



Article Artificial Bee Colony Programming Descriptor for Multi-Class Texture Classification

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Featured Application: Texture classification aims to identify textures using few samples. Local Binary Pattern (LBP) and GP-descriptor are most used texture classification algorithms. Artificial Bee Colony Programming-Descriptor (ABCP-Descriptor) evaluates samples to extract mathematical models. Comparative results show that proposed ABCP-Descriptor is a successful texture classification method.

Abstract: Texture classification is one of the machine learning methods that attempts to classify textures by evaluating samples. Extracting related features from the samples is necessary to successfully classify textures. It is a very difficult task to extract successful models in the texture classification problem. The Artificial Bee Colony (ABC) algorithm is one of the most popular evolutionary algorithms inspired by the search behavior of honey bees. Artificial Bee Colony Programming (ABCP) is a recently introduced high-level automatic programming method for a Symbolic Regression (SR) problem based on the ABC algorithm. ABCP has applied in several fields to solve different problems up to date. In this paper, the Artificial Bee Colony Programming Descriptor (ABCP-Descriptor) is proposed to classify multi-class textures. The models of the descriptor are obtained with windows sliding on the textures. Each sample in the texture dataset is defined instance. For the classification of each texture, only two random selected instances are used in the training phase. The performance of the descriptor is compared standard Local Binary Pattern (LBP) and Genetic Programming-Descriptor (GP-descriptor) in two commonly used texture datasets. When the results are evaluated, the proposed method is found to be a useful method in image processing and has good performance compared to LBP and GP-descriptor.

Keywords: Texture classification; artificial bee colony programming-descriptor; image descriptor; local binary pattern; genetic programming-descriptor

1. Introduction

The image descriptor provides information about the image by extracting / determining features such as shape or color. Image descriptors have two different types: dense / sparse. Dense descriptors are the approaches that extract features from the image in a pixel-by-pixel. One of the most common dense descriptors is the Local Binary Pattern (LBP). Scale Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT) and Speeded up Robust Features (SURF) are examples of instances in which sparse descriptors evaluate each pixel in the image and extract the models [1].

Automatic programming is the process which the machine generates program code automatically [2]. GP, the most well-known automatic programming method, was developed by Koza [3]. GP is an extension of the Genetic Algorithm (GA) and the basic steps for the GP algorithm are similar to the GA steps. ABCP is the recently proposed automatic programming method based on

Artificial Bee Colony (ABC) algorithm [4]. In this paper, the ABCP image descriptor was first proposed and the success of the extracted models in the texture classification problem was evaluated.

In recent years, automatic programming methods have been used more frequently in image processing problems. Tackett [5] used GP to classify feature vectors derived from images into categories. A domain adaptive learning method based on Multi-Objective Genetic Programming (MOGP) was proposed to automatically generate field-adaptive global property descriptors for image classification in [6]. GP was suggested for feature detection in [7]. The method separated the image into the sub-regions, extracted the Speeded up Robust Features (SURF) points and achieved successful classification results using the Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifier. Iqbal et al. proposed an image classification method using transfer learning and GP [8]. The GP trees are extracted by the fragments of the transfer learning improved classification performance producing more useful initial population. In [9], they introduced new GP method that automatically differentiated the regions in the image and sorted them out by extracting Histograms of Oriented Gradients (HOG). All stages of the method were optimized with wide search space. Al-Sahaf et al. proposed a Two-Tier GP (Two-Tier GP, Two-Tier GP-line, and Two-Tier GP-mix) with three different variations [10]. Instead of using them as input values, they defined special functions that can convert line pixel values into a single numeric value, and in the other tier, classification was made by using the outputs of special functions. Two Tier GP-mix was considered the most successful method because of the flexibility of the window range.

Comparative studies of ABC with Particle Swarm Optimization, GA and other evolutionary computational algorithms have shown that ABC has better performance in terms of achieving local and global optimum results in engineering problems [11]. ABC is an algorithm that is successfully applied in image processing, especially in image clustering [12], image registration [13], pattern recognition [14], image segmentation [15–19], and image classification [20]. ABC algorithm was used in the diagnosis of computed tomography images in [20]. The images are classified with k Nearest Neighbor (k-NN) and SVM classifiers by selecting features with ABC. The ABC-SVM hybrid is highly successful. The ABCP algorithm has been proposed as an ABC-based method that improves functions on symbolic regression [4]. This is the first paper that observes the performance of the ABCP algorithm in texture classification and extracts mathematical models.

Nowadays, due to its simplicity of calculation and its robustness against light changes, LBP-based descriptors have been extensively researched due to its importance in various fields such as image classification problem, pattern recognition and computer vision [21-25]. [21] was proposed a GP-based LBP image descriptor using one instance per class. The method was shown to be more successful against five different methods with / without GP-based. Ojala et al. presented a uniform LBP (uniform LBP) approach in rotation-sensitive, simple and gray-scale variances [22]. Sinha et al. proposed the Wigner-based LBP identifier (WLBP, Wigner-Based Local Binary Patterns), which uses the Wigner distribution together with LBP [23]. In experiments using different classifiers, the method performed better than conventional LBP. [24] was presented a two-part Feature Based Local Binary Pattern (FB-LBP) approach. In the first part, traditional LBP is used, while in the other part the mean and variance of the magnitude vector is used. Liu et al. proposed a novel local texture descriptor, generalizing the well-known LBP approach. Four LBP-like descriptors, two local intensity-based Central Intensity LBP (CI-LBP) and Neighbors Intensity LBP (NI-LBP), and two local difference-based descriptors Radial Difference LBP (RD-LBP) and Angular Difference LBP(AD-LBP), were presented to extract complementary texture information of local spatial patterns [1]. The descriptors had the same structure as the standard LBP and not require training and parameter adjustment. In the study conducted in three different texture, the descriptors showed better performance in gray-scale and rotation-sensitive pattern classification compared to traditional LBP.

A plethora of neural networks have been presented image processing [25–27]. Zhang et al. introduced a two-stage approach to the use of pixel based neural networks trained by back propagation and GA [26]. The network is trained on samples, which cut out of from large pictures. In the first stage, weights of networks are adjusted GA and in the second stage they tested the method on three object

detection problems. The results show that the back-propagation algorithm has stronger generalization ability than GA. In [27] is proposed two phase GP method compared neural network approach [25,26] on three object detection problems. The experimental results show that GP has better performance neural network in terms of object detection accuracy.

The paper is organized as follows: Background, which includes subsections of Local Binary Pattern and GP-descriptor are introduced in Section 2. Section 3 explains in detail general procedure of algorithm, ABCP, suggesting ABCP-descriptor and fitness function. Section 4 provides detailed information on the experimental design, including datasets and parameters. The performance analysis, which includes subsections overall results and discussion of the results from the extracted models are explained in Section 5. The paper is finalized with Conclusions in Section 6.

2. Background

2.1. Local Binary Pattern

Local Binary Pattern [28] is one of the most common methods in image processing. The LBP operator assigns binary values as a result of comparing them to each other by scrolling floating windows and selecting the center pixel value in the middle of these windows as the threshold level. The generated binary number sequence is called the LBP code, which is used to specify different properties in the image, such as edges, corners, light or dark areas, line regions. The size of the window can be changed according to the problems in order to capture different properties. The length of the LBP code is circularly defined by two parameters, such as the number of sample pixels *p* and the radius *r* of the symmetric circular neighborhood as shown in Figure 1. $LBP_{p,r}$ defines the appropriate 2^p different output value from the neighboring pixel set.



Figure 1. LBP parameter samples.

The histogram of the image is obtained by Equation (1) using LBP. (x_c , y_c) is the location of the given pixel and i_p and i_c are the gray level of the center pixel.

$$LBP_{p,r}(x_c, y_c) = \sum_{p=0}^{p-1} s(i_p, i_c) 2^p, \ s(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \ge 0\\ 0, & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$
(1)

The process of extracting the feature vector (histogram) using the sliding windows of the LBP operator is shown in Figure 2. The center pixel of the window is set as the threshold value using sliding windows. The neighboring pixel values greater than the threshold value assigned to 1 and the small values assigned to 0. The obtained values multiplied by the mask and collected.



Figure 2. Example of converting LBP code to decimal.

Ojala et al. [22,29] divide LBP codes into two different classes: uniform and non-uniform. A code with a uniform distribution has maximum of 2 times different bits transitions. Examples of uniform and non-uniform LBP code are shown in Figure 3. Figure 3a has 2 transitions; uniform LBP code; Figure 3b is the non-uniform LBP code because it has 4 transitions.



Figure 3. Uniform and non-uniform LBP code examples; (a) uniform LBP; (b): non-uniform LBP

2.2. GP-Descriptor

The GP-descriptor is a GP-based image descriptor, is proposed by Al-Sahaf et al., inspired by the LBP algorithm [30]. The GP-descriptor targets to automatically generate an image descriptor similar to the LBP. As in the standard LBP, the corresponding division of the resulting value in the decimal is increased by 1. The fitness function consists of two components: The classification accuracy and distance. The classification accuracy measures the ability of accurate classification of training instances using the k-NN classifier when evaluating histograms. Distance function calculates distance of between-classes and distance of within classes.

GP-criptor is adopted tree-based GP to represent the solution. GP-criptor is designed to operate directly on image raw pixel values [30]. The criptor uses a sliding window of a predetermined size and the pixel values that fall within the window are used as inputs in the system. Criptor has a special node called code node that represents the root of the program tree. The node uses the input parameters to generate a binary code at each position of the sliding window.

In this paper, ABCP-descriptor was proposed for the first time, inspired by the proposed GP-descriptor in [30], and performance was monitored with two texture datasets.

3. The Proposed Method

This section provides an overview of the overall operation of the ABCP-based image descriptor, the program structure, the terminal and the function set, and the evaluation of the program.

3.1. General Procedure of Algorithm

Each dataset consists of different texture classes, and each texture class consists of multiple instances of small sizes. The data sets are divided into two instances randomly selected as 50% training and 50% test. From the training set, two random instances are selected from each class. The algorithm feeds ABCP using 2 instances from each class in the training phase. By using the fitness function, ABCP solutions are improved and when the stopping criteria is achieved, the ABCP model with the best fitness value is extracted. For each instance in the test set, feature vectors (histograms) are obtained using the best model. Histograms are classified by simple and rapid method 1-Nearest Neighbor (1-NN). The performance of the model is evaluated by the classification success. Details of the steps of the algorithm are presented in the following sections. The steps of the descriptor are given in Figure 4.



Figure 4. General mechanism of descriptor.

3.2. Artificial Bee Colony Programming

ABCP is a high-level automatic programming method based on ABC algorithm [4,31,32]. The steps of the ABCP are similar to the ABC algorithm. The two fundamental differences between these algorithms are the representation of the solution structure and the information sharing mechanism that enables the development of solutions. In ABC, the positions of the food sources, i.e. solutions, are carried out with fixed size arrays and displays the values found by the algorithm for the predetermined variables as in GA. In the ABCP, the positions of food sources are expressed in tree structure that is composed of different combinations of terminals and functions. The smallest unit of trees is called a node. Nodes are selected from the specially defined terminal set (variables such as x, y, variables and constants) and the function set (arithmetic operators, logical functions, mathematical functions). Trees representing the solutions are created with the combination of the nodes. The representation of a solution tree for ABCP is the shown in Figure 5. The mathematical model of the tree in Figure 5 is as in Equation (2) where x and y are defined independent variable and f(x) is dependent variable. The equation of the tree is obtained by combining the terminals and functions in the nodes from the leaves to the root.

$$f(x) = (8.1x - 3.7) + \left(\frac{\log(4) * x}{\cos(y)}\right)$$
(2)



Figure 5. Representation of solutions in ABCP by tree structure.

The complexity of the solution trees is calculated by Equation (3) in proportion to the number of nodes and the depth of trees.

$$C = \sum_{k=1}^{d} n * k \tag{3}$$

The flow diagram for the ABCP method is given in Figure 6. As in the GP, solutions at the initial phase in ABCP can be produced with "full", "grow" and "ramped half and half" methods [3]. The quality of each solution tree is determined by considering the fitness function, which is specifically determined to each problem.

Since solutions are represented by fixed-size arrays in ABC, the candidate solution generation cannot be used directly in ABCP. In order to produce the candidate solution (v_i) in the ABCP where solutions are represented tree structures have variable depth and different numbers of nodes, the crossover operator in GP [3] has been adapted to the neighborhood research process on ABC.

In the ABCP algorithm, there three different types of bees: employed bees, onlooker bees and scout bees. Employed bees leave the hives and they have a specific food source in their memory. When they return to the hive, they share information about the food sources with onlooker bees. The onlooker bees decide which source they will go to base on the amount of the nectar of the source shared by the employed bees. During the scout bee phase, it is checked to see whether all food sources are exhausted. If the food source is exhausted, the source is abandoned. The bees formally used with an abandoned source turn into scout bees and search randomly for a new source. Unlike other bees, scout bees find new food sources without sharing information. The exhausted of food resources controls a parameter called "*limit*". For each source, the number of improving trials is kept, and in each cycle, it is checked to see whether the number of trials exceeds the "*limit*" parameter.



Figure 6. Flowchart ABCP algorithm.

When generating the candidate solution v_i , the neighbor node solution x_k ($i \neq k$), taken from a different solution in the population is randomly selected as a mechanism considering the probability of P_{ip} . The node x_k is randomly selected from the neighbor solution and determines what information to

share in the current solution. Similarly, a function node is selected in the probability of P_{ip} (set to 0.9) and a terminal in the probability of $(1-P_{ip})$ is selected from the current solution x_i . The candidate solution v_i is generated by replacing the nodes of the current solution node x_i and the neighbor solution node x_k . This sharing mechanism is shown in Figure 7. Figure 7a,b are node x_i representing the current solution and a neighbor node x_k taken from the tree respectively, Figure 7c shows neighboring information and the generated candidate solution is given in Figure 7d. After the candidate solution is generated, a greedy selection process is applied between the node x_i expressing the current solution and the candidate solution v_i . The candidate solution is evaluated, and greedy selection is used for each employed bee.



Figure 7. Information sharing mechanism of ABCP algorithm. (**a**): x_{i} ; (**b**): x_k ; (**c**): neighbor information (**d**): generated candidate solution

3.3. ABCP-Descriptor Program Representation

ABCP-descriptor is an ABCP-based image descriptor that generates models using raw pixel values. The descriptor presents the pixel values in a certain size of sliding windows. The pixel values are used inputs of a feature vector. Figure 8 shows representation of the feature vector. In the example in Figure 8, window size 5×5 is selected. The window has a value of $5 \times 5 = 25$ pixels. The first pixel is labelled with P_0 and is labeled up to P_{24} in total. Pixels are sequenced from left to right and feature vector is generated. Therefore, the inputs of the ABCP are (P_0 , P_1 , ..., P_{24}) in feature vector.

The ABCP function set consists of simple arithmetic operators {+, -, *, /} and the *code* root node. The divide (/) function in the function set is a protected version where the divisor value is equal to 0, it is later revised to 1, otherwise, normal division is performed. The *code* node creates binary code using the inputs in row vectors. The number of children of the *code* node determines the length and range of the generated code. For example, if the number of children is 5, the length of the binary code is 5 bits

and the program can produce different values up to $2^5 = 32 (0.1, ..., 31)$. The representation of the ABCP-descriptor is given in Figure 9.



Figure 8. Row feature vector representation.



Figure 9. ABCP program representation.

As shown in Figure 9, the sliding window is selected as 5 * 5 and has 25 inputs. Since the code node has 3 children, the resulting feature vector can produce $2^3=8$ different values. If the values obtained from the branches of the code node are greater than 0, the binary code is converted into 1 and if it is less than 0 the binary code is converted into 0. In the program representation, the binary code is obtained as $(011)_2$. The code is converted to decimal and the value of the partition in the feature vector (histogram) is increased by 1. For example, a histogram of the model is obtained by moving the sliding window over the instance. In the process of ABCP-descriptor, 2 instances are selected for each class, *c* is defined class number and 2 * c histogram is obtained. The test instances are classified by taking into account the distances between the histograms obtained in the training instances and the histograms of the test instances and the histograms o

3.4. Fitness Function

In this paper, only a few random instances are selected from the training set and the classification success is evaluated only after the training of the instances. Therefore, it is aimed to obtain more information from the instances. The classification accuracy is not used as a fitness function alone in order to avoid models over-fitting training instances. Instead, the fitness function that evaluates the distance along with the classification accuracy. To make a reliable and fair comparison, same parameter values are chosen as in [29] and the fitness function (objective function) is adapted as defined in Equation (4).

$$Fitness = 1 - \left(\frac{Accuracy + Distance}{2}\right) \tag{4}$$

The classification accuracy is obtained by the ratio of the number of correctly classified instances to the total number of instances. Accuracy is defined Equation (5).

$$Accuracy = \frac{N_{correct}}{N_{total}}$$
(5)

 $N_{correct}$ is the number of correctly classified instances and N_{total} is the total number of instances. Distance is the function that calculates the distance between classes and the distance within classes. Since the logical function range is in the range [-5, 5], the range of [-1, 1] has been adjusted by adapting the function. The representation of the logical function is given in Figure 10.



Figure 10. Logical Functions; (**a**): logical function range is in the range [–5, 5], (**b**): logical function range is in the range [–1, 1].

The logical function shown in Figure 10a is defined Equation (6); Figure 10b is defined Equation (7).

$$S(t) = \frac{1}{1 + exp^{-t}} \tag{6}$$

$$S(t) = \frac{1}{1 + exp^{-5t}}$$
(7)

Adapted version of the distance function according to the logical function (Equation (7)) is shown in Equation (8). D_b (between distances) calculates the average distance between classes, and D_w (within Distances) calculates the average distance within classes. D_b and D_w , respectively are defined in Equations (9) and (10).

$$Distance = \frac{1}{1 + exp^{-5(D_b - D_w)}} \tag{8}$$

$$D_{b} = \frac{1}{z(z-n)} \sum_{\substack{u^{\alpha}, v^{\beta} \in S_{tr} \\ \forall \vec{u} \in u^{\alpha} \\ \forall \vec{v} \in v^{\beta}}} \chi^{2}(\vec{u}, \vec{v}), \ \alpha, \beta \in [1, c], \ \alpha \neq \beta$$
(9)

$$D_{w} = \frac{1}{z(n-1)} \sum_{\substack{u^{\alpha}, \sigma^{\beta} \in S_{tr} \\ \forall \rightarrow \in u^{\alpha} \\ \forall \rightarrow \in v^{\alpha} \\ \forall \rightarrow v \in v^{\alpha}}} \chi^{2}(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) \alpha \in [1, c]$$
(10)

where $S_{tr} = \{(\vec{x_i}, y_i)\}$ the set of instances is selected in the training set, $\vec{x_i}$ is the feature vector of each instance, and y_i is the class label. $i \in \{1, ..., z\}$; c and n respectively define the total number of classes and the number of instances per class. The total number of instances in the training set is z (c^*n); x^α is all instances of the class in S_{tr} . The distance between vectors with two normalized equal number of elements is shown in Equation (11).

$$\chi^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \frac{(u_i - v_i)^2}{u_i + v_i}$$
(11)

where u_i and v_i , respectively are defined *i*. element is *u* and *v* vectors. If the divisor of Equation (11) is 0, the protected function returns 0 as a result. The classification accuracy (Equation (5)) and the distance (Equation (8)) take the value 1 in the best case and 0 in the worst case. Therefore, the fitness function (Equation (4)) for the automatic programming method can be defined as a minimization problem.

In summary, the following steps are followed to extract the feature vector from the image descriptor.

- Step 1. Instances are converted to feature vectors of the previously defined window size (for example 5*5). (Figure 8)
- **Step 2.** Leaf nodes are fed the root code node and the binary status of the branches is checked by checking the negativity of the branches.
- **Step 3.** By converting the binary code to the decimal, the corresponding value of the number is increased by 1 in the histogram.
- **Step 4.** Using histograms of instances.

Calculation of distance between vectors (Figure 11) Calculation of distance within classes (D_w) and distance between classes (D_b) (Figure 12) The fitness values of the trees (individuals) are calculated.

• Step 5. The ABCP algorithm (Figure (6)) is operated according to the fitness values.

Pseudo-Code 1 calculates the distance between vectors (Equation (11)), shown in Figure 11.



Figure 11. Calculation of the distance between two vectors is the pseudo code.

 D_b , D_w and *accuracy* are calculated according to pseudo-code 2 is shown in Figure 12.

```
function cal_distance (\vec{S}, c, n) \vec{S} set of instances selected in the training set,
                                        c total number of classes,
                                        n number of instances per class
            assign z (z=c*n)
            for each (x_i, c_i)
                               (for the i. vector of each class)
                             for each (x_j, c_j) (for j. vector of each class)
                                          calculate the distance between vectors
                                          (dis= cal_vector_distance (x_i, x_i))
                                        if (c_i \neq c_i) (if the classes have different classes)
                                                   add distance between classes (D_b = D_b + distance)
                                           else
                                                   add distance within classes (D_w = D_w + distance)
                                          end ( if c_i \neq c_j)
                               end (for each (x_i, c_i))
             end (for each (x_i, c_i))
assign distance between classes D_b = D_b/(z * (z - n))
assign distance within classes D_w = D_w/(z * (n - 1))
return (\boldsymbol{D}_h, \boldsymbol{D}_w)
end (function)
```

ABCP-descriptor is expected to improve the trees according to their fitness values. When stopping criteria are provided, the best individual is classified in test data.

4. Experimental Design

For the performance analysis of the proposed method, experiments were conducted using two different datasets and the results were evaluated. This section provides detailed information about the parameters used in datasets and automatic programming methods.

4.1. Datasets

The methods were tested on two different texture datasets DS-Broadtz (Dover Publications, New York, NY, USA) and DS-Kylberg (Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Uppsala, Sweden) which are commonly used in image processing. To compare with [29], we selected the same classes in both texture datasets in [30]. The first dataset DS-Broadtz was obtained from the Broadtz texture set [33]. The original set consists of 112 classes, each 640*640 pixels. In this paper, 20 classes of 112 class are compared. Texture instances of the selected classes are shown in Figure 13. Texture instances of each class are divided into 64*64 pixel samples and 100 instances are obtained.



Figure 13. Instances samples of DS-Broadtz dataset.

The second dataset DS-Kylberg was obtained from the Kylberg dataset [34]. The Kylberg dataset is divided into two parts, originally rotated and non-rotated. As in the Broadtz dataset from the non-rotated Kylberg data set, 20 selected classes were used. Each class contains 160 instances with 576* 576 pixels. In this paper, each instance was reduced to 115 *115 pixels in order to reduce the cost of calculation. Texture instance samples of the selected Kylberg dataset are shown in Figure 14.



Figure 14. Instances samples of DS-Kylberg dataset.

Table 1 shows the total number of selected classes ($N_{classes}$) from the Broadtz and Kylberg datasets, the number of instances contained in each class ($N_{instances}$), the number of instances used in the training and test (N_{train_in} , N_{test_in}) and the instance dimensions (*width* height*).

Dataset	N _{classes}	Ninstances	N _{train_in}	N _{test_in}	Instance Dimensions
Broadtz	20	100	50	50	64*64
Kylberg	20	160	80	80	115*115

Table 1. Datasets.

As shown in Table 1, DS-Broadtz has 1000 instances (20 classes*50 instances); DS-Kylberg used 1600 instances (20 classes*50 instances) in total for training and testing.

4.2. Parameters

The parameter values of the ABCP-descriptor are shown in Table 2. In all methods, the initial solutions are produced with Ramped Half and Half method. In order to increase the quality of sources in the descriptor, Information Sharing Mechanism was used in all solutions. The number of sub-trees / branches connected to the *code* node has a fixed number of 7. Thus, the histogram can have $2^7 = 128$ different values (0, 1, ..., 127). The division (/) function in the function set is the protected version. In this function, if the divisor value is equal to 0, then 1 is returned, in other cases normal division is performed. *p* and *r* are assigned respectively 8 and 1 for the *LBP*_{*p*,*r*} operator. In this paper, the limit parameter was set to half of the colony size in ABCP-criptor. When the limit is exceeded, the abandoned food source is randomly changed with a new food source. The identifier does not use weight for subtrees. The maximum depth of the subtrees is set to 6.

Table	2.	Parameters.
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Parameters	Artificial Bee Colony Programming-Descriptor (ABCP-Descriptor)		
Colony Size	100		
Iteration Number	30		
Maximum Tree Depth	6		
Number of Branches in the Code node	7		
Initial Method	Ramped Half and Half		
Functions	+ (plus), –(minus), * (times), / (rdivide)		
Limit	50		

5. Performance Analysis

The experimental results of the methods are given and discussed in this section. ABCP-descriptor and $LBP_{8,1}$ were run 10 times independently. In each run, the methods analyzed randomly selected instances from datasets and tried to assign test instances to the correct texture class. We evaluated the ability to learn the descriptors in the training set.

5.1. Overall Results

The simulation results for ABCP-descriptor, $LBP_{8,1}$ and GP-descriptor [30] are presented in Table 3. In [30] is tested the performance of GP-criptor against nine of the widely used classical methods in machine learning. The performances of the methods are significantly low compared to that of GP-criptor. For this reason, we compared the results with the GP-criptor [30] by proposing the ABCP-criptor, which is a new method that can rival the GP-criptor, which has a higher result than the classical methods.

Descriptor	Dataset	Criteria Best Test Fitness		Test Classification Success (%)
		Mean	0.03	94.55
	Broadtz	Maximum 0.03		97.3
		Minimum	0.01	93.3
		Standard deviation	0.01	1.17
ABCP-descriptor -		Mean	0.05	89.71
	Kylberg	Maximum	0.14	95.19
		Minimum	0.02	71.63
		Standard deviation	0.03	6.38
		Me	an	90.63
	Broadtz	Maxii	num	93.8
		Minir	num	87.3
		Standard	deviation	1.92
LBP _{8,1} –		Me	an	90
	Kulhorg	Maxii	num	93.13
	Kyibeig	Minir	num	87.13
		Standard	deviation	1.9
	Due e die	Mean		94.40
	Broadtz	Standard	deviation	0.81
GP-descriptor [30]	Kulhore	Me	an	93.21
	Kyiberg	Standard	deviation	1.14

Table 3. Simu	ilation	results	of	descriptor.
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When the results were evaluated, successful results were obtained with ABCP-descriptor and LBP. The average test success of the methods in the DS-Broadtz is higher than the DS-Kylberg. The highest test accuracy was found in the ABCP-descriptor as 97.3% for the DS-Broadtz and 95.188 for the DS-Kylberg. The highest standard deviation has the ABCP-descriptor in the DS-Kylberg data set with 6.38. The higher the deviation, the greater the difference between the maximum and the minimum test accuracy compared to LBP. The GP-descriptor [30] has the highest mean as 93.21% in DS-Kylberg. The ABCP-descriptor is considered to be comparable to the GP-descriptor because its classification success is high.

5.2. Model Analysis Results

In this section, the best models of test accuracy with ABCP-descriptor for each dataset will be analyzed.

Table 4 shows the general information about the parse trees of the best model with has highest test classification with 97.3% in DS_Broadtz. The complexity in Table 4 was calculated according to Equation (3). As shown in the table, the sub-trees connected to the *code* node depend on different depth and number of nodes. A tree representation of the model test success for the DS-Broadtz dataset is shown in Table 5. The equations of the sub-trees of the best model in Figure 15 is shown in Table 6.

	Node	Depth	Complexity
Tree 1	7	3	17
Tree 2	5	3	11
Tree 3	7	3	17
Tree 4	19	5	69
Tree 5	21	6	83
Tree 6	3	2	5
Tree 7	19	6	87

Table 4. Information about Subtrees of Best Model of ABCP-Descriptor for DS-Broadtz.



Figure 15. Best Model of ABCP-Descriptor for DS-Broadtz.

	Equation
Tree 1	$(x_{14}/x_8) * (x_{13}/x_{11})$
Tree 2	$x_8/(x_{14}+x_{23})$
Tree 3	$(x_7 - x_3) / (x_{25} / x_8)$
Tree 4	$((x_9 - x_6)/(x_{14}/x_{20}))/(((\frac{x_{20}}{x_5}) - x_2) * ((x_8 * x_{12}) + x_4))$
Tree 5	$((x_{24} * x_6) - x_4) - ((x_2 - x_{14}) * (x_8 + (\frac{x_{13}}{x_8}))) * ((x_{24} + x_2) * x_8)$
Tree 6	(x_{10}/x_6)
Tree 7	$x_{16} - \left(\left((x_{18} - x_4) + \left(\frac{x_{18}}{x_{22}} \right) \right) - \left((x_5 + x_{18}) + (x_1 + x_2) \right)$

 Table 5. Equations of Subtrees of Best Model of ABCP-Descriptor for DS-Broadtz.

Table 6. Information about Subtrees of Best Model of ABCP-Descriptor for DS-Kylberg.

	Node	Depth	Complexity
Tree 1	5	3	11
Tree 2	7	3	17
Tree 3	3	2	5
Tree 4	13	6	51
Tree 5	9	4	27
Tree 6	33	6	145
Tree 7	11	4	33

A tree representation of the model test success for the DS-Kylberg dataset is shown in Figure 16. The equations of the sub-trees of the best model in Figure 16 are shown in Table 7. When the tables of the highest classification test accuracy for the DS-Kylberg dataset (Table 6, Table 7) are evaluated, it can be seen that the sub-trees of the model are more complex than the best model sub-trees of DS-Broadtz. Many inputs in the lower trees (such as x_{14} , x_{15} , x_{20}) are common in the model. The *code* node of the best models for both datasets have 7 subtrees and the trees have depth of 2-6. As the number of nodes and depth of the tree increase, the tree complexity increases.

Table 7. Equations of Subtrees of Best Model of ABCP-Descriptor for DS-Kylberg.

	Equation
Tree 1	$x_{22}/(x_9 * x_{20})$
Tree 2	$(x_2 * x_{22}) * (x_{19} + x_{14})$
Tree 3	$(x_3 - x_5)$
Tree 4	$\left(x_{15} + (x_7 - x_{15}) * \left(\frac{x_{23} - x_{20}}{x_{12}}\right)\right) - x_{18}$
Tree 5	$x_4 - ((x_{24} - x_{11}) * (\frac{x_{17}}{x_{13}}))$
Tree 6	$\left(\left((x_{11} + x_{14}) - (x_{12} - x_{14}) \right) * \left(\frac{x_{15} * (x_9 - x_{16})}{\frac{x_{22}}{x_7}} \right) \right) - \left(\left(x_5 * \left((x_{15} + x_5) - (x_9 + x_{15}) \right) - \left(x_{24} - \left(\frac{x_{19}}{x_{15}} \right) \right) \right) \right)$
Tree 7	$(x_{15} - (x_1/x_{20}))/((x_9 + x_{14}) * x_5)$





Tree 6



Figure 16. Best Model of ABCP-Descriptor for DS-Kylberg.

6. Conclusions

In this paper, ABCP-descriptor is proposed to identify texture by selecting only two instances randomly in the training set for each texture. In the proposed method, the instances were transformed into feature vectors using a window of 5*5 dimensions. Feature vectors were used as inputs for models in the ABCP-descriptor. Similar to LBP algorithm, the binary codes obtained by the models

classifier when evaluating histograms. The distance function calculates the distance between classes and within classes in the training set. ABCP-descriptor is evaluated performance to standard LBP and GP-descriptor. The comparative results show that ABCP-descriptor is a new method that can be used in this field. In the future, we aim to test the success of classification of models using different tree sizes and different arithmetic functions (such as sin, cos etc.). In addition, attempts will be made to extract new models will by changing the parameters, rotated textures.

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