Efficient Self Adapting Agent Organizations

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Abstract: Self-organizing multi-agent systems provide a suitable paradigm for agents to manage themselves. We demonstrate a robust, decentralized approach for structural adaptation in explicitly modelled problem solving agent organizations. Based on self-organization principles, our method enables the agents to modify their structural relations to achieve a better completion rate of tasks in the environment. Reasoning on adaptation is based only on the agent’s history of interactions. Agents use the history of tasks assigned to their neighbours and completion rate as a measure of evaluation. This evaluation suggests the most suitable agents for reorganization (Meta-Reasoning). Our Selective-Adaptation has four different approaches of Meta-Reasoning, which are 1) Fixed Approach, 2) Need-Based Approach, 3) Performance-Based Approach, and 4) Satisfaction-based Approach along with a Reorganization approach, which needs less data but makes better decisions.

1 INTRODUCTION

A multi-agent system consists of interacting intelligent agents and their environment. Agents can be software agents, robots, or humans. Multi-agent systems solve problems that are difficult or impossible for an individual agent to solve alone. In multi-agent systems, interaction between agents is one of the important factors, which allows them to find each other and exchange information.

Social interaction and success in jointly solving problems determines a desirable structure for the organization of agents. The task environment contains a stream of tasks requiring some services, and agents need to provide these services by providing required resources. The number of links and the specific connections are designed to minimize communication overhead and facilitate task completion.

Autonomous systems, capable of de-centralized self-organization, have been proposed as a solution for managing complex computing systems that must deal with node failure and dynamic problem characteristics. Responding to their own history of interactions, individual agents exhibit the ability to modify the organizational structure. Our adaptation method is based on the agents forging and dissolving relations with other agents. Agents use the history of tasks assigned to their neighbours and the degree of successful completion of these tasks as a measure of evaluation. The system evaluates existing links for possible increase or decrease in the overall performance. After finding the target neighbours for reorganization, the agent may decide to change the two-way relationship with them or replace the target agent with another agent for probable improvement.

Various approaches promote self-organization, like reward-based mechanisms for selfish agents, stigmergy (indirect coordination through the environment), reinforcement mechanisms, and cooperative actions of agents (Kota, 2008). Each of these approaches has advantages and disadvantages, but none of them directly deals with organization structure. Self-organized systems are decentralized, without any external control. Such autonomic systems are more robust as there will not be a single point of failure.

2 PREVIOUS WORK

Much research exists in self-adapting multi-agent systems (Alberola, 2012, Dayong, 2012, Zheng-guang, 2006). In (Barton, 2008), the network structure is composed of agents (having a given skill set) and connections between agents. Tasks requiring a set of skills are introduced into the system. Agents communicate with other agents within n network links in their surrounding network. This surrounding network is the agent’s local

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neighbourhood. A set of agents form a coalition to complete each task. In this model, all completed tasks have equal utility, while uncompleted tasks have zero utility. Agents attempt to reorganize themselves to improve the utility of the system. Barton evaluates several approaches in this work. The egalitarian approach chooses to establish connections to agents, which have relatively few connections. The inventory approach connects agents possessing a needed skill in the neighbourhood. The structural approach seeks to connect to agents with the largest number of connections. They examine the behaviours of different mentioned methods (Barton, 2008). This differs from our model in that a tree of SIs is not considered, and the model permits only one kind of relationship between agents.

In (Miralles, 2009), the authors structure the problem as a set of resources which work together to share data. A separate meta-level is in charge of adaptation. A peer can potentially contact any other agent, but typically, it interacts with a small number of them. Agents reorganize in response to changes in connection quality or information flow. Each connection is limited in terms of number of units of data that can be sent in a time step.

(Sansores, 2008) present a self-organization rule-based approach is used to control the behaviour of adapting agents, and reinforcement learning uses memory of adaptations.

Kota et al. (Kota, 2009) represent the task environment as a dynamically incoming stream of tasks requiring multiple services. There is sequential dependency between tasks. Kota represents tasks as a tree of service instances (SIs) in which the parent SI must be completed before the child SI. The Kota model assigns tasks to the agents randomly, and the assigned agent utilizes its subordinates, peers and acquaintances to accomplish the task. Figure 1 demonstrates a tree of task dependencies.

![Figure 1: Nodes represent a service instance (SI). Arrows represent a dependency relationship. Each SI has a provided service and a computational amount.](image)

A tuple represents the services (skills) required and the amount of computation needed for each of the five SIs. Since finishing the task requires multiple services, agents pass the task between themselves in order to complete all of the services required. The task is complete when its entire tree of SIs has been executed.

In the Kota work, agents are known to each other with three levels of relationship: (a) acquaintance (knowing existence, but having no interaction), (b) peer (low frequency of interaction) and (c) superior-subordinate (preferred interaction). The superior-subordinate relation is an authority relation as it depicts the authority held by the superior agent over the subordinate agent. The peer relation is present between agents who are equal in authority with respect to each other. The type of relationship between agents determines both the allocation of SIs and the amount of information agents know about each other. Structure of the organization regulates the interactions between agents. Figure 2 shows an example of the organizational structure of agents.

In the Kota model, every agent has a fixed number of services it can provide and a known computational power. Thus, an agent is of the form $A_x = \langle s_x, c_x \rangle$ where $s_x \subseteq S$ ($S$ is the complete list of services) and $c_x$ is the agent’s capacity in terms of computational units in a time step. An agent prefers to allocate the subtasks to its subordinate agents as subordinate agents give priority to tasks assigned by the superior. An agent will always try to execute an $SI$ if it contains the service and available computational power. If it is not possible for the agent to execute that $SI$, it can delegate it to one of

![Figure 2: Example organizational structure.](image)

![Figure 3: Process of assigning a task to an agent.](image)
its neighbours. Figure 3 shows the process of assigning a SI.

Each agent can respond to only one request per time-step. Therefore, agents store requests in a waiting queue. Requests in a waiting queue are considered in a first-come, first-served basis. Each task has a deadline associated with it. If the agent spends time on a task that is not finished, it gets negative utility equal to the utility of the subtask. If it does not attempt the task, there is no penalty as there was no wasted effort. Also, each task has an estimated amount of required time. The utility of the task decreases if it takes more than the estimated time. Equation 1 shows the relationship between utility and time. Here, $t$ stands for time.

$$\text{earnedU}_{\text{task}} = \text{AssignedUtility}_{\text{task}} - \left( \frac{t_{\text{task}}}{t_{\text{required}}} - 1 \right)$$

(1)

When an agent is consistently looking for another agent to perform a given service, it is motivated to reorganize to form a direct relationship with an agent providing that service. This process is called adaptation. This process seeks continuously to improve the profit of the system. Agents can adapt only locally and change only their own links. Though based on local adaptation by the agents, the method should lead to the benefit of the organization as a whole. The Adaptation process consists of two main parts, named Meta-Reasoning and Reorganization. Meta-Reasoning asks: ‘How many agents should be considered by agent $x$ for reorganization?’ and ‘Which agents should be selected among its neighbours?’ The number of agents considered for reorganization at time $t$, $k_t$, is computed as showed in Equation 2.

$$k_t = \max \left\{ \frac{L_x - l_x}{R}, \frac{acqts_x \cdot \text{changed}_{x,t-1}}{k_{t-1}} \right\}$$

(2)

In this Equation, $L_x$ is the computational capacity of the agent $x$, $l_x$ is the current load on the agent and $R$ is the reorganization load coefficient, denoting the amount of computational units consumed by an agent while changing a single relation. $acqts_x$ represents the number of acquaintances of agent $x$, $\text{changed}_{x,t-1}$ denotes the number of changed relations of agent $x$ in the previous iteration and $k_{t-1}$ denotes the $k$ value used in the previous iteration. Based on Equation 2, at least one of the agent $x$’s neighbours is considered for reorganization in each iteration. The second term, which is $\frac{(k_x - l_x)}{R}$, indicates that reorganization can consume the remaining computational capacity of agent $x$, in current iteration, regardless of the need for that much reorganization. The third term, which is $acqts_x \cdot \frac{\text{changed}_{x,t-1}}{k_{t-1}}$, estimates the number of relations which should be considered for reorganization based on the history of past iterations.

After finding the value of $k_t$, agent $x$ randomly picks $k_t$ agents from the list of its neighbors including its peers, subordinates and acquaintances for reorganization. In the Reorganization part of the Kota method, agent $x$ evaluates its relations with considered agents in the Meta-Reasoning part. This evaluation considers changing those relations to another type of relation in order to increase profit. Figure 4 shows the possible actions between two agents, dependent on the current relationship. Then, agent $x$ evaluates the utility of each of the possible actions. After calculating the utility of each action, agent $x$ selects the best reorganization action.

One of the deficiencies of the Kota method is the lack of a suitable task scheduling algorithm; tasks are assigned to agents randomly. Randomly assigning tasks increases the load on the assigned agent when it cannot provide needed capabilities. Figure 3 shows the process of finding a capable agent in such a case. This approach adds communication cost to the system and keeps the assigned agent busy finding a capable agent. Therefore, an intelligent way of task scheduling is needed in order to improve the profit and reduce the cost. Other deficiencies include randomly choosing neighbours for reorganization and complex method for evaluating possible actions.

3 OUR MODEL

In this research, we adopt the structural constraints...
of the Kota research (Kota, 2009), but focus on the
deficiencies of its model. In our method, Selective-Adaptation, each agent selects agents among its
neighbours based on different approaches. The
adaptation part of Selective-Adaptation method is
composed of two parts which are Meta-Reasoning
and Reorganization. The relation of an agent and its
neighbours is based on the two-way task passing.
Most of the time agents utilize the capabilities from
their neighbourhood subordinates and peers; however, there are some cases in which agent’s
needs are not fulfilled using its peers and
subordinates. Therefore, an agent passes the request
back to its superior. Its superior is in charge of
finding a suitable agent for this request. Figure 3
summarizes the task passing mechanism; it shows
how an agent and its neighbours cooperate in
executing different parts of tasks.

We term service-providing agents (which are not
currently connected as a peer or superior/subordinate)
as outsideHelpers. Since the goal of adaptation is
promoting relations with agents who are useful to it,
we need to consider outsideHelpers. In this model, we
use the term neighbours for peers and subordinates of
agent. In our system, an agent’s activities includes
executing tasks, management (communications,
evaluation of neighbours, task passing and updating
neighbour information) and reorganization. Load
refers to the computational units used to perform an
agent’s duties.

3.1 Meta-Reasoning

In Meta-Reasoning, each agent determines the
number of agents from its neighbourhood which
should be considered for reorganization. Determining this number is critical because
evaluating too many agents wastes the resources of
the current agent. In addition, the agent needs to find
out which neighbours to consider for reorganization. Meta-Reasoning used in this research is a history-
based process and utilizes different approaches
namely Fixed approach, Need-Based approach,
Performance-Based approach and Satisfaction-based
approach. We discuss these approaches in the
following subsections.

3.1.1 Fixed Approach

In the Fixed approach, agents have an opportunity to
evaluate their relationship with their neighbours in
all iterations. Our experiments show that the cost of
reorganization is one of the most important factors
that affect profit of the system. In order to increase
the profit, each agent needs the most useful
neighbours. The best neighbours are the ones that
result in a higher utility for the system. In order to
make reasonable decisions about reorganization, the
reorganization load coefficient, R, has been defined
(Kota, 2009). Evaluating many relationships might
exhaust the resources of the agent. Thus, agent, has
to restrict the set of its neighbours to consider for
reorganization. Agent resources include
computational capacity (which is used in each cycle
and does not roll over to next iteration) and
computational power. These types of resources are
distinct. Computational capacity must be consumed
in each iteration or it is lost. Computational power
represents a separate resource which can be saved
between iterations (like gasoline for a car). Agents
are recharged with computational power every d
time steps. Agents use the recharge interval to
estimate how much of the resource can be consumed
in any iteration. Since fuel costs are not negligible,
the use of fuel should be wisely monitored. This
amount is kept in InitialComp variable. Since agents
execute their assigned tasks first in each iteration
and then they go to the reorganization phase, the
remaining computational capacity of each iteration
after executing tasks can be used on reorganization.
By dividing the amount of remaining computational
power by R, the number of agents that can be
considered for reorganization is determined and
stored in k_r. Equations 3 and 4 show the process of
determining k_r. In these equations, i stands for
current iteration and RemComp indicates the
remaining power of iteration.

\[
RemComp_i = InitialComp_i - load_i \\
k_r = \frac{RemComp_i}{R}
\]

The number of agents to be considered for
reorganization, k_r should be divided between neighbours and outsideHelpers of agent. For this
division, we use the fraction w_r to determine the
proportion of agents in each category based on
Equation 5 and 6.

\[
numOutHelpers = \min\left\{ \frac{\text{count(outsideHelper)}}{w_r \times \text{numAgents}} \right\}
\]

\[
umNeighbors = k_r - numOutSideHelpers
\]

We found that the system reached highest profit
when w_r=0.3. Thus, 30 percent of agents we consider
for reorganization are from outsideHelpers and the
rest are agent’s neighbours. Figure 5 shows the
pseudocode of the Fixed approach algorithm. The
strategy of agent, in selecting the most suitable
outsideHelpers and most suitable neighbours is
different. Agent, calculates earned utility of its
neighbours and ranks them by this attribute. The
more utility they have earned, the better rank they
have. Agent, tries to replace some of its inefficient neighbours, but makes a stronger link with acquaintances which were helpful in the past.

### Fixed Approach

1. \( k_t = \text{agent, calcNumAgents}(); \)
2. \( \text{numOutsideH} = \text{agent, calcNumOutsideH(wj)}; \)
3. \( \text{numNeighbors} = k_t, \text{numOutsideH} \)
4. \( \text{OH} = \text{agent, findBestOutsideH(numOutsideHelper)}; \)
5. \( N = \text{agent, findWorstNeighbors(numNeighbors)}; \)
6. \( \text{AgentsToConsider} = \text{agent, combine(OH, N)}; \)

Figure 5: Pseudocode of Fixed-Approach.

### 3.1.2 Need-Based Approach

In the Need-Based approach, at each iteration, \( \text{agent,} \) estimates the number of links it needs to reorganize using two parameters from past iterations: 1) the number of relations considered for reorganization, and 2) the number of relations changed in past iterations. By dividing the number of relations changed by the number of relations considered, \( \text{agent,} \) can estimate how many of its past predictions have been accurate. Therefore, \( k_t \) estimates the number of agents which need to be considered in the current iteration (1) based on Equation 7. After deciding the number of agents to be considered, \( (k) \), \( \text{agent,} \) needs to divide \( k_t \) between its neighbours and \( \text{outsideHelpers} \) using equations 5 and 6.

\[
k_t = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{h} \text{ChangedRelations}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{h} \text{ConsideredRelations}_i} \cdot \text{numNeighbors} \tag{7}
\]

By testing different values for \( w_r \) the system reaches the highest profit where \( w_r = 0.3 \). Neighbours and \( \text{outsideHelpers} \) get their rank based on their earned utility for \( \text{agent,} \). Figure 6 shows the pseudocode of this approach.

### NeedBased Approach

1. \( k_t = \text{agent, calcNeedBasedNumAgents}(); \)
2. \( \text{numOutsideH} = \text{agent, calcNumOutsideH(wj)}; \)
3. \( \text{numNeighbors} = k_t, \text{numOutsideH} \)
4. \( \text{OH} = \text{agent, findBestOutsideH(numOutsideHelper)}; \)
5. \( N = \text{agent, findWorstNeighbors(numNeighbors)}; \)
6. \( \text{AgentsToConsider} = \text{agent, combine(OH, N)}; \)

Figure 6: Pseudocode of Need-Based Approach.

### 3.1.3 Performance-Based Approach

In the Performance-Based Approach, we utilize a measure of performance to decide which agents to consider for reorganization. Each task in the system has an assigned utility. When an agent is assigned a task, this agent can earn the whole utility of the task. Therefore, the possible utility \( \text{agent,} \) can earn would be sum of the utilities of all tasks it has been assigned as shown in Equation 8. Sometimes agents cannot earn that amount of possible utility due to the features like deadline violation and slowness in completing tasks. The amount of utility earned in comparison with the possible utility available can be a good measure of performance for agents.

\[
\text{possibleUtility} = \sum_{\text{task}} 0_{\text{ass.earnedUtility}}(\text{task}) \tag{8}
\]

\[
\text{performance} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \text{earnedutility}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \text{possibleutility}_i} \tag{9}
\]

Equation 9 shows the measure of performance for each agent based on its history of earning utility. In this equation \( i \) stands for any previous iteration, and \( t \) indicates current iteration. The history variable, \( h \), indicates the number of past iterations to consider and is in the range of \([4, t-1]\), where \( h=t-1 \) considers the history of all iterations so far, and \( h=1 \) uses only the history of the last iteration. In this approach, \( \text{agent,} \) finds the performance for all of its neighbours and \( \text{outsideHelpers} \). Then \( \text{agent,} \) selects \( w_i \) ratio of its worst neighbours in terms of performance along with \( w_o \) ratio of its best \( \text{outsideHelpers} \) in terms of their performance. For setting the values of \( w_i \) and \( w_o \), we tested the system with different values and compared the results. In this case, system reaches highest profit in \( w_i=0.25 \) and \( w_o=0.15 \), which means that 25 percent of least efficient neighbours of \( \text{agent,} \) along with 15 percent of best \( \text{outsideHelpers} \) have been selected. If \( \text{agent,} \) does not have any outside helpers, it just considers its neighbours for reorganization. Figure 7 shows the Performance-Based approach.

### Performance-Based Approach

1. \( s_1 = \text{agent, leastEffecient(neighbors, w_i)}; \)
2. \( \text{if count(outsideHelpers)>0} \)
3. \( \text{outsideH} = \text{agent, findOutsideHelpers}(); \)
4. \( s_2 = \text{agent, mostEffecient(outsideH, w_o)}; \)
5. \( \text{agentsToConsider} = \text{agent, combine(s1, s2)}; \)
6. \( \text{else} \)
7. \( \text{agentsToConsider} = s_1; \)

Figure 7: Pseudocode of Performance-Based Approach.

### 3.1.4 Satisfaction-Based Approach

In the Satisfaction-Based approach, agents decide on the adaptation based on satisfaction. As we mentioned earlier, the relation of an agent and its neighbours is based on subtask passing. Each agent is satisfied with a relation when the corresponding agent is able to service most of the agent’s requests; the stronger neighbourhood in terms of providing requests, the more satisfied agent is. When an agent accepts a subtask request, it means that it has the potential to accomplish that subtask. To compare
agents in the neighbourhood, we define a measure of satisfaction as shown in Equation 10.

\[
satisfaction = \frac{\sum_{i=t-h}^{t-1} num\ provided\ requests}{\sum_{i=t-h}^{t-1} num\ requests} \tag{10}
\]

In this equation, \(i\) stands for iteration and \(t\) indicates current iteration. Variable \(h\) is in the range of \([1, t-1]\) as before. In satisfaction based approach, \(agent\) calculates the satisfaction of all its neighbours and its \(outside\ Helpers\). Based on this measure, \(agent\) selects \(w_i\) ratio of its least satisfactory neighbours to be considered for reorganization. If there are any \(outside\ Helpers\), \(agent\) needs to select \(w_o\) ratio of its most satisfactory \(outside\ Helpers\) for reorganization too. Values of \(w_i\) and \(w_o\) are set same as \(Performance-Based\) approach. Figure 8 illustrates the pseudocode this approach.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction-Based Approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. (s1 = agent.\ leastSatisfactory(neighbors, w_i));</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. if count(outsideHelpers)==0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. outsideHelpers= agent.\ findOutsideHelpers();</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. (s2 = agent.\ mostSatisfactory(outsideH, w_o));</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. agentsToConsider= agent.\ combine(s1, s2);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. else</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. agentsToConsider= s1;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8: Pseudocode of Satisfaction-based Approach.

For all approaches, we need to set the value of \(h\). Our experiments show that considering total number of past iterations \((h=t-1)\) is too much history and considering the history of last iteration \((h=1)\) may give a little insight about the past. We tested different values for \(h\) and our experiments show that in \(h=10\) system reaches highest profit.

### 3.2 Reorganization

The second part of our \(Selective-Adaptation\) approach is \(Reorganization\). \(Reorganization\) enables an agent to change its relations with some of its neighbours (kept in \(AgentsToConsider\) list) which are identified in the \(MetaReasoning\) step.

In this phase, \(agent\) evaluates all of the possible types of relation for each member of \(AgentsToConsider\) and changes the relations in order to achieve a higher utility. For each \(agent\) in this list, \(agent\) takes the best action among possible actions based on the current relationship and a measure computed from some evaluation functions. Figure 4 demonstrates possible actions for two agents based on their current relation. Figure 9 shows the pseudocode of the reorganization part.

\(Reorganization\) changes the current relation type \(R_t\) to a new relation type \(R_n\). Note that if the selected action is \("NoAction\) then \(R_n = R_t\) (which means that relation will not change and this action does not have utility and cost). The most important part of the reorganization approach is evaluating the utility of possible actions and choosing the best one.

\(Kota\) method’s evaluation function uses parameters like:1) the number of subtasks assigned by \(agent\_x\) to \(agent\_y\), 2) the number of subtasks delegated by \(agent\_x\) to \(agent\_y\), 3) the total number of time-steps that \(agent\_y\) existed, 4) the number of time-steps that \(agent\_x\) and \(agent\_y\) had waiting tasks, 5) the total number of subtasks \(agent\_x\) assigned to other agents and 7) the communication cost due to the delegations from \(agent\_x\) to \(agent\_y\). \(Kota\) method’s evaluation function is overly complex. \(Selective-Adaptation\) needs less data but makes good decisions.

The profit of an agent from the action \(act\_d\) is calculated using Equation 11. Based on Equation 11, the profit of each action consists of two terms, \(Utility\) and \(Load\). This equation is used for both forming and removing a relation. In forming a desirable relation, the sign of \(Utility\) is positive. As any new relation adds some load to the agent, the sign of \(Load\) is negative. The signs are reversed in the case of removing a relation.

\[
Profit(\text{act}_d) = Utility + Load \tag{11}
\]

\[
Utility_{\text{formingRelation}} = \frac{U_{R_n}+U_{avgNewAgent}}{2} \tag{12}
\]

In forming a relation, to estimate the utility for \(agent\_x\) in the process of changing the relation with \(agent\_y\) (from \(R_t\) to \(R_n\), two terms are used: 1) the average utility \(U_{R_n}\) earned from agents which were in the same relation type as \(R_t\) which is called \(U_{R_n}\) and 2) the average utility \(U_{avgNewAgent}\) earned from \(agent\_y\) which is called \(U_{avgNewAgent}\). Equation 12 shows this approach. For example, if \(agent\_x\) wants to make a peer relation with \(agent\_y\), it calculates the average earned utility of its peers so far \((U_{R_n}\) along with the average utility earned form \(agent\_y\) \((U_{avgNewAgent}\). This equation says that for having relation type \(R_t\) with agent \(a_i\), the experience of \(agent\_x\) from that type of relation \(R_t\) and the history of functionality
of agent \(a_i\) affect the decision. In a case of removing a relation, for calculating Utility, we use the Equation 12 too, but the value of \(U_{avgNewAgent}\) will be set as zero. The second term of Equation 11 is Load and includes different types of loads as shown in Equation 13. \(M\) is the management load of having a new relation, \(C\) is the communication cost and \(R\) is the reorganization load coefficient.

\[
\text{LoadOnEachAgent} = M + C + R \quad (13)
\]

We used the general term \(M\) and \(C\) in Equation 13, however, the management load and communication cost depends on the type of relation between two agents. Each agent estimates the amount of \(M\) and \(C\) based on its history of this type of relation if known. Table1 summarizes all the loads that agent, \(a_i\), experiences in changing a relation with agent \(a_j\).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(a_i) is peer of (a_j)</th>
<th>(M_{peer})</th>
<th>(C_{peer})</th>
<th>(R_{peer})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a_i) is subordinate of (a_j)</td>
<td>(M_{subordinate})</td>
<td>(C_{subordinate})</td>
<td>(R_{subordinate})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a_i) is superior of (a_j)</td>
<td>(M_{superior})</td>
<td>(C_{superior})</td>
<td>(R_{superior})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.3 Task Scheduling

One of the deficiencies of the Kota method is its inefficient task scheduling algorithm as it assigns tasks to agents randomly. Random task assignment increases the load on the assigned agents when they are not capable. In this case, the assigned agent needs to go to the process of finding capable agent as depicted in Figure3.

**Task Scheduling**

1. \(SCList = findCompCapacityAgents()\);
2. \(QLList = findQueueLengthAgents()\);
3. \(SSList = findServicesSimilarity(Task)\);
4. \(suitableAgent = findSuitableAgent (CP, QL, SS)\);

Figure 10: Pseudocode of Task Scheduling Approach.

Random assignment also adds communication cost to the system and keeps the responsible agent busy finding a capable agent among its neighbours. It wastes resources which the agent could use on executing tasks. Therefore, an intelligent way of task scheduling is crucial. In Selective-Adaptation, the system tries to find the most suitable agent for task assigning. Pseudocode of Task Scheduling is outlined in Figure 10. To find the most suitable agent for each task, we consider: 1) computational capacity of agents, 2) queue length of agents (how busy the agents are) and 3) similarity of services (how many of the services needed for the task can be provided by the agent). The most desirable agent is the one which has the highest computational capacity and similarity of services. In addition, it needs to have a small queue length because if the system assigns a task to a busy agent, the task may wait a long time for execution. Since the goal of the system is to reach a higher profit, wasting time in the queue while there are other agents in the system which can execute the task is not reasonable. The length of the queue is determined by the summation of the cycles required of each task in the queue. Finding the most suitable agent is the duty of the \(\text{findSuitableAgent}\) function in line 4 of the pseudocode depicted in Figure 10. This function aims to find an agent which is the best based on the rank of Equation 14.

\[
\text{rank}_i = \alpha_1 \cdot CC_i + \alpha_2 \cdot QL_i + \alpha_3 \cdot SS_i \quad (14)
\]

In the Equation 14, \(CC\) stands for computational capacity of each agent, \(QL\) indicates queue length and \(SS\) stands for similarity of services. An agent which gets the highest rank will be selected as the most suitable agent. Our experiments reach the highest profit when these terms had an equal effect (\(\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha_3\)).

### 3.4 System Evaluation

We evaluate the effectiveness of models based on the performance of their organization based on Profit, which is the summation of the profits of all of the individual agents. We examine the amount of profit per iteration using Equation 15 in order to determine if any improvement is achieved. Thus, for finding the profit we need to compute the amount of utility has been earned and total cost of that iteration. The earned utility by a given agent will be found using Equation 1.

\[
\text{Profit} = \text{UtilityEarned} - \text{TotalCost} \quad (15)
\]

\[
\text{TotalCost} = \text{ReorgCost} + \text{CommCost} \quad (16)
\]

For finding \(\text{TotalCost}\), Equation 16 will be used. Equation 16 shows that costs in the system include reorganization cost and communication cost. Reorganization cost includes evaluating relationships and changing relationships. The process of assigning a task to an agent requires sending and receiving messages to/from that agent. Therefore, these processes also require inter-agent communication which adds to the total cost of the organization.
4 EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

As we mentioned earlier Selective-Adaptation method has four different approaches namely Fixed, Need-Based, Performance-Based and Satisfaction-Based. In our experiments, we show the behaviour of each of these approaches, plus Kota method; for each one, we averaged the results for 100 simulations of 1000 iterations. Note that for simplicity, we just use the name of approaches of the Selective-Adaptation in the figures, so when in a figure we write Fixed approach we mean Fixed Approach of Selective-Adaptation method.

4.1 Profit over Time

As can be seen from Figure 11, results show the behaviour of different approaches of Selective-Adaptation and Kota method.

An identical reorganization part is used in all Selective-Adaptation approaches; therefore the different profit over time comes from their Meta-Reasoning approaches. It seems that just using history of past iterations in the Need-Based approach is not effective as this approach has the worst performance among all methods. Fixed approach’s overall profit is better than Kota because it utilizes an intelligent way of selecting neighbours for reorganization. Among all methods of Figure 11 Performance-Based and Satisfaction-Based approaches have better performance. Their behaviour proves these approaches exploit more applicable Meta-Reasoning approach. Since Satisfaction-based approach outperforms all other approaches, results suggest that using this approach of Selective-Adaptation helps the system reaches higher performance.

4.2 Effect of Task Scheduling

As discussed Selective-Adaptation method benefits from intelligent way of task scheduling. Figure 12 shows the effect of task scheduling on the various Selective-Adaptation approaches. As can be seen, the task scheduling leads all of the approaches reach higher profits.

4.3 Shocks to the System

The aim of the adaptation method is to determine and apply changes in the organization structure in order to improve the performance. Adaptation needs to respond to changes in the environment in a self-organized manner. In order to see the behaviour of adaptation facing unpredicted events, we impose shocks upon the system.
4.3.1 Agent Shock Experiment

Agents are associated with particular sets of services. These sets can be overlapping; that is, two or more agents may provide the same service.

Different tasks require different amounts of time, and the load requirement is not uniform; therefore agents use a queue to store tasks which are waiting for service.

In our experiment with agent shock, every 200 iterations 1/5 of the agents are disabled. Because of this, disabled agents’ peers and subordinates bear more load. They need to distribute disabled agents queue among other agents which are capable of performing the tasks. After 15 iterations, new agents will be added to the system to replace the disabled agents. New agents (which need to be incorporated into the organization structure) are added as acquaintances to all other agents. Figure 13 shows the effect of Agent Shock on different methods. As we discussed earlier, main goal of adaptation is continuously improve the profit of the system. Therefore, in these experiments after passing shock periods, there are improvements due to adaptation in comparison with the case without adaptation. We show that adaptation handles unexpected shocks to the system and compensates for the perturbations.

4.3.2 Task Shock Experiment

Tasks have some patterns in the dependency links between the SIs. In this way, the dependencies between the SIs may follow some frequent orderings (resulting from the dependencies internal to a pattern occurring in several tasks). For the shock test, we defined four different patterns between tasks. Every 200 iterations, we change the pattern to see the effect of the shock. Each agent creates its neighbourhood based on the needed capabilities. In the case of changing the pattern, agents must adapt to the lack of capability among their neighbours. In such a case, the profit of the system decreases as it can be seen in Figure14. Agents’ queues become longer and all of the agents are busy with passing tasks in order to find suitable agents for their assigned tasks. After some iterations utilizing adaptation, the system compensates for what it lost during shock time by making new neighbourhood based on the new pattern. Improvements due to adaptation are easily distinguishable. As mentioned earlier, the difference between various approaches of Selective-Adaptation is in the adaptation part. Therefore if we disable the adaptation part, all the approaches of Selective-Adaptation have the same behaviour; Figure 13 and Figure 14 illustrate this.

5 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we propose a new method of adaptation which is called Selective-Adaptation. We demonstrate a robust, decentralized approach for structural adaptation organizations. Our adaptation method is based on the agents forging and dissolving relations with other agents. Agents use the history of past iterations as a measure of evaluation. This method consists of two parts namely Meta-Reasoning and Reorganization. In the Meta-Reasoning, every iteration each agent selects some of its neighbours for reorganization based on
Figure 14: Effect of Task Shock. a)Fixed, b)Need-Based, c)Performance-Based and d)Satisfaction-based Approaches of Selective-Adaptation.

approaches: 1)Fixed approach, 2)Need-Based approach, 3) Performance-Based approach, and 4) Satisfaction-based approach. After selecting neighbours, the agent tries to find all of the possible actions between itself and target agent based on the current relationship between them. Then, the agent evaluates all of the possible actions and selects the best one in terms of its estimated utility. This method can successfully handle unexpected shocks to the system, along with showing higher profit in comparison with other existing methods of self-organization. Possible future work includes restricting agents’ resources like the amount of memory agents can use for keeping information about others and considering network bandwidth.

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