

Adaption of XCS to multi-learner predator/prey scenarios

[Extended Abstract]

Clemens Lode
clemens@lode.de

Urban Richter
Karlsruhe Institute of
Technology
Institute AIFB
76128 Karlsruhe, Germany
urban.richter@kit.edu

Hartmut Schmeck
Karlsruhe Institute of
Technology
Institute AIFB
76128 Karlsruhe, Germany
hartmut.schmeck@kit.edu

ABSTRACT

Learning classifier systems (LCSs) are rule-based evolutionary reinforcement learning systems. Today, especially variants of Wilson's *extended classifier system (XCS)* are widely applied for machine learning. Despite their widespread application, LCSs have drawbacks, e.g., in multi-learner scenarios, since the *Markov property* is not fulfilled. In such scenarios, typical challenges of research are: How to divide team reward among the individual learners and how to cope with the problem of parallel learning agents (coadaptation)?

In this paper, LCSs are investigated in an instance of the generic homogeneous and (non-) communicating predator/prey scenario. A group of predators collaboratively observe a (randomly) moving prey as long as possible, where each predator is equipped with a single, independent XCS. Results show that improvements in learning can be achieved by cleverly adapting a *multi-step* approach to the characteristics of the investigated scenario. Firstly, the environmental reward function is expanded to include sensory information. Secondly, the learners are equipped with a memory to store and analyze the history of local movements and given pay-offs.

1. INTRODUCTION

The complexity of today's technical systems is continuously increasing. Future systems will consist of a multitude of autonomous soft- and hardware components that interact with each other to satisfy functional requirements of the global system. Since this trend bears the risk of unpredictable or even uncontrollable system behavior, *organic computing (OC)*¹ focusses on monitoring, analyzing, and controlling complex distributed systems to endow them with the ability of *controlled self-organization*. I.e., an organic system can self-organize to achieve its tasks while being

simultaneously observed and – if necessary – influenced by a higher level component to avoid unwanted emergent system states. To this end, an *observer/controller architecture* has been proposed in [17]. Since it is in general impossible to foresee all possible configurations the *system under observation and control* takes on in a dynamic environment, it is important to endow the system with *learning components* so that system components can autonomously learn new control actions for unforeseen situations and evaluate their consequences.

An XCS [21] is a rule-based evolutionary on-line learning system that is suitable to perform this learning task. It evolves a set of condition-action-rules (called *classifiers*) that contain a reward prediction estimating the benefits of their action for situations matching their condition. In general, LCSs combine aspects of evolutionary algorithms that are used for rule generation with reinforcement learning that is used for reward prediction. I.e., if an agent reaches a goal, a reward will be distributed among the classifiers. Usually, this depends on the type of scenario: In *single-step* environments, a reward is generated at each learning iteration, while in *multi-step* environments (they are often characterized by local and restricted knowledge) the agent will construct the global information about the best condition-action-mapping using multiple repetitions and iterations of the whole learning problem.

Here, LCSs are used to learn control rules for agents in a *predator/prey scenario* [2]. Following the global task to observe one or up to n (randomly) moving preys, a number of predators has to achieve a common goal with local and distributed behavior, i.e., maximizing the global observation time. The scenario shows technical relevance to OC scenarios, it seems to be very flexible in its parametrization, and it allows many variations [18]. Especially, the challenge of concurrent learning agents is addressed, where all predators are equipped with a single, independent XCS. Since neither the classical single-step nor the multi-step implementation of an XCS [6] can be used to learn a dynamic observation task (see argumentation in Section 3.3), the special focus of this paper is on an approach, how to handle such dynamic predator/prey scenarios. Thereby, the proposed idea is mainly based on a local cooperative reward function and some kind of temporary memory. This memory stores past action sets and their corresponding reward values.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: First, LCSs are shortly introduced and their usability in differ-

¹<http://www.organic-computing.de/spp>

ent scenarios is discussed (see Section 2). In Section 3, the predator/prey example is described, which has not been addressed in XCS literature yet. In such scenarios, a new reward function is needed, which is explained in detail in Section 4. Using this new reward function, several experiments are executed and their results are discussed in Section 5. The paper concludes with a summary and a discussion of future work in Section 6.

2. LEARNING CLASSIFIER SYSTEMS

The field of LCSs, introduced in the 1970ies [7, 8, 9], is one of the most active and best-developed form of genetic based machine learning [12, 13, 15]. As mentioned above, much of LCS's theory is inherited from the reinforcement learning literature. Hence, LCSs are rule-based on-line learning systems that combine nature-inspired optimization heuristics and reinforcement learning techniques to learn appropriate actions for any input they get [21]. They are applicable to any problem, where a numerical reward reflecting the quality of an action can be obtained. The core component of an LCS is its *rule base* that contains rules (called *classifiers*) consisting of a condition, an action, a prediction value, etc. The selection of an appropriate action for a given input is a two-step process. From the rule base of all classifiers a subset called *match set* is computed that contains all classifiers, whose condition matches the current input. Then, for all distinct actions present in the match set the average prediction of all classifiers advocating the same action is calculated. The action with the highest average prediction is selected for execution (called *best selection*) and all classifiers in the match set advocating that action form the *action set*. The reward received from the environment is subsequently used to update the prediction values of all classifiers in the action set. One alternative of *best selection* is *tournament selection* [3], where actions with a lower average prediction have a probability to be selected, too.

Classifiers forming the rule base are created in two different ways: Whenever the match set is empty, classifiers are inserted into the rule base by a process called *covering*, which consist of a condition that matches the current input, a random action, and a default prediction value. Furthermore, a randomized *evolutionary component* occasionally selects relatively good classifiers to be the parent individuals for a reproduction cycle. Crossover and mutation are applied to copies of the parents to form offspring, which are inserted into the rule base.

A variety of different LCS implementations has been proposed (cf. [12]), many are based on Wilson's XCS [21] system, which is an LCS implementation that maintains separate prediction and fitness values and where the fitness of a classifier is based on the *accuracy* of the prediction reward.

In certain problems (see Section 2.1), the environment's reaction on an action executed by an LCS is not instantaneous. Thus, further reinforcement learning cycles are required to build up an optimal (local) reward function (see Section 2.2). Also, more complex scenarios with aliasing positions require additional handling like an internal memory (see Section 2.3). In dynamic scenarios, e.g., the predator/prey scenario, additional measures are required. This will be subject of the following sections.

2.1 Single-Step vs. Multi-Step Problems

Literature about LCSs could be divided into *single-step*

and *multi-step* approaches. This separation bases on how to solve the reinforcement learning problem and addresses a design decision, which has to be taken when implementing an LCS. It refers to the question, *when* a reinforcement signal (reward) is achieved from the environment and *how* this reward is distributed on the past action(s).

In *single-step* environments having a single (centralized) learning instance, the external reward is received on every time step and the environmental input for each time step has completely been independent of the prior time step. When a decision is made, the reinforcement is directly received and measures the quality of the decision. Single-step environments generally involve categorization of data examples. A typical single-step benchmark problem is the *boolean multiplexer problem* [5, 21].

In *multi-step* environments, the external reward may not necessarily be received on any time step, since the environmental input on a time step depends on at least the prior input and the system's last action. Typical multi-step environments are known as sequential environments or so-called *Maze* problems, e.g., *Wood1* [20] or *Wood2* [21]. These examples model the adaptive interaction of a single-agent with its environment and have been studied using a variety of methods. Most often, a Maze is defined as a given number of neighboring cells in a grid-world. A cell is a bounded space formally defined and is the elementary unit of a Maze. Cells are either empty or can contain an obstacle, food, a so-called *animat*, and eventually a predator of the animat. Then, an animat is randomly placed in the Maze environment (which could be some kind of a labyrinth) and it tries to set its position to a cell containing food, which is sparsely located in the environment. To perform this task, it possesses a limited perception of the environment (often limited to the eight cells surrounding the animat's position) and it can also move to an empty neighboring cell. Moving step by step through the Maze in order to fulfil its goal, the animat searches for a strategy (or adopt a policy), which minimizes the effort undertaken to find the food in the selected Maze environment. Maze environments offer plenty of parameters that allow to evaluate the complexity of a given system and also to evaluate the efficiency of a learning method. A full description of these parameters is available in [1].

2.2 Learning in Markov Environments

When the sensory data from the view of an agent differs for each position in the investigated Maze environment, the Markov property is fulfilled. I.e., an agent can acquire global information to solve the whole learning problem by visiting all positions of the environment. Having global information, an LCS can learn the optimal set of rules to find the goal position from any starting position by computing the shortest route. The learning process itself is done by a random walk (the *explore phase*) in order to cover the search space, starting from a random position and repeating the process when reaching the goal position. Actions that lead to the goal position are positively rewarded. Each action is rewarded by a portion of the reward value of the next action (or the maximal reward value when reaching the goal position). The actual quality (the shortness of the path length) of the LCS is determined in the next phase (the *exploit phase*), where the agent only chooses actions with the highest product out of fitness and prediction values.

2.3 Non Markov Environments

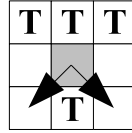
However, some Maze problems offer perceptually identical situations that require different actions to reach the food. This problem is often studied in the context of *non Markov environments*. *Woods101* (see Figure 1(a)) is a typical example of a *partially observable Markov decision process (POMDP)*, where a *single-agent* cannot distinguish different situations due to a lack of global environmental information.

The animat is placed in a free random field, it can sense the eight adjacent cells, and has to learn to reach the food denoted with *F*, while trees *T* blocking any movement. Here, the aliasing positions marked with 1 and 2 share the same sensory configuration, but require different optimal actions (cf. Figure 1(b), each optimal action for the different positions is marked with an arrow). In position 1, the optimal action is to move to the bottom right, while the optimal action in position 2 is to move to the bottom left. Thus, an XCS cannot evolve an optimal policy for *Woods101* (without further modifications).

I. e., using records of past condition-action-mappings by adding temporary memory is a widespread approach to cope with such environments, as investigated in [14, 16].

T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T		1		2		T
T		T		T		T
T		T	F	T		T
T	T	T	T	T	T	T

(a) 1 and 2 mark the two aliasing positions.



(b) Sensory configuration of the two aliasing positions

Figure 1: The *Woods101* environment: Trees are marked with *T*, food is marked with *F*.

A second non Markov property is still embedded in *multi-agent* environments and this is related to a change of an agent's internal state. In scenarios with more than one learning agent, an agent has to evaluate actions that may be caused by its own internal state or that are the result of other agent's actions. It is difficult to recognize an environmental change, which is caused by the change of another agent's internal state, due to a lack of the other agents' informations. Even if an agent stays in the same location, the agent cannot evaluate the environmental changes. This second non Markov property is often defined as a *non observable Markov decision process (NOMDP)*, see [19].

In Section 3.3, it will be shown that the predator/prey scenario, presented in the following and used as testbed in this paper, includes both non Markov properties (POMDP and NOMDP). Thus, learning in such environments is more complex than learning in single-agent environments (where only one agent adapts to its dynamically changing environment) and requires a different approach, which is discussed in Section 4.

3. THE PREDATOR/PREY EXAMPLE

The predator/prey domain is an appropriate multi-agent example that has successfully been studied in a variety of instantiations. It does not serve as a complex real world

domain, but as a test scenario for demonstrating and evaluating manifold research ideas. Introduced by [2], researchers have investigated different instantiations of its original formulation in the context of different application areas [18].

Both, predator and prey, typically can move into four different directions – north, east, south, and west. Mostly, predators follow a capturing strategy as a goal, while the prey randomly moves or stays still with a certain probability in order to simulate slower movements than the predators. A variation is that the prey moves faster than the predators. In this case, a strategic collaborative effort is required by the predators. An active escaping strategy, where the prey adapts and learns its behavior, may also be possible.

While predators and prey(s) have limited actions and follow well defined objectives, the predator/prey domain is simple to understand, easy to implement, and flexible enough to demonstrate a range of different scenarios, which have been emerged over the past decades.

Here, a simple implementation of the predator/prey scenario is examined, where the predators fulfil a cooperative observation task and are rewarded for just being very close to the prey. Thus, it is not necessary to surround and catch the prey, the predators try to observe the prey as long as possible. The overall scenario settings are described in Section 3.1 followed by a detailed description of the investigated obstacle configurations in Section 3.2.

3.1 Scenario Settings

The different XCS implementations are tested in a simple predator/prey scenario on a discrete, quadratic, and toroidal world consisting of 16×16 squares. One non-learning prey randomly moves over the field. Eight adaptive predators follow an observation strategy. I. e., they cooperatively have to learn to keep the prey under observation. Thereby, every predator possesses its own XCS instance.

A cell of the two-dimensional grid-world can only be occupied by one agent. The quality of the observation task is determined by the amount of time any predator has the prey in its observation range. It is calculated by averaging the qualities of 100 experiments, each consisting of 10 runs. In detail, each run consists of 2000 steps, after which the scenario is reset. The individual learning experiences of the agents are saved between each run, but not between each experiment.

In each time step, each predator can only move to one of the four neighboring fields, while the prey can move two fields, which allows for a faster movement. In addition, there are obstacles on the field and any movement to an occupied field fails (without any further consequences). Both, the prey and the predators, have 24 binary sensors that can sense their close environment, but their lines of sight can be blocked by objects. Half of the sensors can detect objects, which are two fields away, while the other half can detect objects up to five fields away, as depicted in Figure 2. Thus, 12 binary-coded sensors are used for each sight range to encode every possible situation, as shown in Figure 3. Three bits are used to characterize a specific situation (prey, other predators, and obstacles) for each direction (north, east, south, and west).

The simulation is conducted in discrete time. At every time step, the prey and the predators gather sensor data and decide their next actions. Then, all actions of all agents are executed in a random sequence. Since the prey can move

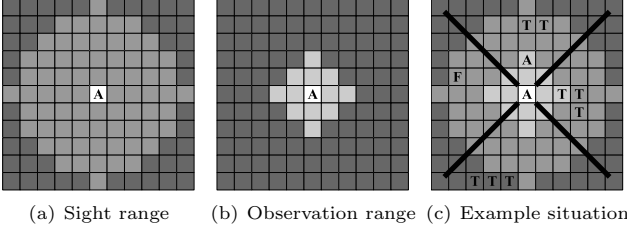


Figure 2: Sensor ranges of individual agents and an example situation: Obstacles/trees are marked with *T*, prey/food is marked with *F*, predators/agents are marked with *A*, and the observation and sight ranges are marked with light grey and grey color, respectively. Areas, which are out of sight of any predator, are marked with dark grey color.

N		E		S		W	
A	-	-	-	T	-	-	-
-	T	-	-	T	-	-	-

Figure 3: Matching sensor data string for the example, as depicted in Figure 2(c)

two fields, it gathers new sensor data after the first step. If the prey is surrounded by predators in all four neighboring directions, it will jump to a random free field nearby, which basically means a restart of the simulation. Experiments have shown that this random jumping strategy only happens very seldom, i.e., it does not significantly alter the simulation results.

3.2 Scenario Configurations

Three different configurations of obstacles (trees) and starting positions of prey and predators have thoroughly been tested.

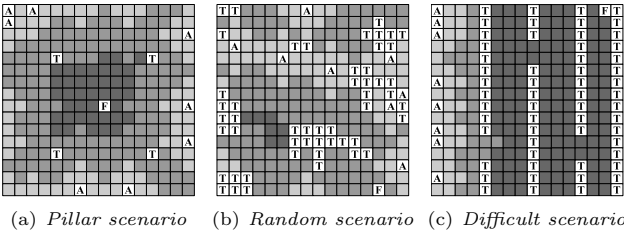


Figure 4: Sample start configurations for the three different scenarios: Obstacles/trees are marked with *T*, prey/food is marked with *F*, predators/agents are marked with *A*, and the observation and sight ranges are marked with light grey and grey color, respectively. Areas, which are out of sight of any predator, are marked with dark grey color.

In the *pillar scenario* (see Figure 4(a)), four obstacles are arranged in equal distance to each other, the prey starts in the middle of the whole field, and the predators start randomly positioned along the borders. The idea of this scenario has been to use a minimal number of obstacles while still giving the agents some points of orientation.

In the second scenario, the *random scenario* (see Figure 4(b)), several obstacles are randomly distributed on the field with a certain tendency to build connected structures.

In both scenarios, the *pillar scenario* and the *random scenario*, two kinds of prey implementations have been tested. The first one tries to move away from predators (*predator-evading prey*) while the second one tries to evade collisions with obstacles (*obstacle-evading prey*). Both types of preys move randomly. walk strategy as well, but tries to evade collisions with obstacles.

The third scenario, the *difficult scenario* (see Figure 4(c)), provides some kind of a labyrinth with several walls and small openings. Predators start on the left and have to find the openings that lead them into the direction of the prey, while the prey only stays in the area on the right and continuously moves northward for two fields (or will jump to a free field nearby, if the direct path is blocked in northern direction). As the prey ignores sensory information it will be referred to as *blind prey*.

3.3 Classification of the Scenario

As described in Section 2.3, environments can be classified as a MDP, a POMDP, or a NOMDP. The main characteristics of the predator/prey scenario, which is here investigated, could be summarized as follows:

1. An agent has only access to local information,
2. the whole field usually consists of open areas with randomly placed obstacles,
3. each agent has an internal state unknown to others,
4. the scenario is dynamic (agents act in parallel),
5. the agents (i.e., the predators) share and cooperatively contribute to a global observation task, and
6. the global observation task forces continuous agents' activities.

It is obvious that the three scenarios, as intended in Figure 4, constitute being no MDPs, since sensory information is limited (1, 3) and different positions share the same sensory configuration (2). Moreover, adding the capability of storing information in a memory would not restore the Markov property (4), as proposed in [14, 16]. This let us conclude that the scenarios could not be any POMDPs. Finally, this also remains that the scenarios have to be NOMDPs.

Additionally, if each predator tries to learn its cooperative behavior using an XCS, a clearly defined (local) goal (5) will be needed to generate payoffs when agents have reached their goals. Furthermore, a typical multi-step scenario will be restarted, if an agent has reached its goal. But, the observation task is a continuous task (6). To conclude, a different approach is needed. Thus, a modified multi-step XCS variant is introduced in the following that can properly handle these issues.

In XCS literature, NOMDP environments are discussed in [11, 19]. There, the issue of non observability is either investigated by a very simplified scenario with only two agents or by using complex communication and centralized organization mechanisms, where all agents share and contribute to a global LCS with global information. Both approaches seems not applicable here, since the three scenarios focus on more than two agents and (global) communication between the predators is not intended. Thus, new mechanisms are required to learn this collaborative and dynamic observation task using the XCS algorithm. The most important step

to solve this problem is the design of an adequate reward function, which is discussed in the following section.

4. THE REWARD FUNCTION

Learning in single-step environments mainly requires that the agent has global information about the whole learning task. I. e., the optimal representation of an XCS's *reward function* is also the solution of the actual problem. In the 6-multiplexer problem, the reward function already contains the table of the 6-multiplexer itself, which provides a straightforward evaluation of classifiers.

In multi-step environments, the environment will only return a reward value equal to 1, if the animat reaches the goal position. If not, the reward will be 0 at all other positions. Since an animat has only access to local information, it is the individual agent's task to compute different reward values for all possible positions in a Maze to differentiate which movement is preferred at each step. In general, this is achieved by *back propagating* the reward of the environment to previous actions. The reward is discounted in order to favor shorter routes. If the animat reaches the goal position, the scenario will be repeated a number of times. In other words, to find the optimal (shortest) route, i. e., the global reward function, the agent must be able to distinguish between all positions, i. e., the scenario must fulfil the Markov property.

In the predator/prey scenario, the nature of the reward function is not obvious. Since the prey continuously moves, which provides a dynamically changing environment, repetition of the learning process seems not possible. Moreover, the environment does not possess the Markov property, since all agents move, decide, learn in parallel, and previously gathered information does not seem valid any longer. Thus, global information and therefore a global reward function cannot be constructed from the local agent's view. Previous actions require a direct reward process. Additionally, points in time have to be determined, when a reward is distributed on past condition-action-mappings, even if the simulation (i. e., the observation task) is continuously performed.

To fulfil these requirements, a new mechanism of reward distribution in such dynamic predator/prey scenarios is proposed. Firstly, an expansion of the reward function by including sensory information is implemented. (see Section 4.1). Then, predators will record the resulting reward values of previous actions and will create *events*, if the reward values change or if no change occurs for a specific amount of time (see Section 4.2). Finally, previously executed actions will be rewarded according to the type of the event and the time difference between the current and the last event (see Section 4.3). We explain this modified multi-step learning in the following.

4.1 Environmental Reward Function

In typical Maze environments, an animat will be rewarded by the environment if it reaches a sparingly distributed goal position. In the context of a predator/prey scenario following a dynamic observation task, the state *reaching the goal position* could be interpreted as *having the prey in the observation range*. Then, the local goal would be equal to the global goal from single-agent's view. Another approach could utilize more complex sensor data on an agent's level instead of being restricted to using a reward function modeled after the global goal (e.g. *goal position is reached* and

the *goal position is not reached*). Since the number of possible reward functions, which include more sensor data, seems unlimited and not all functions can be tested in a reasonable amount of time, the investigated approach followed the idea of exploring the search space using static strategies and then testing promising functions on LCSs. In the following a selection of three different strategies are presented.

- **Selfish behavior (observation range):** Move towards the prey when it is in **observation range**. Otherwise move in a randomly chosen direction.
- **Selfish behavior (sight range):** Move towards the prey when it is in **sight range**. Otherwise move in a randomly chosen direction.
- **Cooperative behavior:** Move towards the prey when it is in **sight range**. Otherwise move in a randomly chosen direction without having other agents in the individual **observation range**.

Although static strategies do not use a reward function, they still evaluate condition-action-mappings either as *good* (i. e., move on that direction) or as *bad* (i. e., do not move on that direction), thus an appropriate reward function can be implemented. We define the return value of such a reward function as the *base reward* and the function itself as the *environmental reward function*.

While the implementation of the *selfish behavior* strategy with only one prey on the field is trivial, the *cooperative behavior* strategy requires multiple return values of the reward function. Since a typical XCS implementation [6] uses only a binary-coded reward function, an approximation will be used to differentiate between these different system states: The reward function will return 1, if no other predator is in the personal observation range or if the prey is in the personal sight range (or both will be true), and 0 otherwise.

4.2 Events

In the usual implementation of an XCS [6] any positive *base reward* is distributed whenever an animat reaches a goal position and the scenario is then restarted. Here, we analyze past *base reward* values and generate so called *events* when either the *base reward* value has changed or when no change occurs for a certain period of time.

Assuming that a predator has taken a good decision when the prey comes into the sight range of predator (or the predator leaves the sight ranges of all other predators) we define such a situation change as a *positive event*. Moreover, losing the prey or coming into the sight ranges of other predators will be called a *negative event*. In other words, a positive event always occurs whenever the *base reward* changes from 0 to 1, a negative event occurs whenever the *base reward* changes from 1 to 0, as depicted in Figure 5(a).

Nevertheless, a predator will also contribute to a collaborative group behavior, if the prey is never seen in the personal observation range and other predators are also stayed away. Hence, a predator will never encounter an event and no reward will be computed to evaluate past actions. Thus, the number of learning cycles – that can occur without encountering an event – have been limited by a variable *maxStackSize*. If this step counter reaches the predefined threshold, a *neutral event* will occur (see Figure 5(b)). Then, the step counter is reset to 0 and the LCS waits for a new

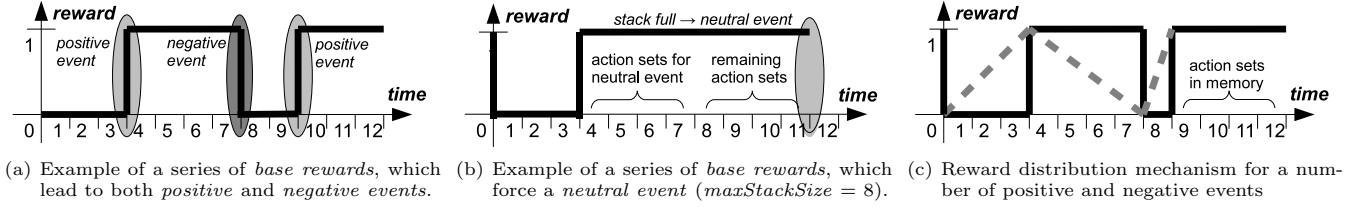


Figure 5: Calculation of the reward of individual action sets by analyzing the *base reward*

event or the step counter again passes the threshold of the maxStackSize . Additionally, half of the action sets in the stack are rewarded according to the actual *base reward* value and then discarded.

4.3 Reward Distribution

The standard implementation of an XCS is based on the assumption that it learns within a MDP. This is expressed in the way the reward is distributed on the classifiers that have contributed to reach the goal. Generally, several repetitions are required to correctly distribute the reward to all classifiers that have contributed to the solution.

In a dynamic scenario, such repetitions are not possible. The scenario is not restarted and the observation task is continuously performed. Thus, a separate mechanism is introduced to reward previous (contributing) actions as well. This new approach stores not only the last, but all previous actions. We admit that such a memory mechanism does not necessarily restore the Markov property (the scenario is obviously a NOMDP, as explained in Section 3.3). However, it directly associates a changing base reward value with previous steps, which have contributed to the success (or to a failure), since the last change of the *base reward* has been observed. Thus, when (and only when) an event occurs, the reward will be distributed among the entries of the action sets that have been stored, since the last event has been occurred. Moreover, recent actions have probably contributed more to a positive (negative) event than older actions. Hence, they are evaluated with a higher (lower) reward than those actions that were executed several steps before. To realize this *reward distribution* mechanism, a quadratic function is used, which extends the rewarding procedure of the original XCS implementation with $r(a)$ being the *reward* for the *action set* with an age of a :

$$r(a) = \begin{cases} \text{base reward}, & \text{neutral event} \\ \frac{a^2}{\text{size}(\text{action_set})^2}, & \text{positive event} \\ \frac{(1-a)^2}{\text{size}(\text{action_set})^2}, & \text{negative event} \end{cases}$$

In Figure 5(c), an example illustrates this reward distribution mechanism. For simplicity a linear distribution of the reward on previous action sets is displayed, but more sophisticated approaches seems possible. However, significant differences between a linear or a no-linear distribution could not be investigated so far.

5. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Many different design combinations of a reward function seems possible, as discussed before. This paper does not try to identify the best solution. Instead, it shows that there exists better implementations than the conventional XCS algo-

rithm. Therefore, this paper concentrates on a comparison of XCS variants, as presented in Section 5.1. To properly compare this variants, it has been important to determine good parameter settings for each variant. While most of the standard values given in [6] and known as *commonly used parameter settings* provide good results, some special settings need closer examination (see Section 5.2). Thereby, thousands of different combinations have been tested and the parameter discussion could not completely presented in here. Configurations that achieved a lower performance than a simple *random walk* strategy are also omitted since it is always difficult to argue whether the performance increase was caused by improved learning or by acting more like the *random walk* strategy. For example in the *random scenario* with an obstacle-evading prey the tested XCS were not able to show a significant better result than the *random walk* strategy, so this scenario was omitted. Finally, the results of a number of experiments are presented in Section 5.3.

5.1 XCS Variants

All XCS variants that are presented here have in common that the corresponding scenario is not restarted when a positive reward was attained (as it is in the standard implementation of XCS). In all other aspects the first variant, which will be referred to as “XCS (obs)”, is equal to the standard implementation, i.e., the global goal is equivalent to the local goal and *selfish behavior* (*observation range*) will be used (see Section 4.1). Including more sensor information by using *selfish behavior* (*sight range*) results in a new XCS variant which will be referred to as “XCS (sight)”. Combining this variant with event handling (see Section 4.2) and using a reward distribution based on these generated events (see Section 4.3) results in an XCS variant which will be referred to as “eventXCS”. Replacing also the selection strategy *best selection* (see Section 2) with *tournament selection* (with a factor $p = 0.84$, see [3]) results in an XCS variant which will be referred to as “eventXCS (ts)”. Finally, using *cooperative behavior*, results in the XCS variant “eventXCS (coop, ts)”.

5.2 XCS Parameters

The parameter maxStackSize that was introduced in Section 4.2 determines when a stack overflow (and thus a *neutral event*) occurs. Similar to XCS’ *prediction discount* parameter γ , the optimal value is a compromise between several conflicting factors: Using larger values results in an inclusion of older - maybe irrelevant - actions in the reward of positive or negative events. Using smaller values can reduce the delay between an event and the actual reward but it may also lead to a possible disregard of actions that were important in achieving the current event. For scenarios with

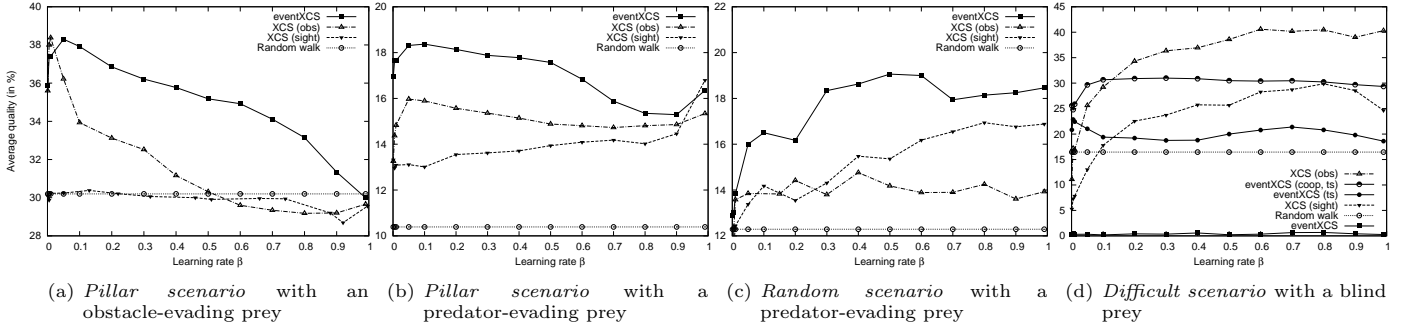


Figure 6: Comparison of different values for the learning rate β for different XCS variants

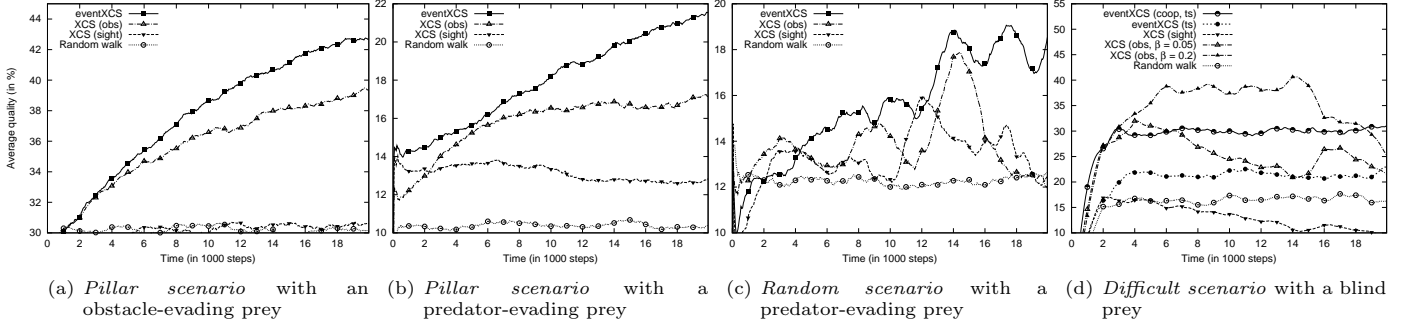


Figure 7: Comparison of the average quality over time of different XCS variants

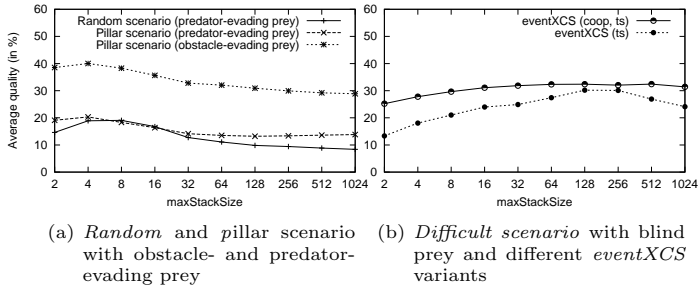


Figure 8: Comparison of variants of *eventXCS* with different *maxStackSize* values in different scenarios

fewer obstacles and more open space (*random* and *pillar scenario*) a value between 4 and 8 seems optimal (see Figure 8(a)) while in more complex scenarios like the *difficult scenario* significant larger values up to 256 seems optimal (see Figure 8(b)). Additional tests showed that the size of the scenario is also relevant which might point to a correlation between the optimal value and the average distance to the prey. As a compromise and for better comparison a value of *maxStackSize* = 8 will be used in all tests.

During the tests another important parameter was the learning rate β . In a similar type of scenario in [10] a value below the standard value was proposed ($\beta = 0.02$). The reason was that dynamic multi-agent systems can be described only by movement probabilities so the learning process has to be slow and careful. Tests showed an optimal value of 0.05 for the *pillar scenario* (see Figure 6(a) and Figure 6(b))

and an optimal range of 0.6 to 0.8 for the *random* and *difficult scenario* (see Figure 6(c) and Figure 6(d)). To maintain comparability between the scenarios and to other implementations of XCS a value of 0.05 was used for β in further tests.

According to [6] the maximum number of classifiers N should be chosen big enough so that *covering* happens only in the beginning of a run. For the scenario in question tests have shown that a population size of around 512 fulfils this criteria. The classifier sets were filled with random classifiers [4] but no significant difference was seen. Instead sometimes a slower convergence was observed, probably because the corresponding system had to unlearn irrelevant classifiers. The *GA threshold* parameter θ_{GA} was set to 25, larger values seemed to reduce the quality of the algorithm. As *eventXCS* itself does use the quadratic reward distribution, the parameter *reward prediction discount* γ is only needed to compare XCS with *eventXCS*. Tests have been inconclusive so the standard value of $\gamma = 0.71$ was used. Only $\gamma = 1.0$ showed significant different results in some cases. It seems that while a reduction of the transfer of the reward is needed, the actual value is of little importance. Other parameters, like the subsumption threshold θ_{sub} , GA threshold θ_{GA} and the mutation probability μ values in the standard range were used (20.0, 25.0 and 0.05 respectively).

5.3 Experimental results

The first result that can be seen in the graphs in Figure 6 and Figure 7 is that *XCS (sight)* is always inferior to *XCS (obs)*. Further tests with XCS in connection with different *environmental reward functions* lead to the conclusion that XCS should not be combined with a reward function different than the global goal. On the other hand *eventXCS*

seems to work well with strategies like *selfish behavior* (*sight range*), which can be seen by the higher average quality of *eventXCS* compared to *XCS (obs)* and increasing learning curve in the scenarios displayed in Figure 7(a), Figure 7(b) and Figure 7(c). In addition, *eventXCS* seems to be significantly more stable, i.e., it shows no tendency of over-learning or unlearning, as shown in the *random scenario* in Figure 7(c): *eventXCS* reaches increasingly higher levels while *XCS (obs)* breaks down after 14,000 steps. All in all in these three configurations *eventXCS* is clearly superior to *XCS (obs)*. Looking further to the *difficult scenario*, it can be seen that *eventXCS* clearly fails, no matter to which value for the *learning rate* β is used (see Figure 6(d)). This problem can only be solved by using the advanced variant *eventXCS (ts)* or *eventXCS (coop, ts)*. It shows again to be very stable compared to *XCS (obs)* (see Figure 7(d)) with the latter again failing after about 14,000 steps. All in all it is not surprising that *XCS (obs)* reaches better results than *eventXCS* because the former was designed to solve maze-like scenarios while *eventXCS* was designed to solve a more open scenario with a non-blind moving prey. Because *eventXCS* shares the same base algorithm with *XCS (obs)* and because it can solve the *difficult scenario* with *tournament collection* it points to a flaw in the design of the algorithm that is correctable.

6. CONCLUSION

A promising modified XCS approach has been investigated to overcome the drawbacks of the classical XCS algorithm in the field of *non observable Markov decision processes*. The proposed idea is mainly based on expanding the local reward function and some kind of temporary memory, which stores past actions sets and their corresponding reward values. Thus, local payoffs can be delayed to be analyzed later and the reward function reflects in a better way the local agent behavior. In the experiments this new approach proved to be superior to the classical XCS algorithm, mainly due to its ability to work well with advanced local reward functions, an ability which XCS seemingly lacks. Besides improving the new algorithm itself, future research could be pointed at a switching strategy between explore (when no prey is in sight) and exploit phases (when it is near the prey). In addition, improvement can be expected from an adaptive *learning rate* β and *maxStackSize* to fit the current scenario's needs. Finally, it would be interesting to test the approach of *eventXCS* in connection with standard scenarios and with other *non observable Markov decision processes* already discussed in literature.

7. REFERENCES

- [1] A. J. Bagnall and Z. V. Zatuchna. On the classification of Maze problems. In *Foundations of Learning Classifier Systems*, volume 183 of *Studies in Fuzziness and Soft Computing*, pages 305–316. Springer, 2005.
- [2] M. Benda, V. Jagannathan, and R. Dodhiawala. An optimal cooperation of knowledge sources: An empirical investigation. Technical Report BCS-G2010–28, Boeing Advanced Technology Center, Boeing Computing Services, Seattle, Washington, United States of America, 1986.
- [3] M. Butz, K. Sastry, and D. E. Goldberg. Tournament selection: Stable fitness pressure in xcs. In *GECCO*, pages 1857–1869, 2003.
- [4] M. V. Butz. *The XCS Classifier System*, chapter 4, pages 51–64. Springer, 2006.
- [5] M. V. Butz, T. Kovacs, P. L. Lanzi, and S. W. Wilson. Toward a theory of generalisation and learning in XCS. *IEEE Transactions on Evolutionary Computation*, 8(1):28–46, 2004.
- [6] M. V. Butz and S. W. Wilson. An algorithmic description of XCS. *Soft Computing*, 6(3–4):144–153, 2002.
- [7] J. H. Holland. *Adaptation in natural and artificial systems*. University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, 1975.
- [8] J. H. Holland. *Adaptation*. In *Progress in Theoretical Biology*, volume 4, pages 263–293. Academic Press, New York, NY, United States of America, 1976.
- [9] J. H. Holland and J. S. Reitman. Cognitive systems based on adaptive algorithms. In *Pattern-Directed Inference Systems*, pages 313–329. Academic Press, 1978.
- [10] H. Inoue, K. Takadama, and K. Shimohara. Exploring xcs in multiagent environments. In *GECCO '05: Proceedings of the 2005 workshops on Genetic and evolutionary computation*, pages 109–111, New York, NY, USA, 2005. ACM.
- [11] S. K. K. Miyazaki, M. Yamamura. On the rationality of profit sharing in multi-agent reinforcement learning. In *Fourth International Conference on Computational Intelligence and Multimedia Applications*, pages 123–127, 2001.
- [12] T. Kovacs. Learning classifier systems resources. *Soft Computing*, 6(3–4):240–243, 2002.
- [13] T. Kovacs and P. L. Lanzi. A bigger learning classifier systems bibliography. In *Proceedings of the International Workshop on Learning Classifier Systems (IWLCS 2000)*, volume 1996 of *LNAI*, pages 213–249. Springer, 2000.
- [14] P. L. Lanzi. Adding memory to XCS. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Evolutionary Computation (ICEC98)*. IEEE Press, 1998.
- [15] P. L. Lanzi. Learning classifier systems: Then and now. *Evolutionary Intelligence*, 1(1):63–82, 2008.
- [16] P. L. Lanzi and S. W. Wilson. Toward optimal classifier system performance in non-markov environments. *Evolutionary Computation*, 8(4):393–418, 2000.
- [17] U. Richter, M. Mnif, J. Branke, C. Müller-Schloer, and H. Schmeck. Towards a generic observer/controller architecture for organic computing. In *INFORMATIK 2006 – Informatik für Menschen!*, volume P-93 of *LNI*, pages 112–119. Bonner Köllen Verlag, 2006.
- [18] P. Stone and M. Veloso. Multi-agent systems: A survey from a machine learning perspective. *Autonomous Robots*, 8(3):345–383, 2000.
- [19] K. Takadama, T. Terano, and K. Shimohara. Learning classifier systems meet multi-agent environments. In *Advances in Learning Classifier Systems*, volume 1996 of *LNAI*, pages 192–212. Springer, 2001.
- [20] S. W. Wilson. ZCS: A zeroth level classifier system. *Evolutionary Computation*, 2(1):1–18, 1994.
- [21] S. W. Wilson. Classifier fitness based on accuracy. *Evolutionary Computation*, 3(2):149–175, 1995.