This problem was expected to much more difficult to solve than the first, as the sudden, linear turning point cannot be exactly produced due to the transient burn characteristics of an SRM. As expected, this curve profile was very difficult to match, but the optimizer was able to achieve an RMSE of between 0.610 percent, shown in Figure 4.6, and 0.674 percent. The optimized grain cross-section is shown in Figure 4.7.

## Summary

Overall, the results show that the algorithm is very effective in solving the SRM optimization problems. However there was no way to directly compare the results to previous work done with other optimizers for this problem due to ambiguity within the published design variable limits. For this reason, fair validation of the ACO algorithm against other methods was unattainable and another design problem without this deficiency was sought.


Figure 4.6: Thrust vs Time Curve - Regressive-Progressive Burn


Figure 4.7: Optimized SRM Grain Geometry - Regressive Progressive

Table 4.3: Summary of Results and Optimized SRM Geometries

| Design Parameter | Random Burn | Neutral Burn | Regressive-Progressive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Rpvar | 0.583262 | 0.679595 | 0.450154 |
| Rivar | 0.190164 | 0.199874 | 0.143454 |
| Nsp | 7 | 5 | 5 |
| fvar | 0.063335 | 0.0799974 | 0.0200000 |
| eps | 0.811286 | 0.6952298 | 0.5463125 |
| rbod | 15.9544625 | 34.9967667 | 24.1715989 |
| gl | 9.9964089 | 3.2935126 | 6.0560694 |
| diath | 0.24703012 | 0.2195772 | 0.200886139 |
| ftype | 4 | 3 | 1 |
| Best Solution (\%RMSE) | $\mathbf{0 . 0 0 7 7}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 6 1 0}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 0 5 1}$ |
| Worst Solution (\%RMSE) | $\mathbf{0 . 0 7 2 4}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 6 7 4}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 1 6 9}$ |
| Average Solution (\%RMSE) | $\mathbf{0 . 0 2 6 5}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 6 2 9}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 1 0 9}$ |

## Chapter 5

## Solid Motor Sounding Rocket Optimization

### 5.1 Sounding Rocket System Description

After the SRM curve matching problems, the next step in testing the algorithm was to attempt a sounding rocket design optimization. This problem presented an opportunity to try the ACO algorithm on a slightly more complicated problem as well as to attempt validation of the ACO algorithm by comparing its performance with other known optimization methods. In a previous study conducted by Badyrka [49], three algorithms were tested on their ability to design a sounding rocket to meet a set of three specific performance goals. These goals were specified for the sounding rocket to carry a payload of 70lb to a burnout altitude of $50,000 \mathrm{ft}$ and burnout velocity of $1,000 \mathrm{ft} / \mathrm{sec}$ with an additional emphasis on minimizing takeoff weight. The "fitness" of each missile design found is calculated according to equation 5.1.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Fitness }=a b s(\text { AltitudeError })+a b s(\text { VelocityError })+\frac{\text { Weight }}{1000} \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The code used for the optimizer study by ref [49] was availabe through the Auburn University Dept. of Aerospace Engineering. It works by processing the input design parameters to determine geometry and burn characteristics for solid rocket motors using subroutines similar to those used in the curve-matching problem. In addition, the code calculates the total weight of the sounding rocket system, first by determining the weight of the structures outside of the motor, including the case, joints, end cap and nozzle, and then adding them to the combined weight of the payload, propellant, and ignition system. A total of eleven design parameters, listed in Table 5.1 are required for a complete sounding rocket model.

Table 5.1: Sounding Rocket Design Parameters

| Design Variable | Description |
| :---: | :---: |
| Rpvar $=(R p+f) / R b o d y$ | Propellant outer radius ratio |
| Rivar $=R i / R p$ | Propellant inner radius ratio |
| $R o$ | Outer grain radius |
| $e p s$ | Star width |
| Nsp | Number of star points |
| ptang | Star point angle |
| $k f u e l$ | Propellant fuel type |
| $g l$ | Grain length |
| fvar $=f / R p$ | Fillet radius ratio |
| Diath | Nozzle throat diameter |
| Ratio | Nozzle expansion ratio |

The three optimization methods described previously were tested and the results were availabe from the work of ref [49]. Using identical design constraints and an equivalent number of 250,000 allowable function calls, the ACO algorithm was applied to the same problem.

It should be noted that the local search option of the modified ACO algorithm was turned off for this and the remaining problems attempted in this study involving comparisons to other optimization schemes. This was done in order to avoid an unfair comparison, as the competing algorithms did not possess a local search ability.

### 5.2 Sounding Rocket Results

As seen in Table 5.2 and Figure 5.1, the ACO algorithm was able to find a significantly better solution than RPSO, and was also able to outperform both of the GAs. As seen in the solution convergence history (Figure 5.2), ACO was able to accomplish this using significantly fewer function calls than any of the competing methods. The algorithm was also able to avoid stagnation, and continued to find improving solutions very deep into its run.


Figure 5.1: Best Sounding Rocket Solutions Found by Optimizers


Figure 5.2: Optimizer Convergence History

Table 5.2: Sounding Rocket Optimization Results

| Design Parameter | RPSO | Binary GA | Real GA | ACO |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Propellant type | 7 | 8 | 8 | 8 |
| Rpvar | 0.522325 | 0.535039 | 0.754812 | 0.513013 |
| Rivar | 0.010100 | 0.221373 | 0.010000 | 0.364549 |
| Nsp | 8 | 11 | 17 | 12 |
| Fvar | 0.063567 | 0.040045 | 0.014708 | 0.010000 |
| epsilon | 0.472595 | 0.686667 | 0.341543 | 0.839910 |
| Star point angle | 1.275354 | 5.677166 | 8.909556 | 7.241508 |
| Grain length | 239.7870 | 301.3699 | 241.5387 | 243.2500 |
| Outer grain radius | 23.76000 | 22.95238 | 19.06190 | 18.89172 |
| Throat Diameter | 19.80000 | 12.86399 | 19.49395 | 12.34742 |
| Expansion Ratio | 1.915620 | 3.842520 | 3.246192 | 6.000074 |
| Altitude at BO | $\mathbf{4 7 7 6 0 . 8 6}$ | $\mathbf{5 0 0 0 4 . 5 5}$ | $\mathbf{4 9 9 9 9 . 9 8}$ | $\mathbf{4 9 9 9 6 . 9 0}$ |
| Velocity at BO | $\mathbf{9 6 0 . 6 7}$ | $\mathbf{9 9 7 . 7 1}$ | $\mathbf{9 6 8 . 2 2}$ | $\mathbf{9 9 9 . 6 3}$ |
| Initial weight | $\mathbf{2 1 6 7 2 . 4 1}$ | $\mathbf{2 6 5 0 5 . 1 4}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 3 3 9 . 0 7}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 1 1 9 . 7 8}$ |
| Total Fitness | $\mathbf{2 3 0 0 . 1 4}$ | $\mathbf{3 3 . 3 4}$ | $\underline{\mathbf{4 2 . 1 4}}$ | $\mathbf{1 8 . 5 9}$ |

In addition, by the end of the alotted run time, nine distinct solutions excluding the best solution were found with a total fitness of less than 30.0 which, remarkably, is better than any solution found by the GAs or RPSO. The degree of diversity found within the solutions is demonstrated by four example SRM grain designs in Figure 5.3. Table 5.3 further demonstrates solution diversity by showing that of the multiple SRM grain designs discovered by ACO, eight had a unique number of star points.

Table 5.3: Sounding Rocket Multiple Solutions

| No. Star Points | Best Solution Fitness | No. Star Points | Best Solution Fitness |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 6 | 29.86 | 12 | 18.59 |
| 8 | 23.16 | 13 | 28.27 |
| 9 | 24.86 | 14 | 28.43 |
| 11 | 29.20 | 15 | 22.88 |



Figure 5.3: Example Alternate Sounding Rocket Solutions

## Chapter 6

Description of 6DOF Missile System

The primary tool used for this study was a missile design program developed by Burkhalter, Jenkins, Hartfield, Anderson, and Sanders, described in their paper "Missile Systems Design Optimization Using Genetic Algorithms" [47]. The missile design codes developed are capable of creating and flying preliminary level engineering models of missiles powered by a single-stage solid propellant motor. The codes have been validated as an effective preliminary design tool and have been proven to be a reliable tool for aerospace design applications, having been successfully utilized in many previous optimization studies [8, 9, 43].

Before a viable 6-DOF trajectory can be simulated by the missile program for a given design, several processes must first occur.

1) The main program receives input from files which contain values for constants that are necessary for proper code operation. A break-down of these constants is shown in table 6.2. 2) The propulsion system is modeled using grain geometries specified by the input to develop the thrust profile for the motor.
2) Mass properties are calculated and used to determine the center of gravity and moments of inertia for all components included in the system.
3) Aerodynamic properties for the missile are calculated using the non-linear, fast predictive code AERODSN [48].
4) The resulting propulsion, mass, and aerodynamic characteristics are then integrated with the equations of motion to determine the complete 6 DOF flight profile for the missile.


Figure 6.1: Single Stage Solid Missile System

More complicated than the SRM curve matching and sounding rocket systems, the 6DOF missile system presents opportunities for more difficult optimization problems that are important in testing the abilities of the ACO algorithm. The complete set of design parameters that can be varied by an optimizer is shown in Figure 6.1. The entire set creates opportunities for 35 -variable optimization problems. Three such problems, each of increasing difficulty, were attempted and are described in the following sections.

Table 6.1: List of Single Stage Solid Missile Design Variables

| Missile Geometry | Propellant Properties | Autopilot Controls |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nose radius ratio $=$ rnose/rbody | Fuel type | Autopilot On Delay Time |
| Nose length ratio $=$ lnose/dbody | Propellant outer radius ratio | Initial launch angle (deg) |
| Fractional nozzle length ratio $=\mathrm{f} /$ ro | Propellant inner radius ratio | Pitch multiplier gain |
| Nozzle throat diameter/dbody | Number of star points | Yaw Multiplier gain |
| Total length of stage1/dbody | Fillet radius ratio $-\mathrm{f} / \mathrm{rp}$ | Initial elevator angle (deg) |
| Diameter of stage 1 (dbody) | Epsilon - star width | Gainp2 - gain in pitch angle def |
| Wing exposed semi-span = b2w/dbody | Star point angle | B2var = b2vane/rexit |
| Wing root chord crw/dbody |  | Time step to actuate controls |
| Wing taper ratio $=$ ctw/crw |  | Gainy2 - gain in yaw angle dif |
| Leading edge sweep angle wing (deg) |  | Deltx for Z corrections |
| xLEw/lbody | Deltx for Y corrections |  |
| Tail exposed semi-span $=$ b2t/dbody |  |  |
| Tail root chorse $=$ Crt/dbody |  |  |
| Tail taper ratio $=$ ctt/crw |  |  |
| Leading edge sweep angle tail $($ deg $)$ |  |  |
| xTEt/Lbody |  |  |
| Nozzle Exit Dia/dbody |  |  |

Table 6.2: Classification of Initial Missile Design Code Constants

| Component Section | No. of Design Variables |
| :---: | :---: |
| Constants | 22 |
| Material Densities | 6 |
| Program Lengths, Limits, and Constants | 31 |
| Constants and Set Numbers | 25 |
| Launch Data Initiation | 16 |
| Target Data | 6 |
| Optimizer Goals (outdata variables) | 20 |
| Auxiliary Variables | 21 |
| List of Optimizer Variables Passed to Objective Function | 35 |
| Total Set of Missile Variables | 40 |
| Guidance and Plotting Variables | 29 |
| Component Densities | 30 |
| Masses | 30 |
| Center of Gravity | 30 |
| Moments of Inertia | 60 |
| Component Lengths | 30 |
| Components' Axial Starting Point | 30 |
| Required and computed data for Aero | 30 |
| Other Dimensions | 16 |
| Internal Solid Rocket Grain Variables | 14 |
| Nozzle and Throat Variables | 23 |
| Additional Computed Stage Variables | 8 |

## Chapter 7

## Single Stage Solid Missile System Optimizer Comparisons

In addition to the sounding rocket problem, the study by Badyrka also compared the same three algorithms in their ability to design a single-stage solid rocket system to hit a target located at a specified range. The fitness for each design was defined according to equation 7.1.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Fitness }=\frac{a b s(\text { Range }- \text { DesiredRange })}{10} \tag{7.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

As these tests have only a simple singular objective, it should be expected that the design solution space contains an extremely wide variety of missile designs capable of meeting this objective. Although simple, this set of testing was an important stepping stone for more complicated probems involving the 35 -variable, single stage solid missile system.

### 7.1 Match Range - 250,000 ft

The goal of the first test was to design a missile capable of hitting a position located a distance of $250,000 \mathrm{ft}$ from the launch point. It should be noted that a miss distance of roughly one foot is practically considered a hit; therefore the significantly greater precision is for academic purposes only. For this problem, each optimizer was allowed 100,000 calls to the objective function.

Again, ACO was able to outperform both RPSO and the GAs, achieving a fitness of at least $2.21 \mathrm{E}-12$ before being rounded to zero due to the precision tolerance of the FORTRAN program. The best results obtained by each algorithm are listed in Table 7.1.


Figure 7.1: Convergence History - Match 250,000 ft

Table 7.1: Results for Range Matching Problem - 250,000 ft

| Optimizer | Best Missile Fitness |
| :---: | :---: |
| RPSO | 0.142455 |
| Binary GA | $7.41949 \mathrm{E}-05$ |
| Real GA | $2.24332 \mathrm{E}-08$ |
| ACO | $2.21 \mathrm{E}-12$ |

As with the sounding rocket problem, the algorithm was also able to find multiple nearoptimal solutions. Three of these solutions are shown in Figure 7.2. Each missile design shown has a fitness of less than $2.21 \mathrm{E}-12$ and was obtained during the course of the main run.

### 7.2 Match Range - 750,000 ft

The second optimization design test was identical to the first, only this time the target range was set as $750,000 \mathrm{ft}$ from the launch point. This test was important as matching this extended range involves searching a different region of the solution space and served to add validation to the results obtained from the shorter-ranged test.

Similar results were found for the best $750,000 \mathrm{ft}$ missile solution as recorded in Table 7.2. Solution diversity is again illustrated with depictions of three unique missile designs in Figure 7.4.

(a) Missile Design 1

(b) Missile Design 2

(c) Missile Design 3

Figure 7.2: Example Alternate Sounding Rocket Solutions - 250,000 ft


Figure 7.3: Convergence History - Match 750,000 ft

Table 7.2: Results for Range Matching Problem - 750,000 ft

| Optimizer | Best Missile Fitness |
| :---: | :---: |
| RPSO | 0.43482 |
| Binary GA | $5.76720 \mathrm{E}-05$ |
| Real GA | $2.48252 \mathrm{E}-06$ |
| ACO | $2.21 \mathrm{E}-12$ |



Figure 7.4: Example Alternate Sounding Rocket Solutions - 750,000 ft

### 7.3 Match a Single Trajectory

The second part of the single-stage testing significantly increases the difficulty of the optimization by increasing the number of performance objectives from one to four. The first problem attempted was to design a missile to match a single trajectory. The fitness of a given missile design is calculated based on how well it matches four different flight objectives: (1) Time of flight (2) Time until burnout (3) Apogee match and (4) Range of flight. Each objective is weighted and the final fitness is given by equation 7.2 .

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Fitness }=\frac{\text { RangeError }}{10}+\frac{\text { ApogeeError }}{10}+\frac{\text { TOFError }}{1}+\frac{\text { TBOError }}{1} \tag{7.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

With the exception of some tampering with the population size and restart cycles, the tuning parameters for the GA were not varied for the trajectory matching problems, as the default settings have been shown to be successful with approximately identical settings in the past for similar problems.

It should be noted, that since the modified ACO algorithm was designed to work in rapid, fast-converging cycles, an extra effort was made in an attempt to avoid an unfair comparison with the binary GA. In addition to the default setting of 200 population members, an extra GA program was coded whereby the population size was reduced so that the GA also worked in a series of fast converging cycles. Both methods were run for each trajectory case, and the results from the best of the two methods were then chosen to be used for all trajectorymatching comparisons with ACO in this study.

Again, the modified ACO algorithm was able to find a better solution than the binary GA, reaching a better solution than was found for the entire GA run within 4,000 function calls as can be seen in Figure 7.5. The difference in the final fitness values, however, was not as large as was found in the previous problems. It is difficult to tell whether this could be because the missile fitness has neared a lower limit or because the advantage of ACO over the GA is not as significant for this problem.


Figure 7.5: Single Trajectory Convergence History

The trend for ACO to find multiple, high-quality solutions for a problem continued as a total of nine different solutions were found with fitness values below 10.00 during a single run of the ACO algorithm as shown in Table 7.4.

### 7.4 Match Three Trajectories

The most difficult optimization problem attempted involved designing a single missile to match three separate trajectories. This creates a much more complex solution space with an increased ability to confuse an optimizer. The trajectories used had differing flight ranges

Table 7.3: Single Trajectory Results

| Design Parameter | Best Solution - Binary GA | Best Solution -ACO |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| rnose/rbody | $0.380379974842 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.398375660181 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| lnose/dbody | $0.158920001984 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.170792245865 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| fuel type | $0.433333349228 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.452283191681 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| rpvar | $0.564000010490 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.536266922951 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| rivar | $0.838933363557 \mathrm{E}-01$ | $0.889812931418 \mathrm{E}-01$ |
| number of star points | $0.733333349228 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.732177782059 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| fvar | $0.626666620374 \mathrm{E}-01$ | $0.684898123145 \mathrm{E}-01$ |
| epsilon | $0.899996697903 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.904991567135 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| star point angle | $0.100000000000 \mathrm{E}+02$ | $0.100751829147 \mathrm{E}+02$ |
| fractional nozzle length | $0.620000004768 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.722629070282 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| dia throat/ dia body | $0.292666673660 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.272233247757 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| fineness ratio | $0.565681743622 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.584986734390 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| diameter of stage 1 | $0.114043736458 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.105696105957 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| wing semispan/dbody | $0.50000023749 \mathrm{E}-03$ | $0.550335331354 \mathrm{E}-03$ |
| wing root chord/dbody | $0.600000028498 \mathrm{E}-03$ | $0.560724933166 \mathrm{E}-03$ |
| taper ratio | $0.850000023842 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.868137657642 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| wing LE sweep angle | $0.400999984741 \mathrm{E}+02$ | $0.400922050476 \mathrm{E}+02$ |
| xLEw/lbody | $0.500000000000 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.443633228540 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| tail semispan/dbody | $0.117277395725 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.109947204590 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| tail root chord/dbody | $0.112769865990 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.113723444939 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| tail taper ratio | $0.634329974651 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.556621313095 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| LE sweep angle | $0.185806465149 \mathrm{E}+02$ | $0.110512800217 \mathrm{E}+02$ |
| xTEt/lbody | $0.990000009537 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.990520238876 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| auto pilot delay time | $0.139583384991 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.131948125362 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| initial launch angle | $0.100000001490 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.744342575073 \mathrm{E}+02$ |
| pitch multiplier gain | $0.600000000000 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.459953069687 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| yaw multiplier gain | $0.440000009537 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.394029784203 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| nozzle exit dia/dbody | $0.734000027180 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.721238851547 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| initial pitch cmd angle | $-0.800000011921 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $-0.118590712547 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| angle dif gain in pitch | $0.466666650772 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.467941570282 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| warhead mass | $0.228666674805 \mathrm{E}+04$ | $0.229966894531 \mathrm{E}+04$ |
| time step to actuate nozzle | $0.100000000000 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.971418082714 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| angle dif gain in yaw | $0.442857116461 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.488472193480 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| initial launch direction | $-0.100000001490 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.895773162842 \mathrm{E}+02$ |
| initial pitch cmd angle | $0.100000004750 \mathrm{E}-02$ | $0.129012929392 \mathrm{E}-03$ |
| missile fitness |  | 10.74 |



Figure 7.6: 3-D Optimized Missile Design - 164 km trajectory

(a) GA Best Solution

(b) ACO Best Solution

Figure 7.7: Optimized Missiles - 164km Trajectory


Figure 7.8: Optimized Trajectory Match - 164 km

Table 7.4: Multiple Alternate Solutions - 164 km Trajectory

| Solution No. | Missile Fitness | Solution No. | Missile Fitness |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 9.32 | 6 | 8.55 |
| 2 | 9.49 | 7 | 9.45 |
| 3 | 9.73 | 8 | 8.95 |
| 4 | 9.83 | 9 | 9.91 |
| 5 | 9.95 | 10 | 9.27 |

of $117 \mathrm{~km}, 164 \mathrm{~km}$, and 221 km , respectively. Final missile fitness is calculated by simply calculating the fitness with respect to each trajectory using equation 7.2 as for the single trajectory problem and then adding them together.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { TotalFitness }=\text { fitness } 117+\text { fitness } 164+\text { fitness } 221 \tag{7.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The ACO algorithm performed extremely well compared to the Binary GA for the threetrajectory problem. Not only was the best ACO solution significantly better than the best GA solution, but five different solutions were found with a fitness of less than 100.00, less than half of what the binary GA was able to achieve using the same number of function calls.

Table 7.5: Three Trajectory Results

| Design Parameter | Best Solution - Binary GA | Best Solution - ACO |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| rnose/rbody | $0.400400012732 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.404787927866 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| lnose/dbody | $0.182120001316 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.187957513332 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| fuel type | $0.433333349228 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.427150249481 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| rpvar | $0.527333319187 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.552933871746 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| rivar | $0.862400010228 \mathrm{E}-01$ | $0.842992588878 \mathrm{E}-01$ |
| number of star points | $0.600000000000 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.729311084747 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| fvar | $0.706666633487 \mathrm{E}-01$ | $0.634117126465 \mathrm{E}-01$ |
| epsilon | $0.879998028278 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.967089176178 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| star point angle | $0.101000003815 \mathrm{E}+02$ | $0.100787239075 \mathrm{E}+02$ |
| fractional nozzle length | $0.759999990463 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.753344714642 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| dia throat/ dia body | $0.285333335400 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.280373215675 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| fineness ratio | $0.603144073486 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.596240997314 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| diameter of stage 1 | $0.112533271313 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.120006358624 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| wing semispan/dbody | $0.600000028498 \mathrm{E}-03$ | $0.508977915160 \mathrm{E}-03$ |
| wing root chord/dbody | $0.600000028498 \mathrm{E}-03$ | $0.551881676074 \mathrm{E}-03$ |
| taper ratio | $0.949999988079 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.912369012833 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| wing LE sweep angle | $0.400000000000 \mathrm{E}+02$ | $0.400045547485 \mathrm{E}+02$ |
| xLEw/lbody | $0.400000005960 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.463914483786 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| tail semispan/dbody | $0.112554800510 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.111973583698 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| tail root chord/dbody | $0.111333334446 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.114281380177 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| tail taper ratio | $0.603575289249 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.529041469097 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| LE sweep angle | $0.139354839325 \mathrm{E}+02$ | $0.345442543030 \mathrm{E}+02$ |
| xTEt/lbody | $0.990999996662 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.990521907806 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| auto pilot delay time | $0.139583384991 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.140671408176 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| initial launch angle | $0.333333313465 \mathrm{E}-01$ | $0.751682662964 \mathrm{E}+02$ |
| pitch multiplier gain | $0.493333339691 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.514768838882 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| yaw multiplier gain | $0.253333330154 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.324552249908 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| nozzle exit dia/dbody | $0.840666711330 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.973625361919 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| initial pitch cmd angle | -0.173333334923E+01 | -0.768583893776E+00 |
| angle dif gain in pitch | $0.359999990463 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.349795055389 \mathrm{E}+01$ |
| warhead mass | $0.214000000000 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.212670410156 \mathrm{E}+04$ |
| time step to actuate nozzle | $0.100000000000 \mathrm{E}+01$ | $0.953021109104 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| angle dif gain in yaw | $0.442857116461 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.706241011620 \mathrm{E}+00$ |
| initial launch direction | $0.100000001490 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.897416076660 \mathrm{E}+02$ |
| initial pitch cmd angle | $0.000000000000 \mathrm{E}+00$ | $0.492134888191 \mathrm{E}-03$ |
| missile fitness | 229.84 | 46.31 |

Table 7.6: Multiple Alternate Solutions - Three Trajectory Problem

| Solution No. | Missile Fitness | Solution No. | Missile Fitness |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 61.35 | 3 | 83.04 |
| 2 | 65.37 | 4 | 93.22 |



Figure 7.9: Three-Trajectory Convergence History


Figure 7.10: Optimized Missiles - Three Trajectories


Figure 7.11: 3-D Optimized Missile Design - Three Trajectories


Figure 7.12: Optimized Three-Trajectory Matches

## Chapter 8

## Local Search Testing

The trajectory matching optimization routine was run once again, but this time the local search capability was activated for the ACO algorithm. In addition to the 164 km trajectory, matching of the individual 117 km and 221 km trajectories was also attempted.

Each time the algorithm would reach a local convergence point before re-cycling, both the pattern search method and the simplex method were called to search around the best solution found in the area of convergence. Each local search procedure was allowed 310 function calls, chosen to be approximately one-third of the average number of calls needed by each ACO mini-cycle to reach near-convergence. To more thoroughly test each method, three different initial step sizes were used, corresponding to $0.5,1.0$, and 2.0 percent of the range of each design variable. A total of 32 separate local search runs were performed around a variety of solutions, the results of which are shown in Table 8.1.

Both local search methods were nearly always able to improve on a given solution. For the individual trajectories, the Simplex Method was consistently able to obtain slightly better solutions than the pattern search. For the three-trajectory case, however, the pattern

Table 8.1: Local Search Improvements - 164km Trajectory

| Local Search Method | Initial Step Size (\% range) | Average Improvement (\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pattern Search | 0.5 | 8.4541 |
|  | 1.0 | 7.1093 |
| Simplex Method | 2.0 | 9.7011 |
|  | $\mathbf{0 . 5}$ | $\mathbf{1 2 . 3 3 1 6}$ |
|  | 1.0 | 11.1657 |
|  | 2.0 | 11.5382 |

Table 8.2: Local Search Improvements - 117km Trajectory

| Local Search Method | Initial Step Size (\% range) | Average Improvement (\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pattern Search | 0.5 | 9.7267 |
|  | 1.0 | 6.4317 |
| Simplex Method | 2.0 | 7.3947 |
|  | 0.5 | 12.1168 |
|  | $\mathbf{1 . 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 3 . 0 3 2 0}$ |
|  | 2.0 | 11.0361 |

Table 8.3: Local Search Improvements - 221km Trajectory

| Local Search Method | Initial Step Size (\% range) | Average Improvement (\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pattern Search | 0.5 | 17.6123 |
|  | 1.0 | 16.5521 |
| Simplex Method | 2.0 | 15.3737 |
|  | 0.5 | 19.4925 |
|  | 1.0 | 19.9186 |
|  | $\mathbf{2 . 0}$ | $\mathbf{2 0 . 8 8 2 8}$ |

Table 8.4: Local Search Improvements - Three Trajectories

| Local Search Method | Initial Step Size (\% range) | Average Improvement (\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pattern Search | 0.5 | 4.2824 |
|  | 1.0 | 5.5168 |
| Simplex Method | $\mathbf{2 . 0}$ | $\mathbf{6 . 9 0 7 9}$ |
|  | 0.5 | 4.6837 |
|  | 1.0 | 4.8881 |
|  | 2.0 | 4.6092 |

search seemed to work more effectively. This might be because the three-trajectory problem is more complex and was able to confuse the simplex.

The single trajectory results were very interesting as a previous study had concluded that the pattern search was the significantly better optimization method when integrated within a hybrid, GA/PSO optimizer. The local search application in the two instances was very different, however, as it was used as the main driver of the optimization within the hybrid scheme whereas in this study, its application was strictly focused on a small region of space to improve upon already near-optimal solutions.

For this particular trajectory match, the Simplex Method was able to obtain slightly better solutions than the pattern search for every step size used. This result was very interesting as a previous study had concluded that the pattern search was the better optimization method when integrated within a hybrid, GA/PSO optimizer. The local search application in the two instances was very different, however, as it was used as the main driver of the optimization within the hybrid scheme whereas in this study, its application was strictly focused on a small region of space to improve upon already near-optimal solutions.

## Chapter 9

## Summary and Recommendations

The design optimization results generated by the modifed ACO algorithm demonstrate its ability to be competitive, if not more effective, than many established methods. For each problem where a comparison was attempted, the ACO algorithm converged more quickly and found a better solution than competing optimization algorithms. Additionally, it was found to be capable of locating muliple optimal solutions within the design space for the sounding rocket and missile trajectory problems. However, more extensive testing of the algorithm needs to be performed and the results compared to those obtained from a more complete set of modern, high-performance optimization schemes.

There could be many reasons as to why the ACO algorithm performed better than RPSO and the GAs for this particular set of problems. First, the algorithm was developed and tuned in order to achieve high performance on the SRM curve-matching problems, and although problems attempted later (e.g. 6DOF trajectory) were vastly more complex than the original problem, there may have been some advantages gained by designing the algorithm to perform well on problems involving the SRM code. Additionally, it is the author's opinion that GAs (in particular binary coded GAs) do not compare well with more modern optimization methods when used as the sole optimizer for a problem. They seem to be very good at avoiding stagnation, but are simply not aggressive enough to locate quality optima in a reasonable number of function calls. However, they do seem to work well as a component of hybrid optimization algorithms that integrate the stability of GAs with the increased aggressiveness of other optimization routines.

Preliminary results involving local search integration within the ACO algorithm show a strong indication that they are effective in improving solutions found by the main ACO
driver. Results indicate that the Nelder-Mead Simplex Method and the Pattern Search procedure each have advantages over the other depending on how they are used and on what type of problem is being attempted. For the majority of problems attempted in this study it seems that the simplex method is more efficient when used as a purely local procedure.

Additional future work that could be performed includes :
A) Fine-tuning of the ACO algorithm parameters for each of the problems attempted in this study to determine how solutions could be improved.
B) Application of the algorithm to even more complex design problems such as liquid propellant and multiple stage missile system optimization.
C) Expansion of the missile design limits for the trajectory matching problems as the limits used for this study are quite narrow. This would further increase the optimization difficulty while allowing a greater variety of missile designs to be found to match a particular trajectory.
D) Further testing of the local search methods. Additional work on improving the local serach performance remains to be attempted. It would be interesting to perform more extensive testing of Simplex, Pattern Search, and other methods in order to have a better idea of their comparative capabilities.

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Appendices

## Appendix A

Table 1: Variable Ranges Used for SRM Curve Matching Problems

| Design Variable | Minimum Value | Maximum Value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Rbod (in) | 15.0 | 35.0 |
| Rpvar | $0.45 * \operatorname{Rbod}$ | $0.90 * \mathrm{Rbod}$ |
| Rivar | $0.05 * \mathrm{Rpvar}$ | $0.20 * \mathrm{Rpvar}$ |
| NSP | 5 | 13 |
| Fvar | $0.02 * \mathrm{Rbod}$ | $0.08 * \mathrm{Rbod}$ |
| epsilon | 0.10 | 0.95 |
| GL | $3.0 * \mathrm{Rbod}$ | $10.0 * \mathrm{Rbod}$ |
| Ratio | 0.05 | 0.30 |
| ftype | 1 | 8 |

Table 2: Algorithm Parameters Used for SRM Curve Matching Problems

| Algorithm Parameter | Value |
| :---: | :---: |
| Number of ants | 2 |
| Size of Solution Archive | 35 |
| $q$ | 0.50 |
| $q_{\text {mod }}$ | 0.60 |
| $\zeta$ | 0.50 |

Appendix B

## Sounding Rocket Optimizer Input File

| 0 | ; maximize objective function $=1, ~ m i n i m i z e ~ o b j e c t i v e ~ f u n c t i o n ~$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |$=0$

## Appendix C

Sounding Rocket Constants and Goals Input File


Appendix D

## Single-Stage Rocket Input File for Range Matching Problems




Appendix E

Design Constraints for Trajectory Matching Problems

| 'rnos/rbod' |
| :---: |
| , kf nos/dbod ${ }^{\text {, }}$ |
| 'rpvar__4' |
| 'rivar__5' |
| 'nsp__6' |
| 'fvar___7' |
| 'eps_-8 8 ' |
| 'ptang__9' |
| 'fn1 _10' |
| 'dth/Db_11' |
| 'Lb/Db_12' |
| 'dbody_13' |
| 'b2w/DB_14' |
| 'crw/DB_15' |
| 'trw-16' |
| 'wleswe_17' |
| 'xLEw__18' |
| 'b2t/DB_19' |
| 'crt/DB_20' |
| trt__21' |
| 't7eswp_22' |
| 'xTEt__23' |
| 'Apd7y__24' |
| 'thet0-25' |
| 'PMG1___26' |
| 'YMG1___27' |
| 'xcet-28' |
| 'dele0__29' |
| 'PMG2-30' |
| warmas_31' |
| dtchek_32' |
| YMG2 _ 3 33' |
| Psio -34' |
| delr0_-35' |


| 0.44200 | 0.36400 | 0.0097 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1.91400 | 1.56600 | 0.0435 |
| 5.00000 | 3.00000 | 1.0000 |
| 0.60800 | 0.49800 | 0.0138 |
| 0.09680 | 0.07920 | 0.0022 |
| 8.00000 | 6.00000 | 1.0000 |
| 0.08000 | 0.06000 | 0.0025 |
| 0.99999 | 0.85000 | 0.0200 |
| 10.10000 | 10.0000 | 0.1000 |
| 0.77000 | 0.62000 | 0.0188 |
| 0.30000 | 0.24500 | 0.0069 |
| 6.181290 | 5.05742 | 0.1405 |
| 1.24617 | 1.01960 | 0.0284 |
| 0.00060 | 0.00050 | 0.0001 |
| 0.00060 | 0.00050 | 0.0001 |
| 0.95000 | 0.85000 | 0.1000 |
| 40.1000 | 40.0000 | 0.1000 |
| 0.50000 | 0.40000 | 0.1000 |
| 1.29871 | 1.06258 | 0.0296 |
| 1.18516 | 0.96968 | 0.0270 |
| 0.63433 | 0.51900 | 0.0144 |
| 48.0000 | 0.00000 | 3.0000 |
| 0.99100 | 0.99000 | 0.0010 |
| 1.55646 | 1.255286 | 0.0377 |
| 89.00000 | 70.00000 | 1.0000 |
| 6.00000 | 2.000000 | 0.5000 |
| 6.00000 | 2.000000 | 0.5000 |
| .99000 | .67000 | 0.0400 |
| 0.0000 | -2.000 | 0.2500 |
| 6.00000 | 2.000000 | 0.5000 |
| 2300.00 | 2100.000 | 25.000 |
| 1.00000 | 0.90000 | 0.1000 |
| .900000 | .1000000 | 0.1440 |
| 90.0 | 89.0 | 1.0 |
| 00.001 | 00.000 | .001 |

.false. ; xmax_xmin_resolution_niche .false. ;xmax_xmin_resolution_niche .false. ;xmax_xmin_resolution_niche .false. ;xmax_xmin_resolution_niche
.false. ;xmax_xmin_resolution_niche
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.false. ; xmax_xmin_resolution_niche
.false. ;xmax_xmin_resolution_niche
.false. ;xmax_xmin_resolution_niche
.false. ;xmax_xmin_resolution_niche
.false. ; xmax_xmin_resolution_niche
.false. ;xmax_xmin_resolution_niche
.false. ; xmax_xmin_resolution_niche
.false. ;xmax_xmin_resolution_niche

Appendix F

## Modified ACO Algorithm Source Code

Questions and requests for full programs can be sent to: ZJK0002@auburn.edu Simple Matlab Program to find the Minimum Value of a Function of Two Variables:

```
%ACO_Mod
%Zachary Kiyak
%14 May 2013
% This program uses the ACO-Mod algorithm to find the minimum value
% of the six-humped camelback function over the range x[-5,5] & y [-5,5]
clc;
clear all
close all
runtype = 2; % runtype - 1 combines q parameter weighting with
    % qmod elitism // runtype - 2 turns off q weighting
Ncycles = 5;
sigma = 0.5; % initial standard deviation used for resetting solution archive
%Set Parameters
```

```
k = 20; % size of solution archive
nv = 2; % number of variables
    ni = 500; %number of iterations/mini-cycle
m}=2;% number of new ants/cycl
q = 0.5; % weighting parameter
eta = 0.7; % pheromone distribution parameter
qmod = 0.4; % elitism parameter
%Store algorithm parameters in vector
paramset(1) = k;
paramset(2) = nv;
paramset(3) = m;
paramset(4) = q;
paramset(5) = eta;
% Set variable limits
L(1) = - 5;
L(2) = - 5;
U(1) = -L (1);
U(2) = -L (2);
% Create Boundary Vector
for i = 1:nv
    B(i, 1) = L(i );
```

```
    B(i,2)=U(i);
end
% Generate Initial Solutions Randomly
[T,X] = Generate(B,k,nv);
% Sort Solutions and Corresponding Coordinates
[T,TI] = sort (T);
for i = 1:k
    for j = 1:nv
        Xsort(i, j) = X(TI(i),j );
    end
end
X = Xsort;
% Calculate weights
w}=\boldsymbol{zeros}([1 k k])
    if (runtype = 1)
    w(1) = 0;
    for i = 2:k
```

```
rank = i;
wden = q*k*sqrt( }2*\mathbf{pim})
wnum = exp(-((rank -1)^ 2) /(2*q^ 2*k^2));
w(i) = wnum/wden;
end
wsum = sum(w);
end
% Calculate Probabilities
P}=\boldsymbol{zeros}([1 k k])
if (runtype = 1)
P(1) = qmod;
    for i = 2:k
        P(i)}=(\textrm{w}(\textrm{i})/\mathrm{ wsum )}*(1-\textrm{qmod})
    end
end
if (runtype = 2)
    P(1) = qmod;
```

```
    for i = 2:k
        P}(\textrm{i})=(1-\textrm{qmod})*(1/(\textrm{k}-1))
        end
end
```

for $\mathrm{ii}=1: \mathrm{ni}$
$[\mathrm{T} \mathrm{X}]=$ AntCycleMod (T, X, P, paramset , B) ;
end
[best, bi] $=\min (\mathrm{T})$;
for $\mathrm{j} j=1:$ Ncycles
\% Generate Rebel Ant Solution Archive
[TReb, XReb] $=$ Generate (B, $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{nv})$;
\% Sort Solutions and Corresponding Coordinates
$[$ TReb, TI $]=\operatorname{sort}($ TReb $) ;$
for $\mathrm{i}=1: \mathrm{k}$
for $\mathrm{j}=1: \mathrm{nv}$
$\operatorname{Xsort}(\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{j})=\operatorname{XReb}(\mathrm{TI}(\mathrm{i}), \mathrm{j})$;

```
    end
end
XReb = Xsort;
% Run Optimizer for Rebel Ant Colony
for ii = 1:ni
[TReb XReb] = AntCycleMod(TReb,XReb,P,paramset ,B);
end
[bestreb,bireb] = min(TReb);
% Compare Best Solution with that Found by Main Colony
% If Better, Replace
if (bestreb < best)
        best = bestreb;
        X = XReb;
        bi= bireb;
end
% Permute New Solution Archive Around Best Coordinates
for i = 1:k
    if(i ~}= bi
```

```
    for j = 1:nv
        X(i, j) = X(j, bi ) + normrnd(X(j , bi ),sigma )*(B(j, 2) - B (j, 1));
    end
    end
    T(i) = camelback(X(i, 1),X(i , 2 ));
end
```



```
for i = 1:k
    for j = 1:nv
        Xsort(i, j) = X(TI(i),j );
    end
end
X = Xsort;
% Run Optimizer on Re-distributed Solution Archive
```

for $\mathrm{ii}=1: \mathrm{ni}$
$[\mathrm{TX}]=$ AntCycleMod (T, X, P, paramset , B) ;
end
[best, bi] $=\min (\mathrm{T})$;
sigma $=$ sigma $-(0.4 /$ Ncycles $) ;$
end

```
bestx = X(bi,1);
besty = X(bi ,2);
P = IProbs;
% Calculate Probabilities
k = Params(1);
    nv = Params(2);
m}= Params(3)
    q}= Params(4)
    eta = Params(5);
    Coords = ICoords;
    Archive = IArchive;
```

true $=-1.0316284534898774$; \%known minimum value





function [Archive, Coords] = AntCycleMod(IArchive, ICoords, IProbs, Params, Lims)

```
for i = 1:nv
    L(i) = Lims(i, 1);
    U(i) = Lims(i , 2);
end
%Set Up Roulette Wheel
Roul=}\operatorname{zeros}([\begin{array}{ll}{1}&{\textrm{k}}\end{array}])
Roul(1) = P(1);
for i = 2:k
    Roul(i) = Roul(i-1) + P(i);
end
for n = 1:m
for j = 1:nv
%///Select Gaussian///
    roll = rand(1);
    i = 1;
    choice = 0;
    while(choice =0)
        if (roll < Roul(i))
            choice = i;
        end
            i = i + 1;
```

end
\%///Sample Gaussian///
\% Calculate Sigma
for $\mathrm{mm}=1: \mathrm{k}$ sigvec $(\mathrm{mm})=\operatorname{abs}(\operatorname{Coords}($ choice, j$)-\operatorname{Coords}(\mathrm{mm}, \mathrm{j})) ;$ end

```
sigma = eta*((sum(sigvec))/(k-1));
```

```
% Take Sample
```

Xsam(j, n) $=$ normrnd (Coords(choice, j$)$, sigma) ;
\% Enforce Limits
if $(\operatorname{Xsam}(\mathrm{j}, \mathrm{n})<\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{j}))$
$\operatorname{Xsam}(\mathrm{j}, \mathrm{n})=\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{j}) ;$
end
if $\quad(X \operatorname{sam}(\mathrm{j}, \mathrm{n})>\mathrm{U}(\mathrm{j}))$
Xsam(j, n) $=U(j) ;$
end
end
\% Construct New Solutions

```
Tsam(n) = camelback(Xsam(1,n),Xsam(2,n));
```

```
end
% Replace worst solutions
for i = 1:m
    Archive(k+1-i)=Tsam(i );
    for j = 1:nv
        Coords(k+1-i,j)= Xsam(j, i );
    end
end
[Archive,TI] = sort(Archive);
for i = 1:k
    for j = 1:nv
        Xsort(i, j) = Coords(TI(i),j);
    end
end
```

Coords $=$ Xsort;
end

```
function [Values, Coords] = Generate(Bounds,Number,Dimensions)
L = Bounds (:, 1);
U = Bounds (:, 2);
% Generate Initial Solutions Randomly
Coords = zeros([Number Dimensions ]);
for i = 1:Number
    for j = 1:Dimensions
        Coords(i, j) = L(j ) +(U(j)-L(j ) )*rand (1);
    end
end
% Evaluate Initial Solutions
Values = zeros([[1 Number]);
for i = 1:Number
    Values(i) = camelback(Coords(i,1), Coords(i, 2));
end
```

