Emergent Specialization in Biologically Inspired Collective Behavior Systems

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Abstract

Specialization is observable in many complex adaptive systems and is thought by many to be a fundamental mechanism for achieving optimal efficiency within organizations operating within complex adaptive systems. This chapter presents a survey and critique of collective behavior systems designed using biologically inspired principles, where specialization that emerges as a result of system dynamics and is used problem solver or means to increase task performance. The chapter presents an argument for developing design methodologies and principles that facilitate emergent specialization in collective behavior systems. Open problems of current research and future research directions are highlighted for the purpose of encouraging the development of such *emergent specialization* design methodologies.

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Abstract

Specialization is observable in many complex adaptive systems and is thought by many to be a fundamental mechanism for achieving optimal efficiency within organizations operating within complex adaptive systems. This chapter presents a survey and critique of collective behavior systems designed using biologically inspired principles, where specialization that emerges as a result of system dynamics and is used problem solver or means to increase task performance. The chapter presents an argument for developing design methodologies and principles that facilitate emergent specialization in collective behavior systems. Open problems of current research and future research directions are highlighted for the purpose of encouraging the development of such *emergent specialization* design methodologies.

Introduction

Specialization is observable in many complex adaptive systems[1] and is thought by many to be a fundamental mechanism for achieving optimal efficiency within organizations operating within complex adaptive systems. In complex ecological communities, specializations have evolved over time as a means of diversifying the community in order to adapt to the environment (Seligmann, 1999). Over the course of evolutionary time, specialization in biological communities has assumed both morphological (Wenseleers, Ratnieks, & Billen, 2003) and behavioral forms (Bonabeau, Theraulaz, &

Deneubourg, 1996). For example, the morphologically specialized castes that have emerged in certain termite colonies (Noirot & Pasteels, 1987), and honey bees that dynamically adapt their foraging behavior for pollen, nectar, and water as a function of individual preference and colony demand (Calderone & Page, 1988). The consequence of such specializations is that labor is efficiently divided between specialized castes[2] and individuals for the benefit of accomplishing group tasks. In such a sense, specialization can be viewed as an adaptive mechanism in a complex adaptive system.

Many artificial collective behavior systems have used design principles which draw their inspiration from examples of specialization in nature. Such examples include complex ecological communities such as social insect colonies (Noirot & Pasteels, 1987), (Wenseleers et al., 2003), (Seligmann, 1999), (Calderone & Page, 1988), (Bonabeau et al., 1996), (Bonabeau, Sobkowski, Theraulaz, & Deneubourg, 1997), biological neural networks (Baev, 1997), multi-cellular organisms (Hawthorne, 2001), economies of a nation, companies, corporations and other business organizations (Resnick, 1997), (Abdel-Rahman, 2001), (Ng & Yang, 1997). Such biologically inspired design principles are especially prevalent in multi-robot (Potter, Meeden, & Schultz, 2001) swarm intelligence (Bonabeau, Dorigo, & Theraulaz, 1998) and artificial life systems (Nishimura & Takashi, 1997) where it is highly desirable to replicate the success of biological collective behavior systems.

Chapter Scope and Goals: Specialization as a Problem Solver

The chapters scope is a survey and critique of collective behavior systems designed using bottom-up methodologies (Brooks, 1990) and biologically inspired design principles that include *self-organization*, *learning* and *evolution*. Where, emergent specialization is utilized for the purpose of attaining a level of task performance that could not otherwise be attained without specialization. The nomenclature we use is *biologically inspired collective behavior systems*[3]. That is, distributed systems where specialization emerges as a property of a collective behavior that emerges concurrently as a result of system dynamics.

Another important issue is which type of specialization[4] should be instituted for the benefit of a collective behavior system. We have elected to only survey research literature concerned with *behavioral specialization*. The decision to adopt this focus was based on the discovery that with relatively few exceptions (section: *Types of Specialization*) the majority of research concerning the use of emergent specialization for improving task performance is restricted to simulated systems. This is so, given the obvious engineering challenges and inherent complexity of dynamically creating morphologically specialized robots and computer components, that represent effective solutions to emerging challenges in a physical task environment (Parker & Nathan, 2006), (Pfeifer, Iida, & Gomez, 2006), (Watson, Ficici, & Pollack, 1999b). Figure 1 presents the scope of the chapter within the dimensions of emergent phenomena and behavioral specialization. That is, the study of behavioral specialization within the context of emergent phenomena in collective behavior systems.

This chapter aims to present an argument for utilizing emergent behavioral specialization as a problem solving method in collective behavior systems. Such methods would be advantageous given the numerous real world applications where specialization is beneficial (section: *Collective Behavior Tasks and Specialization*). The chapter's argument is supported via research that has successfully used emergent specialization as a means of increasing task performance or responding to dynamically arising task challenges in simulated or physical environments.

Types of Specialization

Specialization in collective behavior systems has been studied from many different perspectives (Nolfi, Deneubourg, et al., 2003), (Campos, Theraulaz, Bonabeau, & Deneubourg, 2001), (Haynes & Sen, 1996), (Bongard, 2000), (Stone & Veloso, 2002), (Bryant & Miikkulainen, 2003), (Whiteson, Kohl, Miikkulainen, & Stone, 2003), (Blumenthal & Parker, 2004b) and is thus often defined in accordance with the goals of researchers conducting the study.

Within collective behavior literature, specialization is either studied as an emergent property of the system, or is explicitly pre-programmed into the systems components. With notable exceptions such as (Funes, Orme, & Bonabeau, 2003), there are few examples of research that successfully specifies, *a priori*, what exactly the behavior of system components should be, in order to produce a specifically desired, yet emergent collective behavior.

Non-Emergent Specialization

Non-emergent specialization is that which is explicitly pre-specified to be apart of the design of system components and global behavior of a system. Such approaches are either static, or utilize learning algorithms so as to ascertain which type of behavioral specialization, selected from a given set, is most appropriate for solving a given task. Such approaches are useful for solving collective behavior tasks that require specialization, where the degree of specialization required can be sufficiently described *a priori* (Arkin & Balch, 1999), (Balch, 2002a), (Balch, 2002b).

Emergent Specialization

Emergent specialization is that which emerges from the interaction of system components in response to a dynamic task that requires varying degrees, or types of specialization, in order to effectively accomplish. Such approaches have become popular in collective behavior task domains where one does not know, *a priori*, the degree of specialization required to optimally solve the given task (Stanley, Bryant, & Miikkulainen, 2005b), (Waibel, Floreano, Magnenat, & Keller, 2006), (Gautrais, Theraulaz, Deneubourg, & Anderson, 2002), (Potter et al., 2001), (Luke & Spector, 1996), (Theraulaz, Bonabeau, & Deneubourg, 1998b), (Murciano & Millan, 1997), (Murciano, Millan, & Zamora, 1997).

Morphological versus Behavioral Specialization

It is possible to further categorize specialization into two distinct classes: *morphological* (Martinoli, Zhang, Prakash, Antonsson, & Olney, 2002), (Zhang, Martinoli, & Antonsson, 2003) and *behavioral* (Li, Martinoli, & Mostafa, 2002), (Bonabeau et al., 1997).

The term *morphological specialization* is applicable to situated and embodied agents, operating in simulated or physical task environments, with embodiment (sensors and actuators) structured so as to yield an advantage in accomplishing the task (Watson et al., 1999b), (Watson, Ficici, & Pollack, 1999a), (Watson, Ficici, & Pollack, 2002). Examples of morphological specialization include the evolution of optimal arrangements of sensors and actuators in the design of simulated automobiles (Martinoli et al., 2002), (Zhang et al., 2003), evolution of agent morphologies and controllers for various forms of motion in simulated environments (Sims, 2004), evolution of physical electric circuits for control (Thompson, Harvey, & Husbands, 1996), and evolving robot morphology for accomplishing different forms of physical motion (Lipson & Pollack, 2000).

The term *behavioral specialization* is applicable to agents with behaviors that are advantageous for accomplishing specific types of tasks (Balch, 2002a), (Balch, 2002b), (Nolfi & Parisi, 1997), (Nolfi & Floreano, 2000). Examples of behavioral specialization include the use of machine learning methods that activate certain behaviors with a particular frequency as a response to dynamically arising tasks (Gautrais et al., 2002).

Collective Behavior Models of Specialization

There is some agreement amongst researchers as to the models of specialization that are appropriate for particular collective behavior tasks. The following is by no means an exhaustive set, but rather several examples that have recently received particular research attention.

Division of Labor Models

The use of behavioral threshold and division of labor models have been investigated within the context of ant-based (Deneubourg, Goss, Pasteels, Fresneau, & Lachaud, 1987) and resource allocation (Bonabeau et al., 1997) models. Such models typically utilize feedback signals given to agents of the same caste (Kreiger & Billeter, 2000), in order to encourage the emergence of specialization for a specific task. Many variations of these models exist (Bonabeau et al., 1998), (Deneubourg et al., 1987), (Bonabeau et al., 1997), (Robson & Traniello, 1999), (Bonabeau & Theraulaz, 1999), (Theraulaz, Goss, Gervet, & Deneubourg, 1991), (Theraulaz, Gervet, & Semenoff, 1991), (Bonabeau et al., 1996), including those that use evolutionary algorithms (Tarapore, Floreano, & Keller, 2006), (Waibel et al., 2006), and reinforcement learning models (Murciano & Millan, 1997), (Murciano et al., 1997) in order to derive threshold values. The goal of such models is typically to optimize global task performance. Such models are appealing as their evolutionary dynamics and emergent properties can usually be described with a mathematical representation and the results of such models are thus typically amenable to a mathematical analysis (Wu, Di, & Yang, 2003).

Mathematical, Economic and Game Theory Models

Linear, non-linear and dynamic models based in mathematical, economic and game theory (Axelrod, 1984), (Solow & Szmerekovsky, 2004) have many applications for resource assignment problems in business. For example, the maximum matching algorithm developed by (Edmonds, 1965), was designed to determine the maximum number of people that can be assigned to tasks in such a way that no person is assigned to more than one task. Thus, it is assumed that each person specializes in performing at most one task. Such models are advantageous as results can be subject to a formal analysis.

However, they are limited by their abstract nature, and assume that the task domain can be mathematically or otherwise formally represented.

Cooperative Co-Evolution Models

Cooperative co-evolution models have been implemented both in the context of modified genetic algorithms, for example, *Cooperative Co-evolutionary Genetic Algorithms* (Potter & DeJong, 2000), and in the context of neuro-evolution methods, for example, *Enforced Sub-Populations* (ESP) (Gomez, 1997). In both cases the genotype space is decomposed into a set of sub-populations, where each generation, the evolutionary process selects the best performing genotype components from each sub-population so as to construct a complete genotype as a solution. Decomposition of the genotype space into sub-populations, genotype construction from multiple sub-populations, and genotype to phenotype mapping depends upon the approach used. For example, the ESP method encodes separate neurons as genotype components to be distributed between sub-populations, where the composition of neurons encodes a complete neural network. Advantages of such models include their versatility, and applicability to a broad range of complex, continuous, and noisy task domains. Also, the representation of the genotype space as a set of sub-populations provides a natural representation for many collective behavior tasks, and often effectuates the derivation of specialized phenotypes. A key disadvantage of such approaches is slow derivation of viable solutions in complex task domains due to inherently large search spaces. Also, the genotype representations that produce desired results can typically not be easily interpreted.

Reinforcement Learning Models

There exists a certain class of reinforcement learning models that provide periodic feedback signals to agent groups attempting to accomplish a collective behavior task (Sutton & Barto, 1998). A reinforcement signal is either local or global. Local reinforcement signals are calculated by, and given to a single agent, or a caste, upon task accomplishment. Global reinforcement signals are calculated by and given to the entire agent group at the end of a reinforcement learning trial (Li, Martinoli, & Yaser, 2004). The main advantage of reinforcement learning approaches is that agents are able to effectively operate in complex and noisy environments, with incomplete information. However, approaches that utilize only a global reinforcement signal, do not typically effectuate specialization in the group, even if task performance could be increased with specialized agents (Li et al., 2002), (Li et al., 2004). Approaches that utilize local reinforcement signals have been demonstrated as being appropriate for deriving specialized agents (Li et al., 2004), (Li et al., 2004) however such approaches suffer from the credit assignment problem (Grefenstette, 1995), (Sutton & Barto, 1998) which potentially leads to sub-optimal collective behavior solutions.

Heterogenous versus Homogenous Design of Emergent Specialization

In collective behavior research, approaches to designing emergent specialization, usually adopt either *homogeneous* or *heterogeneous* methods for designing system components. Homogeneous approaches utilize a single agent behavior for every agent in a group of agents. Agent behavior may be encoded as one genotype representation, or in some cases simply defined by a given set of parameters which are copied for each agent in the group (Quinn, Smith, Mayley, & Husbands, 2003). Heterogeneous approaches utilize different behaviors for each agent in a group of agents. The set of different behaviors is sometimes encoded as different populations of genotypes, as in the case of cooperative co-evolutionary genetic algorithms (Parker, 2000). Alternatively, different agent behaviors may simply be represented as different sets of parameters (Campos et al., 2001).

Designing emergent specialization has been studied via specifying homogeneity versus heterogeneity within both the genotypes and phenotypes of individual agents as well as entire agent groups. Specialization is often closely associated with, and sometimes synonymous with, heterogeneity in collective behavior systems (Balch, 1998), (Potter et al., 2001). Heterogeneity can be hardwired or plastic, and may assume either behavioral (Bryant & Miikkulainen, 2003), (Whiteson et al., 2003), (Noirot & Pasteels, 1987) or morphological (Schultz & Bugajska, 2000), (Zhang et al., 2003), (O'Riain, Jarvis, Alexander, Buffenstein, & Peeters, 2000) forms. Plastic heterogeneity is when a group adapts its degree of heterogeneity as a function of environment and task constraints, where as, hardwired heterogeneity is when the degree of heterogeneity in the group remains static (Li et al., 2002).

Certain researchers have attempted to outline generalized guidelines as when to use either homogeneous or heterogenous design approaches. For example, (Balch, 1998) suggested that collective behavior task domains where all individuals are able to perform the task, such as collective gathering, are particularly suited for homogeneous design. Whilst, task domains that explicitly require complementary roles, such as RoboCup soccer, are more suitable for heterogeneous approaches. However such guidelines, as with studies of specialization, are usually defined according to the goals and perspectives of the researcher. Hence, one can readily find examples of when homogeneity and heterogeneity have been used in a manner incongruent to any given set of design principles or guidelines.

Homogeneous Approaches

In homogeneous approaches specialization is typically studied at the group level, since emergent specialization depends upon the local interactions of cloned behaviors. At the genotype level, the key advantage of a homogeneous approach is that the search space size is kept minimal since an algorithm need only optimize a single behavior. At the phenotype level, homogeneous groups are potentially more adaptive than heterogeneous groups at coping with the loss of group members. Also, homogenous groups typically have greater flexibility in coordinating behaviors so as to produce an effective collective behavior (Stone & Veloso, 1999). The key disadvantage of such approaches is that system homogeneity, either at the genotype or phenotype level, does not facilitate specialization, so it is likely that such collective behavior systems will converge to a non-specialized solution, even if specialization is advantageous in the given task domain.

Heterogeneous Approaches

Heterogeneous approaches typically study emergent specialization at either the local (agent) or global (entire group) level. The key advantage of heterogeneity is that it encourages and facilitates emergent specialization, both at the individual and group level. The key disadvantage of heterogeneous approaches is that the search space is usually (for complex tasks) prohibitively large comparative to homogeneous approaches, since many different agent behaviors need to be optimized or otherwise adapted for task accomplishment.

Collective Behavior Tasks and Specialization

In the design of collective behavior systems, it remains an open research question as to which task domains are most appropriately solved using specialization. However, there is some agreement amongst researchers that if the task can be naturally decomposed into a set of complementary sub-tasks then specialization is often beneficial for increasing collective task performance (Arkin, 1998), (Arkin & Balch, 1999), (Balch, 2002a), (Balch, 2002b). Examples of such collective behavior task domains include: *collective gathering* (Bonabeau et al., 1997), (Bonabeau et al., 1998), (Holldobler & Wilson, 1990), (Gotwald, 1995), (Noirot, 1990), (O'Riain et al., 2000), (Calderone & Page, 1988), (Huang & Robinson, 1996), (Bonabeau et al., 1996), (Waibel et al., 2006), (Perez-Uribe, Floreano, & Keller, 2003); *collective construction* (Theraulaz & Bonabeau, 1995), (Murciano & Millan, 1997); *resource assignment* and *distribution* (Bonabeau et al., 1997), (Campos et al., 2001); *predator prey* (Miller & Cliff, 1996), (Nishimura & Takashi, 1997); *pursuit-evasion* (Haynes & Sen, 1997); *collective herding* (Potter et al., 2001); *collective transport* (Kube & Bonabeau, 1999); *coordinated movement*

(Quinn et al., 2003), (Nolfi, Deneubourg, et al., 2003), (Bonabeau et al., 1998); *RoboCup soccer* (Kitano & Asada, 2000), (Stone & Veloso, 1999), (Luke, Farris, Jackson, & Hendler, 1998), (Luke & Spector, 1996), (Andre & Teller, 1999); *multi-agent computer games* (Revello & McCartney, 2002), (Stanley, Bryant, & Miikkulainen, 2005a), (Stanley, Bryant, Karpov, & Miikkulainen, 2006), (Bryant & Miikkulainen, 2003), (Stanley & Miikkulainen, 2002), (Cremer, Kearney, & Willemsen, 1997), (Wray, Laird, Nuxoll, Stokes, & Kerfoot, 2005), (Stanley et al., 2005b); *collective sensing, survey*, or *search* and *find tasks* (Brooks & Flynn, 1989), (Amat, Mantaras, & Sierra, 1995), (Thakoor, 2000), (Thakoor et al., 2003), (Kitano et al., 1999). Each of these task domains mandates some degree of collective behavior, where specialization is beneficial for improving task performance.

Collective Gathering and Construction Tasks

Cooperative gathering and *construction* tasks are based upon the social insect metaphor and have been studied in both simulated multi-agent and physical multi-robot systems, as well as artificial life simulations (Bonabeau et al., 1997), (Bonabeau et al., 1998), (Holldobler & Wilson, 1990), (Gotwald, 1995), (Noirot, 1990), (O'Riain et al., 2000), (Calderone & Page, 1988), (Huang & Robinson, 1996), (Bonabeau et al., 1996), (Waibel et al., 2006), (Perez-Uribe et al., 2003) (Bonabeau et al., 1996), (Bonabeau et al., 1997), (Theraulaz, Bonabeau, & Deneubourg, 1998a), (Waibel et al., 2006), (Campos et al., 2001), (Theraulaz et al., 1998b) (Bonabeau, Theraulaz, Arpin, & Sardet, 1994), (Deneubourg, Theraulaz, & Beckers, 1991), (Ijspeert, Martinoli, Billard, & Gambardella, 2001), (Mataric, 1997), (Kreiger & Billeter, 2000), (Murciano & Millan, 1997), (Bongard, 2000). Such studies typically draw inspiration from empirical evidence (Jeanne, 1991), (Karsai & Wenzel, 1998), (Karsai & Wenzel, 2000), (Traniello, 1978) and theoretical analyzes (Bourke, 1999), (Anderson & McShea, 2001) of biological social insect societies.

The collective gathering task domain requires that a group of agents search for, collect, and transport resources in the environment from their initial locations to some particular part of the environment. Such gathering tasks typically require that the group of agents allocate their labor efforts to particular sub-tasks so as to derive a collective behavior that maximizes the quantity of resources gathered[5]. Thus such tasks are typically viewed as optimization problems and have been traditionally studied with mathematical or otherwise analytical models (Theraulaz et al., 1998a), (Gautrais et al., 2002) (Bonabeau et al., 1996), (Bonabeau et al., 1996). Collective construction is typically viewed as an extension of the collective gathering task, in that it requires the agents to construct a particular structure, with gathered resources, at a home area of the environment. Specialization is typically required for building complex structures from many different types of component resources (Theraulaz & Bonabeau, 1995), (Murciano & Millan, 1997), (Murciano et al., 1997). Many researchers investigating collective gathering and construction tasks in the fields of artificial life and multi-robot systems have observed emergent specialized behavior, similar to that generally observed among eusocial insects[6].

Specialization in Multi-Agent Systems via Learning

(Murciano & Millan, 1997) and (Murciano et al., 1997) applied *Reinforcement*

Learning (RL) methods to a group of homogeneous agents operating in a discrete simulation environment, given a collective gathering task. The task mandated the utilization of specialized behavior, derived at the individual agent level, which facilitated the emergence of collective behaviors that were able to achieve an optimal, or near optimal, task performance.

The authors used a RL method that independently modified action selection parameters within the controller of each agent. The RL method used either *global* or *local* RL signals so as to effectuate the learning of specialized behaviors. Behavioral specialization took the form of an agent learning to consistently select one action from a set of possible actions. The global RL signal measured group performance, and the local RL signal measured individual performance. The global RL signal was given at the end of a RL trial, where the signal was equal for all agents in the group. The local RL signal was given to individual agents, where the signal was calculated in terms of the agents own successes or failures.

(Murciano et al., 1997) conducted experiments that tested the impact of local versus global RL signals upon the learning of specialized behaviors in a homogenous group of agents with no communication. The goal of these experiments was for agents to specialize via learning to gather specific object types so as to construct complex objects. Thus, when agents interacted an effective collective gathering and construction behavior emerged. Group task performance was measured as the number of complex objects assembled in a given RL trial.

In the same experimental setup (Murciano & Millan, 1997) conducted experiments that utilized only global RL signals for the purpose of facilitating emergent specialization within a homogeneous group of communicating agents. The task of individual agents and the group was to maximize the number of objects gathered over the course of a RL trial. The goal of experiments was for agents to specialize to different behaviors so as communication would facilitate the collective gathering of an optimal number of objects.

One criticism of the research of (Murciano et al., 1997), and (Murciano & Millan, 1997) derives from the use of RL signals in effectuating specialized behavior. Experimental results indicated that a global RL signal successfully motivated emergent specialization, given the assumption that all agents contribute equally to the task, and the signal was translated so as it could be meaningfully interpreted by each agent in a homogenous group. This casts doubt upon the applicability of global RL signals to heterogenous groups. Likewise, the applicability of local RL signals was not tested in complex task domains that provided more realistic simulations of multi-robot systems. The possibility of applying the RL method to facilitate specialization in continuous simulation and physical task domains seems unlikely given the sparse reinforcement limitations of global RL signals and the noisy nature of local RL signals (Sutton & Barto, 1998) that inhibit learning.

One aim of the research was to demonstrate that specialization emerges as a function of task constraints on the environment and agent group, irrespective of the type of reinforcement signal used. Achieving scalability in the learning of behavioral specialization is especially prevalent for tasks that require an increasing degree of heterogeneity, and complexity in collective behavior, as a response to dynamically emerging task challenges (Thakoor, 2000). However, the scalability of the RL method as a mechanism for encouraging behavioral specialization remains unclear since only two group sizes (10 and 30 agents), and a discrete environment of one size (54 x 54 grid cells) was tested. Also, the impact of more dynamic versions of the simulation environment upon the RL algorithm, were not tested. That is, only one redistribution of objects, during given RL trials, was tested.

Finally, the RL method assumed that the given task environment could be abstracted to the form of a multi-objective function which could be optimized. In this case the function was represented as a set of agent affinities that determined an agents propensity to adopt particular behavioral roles. This severely limited the applicability of the RL method to more general and complex task environments.

Learning Behavioral Specialization for Stick Pulling

The research of (Li et al., 2004) addressed the important issue of attempting to specify the concepts of heterogeneity and specialization in a formal definition, so as emergent heterogeneity and specialization[7] would be measurable within the larger context of collective behavior and distributed systems research. In a case study that compared centralized and distributed learning methods, the authors qualitatively measured the diversity and specialization of a simulated multi-robot system given a stick-pulling task that mandated specialized and cooperative behavior. One research goal was to investigate the impact of diversity, in the form of heterogeneity in behaviors, upon emergent specialization and in turn the impact of specialization on task performance.

In all experiments the authors presented a learning method that effectively operated within a multi-robot simulator, where specialization emerged as a function of task constraints and environmental conditions regardless of whether local or global reinforcement signals were used. The authors explanation for this result was that if behavioral diversity (heterogeneity) is beneficial to task performance, then the learning method facilitates emergent specialization as a means of taking advantage of this behavioral diversity.

The key criticism of this research is the dependency between emergent specialization and the learning method used, and consequently the methods applicability to more generalized optimization tasks. Results supported a hypothesis that if behavioral diversity in a group was beneficial to task performance, then specialization was likely to emerge and increase accordingly with behavioral diversity and task performance. However, these results largely depended upon the type of learning method, the model of the task environment, robot controller parameters that defined membership to a caste, and the task related parameters that the learning method sought to optimize. Thus, the degree to which emergent specialization, depended upon the underlying adaptation process, remains an open question. Also, the system designer needed to select task environment parameters for the learning method. This cast doubt upon the possibility of applying the learning method to more complex and dynamic task environments, where pertinent task environment parameters that the learning method would require in order to encourage diversity, specialization, and increased task performance, could not be identified *a priori*.

Furthermore, the number of castes composing a group was determined by the system designer and not by the adaptive process. Experiments that analyzed emergent caste formation would be necessary in order to effectively ascertain the relationship between heterogeneity, specialization and collective behavior task performance. An adaptive process where a particular number of castes emerges in response to simulation environment and task constraints, would make such a process applicable to complex task environments where task challenges dynamically arise.

Collective Resource Distribution and Allocation

In a series of research endeavors inspired by social insects (Bonabeau et al., 1996), (Bonabeau et al., 1997), (Theraulaz et al., 1998a), (Campos et al., 2001), (Theraulaz et al., 1998b), studied emergent specialization using response threshold models in simulations of homogenous agent groups that were implemented within the context of mathematical frameworks.

Division of Labor for Dynamic Task Allocation. (Theraulaz et al., 1998a) extended a previous formalization for the regulation of division of labor (Bonabeau et al., 1996) in simulated social insect colonies so as to include a *Reinforcement Learning* (RL) process. A formal variable response threshold model was implemented for purpose of facilitating emergent specialization in the form of division of labor.

The collective behavior goal was for agents to sufficiently satisfy numerous tasks in the environment. The model assumed that their were *m* tasks to be performed, where each of these tasks was associated with a *stimulus*. The stimulus for a given task increased if an insufficient number of agents were working upon the task, and decreased if too many agents were working upon the task. The model also assumed that each of *n* agents had a response threshold for a given task and its associated stimuli. An agent engaged in a given task with a probability determined by its response threshold. The more time an agent spent upon a given task, the lower the stimuli associated with that task. Assuming the other tasks were not being accomplished by other agents, the stimuli for these tasks would increase. Agent *i* was considered specialized if that agents response threshold for task *j* was low, where the stimuli associated with task *j* was a function of time spent upon the task by agent *i*. The authors used this model in order to empirically test several hypotheses regarding the allocation of specialized labor to tasks, and convergence to specialized roles as a function of task stimuli.

Results found that agents adjusted their activities so as to maintain the stimulus for a given task at a low level. This resulted in a division of labor at the group level such that each agent became specialized to a given task. The consequence was that an appropriate number of agents were allocated to each task for a sufficient time such that all tasks were optimally satisfied during the given simulation time. These results were validated in an experiment where specialized agents were removed for a variable amount of time, before being reintroduced into the group. The result was that the remaining agents in the group adapted their response thresholds so as to specialize to multiple tasks, including the tasks for which there was a deficiency, which was incurred by the agents removed. In their conclusions, the authors highlighted similarities between their results and observations made within biological social systems where specialist workers were dynamically allocated based upon sub-task demand within a collective behavior task (O'Donnell, 1998).

Division of Labor for Dynamic Flow Shop Scheduling. (Campos et al., 2001) introduced a division of labor model and applied it as a method for assigning resources within a dynamic flow shop scheduling task. The task entailed assigning trucks to paint booths in a factory, where trucks moved along an assembly line at a given pace. The color of a truck was predetermined by customer order. Three minutes was needed to paint a truck, but an additional three minutes was required if the color of a paint booth was to be changed for the truck. There was also a cost associated with paint changeover for a booth. A division of labor model was applied to minimize the number of such changeovers. Such paint fit-and-finish tasks are traditional bottleneck problems that can significantly reduce production throughput and thus require optimal solutions (Morley & Ekberg, 1998).

Response thresholds determined the probability of a given booth accepting a given unassigned truck to be painted. Response thresholds were regulated with respect to a global demand for each color, and the relative priorities of trucks exiting the assembly line. A genetic algorithm (Eiben & Smith, 2003) was employed to evolve the most appropriate response threshold for each paint booth. An agents fitness was measured as the total cost of paint booth changeovers. The genetic algorithm was tested on several different configurations of the task, which included different distributions of paint colors, various probabilities that paint booths would become inoperable, and different rates with which trucks would exit the assembly line.

The result of this evolutionary process was that response thresholds were adapted such that each paint booth specialized to a given color. Results were compared with a market-based approach for solving the task. It was highlighted that the division of labor model performed significantly better in terms of minimizing the number of paint booth changeovers and maximizing the number of trucks painted. One conclusion was that the comparatively higher performance of the division of labor model resulted from paint booths specializing to particular colors. However, the focus of the research was to highlight that a biologically inspired division of labor model could optimally solve such a dynamic scheduling and resource allocation task.

Division of Labor as a Function of Group Size. (Gautrais et al., 2002) implemented a variable response threshold model to demonstrate that increasing agent group size, and demand for tasks generated specialized agents. As with previous research (Theraulaz et al., 1998b), (Theraulaz et al., 1998a), (Bonabeau et al., 1996) the response threshold model provided each agent in a group with an internal threshold for activating a particular behavior. Each agents response threshold was influenced by the level of demand for a particular task, and agents allocated themselves so as to satisfy demand for these tasks.

Experiments used two tasks, and it was assumed that each task was encountered with an equal probability. Experiments tested various group sizes and task demands. All agents were initially given the same unspecialized behavior. That is, a response threshold value with an equal predisposition to each task. The authors found that specialization emerged only when a critical group size was reached. Groups smaller than this critical size consisted of unspecialized agents, where as, groups larger than the critical size contained both active specialized agents and inactive unspecialized agents. Results demonstrated not only the emergence of specialized agents given a large enough group size, but also the emergence of elitism, which increased collective behavior performance. Elitism was the case where some agents performed a disproportionately large percentage of group labor. These findings were corroborated by similar findings in empirical theoretical biology studies (Chen, 1937b), (Chen, 1937a), (Robson & Traniello, 1999), (Bourke, 1999), (Jeanne, 1986), (Karsai & Wenzel, 1998), (Karsai & Wenzel, 2000). The authors main conclusion was that their response threshold model demonstrated emergent specialization to be function of group size in the given resource allocation task, where group sizes exceeding a critical threshold value contained specialized agents, and group sizes below the critical threshold value contained only unspecialized agents.

Division of Labor for a Postal Service. (Bonabeau et al., 1997) modeled emergent specialization in the form of a division of labor algorithm that regulated the distribution and allocation of resources to tasks in an agent group. The research was based on a model of response thresholds and division of labor in a eusocial species of wasps (Robinson, 1987), (Robinson, 1992), (Robinson & Page, 1988), (Page & Robinson, 1991). As in related research (Theraulaz, Gervet, & Semenoff, 1991), each agent implemented a set of response thresholds, where each threshold was associated with a specific task. Reinforcement learning adapted response thresholds such that the more an agent performed a task, the lower its response threshold for that task, and vice-versa. The authors implemented their adaptive task allocation algorithm within the context of a mail retrieval and distribution task. The task was implemented as a discrete grid, which represented a large city. Agents had to gather resources, representing letters, according to local demand, from one location and deliver them to another location within a given amount of time. It was therefore the goal of the algorithm to allocate agents to various local demands that dynamically arose, so as to minimize global demand. At every simulation iteration, demand increased by a given amount in randomly selected grid cells.

Experiments examined the affect of removing specialized agents. That is those agents dedicated to gathering from, and delivering to specific locations. Results found that if one specialized agent was removed, then another agent lowered its response threshold with respect to the location of the removed agent, so as to become newly specialized for that location. However, if two agents specialized for given locations were removed this caused the global demand to become too high, meaning that each agent necessarily became specialized to multiple locations. As a result response thresholds oscillated over time, as agents dynamically switched between gathering and delivering at different locations. The authors argued that such results were indicative of the flexibility and robustness of the algorithm. The authors illustrated that the results showed a remarkable agreement with results yielded from biological studies of response thresholds and dynamic task allocation in ant colonies (Wilson, 1985).

Division of Labor Models for Collective Resource Distribution and Allocation: Overall Comments and Criticisms. Such response threshold models represent a very simple, yet powerful, self-regulating feedback system that assigns the appropriate numbers of agents to different tasks. It is obvious that the study of such biologically inspired formalizations of specialization are worthy of future research attention given their applicability to a broad range of optimization tasks including dynamic scheduling and resource allocation. The models of (Theraulaz et al., 1998a), (Campos et al., 2001), (Gautrais et al., 2002), (Bonabeau et al., 1997) were prevalent in that they eloquently demonstrated how behavioral specialization emerged as a result of self-regulating task assignment and accomplishment, for which there exists a large amount of corroborating biological literature and empirical evidence (Chen, 1937b), (Chen, 1937a), (Robson & Traniello, 1999), (Deneubourg et al., 1987), (Theraulaz, Gervet, & Semenoff, 1991), (O'Donnell, 1998).

The main appeal of this set of research examples was their successful modeling of specialized behavior in the form a set of equations. These equations were successfully applied as a method for regulating the specialization of agents to specific tasks, in order to optimally accomplish a collective behavior task. However, in many cases the adaptive nature of response threshold regulation was never tested for more than one group or environment size, and more than two tasks. Also, the removal of specialized agents to test the adaptation process was limited to two agents. This was an important aspect of the adaptive nature of response thresholds, since if task allocation becomes too dynamic, or oscillatory, it is conceivable that the advantages of specialization could be lost as an agent spends all of its time switching between tasks, and consequently never dedicates enough time to accomplish a given task.

In each case, a simple set of experiments illustrated the importance and necessity of utilizing models of biological social behavior as a step towards understanding such social behavior, and then applying the underlying techniques, namely response thresholds, as a means of designing problem solving methods for optimization tasks. The main advantage of division of labor models is their eloquence and simplicity of formal specification. Also, such models yield results that are amenable to a mathematical or formal analysis. However, such models are also limited to task domains that can be completely represented via the mechanics of a mathematical model. This makes the contributions of such models limited to optimization tasks that can be formally represented, or to supporting empirical results evident in related biological literature.

Multi-Agent Computer Games

The application of biologically inspired methods to multi-agent computer games (Fogel, Hays, & Johnson, 2004), (Laird & vanLent, 2000) has recently achieved particular success and gained popularity. For example, there has been particular research interest in the creation of adaptive interactive multi-agent first-person shooter games (Cole, Louis, & Miles, 2004), (Hong & Cho, 2004), (Stanley et al., 2005b), as well as strategy games (Bryant & Miikkulainen, 2003), (Revello & McCartney, 2002), (Yannakakis, Levine, & Hallam, 2004) using artificial evolution and learning as design methods for agent behavior. Research work has primarily focused on the derivation of game playing multi-agent strategies, using either online or off-line adaptation methods in both continuous and discrete multi-agent games (Agogino, Stanley, & Miikkulainen, 2000), (Bryant & Miikkulainen, 2003), (Stanley & Miikkulainen, 2004), (Moriarty & Miikkulainen, 1995), (Moriarty & Miikkulainen, 1996), (Richards, Moriarty, McQuesten, & Miikkulainen, 1997).

However, the study of specialized game playing behaviors, in teams of agents, has received relatively little research attention. Specialization is beneficial since it is often necessary for teams of agents to formulate collective behavior solutions in order to effectively challenge a human player, where an increasingly difficult level of agent performance is expected as game time progresses.

Legion-I: Neuro-Evolution for Adaptive Teams

(Bryant & Miikkulainen, 2003) utilized the *Enforced Sub-Populations* (ESP) neuro-evolution method (Gomez, 1997) for the derivation of collective behavior in a multi-agent strategy game called *Legion-I*. The research hypothesis was that a team of homogeneous agents, where agents were capable of adopting different behavioral roles would be advantageous in terms of task performance, comparative to heterogeneous groups, composed of agents with static complementary behaviors.

These experiments highlighted the effectiveness of the ESP method for deriving a dynamic form of emergent behavioral specialization motivated by division of labor. Results supported the hypothesis that for the Legion game, a homogenous team, where individuals could dynamically switch between specialized behaviors was effective.

However, the analysis of emergent specialization was only at a behavioral level, so one could not readily ascertain the relationship between behavioral specialization and the evolved genotypes responsible for such behaviors. This would make an exploration of the mechanisms responsible for emergent specialization resulting from division of labor problematic. The task environment used a discrete simulation environment popular in multi-agent strategy games, but this was not sufficiently complex or dynamic in order to adequately test and support suppositions stating the advantages of behavioral specialization in homogenous teams. Also, the task performance of homogenous groups was not compared with heterogenous groups. Valuable insight into the capabilities of homogenous versus heterogenous agent groups for facilitating emergent specialization, could be gained by a comparison between groups represented by one neural controller, versus each agent within a group being represented by a different neural controller.

NERO: Neuro-Evolution of Augmenting Topologies

(Stanley et al., 2005b), (Stanley et al., 2006), (Stanley et al., 2005a) introduced a neuro-evolution method for the online evolution of neural controllers that operated in the context of an interactive multi-agent computer game called *Neuro-Evolving Robotic Operatives* (NERO). NERO is a first-person perspective shooter game, where a human player competes with teams of agents, and agents compete against each other. The rtNEAT neuro-evolution method was used for evolving increasing complex agent neural controllers using a process known as *complexification*. This was an extension of the *Neuro-Evolution of Augmenting Topologies* (NEAT) method (Stanley & Miikkulainen, 2002) that operated using online evolution. The authors demonstrated the effectiveness of the rtNEAT method for dynamically adapting agent controllers within a team playing against other agent teams or a human player in real time. Agent game playing behavior became increasingly sophisticated over successive generations as a result of changing neural network topological structure as well as evolving network connection weights.

As an extension of the NEAT method, rtNEAT used online evolution to yield impressive results in terms of facilitating effectively competitive collective behaviors in the game playing time of NERO. The NEAT and rtNEAT methods successfully implemented a speciated representation of the genotype space, and a distance measure for genotype similarities, that provided a clear method for relating observed behaviors with a given set of genotypes.

However, the specialized controllers evolved were primarily determined by a training phase of NERO. Agent teams evolved specializations that were suitable for a given environment. Given that simulation environments were the same for both training and a subsequent battle phase, it remains unclear how suitable evolved teams would be for generalized collective behavior games. The true potential and beneficial nature of the rtNEAT method for evolving specialized behaviors in an online evolutionary process, for purpose of increasing team task performance, was not tested in other simulated multi-robot task domains. In realistic collective behavior tasks where the environment is dynamic and its structure and layout are not known *a priori*, training phases would only be partially effective since controllers trained in a simulation of the environment would simply be representing a best guess behavior. Currently, it remains unclear if rtNEAT could be successfully applied to collective behaviors tasks where there is a significant disparity between a training simulation and a subsequent *actual simulation* (called the battle phase in NERO). Such an issue is especially prevalent if online evolution of controllers is to eventually be applied for accomplishing multi-robot tasks, with time and energy constraints, in dynamic and complex physical task environments.

RoboCup Soccer

A distinct relation to multi-agent game research is RoboCup (Kitano & Asada, 2000). RoboCup is a research field dedicated to the design and development of multi-robot systems for the purpose of playing a robotic form of soccer. It is widely recognized as a specific test bed for machine learning algorithms, and engineering challenges (Noda & Stone, 2001). The very nature of the RoboCup game demands the existence of several types of behavioral specialization, in the form of different player roles. Such behaviors must be complementary and able to interact in such a way so as to produce a desired global behavior. That is, a team strategy that wins the game in a competitive scenario. Several researchers have focused on machine learning, evolutionary computation, and neuro-evolution methods that derive task accomplishing collective behaviors within groups of two or three soccer agents. Although, specialized behaviors of individual soccer agents was either specified *a priori* or was derived in simplistic game scenarios (Matsubara, Noda, & Hiraki, 1996), (Stone & Veloso, 2002), (Stone & Veloso, 1998a), (Stone & Veloso, 1998b), (Whiteson et al., 2003), (Hsu & Gustafson, 2001), (Hsu & Gustafson, 2002), (Luke et al., 1998). Each of these research examples has been critiqued elsewhere (Nitschke, 2005), from the perspective of emergent cooperative behavior. Each is an example of the essential role of behavioral specialization, emergent or otherwise, for facilitating effective collective game playing behaviors.

Predator-Prey and Collective Herding Behaviors

The investigation of emergent specialization remains a relatively unexplored area of research in the pursuit-evasion domain (Miller & Cliff, 1996), the collective herding variation (Potter et al., 2001), as well as more traditional predator-prey systems (McCauley, Wilson, & deRoos, 1993), (Nishimura & Takashi, 1997). The research of (Haynes & Sen, 1996) and (Yong & Miikkulainen, 2001) which specifically investigated the contribution and advantages of emergent specialization in prey-capture tasks that mandate cooperative behavior, have been reviewed in related work (Nitschke, 2005), and are thus not included here.

Evolving pursuit-evasion behavior with hexapod robots

(Blumenthal & Parker, 2004b), (Blumenthal & Parker, 2004c), (Blumenthal & Parker, 2004a) expanded previous work via combining a *Punctuated Anytime Learning* (Parker, 2000), (Blumenthal & Parker, 2006) method with an evolutionary algorithm within a co-evolution scenario. Although not the main research focus, this work addressed the issue of using morphological differences in agents in order to effectuate the derivation of behavioral specialization, and consequently a collective prey-capture behavior. The co-evolution scenario operated within a simulated multi-robot system of five hexapod robots where the goal was to derive an effective prey-capture behavior within four predator robots, and a predator-evasion behavior within one prey robot.

This study effectively illustrated the derivation of prey-capture behavior based upon specialized behaviors that utilized differences in simulated hexapod robot morphology. Such as, the least maneuverable robot adopting a passive defensive position, whilst the fastest and most maneuverable robots adopted proactive pursuit behaviors. However, the morphological differences between the robots were simple, leading one to speculate that a higher degree of complexity in specialized behavior may have emerged if differences in sensors and controller structure were included along with a greater disparity in actuator capabilities. Also, the prey was always initially placed at the center of the simulation environment, which made it easier for predators to form an effective prey capture behavior, and influenced the types of prey-capture behaviors that could emerge. Though not explicitly stated as a being a goal of this research, a valuable contribution to this research, would have been a methodological study that described a mapping or set of principles linking types of sensor and actuator capabilities to resulting forms of emergent behavioral specialization. Such a study could potentially form the basis of multi-robot system design methodologies that use evolution and learning mechanisms that capitalize on morphology in order to produce desired collective behaviors for solving a given task.

Evolving predator-prey strategies in the Serengeti world

(Luke & Spector, 1996) investigated the application of three different Genetic Programming (GP) methods and three team coordination methods for the evolution of collective prey-capture behaviors in a predator-prey simulation environment. GP was used to evolve predator groups where the genotype of each each group was represented as a single GP tree. Branches of the GP tree represented individual predators, and thus potentially their individual behavioral specializations. Thus, the performance of any one group member was greatly influenced by other group members. The authors comparatively tested homogeneous and heterogeneous GP breeding approaches, where heterogeneity and homogeneity was defined in terms of GP breeding strategies. In both cases a single population of GP trees was used. However, the homogeneous approach used a single GP tree to represent each predator in a group. Genotype populations under the homogenous approach were attained by cloning the single GP tree n times, where as the heterogenous approach constructed n GP trees via recombining corresponding parts of different GP trees. Two different kinds of breeding strategies were tested for heterogeneous teams. *Free Breeding* allowed any GP tree (predator group) to freely breed with any other GP tree (predator group). *Restricted Breeding* dictated that a specific predator (part of a GP tree) could only breed with the corresponding part of another GP tree (a predator in another group). This breeding strategy did not take advantage of the diversity inherent in a GP tree representation of a predator group, but took advantage of any individual predator specialization represented by GP tree branches.

The key criticism to be drawn from this research is that the evolution of heterogenous teams hinged upon the size of the GP tree. In this case, heterogeneity was defined by different parts of a GP tree representing different behaviorally specialized group members. That is, the emergence of specialization within a group, depended upon the GP tree representing the group having enough genetic diversity. Whilst it was advantageous in terms of computational time and complexity to utilize only a single population of genotypes (GP trees). This limited the likelihood that specialization would emerge and limited the complexity of emergent specialization, and hence prey-capture behaviors.

In the heterogenous design approach several group members were represented in a single GP tree. This closely linked the contributions of one group member to all others, and in turn affected the contributions of other group members, making it difficult for the evolutionary process to isolate and distinguish good and specialized parts of a solution. Hence, it remains unclear if this heterogenous design approach would be applicable for deriving specialized behavior in other collective behavior task environments, or in a more complex predator-prey tasks that included obstacles or an adaptive prey behavior.

Evolving herding behavior in a multi-robot system

The research of (Potter et al., 2001) investigated the evolution of homogeneous versus heterogeneous controllers within a simulated multi-robot system that was given a collective herding task. A group of Nomad 200s were simulated within the *TeamBots* simulator (Balch, 1998). The research hypothesis was that as task difficulty increased, heterogeneity and specialization become essential for successful task accomplishment. Heterogeneity was defined as the number of different behaviors one robot could select from, as well as the number of behaviors in the group. This hypothesis was tested with experiments that introduced a predator into the environment. The goal was to encourage the emergence of specialized defensive behaviors in addition to herding behaviors.

Experiments effectively illustrated that emergent behavioral specialization, for the benefit of collective behavior task performance, could be facilitated in a heterogenous team of agents. Furthermore, results supported a hypothesis that constructing a collective behavior task such that multiple behaviors are required, increases the need for heterogeneity, and in turn specialization. However, the inducement of emergent specialization via increasing the number of behaviors required, and not simply task complexity, was only investigated within a single case study.

The key criticism lies in the comparison of homogenous and heterogenous groups for deriving collective herding behaviors. Particularly, it is unclear why the authors opted to use only two genotype populations to represent a group of three shepherds in the heterogenous design approach. The impact of homogeneity and heterogeneity on emergent specialization was not validated with larger groups of shepherds. Also, only one increment in the complexity of the task environment was tested. That is, the addition of the predator to the collective herding task. Complete validation of the authors hypothesis that specialization emerges not as a consequence of task complexity, but rather as a result of the number of behaviors required to solve the task, would require several comparative case studies. Such studies would need to test tasks of varying degrees of difficulty versus tasks that require numerous complementary, and potentially specialized behaviors. Such a comprehensive study would yield a valuable contribution to ones understanding of the relation between heterogeneous and homogenous design approaches, task performance, task complexity, and emergent specialization.

Moving in Formation and Cooperative Transportation Tasks

Certain collective behavior research endeavors, mainly in the fields of artificial life and multi-robot systems, have aimed to model and reproduce various forms of social phenomena that are observable in biological systems (Reynolds, 1987), (Zaera, Cliff, & Bruten, 1996). Coordinated movement and cooperative transport is sometimes studied within the context of a gathering task, and has been studied separately in both physical and simulated environments. Cooperative transport is inspired by biological prey retrieval models, which present many examples of the value of specialization, such as the pushing versus pulling behaviors exhibited in stigmatic coordination that allows several ants to transport a large prey (Kube & Bonabeau, 1999). Such inspiration was used by the research of (Dorigo et al., 2004), (Nolfi, Baldassarre, & Parisi, 2003) which described the evolution of coordinated motion, and self-assembly in a simulated multi-robot system for the purpose of cooperatively transporting objects. Similarly, the research of (Nolfi, Baldassarre, & Parisi, 2003) described the evolution of particular group formations in a simulated multi-robot system, which allowed efficient forms of coordinated group movement across an environment towards a light or sound source. The research of (Baldassarre, Nolfi, & Parisi, 2003), (Dorigo et al., 2004), (Nolfi, Baldassarre, & Parisi, 2003) has been reviewed in related work (Nitschke, 2005), from the perspective of emergent cooperation, and is thus not comprehensively described here.

Conclusions and Future Directions

In drawing conclusions for this chapter, it is important to note that the chapters goal was not to present an exhaustive list of research relating to emergent specialization, but rather to identify and present a set of pertinent research examples that used biologically inspired design approaches for the purpose of facilitating emergent behavioral specialization. Such research examples were selected based upon results that indicated emergent behavioral specialization as being beneficial for solving collective behavior tasks. Many collective behavior task domains were highlighted throughout the chapter, however, research examples were selected for review from *collective gathering and construction*, *collective resource distribution and allocation*, *pursuit-evasion*, *collective herding*, and *multi-agent computer games*.

Consequent of a review of this prevalent literature, two distinct forms of specialization were identified. The first was termed *behavioral* and was defined by specific functionality in an agents controller which dictated an agents motor actuated output in response to its sensory inputs. The second was termed *morphological* and was defined by specific functionality in an agents sensors and actuators. However, chapter scope was limited to *emergent behavioral specialization*. Specifically, the chapter was concerned with behavioral diversity that emerges as a result of agents in a collective behavior system attempting to accomplish a common task.

The binding theme of the chapter argued, that the majority of collective behavior research is currently analyzed and evaluated from empirical data gathered and emergent behavioral specialization observed, without analytical methods for identifying the means and cause of emergent specialization. That is, a lack of principled design methodologies that would yield the advantage and contribution of allowing researchers to construct collective behavior systems so as to motivate desired forms of emergent specialization and thus use it as a problem solver.

Another common theme of the literature reviewed, was that the use of biologically inspired concepts which included evolution, self-organization, and learning as design methods is still in a phase of research infancy. Consequently, emergent specialization derived using such biologically inspired design concepts is currently constrained to simple forms, dictated by the limitations of equally simple collective behavior systems.

Given this general evaluation of the literature, it was possible to identify several unresolved issues that inhibit the development of biologically inspired design methods for synthesizing emergent specialization which could be applied as a problem solver in collective behavior tasks.

First, it was evident that many researchers deem the simulation of collective behavior systems to be an effective approach for investigating emergent behavioral specialization, given that simulations provide a convenient means for studying the conditions under which specialization emerges. For example, the effects of parametric changes can be observed in a relatively short space of time. However, with notable exceptions, such as *SwarmBots* (Dorigo et al., 2004) the identification and transference of mechanisms motivating emergent specialization observed in simulation to counter-part algorithms operating in physical collective behavior systems, such as multi-robot systems, is not yet plausible. In the case of *SwarmBots* (Dorigo et al., 2004), a simple task environment made the transference to a physical environment possible, and emergent specialization was not necessarily a problem solver for dynamic challenges in the environment, but rather a solution to a given task that was emergent but not necessarily desired.

Second, in the pertinent research examples reviewed, the complete potential of biologically inspired design, and the advantages of emergent specialization were not always effectively exploited. For example, many collective behavior systems, with notable exceptions such as division of labor models applied to optimization tasks (Bonabeau et al., 1997), were simply attempting to synthesize emergent specialization, or to demonstrate the veracity of concepts such as self-organization, learning, and evolution for deriving novel agent behaviors. Such concepts were rarely applied to the formulation of design methods that aimed to derive emergent specialization as a means of increasing task performance or addressing accomplishing unforseen challenges in collective behavior tasks.

Third, there is currently no standardized benchmark or research test-bed for testing, interpreting, evaluating, and classifying emergent specialized behavior. RoboCup was included as an honorable mention in the chapter, given that it provides an effective platform for testing and evaluating various forms of collective and individual behavior, emergent or otherwise, implemented either within an agent simulator or a physical multi-robot system. That is, collective behavior is simply evaluated within a competitive game scenario, so collective behavior performance is determined according to the evaluation criteria of the game. Another exception is collective gathering and dynamic scheduling in distributed systems, which can be represented as optimization tasks. In this case, standardized benchmarks exist in the form of performance results yielded by classical adaptive approaches. This makes the results of biologically inspired and classical methods to such tasks comparable. However, with exceptions such as (Bonabeau et al., 1997), and (Theraulaz & Bonabeau, 1995) many optimization tasks do not benefit from the use of emergent behavioral specialization. Thus, the testing, interpretation, and evaluation of emergent specialized behavior within the context of collective behavior systems, is currently conducted according to the performance benchmarks of the researchers own experimental simulation platform. This means that the experimental results can only be compared within the context of their own simulation environment. The development of methods and principles for the design emergent specialization that could be equally applied to physical collective behavior systems would remove this critical constraint.

Given these open research problems, one may conclude that if the notion of emergent specialization as a problem solver within collective behavior tasks is to gain any maturity and credibility, then collective behavior systems must be built upon design principles or a methodologies that effectuate emergent behavioral specialization for the benefit of collective behavior. Ideally, such principles and methodologies must be proven for convergence to desired forms of collective behavior (achieved as a consequence of emergent specialization), scalable and transferable to a counterpart situated and embodied collective behavior task environment. However, the existence of the open research problems described herein is both understandable and justifiable given the preliminary nature of most collective behavior research that aims to use emergent behavioral specialization as a means to solve, or improve task performance.

However, it is evident from the research examples reviewed, that many different forms of behavioral specialization have been successfully derived within the context of collective behavior systems using concepts such as learning and evolution as ad hoc design methods. As a logical progression, if emergent specialized behavior is to be used as a means of adapting to and deriving solutions to complex and dynamic task challenges in both simulated and physical collective behavior systems, such as envisioned for swarm robotic systems (Beni, 2004), then future research is obliged to look towards addressing open problems delineated from current collective behavior research results.

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Footnotes

[1] Examples of complex adaptive systems include social insect colonies, biological neural networks, traffic jams, economies of a nation, as well as industrial infrastructures such as energy and telecommunications networks (Resnick, 1997). We deem intelligent complex systems to be a subset of complex systems where autonomous software (simulated) or physically embodied (robots) agents operate in order to solve a given task.

[2] The terms *task*, *activity*, *role*, and *caste* are defined as follows. Task: what has to be done; Activity: what is being done; Role: the task assigned to an individual within a set of responsibilities given to a group of individuals; Caste: a group of individuals specialized in the same role (Kreiger & Billeter, 2000).

[3] The terminology *biologically inspired artificial social system* and *collective behavior system* is used interchangeably throughout the chapter.

[4] Various definitions for numerous types of specialization have been proposed across a broad range of disciplines. In *The Wealth of Nations* (Smith, 1904) Adam Smith described economic specialization in terms of division of labor. Specifically stating that in industrialism, division of labor represents a qualitative increase in productivity, and regarded its emergence as the result of a dynamic engine of economic progress. Smith viewed specialization by workers as leading to greater skill and greater productivity for given tasks, which could not be achieved by non-specialized workers attempting to accomplish those same tasks.

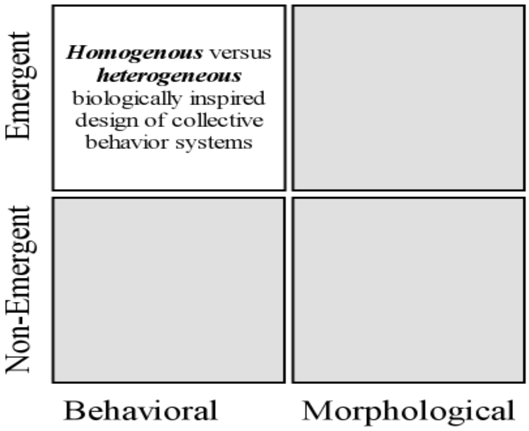
[5] The allocation of agent labor within a group of agents is analogous to resource allocation which derives from economic and game theory studies (Axelrod, 1984). Such studies attempt to derive models that efficiently allocate a limited amount of resources so as to accomplish a given task with the highest degree of performance possible.

[6] The term eusocial describes the most highly developed form of animal societies, such as those of colonial ants, termites, wasps, and bees. Typically there is extensive division of labor and cooperation, with various castes specializing in particular tasks, such as food-gathering, defense, or tending to the young (Dictionary, 2000).

[7] Heterogeneity, and hence behavioral diversity, was defined as the number of castes in the group, and specialization was the part of diversity that was required to increase task performance.

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Types of Specialization in Biologically Inspired Collective Behavior Systems. The top left-hand side quadrant defines the scope of this chapter. Specifically, adaptive systems that use heterogenous or homogenous design approaches with the aim of deriving emergent behavioral specialization for solving collective behavior tasks. See section *Types of Specialization* for details.



	Behavioral	Morphological
Emergent	***Homogenous*** versus ***heterogeneous*** biologically inspired design of collective behavior systems	
Non-Emergent		