

Employing TLBO and SCE for optimal prediction of the compressive strength of concrete

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Abstract. The early prediction of Compressive Strength of Concrete (CSC) is a significant task in the civil engineering construction projects. This study, therefore, is dedicated to introducing two novel hybrids of neural computing, namely Shuffled Complex Evolution (SCE) and Teaching-Learning-Based Optimization (TLBO) for predicting the CSC. The algorithms are applied to a Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP) network to create the SCE-MLP and TLBO-MLP ensembles. The results revealed that, first, intelligent models can properly handle analyzing and generalizing the non-linear relationship between the CSC and its influential parameters. For example, the smallest and largest values of the CSC were 17.19 and 58.53 MPa, and the outputs of the MLP, SCE-MLP, and TLBO-MLP range in [17.61, 54.36], [17.69, 55.55] and [18.07, 53.83], respectively. Second, applying the SCE and TLBO optimizers resulted in increasing the correlation of the MLP products from 93.58 to 97.32 and 97.22%, respectively. The prediction error was also reduced by around 34 and 31% which indicates the high efficiency of these algorithms. Moreover, regarding the computation time needed to implement the SCE-MLP and TLBO-MLP models, the SCE is a considerably more time-efficient optimizer. Nevertheless, both suggested models can be promising substitutes for laboratory and destructive CSC evaluative models.

Keywords: civil engineering; concrete compressive strength; artificial neural network; metaheuristic optimizers

1. Introduction

Considering several merits of concrete (e.g., durability, construction availability and low cost), it is used as a versatile material all over the globe (Trung *et al.* 2019). The strength of this material is usually defined by its Compressive Strength (CSC) normally measured for 28-days samples. Early assessment of this parameter is an active area of research as it is of high significance in construction projects. Regarding the disadvantages of experimental models (e.g., being costly and time-consuming), utilizing non-destructive evaluative methods has been recommended by scholars (Shariati *et al.* 2020).

Machine learning tools have been effectively used for analyzing different concrete-related parameters like slump (Qiu *et al.* 2019), CSC (Dutta and Barai 2019) and carbonation depth (Felix *et al.* 2019). Dao *et al.* (2020) conducted a sensitivity analysis of Artificial Neural

Network (ANN) and Gaussian Process Regression (GPR) using a Monte Carlo simulation for predicting the CSC of high-performance concrete. It was concluded that the testing age and the cement content play the most important roles in this task. Feng *et al.* (2020) suggested the use of adaptive boosting algorithm for accurate prediction of the CSC. Sai and Singh (2019) successfully used Support Vector Regression (SVR) for the same objective. Al-Shamiri *et al.* (2019) proposed the effectiveness of extreme learning machine for simulating the CSC of high-strength concrete. The potential of Support Vector Machine (SVM) along with the K-Fold cross-validation technique was examined by Ling *et al.* (2019) for the CSC modeling in marine environments. In another research, due to the high compatibility of the ANN products with experimental results, Asteris and Mokos (2019) introduced it as a promising non-destructive tool for prediction of the CSC. More researches about the applicability of the ANNs can be found in Refs. (Saldarriaga *et al.* 2009, Yi *et al.* 2013, Shahbazi *et al.* 2014, Shen *et al.* 2014, Onat and Gul 2018).

Application of complex mathematical solutions in solving engineering problems have been always a main concern of scholars in different field (Guan *et al.* 2019, Jiang *et al.* 2019, Xu *et al.* 2019a, 2020, Yang *et al.* 2019, 2020, Dong *et al.* 2020, Lei *et al.* 2020, Liu *et al.* 2020b) and more particularly in the field of engineering (Zhu *et al.*

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2019, Liu *et al.* 2020a, Song *et al.* 2020, Zuo *et al.* 2020). During the last decade, metaheuristic algorithms and computational intelligence have gained high popularity (Zuo *et al.* 2015, Liu *et al.* 2016, Xu *et al.* 2018, Li *et al.* 2019, Tsai *et al.* 2019, Zhang *et al.* 2019, Lv *et al.* 2020). There have been much examples of optimization in the field engineering (Chao *et al.* 2018, Lu *et al.* 2019a, b, Wu *et al.* 2019, Hu *et al.* 2020, Li *et al.* 2020, Liu *et al.* 2020c, Ni *et al.* 2020). A prominent application for this case is remedying the computational drawbacks of conventional predictors using search techniques (Xu and Chen 2014, Zhao *et al.* 2014, Shen *et al.* 2016, Wang *et al.* 2017, Chen *et al.* 2020). To cover the weakness of conventional computational intelligence-based predictive solutions such as determination of proper network structure, hardware dependence, the difficulty of showing the problem to the network, unexplained behavior of the network, unknown processing duration of the network, a mistake in taking correct local minima, many new extreme machine learning techniques (Wang *et al.* 2014, Hu *et al.* 2015, Chen *et al.* 2016, Xia *et al.* 2017, Wang and Chen 2020), or more particularly hybrid searching optimization algorithms have recently developed. Some of these hybrid techniques such as bacterial foraging optimization, improved ant colony optimization, chaotic moth-flame optimization (Li *et al.* 2018, Xu *et al.* 2019b), grey wolf optimization (Zhao *et al.* 2019), Harris hawks optimization (Zhang *et al.* 2020). Besides, ideas like feature selection (Zhao *et al.* 2015) and adaptive local binary patterns were also largely used by scholars.

Bui *et al.* (2019) examined the efficiency of Whale Optimization Algorithm (WOA) in optimizing the structure of the ANN for approximating the 28-day CSC. Based on the obtained correlation of 0.8976 the suggested ensemble was more accurate in comparison with dragonfly algorithm (0.8209) and ant colony optimization (0.8000). For ground granulated blast furnace slag concrete, particle swarm optimization was used to train an ANN (Han *et al.* 2019). Pham *et al.* (2016) tested firefly algorithm for hybridizing a least-squares SVR in estimating the CSC of high-performance concrete. In a similar study by Cook *et al.* (2019), this algorithm was used to find the optimal values of hyperparameters for a random forest model. Ma *et al.* (2020) used Salp Swarm Algorithm (SSA) for the same subject with ANN. They found it a capable algorithm for analyzing the relationship between the CSC and related factors and water content and coarse aggregate. Likewise, Naseri *et al.* (2019) employed water cycle algorithm and genetic algorithm for modeling the CSC of fly ash concrete in different ages. The results showed the superiority of these techniques over the regression-based approaches (predictions errors of 2.90 and 3.44 vs. 5.47, 9.70 and 5.37). Golareshani *et al.* (2020) found that optimizing the ANN and ANFIS with grey wolf optimizer results in higher accuracy of these predictors. Moreover, they showed the superiority of the ANN-based ensemble.

As the literature denotes, metaheuristic algorithms have shown high robustness in modeling various parameters of concrete (e.g., creep strain (Sadowski *et al.* 2019), slump (Moayedi *et al.* 2019) and punching shear capacity (Vu and

Table 1 Descriptive statistics of the compressive strength and key factors

Factor	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Compressive strength (MPa)	17.1	58.5	36.0	7.8
Cement (kg/m ³)	137.0	374.0	229.9	78.9
Slag (kg/m ³)	0.0	260.0	149.0	85.4
Water (kg/m ³)	160.0	240.0	197.2	20.2
Fly ash (kg/m ³)	0.0	193.0	78.0	60.5
SP (kg/m ³)	4.4	19.0	8.5	2.8
FA (kg/m ³)	640.6	902.0	739.6	63.3
CA (kg/m ³)	708.0	1049.9	884.0	88.4

Hoang 2016), especially the CSC (Prayogo 2018). It is mostly achieved by coupling these optimizers with regular evaluative models like ANN. Therefore, trying newly-developed algorithms is of high importance toward finding the most proper model. This paper investigates the efficiency of two novel metaheuristic schemes of Shuffled Complex Evolution (SCE) and Teaching-Learning-Based Optimization (TLBO) for optimizing the ANN parameters which reflect the relationship between the CSC and effective factors. The results are also compared to a typically-trained ANN for evaluating the effectiveness of the used algorithms.

2. Methodology and established database

Selecting a proper dataset is an important step in machine learning implementations. For this study, the concrete information collected by Yeh (2007) is used to feed the intelligent models. The dataset contains the results of the slump and 28-day compressive strength tests carried out for 103 concrete specimens. The data can be found on <http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/Concrete+Slump+Test>. In the present modeling, seven influential parameters of concrete, namely cement, slag, water, fly ash, Superplasticizer (SP), Fine Aggregate (FA) and Coarse Aggregate (CA) play the role of input variables and the CSC is supposed to be predicted (i.e., target variable). Table 1 gives descriptive statistics belonging to each variable. The distribution of the CSC versus each influential factor is also shown in Fig. 1.

For dividing the data into the training and testing phase, the famous ratio of 80:20 is considered. Based on this proportion, the networks first use 82 samples for inferring the relationship between the CSC and input variables. Next, the remaining 21 samples are used as testing data to evaluate the generalization potential of the models under inexperienced conditions.

2.1 Methodology

Shuffled complex evolution: Suggested by Duan *et al.* (1993), the SCE is a well-known search scheme that

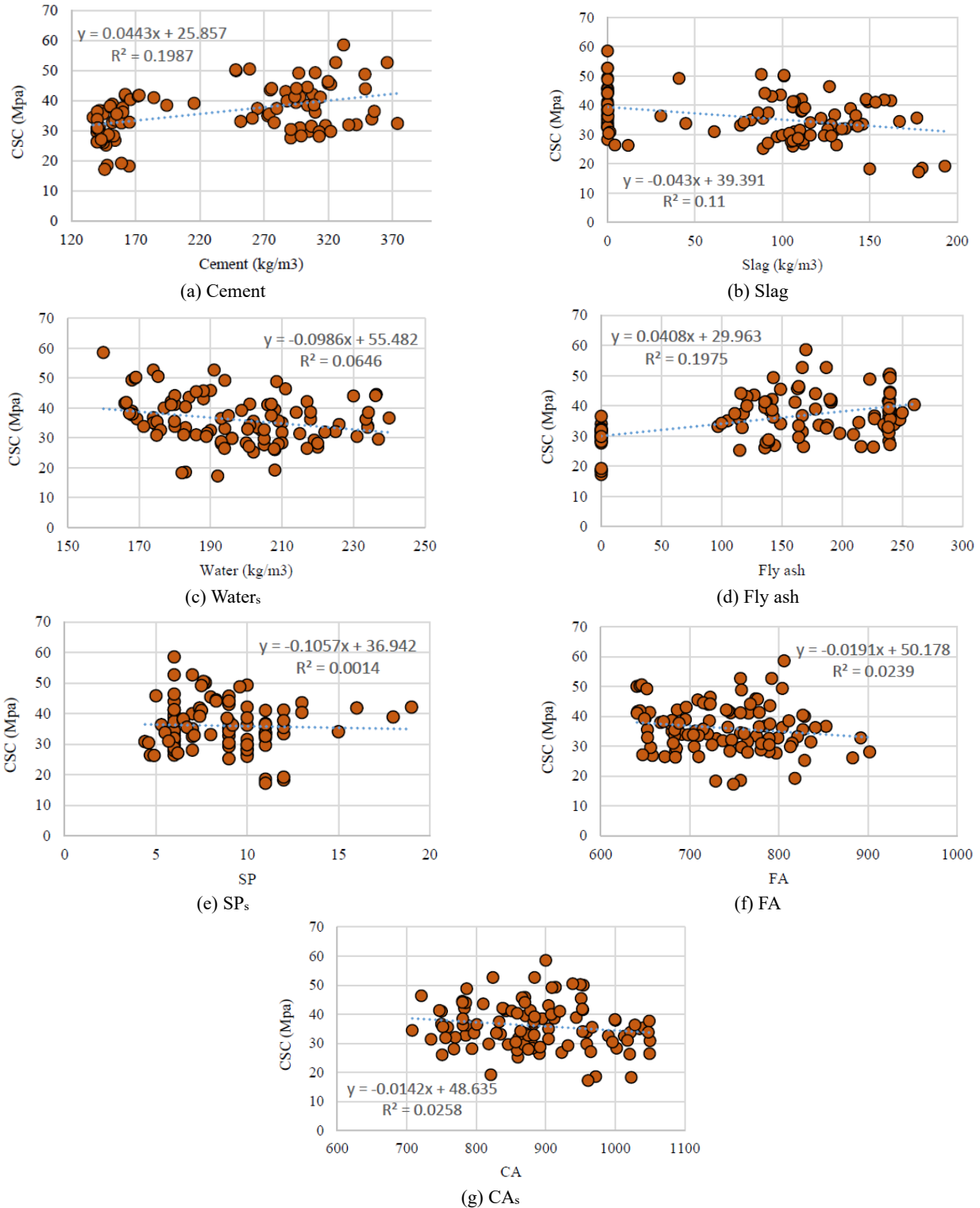


Fig. 1 The graphical description of the CSC influential factors

presents a combination of genetic algorithm, Nelder-Mead simplex technique, complex shuffling and controlled random search (Ira *et al.* 2015). Like other metaheuristic techniques, the SCE serves as population-based methods. The agents move within the problem space to seek a global solution. The population is grouped into units called complex. A so-called strategy “Competitive Complex

Evolution (CCE)” is applied to evolve these units. The evolved ones are then combined for creating larger communities which enables the agents to better share the information found so far.

Comprising seven steps, the mechanism of the algorithm can be expressed as below:

a) Initialization: The sample size is calculated by Eq. (1)

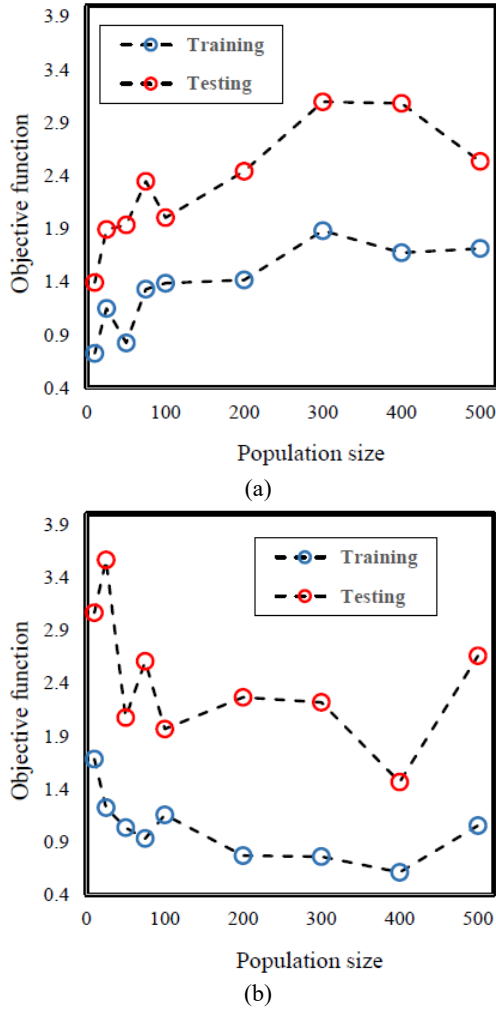


Fig. 2 The sensitivity analysis based on the model complexity of the (a) SCE-MLP; (b) TLBO-MLP

$$s = p \times m \quad (1)$$

where m and p denote the number of points and complexes, respectively. Also, assuming D as the problem dimension, $m \geq D + 1$ and $p \geq 1$.

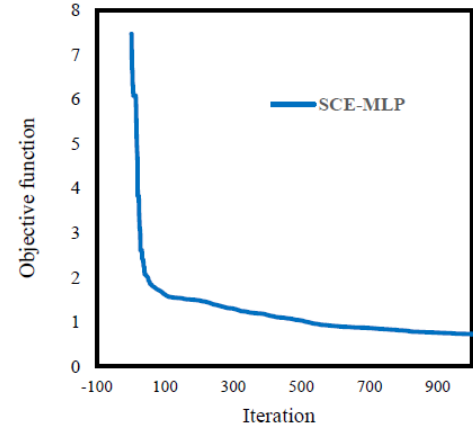
b) Sample generation: With respect to the lower bound and upper bound, a total of z points (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_z) are sampled where each one is assigned a Function Value (FV). In other words, z is considered for the Number of Function Evaluations (NFE).

c) Ranking the points: The points are sorted based on the increasing FVs, and eventually, stored in $Q = \{x_i, F_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, z\}$.

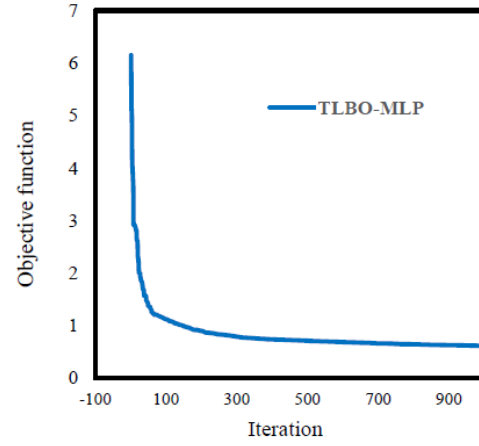
d) Partitioning: The members of this array are then partitioned into n complex units C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n . Each unit holds p points $C_k = \{x_j^k, F_j^k \mid x_j^k = x_{k+n(j-1)}, F_j^k = F_{k+n(j-1)}, j = 1, 2, \dots, p\}$.

d) Evolving: This process is carried out based on the CCE method.

e) Shuffling the complexes: C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n are replaced in Q (i.e., $Q = \{C_k, k = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$). The sorting procedure is also implemented by taking the increasing FVs into the equation.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 3 The convergence curves of the (a) SCE-MLP; (b) TLBO-MLP

f) Checking the convergence: If $NFE_z > Max_NFE_z$ the algorithm is stopped, otherwise it backs to partitioning.

Teaching-learning-based optimization: By mimicking the educational regulations and the interaction between the teachers and students in a class, the TLBO was presented by Rao *et al.* (2011) in 2011. This algorithm has been effectively used for various optimization tasks (Rao 2016). The students' performance is assessed by artificial exams and it is aimed to maximize the harmony in a class. The optimization potential of the algorithm is influenced by the performance of the teacher in educating the students (Toğan 2012).

Two major stages of the teacher stage and learner stage form the mechanism of the algorithm. In the first one, the teacher tries to improve the average learning efficiency of the pupils. In this regard, the k th student at the k th iteration is defined as follows

$$X_k^t = [X_{k,1}^t, X_{k,2}^t, \dots, X_{k,D}^t] \quad (2)$$

where D represents the number of subjects.

The Difference Vector (DV) between the teacher and the average of the population is expressed as follows

$$Diff - mean_j^t = (X_{teacher,j}^t - T_F X_{mean,j}^t) \text{rand}(0, 1) \quad (3)$$

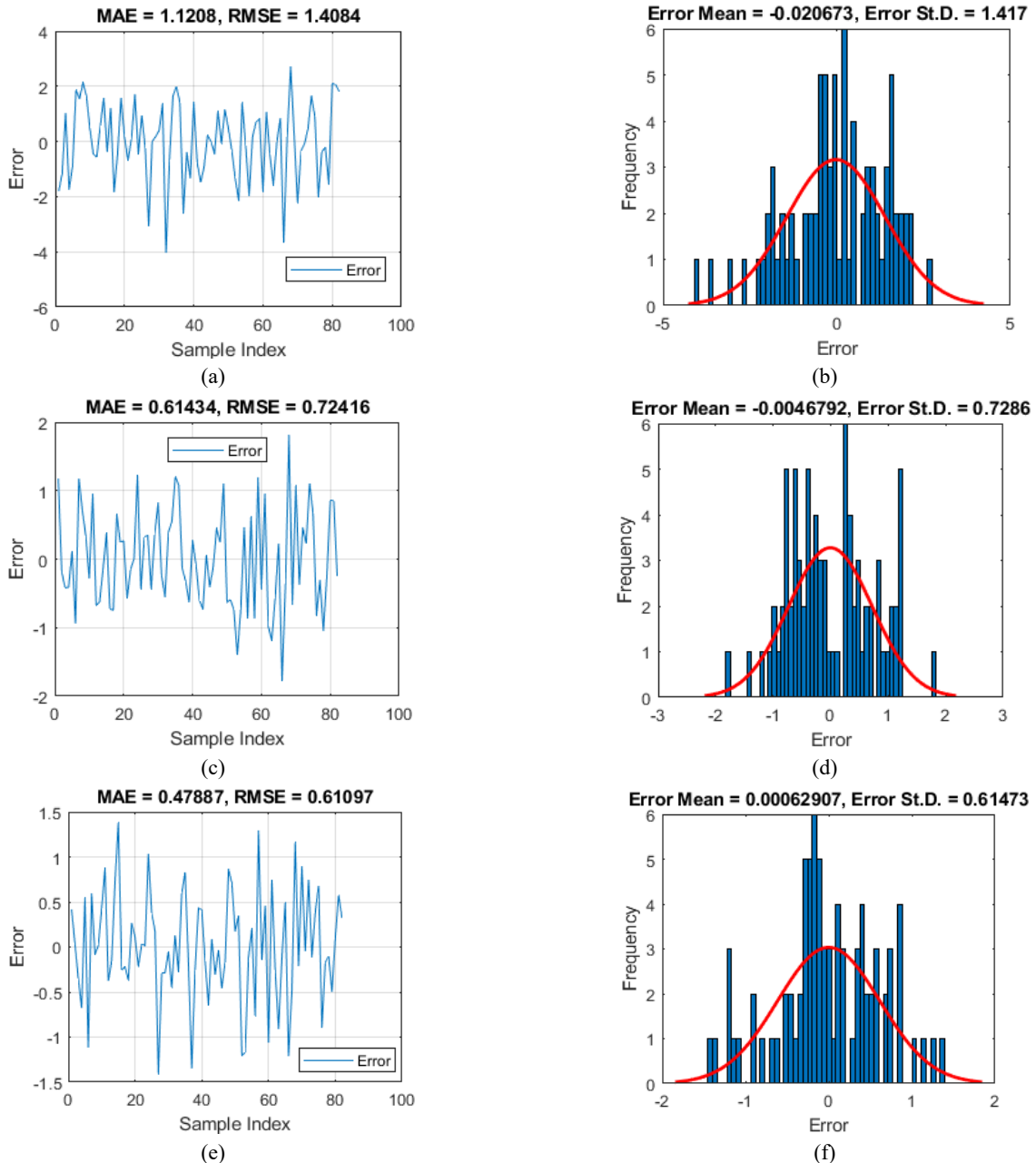


Fig. 4 The results obtained for the training samples by (a), (b) LM-MLP; (c), (d) SCE-MLP; (e), (f) TLBO-MLP

in which ‘rand (0, 1)’ gives a random value from 0 to 1 and T_F is the teaching factor. Also, two terms of $X_{teacher,j}^t$ and $X_{mean,j}^t$ symbolize the j^{th} subject of the teacher and the learners’ average, respectively. Next, Eq. (4) is considered for updating the students based on the obtained DV. It is worth noting that for accepting/refusing a new student, his/her fitness needs to be compared to the old ones.

$$newX_{i,j}^t = X_{i,j}^t + Diff - mean_j^t \quad (4)$$

Like reality, students are highly in touch in order to enhance their performance through mutual learning. The partners, however, are randomly assigned. Notably, modifying this relationship is carried out by taking the DV between two individuals into the equation. Assuming

X_i^t as the partner of X_k^t member, the learner is updated by the following relationship (Ji *et al.* 2017)

$$newX_{i,j}^t = \begin{cases} X_{i,j}^t + (X_{i,j}^t - X_{k,j}^t)rand(0,1) & \text{if } f(X_i^t) < f(X_k^t) \\ X_{i,j}^t + (X_{k,j}^t - X_{i,j}^t)rand(0,1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

3. Results and discussion

This paper investigates the capability of two novel optimizers, namely TLBO and SCE for dealing with the CSC prediction problem. These algorithms are applied to an ANN for proper adjustment of computational weights. To achieve this, it is essential to ensure that the best structure

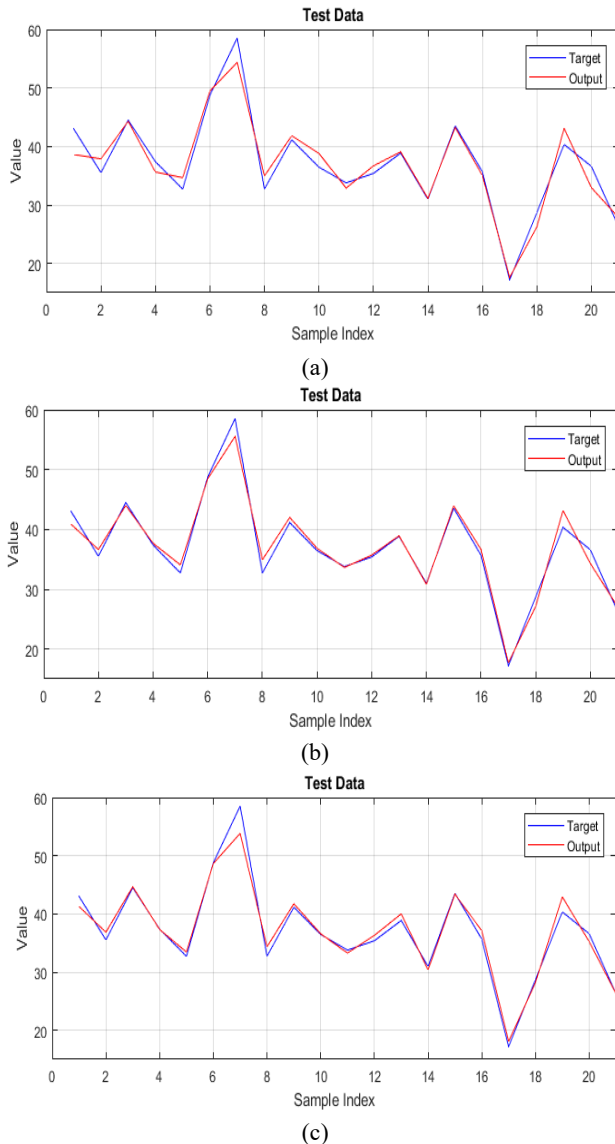


Fig. 5 Comparison between the modeled and expected CSCs for the testing samples of (a) LM-MLP; (b) SCE-MLP; (c) TLBO-MLP

of the ANN is being used. A Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP) neural network (Hornik *et al.* 1989) represents the ANN in this study. Notably, the MLP is normally trained by the Levenberg-Marquardt (LM) technique (Moré 1978). Considering the number of inputs (7 variables) and output (1 variable), the general structure of the MLP is $7 \times x \times 1$, where x is the number of hidden units that is optimized by a trial and error process. It was shown that $x = 6$ yields the most suitable networks.

3.1 Hybridizing the MLP using metaheuristic techniques

The obtained MLP structure is then given to the CSE and TLBO as the problem function. The variables of this equation were the weights and biases to be adjusted by these optimizers. Based on Eq. (6), Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) is defined to be the objective function.

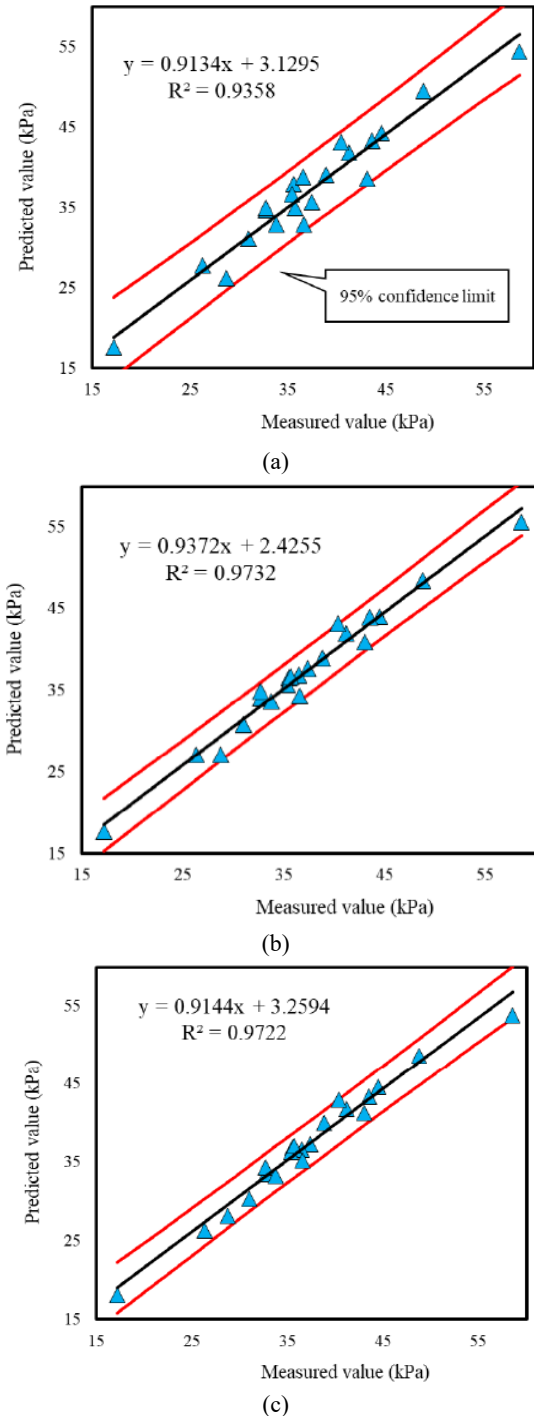


Fig. 6 The correlation of the testing results for the (a) LM-MLP; (b) SCE-MLP; (c) TLBO-MLP

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K [(Z_{i\text{observed}} - Z_{i\text{predicted}})]^2} \quad (6)$$

where K is the number of data, $Z_{i\text{predicted}}$ and $Z_{i\text{observed}}$ denote the modeled and expected CSCs, respectively.

In implementing the population-based algorithms, determining the appropriate value of population size is an important step. After creating the SCE-MLP and TLBO-

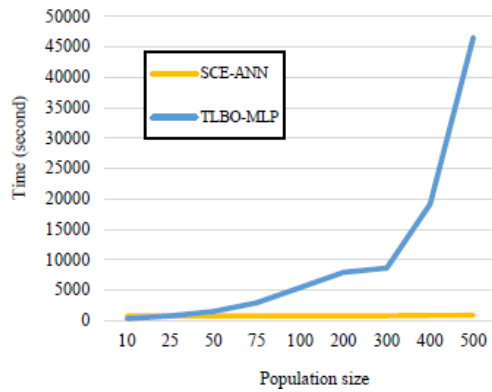


Fig. 7 The computation time required for implementing the proposed ensembles

MLP ensembles, different complexities of these ensembles (nine population sizes of 10, 25, 50, 75, 100, 200, 300, 400 and 500) are tested to achieve the best-optimized models. The results are shown in Figs. 2(a) and (b) for the SCE-MLP and TLBO-MLP, respectively. As is seen, the best-fitted SCE-MLP (RMSE = 0.724158836) is resulted for the population size = 10. Moreover, the number of complexes and offsprings both are selected to be 3. As for the TLBO-MLP, the lowest RMSE is 0.610965805 obtained for the population size = 400. The convergence curves (i.e., the obtained objective functions for 1000 iterations) belonging to these two models are also presented in Fig. 3.

3.2 Accuracy criteria

As was explained in the previous section, the RMSE was used for qualifying the accuracy of different complexities. In addition to that, Mean Absolute Error (MAE) is used as another criterion to measure the performance error of the implemented models. The coefficient of determination (R^2) is also defined for reporting the correlation between the expected and modeled CSCs. Assuming $\bar{Z}_{observed}$ as the average value of the actual CSCs, Eqs. (7) and (8) formulate the MAE and R^2 , respectively.

$$MAE = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K |Z_{i_{observed}} - Z_{i_{predicted}}| \quad (7)$$

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^K (Z_{i_{predicted}} - Z_{i_{observed}})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^K (Z_{i_{observed}} - \bar{Z}_{i_{observed}})^2} \quad (8)$$

3.3 Accuracy assessment

In this section, the performance of the LM-MLP, SCE-MLP, and TLBO-MLP models is assessed for predicting the CSC from the influential factors. The results are presented for two phases specified to train and test the models.

Fig. 4 depicts the performance of the models training in the training phase. In this figure, the error is defined as the

difference between the target and output CSC for each sample. The histogram of the error values is also presented for each model. The RMSE index is obtained 1.4084, 0.7241 and 0.6109, respectively for the LM-MLP, SCE-MLP and TLBO-MLP. The MAEs are also calculated 1.1208, 0.6143 and 0.4788. From evaluating these two indices, it can be derived that the ANNs developed by the SCE and TLBO metaheuristic algorithm can analyze the CSC pattern more accurately than the LM technique. The obtained values of R^2 (i.e., increasing the correlation from 0.9662 to 0.9911 and 0.9936) can support this claim.

As for the testing concrete samples, promising results showed a high level of accuracy for all three tested models. According to the calculated RMSEs (2.1052, 1.3910 and 1.4635), the prediction accuracy of the LM-MLP experienced significant improvements by applying the SCE and TLBO optimizers. The produced CSCs are compared with the expected ones in Fig. 5. As is seen, the hybrid models have performed more successfully in generalizing the CSC pattern.

Moreover, the calculated values of the MAE (1.6716, 1.0576 and 1.0172) indicate that weights and biases suggested by the SCE and TLBO can predict more consistent CSCs for unseen conditions. Also, the correlation values rose from 0.9358 to 0.9732 and 0.9722 by functioning these algorithms. Fig. 6 shows the correlation charts.

3.4 Comparison and neural predictive formula

Apart from the LM-MLP performance, a comparison between the tested hybrid models indicates that the TLBO was more successful in training the ANN (RMSEs of 0.7241 vs. 0.6109). But a discrepancy emerges between the results when the superiority of the SCE-based ensemble is demonstrated in generalizing the CSC pattern. In terms of the RMSE (1.3910 vs. 1.4635) and R^2 (0.9732 vs. 0.9722), the TLBO-MLP presents a slightly more reliable prediction. Regarding the computation time (Fig. 7), there is a considerable distinction between the time required for implementing the hybrid tools. For elite complexities (i.e., the population sizes of 10 and 400 for the SCE-MLP and TLBO, respectively), around 709 and 19123 seconds was needed. It shows that the optimization theory that is based on shuffled complex evolution is more time-effective compared to the that mimics the teaching-learning theory. The faster performance of the SCE versus other metaheuristic algorithms has been observed in earlier studies, too (Zheng *et al.* 2020). Remarkably, the used system operated at 2.5 GHz and 6 Gigs of RAM.

When the results are compared to previous hybrid models, the higher accuracy of the presented models can be clearly deduced. In a study by Ma *et al.* (2020), for example, the combination of ANN and SSA (Mirjalili *et al.* 2017) created a powerful hybrid. The prediction RMSE of this model was 1.6678. In another example, Bui *et al.* (2019) could predict the CSC using a hybrid of WOA (Mirjalili and Lewis 2016) and ANN with the RMSE of 2.6985. Referring to the values of the same index obtained for the SCE-MLP and TLBO-MLP (i.e., 1.3910 and

1.4635), the performance of the proposed models is of greater quality.

Due to the excellent performance of both SCE and TLBO in optimizing the ANN, the neural relationships established by these two algorithms are presented in this section. Eqs. (9) and (10) calculate the CSC for the SCE-MLP and TLBO-MLP predictors. As is seen, utilizing these formulas requires having the value of middle parameters i.e., A, B, \dots, F and U, V, \dots, Z . These parameters are calculated from Eqs. (11) and (12). The name Tansig also represents the activation function of the MLP which is expressed by Eq. (13).

$$CSC_{SCE-MLP} = 0.6469 \times A + 0.3897 \times B - 0.3658 \times C - 0.9004 \times D - 0.9311 \times E - 0.1225 \quad (9)$$

$$CSC_{TLBO-MLP} = -0.3744 \times U + 0.0645 \times V + 0.0302 \times W - 0.9467 \times X + 0.7433 \times Y - 0.1225 \quad (10)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \\ B \\ C \\ D \\ E \\ F \end{bmatrix} = \text{Tansig} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0.6933 & -0.8866 & -0.7543 & -0.7889 & 0.3431 & 0.5678 & 0.4539 \\ 0.7393 & -0.4036 & 0.8574 & -0.1425 & -0.8459 & 0.4430 & -0.8530 \\ -0.7819 & 0.0983 & 0.9583 & 0.8715 & 0.7319 & -0.2259 & -0.4676 \\ 0.7745 & 0.8572 & -0.0274 & 0.5475 & 0.8131 & 0.2913 & -0.8503 \\ 0.2549 & 0.8951 & 0.5782 & 0.8847 & 0.3442 & -0.6331 & -0.7757 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{Cement} \\ \text{Slag} \\ \text{Water} \\ \text{Fly ash} \\ \text{SP} \\ \text{FA} \\ \text{CA} \end{bmatrix} \right) + \begin{bmatrix} -1.7619 \\ -0.8809 \\ 0.0000 \\ 0.8809 \\ 1.7619 \end{bmatrix} \quad (11)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \\ X \\ Y \\ Z \end{bmatrix} = \text{Tansig} \left(\begin{bmatrix} -0.7899 & -0.8862 & 0.3601 & 0.7787 & 0.1056 & -0.9594 & 0.1652 \\ -0.3604 & 0.4613 & 0.6753 & -0.5486 & -0.1743 & -0.7016 & -1.2174 \\ 0.5458 & 0.3349 & 0.9382 & -0.7191 & -0.4787 & -0.7514 & 0.7094 \\ 0.9078 & -0.1867 & -0.8181 & 0.4904 & -0.3265 & 0.7351 & -0.8298 \\ -0.4659 & 0.1711 & -0.9686 & 0.8332 & 0.1263 & -0.8768 & -0.6639 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{Cement} \\ \text{Slag} \\ \text{Water} \\ \text{Fly ash} \\ \text{SP} \\ \text{FA} \\ \text{CA} \end{bmatrix} \right) + \begin{bmatrix} -1.7619 \\ -0.8809 \\ 0.0000 \\ 0.8809 \\ 1.7619 \end{bmatrix} \quad (12)$$

$$\text{Tansig}(x) = \frac{2}{1 + e^{-2x}} - 1 \quad (13)$$

4. Conclusions

This study dealt with two novel optimizations of neural computing, namely shuffled complex evolution and teaching-learning-based optimization used for predicting the concrete compressive strength. The methodologies were applied to real-world data and the results were promising. The complexity of the models was also optimized by conducting a sensitivity analysis. The results first proved that intelligent models, and more particularly, the combination of metaheuristic techniques both metaheuristic algorithms are efficient optimizers for adjusting the ANN parameters. It was derived from increasing the learning accuracy of the ANN from 96.62 to 99.11 and 99.36% by SCE and TLBO, respectively. As for the testing phase, the RMSE experienced 33.93 and 30.48% reduction. Although the TLBO was more successful than SCE in the training phase, the SCE-MLP performed more accurately in the testing phase and also enjoyed far less computation time. Therefore, it can be claimed that both SCE-MLP and TLBO-MLP ensembles are reliable tools for the early prediction of the CSC.

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