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How cognitive and environmental constraints influence the reliability of simulated animats in groups

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Abstract

16 Evolving in groups can either enhance or reduce an individual's task performance. Still, 17 we know little about the factors underlying group performance, which may be reduced to 18 three major dimensions: (a) the individual's ability to perform a task, (b) the dependency on 19 environmental conditions, and (c) the perception of, and the reaction to, other group 20 members. In our research, we investigated how these dimensions interrelate in simulated 21 evolution experiments using adaptive agents equipped with Markov brains ("animats"). We 22 evolved the animats to perform a spatial-navigation task under various evolutionary setups. 23 The last generation of each evolution simulation was tested across modified conditions to 24 evaluate and compare the animats' reliability when faced with change. Moreover, the 25 complexity of the evolved Markov brains was assessed based on measures of information 26 integration. We found that, under the right conditions, specialized animats were as reliable 27 as animats already evolved for the modified tasks, that interaction between animats was 28 dependent on the environment and on the design of the animats, and that the task difficulty 29 influenced the correlation between the performance of the animat and its brain complexity. 30 Generally, our results suggest that the interrelation between the aforementioned dimensions 31 is complex and their contribution to the group's task performance, reliability, and brain 32 complexity varies, which points to further dependencies. Still, our study reveals that 33 balancing the group size and individual cognitive abilities prevents over-specialization and 34 can help to evolve better reliability under unknown environmental situations.

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Keywords: Collective behavior, evolutionary algorithms, cognitive science, Markov brains.

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Author Summary

The ability to adapt to environmental changes is an essential attribute of organisms which 37 38 have had evolutionary success. We designed a simulated evolution experiment to better 39 understand the relevant features of such organisms and the conditions under which they 40 evolve: First, we created diverse groups of cognitive systems by evolving simulated 41 organisms ("animats") acting in groups on a spatial-navigation task. Second, we post-42 evolutionary tested the final evolved animats in new environments-not encountered before-43 in order to test their reliability when faced with change. Our results imply that the ability to 44 generalize to environments with changing task demands can have complex dependencies on 45 the cognitive design and sensor configuration of the organism itself, as well as its social or 46 environmental conditions.

47 Introduction

48 Intelligence is the ability to adapt to changes. According to this prevalent perspective, 49 possessing general intelligence [1,2] not only enables one to perform a task correctly under 50 already known conditions, but also to perform well under unexpected conditions. Further, in 51 natural environments intelligent behavior is not only dependent on the (maybe limited) 52 intelligence of the individual organism, but also involves interactions with the social and 53 physical environment [3-5]. In addition to the examples from the animal world, it is also true 54 in *high-reliability organizations* (e.g., aircraft carrier or nuclear power plants) that individual 55 behavior is interrelated with the behavior of the group members. This is necessary to be able 56 to act correctly in case of an unforeseen event [6-8].

57 While it seems intuitive that there is a triangular relationship between the individual, the 58 group, and the environment, we discovered a lack of research on how individual behavior 59 and group behavior are interrelated and depend on spatial attributes of the environment [9].

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This limits our understanding of how an individual actor evolves intelligent behavior and how its physiological abilities, the social setting, and the environment constrain this evolution. More generally, several studies have investigated intelligence and knowledge on the group level, and some have modelled groups of individuals as single agents (e.g., [10– 14]). These studies have their origins in a variety of disciplines and have in common that they seek to elucidate the dynamics between group members.

66 To shed more light on the above-mentioned issue, we wanted to ask which conditions 67 can promote the evolution of intelligent entities that act in organized groups and can 68 additionally adapt to environmental changes under simplified conditions in a simulated 69 evolution experiment. Inspired and motivated by Pinter-Wollman et al. [9], we wanted to 70 investigate how the behavior and performance of evolved "animats" (simulated agents with 71 cognitive abilities [15,16]) varies in different task conditions, such as changes in the 72 proportions of static objects, dynamic objects (group members), and individual cognitive 73 abilities. This simulation enabled us to manipulate and observe three dimensions which might 74 influence task performance and reliability: the group size, the animats' physiology, and the 75 environmental design. In this study, reliability describes the ability to perform well under 76 manipulated task conditions that the animat had not been confronted with before.

77 We used a genetic algorithm to let the animats' behavior evolve under various 78 evolutionary setups. Specifically, the animats were controlled by Markov brains (MBs) [16], 79 which consisted of computational units whose functions and connectivity were determined 80 by the animats' adaptive genome. The animats' task was to navigate through a two-81 dimensional world composed of multiple rooms without colliding with other group members 82 (see Fig 1). There was a small penalty for each collision and a large reward for crossing gates 83 between rooms. After an evolution of 10,000 generations, we tested the final animats under 84 modified task conditions modeled as: a variation in group size, the complexity of the static

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obstacles in the environment, and interaction rules between animats constraining fitness for
the task. An animat was considered reliable if its task performance remained high across
many of these test conditions.

Fig 1. Average movement patterns of six selected conditions. The panel on the left shows the twodimensional environment including two rooms with 36 start positions occupied (round dots). The other six panels show example movement patterns. Dark fields indicate high occupancy, and light fields indicate low occupancy in the corresponding position throughout the trial. Generally, wellperforming animat groups evolve a wall following strategy. (EF) indicates the average fitness of the final generation in the specific condition.

94 A predecessor study focused on the influence of group size on the evolution of group 95 fitness and reliability [17], while the present work extends the reliability experiments, 96 includes cognitive and environmental variations in the evolutionary setup, and elaborates the 97 measurement of brain complexity by applying measures developed within the framework of 98 the integrated information theory (IIT) to the evolved MBs [18,19]. There are two additional 99 works which directly relate to our study: First, Konig et al. [20] provided the original 100 experimental setup. They designed a two-dimensional spatial-navigation task in which a 101 swarm of robots has to learn to travel between two rooms. Second, Albantakis et al. [19] 102 showed how single animats evolve in a perceptual-categorization task environment with 103 dynamic objects under various task difficulties. The primary motivation behind their work 104 was to investigate the evolution of integrated information [18], which is an indicator for brain 105 complexity, and its relation to task difficulty and memory capacity. In the following, we 106 discuss how the complexity of the MBs-evolved in the various experimental setups-is related 107 to reliability as an indicator for general intelligence.

108 Simulating a large set of evolutionary setups and post-evolutionary test conditions 109 enables us to identify important cognitive and social variables and to evaluate how physical 110 constraints influence collective movement. Specifically, the results of the simulated

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111 evolution experiments suggest the following implications: First, animats who evolve in an 112 environment with a balanced group size evolve better reliability and can compete with 113 specialized animats (who have already experienced changing conditions). Second, the 114 integration of motor units into the memory network increases the performance of animats. 115 Third, the ability to sense adjacent animats is essential for the reliability of animats to perform 116 the task, even if it is challenging to make statements about the communication between 117 animats in this setting. Finally, we explored how various sensor configurations influence the 118 difficulty of dealing with the task and, therefore, the animats' ability to cope with changes. 119 Overall, we found that, under the right conditions, specialized animats can be reliable, that 120 the integration of motor units has an impact on performance and reliability, that animats 121 benefit from passive interaction, and that more sensors enable reliability with simpler and 122 less integrated brain structures (which challenges the view that higher generalized 123 intelligence is necessarily associated with more complex cognitive architectures). On the 124 whole, our approach also highlights the complexity of the dependencies between the three dimensions under investigation (properties of the individual, group interaction, and 125 126 environmental design), even in the simplified conditions of our simulation experiments, and 127 thus cautions against hasty generalizations, e.g., across different species or environments.

In the following, we will first present our results on the animats' task performance, reliability, behavior, and brain complexity across varying evolutionary setups. After that, we will discuss the findings in the broader scope of the literature and also how our work contributes to it. The last part of the work explains the methods and research design.

132 **Results**

We simulated the evolution of artificial organisms ("animats") with diverse cognitive architectures under various conditions for 10,000 generations (see Table 1 for an overview of all evolution simulations conducted).

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6	Table 1. Definition of simulation conditions ("evolutionary setups"). <i>G_i</i> indicates the group
7	condition. The index <i>i</i> specifies the respective evolutionary setup.

Label	Gi	Group Size ¹	Cognitive Design ²	Interaction Condition ³	Sensor Configuration ²	Results in Figures
Varying group size	1.00 0.75 0.50 0.25 single random	72 54 36 18 1 random	4 hidden 2 motors with motors	Active Penalty, blocking disabled	1 animat sensor, 1 wall sensor	2/3/4
Varying cognitive design	bigbrain smallbrain !feedback	36	8 hidden 2 hidden 4 hidden 2 motors wo/ feedback	Active Penalty, blocking disabled	1 animat sensor, 1 wall sensor	5/6/7
Varying interaction conditions	!penalty blocked/ !penalty blocked	36	4 hidden 2 motors with motors	No Penalty, blocking disabled No penalty, blocking enabled Active Penalty, blocking disabled	1 animat sensor, 1 wall sensor	8/9/10
Varying sensor configuration	!agent 3sides w=a	36	4 hidden 2 motors with motors	Active Penalty, blocking disabled	1 wall sensor 3 animat sensors, 3 wall sensors 1 universal sensor	11/12/13

138 ¹ Absolute group size, 72 animats corresponds to 100% coverage of available starting slots.

139 ² See Methods section for detailed architecture.

³ If penalty is active, animats receive penalty for colliding with other animats. If blocking is active, animats
 are not able to share the same position, otherwise they can cross over each other.

142 All animats were evolved to travel between two rooms in a two-dimensional 143 environment, which they shared with other animats of their same type, except in the "single" 144 condition (see Fig 1(a) and Table 1). Fitness selection positively depended on the average 145 number of times that the animats stepped through the gate between the two rooms. In 146 addition, we imposed a small penalty each time they collided with other animats (if not stated 147 otherwise). A detailed description of the task environments and the evolutionary algorithm 148 (EA) is provided below in the Methods section. In many evolutionary setups, high final fitness 149 values (EF > 3) was able to be achieved.

150 Once evolved, the final generation of animats was the basis for comparing task fitness 151 (performance in a specific environment), behavior, and reliability (average performance 152 across all several task environments) across conditions. In this study, we focused on assessing 153 reliability across two dimensions: (1) the number of co-existing animats and (2) the

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placement of static obstacles compared to the original two-dimensional environment (see Fig
1(a), and the Methods section for details). Additionally, we varied the interaction conditions
between agents as a third parameter to manipulate the agent's reliability across group sizes.

Fig 1(b) displays six different heatmaps visualizing several evolved movement patterns. It is observable that animat groups with reasonable task fitness (*TF*) converge towards a "swarm"-like wall-following behavior, which is driven by both interactions with fellow animats and interactions with the environment [4,9].

We organized the presentation of our results into four sections according to the evolutionary setups thereof, as shown in Table 1 (varying "group size", "cognitive design", "interaction conditions", and "sensor configuration", respectively). Each section contains visualizations displaying the average increase in fitness across generations ("fitness evolution"), behavioral features, the reliability tests, and a complexity analysis of the evolved MBs. Since the figures are redundant in their construction, we will briefly introduce their attributes:

Fitness: Fig 2, Fig 5, Fig 8, and Fig 11 show (a) the fitness evolution across generations and (b) the distribution of evolved fitness values (*EF*) of the final generation. The shaded areas in (a) visualize the *standard error of the mean (SEM)* across the 30 evolution simulations that we performed per evolutionary setup. The wide bars in (b) visualize the mean evolved fitness (*EF*).

173 **Reliability and behavior:** Fig 3, Fig 6, Fig 9, and Fig 12 visualize the results of testing 174 the reliability of fitness values and behavioral features of the final generation of animats 175 across (1) different group sizes (*[0.01389, 0.05, 0.10, ..., 0.95, 1.0]*) and (2) various test 176 conditions (changing interactions between animats and environment design). Panel (a) in 177 Figures 3/6/9/12, shows the mean task fitness *(TF)* of testing the animats under different 178 group sizes, respectively, in the eight different test conditions listed in Table 2. Note that the

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- 179 condition under which a group of animats evolved is indicated by their G_i label (see Table
- 180 1), and **(TF)** is an average across the 30 evolution simulations per experimental setup.
- 181 Table 2: Overview of the eight environments in which reliability tests were performed. They differ182 in environmental conditions and in the complexity of the world design.

Label	Environmental Conditions	Environment (see Methods)
Original	Active penalty ¹ , no blocking ²	See Fig 16(a)
No Penalty	No penalty, no blocking	
Blocked	Active penalty, active blocking	See Fig 16(a)
Blocked and no Penalty	No penalty, active blocking	
Noisy Corners		See Fig 16(b)
Small Gates	A stive nonalty, no blocking	See Fig 16(c)
4 Rooms	Active penalty, no blocking	See Fig 16(d)
4 Messy Rooms		See Fig 16(e)

183 ¹ If penalty is active, animats receive penalty when colliding into each other.

184 ² If blocking is active, an animat cannot move onto the location of another animat.

Next, we quantified the reliability across group sizes as the average task fitness $R = (TF)_{GS}$ in the "Original" test condition (in this case, the average is calculated across group sizes not simulations as indicated by the subscript "*GS*", which stands for group size). Panel (b) shows the distribution of these reliability values (R) and their dependency on evolved fitness (*EF*). Panel (c) shows how the animats' behavior depends on the relative group size, evaluating the probability of an animat to stand still ("no movement"), turn, or move forward in the "original" test environment.

192 **Complexity analysis:** Fig 4, Fig 7, Fig 10, and Fig 13 show two types of metrics for MB 193 complexity: (a) the distribution of *integrated information* (Φ^{Max}) [18,19], and (b) the 194 corresponding *number of concepts* (#*Concepts*(Φ^{Max}))[18] per condition. While there may be simpler, less computationally demanding options for evaluating the causal complexity of 195 196 the evolved MBs (see [15,16,21]), the chosen measures are fairly well established [15,19,22] 197 and are theoretically motivated as part of the formal framework of integrated information 198 theory (IIT) [18]. Briefly, a "concept" in IIT is a system subset that has a causal role within 199 the system—an intrinsic mechanism. A concept causally constraints both the past and future 200 states of the system, and is irreducible to its parts. The number of concepts (#*Concepts*(Φ^{Max}) 201)) thus captures the number of internal functions performed by individual system elements

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and combinations of elements. Φ^{Max} quantifies how much of the information specified by all the concepts in a set of elements would be lost under a partition of the system, and it will be high if the set of elements has many concepts (functional differentiation) that are also highly integrated. Both measures are evaluated for the most integrated system subset, thus the 'max' superscript. For details please refer to the original publication [18] and to [19] for an application of these measures to evolve MBs.

208 Varying group size: Evolution under specialized conditions can produce reliable

209 agents

In a first set of experiments, we compared animats that evolved within groups of fixed sizes (1-72 animats) (using the original animat and environment design in all cases). Preliminary results, including a comparison of the reliability of evolution conditions $G_{1.0}$. single, were presented in [17]. As shown in Fig 2(a) and reported in [17], group size during evolution does impact the animats' ability to perform the gate crossing task ("task difficulty") (Fig 1(a)), and it influences the final evolved fitness.

216 In our spatial-navigation task, single animats (group size of 1) frequently find an optimal 217 solution within 10,000 generations, since colliding is impossible and walls (static obstacles) 218 may guide the animat towards the gate. Increasing the number of animats in the environment 219 makes it more difficult to navigate due to the penalty imposed upon colliding with another 220 agent [17]. In our study, an animat was reliable if it could achieve high fitness under various 221 conditions which they did not face during evolution. Reliability across group sizes was found 222 to be high if the animats evolved in an environment where the density of animats was 223 balanced ($G_{0.5}$ and $G_{0.25}$) (see Fig 3(a,b) and [17]).

In our study, we included an additional comparison setup (G_{random}), for which group size varied randomly during evolution, in order to explicitly evolve animats with high reliability. As shown in Fig 2(b), the final fitness values for G_{random} were comparable to those evolution

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setups with fixed, intermediate group sizes ($G_{0.5}$ and $G_{0.25}$) (though still significantly different (p < 05), see Supporting Information S3 for all statistical tests).

Fig 2. Fitness evolution and distribution of the final evolved fitness. (a) G_{single} is the condition which evolves the highest fitness on average. Larger group sizes during evolution impede the animats' fitness evolution and lead to lower final evolved fitness values. (b) The evolutionary setup with randomized group sizes at each generation (G_{random}) demonstrates similar properties as those setups with fixed, intermediate group sizes ($G_{0.25}$ and $G_{0.5}$).

234 It is no surprise that G_{random} is the most reliable setup across varying group sizes (see Fig. 235 3), since these animats already evolved under the conditions tested in the reliability 236 evaluations. Notably, however, animats that evolved under specialized conditions with 237 intermediate group sizes ($G_{0.5}$ and $G_{0.25}$) are comparable to animats specifically evolved for reliability (G_{random}) during evolution (see Fig 3). It is necessary to review the reliability tests 238 239 in detail to observe differences between those evolutionary setups. $G_{0.50}$ and G_{random} show 240 similar reliability values **R** in the original environment setting, particularly for larger group 241 sizes (> 50%) (see Fig 3(a)). Nevertheless, G_{random} animats perform better with smaller group 242 sizes, leading to comparable but still significantly different average **R** values (p < .05).

243 Fig 3. Reliability tests. (a) Overall, only G_{single} fails to generalize across group sizes, as animats 244 evolved without other group members did not develop strategies to avoid collisions (compare 245 Original to No penalty test condition, where G_{single} performs well throughout). There is a large 246 difference in the *Blocked* environment between G_{random} , $G_{0.25}$, and $G_{0.50}$, while in other environments 247 their task fitness is comparable, pointing to somewhat different navigation strategies. (b) On average, 248 G_{random} is the most reliable condition, followed by $G_{0.50}$ and $G_{0.25}$. Except for G_{single} , EF correlates 249 with **R** in all groups. (c) Note that $G_{0.50}$ and $G_{0.25}$ change their behavior more with increasing animat 250 density compared to G_{random} .

Of all test conditions (see Table 2), *Blocked* (in which animats cannot overlap) suggests a further difference between $G_{0.50}$, $G_{0.25}$, and G_{random} (see Fig 3(a)): $G_{0.50}$ and $G_{0.25}$ are more severely affected by this deviation from standard settings in which animats can overlap, albeit

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under a penalty. While animats evolved in G_{random} also experienced large group sizes with a higher likelihood of a penalty during evolution, $G_{0.50}$ and $G_{0.25}$ animats consistently faced only intermediate probabilities of colliding with other animats, which may have led to less effective strategies for avoiding collisions.

In addition to varying group sizes, we also tested the final generation of animats in four environments with different wall arrangements (Fig 3(a), bottom row). Performance decreased to similarly low levels in all conditions, but least for evolutionary setups with larger group sizes.

In terms of their behavior (Fig 3(c)), animats in G_{random} were less idle and showed fewer turns and more steps forward in comparison with animats in $G_{0.50}$, particularly for large group sizes. This suggests that the behavior in G_{random} is more fluid overall. By contrast, the specialized animats have to be more reactive to stay reliable, displaying larger difference in behavior across group sizes (see Table 3 for a more detailed explanation of the difference in behavior). Please refer to [17] for a more detailed discussion of behavioral differences across evolutionary setups with fixed group sizes $G_{1.0-single}$.

Table 3: Absolute difference between the state transition probability of $G_{0.50}$ and G_{random} . The first digit describes whether anything (wall or other animat) is sensed (1) or not sensed (0), and the second digit describes whether the animat moved/turned (1) or did not move/turn (0). Most notably, G_{random} animats performed more movements even in the absence of sensor inputs than $G_{0.50}$ ("01 \rightarrow 01").

$\begin{bmatrix} I + I \\ t \\ SM \end{bmatrix}$	00	01	10	11
00	0.0000	-0.0074	0.0000	-0.0001
01	-0.0079	-0.0606 ¹	0.0136	0.0088
10	0.0005	0.0100	0.0063	0.0063
11	-0.0001	0.0119	0.0031	0.0157

¹ Minus values indicate that the transition is more frequent in G_{random} , while positive values indicate the opposite.

Fig 4 shows the distribution of Φ^{Max} and $\#Concepts(\Phi^{Max})$ [18,19] as a measure of the complexity of the evolved MBs across evolutionary setups with different group sizes. While the most reliable evolutionary setups (G_{random} and $G_{0.50}$) do show the highest average values

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279 of Φ^{Max} and the largest number of concepts (internal mechanisms), differences between 280 conditions generally do not reach statistical significance (p > .05) due to the large variance in 281 the complexity values (see Supporting Information S3). It would require more data 282 (simulation experiments per evolutionary setup) to refine the mean of the intervals enough to 283 verify the observed trend. In our predecessor study [17], a correlation of high reliability and 284 task performance with high brain complexity was found using a simplified measure of brain 285 complexity based on anatomical connectivity only. In addition, the integrated information 286 measures employed here are sensitive to the causal interactions within the MBs. In the 287 present data, significant pair-wise differences could be found between G_{single} and the most 288 reliable setups (G_{random} and $G_{0.50}$). As explained above, the task environment experienced by 289 animats in G_{single} is less demanding than for setups with larger group sizes. Our findings are thus in line with [19], which demonstrated higher Φ^{Max} and $\#Concepts(\Phi^{Max})$ for animats 290 291 evolved in more complex environments.

Fig 4. Distribution of brain complexity measures. Differences in (a) Φ^{Max} and (b) the corresponding number of concepts was found between the most (G_{random} and $G_{0.50}$) and the least (G_{single}) reliable setups. Due to the large variance in the data and the low sample size (30 simulations per evolutionary setup), differences in the mean between the remaining conditions did not reach statistical significance (see Supporting Information S3).

297 Varying cognitive design: Brain size and memory dependencies

In a second set of experiments, we used the same evolutionary setup as for $G_{0.50}$ in all tested conditions, but varied the number of available computational units in the animats' MBs. In the baseline design $G_{0.50}$, it is possible to integrate motor units as memory units (by feedback loops to the hidden units, see Methods section). This was disabled in one condition $G_{1feedback}$ and therefore reduced the absolute capacity for memory from six to four binary units. Moreover, we designed animats with similarly small memory capacity but with feedback motors as a reference group ($G_{smallbrain}$). Those animats had only two hidden units

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instead of four but the original type of motors with the possibility of evolving feedback loops. Again, the possible integration of motor units allows one to utilize information about past movements directly (*e.g., like the sensation of one's legs*). Finally, we included a condition with larger MBs with eight hidden units and motor feedback ($G_{bigbrain}$).

309 We observed that fitness and reliability across group sizes in the original environment 310 decreased for animats with fewer computational units (see Fig 5 and Fig 6). However, while 311 animats in $G_{smallbrain}$ still evolved to reasonably high fitness and reliability, $G_{!feedback}$ was 312 lacking in both. This indicates that motor feedback facilitates evolution in our task 313 environment. One behavioral difference between these two conditions was the reduced 314 movement in the animats of $G_{smallbrain}$ (see Fig 6(c)). Furthermore, the state transition analysis 315 shows that the motor units of animats in $G_{smallbrain}$ tend to change their behavior more often, while animats in $G_{!feedback}$ stay in the same state more often (see Table 4). Notably, $G_{!feedback}$ 316 317 and, particularly, $G_{smallbrain}$ performed better than $G_{0.50}$ given large changes in the wall 318 arrangement.

Fig 5. Fitness evolution and distribution of the final evolved fitness. (a) Less capacity for memory and internal computations impairs fitness evolution. Despite their similar capacity for memory, $G_{smallbrain}$ evolved higher fitness than $G_{!feedback}$. (b) Ceiling outlier suggest that animats in $G_{!feedback}$ are generally capable of performing as well as average animats in $G_{smallbrain}$ but that this is less likely. The performance of $G_{bigbrain}$ is comparable to $G_{0.50}$ with more distributed outcomes.

Fig 6. Reliability tests. (a) $G_{smallbrain}$ is more reliable than $G_{!feedback}$. Considering $G_{bigbrain}$, animats in this group are overall comparable to the baseline condition $G_{0.50}$, but show worse performance in the Blocked test condition and some of the modified environments for larger group sizes. (b) Reliability R correlates with *EF* for all setups. The lower reliability of $G_{smallbrain}$ and $G_{!feedback}$ compared to baseline can thus be explained by their already lower evolved fitness values. Note, however, that $G_{smallbrain}$ and $G_{!feedback}$ perform better than $G_{0.50}$ across group sizes in the 4 (Messy) Rooms test conditions (see (a)). (c) For larger group sizes, $G_{smallbrain}$ remains static more often than $G_{!feedback}$.

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331**Table 4**: Absolute difference between the state transition probability of $G_{smallbrain}$ and $G_{!feedback}$. The332first digit describes whether anything (wall or other animat) is sensed (1) or not sensed (0) and the333second digit describes whether the animat moved/turned (1) or did not move/turn (0). Most notably,334animats in $G_{smallbrain}$ switched more often between sensing and moving than animats in $G_{!Feedback}$ 335("01 \rightarrow 10", "10 \rightarrow 01", but "11 \rightarrow 11").

I+1 t SM	00	01	10	11
00	0.0000	0.0001	0.0000	0.0000
01	0.0000	-0.0167 ¹	0.0237	-0.0046
10	0.0000	0.0194	0.0011	0.0029
11	0.0001	-0.0004	-0.0015	-0.0241

336 ¹ Minus values indicate that the transition is more frequent in $G_{1feeback}$, while positive values indicate the 337 opposite.

By contrast, more hidden units ($G_{bigbrain}$) do not improve average fitness or reliability in any of the tested conditions (see Fig 5 and Fig 6). While $G_{bigbrain}$ overall seems very similar to the baseline setup $G_{0.50}$, differences can be observed in the *Blocked* and *Small Gate* test conditions (see Fig 6(a)). In principle, more computational units allow for better performance. However, the larger space of possible solutions may also impede fitness evolution (note the larger variance for $G_{bigbrain}$ compared to $G_{0.50}$ in Fig 5(b) and Fig 6(b)).

344 Considering brain complexity, the evolutionary setups with smaller MBs ($G_{smallbrain}$ and $G_{!feedback}$) have significantly lower Φ^{Max} and fewer concepts than the baseline condition 345 346 $(G_{0.50})$. Between those two conditions, $G_{smallbrain}$ shows significantly higher Φ^{Max} and more 347 concepts as compared to $G_{!feedback}$ (see Fig 7). This correlates with the larger evolved fitness 348 values of $G_{smallbrain}$ in Fig 5 and its associated higher reliability in Fig 6. Note that calculating Φ^{Max} and the corresponding number of concepts was not possible for $G_{bigbrain}$ since 349 350 exhaustive evaluations across many systems and states are not currently feasible when using 351 the pyphi software package to compute measures of integrated information theory for 352 networks of that size (>10 units) [23].

Fig 7. Distribution of brain complexity measures. Compared to the baseline, the smaller MBs ($G_{smallbrain}$ and $G_{!feedback}$) have lower Φ^{Max} and fewer corresponding concepts. Animats in $G_{smallbrain}$ show higher Φ^{Max} and have more corresponding concepts compared to $G_{!feedback}$ animats, many of

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356 which have $\Phi^{Max} = \theta$. Due to computational reasons, the brain complexity of $G_{bigbrain}$ could not be 357 calculated (see text).

358 Varying interaction conditions: Evolution of beneficial interaction

359 In our evolution simulations, the fitness function used for selection depended on the 360 average task fitness of all animats in the group. Moreover, individuals received penalties for 361 colliding with other group members. Since it is hardly possible to directly observe 362 cooperative interactions, we used a third set of simulations to manipulate aspects of the 363 fitness function and physical interaction between animats to identify to what extent these 364 features influence both the fitness and the reliability. For this purpose, we considered four different evolutionary setups besides the baseline setup $G_{0.50}$: G_{single} (same as above), $G_{!penalty}$, 365 366 $G_{blocked}$, and $G_{blocked/!penalty}$ (see Table 1 for a detailed description). G_{random} is also included in 367 the figures for comparison.

368 Among the novel setups, only animats in $G_{blocked}$ were subject to the collision penalty 369 during evolution, whereas later, during the Original reliability tests, all conditions were subject to a penalty. Not being able to share the same position (as in $G_{blocked}$) hardly 370 371 influenced the final fitness, reliability, or behavior of the evolved animats (Fig 8 and Fig 9, 372 compared to the baseline condition). $G_{penalty}$, where reacting to other animats had no direct 373 effect on the fitness evolution, showed very similar fitness evolution, reliability curves, and 374 behavior to G_{single} . Considering the reliability tests in Fig 9(a), the top row shows the 375 reliability across group sizes in the Original environment, and under varying interaction 376 conditions: No Penalty, Blocked, and both Blocked and no Penalty (from left to right). In the 377 bottom row of Fig 9(a), animats are evaluated under the same interaction rules as they 378 evolved in while only facing a modified environment.

Fig 8. Fitness Evolution and distribution of the final evolved fitness. The animats in conditions
without a penalty (*G_{blocked/!penalty}* and *G_{!penalty}*) evolved to relatively high fitness levels. In particular,

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381	$G_{lpenalty}$ evolved like G_{single} , since animats in both conditions were not impacted at all by other
382	animats. Similarly, $G_{blocked}$ seemed equivalent to the baseline setup $G_{0.50}$, while $G_{blocked/!penalty}$ evolved
383	to slightly higher fitness values, comparable to G_{random} .

Fig 9. Reliability Tests. (a) There was a significant difference between animats in *G*_{blocked/!penalty} and

animats in *G*_{!penalty}. Being blocked was essential for retaining some reliability if no penalty was given.

386 (b) $G_{!penalty}$ showed similar reliability as G_{single} , whereas $G_{blocked}$ showed similar reliability as $G_{0.50}$.

387 (c) These similarities were also reflected in the animats' behavior. The behavior of animats in

388 *G*_{blocked/!penalty} was more reactive to changing group size than *G*_{!penalty}.

389 Comparing the reliability tests of $G_{blocked/!penalty}$, $G_{blocked}$ and $G_{!penalty}$ (Fig 9), we observed 390 significant differences between the setups, which let us assume that there is implicit 391 cooperation. In this context, we want to highlight that $G_{lpenalty}$ performs relatively poor for 392 larger group sizes in the environment designs with large modifications (in 4 (Messy) Rooms) 393 as compared to the other setups. This is an indicator for the evolution of beneficial 394 interactions between group members in evolutionary setups with a collision penalty and/or 395 blocking. The decline in task fitness of $G_{blocked/!penalty}$ for higher group sizes under test 396 conditions with a collision penalty showed that these animats did not avoid physical 397 interactions with their group members, while $G_{blocked}$ animats were generally comparable to 398 $G_{0.50}$. However, even $G_{blocked/!penalty}$ animats had an advantage compared to $G_{!penalty}$ in the 4 399 (Messy) Rooms environment, which may be due to some implicit form of cooperative 400 behavior.

401 Considering the brain complexity of animats in $G_{blocked}$ and $G_{blocked/!penalty}$, we can report 402 similar values to $G_{0.50}$ (see Fig 10). Whether animats received a penalty for crossing each 403 other, or whether crossing was prohibited to start with, did not significantly affect their 404 evolved fitness, reliability, behavior, or brain complexity. Likewise, the brain complexity 405 measures for $G_{!penalty}$ were comparable to those of G_{single} , in line with the behavioral results 406 above.

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407	Fig 10. Distribution of brain complexity measures. In evolutionary setups where crossing each
408	other was not possible ($G_{blocked}$ and $G_{blocked/!penalty}$), the brain complexity was comparable to the
409	complexity of $G_{0.50}$. By contrast, animats in setups where the reaction to fellow animats had no
410	reasonable effect on their performance (G_{single} and $G_{!penalty}$) showed lower brain complexity. Still,
411	there was high variance in the data of brain complexity.

412 Varying sensor configuration: Sensory capacity influences reliability and intrinsic

413 complexity

414 Finally, we manipulated the ability of dealing with the task (task difficulty) by changing 415 the sensor configuration of the animats. In addition to the baseline architecture, we designed 416 animats with sensors on three sides G_{3sides} (front, left and right), without an agent sensor 417 G_{lagent} and with a universal sensor $G_{w=a}$ (sensing wall and agent as indiscriminate obstacles). 418 Fig 11 reveals that it is necessary to have the ability to sense nearby animats, and be able to 419 differentiate between walls and animats, in order to achieve reasonable fitness values. 420 Generally, it was an advantage to be equipped with sensors on more sides for both high task 421 fitness and high reliability.

422 Fig 11. Fitness Evolution and distribution of the final evolved fitness. The average evolved fitness 423 showed that animats in evolutionary setups without specific sensors for other animas (G_{tagent} and 424 $G_{w=a}$) achieved no reasonable fitness. By contrast, animats in G_{3sides} outperformed $G_{0.50}$, and G_{random} , 425 but also had more outliers with lower fitness and performed worse than the baseline condition in 426 early generations (up to ~10k generations).

427 Regarding reliability, we would first like to highlight animats in the G_{3sides} condition. 428 They consistently outperformed the animats in other groups except in two test conditions: 429 *Blocked* and *Noisy Corners* (see Fig 12). This shows that animats which are equipped with 430 more sensors do have an advantage on average, but they may also perform worse than animats 431 with fewer sensors under some circumstances. The sensory signals in these specific

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environments might have been too different from the information patterns the animatsevolved in and were thus specialized for.

Fig 12. Reliability Tests. (a-b) The G_{3sides} condition was the most reliable in most test conditions, except in *Blocked* and *Noisy Corners*. In terms of reliability, sensing everything ($G_{w=a}$) with one sensor is still better than only sensing the walls due to a missing animat sensor (G_{1agent}). (c) Setups with few sensors evolved no general behavior (high variance of movement between the 30 different evolutions, shaded area). The G_{3sides} setup becomes more reactive as soon as the animat density starts to rise.

Fig 13. Distribution of brain complexity measures. Animats in the G_{3sides} condition showed the lowest brain complexity of all setups despite having the highest evolved fitness and reliability. By contrast, animats with limited sensor information (G_{1agent} and $G_{w=a}$) had lower than baseline complexity values, but also low evolved fitness (*EF*, see Fig 11).

444 Opposite behaviors can be observed for the animats in $G_{w=a}$ and G_{lagent} . In this case, 445 animats were not evolving to reasonable fitness values. Nevertheless, we could observe 446 differences between the two conditions from their reliability values. While $G_{w=a}$ animats had 447 only one sensor which does not discriminate between the wall and other animats, G_{lagent} was 448 missing the animat sensor completely. G_{lagent} showed better task fitness than $G_{w=a}$ in test 449 conditions with small group sizes and without a penalty. Considering the evolved behavior, 450 $G_{w=a}$ animats (Fig 12(c)) were not reactive to other animats, which suggests that they did not 451 evolve the capacity to differentiate between the animats and the walls internally, e.g., through 452 memory.

Analyzing the brain complexity showed that animats equipped with fewer, but also with more sensors than in the baseline setup $G_{0.50}$ evolved MBs with lower complexity (see Fig 13), albeit for different reasons. Based on the very low evolved fitness for $G_{w=a}$ and G_{lagent} (see Fig 11) we can conclude that their MBs did not develop the necessary structure and mechanisms to solve the task, as reflected by their low brain complexity. By contrast, animats

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in G_{3sides} achieved high performance and reliability, but did not evolve any integrated information ($\Phi^{Max} = \theta$) in many cases. This observation was in line with previous findings on the relation between sensory capacity and internal complexity [19] and suggested that high brain complexity in cognitive systems depends on a need for internal memory and computation, which may decrease if an animat is equipped with more sensors. Please refer to the next section for a general discussion about the relationship between task performance, reliability, and brain complexity.

465 **Discussion**

The evolution of cooperative multi-agent systems might be the next frontier in the 466 467 context of evolving artificial agents, in which context not much is yet known about conditions 468 that give rise to cooperative behavior and the complex inter-dependencies between individual 469 and group goals [24]. For example, there might be many factors that influence whether the 470 individuals either bow to the group or act by egoistic rules [25]. In this study, we used animats 471 equipped with MBs (introduced by Edlund et al. [21]) to study how group performance and 472 its reliability under modified conditions depended on the individual, interactions between 473 individuals, as well as specific features of the MBs' evolution.

474 **Prior work investigating group evolution**

Earlier research that implemented groups of MBs concentrated on predator-prey environments and showed that animats can (co-)evolve swarm behaviors [26–28]. The animat design in this work was generally based on a design in Marstaller et al. [15], who evolved individual MBs with the goal of solving perceptual-categorization tasks. Another method of simulating swarm behavior is neuro-evolution, i.e., the evolution of *artificial neural networks (ANN)* [29–31]. As in Olson et al. [27], these neuro-evolution experiments produced agents which evolve in a swarm to solve a predator-prey task.

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Other researchers have investigated the effect of group size in the evolution of groups of simulated agents beyond predator-prey scenarios in a more general context. They find that the behavior of the group of agents and the individual agent is dependent on the group size [32,33]. In another study which changed the group size during evolution, the authors show that it can be easier for smaller groups than larger ones to organize themselves [5].

487 The effect of changing swarm sizes has also been investigated in the context of natural 488 biological systems: Brown [25] examined which factors are decisive for the individual to 489 either join a swarm or behave egoistically. The study focused on experimenting with 490 environmental qualities and swarm size. Brown defined optimal swarm size as the best trade-491 off between the advantage of balancing costs between individuals in the swarm and the 492 disadvantage of sharing the resources (energy/food) with the whole swarm. In an earlier 493 study, Pacala et al. [4] report that swarm size constrains information transfer and task 494 allocation. They argue that the information exchange varies and the task allocation changes, 495 depending on the swarm size of ant-colonies. Pacala et al. [4] also argue that swarm behavior 496 is the product of social interaction, individual interaction, and the interaction with the given 497 environment. In a more recent work [34], we found arguments that swarm behavior arises if 498 there is sufficient density within the swarm.

499 Factors that impact task performance and reliability

In line with the variety of dependencies identified in these earlier studies, our simulation results suggest that group performance and reliability under modified conditions are complex multidimensional phenomena. Our work is illustrative, as it shows that there is high complexity even in the simplified experimental setting of small artificial organisms evolving within a particular evolutionary setup which is completely controlled by the experimenter. Nevertheless, by creating a variety of environments and animats, we were able to identify several factors that influence fitness evolution and post-evolutionary reliability.

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507 Generally, task difficulty (the ability to evolve high fitness in a given task environment) 508 depends on the complexity of the environment, but also on the animats' architecture (see also 509 [19]). In the specific evolutionary setup investigated here, evolved fitness negatively 510 correlated with group size as a result of the imposed penalty for collisions (see Fig 2). On the 511 other hand, animats evolved in fixed, intermediate group sizes are most reliable to changes 512 in group size, and, in fact, comparable to animats evolved for reliability that experienced 513 random group sizes during evolution (Fig 3(b)). Yet animats evolved in large groups 514 performed slightly better in modified environments (Fig 3(a), bottom row). A similar trade-515 off can be observed for different animat architectures: animats with less capacity for memory 516 $(G_{smallbrain}$ and $G_{!feedback}$) evolved to lower fitness levels than the baseline condition $(G_{0.50})$ 517 (Fig 5), and were less reliable under changes in group sizes but still showed better performance in some of the modified environments (Fig 6(a)). More hidden units ($G_{bigbrain}$) 518 519 did not provide further advantages compared to $G_{0.50}$. Finally, more sensors (G_{3sides}) proved 520 advantageous for both evolved fitness and reliability under almost all modified test 521 conditions. However, even G_{3sides} performed worse than the baseline in one of the modified 522 environments (Noisy Corners). Within most specific environmental setups, reliability to 523 changes in group size was, moreover, correlated with evolved fitness (Figs 3/6/9/12 (b), right 524 panel).

525 Overall, we found that the right balance is essential: If the environmental design is 526 balanced to the animats' architecture (having the right sensor setup, memory capacity, and 527 motor setup), animats evolved consistent reliability, even if it was not specifically trained for. 528 In other words, animats that were well-equipped for dealing with their original task 529 environment (and thus achieved high evolved fitness) were generally also able to remain 530 reliable given small modifications to task conditions. However, evolutionary setups that seem 531 less adapted (lower evolved fitness) overall may still have advantages under some conditions.

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532 Interactions between individuals in the group

533 In this study, we did not explicitly implement any form of direct communication between 534 animats. Nevertheless, through triangulation, we can partly answer whether the evolutionary 535 setup we employed here may have led to the evolution of implicit cooperation between group 536 members. To that end, we have shown that it was necessary for animats to perceive their 537 fellow group members, and that they use this information to achieve reasonable evolved 538 fitness and reliability (Fig 11 and Fig 12). Moreover, animats evolved in large groups showed 539 an advantage across group sizes in modified environments (Fig 3(a), bottom), while animats 540 that evolved without a collision penalty $(G_{lpenalty})$ performed worse in some of the modified 541 environments, even if tested without a penalty (Fig 9(a), 4 (Messy) Rooms).

Hypothetically, this type of implicit interaction between animats is less related to *verbal communication*, but it may relate more to communication through behavior (e.g., like bees performing their dance). As we know from previous studies, swarm behavior in nature can also be the result of simple reactions to local neighbors [3,35]. We argue that animats are interdependent in this way, even if there is no explicit information exchange between them. The observed instances of cooperative behavior can thus be viewed as an emergent phenomenon of the evolutionary process.

549 Relation between brain complexity, task performance, and reliability

Previous studies applying measures of integrated information to adaptive animats equipped with MBs [19,21,36] have observed that $\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{Max}$ and related measures on average increase over the course of evolution, which correlates with increasing task performance (see Table S6 in Supporting Information S2). Moreover, as demonstrated in [19], this increase depends on the complexity of the task environment relative to the animats' sensor capacity: MBs that evolved in task environments which required more memory and internal computation developed, on average, higher $\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{Max}$ values and a higher number of concepts.

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557 For the evolutionary setups with the standard animat architecture as in $G_{0.50}$, we found the highest values of Φ^{Max} and $\#Concepts(\Phi^{Max})$ for medium group sizes $G_{0.50}$, and $G_{blocked}$, 558 559 and for G_{random} . These setups were also among the most reliable across group sizes (see also 560 [17] for similar results using a simplified measure of brain complexity). By contrast, 561 significantly lower Φ^{Max} values were found for G_{single} and $G_{!penalty}$, the two setups in which 562 task fitness during evolution did not depend on interactions with other animats. As argued 563 above, G_{single} and $G_{lpenalty}$ thus effectively evolved within a simpler task environment than 564 $G_{0.50}$, $G_{blocked}$, and G_{random} , which explains their lower Φ^{Max} .

565 Compared to $G_{0.50}$, evolutionary setups with altered animat architectures showed consistently lower values of Φ^{Max} and $\#Concepts(\Phi^{Max})$. Limiting the animats' sensor 566 567 capacity (G_{lagent} and $G_{w=a}$) or the number of available memory units ($G_{smallbrain}$ and $G_{lfeedback}$) 568 interfered with their capacity for successful evolution in the spatial navigation task. Their lower performance was thus accompanied by less developed MBs with lower Φ^{Max} and fewer 569 concepts. Given more time to evolve (more generations), both their performance and their 570 571 brain complexity might still increase. By contrast, more sensors allowed for better 572 performance based on high amounts of external information, which effectively decreased the need for internal complexity (memory and computations) and thus may also lead to low Φ^{Max} , 573 574 as observed here for G_{3sides} .

In theory, high fitness in any given environment could be achieved without information integration (e.g., by a system with a large feed-forward architecture [18]), and information integration can be high even if there is no reasonable fitness, which partially explains the large variance in the brain complexity measures (see, e.g., outliers for G_{lagent} in Fig 13) However, given a certain requirement for memory and context sensitivity, constraints in the number of sensors and hidden elements may give rise to an empirical lower boundary on the amount of integrated information necessary to perform a given task [19,21,36,37].

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In summary, for a given MB architecture, higher brain complexity seems to be related to better performance and reliability. However, future work should explore under which environmental conditions additional sensors, or more internal units, become more advantageous for the evolution of higher task performance and reliability.

586 Limitations

587 Our work modeled one particular, small-scale scenario. Future work should consider 588 other task environments which may strengthen the generality of our results. Moreover, further 589 evolution or training scenarios for artificial organisms should be considered as well.

590 While the measures that we employed to assess the complexity of the evolved MBs are 591 theoretically motivated [18], they are also computationally very complex. This made it 592 difficult to evaluate a larger number of evolution simulations in order to achieve better 593 statistical power. This is why alternative, approximate measures should be considered, too. 594 For instance, the *largest strongly connected component* (and other graph metrics) can be used 595 as a proxy for system integration and thus brain complexity [17]. Efficient approximations 596 would also enable investigation into how brain complexity develops across generations. Moreover, Φ^{Max} , and the associated number of concepts, are causal measures that assess the 597 598 degree to which the mechanisms within a MB are differentiated and integrated. Future work 599 should also consider and explore alternative informational or dynamical measures [e.g., 38– 600 40]. In this study, we concentrated on the reliability tests, so the brain complexity analysis 601 was not the subject of more in-depth investigation.

602 Conclusion

603 It is challenging to remain reliable in a dynamic and volatile world while also trying to 604 succeed in a given task. So, investigating the characteristics of this reliability might help to 605 develop implications and strategies for improving reliability. We showed that reliability is a

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606 complex concept to investigate, especially when considering not only individuals but an 607 organized group. Yet we were able to isolate essential influencing factors to better understand 608 the positive and negative effects of changing group size, environment design, and individual 609 cognitive ability on task reliability. This research asserts that task efficiency and effectiveness 610 is not the only goal; task reliability is also worth striving for. We have also offered a 611 computational approach for investigating this concept.

612 Materials and Methods

We used an EA to generate simulated animats evolving in groups, and defined and tested various animat architectures and evolutionary environments to evolve animats having heterogeneous behavior, fitness, and reliability. Afterwards, we conducted post-evolutionary tests to assess the reliability of the different evolutionary setups. This section explains the animat designs, the environment, the evolutionary simulations, and the experiment setup. We used *MABE (Modular Agent-Based Evolver)* [41] as a computational evolution framework with the same parameters as in previous work [17] (see Table S7 in Supporting Information).

620 As we state in the introduction, we studied the changes in behavior and task performance 621 of evolved animats while manipulating environmental and cognitive conditions, which also 622 changed the ability to achieve the goal of the task (task difficulty). The idea was that the 623 individual animat had to solve a two-dimensional spatial-navigation task, thus forcing 624 individuals to react to other animats in order to reach a high fitness value. This task was a 625 redesign by Fischer et al. [17] of a task environment initially developed by Koenig et al. [20]. 626 An animat can usually differentiate between static (borders and walls) and dynamic objects 627 (animats) in the environment through two distinct sensors. This design allowed for the 628 evolution of social behavior based on passive interactions between animats (we observed, 629 e.g., "waiting", or "following" behavior).

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630 Animats Architecture

631 The EA evolves animats with MBs, which contain a set of discrete, binary computational 632 units ("neurons"). Each unit has its own update rules receiving inputs from and sending their 633 output to other units. In this study, the decision system (the connectivity between units and 634 their update-rules) was implemented by Hidden Markov Gates (HMGs). The HMGs connect 635 the nodes of the MB indirectly. Fig 14 visualizes a simple example, in which an HMG is 636 connected to four units. The decision system inside an HMG can be diverse. In this research, 637 we evolved discrete lookup tables. The lookup tables translate the states of the connected 638 input units at t to the new states of connected output units at t+1. The motor or memory units 639 can represent the output units of the HMG. In this study, the EA evolved genomes with a 640 string of natural numbers. The individual numbers encoded the HMGs: the number of HMGs, 641 the lookup tables, the connected input units, and the connected output units. The EA mutated 642 the genomes in each generation. Each locus in the genome mutated with a certain probability. 643 In addition, larger sections could be deleted or added to the genome [21,42] (again, all 644 parameters are listed in Table S7 within the Supporting Information).

Fig 14. Example of an MB. An MB [21] has three components: (1) Units with a binary states ("1""4"), (2) HMGs and (3) the connections between the binary units and the HMGs. The connections
between the units can be derived from the connections to the HMGs. HMGs contain the mechanism,
e.g., a probabilistic lookup table, to transform the brain state of units at *t* to the state at *t*+1.

All units in the animat's MB have binary states, either I or θ , e.g., a sensor turns I if an obstacle is detected and a motor switches to I if it is active. Two motors provide the ability to turn 90 degrees left or right, and to move forward (if both motors are in state I). Since the units within a MB can be interconnected in a recurrent manner, they have the potential to create internal memory. We evolved animats with five different animat designs. Fig 15 gives a schematic overview of all animat designs. In addition to the baseline cognitive architecture, which was introduced already in [17], further deviations were designed to investigate the

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656 influence of different cognitive setups on the resulting evolved behavior, task performance, 657 and reliability. The sensors had a detection range of one unit. Typically, the motor units could 658 also feedback to the hidden and motor units, thus acting as additional brain capacity, since 659 knowledge about previous motor states is directly available for computing the next state. 660 Additionally, we designed an animat without motor feedback ($G_{1feedback}$).

661 Fig 15. Schematic architecture of the five different animat designs. The animats have two motor 662 units (grey triangles), four hidden units (dark grey circles) and one to six sensor units (black/red 663 shapes). (a) Baseline design as in [17]. (b) Animat with sensors on three sides. There is an animat 664 sensor and a wall sensor on each side. (c) Animat without feedback motors (motors cannot be part of 665 the memory network). (d) Animat with a single sensor unit, measuring wall and animat 666 simultaneously. (e) Animat without an animat sensor. Note that the architectures depict the maximal 667 amount of units available. Whether any given unit is actually used depends on the evolved 668 connectivity and logic function. Animats are initialized without connections between units.

669 **Design of the 2D Environment**

670 All experiments simulated a two-dimensional environment. The world has 32*32 units 671 (see Fig 16). All animats started on one of 72 predefined, uniformly distributed, starting 672 positions. The selection for the starting position, as well as an animat's initial orientation, 673 was random. The original environment (see Fig 16(a)) had two rooms, which are connected 674 by a gate. The animats' goal was to travel between the two rooms in order to achieve a high 675 fitness value. This design was adapted from the work of Koenig et al. [20]. As an additional 676 dimension for evaluating reliability under environmental change, we tested all evolved MBs 677 (the final generation) in additional environment designs (see Fig 16(b-e)).

Fig 16. Environmental design. (a) The two-dimensional environment is based on a discrete grid
architecture and contains two rooms. Animats draw a random starting position. Their orientation can
be up, down, left, and right and is also randomly selected at initiation. (b-e) Four additional rooms
were used to test the reliability of the animats. Red blocks mark the changes/additions in the room

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and represent walls. In (d), all four gates count as possible rewards. In (e), only gates on the vertical
mid-line provide rewards.

We chose MBs as a simplified model of an artificial brain, since the basic idea of an MB is to emulate the recurrent connectivity structure found in real neural networks in a simple manner, while being complex enough to represent a cognitive system [15]. Furthermore, a recent study showed that MBs can be very compatible against variations of *artificial neural networks* and even showed higher performance in general [16]. Nevertheless, it would, in principle, also be possible to use a finite state machine [20], or artificial neural networks [30] to solve these kinds of tasks.

691 Experiment Design

692 We selected $G_{0.50}$ to be the baseline setup for evolution, to which we compared all other 693 evolutionary setups. This was because $G_{0.50}$ showed the highest reliability across group sizes. 694 In sum, we came up with 15 different setups for the evolution of the animats. Using the 695 MABE framework, we simulated each evolutionary setup 30 times. In each of these 30696 evolutions, the EA had 10,000 generations to converge on the final solution. 100 genomes 697 were mutated and evaluated in each generation. Each of these evaluations was repeated 30698 times with different starting positions, orientation, and selection order (for the serial 699 processing of the animats' movement). After a genome was tested 30 times, it received a 700 fitness score, which was computed based on the mean across the task performance of 30 701 single animats, with one being picked randomly from each of the 30 random test runs. In 702 addition, in setup G_{random} the group size varied for each of the 30 tests (drawn randomly from 703 72*[1, 0.95, 0.9, ..., 0.1, 0.05, 0.01389]).

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704 The Simulated Life

705 The fitness function that determines the probability of a genome being reproduced 706 depends on two factors. First, animats have to travel as often as possible through the gate 707 (change the room) (see Fig 16). Second, the animats need to avoid colliding with each other. 708 Fischer et al. [17] showed the formal definitions of the fitness function as a weighted sum of 709 the penalty for collision and the reward for crossing the gate. The weight of the reward (factor 710 1.0) is higher than the weight in the case of a penalty (factor 0.075). These weights need to 711 be chosen carefully. If the penalty is too low or the reward is too high, animats will keep 712 moving from one room to the other through the gate (herding effect) and ignore the penalty. 713 On the other hand, given a high penalty and low reward, animats will evolve hardly any 714 movement. To further reduce the herding effect around the gate, there is a refractory period 715 of 100 timesteps after receiving a reward before an animat can receive another reward. Since 716 each trial has a duration of 500 timesteps, any one animat can receive a total fitness score of 717 at most 4 [17].

718 To further raise the task difficulty and to investigate the coordination and cooperation of 719 animats in groups, we let animats co-exist in the same environment (in contrast to previous 720 studies in this scope [15,18,21]). Currently, we have not implemented co-evolution and have 721 only evaluated a genome by generating animats as identical clones (they have the same MB). 722 There was no active knowledge exchange ("communication") between animats in this study. 723 Through the architecture of the animats, they have to develop the ability to distinguish which 724 kind of sensory input to use for decision making. Sensors can only sense one position in front 725 of (or on the side of) the animat and differentiate between static objects (walls) and dynamic 726 objects (fellow animats), except for $G_{w=a}$.

727 Compared to the baseline setup, we included further control conditions in which animats728 did not receive the collision penalty and/or were not able to overlap. Those changes in the

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fitness function represented environmental rules which influenced the task difficulty. As a result, we were able to test dependencies between the evolution environment and the evolution of reliability.

732 **Post-Evolutional Evaluation**

Reliability tests. The reliability tests were designed as follows: First, we selected the *30* genomes of generation *10,000* (*10k*) for each of the *15* conditions. Second, each genome was tested across *21* conditions varying in group size. To this end, we created groups of animat clones of the respective test group size for each of the *30*15* genomes. Test group sizes were uniformly distributed between *1* and *72*. The interval of the relative distribution is *[0.0139, 0.05, 0.1, ..., 0.9, 0.95, 1.0]*. A single animat is obviously not a group, but we treat it as one in order to simplify notation.

In addition to the reliability tests across varying group sizes in the baseline task design (*Original*), we created four modified test environments, as shown in Fig 16 (*Noisy Corners*, *Small Gate*, *4 Rooms*, *4 Messy Rooms*). Moreover, we included three additional test conditions in which we varied the interaction properties of the animats (*No Penalty*, *Blocked*, *Blocked and no penalty*). Finally, we tested each of the *30*15*21* different configurations in each of the eight test environments.

For the statistical analysis and the main reliability evaluations, we defined a reliability measure across group sizes in the *Original* environment design: $R = \langle TF \rangle_{GS}$. The modified test environments represented four independent samples of possible environmental modifications and were only evaluated on their own for this reason. The results of the remaining three test conditions with varying interaction properties mainly served to highlight differences between the evolutionary setups, rather than testing reliability per se.

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752 Brain complexity. To evaluate the complexity of the evolved MBs, we employed two 753 complimentary measures provided by integrated information theory (IIT) [18,43], Φ^{Max} and the associated number concepts ($\#Concepts(\Phi^{Max})$). A major advantage of the measures 754 755 developed within the IIT framework is that we can quantify the internal mechanisms (causal 756 relations) of animats and their interactions (e.g., [44,45]), which let us construct premises on 757 how the cognitive processes work. The core of IIT's measures is an information theoretic, 758 and probabilistic graph analysis [18] based on the state-to-state transition probabilities of the 759 units, i.e., their update functions. Please refer to [18,19] for details on the evaluation. All 760 calculations were conducted using the IIT Python package *pyphi* [23], which we used in our work to calculate Φ^{Max} and the corresponding number of concepts. Φ^{Max} represents the 761 762 highest possible integrated information the system can achieve across all its subsets, which 763 we used as an indicator for brain complexity. A concept is a set of physical mechanisms (e.g., 764 neurons) that create integrated information [18]. Since the employed measures are state-765 dependent, we evaluated Φ^{Max} and the number of concepts for every state a MB experienced 766 during a lifetime (one trial) and selected the maximum value over all states as in [19]. Fig S1 (Supporting Information S2) shows by way of example that it is essential for high Φ^{Max} in a 767 768 system that many elements be integrated, meaning also maintaining feedback loops within 769 the system. In this study, we only considered the brain complexity of the final generation 770 (10k) due to the computational complexity of calculations using *pyphi*.

Statistics. The evolved fitness values, the reliability *R*, and the IIT brain complexity measures were statistically evaluated across all evolutionary setups using a Kruskal-Wallis test, which showed a significant difference of the observed statistics between all groups taken together. Further, we used the Mann-Whitney-U test to evaluate the difference between pairs of evolutionary setups. Section S3 in the Supporting Information lists all statistical tests that are a subject of discussion in the results and discussion section.

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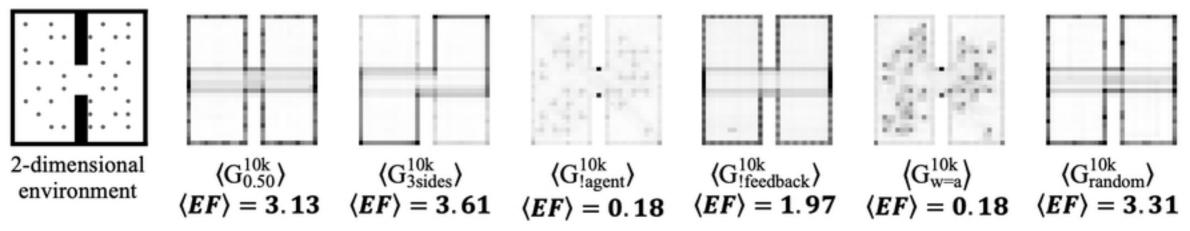
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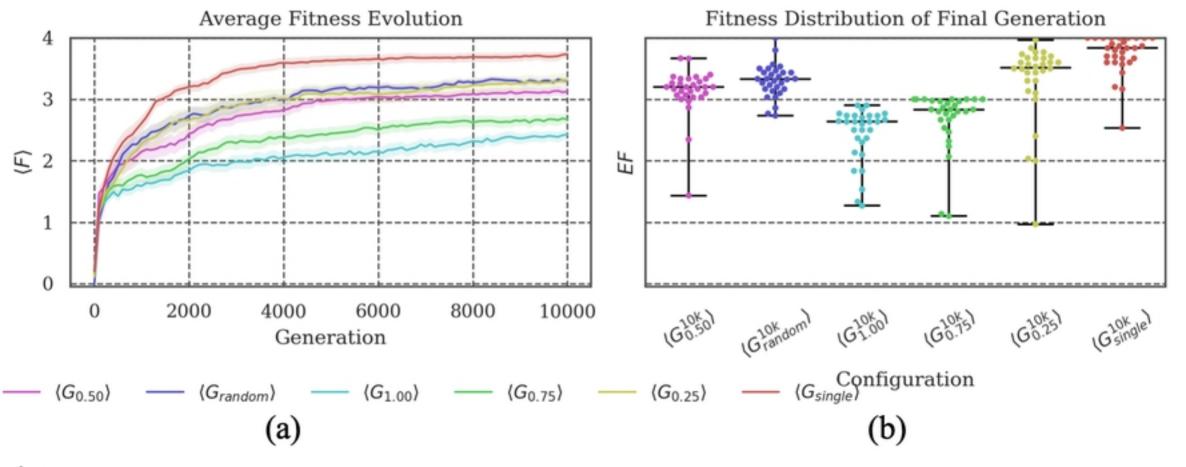
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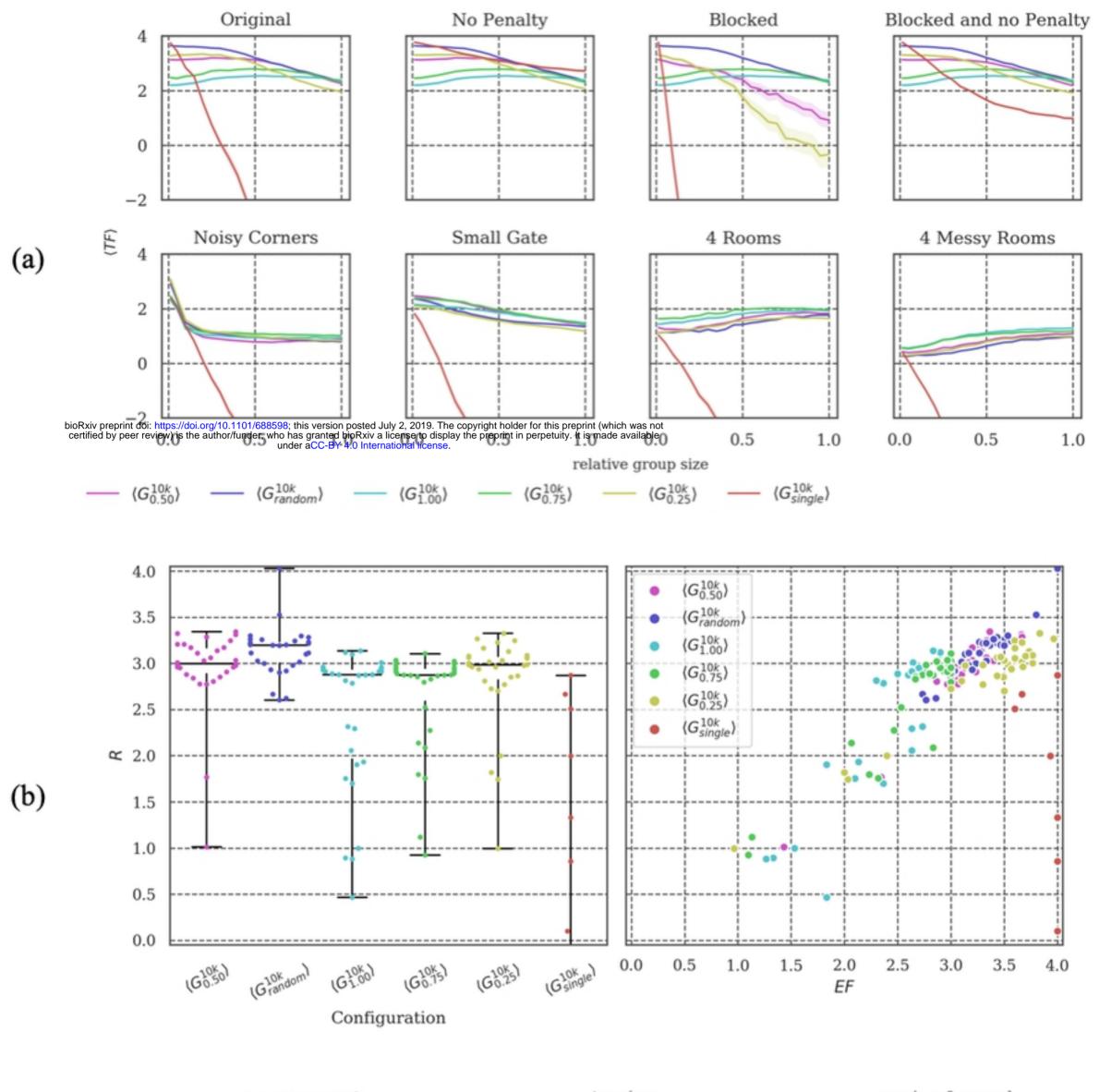
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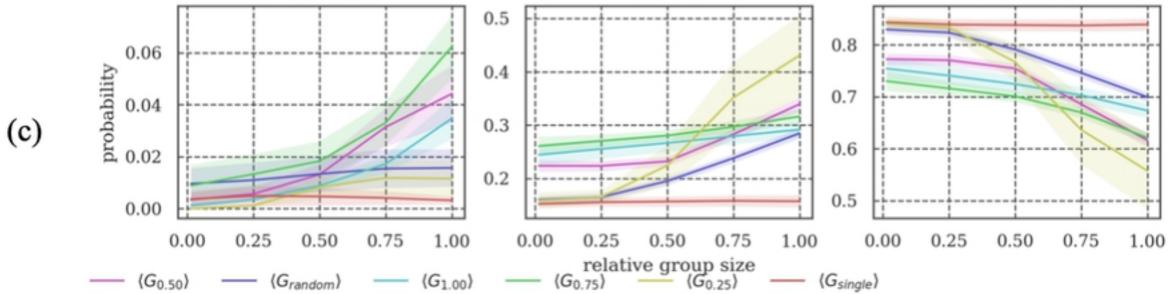


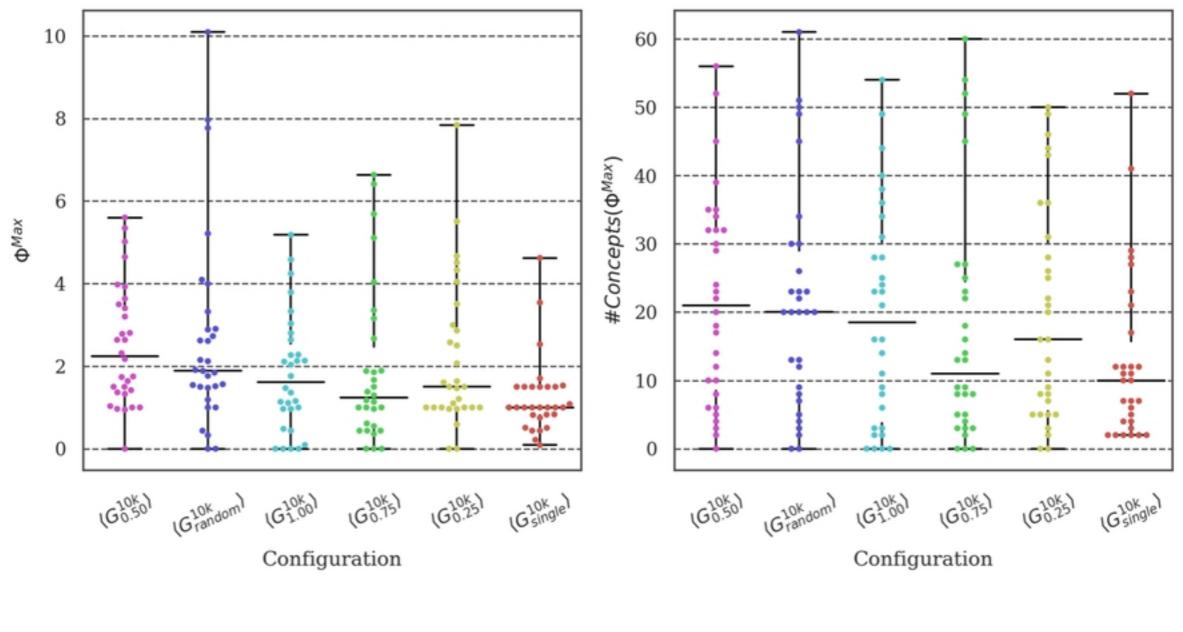






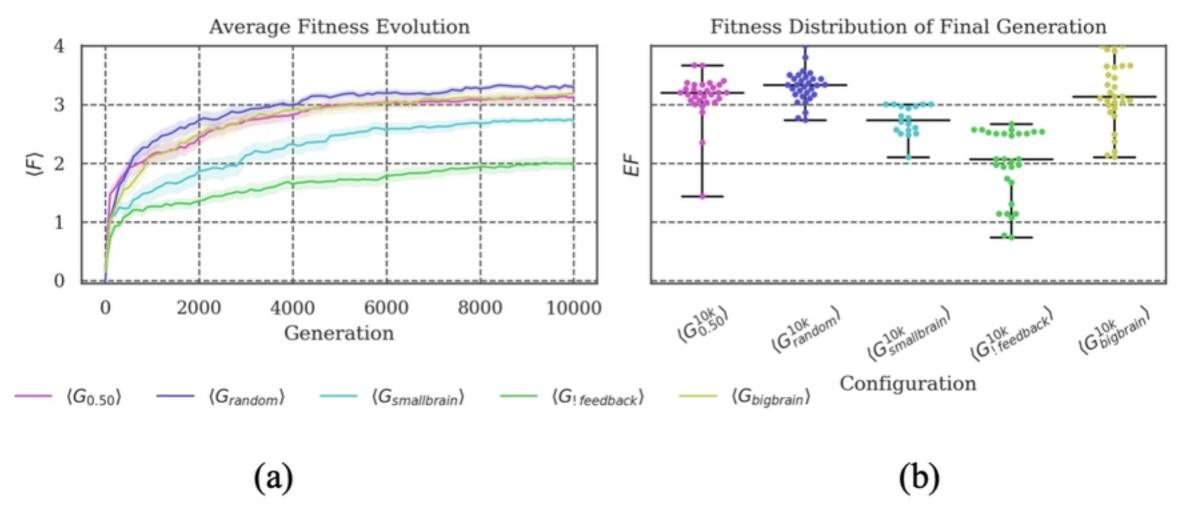
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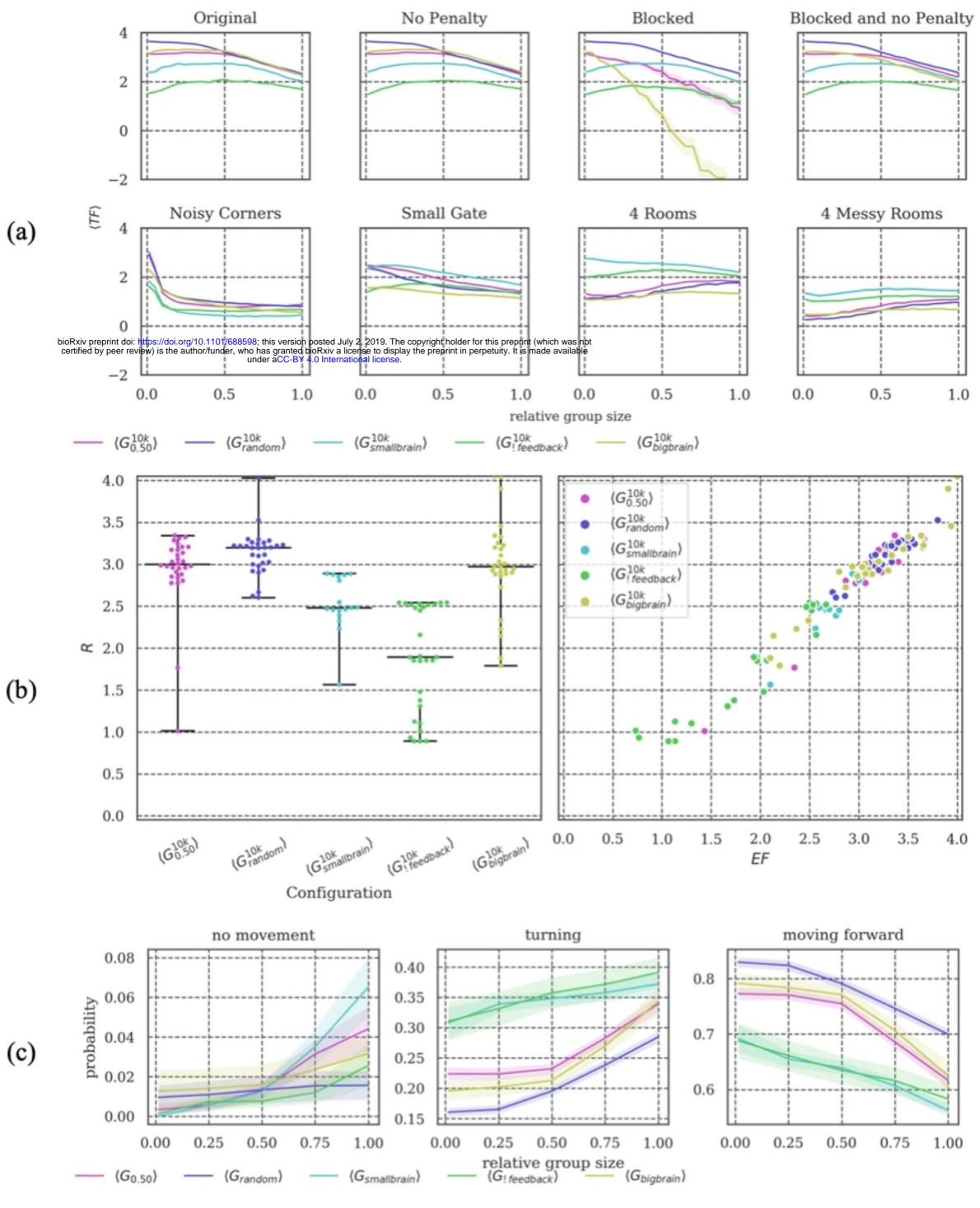




(a)

(b)





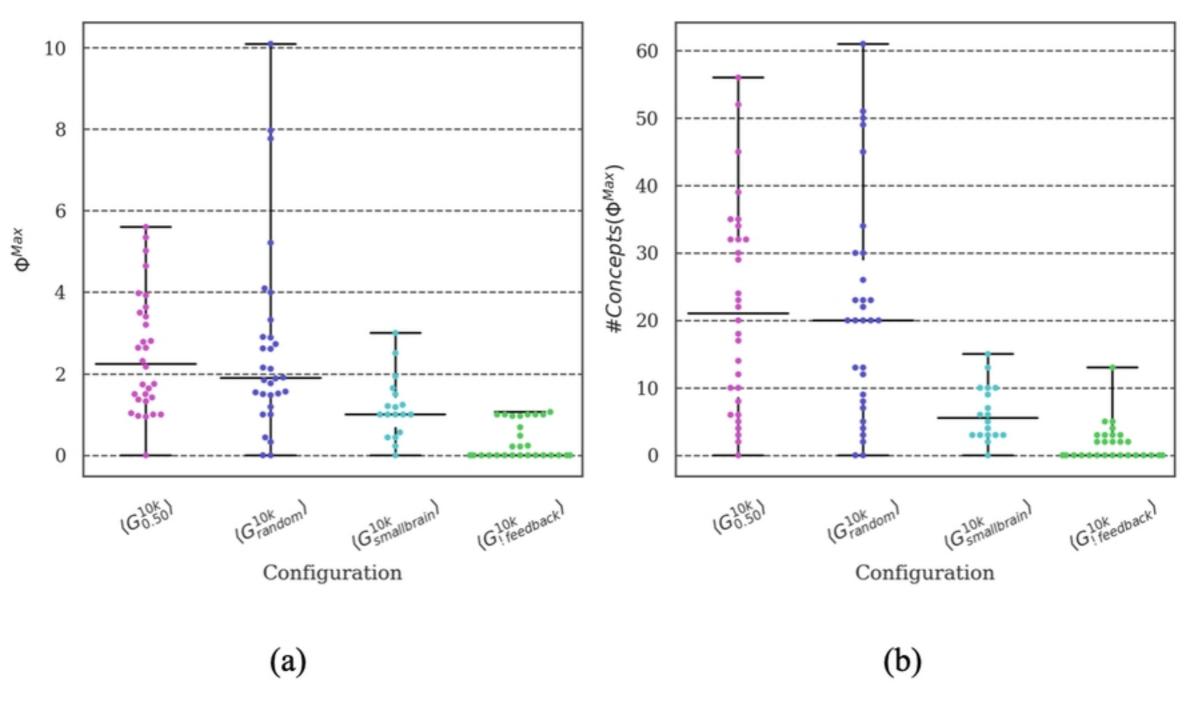
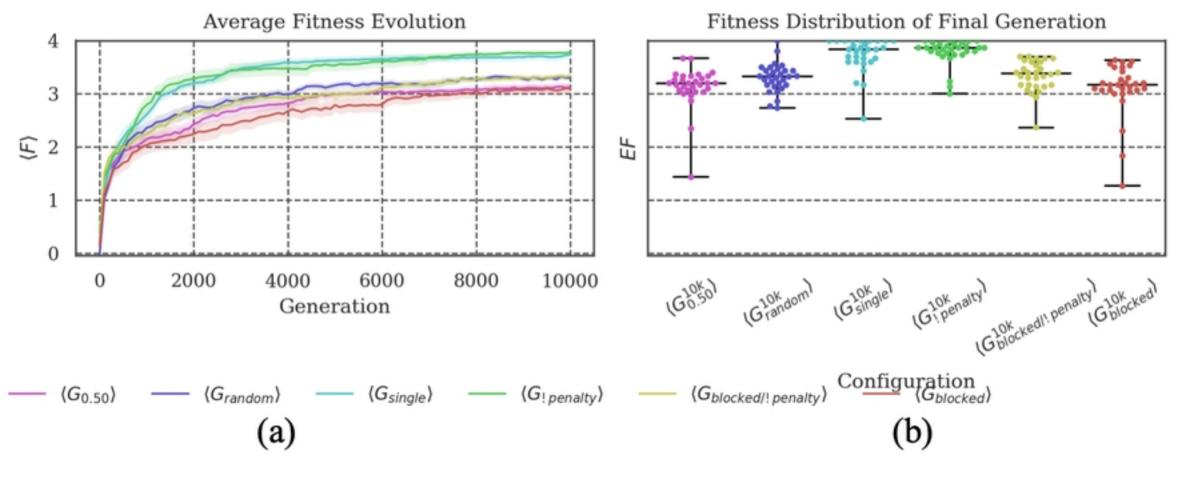
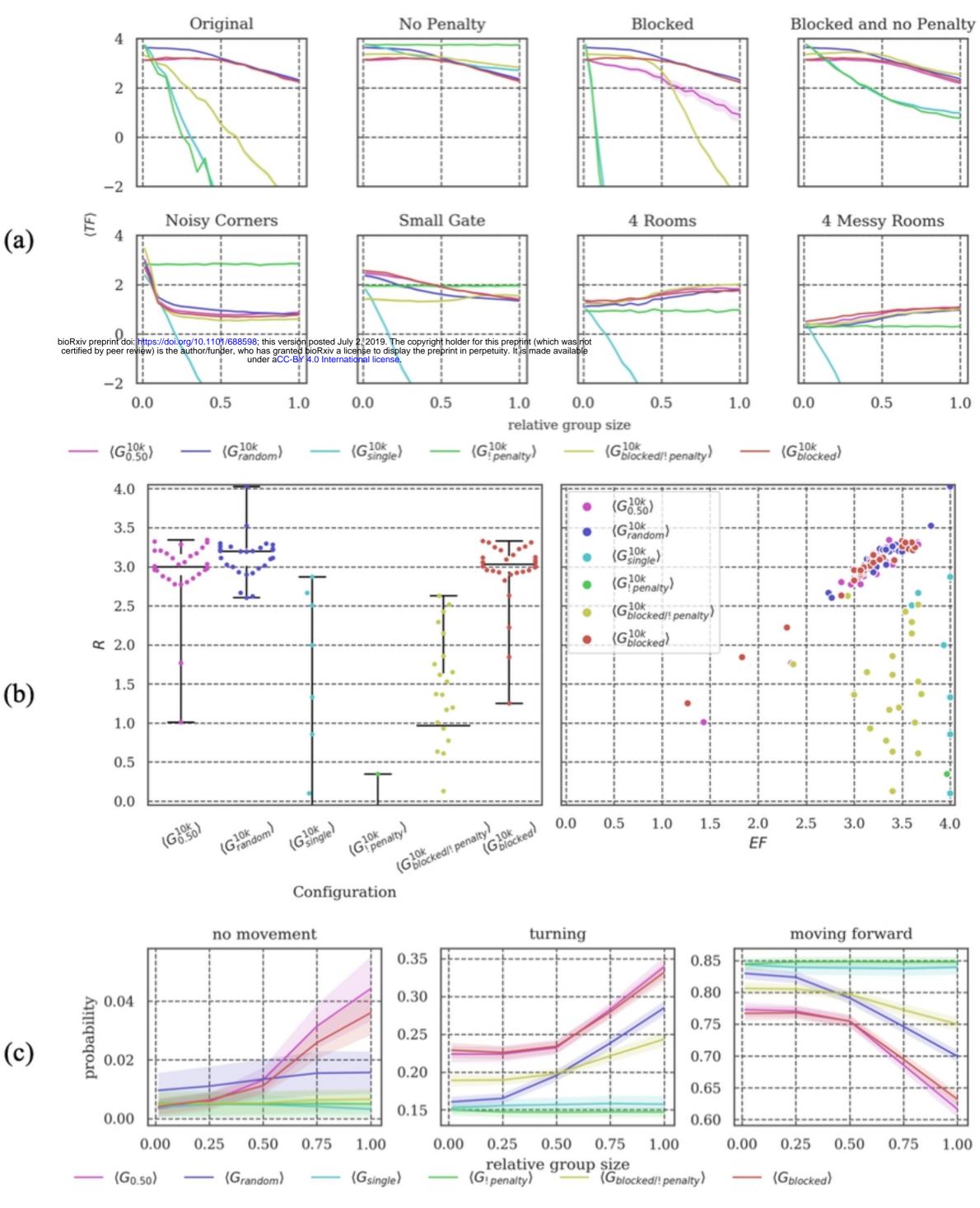
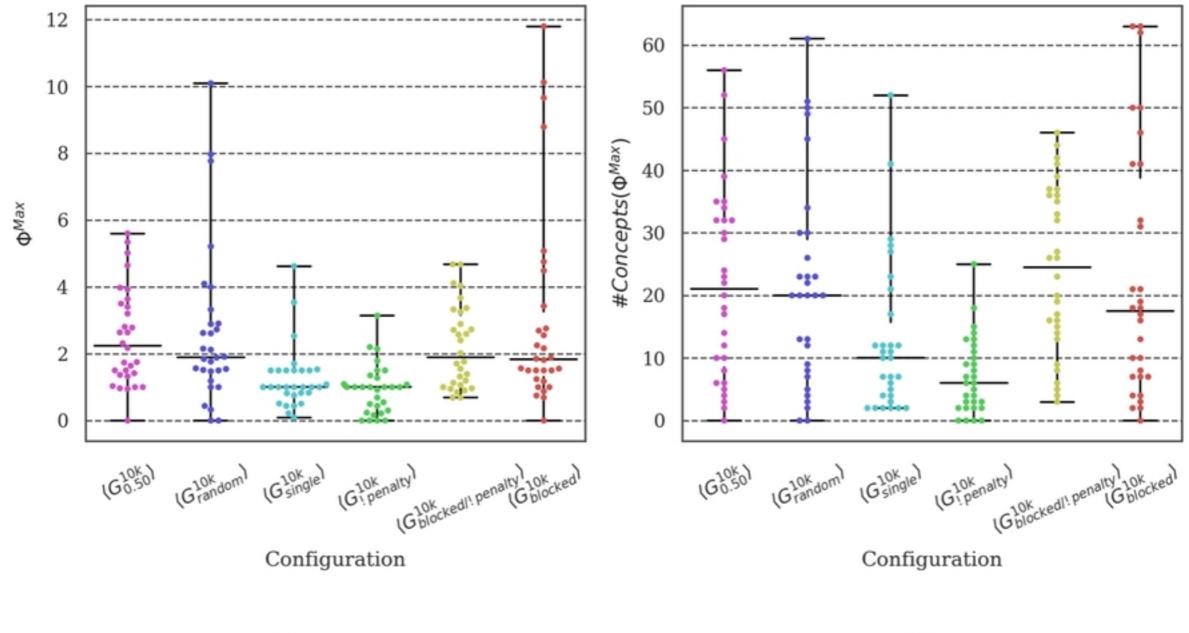


Fig 7



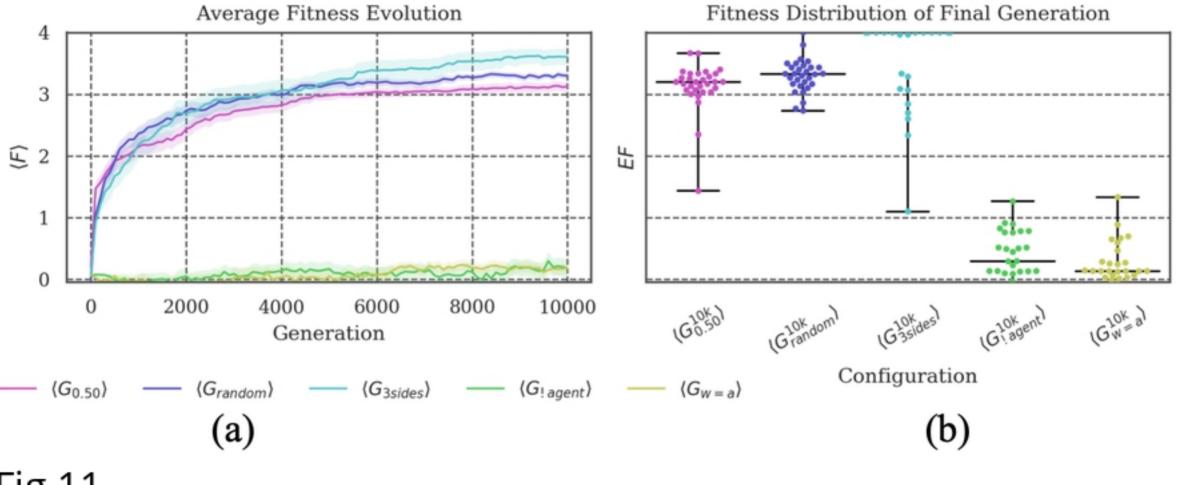


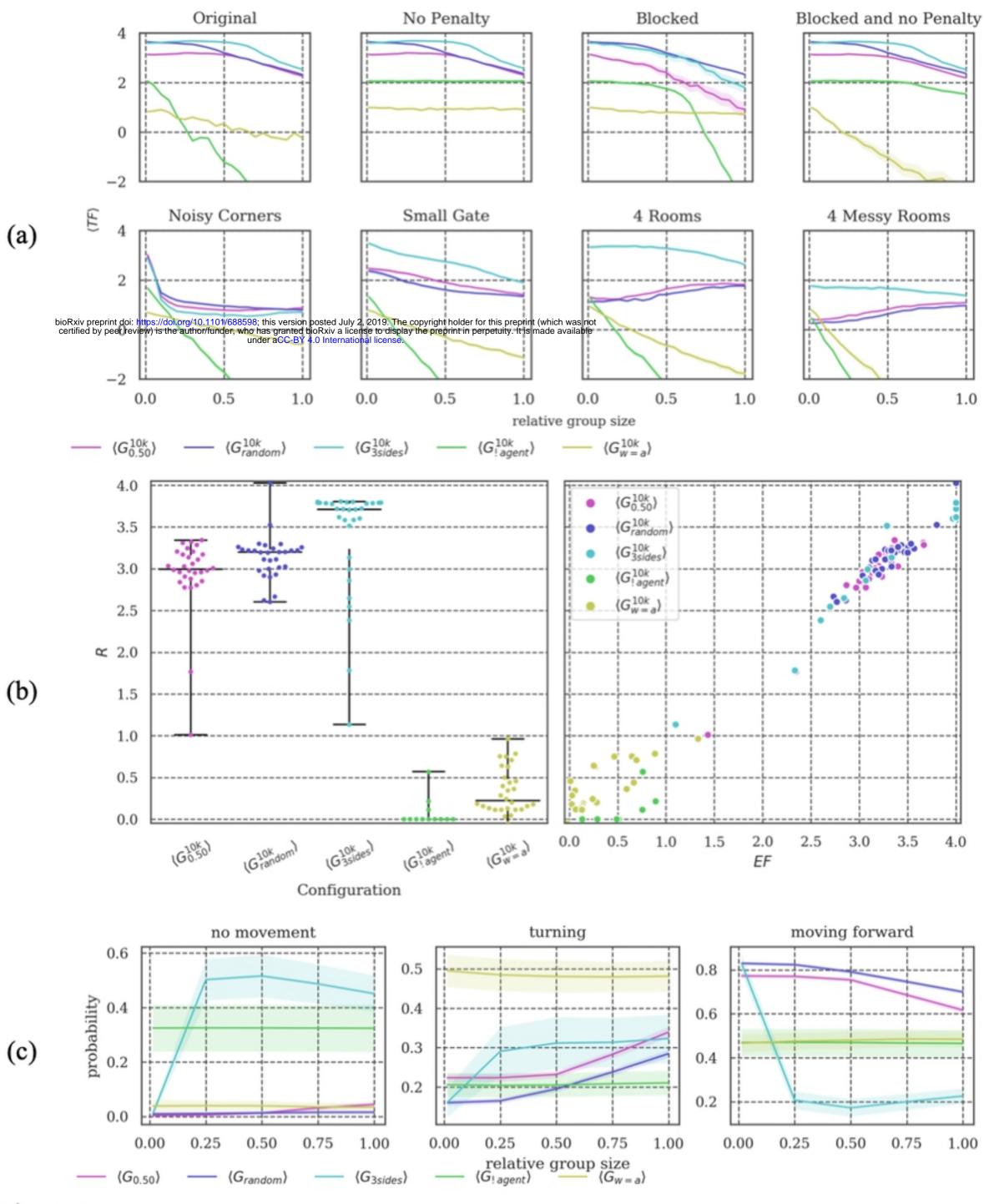


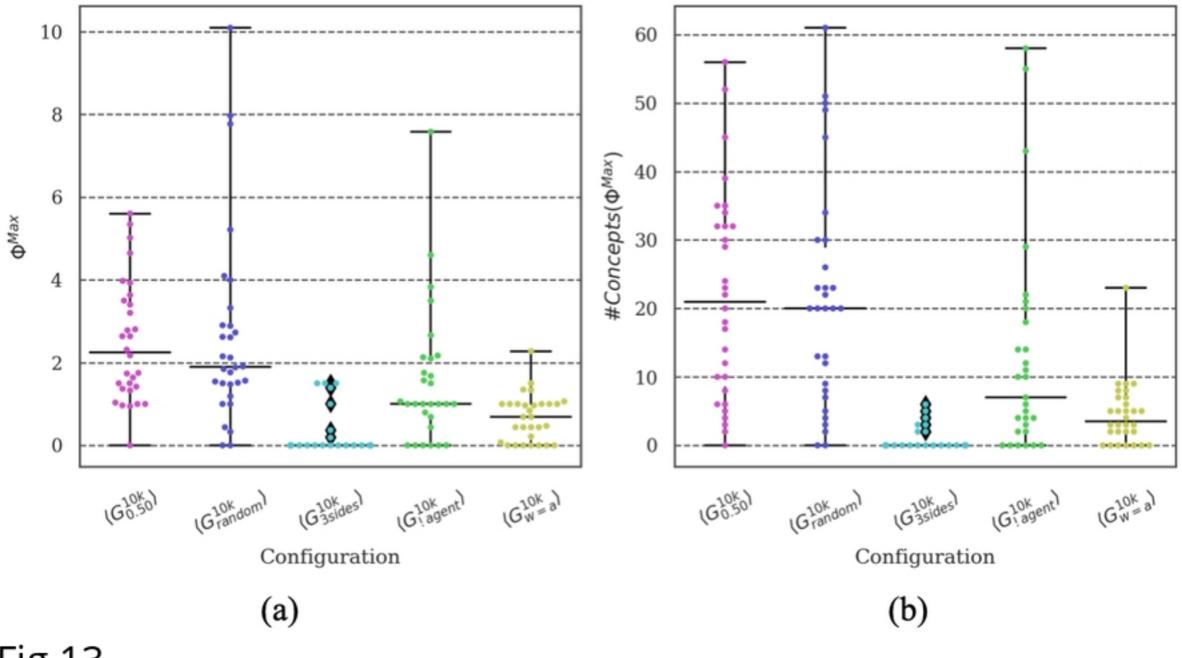


(a)

(b)







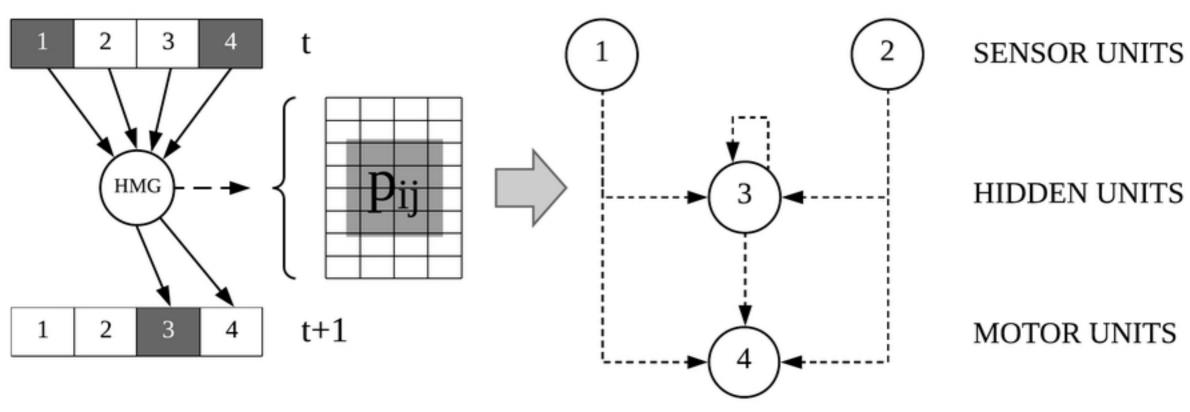
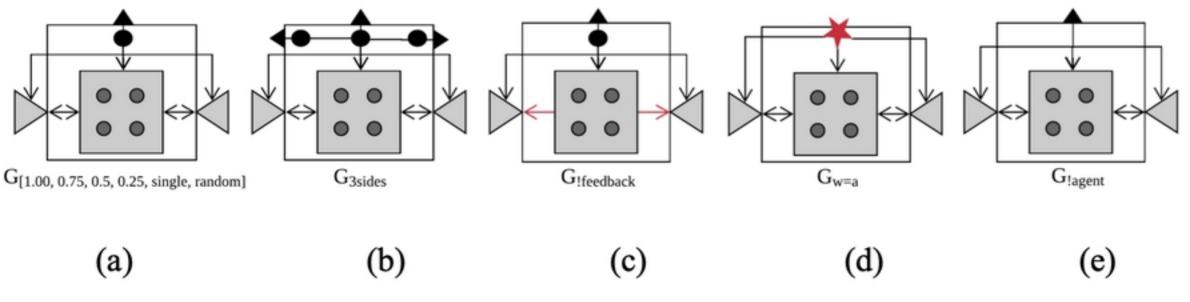
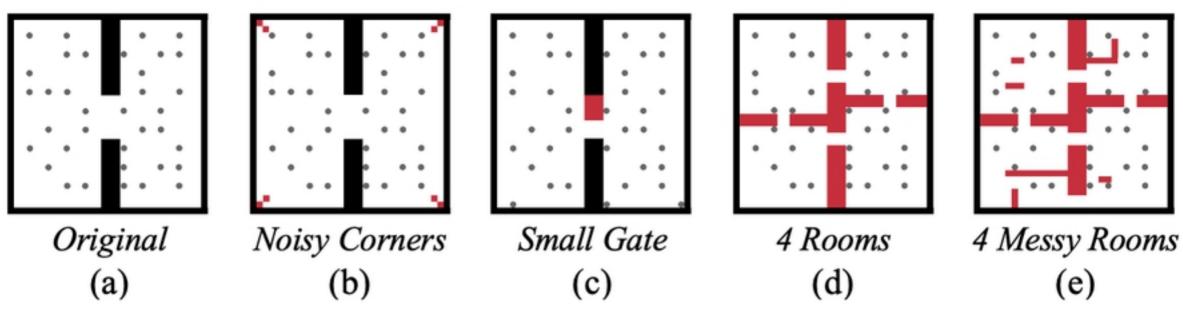
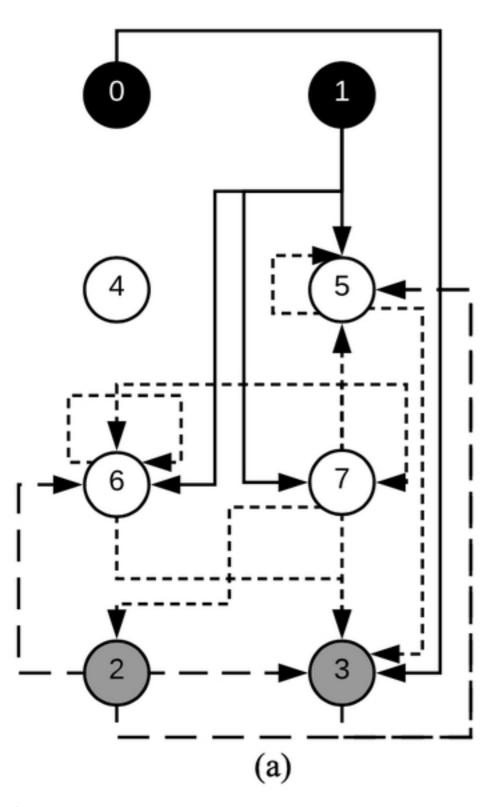


Fig 14







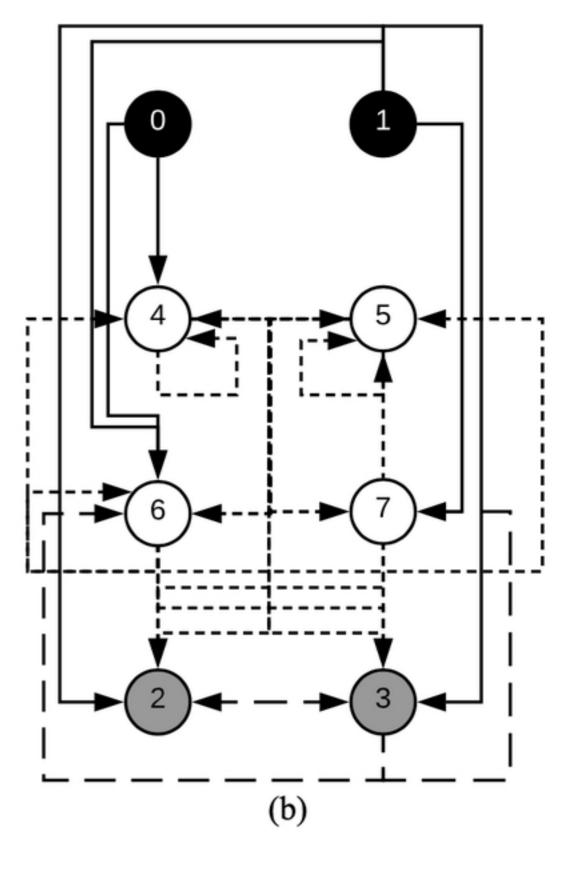


Fig S1