# A Novel Disruption Operator in Particle Swarm Optimization

Guiyan Ding, Hao Liu, Xiqin He

School of Science, University of Science and Technology Liaoning, China, 114051 Email: dinggy2006@sina.com, liuhustl@sina.cn

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**Abstract.** Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) has attracted many researchers attention to solve variant benchmark and real-world optimization problems because of its simplicity, effective performance and fast convergence. However, it suffers from premature convergence because of quickly losing diversity. To enhance its performance, this paper proposes a novel "disruption" strategy, originating from astrophysics, to shift the abilities between exploration and exploitation. The proposed Disruption PSO (DPSO) has been evaluated on a set of nonlinear benchmark functions and compared with other improved PSO. Comparison results confirm high performance of DPSO in solving various nonlinear functions.

#### Introduction

Numerical and combinational optimization problems arise in almost every field of science, engineering and business. Lots of these problems are NP-hard. PSO [1] is widely used to solve these problems because of its simplicity, fast convergence and high performance.

Researchers have proposed various modified versions of PSO to improve its performance, however, there still are premature or lower convergence rate problems. How to accelerate the convergence speed and how to avoid the local optimal solution are two important issues in the PSO research. Generally speaking, those issues could be classified the following three approaches [2]:

(1) Control of algorithm parameters: the inertia weight and the acceleration coefficients[3,4].

(2) Hybrid PSO, which combine PSO with other auxiliary search operators[5,6].

(3) Improvement of the topological structure[7,8].

Gravitational Search Algorithm (GSA) is a novel population algorithm based on the law of gravity firstly proposed by E. Rashedi, H. Nezamabadi-pour and S. Saryazdi [9]. To improve the exploration and exploitation ability, in [10], a disruption operator is introduced in GSA. The authors of this paper propoded an improved version in [11] to enhance its performance.

In this paper, we introduce an improved disruption operator into PSO with time-varying  $V_{\max 1}$ , and applied it on 10 nonlinear benchmark functions to confirm its high performance by comparing with other modified PSO.

## **Standard PSO (SPSO)**

The PSO is inspired by the behavior of bird flying or fish schooling, it is firstly introduced by Kennedy and Eberhart in 1995 [1] as a new heuristic algorithm. In the PSO, a swam consists of a set of particles; and each particle represents a potential solution of an optimization problem. Considering the *i*th particle in the swarm with *N* particles in an *n*-dim space, its position and velocity at iteration *t* are denoted by  $X_i(t) = (x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t))$  and  $V_i(t) = (v_1(t), \dots, v_n(t))$ . Then, the new velocity and position on the *d*-dimension of this particle at iteration *t*+1 will be calculated by using the following

equations: 
$$v_i(t+1) = w \cdot v_i(t) + r_1 \cdot c_1 \cdot (Poest_i(t) - x_i(t)) + r_2 \cdot c_2 \cdot (Gbest^d(t) - x_i^d(t))$$
  
+ $r_2 \cdot c_2 \cdot (Gbest^d(t) - x_i^d(t))$  (1)  
 $x_i^d(t+1) = x_i^d(t) + v_i^d(t+1)$  (2)

Where *w* is the inertial weight to balance the global and local search abilities of particles in the search space;  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are two uniformly distributed random numbers in the interval [0,1];  $Pbest_i(t) = (Pbest_{i,1}(t), \dots, Pbest_{i,n}(t))$ , called the personal best solution (position), represents the best

solution found by the *i*th particle itself until iteration *t*;  $Gbest(t) = (Gbest_1(t), \dots, Gbest_n(t)),$  called the global best solution, represents the global best solution found by all particles until iteration t; acceleration coefficients  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  are nonnegative constants which control the influence of the cognitive and social components on the search process.

## **Disruption PSO (DPSO)**

To improve the exploration and exploitation abilities of SPSO, a novel operator called "Disruption", originating from astrophysics, will be introduced in SPSO. This paper, we will proposed an improved disruption operator.

To simulate the disruption phenomenon: "When a swarm of gravitational bound particles having a total mass, m, approaches too close to a massive object, M, the swarm tends to be torn apart. The same thing can happen to a solid body held together by gravitational forces when it approaches a much more massive object" [12]. it is assumed that Gbest(t) is the star of all particles, and the other solutions can potentially disrupt and scatter in the search space.

### A. Disruption Condition

Whether all particles except *Gbest(t)* satisfy the disruption condition Eq. (3) or not.  $\frac{R_{ij}}{R_{ij}} < C$ (3)

where  $R_{ij}$  and  $R_{ibest}$  are Euclidean distances between particles *i* and *j* and between particle *i* and the star, respectively. It is noted that particle *j* is the neighbor of particle *i*, whose fitness is the just better than partcle *i* in the search space, i.e. after sorting the fitness values, j = i-1.

### **B.** Disruption Operator

use of  $R_{ii}$ , we let То full disruption make operator as follows:

$$D = \begin{cases} R_{ij} \times U\left(-\frac{R_{ij}}{2}, \frac{R_{ij}}{2}\right) & \text{if } R_{ibest} \ge 1\\ R_{ij} + U\left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

In this equation,  $U\left(-\frac{R_{ij}}{2}, \frac{R_{ij}}{2}\right)$  return a uniformly distributed random number in the interval  $\left[-\frac{R_{ij}}{2},\frac{R_{ij}}{2}\right]$ . The disruption operator explores initially and as time passes, it switches to the exploiting condition. We denote the PSO equipped with disruption operator by DPSO.

### C. Disruption Strategy

To enhance performance, we move those particles, which satisfy the disrupton condition, by using the following disruption strategy :

$X_{i}(t) = \frac{t}{T} \cdot X_{i}(t) + \left(1 - \frac{t}{T}\right) \cdot X_{i}(t) \cdot D$	$(\xi)$
Table 1. The Pseudo-code of the DPSO	$\frac{t}{T}$
DPSO Algorithm	$I \text{ Ime-varying } V_{\text{max1}} : V_{\text{max1}} = e^{-T} \cdot V_{\text{max}};$
Initialize an <i>n</i> -dimensional swarm, N	if $V_i$ exceeds the allowable
repeat	range $\left[-V_{\max 1}, V_{\max 1}\right]$
for each particle $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$	<b>then</b> limits $V_i$ to the boundary value;
if $X_i$ exceeds the allowable range	Update the position using Eq. (2);
<b>then</b> limits $X_i$ to the boundary value;	Disrupt particles using Eq. $(3)$ , $(4)$ , $(5)$ ;
Evaluate fitness value;	End
Update $Pbest_i$ ;	Until stopping condition is met;
Update Gbest;	
Update the velocity using Eq. (1);	
	$X_{i}(t) = \frac{t}{T} \cdot X_{i}(t) + \left(1 - \frac{t}{T}\right) \cdot X_{i}(t) \cdot D$ Table 1. The Pseudo-code of the DPSO <b>DPSO Algorithm</b> Initialize an <i>n</i> -dimensional swarm, <i>N</i> <b>repeat</b> <b>for</b> each particle <i>i</i> = 1, 2,, <i>N</i> <b>if</b> $X_{i}$ exceeds the allowable range <b>then</b> limits $X_{i}$ to the boundary value; Evaluate fitness value; Update <i>Pbest<sub>i</sub></i> ; Update <i>Gbest</i> ; Update the velocity using Eq. (1);

(5)

Table 2. The 6 unimodal functions used in experimental studies, where *n* is the dimension of the functions, *f* is the minimum values of the functions, and  $X \subseteq R^n$  is the search space.

<b>Test Function</b>	n	X	f
$F_1(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$	20	[-5.12, 5.12] <sup>n</sup>	0
$F_2(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n i \cdot x_i^2$	20	[-5.12, 5.12] <sup>n</sup>	0
$F_{3}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{i} x_{j} \right)^{2}$	20	[-65.536,65.53	0

<b>Test Function</b>	n	X	f
$F_{4}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n}  x_{i} ^{i+1}$	20	$[-1,1]^n$	0
$F_{5}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left[ 100 \left( x_{i+1} - x_{i}^{2} \right)^{2} + \left( 1 - x_{i} \right)^{2} \right]$	30	$[-30, 30]^n$	0
$F_{6}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} i \cdot x_{i}^{4} + random[0,1]$	30	[-1.28,1.28] <sup>n</sup>	0

Table 3 The 4 multimodal functions used in experimental studies, where *n* is the dimension of the functions, *f* is the minimum values of the functions, and  $X \subseteq R^n$  is the search space.

Test Function	n	X	f
$F_{7}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} -x_{i} \sin\left(-\sqrt{ x_{i} }\right)$	30	$[-500, 500]^n$	-12569.5
$F_{8}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ x_{i}^{2} - 10\cos(2\pi x_{i}) + 10 \right]$	30	[-5.12,5.12] <sup>n</sup>	0
$F_{9}(x) = \frac{1}{4000} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} - \prod_{i=1}^{n} \cos\left(\frac{x_{i}}{\sqrt{i}}\right) + 1$	30	$[-600, 600]^n$	0
$F_{10}(x) = -20 \exp\left(-0.2\sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}x_{i}^{2}}\right)$ $-\exp\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\cos(2\pi x_{i})\right) + 20 + e$	30	[-32,32] <sup>n</sup>	0

### Table 4 The specific parameter settings

Test Func- tion	Number of Genera- tions	Popula- tion size N	$c_1 = c_2$	w
$F_{1} - F_{4}$	1000	10	1.49618	0.72984
$F_5$	10000	50	1.49618	0.72984
$F_6$	3000	50	1.49618	0.72984
$F_{7} - F_{8}$	5000	50	1.49618	0.72984
$F_9 - F_{10}$	1000	50	1.49618	0.72984

#### **Benchmark Functions and Parameter Settings**

To evaluate the performance of DPSO, it is applied to 10 well-known benchmark functions used in [6]. Table 2 and 3 list the 10 test functions. They are high-dimensional problems and divided into two classes: unimodal and multimodal problems. In which functions,  $F_1$  to  $F_6$  in table 1 are unimodal functions, and functions  $F_7$  to  $F_{10}$  in Table 2 are multimodal functions. All the functions used in this paper are minimization problems.

The selection of the parameters  $w, c_1, c_2$  of Eq.(1) is very important. It can greatly influence the performance of PSO algorithms and its variations, We set  $w, c_1$  and  $c_2$  in Table 4 like [6]. However, there are a few differences for different problems. In this paper,  $V_{\text{max}}$  is all related PSO algorithms is set to 2.0 and the stopping criteria is set to the maximal generations T.

In order to compare the different algorithms, the same settings have been used in HPSO [6], the same maximal generations and the same population size were used. In HPSO,  $W_{\text{max}}$  and N are set to 1 and 20 respectively. In DPSO, the threshold  $C = C_0 \left(1 - \frac{t}{T}\right)$  with  $C_0 = 100$ .

#### **Experimental results and Discussion**

To verify the high performance of DPSO, we Compare it with SPSO and the best HPSO in [6].

Table 5 shows the results. All results are averaged over 50 runs, where "*Ave*" indicates the average of best fitness values found in the last generation, and "*Std Dev*" stands for the standard deviation. All data in terms of HPSO directly come from [6].

As Table 5 illustrates, statistically speaking, for the average of best fitness values of 50 runs on 10 test functions, DPSO enhanced the performance obviously than SPSO and HPSO on all test functions. Especially, you can see clearly that DPSO obtains the global optimum on  $F_4$ ,  $F_7$ ,  $F_8$  and  $F_9$ . In terms of "*Std Dev*", we also can see clearly that, DPSO shows high stability than SPSO and HPSO. DPSO can obtain 0 "Std Dev" on  $F_1$  to  $F_4$ ,  $F_8$  and  $F_9$ . Therefore, DPSO is of the best performance and convergence. Both for the unimodal functions ( $F_1$  to  $F_6$ ) and multimodal functions ( $F_7$  to  $F_{10}$ ), DPSO obtains a promising performance.

In terms of convergence charcteristics, Fig. 1 concretely shows the comparison on selected functions between DPSO and SPSO. Roughly speaking, DPSO has extremely enhanced the convergence speed. For the simple unimodal functions, DPSO and SPSO performed equally well at the beginning (about 100 generations), because the particles at that time are of satisfactory diversity so that both methods could improve well. Once the particles in the population are close to the best particle, the convergence of SPSO becomes slower because the diversity of the population will decrease. With the help of Disruption Operator on those particle, so the diversity will be enhanced, therefore, the fast speed could remain through the whole evolution process. For the difficult multimodal functions, Disruption Operator also could move those particles, which satisfy the disruption condition, away from the local minimum. At the same time, the decreasing exponentially maximal velocity, reduces the speed rate to local minimum, and enhances the probability of disruption. To sum up, DPSO could successfully find better solutions while enhancing convergence speed.

Б	SPSO		HPSO[6]		DPSO	
Г	Ave	Std Dev	Ave	Std Dev	Ave	Std Dev
$F_1$	3.61e-8	9.87e-8	1.79e-7	3.51e-7	2.3e-217	0
$F_2$	8.49e-4	0.0027	6.38e-7	1.98e-6	4.7e-215	0
<b>F</b> <sub>3</sub>	2.6521	4.6355	0.398	0.3082	5.8e-190	0
$F_4$	1.59e-28	4.98e-28	2.53e-19	9.38e-19	0	0
$F_5$	2.2156	2.6799	1.419	1.4256	4.86e-5	4.25e-5
$F_6$	0.0060	0.0023	4.37e-3	1.51e-3	7.3566e-6	5.38e-6
$F_7$	-5.72e+3	1.62e+3	-12558.9	6.2373	-1.2569e+4	8.05e-5
$F_8$	52.8322	8.2374	31.8005	9.1618	0	0
<b>F</b> 9	0.3288	0.3599	3.66e-2	3.19e-2	0	0
<b>F</b> <sub>10</sub>	0.1155	0.3653	8.86e-6	8.58e-2	1.59e-15	1.49e-15

TABLE 5. MINIMIZATION RESULTS OF BENCHMARK FUNCTIONS

#### Conclusion

In this paper, we introduce a disruption operator in standard PSO, which is called DPSO, to help SPSO to shift the exploration and exploitation abilities and avoid local optima. We also proposed time-varying  $V_{\max 1}$ , which decreasing exponentially with time *t*, to control the flying velocity. By applying a disruption operator on those particles, which satisfy the disruption condition in each generation, DPSO could find better solutions than SPSO and HPSO.

DPSO is evaluated on 10 well-known nonlinear functions. The results have proved that DPSO could have faster convergence and better global search ability both on unimodal functions and multimodal functions compared to SPSO and HPSO. DPSO also performs better stability than SPSO and HPSO.



Figure 1. Comparison between SPSO and DPSO on  $F_1$  to  $F_9$ .

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