

Distribution based artificial fish swarm in continuous global optimization

Ana Maria A.C. Rocha*, M. Fernanda P. Costa†, Edite M.G.P. Fernandes*

* *Algoritmi R&D Centre, University of Minho, Portugal*
E-mail: {arocha;emgpf}@dps.uminho.pt

† *Centre of Mathematics, University of Minho, Portugal*
E-mail: mfc@math.uminho.pt

Abstract

Distribution based artificial fish swarm (DbAFS) is a new heuristic for continuous global optimization. Based on the artificial fish swarm paradigm, the new algorithm generates trial points from the Gaussian distribution, where the mean is the midpoint between the current and the target point and the standard deviation is the difference between those two points. A local search procedure is incorporated into the algorithm aiming to improve the quality of the solutions. The performance of the proposed DbAFS is investigated using a set of small bound constrained optimization problems.

Key words: Global optimization, artificial fish swarm, Gaussian distribution, local search.

1 Introduction

The artificial fish swarm (AFS) algorithm belongs to the class of stochastic population-based methods for solving continuous global optimization problems. The artificial fish is a fictitious entity of a true fish. Its movements are simulations and interpretations of fish behavior [Wang et al., 2006, Jiang et al., 2007, Xiu-xi et al., 2010, Rocha et al., 2011, Rocha and Fernandes, 2011, Neshat et al., 2013]. The environment in which the artificial fish moves, searching for the optimal solution of an optimization problem, is the feasible search space of the problem. In nature, fishes desire to stay close to the swarm, protecting themselves from predators and looking for food, and to avoid collisions within the group. These behaviors inspire mathematical modelers that need to solve efficiently optimization problems.

The main fish swarm behavior are the following:

- *random* behavior - in general, fish swims randomly in water looking for food and other companions;
- *searching* behavior - this is a basic biological behavior since fish tends to the food; when fish discovers a region with more food, by vision or sense, it goes directly and quickly to that region;
- *swarming* behavior - when swimming, fish naturally assembles in groups which is a living habit in order to guarantee the existence of the swarm and avoid dangers;
- *chasing* behavior - when a fish, or a group of fishes, in the swarm discovers food, the others in the neighborhood find the food dangling quickly after it.

The problem to be addressed in this paper is the bound constrained problem:

$$\min_{x \in \Omega} f(x), \quad (1.1)$$

where $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a nonlinear function and $\Omega = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : -\infty < l_i \leq x_i \leq u_i < \infty, i = 1, \dots, n\}$ is the feasible region. The objective function f may be non-smooth and may possess many local minima in the search space Ω , since we do not assume that f is convex. Here, our purpose is to compute a global minimizer, i.e., a point $x^* \in \Omega$ such that $f(x^*) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in \Omega$. Many derivative-free algorithms and heuristics have been proposed to solve problem (1.1), namely those based on swarm intelligence [Engelbrecht, 2005]. Probably the most well-known and widely used in applications are

- the particle swarm optimization (PSO) algorithms [Kennedy and Eberhart, 1995, Ali and Kaelo, 2008, Coelho et al., 2005, Hao and Hu, 2009, Miranda et al., 2007, Pires et al., 2010, Vaz and Vicente, 2007];
- the bee colony [Bernardino et al., 2013, Karaboga and Basturk, 2007, Karaboga and Akay, 2009a), Karaboga and Akay, 2009b), Diwold et al., 2011]; and
- the ant colony algorithms [Dorigo and Stützle, 2004, Matos and Oliveira, 2004, Melo et al., 2010, Monteiro et al., 2013, Socha and Dorigo, 2008, Vilarinho and Simaria, 2006, Xiao and Li, 2011].

Our proposal for globally solving the problem (1.1) is a distribution based AFS, hereafter denoted by DbAFS, that takes the AFS algorithm presented in [Rocha et al., 2011] as a heuristic basis. The idea presented in this DbAFS algorithm is borrowed from the bare bones swarm concept [Kennedy, 2003, Omran et al., 2008]. The novelty in DbAFS algorithm is that each trial point is sampled from a Gaussian distribution, instead of being randomly generated in basis of the corresponding current point and a direction of search. The center of the distribution is given by the midpoint between the current and a target point, featured by the selected fish behavior, and the dispersion is related with the difference between those two points. The goal here is to improve the accuracy and convergence behavior.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the proposed DbAFS algorithm and Section 3 presents and discusses the results of preliminary experiments. Finally, the conclusions of this study and the ideas for future work are presented in Section 4.

2 Distribution based artificial fish swarm

The AFS algorithm is a stochastic method that relies on a swarm intelligence based paradigm to construct fish/point movements over the search space [Jiang et al., 2007, Neshat et al., 2013]. We will use the words ‘fish’ and ‘point’ interchangeably throughout the paper. Each point in the space is represented by $x^j \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (the j th point of a population), m is the number of points in the population, where $m < \infty$, and the component i of a vector x^j is represented by x_i^j .

2.1 The AFS algorithm

We now describe the procedure used to generate trial points in the AFS algorithm [Rocha et al., 2011]. At each iteration, a population of m solutions/points, herein denoted by x^1, x^2, \dots, x^m is used to generate a set of trial points y^1, y^2, \dots, y^m . The population is initialized randomly in the entire search space Ω using the equation: $x_i^j = l_i + U(0, 1)(u_i - l_i)$ for each component $i = 1, \dots, n$ of the point x^j , where the notation $U(0, 1)$ represents a random number in $(0, 1)$.

Each point x^j movement is defined according to the number of points inside its ‘visual scope’. The ‘visual scope’ is defined as the closed neighborhood centered at x^j with a positive radius α . In the herein implemented versions of the AFS algorithm, the radius is dynamically defined as a fraction of the maximum distance between x^j and the other points x^l , $l \neq j$, $\alpha^j = \gamma \max_{l \neq j} \|x^j - x^l\|$, for $\gamma \in (0, 1)$. Three possible situations may occur:

- the ‘visual scope’ is empty;
- the ‘visual scope’ is crowded;
- the ‘visual scope’ is not crowded.

When the ‘visual scope’ is empty, a *random* behavior is performed, in which the trial y^j is randomly generated inside the ‘visual scope’ of x^j .

When the ‘visual scope’ is crowded, with more than 80% of the population inside the ‘visual scope’ of x^j , a target point is randomly selected from the visual, x_{rand} . Then, if $f(x_{\text{rand}}) \leq f(x^j)$, the *searching* behavior is implemented and the trial point y^j is randomly defined along the direction from x^j to x_{rand} . Otherwise, the *random* behavior is performed.

When the ‘visual scope’ is not crowded, and $f(x_{\text{min}}) \leq f(x^j)$, where x_{min} is the best point inside the ‘visual scope’, the *chasing* behavior is performed. This means that y^j is randomly generated along the direction from x^j to the target point x_{min} . However, if $f(x_{\text{min}}) > f(x^j)$ and the central point of the ‘visual scope’, denoted by \bar{x} , satisfies $f(\bar{x}) \leq f(x^j)$, then the *swarming* behavior is implemented instead. This means that the trial point is randomly defined along the direction from x^j to the target point \bar{x} . On the other hand, if $f(\bar{x}) > f(x^j)$, a target x_{rand} is randomly selected from the ‘visual scope’ and if $f(x_{\text{rand}}) \leq f(x^j)$, the *searching* behavior is carried out as previously described; otherwise the *random* behavior is performed.

We note that each point x^j generates a trial point y^j , inside the set Ω , as follows:

$$y_i^j = \max \left\{ l_i, \min \left\{ x_i^j + U(0, 1) d_i^j, u_i \right\} \right\}, \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n \quad (2.1)$$

where d^j is a vector defined by the direction from x^j to one of the above referred target points.

To choose which point between the current x^j and the trial y^j will be a point of the population for the next iteration, the objective function at the two points are compared and if $f(y^j) \leq f(x^j)$ the trial point is passed to the next iteration as a current point. Otherwise, the current point is preserved to the next iteration/population.

2.2 Local search

In general, algorithms for globally solving an optimization problem have two separate phases:

- the global phase performs the exhaustive exploration of the search space using mostly stochastic methods to search for a promising region where a global minimum exists;
- the local phase exploits locally the promising region, using preferentially a deterministic method.

In the described AFS algorithm, a derivative-free deterministic method that exploits the neighborhood of a point for a better approximation using an exploratory move as well as a pattern move, and known as the Hooke and Jeeves (HJ) method [Hooke and Jeeves, 1961], is implemented.

This is a variant of the well-known coordinate search method. It incorporates a pattern move to accelerate the progress of the algorithm, by exploiting information obtained from the search in previous successful iterations. At the initial iteration, the exploratory move carries out a coordinate search centered at the best point of the population, with a step size of δ_{ls} . If a new trial point, y , with a better function value than x^{best} is encountered, the iteration is successful and δ_{ls} is maintained. Otherwise, the iteration is unsuccessful and δ_{ls} is reduced. If the previous iteration was successful, the vector $y - x^{\text{best}}$ defines a promising direction and a pattern move is then implemented, i.e., the exploratory move is carried out centered at the trial point $y + (y - x^{\text{best}})$, rather than at the current point y . Then, if the coordinate search is successful, the returned point is accepted as the new point; otherwise, the pattern move is rejected and the method reduces to a coordinate search centered at y . We refer to [Hooke and Jeeves, 1961] for details.

When the step size falls below δ_{tol} , a small positive tolerance, the search terminates since convergence has been attained [Kolda et al., 2003].

The pseudo-code for the AFS algorithm is presented below in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 (AFS algorithm)

Data: $m \geq 1$, $0 < \gamma < 1$, $0 < \delta_{tol} \ll 1$.

- 1: Randomly generate m points in Ω , evaluate x^j , $j = 1, \dots, m$, and select x^{best} .
 - 2: **While** stopping conditions are not satisfied **do**
 - 3: **For all** x^j , $j = 1, \dots, m$ **do**
 - 4: Generate trial point y^j using (2.1), evaluate y^j , $j = 1, \dots, m$.
 - 5: **If** $f(y^j) \leq f(x^j)$ **then** set $x^j = y^j$.
 - 6: **End for**
 - 7: Select x^{best} .
 - 8: Perform local search on x^{best} .
 - 9: **End while**
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2.3 Distribution based artificial fish swarm

The distribution based artificial fish swarm is evolved from a classical version of the AFS algorithm [Rocha et al., 2011]. A Gaussian sampling strategy is proposed to create the trial points. After selecting the fish behavior to be implemented to each current point of the population, x^j , each component i ($i = 1, \dots, n$) of the corresponding trial point, y_i^j , is randomly selected from a Gaussian distribution $N(\mu_i, \sigma_i)$, where:

- the mean is given by the average of the corresponding components of the current and the target point, $\mu_i = \frac{x_i^j + t_i}{2}$;
- the standard deviation is the absolute difference between the corresponding components of the current and the target point, $\sigma_i = |x_i^j - t_i|$;

and the target point t is x_{rand} if the *searching* behavior is selected, x_{min} if *chasing* is selected, or \bar{x} if *swarming* is selected. Furthermore, to maintain the trial point inside the set Ω , the following equation is used:

$$y_i^j = \max \left\{ l_i, \min \left\{ y_i^j, u_i \right\} \right\}, \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n. \quad (2.2)$$

However, when a point x^j follows a *random* behavior, it will have a 50% chance that the component i of the point changes to the corresponding component of the best point of the population:

$$y_i^j = \begin{cases} x_i^j & \text{if } U(0,1) > 0.5 \\ x_i^{\text{best}} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} . \quad (2.3)$$

We note that the exploration feature of the algorithm is ensured by the standard deviation which converges to zero as the points in the population converge to the optimal solution of the problem.

3 Numerical experiments

For a preliminary practical assessment of the proposed DbAFS algorithm, numerical experiments are carried out involving nine standard benchmark small test problems with known acronyms [Ali et al., 2005]: BR ($n=2$), CB6 ($n=2$), GP ($n=2$), H3 ($n=3$), H6 ($n=6$), SBT ($n=2$), S5, S7 and S10 ($n=4$). The algorithm is coded in C and the results are obtained on a PC with a 2.8 GHz Core Duo Processor P9700 and 6 Gb of memory. Each problem was solved 30 times and a population of $m = 10n$ points is used. After an empirical study, we also set $\gamma = 0.8$ and $\delta_{tol} = 10^{-8}$. The initial δ_{l_s} is set to $10^{-3} \max_i \{u_i - l_i\}$.

The performance of the DbAFS algorithm is compared with the version ‘AFS’ algorithm described in [Rocha et al., 2011], the improved particle swarm optimization (PSO) algorithms - variants ‘PSO-RPB’ and ‘PSO-HS’ - proposed in [Ali and Kaelo, 2008], the differential evolution ‘DE’ (originally presented in [Storn and Price, 1997]), and ‘MADDF’ described in [Fernandes et al., 2012]. A brief description of the notation used in this section follows:

- ‘DbAFS_{HJ}’ is the distribution based AFS algorithm with the HJ local procedure (Section 2.2);
- ‘DbAFS_{rand}’ is the distribution based AFS algorithm with a simple random local search procedure;
- ‘DbAFS’ is the distribution based AFS algorithm without the local search;
- ‘AFS_{HJ}’ corresponds to the version presented in [Rocha et al., 2011], with the HJ local procedure;
- ‘PSO-RPB’ is a version of PSO with randomized *pbest* (best position of a particle) in the cognitive component;
- ‘PSO-HS’ is a variant of the PSO algorithm with a hybrid scheme (using the point generation scheme of DE) for position update;
- ‘DE’ is an improved version of the original differential evolution where the scaling factor is randomly chosen, for each point, and the crossover parameter is randomly chosen, for each iteration;
- ‘MADDF’ is a derivative-free multistart technique based on a filter set methodology for constraint-handling. (Bound constraints are incorporated into a constraint violation function.)

The stopping conditions used to stop the algorithms are [Ali and Kaelo, 2008]:

$$|f(x^{\text{best}}) - f_{\text{opt}}| \leq 0.001 \quad \text{or} \quad nf_{\text{eval}} > 20000, \quad (3.1)$$

where $f(x^{\text{best}})$ is the best solution found so far, f_{opt} is the known optimal solution, and nf_{eval} is the number of function evaluations required to obtain a solution with the specified accuracy. However, if the optimal solution of the problem is unknown, the algorithm may use other termination conditions.

First, we aim to analyze the effect on the performance of the DbAFS algorithm when a local search procedure is included in the algorithm (see Step 8 in Algorithm 1). Figure 1 depicts the average nf_{eval} after the 30 runs, required by DbAFS and DbAFS_{HJ} for each problem. We observe that the HJ local search has improved the efficiency of the algorithm when solving eight out of the nine tested problems. Only for the problem H6, DbAFS_{HJ} required in average more function evaluations than DbAFS to reach the solution with the accuracy specified in (3.1).

With an illustrative purpose, Figure 2 aims to compare the DbAFS_{HJ} algorithm performance for different parameter values. The plot on the left shows the convergence behavior for three values of the factor γ in the definition of the ‘visual scope’, on the problem H6: $\gamma = \{0.1, 0.5, 0.8\}$. The largest value of γ gives the fastest reduction in f when applied to H6. The plot on the right aims to show how population size affects the convergence of the algorithm. The tested values are $m = \{10, 10n, 100\}$ and the experiment was done on the problem H6 with $\gamma = 0.8$. Convergence is rather slow with the largest value of the population size.

Finally, Table 1 summarizes the results obtained in terms of the average number of function evaluations required by the algorithms to reach the optimal solution with the accuracy defined in (3.1). (The reported results of ‘PSO-RPB’, ‘PSO-HS’, ‘DE’ and ‘MADDF’ are adopted directly from [Ali and Kaelo, 2008, Fernandes et al., 2012].) Based on the results we may conclude that DbAFS_{HJ} has a good performance. The computational effort in terms of function evaluations has been reduced when compared with the

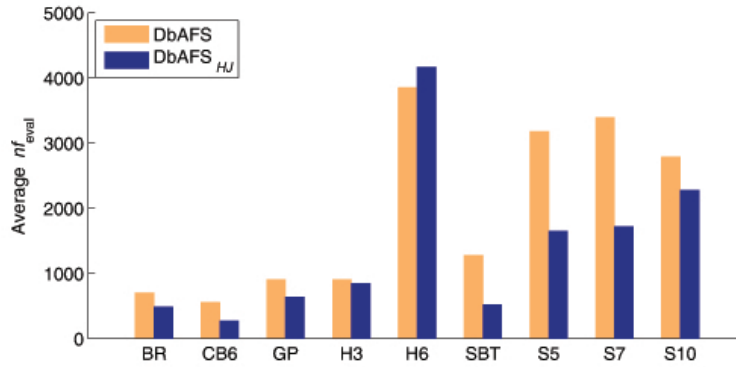
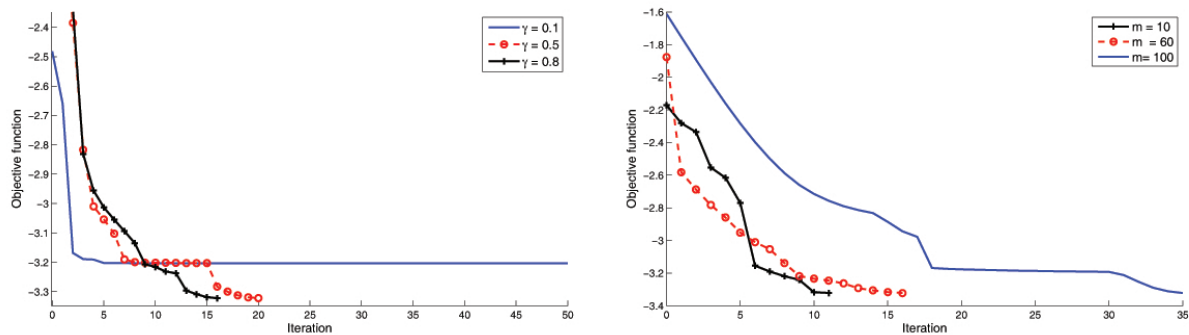
Figure 1: Average n_{feval} for the nine problems: DbAFS vs. DbAFS_{HJ}.Figure 2: Factor γ effect (left) and population size effect (right), on the problem H6.

Table 1: Results of average number of function evaluations.

Prob.	f_{opt}	DbAFS		other methods				
		DbAFS _{HJ}	DbAFS _{rand}	AFS _{HJ}	PSO-RPB	PSO-HS	DE	MADDF
BR	0.39789	487	690	651	2652	2018	1305	506
CB6	-1.0316	274	293	246	2561	2390	1127	660
GP	3.00000	642	710	562	2817	1698	884	1063
H3	-3.86278	851	911	1573	3564	2948	1238	5845
H6	-3.32237	4167	3864	7861	8420	8675	7053	7559
SBT	-186.731	526	1256	659	4206	6216	2430	1867
S5	-10.1532	1650	1611	3773	6641	6030	5824	2929
S7	-10.4029	1723	1818	2761	6860	6078	5346	4428
S10	-10.5364	2282	1889	2721	6747	5602	4822	4489

basic AFS_{HJ}. The HJ local procedure incorporated into the DbAFS algorithm has improved in average the convergence to the optimal solution in six out of the nine tested problems, when compared with a simple random local search. The results also show that the DbAFS_{HJ} performs better than the other methods in comparison (PSO variants, DE and MADDF).

4 Conclusions

This paper has introduced a new AFS algorithm which uses the Gaussian distribution to create the trial points, at every iteration. The main features of AFS are maintained, in particular the concept of ‘visual scope’ of each point and the selection of fish behavior. The proposed DbAFS algorithm performs well in a set of small benchmark problems, in terms of number of function evaluations. The effect of some parameters on the performance of the algorithm has been analyzed. A comparison with other stochastic population-based techniques available in the literature is carried out using small dimensional problems.

The results are promising in terms of reduced computational effort.

There are still some issues related to parameter setting that need further investigation. Extensive numerical experiments with larger dimensional problems remain to be done and will be reported in a future paper.

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