Cartesian Genetic Programming in a Changing Environment

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Abstract: Evolutionary algorithm are prevalently being used in static environments. In a dynamically changing environment an evolutionary algorithm must be also able to cope with the changes of the environment. This paper describes an algorithm based on Cartesian Genetic Programming (CGP) that is used to design and optimise a solution in a simulated symbolic regression problem in a changing environment. A modified version of the Age-Layered Population Structure (ALPS) algorithm is being used in cooperation with CGP. It is shown that the usage of ALPS can improve the performance on of CGP when solving problems in a changing environment.

1 INTRODUCTION

Cartesian Genetic Programming (CGP) was developed by J. Miller as a method for evolving digital circuits (Miller, 1999). Standard genetic programming (GP) utilises a tree-like representation of a candidate solution (Koza, 1992). By contrast, CGP genotypes are represented with bounded oriented graphs. This built-in limitation makes CGP suitable for running on specialised embedded or resource-limited hardware.

The behaviour of CGP has been investigated from different angles. The influence of aspects such as modularity (Walker and Miller, 2005) or the use of various search strategies (Miller and Smith, 2006) have been investigated. The influence of various mutation operators and the usage of different pseudo-random number generators have been presented (Vašíček and Sekanina, 2007).

The role of neutrality (Collins, 2006), (Yu and Miller, 2001) has proven to be crucial especially when solving difficult tasks. CGP contains a built-in mechanism of neutral mutation and a redundant genotype to phenotype mapping which improves the efficiency of searching in the fitness landscape (Eber et al., 2001). The existence of neutral networks helps when changes in the environment occur.

A good evolutionary algorithm must also be able to maintain population diversity. The algorithm should be able to escape a local optima. A straight-line solution is restarting the evolution with different random seeds which increases the chances of finding an optimal solution. A different approach is to periodically introduce new randomly generated individuals. Such algorithm then has to ensure that the new individuals cannot be easily outperformed by solutions that have been already present in the population.

This paper uses an already present combination of CGP and a diversity maintaining algorithm. This combination has already been presented on image filter evolution (Slány, 2009) where the algorithm was able to find better solutions whereas the ordinary CGP algorithm already stalled. However, the performance of the algorithm in a changing environment has not been investigated. This paper illustrates, using a synthetic symbolic regression problem, that the algorithm is more suitable for solving tasks in a changing environment than the standard CGP evolutionary strategy.

2 CARTESIAN GENETIC PROGRAMMING

In CGP a circuit (or programme) is represented by an oriented acyclic graph organised into a two-dimensional grid of nodes. The circuit has $n_i$ inputs and $n_o$ outputs. The structure of CGP is depicted in fig. 1.

Every node represents a primitive function from the set primitive functions $\Gamma$. Every node is represented by a number of genes. The function gene $f_i$
Figure 1: General form of a CGP genotype. The genotype forms a grid of nodes which represent functions from the set of primitive functions $\Gamma$. Each node takes as many inputs as the maximal function arity $a$. Data inputs and nodes are numbered consequently. These numbers are then being used for addressing places where the input data or node outputs can be accessed.

holds the address of a function in the function set for the given node $i$. The connection genes $c_i$ hold the information about the location where the node $i$ gets its input from. Connection indexes are usually indexes into an array of intermediate results. The indexes may be relative (Harding, 2008) or absolute (Miller and Thomson, 2000). The programme inputs are associated with addresses in the range starting with 0 and ending at $n_i - 1$.

The user selects the number of columns $n_c$, the number of rows $n_r$ and the level-back (or l-back) parameter $l$. Parameter $l$ controls the interconnectivity of the encoded graph. When $l = 1$ then each node can take its input from the previous column. With $l = n_r$ each node can connect to any node in any preceding column or any primary input. A special case of $n_r = 1$ and $l = n_r$ is worth notice as it allows maximum level of interconnectivity between the graph nodes.

The process of phenotype evaluation starts with the identification of active nodes. These are recursively identified by traversing the graph structure in reverse – starting from the outputs. Nodes that have not been identified as active are called non-coding. Non-coding nodes are not processed during phenotype evaluation. The consequence of non-coding nodes is that CGP phenotypes have variable size. The size cannot exceed the size defined by the grid dimension $n_c \times n_r$.

CGP uses mutation. Alleles at randomly chosen gene locations are altered with another valid value. Function genes can only be replaced with another function gene values. Mutated connection genes must obey the rules given for connection genes. The total number of mutated genes is usually given by the percentage of the total number of genes in the genotype. The value is called mutation rate $\mu_r$. Crossover operations are not commonly used in CGP.

CGP usually uses a simple evolutionary algorithm known as $(1 + \lambda)$ evolutionary strategy where the best individual is kept in the population. The number of offspring is usually set to be a low number between 4 and 8. Suppose there is no better individual than the parent but there are offspring with equal fitness to the parent’s fitness. In that case the offspring is chosen to be the new parent. The whole CGP algorithm is summarised in alg. 1.

### Algorithm 1: $(1 + \lambda)$ Evolutionary Strategy

```plaintext
\begin{algorithm}
\begin{align*}
g & \leftarrow 0 \\
& \text{for all } i : 0 \leq i < (1 + \lambda) \text{ do} \\
& \quad \text{parent} \leftarrow \text{randomly generated individual} \\
& \text{end for} \\
& \text{Calculate the fitness for all individuals in population } \text{pop}. \\
& \quad \text{parent} \leftarrow \text{fittest individual from } \text{pop} \\
& \text{while } (g < \text{max number of generations}) \land \text{(fitness not acceptable)} \text{ do} \\
& \quad \text{for all } i : 0 \leq i < \lambda \text{ do} \\
& \quad \quad \text{pop}[i] \leftarrow \text{mutated parent} \\
& \quad \text{end for} \\
& \quad \text{Calculate the fitness for all individuals in } \text{pop}. \\
& \quad \text{if some offspring fitness } \geq \text{ parent fitness then} \\
& \quad \quad \text{parent} \leftarrow \text{offspring with equal or better fitness} \\
& \quad \text{end if} \\
& g \leftarrow g + 1 \\
& \text{end while}
\end{align*}
\end{algorithm}
```

### 2.1 ALPS Algorithm

Premature convergence has been a problem in genetic programming. It can be tackled by increasing the mutation probability which will boost the diversity of the population. But, increased mutation rate is very likely to destroy good alleles which have already evolved in the population. With mutation probability set high the genetic algorithm cannot narrow the surroundings of a particular solution. Large population sizes can also solve the problem of reduced diversity at risk of higher computational costs.

The Age-Layered Population Structure (ALPS) (Hornby, 2006) introduces time labels into the evolutionary algorithm. These labels represent the age of particular candidate solutions. Individuals keep the information about how long they have been evolving. Candidate solutions are only allowed to interact with individuals within the same age group. This ensures that newly generated solutions cannot be easily outperformed by a solution which has already been present in the population. Moreover, randomly generated new solutions are added in regular intervals. These principles are used to maintain population diversity in ALPS.

Newly generated solutions start with their respective age tag set to 0. Individuals generated by a genetic operator, such as mutation or crossover, receive the age of the oldest parent increased by 1. Also, every time an individual is selected to be an parent, its age is increased by 1. Should a candidate solu-
tion be used as parent multiple times then its age is increased by 1 only once.

The population is defined as a structure of age layers which restrict the competition (and breeding) among candidate solutions. Every layer except the top layer has its age limit which restricts the residence of candidate solutions to individuals with their age below the value of the limit. The top layer has no age restrictions. The structure of the layers can be defined in various ways. Different systems are shown in tab. 1. The factor values are multiplied by the age-gap parameter. The product then serves as the maximal age allowed in a particular layer.

| Table 1: Ageing scheme distribution examples that can be used in the ALPS algorithm. |
|-----------------------------------------------|-----------------|
| ageing scheme | limiting factor per layer |
|                | 1  2  3  4   i |
| linear         | 1  2  3  4   i |
| polynomial     | 1  2  4  9   \((i-1)^2, i > 2\) |
| exponential    | 1  2  4  8   \(2i-1\) |
| factorial      | 1  2  6  24  \(!\) |

2.1.1 ALPS and CGP

Originally, ALPS was designed to maintain diversity in difficult problems being solved by GP. GP uses a crossover operator combined with tournament selection. The original algorithm has been modified so it could operate with CGP (Slaný, 2009). The modified version utilises mutation and elitism. The crossover operator has been removed.

The modified ALPS algorithm for CGP starts with a randomly populated bottom layer. Layers above are empty and are going to be filled during the evolution process. The layers interact by sending offspring into layers above or by receiving individuals from layers below. The individuals grow older and are moved to adjacent layers or are discarded. The bottom layer is in regular intervals regenerated by randomly generated individuals with age 0. The parameter controlling this behaviour is called randomisation-period. The value of this parameter stands for the number of generations between two adjacent randomisations of the bottom layer.

Every time when the age of an individual exceeds the age limit assigned to a given layer then such individual is moved to the next superordinate layer. If there is a layer that should be populated by the offspring of its own and also by the offspring of a subordinate layer then it is divided into two halves. The first half is going to receive offspring from the layer itself. The second half receives offspring from the layer below. After this step, both halves become a single layer again. Should a layer receive offspring only from a layer below or only from itself then the entire layer is going to be filled at once. The whole algorithm is summarised in alg. 2. Elitism similar to CGP is used. The best evolved member is kept in each layer. It is replaced only by individuals with better or at least equal fitness. Should the algorithm omit the randomisation period and should it use only a single layer then it would equally match the \((1 + \lambda)\) evolutionary strategy.

Algorithm 2: Modified ALPS algorithm for CGP.

\[
g \leftarrow 0 \\
l \leftarrow 0 \\
\text{for all } i: 0 \leq i < (1 + \lambda) \text{ do} \\
\hspace{1cm} \text{pop}[i] \leftarrow \text{randomly generated individual} \\
\text{end for} \\
\text{Calculate the fitness for all individuals in population pop[i].} \\
\hspace{1cm} \text{parent}[i] \leftarrow \text{fittest individual from pop[i]} \\
\hspace{1cm} \Rightarrow \text{pop}[i][\lambda] \\
\text{while } (g < \text{max number of generations}) \land (\text{fitness not acceptable}) \text{ do} \\
\hspace{1cm} \text{for all } l: \text{max} > l \geq 0 \text{ do} \\
\hspace{2cm} \text{if } (0 < l) \land (0 < \text{random period}) \text{ then} \\
\hspace{3cm} \text{for all } i: 0 \leq i < (1 + \lambda) \text{ do} \\
\hspace{4cm} \text{Randomise bottom layer.} \\
\hspace{4cm} \text{pop}[i][\text{parent[i] - } \text{randomly generated individual}] \\
\hspace{3cm} \text{end for} \\
\hspace{3cm} \text{else} \\
\hspace{4cm} \text{auxp} \leftarrow \text{none} \\
\hspace{4cm} \text{mid} \leftarrow 0 \\
\hspace{4cm} \text{max} \leftarrow 0 \\
\hspace{4cm} \text{start} \\
\hspace{5cm} \text{if } (l = \text{max}) \land (\text{age(parent[i]} < \text{age max}(l)) \text{ then} \\
\hspace{6cm} \text{auxp} \leftarrow \text{parent} \\
\hspace{6cm} \Rightarrow \text{parent in layer } l. \\
\hspace{5cm} \text{mid} \leftarrow (1 + \lambda) \\
\hspace{5cm} \text{end if} \\
\hspace{5cm} \text{if } (l \neq \text{max}) \land (\text{age(parent[i]} > \text{age max}(l)) \text{ then} \\
\hspace{6cm} \text{auxp} \leftarrow \text{parent} \\
\hspace{6cm} \Rightarrow \text{parent in layer } l + 1. \\
\hspace{5cm} \text{if } l \neq \text{mid} \text{ then} \\
\hspace{6cm} \text{mid} \leftarrow (\text{mid}/2) \\
\hspace{5cm} \text{end if} \\
\hspace{5cm} \text{max} \leftarrow (1 + \lambda) \\
\hspace{5cm} \text{end if} \\
\hspace{5cm} \text{if } 0 \neq \text{mid} \text{ then} \\
\hspace{6cm} \text{Use parent from layer } l. \\
\hspace{6cm} \text{pop}[i][0] \leftarrow \text{auxp} \\
\hspace{6cm} \text{for all } i: 1 \leq i < \text{mid} \text{ do} \\
\hspace{7cm} \text{pop}[i][\text{parent[i]} + \text{auxp}] \\
\hspace{6cm} \text{end for} \\
\hspace{6cm} \text{end if} \\
\hspace{6cm} \text{if } (1 + \lambda) = \text{max} \text{ then} \\
\hspace{7cm} \text{Use parent from layer } l + 1. \\
\hspace{7cm} \text{pop}[i][\text{mid}] \leftarrow \text{auxp} \\
\hspace{7cm} \text{for all } i: (\text{mid} + 1) \leq i < \text{max} \text{ do} \\
\hspace{8cm} \text{pop}[i][\text{auxp}] \\
\hspace{7cm} \text{end for} \\
\hspace{6cm} \text{end if} \\
\hspace{6cm} \text{Calculate the fitness for all individuals in population pop[i].} \\
\hspace{6cm} \text{parent[i] } \leftarrow \text{best individual of pop[i]} \\
\hspace{6cm} g \leftarrow g + 1 \text{ \(\Rightarrow\) increment generation counter.} \\
\hspace{5cm} \text{end for} \\
\hspace{5cm} \text{end while}
\]

During the evolution process the size limits describing the maximal population size don’t change. The actual size of the population may vary. It may periodically increase or decrease as different layers are
populated or go extinct. This behaviour is largely controlled by the selected ageing scheme, age-gap and the randomisation-period parameters.

3 EXPERIMENTS

Figure 2: top: $C_o$, middle: $A_{fact}$, bottom: $C_l$ Fitness progress when approximating $f_1$ from tab. 4. The evolutionary process is started on $f_1$.

Figure 3: top: $C_o$, middle: $A_{fact}$, bottom: $C_l$ Fitness progress when approximating $f_2$ from tab. 4. The environment is switched from $f_1$ to $f_2$ without restarting.

Figure 4: top: $C_o$, middle: $A_{fact}$, bottom: $C_l$ Fitness progress when approximating $f_3$ from tab. 4. The environment is switched from $f_2$ to $f_3$ without restarting.

A symbolic regression problem has been used to compare performance of the algorithms. The goal of those algorithms is to evolve a function whose output matches as closely as possible the output that is provided by the training set of $n$ samples. The fitness value expresses the sum of absolute differences between the outputs of the evolved function $f_e$ and the corresponding expected outputs $y$ for all input values $x$. The goal is to minimise the computed fitness value (1).

$$ f_{val} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - f_e(x_i)| $$

The experiments have been divided into several classes. Most of the algorithm settings are shared be-
between the experiments in order to be able to compare the performance of the \((1 + \lambda)\) evolutionary strategy and the ALPS CGP algorithm variant. The genome parameters are summarised in tab. 2. The genome layout has been chosen so it can provide maximal degree of variability.

Parameters related to genome configuration do not change and are common for all experiments. The task is to compare the algorithms by the means of the ability to maintain convergence and also by the means of speed. Because population sizes of the algorithms differ then the progress of the evolutionary process is not measured in generations. The number of fitness function invocation is being used instead. This gives a more precise information about the actual algorithm performance.

The set of primitive functions \(\Gamma\) contains binary functions listed in tab. 3. The secure division operation returns 1 if the divisor is equal to 0.

The set of primitive function has been extended with a set of constants which act as constant functions with arbitrary arity. The used constants are: 0, 0.0001,
3.1 Changing Environment I

In this set of experiments three algorithms have been applied in this implementation.

Table 2: Parameters related to the CGP genome as they have been used in the experiments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>name</th>
<th>value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>inputs $n_i$</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outputs $n_o$</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rows $n_r$</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>columns $n_c$</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level-back $l$</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mutation rate $\mu$</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

0.0002, 0.0005, 0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.02, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200 and 500. These constant functions ignore any of their inputs and always return their respective value. That makes them interchangeable with any of the remaining binary functions in the function set $\Gamma$.

All experiments use a software implementation of CGP. The algorithm was implemented using the C programming language in order to achieve reasonable performance. Some code optimisations have been used, e.g. avoiding dynamic memory allocations. A technique of achieving additional performance gain in CPU-based CGP implementations has been published (Vašček and Slaný, 2012), however, it has not been applied in this implementation.

Table 3: Functions used as building components. These functions operate on 32-bit floating point numbers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>func.</th>
<th>descr.</th>
<th>func.</th>
<th>descr.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$a + b$</td>
<td>addition</td>
<td>$\max(a, b)$</td>
<td>maximum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$a - b$</td>
<td>subtraction</td>
<td>$\min(a, b)$</td>
<td>minimum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$a \cdot b$</td>
<td>multiplication</td>
<td>$(a + b)/2$</td>
<td>average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$a \div b$</td>
<td>secure division</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only active nodes are used when evaluating the fitness, that is the main reason why the application manages to perform different numbers of evaluations during the intervals.

3.1 Changing Environment I

In this set of experiments three algorithms have been used.
investigated:

$C_o$ denotes the ordinary $(1 + \lambda)$ evolutionary strategy where $\lambda = 7$.

$A_{fact}$ denotes the ALPS CGP algorithm variant with a factorial ageing scheme. The population consists of 5 layers with 8 individuals each. The age-gap parameter is set to 20. The bottom layer is randomised every 200 generations.

$C_f$ denotes a $(1 + \lambda)$ strategy algorithm that uses a large population. The size of the population has been increased to the size of 40 individuals in order to match the maximal size of the $A_{fact}$ algorithm.

The functions that have been used to generate the training sets are listed in tab. 4. These polynomials have been chosen at random. The training sets have been used throughout the experiments in the order as they are listed. The training sets consist of equidistant floating point samples that have been obtained on the interval ranging from $-10.0$ to $10.0$ with the step of 0.01.

The aim of this experiment is to evaluate how the algorithms behave in a changing environment – i.e. how the algorithms cope with sudden changes in the environments. The environment is changed after every 5 minutes. The evolutionary algorithms retain their population structure when the changes occur. The observed behaviour is summarised in figures 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9. Changes in the environment occur at evaluation 0 in every mentioned figure except fig. 2 when the evolution is started.

The figures show the progress of the best achieved fitness value of 60 experimental runs. The values on the x-axis are re-sampled so that the number of evaluation starts from 0 for every function although the evolution process does not stop as the environment changes from $f_k$ to $f_{k+1}$. Because the total number of evaluation during the fixed time interval varies it could be difficult to read the graphs (especially when comparing the data) with different x-bases.

Four lines are depicted in these graphs. At each step in the evolution they display the best, worst and average achieved best fitness values out of 60 experimental runs. Additionally, the median of all achieved fitness values is displayed. This gives a hint where the boundary between the better and the worse half of all experimental runs is.

### 3.2 Changing Environment II

In this set of experiments less abrupt changes in the environment have been simulated. The polynomial $f_7$ has been used. The expression has been randomly modified in each step. Expressions that are the being approximated are listed in tab. 5.

Figures 10, 11, 12, 13 illustrate the observed behaviour. Changes in the environment occur at evaluation 0 in every mentioned figure except fig. 10 when the evolution is started. Except for the approximated data the experimental set-up matches the setting listed in sec. 3.1.

Theoretically, parts of the already evolved genomes could be reused when an environment change occurs. Judging from the observed behaviour this could have happened in fig. 11.

### 3.3 Static Environment

This set of experiments has been performed on same data as in sec. 3.1. The goal was to find out whether there is a difference between the case in which the algorithm is freshly started or when the algorithm has to adapt an already present population.

Experimental set-up again matches the settings from sec. 3.1. The algorithms are restarted every time a change in the environment occurs. Again all experiments are run for 5 minutes and are repeated 60 times. Observer behaviour is illustrated in figures 14, 15, 16 and 17.

All of the algorithms show faster convergence rates when compared with figures from sec. 3.1. In the first set of experiments the environments have been changed without restarting the evolutionary process. At the point of environment change the population is already flooded with alleles that have evolved in the old environment and which are rendered useless by

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>function</th>
<th>expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$f_1$</td>
<td>$x^3 + x^2 + x^2 + x$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_2$</td>
<td>$3x^3 + 2x^2 + 3x + 1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_3$</td>
<td>$4x^3 - 3x - 20x + 197$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_4$</td>
<td>$(2x^3 + 7x^2 - 19x - 11)/(x^4 - 3x^3 + 2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_5$</td>
<td>$(2x^3 - 4x^2 + 2x)/(2x^2 + x - 14)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_6$</td>
<td>$3x^4 - 8x^3 + 2x$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_7$</td>
<td>$(5x^4 - x^2 + 2x)/(x^2 + 7x + 5)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>function</th>
<th>expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$f_{f1}$</td>
<td>$(5x^4 - x^2 + 2x)/(x^2 + 7x + 5)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_{f2}$</td>
<td>$(5x^4 - x^2 + 2x)/(x^2 + 7x + 5)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_{f3}$</td>
<td>$(5x^4 - x^2 + 2x)/(x^2 + 7x + 5)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

Table 5: Functions used in the changing environment experiments.
the changed environment. In the set of experiments described in this section the process always starts with completely randomly initialised population.

3.4 Summary

Nearly all figures show that the ALPS CGP algorithm behaves best by the means of the worst case scenario and by the means of average achieved values. The ALPS variant has also been able to find better solution more quickly. It has also been able to find solutions with better fitness in cases where no perfect solution could be found.

4 CONCLUSIONS

The experiments show that the ALPS CGP algorithm exerts better adaptation than the ordinary CGP algorithm regardless of the population size. In most cases the ALPS variant exhibits the best behaviour in the worst case scenarios. When comparing the average behaviour, then again it shows the best progress most of the time. Moreover, in cases when no optimal solution could be found the ALPS variant was able to achieve better solutions than the remaining algorithms. Age tags are added and additional comparison of the tags is required in order to maintain the population structure. One could argue that it increases the memory consumption because of the increased population size. Usually, the memory required for storing the training set surpasses the memory needed for holding the genotypes. Whenever abrupt changes in the environment are going to happen then it is better to restart the evolution from scratch rather than going on with adaptation to the changes. It would be interesting to quantify the amount of changes to the environment where it would be better to keep the evolution running.

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