

# The Vantage Point Bees Algorithm

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**Abstract:** In this paper, an implementation of vantage point local search procedure for the Bees Algorithm (BA) in combinatorial domains is presented. In its basic version, the BA employs a local search combined with random search for both continuous and combinatorial domains. In this paper, a more robust local searching strategy namely, vantage point procedure is exploited along with random search to deal with complex combinatorial problems. This paper proposes a hybridization technique which involves the Bee Algorithm (BA) and a local search technique based on Vantage Point Tree (VPTs) construction. Following a description of the Vantage Point Bees Algorithm (VPBA), the paper presents the results obtained for several local search strategies for BA, demonstrating efficiency and robustness of the VPBA.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Many real-world engineering problems require the searching of a system of variables in order to optimize performance of a product and/or process. They involve large number of finite solutions that are encoded in real-valued variables or discrete variables (Blum et al., 2003). A class of optimization problems with discrete values called Combinatorial Optimization Problems which can be defined as NP-hard and many of them can not be solved exactly within polynomially bounded computation times (Pham et al., 2005).

Researchers have implemented different strategies to deal with complex optimization problems. Nature-inspired and population-based metaheuristics often rely on stochastic search methods based on swarm intelligence. They have two major components namely: selection of the fittest solutions and randomness (Yang, 2010).

The Bees Algorithm (BA) is one of the examples of a nature inspired algorithm which mimics the food foraging behaviour of honey bees. In its basic version, the algorithm proposed a well-balanced neighbourhood search combined with random explorative search (Pham et al., 2005). The BA can be used in order to solve optimization problems and it is implemented for both continuous domains and combinatorial domains. But research mainly focused on continuous domains with many successful applications and implementations (Pham, 2009).

There is major difference between these two domains in terms of mathematical definition of distance (Koç, 2010). There are some studies present several different local search strategies for the BA.

In this paper, an efficient and robust local search algorithm with vantage point strategy is proposed to increase the efficiency of the original algorithm for combinatorial domains called the Vantage Point Bees Algorithm (VPBA). Vantage point is a selection procedure of a pivot element or vantage point from metric space elements (combinatorial search space elements) and the VPBA returns pointer to the root of an optimized vantage point tree algorithm with median calculations that satisfied the local optimum value.

The paper gives brief description of bees in nature, the BA and its local search strategy in section 2. Section 3, gives the details of vantage point approach in mathematical terms and presents the VPBA with details and the advantages of using Vantage Point Trees structures is explained. Problem definition and experimental results presented in section 3 and 4. The paper concluded with further discussions in section 5.

## 2 THE BEES ALGORITHM

### 2.1 Bees in Nature and Foraging Process

Honey bees have many different behaviours to organise the complex structure of their colony in nature. There are several examples of these behaviours such as waggle dance. It is basically a language that tells the bees direction and distance of flower patches, along with their the quality ratings (Frisch, 1967).

One of their most complex and efficient behaviour is foraging for food. Scout bees search randomly from one flower patch to another for decent nectar sources when the foraging process begins. After scout bees turns back to hive, they perform the waggle dance on crowded parts of hive (namely, the dance floor) to share the information regarding directions, distances and quality ratings of nectar sources.

### 2.2 The Bees Algorithm

The BA performs a kind of local search combined with random. It has six parameters to set; number of scout bees ( $n$ ), number of selected sites ( $m$ ), number of top-ranking (elite) sites among the  $m$  selected sites ( $e$ ), number of bees recruited for each non-elite site ( $nsp$ ), number of bees recruited for each elite site ( $nep$ ), and neighbourhood size ( $ngh$ ) and the stopping criterion. The pseudo code of the BA is shown in Figure 1, and the main algorithm parameters are given in Table 1.

The algorithm starts with the  $n$  scout bees randomly sample a solution space and, via fitness function scout bees report the quality of visited locations. This is the part of global search procedure where scout bees explore the solution space randomly and increase their chance to escape from local optima.

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- Step 1:** Initialise population with random solutions.  
**Step 2:** Evaluate fitness of the population.  
**Step 3:** While (stopping criterion not met) //Forming new population.  
**Step 4:** Select sites for neighbourhood search.  
**Step 5:** Recruit bees for selected sites (more bees for best  $e$  sites) and evaluate fitnesses.  
**Step 6:** Select the fittest bee from each patch.  
**Step 7:** Assign remaining bees to search randomly and evaluate their fitnesses.  
**Step 8:** End While.
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Figure 1: Pseudo code of the basic bees algorithm (Pham et al., 2005).

The algorithm then selects best bees with fittest results from the solution space. Then it recruits predefined number of bees around the selected sites for local search. Again, fittest bees from each site selected for further exploitation of the site (Pham et al., 2005)

These steps are repeated until a stopping criterion is met. At the end of each iteration, population is updated and new population of the bee colony is formed out representatives from each selected patch and other scout bees assigned to conduct random searches. New population generated from neighbourhood search and global search phase (Pham et al., 2005)

Table 1: Basic Parameters of the BA.

$n$	number of scout bees
$m$	number of selected sites
$e$	number of elite sites out of $m$ sites
$nep$	recruited bees for elite sites
$nsp$	number of bees recruited for the other $(m-e)$ selected sites
$ngh$	neighbourhood size

## 3 THE VANTAGE POINT NEIGHBOURHOOD SEARCH FOR THE BEES ALGORITHM

### 3.1 Vantage Point Trees (VPTs)

In this section, details of the Vantage Point Tree (VPTs) construction is presented. Searching in a metric space includes several forms of vantage point trees. (Yianilos, 1993). As a part of Nearest Neighbourhood Search literature it is a data structure and the algorithm that is used to search in metric space with a distance function that satisfies the triangle inequality (Chávez, 2001).

A metric space  $\mathbb{U}$  is defined as a pair of  $M = (\mathbb{U}, d)$  where the set  $\mathbb{U}$  denotes domain or search space (universe) of valid objects (points, elements) of the metric space sometimes called database, dictionary or simply set of objects or elements. The distance function

$$d: \mathbb{U} \times \mathbb{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad (1)$$

satisfies the following axioms:

- i)  $\forall u_1, u_2 \in \mathbb{U} \ d(u_1, u_2) \geq 0$  positiveness,
- ii)  $\forall u_1, u_2 \in \mathbb{U} \ d(u_1, u_2) = d(u_2, u_1)$  symmetry,
- iii)  $\forall u \in \mathbb{U} \ d(u, u) = 0$  reflexivity,
- iv)  $\forall u_1, u_2, u_3 \in \mathbb{U} \ d(u_1, u_2) \leq d(u_2, u_3) + d(u_3, u_2)$  triangle inequality,

then the pair  $(\mathbb{U}, d)$  is called a metric space. When the elements of the metric space  $(\mathbb{U}, d)$  are n-tuples of real numbers then the pair is called a finite-dimensional vector space, if the elements are identified with k real-valued coordinates  $(u_1, \dots, u_k)$  the vector space is called k-dimensional vector space. There are a number of options for the distance function for instance the most commonly used is the family of  $L_s$  distances, defined as

$$L_s((x_1, \dots, x_k), (y_1, \dots, y_k)) = (\sum_{i=1}^k |x_i - y_i|^s)^{1/s} \quad (2)$$

As an example  $L_1$  is the *block* or *Manhattan* distance,  $L_2$  is the well known *Euclidean* distance and  $L_\infty$  corresponds to taking the limit of the  $L_s$  when  $s$  goes to infinity. The vantage point bees algorithm with neighbourhood search procedure, we used  $k = 2$ , we have a 2-dimensional search space and the distance between two elements with standard Euclidean metric.

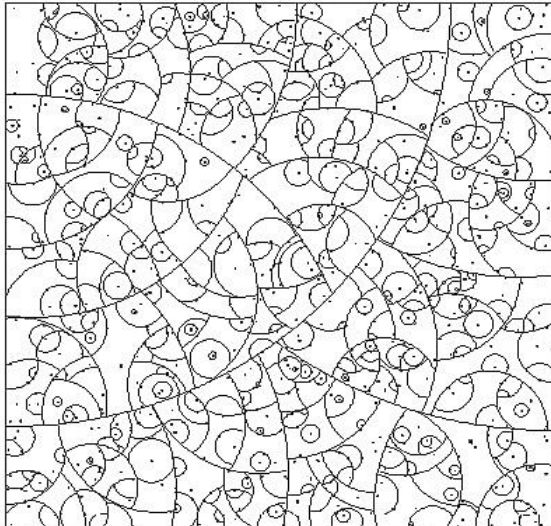


Figure 2: Vantage point decomposition (Yianilos, 1993).

The measure of distance between objects, for example in the VPBA it denotes the measure of distance between two sites. The distance function is Euclidean metric. In this work,  $q$  is selected as a *pivot element* sometimes called center or vantage point that cuts/divide the entire space to form a vantage point tree. Each element of metric space distances to every other element formed a perspective on the entire space.

The similarity-based queries commonly search for all elements (points or sites) within some specified distance from a given query object and require retrieval of the nearest neighbours of the vantage point. For a given vantage point  $q$ , as the selected site and vantage point tree basically

partitions the search space into spherical fields around a chosen vantage point at each level which is similar to first method in Burkhard and Keller (1973) (Uhlmann, 1991).

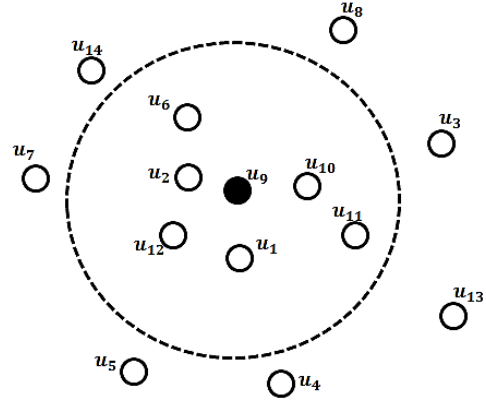


Figure 3: Selecting vantage point  $u_9$  and plot the radius  $M$  used for the root  $u_9$  (Chávez, 2001).

The median is found and the sites are partitioned into two groups. The left side group contains the sites whose distances to the vantage point are less than or equal to median distance, the right side group contains the sites whose distances are larger than the median distance.

Thus the structure of a binary vantage-point tree is  $(q, m, L_q, R_q)$ , where  $q$  is the vantage point,  $m$  is the median distance among the distances of all the sites (from  $q$ ) indexed below that node, and  $L_q$  is the left branch of node,  $R_q$  is the right branch of node (Bozkaya, 1999).

Vantage Point Trees (VPTs) formed by simplest algorithm. Its distinguished vantage point then splits the space into left and right space. This may be defined as building a binary tree recursively, taking any element  $p$  as the root (vantage point) and taking the median of the set of all distances.

$$M = \text{median}\{d(u, p) | u \in \mathbb{U}\} \quad (3)$$

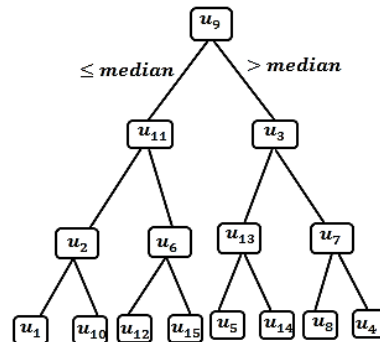


Figure 4: Example of VPTs with root  $u_9$  (Chávez, 2001).

The left space or left subtree contains the elements  $u$ , which satisfied  $d(u, p) \leq M$  and right subtree contains the elements  $u$ , which satisfied  $d(u, p) > M$ . This subtrees with a selected vantage point element is constructed by the algorithm randomly.

The VPTs takes  $O(n)$  space and is built in  $O(n \log n)$  worst case time, since it is balanced. (Chávez, 2001), the query complexity is argued to be  $O(\log n)$  (Yianilos, 1993) for small search radius.

### 3.2 The Vantage Point Bees Algorithm

The Vantage Point Bees Algorithm (VPBA) proposed a hybridization technique which involves the Bees Algorithm and a local search technique based on Vantage Point Trees (VPTs).

Since the similarity criterion is a distance function which satisfies the triangle inequality the vantage point tree splits sites using absolute distance from a single selected sites. The triangle inequality which is used to find the upper and lower bounds of the list of sites that are within our chosen distance and only calculate the distance for those selected sites, so it is reduced the number of distance evaluations. Another advantages of VPTs structure is that is although it is designed for the continuous domains it can be used for discrete domains with virtually no modifications (Chávez, 2001). Hence the BA with VPTs local search procedure can be used both for continuous and combinatorial domains without a different approach of local search strategies when it comes to a mathematical definition of the distance.

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**Step 1:** Recurse the following steps until all sites are chosen.

**Step 2:** Select a vantage point  $p$  (pivot site) randomly from the all sites.

**Step 3:** Add vantage point to the solution list; // i.e hist list

**Step 4:** Calculate median of the set of all distances,  
// return a list hist of the distances from the item to each vantage point.  
 $M = \text{median}\{d(s, p) | s \in S\}$ .

**Step 5:** Splits site list into two list L and R. Take only left site list (L) for optimal solution.  
for (site=1; site  $\leq$  allSites; site++)  
if ( $d(\text{site}, p) \leq \text{median}$ ) add site to L,

**Step 6:** Select new vantage point from the L randomly. Add pivot site to the solution list and delete selected site from all sites.

**Step 7:** Go to step 3, and repeat until convergence or termination conditions are met.

**Step 8:** Return solution site list for evaluating fitness.

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Figure 5: The Pseudo code of vantage point recruitment phase.

The VPBA has the same six parameters, namely;  $n, m, e, nsp, nep, ngh$ . Initially, a number of bees ( $n$ ) is sent randomly to the search space. Each bee is associated with one solution. The solutions representing the fitness of individual bees were then ranked in descending order. The top  $m$  solutions were regarded as selected sites. Out of  $m$  sites, a number of top  $e$  site(s) is considered as elite one(s). Each of non-elite ( $m-e$ ) and elite ( $e$ ) sites respectively receives  $nsp$  and  $nep$  forager bees to exploit the discovered food source.

The Pseudo code of vantage point recruitment phase is given in Figure 5 and the pseudo code of the VPBA is shown in Figure 6.

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Step 1: Initial population with n random solution.
Step 2: Evaluate fitness of the population.
Step 3: While (stopping criterion not met)
Step 4: Select sites (m) for neighbourhood search.
Step 5: Recruit bees for selected sites, evaluate fitnesses,
select the fittest bee from each site.
    for (k=1; k=e; k++)
// More bees for best e sites
    for (Bee=1; Bee= nep; Bee++)
// Vantage Point Tree Recruitment Phase Start
BeesPositionInNgh=GenerateVPTs(Bee(i),allsites)
// Evaluate the fitnesses of recruited Bee(i)
    Evaluate Fitness = Bee(i);
    If (Bee(i) is better then Bee(i-1))
    RepresentativeBee = Bee(i);
// Other selected sites (m-e)
    for (k=e; k=m; k++)
// Less Bees for Other Selected Sites (m-e)
    for (Bee=1; Bee= nsp; Bee++)
BeesPositionInNgh=GenerateVPTs(Bee(i),all sites),
    // Evaluate the fitnesses of recruited Bee(i)
    Evaluate Fitness = Bee(i);
Step 6: If (Bee(i) is better then Bee(i-1))
    RepresentativeBee = Bee(i);
Step 7: Assign remaining bees to search randomly and
evaluate their fitnesses.
// (n-m) assigned to search randomly into whole solution
space.
Step 8: End While

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Figure 6: Pseudo code of VPBA.

## 4 THE TRAVELLING SALESMAN PROBLEM (TSP)

### 4.1 Symmetric Travelling Salesman Problem

The Travelling Salesman Problem (TSP) can be defined as finding a Hamiltonian path with minimum cost. The salesman starts his tour from a

city and returns back to his starting city while determining a minimum distance passing through each city once and only once. It is a easy to describe but difficult to solve problem, which is why it draws so much attention from the scientific community. This problem is a mathematical NP-hard problem (Laporte, 1992) and it is important for many different industries.

In this paper, the metric TSP deployed since many other optimization models prefers to do so as a standard. Let  $V$  is a set of  $m$  cities,  $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ . Metric TSP is satisfy the triangle inequality, see Figure 7, and since the distance  $d(v_i, v_j) = d(v_j, v_i)$  for every  $v_i, v_j \in V$ , the problem is a symmetric TSP and we find the optimal tour after each iteration of VPTs recruitment phase.

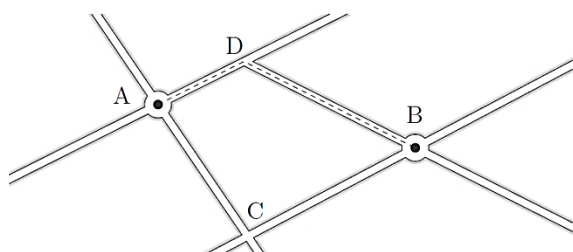


Figure 7: Triangularity in a road network. The distance from A to B is determined by the shortest route  $d(A, B) \leq d(A, X) + d(X, B)$  for every X (Hetland, 2009).

## 4.2 Experimental Results

In this section, the performance of the VPBA is evaluated. First, the efficiency of the algorithm is presented in Table 2. The algorithm with new local search strategy is run with several different data sets. It proves that the VPBA is an efficient and robust algorithm and it can converge local optima.

Table 2: Performance of VPBA for selected benchmark problems in TSPLIB.

Problem [Cities/evaluation]	VPBA Best Result	VPBA Average Iterations	Best Known Results
att48 [48/500]	10628	10823	10628
eil51 [51/500]	426	436	426
eil76 [76/500]	538	565	538
kroa100 [100/500]	22631	23511	21282
Eil101 [101/500]	668	681.96	629
d198 [198/500]	16752	17811	15780

Secondly the performance of the VPBA compared with the BA results with several local search strategies. The VPBA is significantly fast in finding the optimal value of tested benchmark function. The Vantage point local search procedure improves the local search efficiency of the algorithm.

The performance of the VPBA is investigated by applying the algorithm to TSP taken from TSPLIB. As an instance we choose Eil51, that is a 51-city TSP problem and we compare the test result with the performance of the BA with several local search operators including simple (2 point) swap, double (4 point) swap, insert, 3 point swap, 2-Opt and 3-Opt.

The experiments were performed using the VPBA to evolve its own parameter values. It was run 100 times for each parameter setting on eil51 benchmark problem.

The computing platform used to perform the experiments was a 2.50 GHz Intel(R) Core(TM) i5-2450M CPU PC with 4 GB of RAM. The experimental programs were coded in the Java language and compiled with Eclipse IDE. Each problem instance was run across 100 random seeds. The parameters of Vantage Point Bees Algorithm for Eil51 TSP shown in Table 3. Figure 8 summarizes the results of the Bees Algorithm with (2 point) swap, double (4 point) swap, insert, 3 point swap, 2-Opt and 3-Opt operator on Eil51 TSP (Koç, 2010).

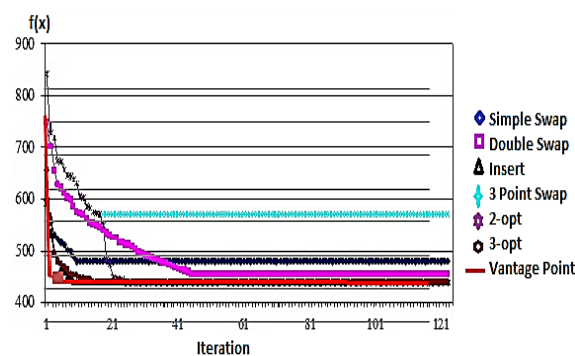


Figure 8: Benchmark results of the VPBA for a 51 city TSP.

Table 3: The parameters of VPBA for experiments.

$n = 80$	number of scout bees
$m = 40$	number of selected sites
$e = 5$	number of elite sites
$nep = 80$	recruited bees for elite sites
$nsp = 40$	number of bees recruited for the other $(m-e)$ selected sites
100	Number of iterations

The Eil51 problem was tested 100 independent runs. From the experimental results the best tour length and average tour length is selected. Standard deviation of experiments is used to measure the performance of benchmarked strategies. For each data set the proposed algorithm can find the best tour in almost each trial and the error rate is only 0.02% away from the optimal. Standard deviation over 100 runs is 1,08358.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

An improved version of the BA is presented with a new local search strategy which is called the Vantage Point Bees Algorithm (VPBA). The performance of the VPBA was significantly fast in finding the optimal optimum of tested benchmark function.

The performance of the VPBA was evaluated using 51-city TSP and the results were compared with The Bees Algorithm with several local search operators including simple (2 point) swap, double (4 point) swap, insert, 3 point swap, 2-Opt and 3-Opt. Results shows that the VPBA outperformed the BA with several other local search strategies.

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