How learning can change the course of evolution. Supplementary information

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A Computational model

This section describes computational experiments highlighting different effects of learning in evolution.

Computational experiments are performed on a population of agents foraging in a ⁴ dynamic environment under the effect of natural selection. The environment is made dynamic with the introduction of seasons that differ in the proportion of resources ⁶ present in the environment, e.g. only one type of resource is produced in every given ⁷ season. **8**

B Learning \blacksquare

This section discusses how different learning algorithms behave when faced with a ¹⁰ variable environment, in terms of convergence and *adaptation to change*. The skill gets μ increased by ΔS after every successful foraging event, while for the action the learning 12 algorithms are based on the Reinforcement Learning approach, Q-Learning [\[1\]](#page-8-0). The $_{13}$

Q-Table, a mapping from states/perceptions $\mathcal I$ and possible actions O to the quality \blacksquare value of each action for that state $Q(\mathcal{I}, O)$, of the original Q-Learning approach is 15 replaced by a Q-Network as per $[2]$; using the following equation [\(B](#page-1-0) Equation) and a 16 corresponding training algorithm for each Q-Network structure. 17

$$
\Delta Q = \left(\underbrace{\underbrace{\tau_{t-1}}_{\text{reward}} + \underbrace{\gamma}_{\text{discount factor}} \cdot \max_{O} Q(\mathcal{I}_t, O)}_{\text{old value}} - \underbrace{Q(\mathcal{I}_{t-1}, O_{t-1})}_{\text{old value}} \right) \tag{A}
$$

$$
\underbrace{Q(\mathcal{I}_{t-1}, O_{t-1})}_{\text{new desired value}} \leftarrow \underbrace{Q(\mathcal{I}_{t-1}, O_{t-1})}_{\text{old value}} + \underbrace{\alpha^{rlearn}}_{\text{learning rate}} \cdot \Delta Q \tag{B}
$$

We name the different reinforcement learning algorithms based on their Q-Network $_{18}$ structure: the contract of the

- PQL: Reinforcement learning using a single layer feed forward perceptron as its $_{20}$ network architecture to "store" and query the Q-values, trained with 21 backpropagation. 22
- RQL: Reinforcement learning using a variation of a Restricted Boltzmann 23 machine [\[3\]](#page-8-3) for the network architecture, trained with contrastive divergence. $\frac{24}{24}$
- Q-Learning [\[1\]](#page-8-0), trained by directly replacing the Q-values in the Q-table. DRL: 25 Deep Reinforcement Learning [\[2\]](#page-8-2): using 3 fully connected layers: ²⁶
	- 1. (perception_size \times perception_size $*$ 5) 27
	- 2. (perception_size $* 5 \times number_of_actions * 5$)
	- 3. ($perception_size * 5 \times number_of_actions$) 29

The DRL implementation uses experience replay with a memory replay of 50 $\frac{30}{20}$ experiences and is trained using back-propagation. The use of experience replay 31 improves DRL's learning convergence. ³²

The Q-network structure in presence of an input vector $\mathcal I$ takes the form of: $\overline{}$ 33

- 1. PQL: $b(\mathcal{I}) = W \cdot \mathcal{I} + \beta$ where W are the weights of the neural network and β the β biases associated to the input layer. $\frac{35}{25}$
- 2. RQL: $b(\mathcal{I}) = \sigma(W \cdot \mathcal{I} + \beta)$ where σ denotes the logistic sigmoid.

3. Q-Learning: $b(\mathcal{I}) = Q(\mathcal{I})$ where Q is the Q-table, i.e. a value table. $\frac{37}{20}$

4. DRL:
$$
b(\mathcal{I}) = G^3 \circ G^2 \circ G^1
$$
 where $G^L(x) = \sigma(W^L \cdot x + \beta^L)$.

Agents perceive their the environment, i.e. they are able to see a subset of the grid $\frac{39}{20}$ centered at their location and are able to identify food sources within this visual range, ⁴⁰ *I*. For the current model, a 3×3 region is observable and the food sources are $\frac{41}{100}$ observable but without the specificity of the amount of food contained. Based on this ⁴² perception agents are able to perform an action either: move (north, south, east, west) ⁴³ or eat. $\qquad \qquad \text{and} \qquad \qquad \text{and} \qquad \qquad \text{and} \qquad \$

The results of each learning algorithm are the average of 300 independent $\frac{45}{45}$ simulations, parameters are consistent across simulations.

Results show that different types of learning algorithms have different speeds of $\frac{47}{47}$ convergence (cf. [S1](#page-0-0) Fig) shows the proportion of agents choosing to eat while a specific $\overline{48}$ type of resource is in their foraging range. Some learning algorithms adapt faster than ⁴⁹ others to changes in the environment.

 RQL is the fastest to adapt to a change in the environment, and it also shows a $\frac{51}{100}$ stronger tendency to forget the learned behavior in the opposite season. DRL is the $\frac{52}{2}$ slowest to learn. This is not surprising as deep networks are generally trained with large $\frac{53}{10}$ datasets and used for much more complex tasks.

C The Baldwin Veering Effect and the learning 555 algorithm ⁵⁶

In order to analyze the consistency of the results in respect to the type of learning, $\frac{57}{2}$ learning algorithms are compared by reproducing the main result of the paper, i.e. the \sim evolution of a generalist configuration (cf. $S2$ Fig). Different learning algorithms $\frac{59}{2}$ produce different features in the genetic configuration, for example, QL has a lower 60 variability than PQL, and both RQL and DRL appear to have a trimodal distribution σ where some specialized individuals co-exist with generalist individuals. Nevertheless, the ϵ genetic configuration produced by all learning algorithms features a clear peak for 63 aptitude of 0.5 , indicating the presence of generalist individuals, hence supporting the main result of the paper, i.e. the existence of the Baldwin veering effect.

Table B. Description of the parameters in the model and their value. Environment

PQL has been chosen as the learning algorithm for the experiments presented in the 66 paper, as it offers a good compromise between capacity and computational requirements. σ

D Parameters of the computational model \blacksquare

The following tables show the values of the parameters used for the computational 69 α experiments. α

\mathbf{E} Reproducibility \mathbf{I}

A C++ compiler with OpenMP support is required in order to compile the code. $\frac{72}{20}$ OpenMPI is used for the parallel computing extension. Other requirement is $\frac{73}{2}$ tiny-dnn $[4]$, used for the reinforcement learning algorithms. The code has been $\frac{74}{14}$ compiled with Make and the GCC compiler (see [F](#page-4-0) Table). Other development environments and libraries might be compatible as well. Data analysis and figures are τ_{6}

Table C. Description of the parameters in the model and their value. Agent parameters

Table E. Description of the parameters in the model and their value. Simulation

produced with Python (Pandas, Matplotlib). Compilation and startup scripts are $\frac{7}{77}$ written for bash on a $*$ nix system, but other shells might be supported as well. The $*$ code has support for the LSF platform for parallel execution on clusters, but it can also $\frac{1}{79}$ be run on a single machine. Simulations complete in a reasonable time: A simulation \bullet with 20,000 agents runs on a cluster node with 24 CPU-cores takes less than 24 hours 81 with shallow reinforcement learning algorithms (PQL, RQL, QL) and less than 120 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours with deep reinforcement learning algorithms.

Table F. Description of compile flags.

G Analytical model: edge cases

In this section, we provide further observations regarding the analytical model. Equation [C](#page-5-0) reproduces equation 3 from the main text.

$$
W_i = \pi_0 \cdot \min(1, (\alpha_i + \delta))^q + (1 - \pi_0) \cdot \min(1, (1 - \alpha_i + \delta))^q - c \cdot \delta \tag{C}
$$

Where the parameters α_i, δ, π, q can assume values in the interval [0, 1].

Considering the case where $c = 0$, i.e. plasticity has no cost, any increase in δ provides an increase in fitness, bounded by the cases where $a_i+\delta\geq 1$ and $1-a_i+\delta\geq 1.$ If $\pi_0=0.5$ the maximum fitness is reached when both bounds are reached simultaneously,

$$
(\alpha_i + \delta) = 1 - \alpha_i + \delta \tag{D}
$$

$$
2 \cdot \alpha_i = 1 \tag{E}
$$

$$
\alpha_i = 0.5 \implies \delta = 0.5 \tag{F}
$$

The maximum fitness of 1 is reached for $\alpha_i = \delta = 0.5$ and keeps the same value, 1, 101 for any values of $\delta \geq 0.5$, and $\alpha_i + \delta \geq 1$. If $\pi_0 = 1$ or $\pi_0 = 0$ the maximum bound is 102 reached for any values of α_i and δ such that the bounds $\alpha_i + \delta \geq 1$ or $1 - \alpha_i + \delta \geq 1$ are 103 satisfied respectively.

In the case where $c > 0$, i.e. plasticity has a cost: Given a combination of α_i , δ and π 105 that reached the maximum value in equation 3, any further increase in δ would result in $_{106}$ a decrease in fitness.

G.1 Analytical model sensitivity to different values of q when $_{108}$ $c = 0$ 109

The results presented in the main text are validated here in absence of plasticity costs, ¹¹⁰ i.e. $c = 0$, and for different values of q.

From [S3](#page-0-0) through [S5](#page-0-0) Fig we can observe that qualitatively similar results are 112 produced also for $q = 1$ and $0 < q < 1$.

H Diversity measures for social foraging 114

Assume a group contains G individuals and S discrete resource types.

- n_{gs} is the number of items of resource s consumed by individual g. n_{gs}
- $n_{g.} = \sum_{s=1}^{S} n_{gs}$ is the total foraging of individual g.
- $n_s = \sum_{g=1}^G n_{gs}$ is the number of resources of type s foraged by any agent.
- $n_{\cdot \cdot} = \sum_{g=1}^{G} \sum_{s=1}^{S} n_{gs}$ is the number of resources of any type consumed by any 119 α gent. 120

Each $n_{gs} > 0$ defines a sample proportion p_{gs} where $p_{gs} = n_{gs}/n_{\dots}$, which is used to 121 estimate the total, cross-classified diversity: 122

$$
h'(g \times s) = -\sum_{g=1}^{G} \sum_{s=1}^{S} p_{gs} ln(p_{gs})
$$
 (G)

The following measures of social foraging $[5, Pag. 241]$ $[5, Pag. 241]$ are based on the concept of 123 diversity $[6]$: A generalized diet includes most of all resources types in roughly equal proportions. A specialized diet includes one or a few resource types at high proportions, and very low proportional levels of the remaining resources. The group's diet refers to the pooled resource consumption of all group members.

- Among-resource diversity $h'(s) = -\sum_{s=1}^{S} p_s ln(p_s)$
	- Low: group specializes because individuals have similar specialized diets
	- High: group generalizes, individuals may generalize or different individuals have different specialized diets.
- Average within resource diversity $E[h'(g|s)]$.
	- Low: different individuals have different specialized diets, so group generalizes; a similar effect occurs whenever different individuals consume different total amounts of resources.
	- High: individuals have similar diets, whether generalized or similarly specialized, group diet may then be generalized or specialized.
- Among-individual diversity $h'(g)$.
	- Low: individuals differ in amount of resources consumed, independently of each individual's specialization or generalization.
	- High: Individuals consume similar amounts of resources, independently of each individual's specialization or generalization.
- Average within-individual diversity $E[h'(s|g)]$.
	- Low: Individuals specialize independently, group may consequently specialize or generalize.
	- High: individuals generalize, group consequently generalizes.

Table G. Reproduced from [\[5,](#page-8-5) Pag. 241]

- Among-resource diversity: $h'(s) = -\sum_{s=1}^{S} p_s ln(p_s)$
- Conditional phenotypic diversity within resource s: 126

$$
h'(g|s) = -\sum_{g=1}^{G} \left(\frac{p_{gs}}{p_{.s}}\right) \ln\left(\frac{p_{gs}}{p_{.s}}\right) \tag{127}
$$

- Average within-resource diversity: $E[h'(g|s)] = \sum_{s=1}^{S} p_{s}h'(g|s)$
- Among-individual diversity: $h'(g) = -\sum_{g=1}^{G} p_g \ln(p_g)$
	- conditional resource-consumption diversity: 130

$$
h'(s|g) = -\sum_{s=1}^{S} \left(\frac{p_{gs}}{p_g}\right) \ln\left(\frac{p_{gs}}{p_g}\right) \tag{131}
$$

•
$$
E[h'(s|g)] = \sum_{g=1}^{G} p_g h'(s|g)
$$

 $References$ 133

