Cellular Learning Automata With Multiple Learning Automata in Each Cell and Its Applications

Hamid Beigy and Mohammad Reza Meybodi

Abstract—The cellular learning automaton (CLA), which is a combination of cellular automaton (CA) and learning automaton (LA), is introduced recently. This model is superior to CA because of its ability to learn and is also superior to single LA because it is a collection of LAs which can interact with each other. The basic idea of CLA is to use LA to adjust the state transition probability of stochastic CA. Recently, various types of CLA such as synchronous, asynchronous, and open CLAs have been introduced. In some applications such as cellular networks, we need to have a model of CLA for which multiple LAs reside in each cell. In this paper, we study a CLA model for which each cell has several LAs. It is shown that, for a class of rules called commutative rules, the CLA model converges to a stable and compatible configuration. Two applications of this new model such as channel assignment in cellular mobile networks and function optimization are also given. For both applications, it has been shown through computer simulations that CLA-based solutions produce better results.

Index Terms—Cellular learning automaton (CLA), dynamic channel assignment (DCA), learning automaton (LA).

I. INTRODUCTION

▼ ELLULAR automata (CAs) are mathematical models for ✓ systems consisting of large numbers of simple identical components with local interactions. The simple components act together to produce complex emergent global of behavior. CAs perform complex computation with high degree of efficiency and robustness. They are particularly suitable for modeling natural systems that can be described as massive collections of simple objects interacting locally with each other [1]. CA is called *cellular*, because it is made up of cells like points in the lattice, and called *automata*, because it follows a simple local rule [2]. Each cell can assume a state from finite set of states. The cells update their states synchronously on discrete steps according to a local rule. The new state of each cell depends on the previous states of a set of cells, including the cell itself, and constitutes its neighborhood [3]. The state of all cells in the lattice is described by a configuration. A configuration can be described as the state of the whole lattice. The rule and the initial configuration of the CA specify the evolution of CA that tells how each configuration is changed in one step. On the other hand, learning automata (LAs) are, by design, "simple agents for doing simple things." LAs have been used successfully in many

H. Beigy is with the Department of Computer Engineering, Sharif University of Technology, Tehran 11365-9363, Iran (e-mail: beigy@sharif.edu).

M. R. Meybodi is with the Department of Computer Engineering and Information Technology, Amirkabir University of Technology, Tehran 15914, Iran (e-mail: mmeybodi@aut.ac.ir).

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applications such as control of broadcast networks [4], intrusion detection in sensor networks [5], database systems [6], and solving shortest path problem in stochastic networks [7], [8], to mention a few. The full potential of an LA is realized when multiple automata interact with each other. Interaction may assume different forms such as tree, mesh, array, etc. Depending on the problem that needs to be solved, one of these structures for interaction may be chosen. In most applications, local interaction of LA, which can be defined in a form of graph such as tree, mesh, or array, is more suitable. In [9], CA and LA are combined, and a new model, which is called cellular LA (CLA), is obtained. This model, which opens a new learning paradigm, is superior to CA because of its ability to learn and also is superior to single LA because it is a collection of LAs which can interact with each other.

The CLA can be classified into two groups: *synchronous CLA* and *asynchronous CLA* (ACLA) [10]. In synchronous CLA, all cells are synchronized with a global clock and executed at the same time, and in ACLA, LAs in different cells are activated asynchronously. The CLA can be classified into *close* and *open* [11]. In the former, the action of each LA in the next stage of its evolution only depends on the state of its local environment (actions of its neighboring LAs), while in the latter, the action of each LA in the next stage of the local environment but also on the external environments.

In [12], a mathematical framework for studying the behavior of the CLA has been introduced. This mathematical framework for the CLA not only enables us to investigate the characteristics of this model deeper, which may lead us to find more applications, but also having such a mathematical framework makes it possible to study the previous applications more rigorously and develop better CLA-based algorithms for those applications. In [11], open CLA (OCLA) has been introduced, and its steady-state behavior was studied. Asynchronous CA was proposed in [10], and its steady-state behavior was studied. It was shown that, for a class of rules called commutative rules, different models of CLA converge to a globally stable state [10]-[12]. The CLAs have been used in many applications such as image processing [13], rumor diffusion [14], modeling of commerce networks [15], channel assignment in cellular networks [16], call admission control in cellular networks [10], and sensor networks [17], to mention a few.

In some applications such as channel assignment in cellular networks, a type of CLA is needed such that each cell is equipped with multiple LAs. The process of assignment of channels to a cell or a call depends on the states of the neighboring cells. The state of each cell in the cellular network is determined by determining the values of several variables.

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The value of each variable is adaptively determined by an LA assigned to that variable. We call such a CLA as *CLA with multiple LAs in each cell*. In this paper, CLA with multiple LAs in each cell is introduced, and its steady-state behavior is studied. It is shown that, for commutative rules, this new model converges to a globally stable and compatible configuration. Then, two applications of this new model to cellular mobile networks and evolutionary computation have been presented. The simulation results for both applications show that the CLA-based solutions produce better results.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section II presents a review of studies of the steady-state behavior of synchronous, asynchronous, and OCLAs. In Section III, the CLA with multiple LAs in each cell is introduced, and its behavior is studied. Section IV presents two applications of the proposed model to the channel assignment in cellular networks and function optimization. Section V presents the computer experiments, and Section VI concludes this paper.

II. CLAs

CLA is a mathematical model for dynamical complex systems that consist of a large number of simple components. The simple components, which have learning capability, act together to produce complex emergent global behavior. A CLA is a CA in which an LA is assigned to every cell. The LA residing in a particular cell determines its state (action) on the basis of its action probability vector. Like CA, there is a rule that the CLA operates under it. The rule of the CLA and the actions selected by the neighboring LAs of any particular LA determine the reinforcement signal to the LA residing in a cell. The neighboring LAs of any particular LA constitute the local environment of that cell. The local environment of a cell is nonstationary because the action probability vectors of the neighboring LAs vary during evolution of the CLA. In the following sections, we review some recent results regarding various types of CLA.

A. Synchronous CLA

In synchronous CLA, all cells are synchronized with a global clock and executed at the same time. Formally, a d-dimensional synchronous CLA with n cells is a structure $\mathcal{A} = (Z^d, \Phi, A, N, \mathcal{F})$, where Z^d is a lattice of d-tuples of integer numbers, $\underline{\Phi}$ is a finite set of states, A is the set of LAs, each of which is assigned to one cell of the CLA, $N = \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \ldots, \bar{x}_{\bar{m}}\}$ is a finite subset of Z^d called neighborhood vector, and $\mathcal{F} : \underline{\Phi}^{\bar{m}} \to \underline{\beta}$ is the local rule of the CLA, where $\underline{\beta}$ is the set of values that the reinforcement signal can take. The local rule computes the reinforcement signal for each LA based on the actions selected by the neighboring LAs. We assume that there exists a neighborhood function $\overline{N}(u)$ that maps a cell u to the set of its neighboring cells. We assume that the LA, A_i , which has a finite action set $\underline{\alpha}_i$, is associated to cell i (for $i = 1, \ldots, n$) of the CLA. Let the cardinality of $\underline{\alpha}_i$ be m_i .

The state of all cells in the lattice is described by a configuration. A configuration of the CLA at stage k is denoted by $\underline{p}(k) = (\underline{p}'_1(k), \underline{p}'_2(k), \dots, \underline{p}'_n(k))'$, where $\underline{p}_i(k) = (p_{i1}(k), \dots, p_{im_i}(k))'$ is the action probability vector of LA

 A_i . A configuration \underline{p} is called deterministic if the action probability vector of each LA is a unit vector; otherwise, it is called probabilistic. Hence, the set of all deterministic configurations K^* and the set of all probabilistic configurations K in CLA are $K^* = \{\underline{p}|p_{iy} \in \{0,1\} \quad \forall y,i\}$ and $K = \{\underline{p}|p_{iy} \in [0,1] \quad \forall y,i\}$, respectively, where $\sum_y p_{iy} = 1$ for all i. Every configuration $p \in K^*$ is called a corner of K.

The operation of the CLA takes place as the following iterations. At iteration k, each LA chooses an action. Let $\alpha_i \in \underline{\alpha}_i$ be the action chosen by A_i . Then, all LAs receive a reinforcement signal. Let $\beta_i \in \underline{\beta}$ be the reinforcement signal received by A_i . This reinforcement signal is produced by the application of the local rule. The higher value of the reinforcement signal means that the chosen action of A_i will receive higher reward. Since each set $\underline{\alpha}_i$ is finite, the local rule can be represented by a hyper matrix of dimensions $m_1 \times m_2 \times \cdots \times m_{\overline{m}}$. These *n* hyper matrices constitute what we call the rule of the CLA. When all of these *n* hyper matrices are equal, the CLA is called uniform; otherwise, it is called nonuniform. A rule is called commutative if and only if

$$\mathcal{F}^{i}(\alpha_{i+\bar{x}_{1}}, \alpha_{i+\bar{x}_{2}}, \dots, \alpha_{i+\bar{x}_{\bar{m}}})$$

$$= \mathcal{F}^{i}(\alpha_{i+\bar{x}_{\bar{m}}}, \alpha_{i+\bar{x}_{1}}, \dots, \alpha_{i+\bar{x}_{\bar{m}-1}})$$

$$= \dots = \mathcal{F}^{i}(\alpha_{i+\bar{x}_{2}}, \alpha_{i+\bar{x}_{3}}, \dots, \alpha_{i+\bar{x}_{1}}).$$
(1)

For the sake of simplicity in presentation, a rule $\mathcal{F}^i(\alpha_{i+\bar{x}_1}, \alpha_{i+\bar{x}_2}, \ldots, \alpha_{i+\bar{x}_{\bar{m}}})$ is denoted by $\mathcal{F}^i(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_{\bar{m}})$. The application of the local rule to every cell allows transforming a configuration to a new one. The local rule specifies the reward value for each chosen action. The average reward for action r of automaton A_i for configuration $p \in \mathcal{K}$ is defined as

$$d_{ir}(\underline{p}) = \sum_{y_2} \cdots \sum_{y_{\bar{m}}} \mathcal{F}^i(r, y_2, \dots, y_{\bar{m}}) \prod_{\substack{l \in \bar{N}(i) \\ l \neq i}} p_{ly_l} \qquad (2)$$

and the average reward for LA A_i and the total average reward for the CLA are denoted by $D_i(\underline{p}) = \sum_r d_{ir}(\underline{p})p_{ir}$ and $\mathcal{D}(\underline{p}) = \sum_i D_i(\underline{p})$, respectively. A configuration $\underline{p} \in \mathcal{K}$ is called *compatible* if $\sum_r d_{ir}(\underline{p})p_{ir} \geq \sum_r d_{ir}(\underline{p})q_{ir}$ for all configurations $\underline{q} \in \mathcal{K}$ and all cells *i*. The compatibility of a configuration implies that no LA in CLA has any reason to change its action.

The following theorems state the steady-state behavior of CLA when each cell uses L_{R-I} learning algorithm. Proofs of these theorems can be found in [12].

Theorem 1: Suppose that there is a bounded differential function $\mathcal{D}: \mathcal{R}^{m_1+\dots+m_{\bar{m}}} \to \mathcal{R}$ such that for some constant c > 0, $(\partial \mathcal{D}/\partial p_{ir})(\underline{p}) = cd_{ir}(\underline{p})$ for all i and r. Then, CLA for any initial configuration in $\mathcal{K} - \mathcal{K}^*$ and with sufficiently small value of learning parameter (max{ \underline{a} } $\to 0$) always converges to a configuration that is stable and compatible, where a_i is the learning parameter of LA A_i .

Theorem 2: A synchronous CLA, which uses uniform and commutative rule, starting from $\underline{p}(0) \in \mathcal{K} - \mathcal{K}^*$ and with sufficiently small value of learning parameter $(\max{\underline{a}} \rightarrow 0)$, always converges to a deterministic configuration that is stable and compatible.

If the CLA satisfies the sufficiency conditions needed for Theorems 1 and 2, then the CLA will converge to a compatible configuration; otherwise, the convergence of the CLA to a compatible configurations cannot be guaranteed, and it may exhibit a limit cycle behavior [18].

B. ACLA

In synchronous CLA, all cells are synchronized with a global clock and executed at the same time. In some applications such as call admission control in cellular networks, a type of CLA in which LAs in different cells are activated asynchronously (ACLA) is needed. LAs may be activated in either *time-driven* or step-driven manner. In time-driven ACLA, each cell is assumed to have an internal clock which wakes up the LA associated to that cell. The internal clocks possibly have different time step durations and are asynchronous, i.e., each going at its own speed and does not change time simultaneously. In step-driven ACLA, a cell is selected in fixed or random order. Formally, a d-dimensional step-driven ACLA with n cells is a structure $\langle Z^d, \Phi, A, N, F, \rho \rangle$, where Z^d is a lattice of d-tuples of integer numbers, $\underline{\Phi}$ is a finite set of states, A is the set of LAs assigned to cells, $N = \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \dots, \bar{x}_{\bar{m}}\}$ is the neighborhood vector, $F: \underline{\Phi}^{\bar{m}} \to \beta$ is the local rule, and ρ is an *n*-dimensional vector called activation probability vector, where ρ_i is the probability that the LA in cell i (for i = 1, ..., n) is to be activated in each stage.

The operation of ACLA takes place as the following iterations. At iteration k, each LA A_i is activated with probability ρ_i , and the activated LAs choose one of their actions. The activated automata use their current actions to execute the rule (computing the reinforcement signal). The actions of neighboring cells of the activated cell are their most recently selected actions. Let $\alpha_i \in \underline{\alpha}_i$ and $\beta_i \in \underline{\beta}$ be the action chosen by the activated and the reinforcement signal received by LA A_i , respectively. The reinforcement signal is produced by the application of local rule \mathcal{F}^i . Finally, activated LAs update their action probability vectors, and the process repeats.

The following theorems state the steady-state behavior of ACLA when each cell uses the L_{R-I} learning algorithm. Proofs of these theorems can be found in [10].

Theorem 3: Suppose that there is a bounded differential function $\mathcal{D}: \mathcal{R}^{m_1+\dots+m_{\bar{m}}} \to \mathcal{R}$ such that for some constant c > 0, $(\partial \mathcal{D}/\partial p_{ir})(\underline{p}) = cd_{ir}(\underline{p})$ for all *i* and *r*, and $\rho_i > 0$ for all *i*. Then, ACLA for any initial configuration in $\mathcal{K} - \mathcal{K}^*$ and with sufficiently small value of learning parameter $(\max{\underline{a}} \to 0)$ always converges to a configuration that is stable and compatible, where a_i represents the learning parameter for LA A_i .

Theorem 4: An ACLA, which uses uniform and commutative rule, starting from $\underline{p}(0) \in \mathcal{K} - \mathcal{K}^*$ and with sufficiently small value of learning parameter $(\max{\underline{a}} \rightarrow 0)$, always converges to a deterministic configuration that is stable and also compatible.

C. OCLA

In previous versions of CLA, the neighboring cells of an LA constitute its neighborhoods, and the state of a cell in the next stage depends only on the states of neighboring cells. In some

applications such as image processing, a type of CLA is needed in which the action of each cell in the next stage of its evolution not only depends on the local environment (actions of its neighbors) but also on the external environments. This model of CLA is called OCLA. In OCLA, two types of environments are considered: global and exclusive environments. Each OCLA has one global environment that influences all cells and an exclusive environment for each particular cell.

Formally, an d-dimensional OCLA with n cells is a structure $\mathcal{A} = (Z^d, \Phi, A, E^G, E^E, N, \mathcal{F})$, where Z^d is a lattice of d-tuples of integer numbers, $\underline{\Phi}$ is a finite set of states, A is the set of LAs, each of which is assigned to each cell, E^G is the global environment, $E^E = \{E_1^E, E_2^E, \ldots, E_n^E\}$ is the set of exclusive environments, where E_i^E is the exclusive environment for cell $i, N = \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \ldots, \bar{x}_{\bar{m}}\}$ is the neighborhood vector, and $\mathcal{F} : \underline{\Phi}^{\bar{m}} \times O(G) \times O(E) \to \underline{\beta}$ is the local rule of the OCLA, where $O(\overline{G})$ and $O(\overline{E})$ are the sets of states of global and exclusive environments, respectively.

The operation of OCLA takes place as iterations of the following steps. At iteration k, each LA chooses one of its actions. Let α_i be the action chosen by LA A_i . The actions of all LAs are applied to their corresponding local environments (neighboring LAs) as well as global environments and their corresponding exclusive environments. Then, all LAs receive their reinforcement signal, which is a combination of the responses from local, global, and exclusive environments. These responses are combined using the local rule. Finally, all LAs update their action probability vectors based on the received reinforcement signal. Note that the local environment for each LA is nonstationary while global and exclusive environments may be stationary or nonstationary. We now present the convergence result for the OCLA in stationary global and exclusive environments when each cell uses the L_{R-I} learning algorithm. These theorems ensure convergence to one compatible configuration if the OCLA has one or more compatible configurations. Proofs of these theorems can be found in [11].

Theorem 5: Suppose that there is a bounded differential function $\mathcal{D}: \mathcal{R}^{m_1+\dots+m_{\bar{m}}} \times O(G) \times O(E) \to \mathcal{R}$ such that for some constant c > 0, $(\partial \mathcal{D}/\partial p_{ir})(\underline{p}) = cd_{ir}(\underline{p})$ for all i and r, and $\rho_i > 0$ for all i. Then, OCLA (synchronous or asynchronous) for any initial configuration in $\mathcal{K} - \mathcal{K}^*$ and with sufficiently small value of learning parameter $(\max{\underline{a}} \to 0)$ always converges to a configuration that is stable and compatible, where a_i is the learning parameter of LA A_i .

Theorem 6: An OCLA (synchronous or asynchronous), which uses uniform and commutative rule, starting from $\underline{p}(0) \in \mathcal{K} - \mathcal{K}^*$ and with sufficiently small value of learning parameter $(\max{\underline{a}} \to 0)$, always converges to a deterministic configuration that is stable and also compatible.

III. CLA WITH MULTIPLE LAS IN EACH CELL

All previously mentioned models of CLA [10]–[12] use one LA per cell. In some applications, there is a need for a model of CLA in which each cell is equipped with several LAs, for instance, the channel assignment in cellular mobile networks for which we need to have several decision variables, each of which can be adapted by an LA. We call such a CLA as *CLA*

(s, 1)	(s, 2)		(s, i - 1)	(s,i)	(s, i+1)		(s, n - 1)	(s,n)
:	:	:	:	:	÷	•	:	•
(2,1)	(2, 2)		(2, i - 1)	(2, i)	(2, i + 1)		(2, n - 1)	(2, n)
(1,1)	(1,2)		(1, i - 1)	(1,i)	(1, i + 1)		(1, n - 1)	(1, n)

Fig. 1. Equivalent representation of a linear CLA containing s LA in each cell.

with multiple LAs in each cell. In the new model of CLA, LAs may be activated synchronously or asynchronously. In the rest of this section, we introduce the new model of CLA and study its steady-state behavior.

A. Synchronous CLA With Multiple LAs in Each Cell

In synchronous CLA with multiple LAs in each cell, several LAs are assigned to each cell of CLA, which are activated synchronously. Without loss of generality and for the sake of simplicity, assume that each cell contains s LAs. The operation of a synchronous CLA with multiple LAs in each cell can be described as follows: At the first step, the internal state of all cells is specified. The state of every cell is determined on the basis of the action probability vectors of all LAs residing in that cell. The initial value of this state may be chosen on the basis of the past experience or at random. In the second step, the rule of the CLA determines the reinforcement signal to each LA residing in each cell. The environment for every LA is the set of all LAs in that cell and neighboring cells. Finally, each LA updates its action probability vector on the basis of the supplied reinforcement signal and the chosen action of the LA. This process continues until the desired result is obtained.

Formally, a d-dimensional synchronous LA with n cells and s LAs in each cell is a structure $\mathcal{A} = (Z^d, \Phi, A, N, \mathcal{F})$, where Z^d is a lattice of *d*-tuples of integer numbers, Φ is a finite set of states, A is the set of LAs assigned to CLA, where A^i is the set of LAs assigned to cell *i*, $N = \{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \dots, \bar{x}_{\bar{m}}\}$ is a finite subset of $Z^{\overline{d}}$ called neighborhood vector, and \mathcal{F} : $\underline{\Phi}^{s \times \overline{m}} \to \beta$ is the local rule of the CLA, where β is the set of values that the reinforcement signal can take. The local rule computes the reinforcement signal for each LA based on the actions selected by the neighboring LAs. We assume that there exists a neighborhood function $\overline{N}(u)$ that maps a cell u to the set of its neighbors. Let $\underline{\alpha}^i$ be the set of actions that is chosen by all LAs in cell *i*. Hence, the local rule is represented by function $\mathcal{F}^{i}(\underline{\alpha}^{i+\bar{x}_{1}},\underline{\alpha}^{i+\bar{x}_{2}},\ldots,\underline{\alpha}^{i+\bar{x}_{\bar{m}}}) \rightarrow \beta$. In CLA with multiple LAs in each cell, the configuration of CLA is defined as the action probability vectors of all LAs. The local environment for each LA is all LAs residing in the cell and the neighboring cells. A configuration is called compatible if no LAs in CLA have any reason to change their action [12].

We now present the convergence result for the synchronous CLA with multiple LAs in each cell, which ensures convergence to one compatible configuration if the CLA has one or more compatible configurations.

Theorem 7: Suppose that there is a bounded differential function $\mathcal{D}: \mathcal{R}^{s(m_1+\dots+m_{\bar{m}})} \to \mathcal{R}$ such that for some constant $c > 0, (\partial \mathcal{D}/\partial p_{ir})(\underline{p}) = cd_{ir}(\underline{p})$ for all i and r. Then, CLA for any initial configuration in $\mathcal{K} - \mathcal{K}^*$ and with sufficiently small value of learning parameter $(\max{\underline{a}} \to 0)$ always converges to a configuration that is stable and compatible.

Proof: In order to prove the theorem, we model the CLA with multiple LAs in each cell using the CLA containing one LA in each cell. In order to obtain such a model, an additional dimension is added to the CLA containing multiple LAs in each of its cells. For the sake of simplicity, we use a linear CLA with s LA in each cell as an example. Consider a linear CLA with *n* cells and neighborhood function $\overline{N}(i) = \{i - 1, i, i + 1\}$. We add s-1 extra rows to this CLA, for example, rows 2 through s, each of which contains n cells each with one LA. Now, the new CLA contains one LA in each cell. To consider the effects of other LAs on each LA, the neighborhood function must also be modified. The modified neighborhood function is $N_1(i, j) = \{(i, j-1), (i+1, j-1), \dots, (i+s-1), \dots, (i$ $1, j - 1), (i, j), (i + 1, j), \dots, (i + s - 1, j), (i, j + 1), (i + 1, j)$ $(j+1),\ldots,(i+s-1,j+1)\}$, where operators + and for index i are modula-s operators. This modified CLA and neighborhood function is shown in Fig. 1.

With the earlier discussion, the proof of the theorem follows immediately from the proof of Theorem 1.

When a CLA uses a commutative rule, the following useful result can be concluded.

Corollary 1: A synchronous CLA (open or close) with multiple LAs in each cell, which uses uniform and commutative rule, starting from $\underline{p}(0) \in \mathcal{K} - \mathcal{K}^*$ and with sufficiently small value of learning parameter (max $\{\underline{a}\} \rightarrow 0$), always converges to a deterministic configuration that is stable and compatible.

Proof: The proof follows directly from Theorems 2, 6, and 7. $\hfill\blacksquare$

B. ACLA With Multiple LAs in Each Cell

In this model of CLA, several LAs are assigned to each cell of CLA, which are activated asynchronously. Without loss of generality and for the sake of simplicity, assume that each cell contains s LA. Formally, an d-dimensional step-driven ACLA with n cells is a structure $\langle Z^d, \Phi, A, N, F, \rho \rangle$, where Z^d is a



Fig. 2. System model of cellular networks.

lattice of *d*-tuples of integer numbers, $\underline{\Phi}$ is a finite set of states, *A* is the set of LAs assigned to cells, $\overline{N} = {\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2, \ldots, \overline{x}_{\overline{m}}}$ is the neighborhood vector, $F : \underline{\Phi}^{s \times \overline{m}} \to \underline{\beta}$ is the local rule, and $\underline{\rho}$ is an $n \times s$ -dimensional vector called activation probability vector, where ρ_{ij} is the probability that the LA *j* in cell *i* (for $i = 1, \ldots, n$ and $j = 1, \ldots, s$) is to be activated in each stage.

The operation of an ACLA with multiple LAs in each cell can be described as follows: At iteration k, each LA A_{ij} is activated with probability ρ_{ij} , and the activated LAs choose one of their actions. The activated automata use their current actions to execute the rule (computing the reinforcement signal). The actions of neighboring cells of an activated cell are their most recently selected actions. The reinforcement signal is produced by the application of local rule. Finally, activated LAs update their action probability vectors, and the process repeats.

We now present the convergence result for the ACLA with multiple LAs in each cell and using commutative rules, which ensures convergence to one compatible configuration if the CLA has more than one compatible configuration.

Corollary 2: A synchronous CLA with multiple LAs in each cell, which uses uniform and commutative rule, starting from $\underline{p}(0) \in \mathcal{K} - \mathcal{K}^*$, $\rho_i > 0$, and with sufficiently small value of learning parameter (max $\{\underline{a}\} \rightarrow 0$), in all stationary global and group environments always converges to a deterministic configuration that is stable and compatible.

Proof: The proof follows directly from Theorems 4, 6, and 7.

IV. APPLICATIONS

In this section, we give some recently developed applications of CLA with multiple LAs in each cell. These applications include channel assignment algorithms for cellular mobile networks and a parallel evolutionary algorithm (EA) used for function optimization.

A. Cellular Mobile Networks

In cellular networks (Fig. 2), geographical area covered by the network is divided into smaller regions called *cells*. Each cell is serviced by a fixed server called base station (BS), which is located at its center. A number of BSs are connected to a *mobile switching center*, which also acts as a gateway of the mobile network to the existing wired-line networks. A mobile station communicates with other nodes in the network, fixed or mobile, only through the BS of its cell by employing wireless communication. If a channel is used concurrently by more than one communication session in the same cell or in the neighboring cells, the signal of communicating units will interfere with others. Such interference is called cochannel interference. However, the same channel can be used in geographically separated cells such that their signals do not interfere with each other. These interferences are usually modeled by a constraint matrix C, where element c(u, v) is the minimum gap that must exist between channels assigned to cells u and v in order to avoid the interferences. The minimum distance at which cochannel can be reused with acceptable interference is called cochannel reuse distance. The set of all neighboring cells that are in cochannel interference range of each other forms a cluster. At any time, a channel can be used to support, at most, one communication session in each cluster. The problem of assigning channels to communication sessions is called channel assignment problem.

There are several schemes for assigning channels to communication sessions, which can be divided into three different categories: fixed channel assignment (FCA), dynamic channel assignment (DCA), and hybrid channel assignment (HCA) schemes [19]. In FCA schemes, a set of channels is permanently allocated to each cell, which can be reused in another cell, at sufficient distance, such that interference is tolerable. FCA schemes are formulated as generalized graph coloring problem and belong to a class of NP-hard problems [20]. In DCA schemes, there is a global pool of channels from where channels are assigned on demand and the set of channels assigned to a cell varies with time. After a call is completed, the assigned channel is returned to the global pool [21], [22]. In HCA schemes, channels are divided into *fixed* and *dynamic* sets [23]. The fixed set contains a number of channels that are assigned to cells as in the FCA schemes. The fixed set of channels of a particular cell is assigned only for calls initiated in that cell. The dynamic set of channels is shared among all users in a network to increase the performance of channel assignment algorithm. When a BS receives a request for service, if there is a free channel in the fixed set, then the BS assigns a channel from the fixed set, and if all channels in the fixed set are busy, then a channel from the dynamic set is allocated. Any DCA strategy can be used for assigning channels from a dynamic set.

Considering the characteristics of cellular networks, CLA can be a good model for solving problems in cellular networks, including channel assignment problem. In the rest of this section, we introduce two CLA-based channel assignment algorithms. Each of these algorithms uses a CLA with multiple LAs in each cell to assign channels.

1) FCA in Cellular Networks: In FCA schemes, first, the expected traffic load of the network is transformed to a demand vector for deciding how many channels are needed to be assigned to each cell to support the expected traffic load. Next, the required number of channels is assigned to every cell (BS) in such a way that this assignment prevents interference between channels assigned to the neighboring cells. When a call arrives at any particular cell, the BS of this cell assigns one of its free channels, if any, to the incoming call. If all allocated channels of this cell are busy, then the incoming call will be blocked.

In the succeeding discussion, we introduce a CLA-based algorithm for solving the FCA problem. In this algorithm, we

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initialize the CLA.
while an interference free assignment is not found do
for every cell u in the CLA concurrently do
for every LA i in cell u concurrently do
choose an action. Let j be chosen action of this LA.
if channel j doesn't interfere with channels used in the neighboring cells then
reward the action j of LA i in cell u.
end if
end for
end for
end while
```

Fig. 3. CLA-based FCA algorithm.

assume that the traffic load for each cell is stationary and an estimation for the demand vector (D) for the network is given *a priori*, where d_v is the expected number of channels required for cell v. In this algorithm, each assignment for channels in the network is equivalent to a configuration of CLA. In the proposed algorithm, the synchronous CLA evolves until it reaches a compatible configuration that is the solution of the channel assignment problem. In our approach, the cellular network with n cells and total of m channels is modeled as a synchronous CLA with n cells, where cell v is equipped with d_v m-action LAs of L_{R-I} type. Since use of one channel or adjacent channels in neighboring cells causes the interference, the cells in the interference region of every cell are considered as neighboring cells of every cell in the network. The rule of CLA specifies cosite, cochannel, and adjacent-channel interferences. In this algorithm, the action corresponding to channel j for automaton i in cell u, denoted by α_{ij}^{u} , is rewarded if channel j does not interfere with other channels assigned in cell u and its neighboring cells. Thus, the rule for the CLA can be defined as

$$\beta_{ij}^{u} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \left| \alpha_{ij}^{u} - \alpha_{kl}^{u} \right| < c(u, v) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(3)

for all cells u, v = 1, 2, ..., n and all channels i, j, k, l = 1, 2, ..., m. The value of 0 for β_{ij}^u means the penalty, while 1 means the reward for the action j of LA A_i in cell u. The objective of our FCA algorithm is to find an assignment (configuration) that maximizes the total reward of the CLA, which leads to minimization of the interference in the cellular network.

The proposed algorithm, as shown in Fig. 3, can be described as follows. First, the CLA is initialized, and then, the following steps are repeated until an interference-free channel assignment is found.

- 1) All LAs choose their actions synchronously.
- If the channel corresponding to the action chosen by a particular LA does not interfere with the channels of neighboring cells, then the given LA is rewarded.

2) DCA in Cellular Networks: In the following, we propose a DCA algorithm based on CLA. In this algorithm, a network with n cells and m channels is modeled with an ACLA with n cells, where each cell is equipped with m two-action LAs of L_{R-I} type. In each cell, the kth LA specifies that the kth channel is used in this cell or not. The action set of LAs is equal to $\{0, 1\}$, where 1 means that the corresponding channel is selected as a candidate channel for the assignment to the incoming call while 0 means that the corresponding channel is not selected. The operation of this algorithm can be described as follows: When a call arrives at cell *i*, all LAs of this cell are scanned using a sweeping strategy until an interference-free channel is found or all channels are scanned. The sweeping strategy orders the LAs of a cell for scanning. The sweeping strategies used for this algorithm are as follows: fixed sweeping, maximum usage sweeping, minimum usage sweeping, and random sweeping. Let $I_i = (j_{i,1}, j_{i,2}, \ldots, j_{i,m})$ be the scanning order of LA of cell *i* specified by the sweeping strategy. If an interference-free channel is found, the incoming call is accepted, a channel is assigned to it, and the selected action of the corresponding LA is rewarded; otherwise, the call will be blocked.

The overall operation of the proposed CLA-based DCA algorithm is shown algorithmically in Fig. 4.

In what follows, we study how the proposed algorithm is mapped to ACLA with multiple LAs in each cell. The activation probability vector of ACLA is obtained by taking expectation from the product of an *n*-dimensional vector $\underline{\pi}_1$ and an $n \times$ *nm*-dimensional matrix $\underline{\pi}_2$. Vector $\underline{\pi}_1$ is called *cell activation* vector and determines when a given cell is activated. It is apparent that, when a call arrives to a cell *i*, it will be activated, i.e., $\pi_1(i) = 1$. Thus, $E[\pi_1(i)]$ is the probability that a call arrives at cell *i*. Matrix $\underline{\pi}_2$ is called LA activation matrix and determines when an LA in an activated cell is triggered. Element $\pi_2(i, j)$ becomes 1 when the kth LA in cell i is activated, where k = j - (i - 1)m. Thus, $E[\pi_2(i, j)|\pi_1(i) = 1]$ is equal to the probability of triggering the kth LA in cell i (for k = j - (i - i)1)m) given that a call arrives at cell *i*. Vector $\underline{\pi}_1$ is determined by call arrival rate, while matrix $\underline{\pi}_2$ is obtained from sweeping strategies, which some of them are described hereinafter.

a) Fixed sweep strategy: This strategy scans channels of a typical cell *i* one by one in an increasing order of their indices, i.e., $I_i = (1, 2, ..., m)$. Supposing that a call arrives at cell *i* (for i = 1, ..., n), then $\pi_1(i) = 1$, and the LAs are triggered using matrix $\underline{\pi}_2$, which is recomputed every time an LA is triggered. The recomputation of matrix $\underline{\pi}_2$ is done in the following way. At the first step, $\pi_2(i, (i-1)m+1)$ becomes 1, i.e., the first LA is activated. Then, the remaining elements of $\underline{\pi}_2$ are computed according to the following rule:

$$\pi_2(i,j) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \pi_1(i) = 1 \text{ and } \pi_2(i,j-1) = 1\\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(4)

for j = (i - 1)m + 2, ..., im. In other words, in this strategy, LAs in cell *i* are triggered sequentially in increasing order of their indices until a channel is found for the assignment.

```
initialize the CLA.
loop
  for every cell u in the CLA concurrently do
    order LAs using the given sweeping strategy and put in list L_u.
    wait for a call.
    set k \leftarrow 1; found \leftarrow false
    while k \leq m and not found do
       LA A_{L_u(k)} chooses one of its actions, where A_{L_u(k)} is the k^{th} LA in list L_u.
       if selected action is 1 then
         if selected channel doesn't interfere with channels used in neighboring cells then
            assign the channel and reward the selected action of A_{L_n(k)}
            set found \leftarrow true
         end if
       end if
       Set k \leftarrow k+1
    end while
    if not found then
       block the incoming call
    end if
  end for
end loop
```

Fig. 4. CLA-based DCA algorithm.

b) Maximum usage strategy: In this strategy, the set of LAs in cell *i* is triggered in decreasing order of their usage of their corresponding channels until a noninterfering channel is found. If no channel can be found, then the incoming call will be blocked. In other words, in this strategy, LA A_k is triggered in the kth stage of the activation of cell i if u_k^i is the kth largest element in usage vector $\underline{u}^i = \{u_1^i, u_2^i, \dots, u_m^i\}$, where u_k^i is the number of times that channel k is assigned to calls in cell i.

c) Minimum usage strategy: In this strategy, the set of LAs in cell *i* is triggered in increasing order of their usage of their corresponding channels until a noninterfering channel is found. If no channel can be found, then the incoming call will be blocked. In other words, in this strategy, LA A_k is triggered in the kth stage of the activation of cell i if u_k^i is the kth largest element in usage vector $\underline{u}^i = \{u_1^i, u_2^i, \dots, u_m^i\}$, where u_k^i is the number of times that channel k is assigned to calls in cell i.

d) Random sweep strategy: In this strategy, the set of LAs in cell *i* is triggered in random order. First, a sequence of indices is generated randomly, and then, the set of LAs is triggered according to this generated order.

B. CLA-EC

EAs are a class of random search algorithms in which principles of natural evolution are regarded as rules for optimization. They attempt to find the optimal solution to problems by manipulating a population of candidate solutions. The population is evaluated, and the best solutions at each generation are selected to reproduce and mate to form the next generation. Over a number of generations, good traits dominate the population, resulting in an increase in the quality of the solutions.

CLA-based evolutionary computing (CLA-EC), which is an application of synchronous CLA with multiple LAs in each cell, is obtained by combining CLA and evolutionary computing models [24]. In CLA-EC, each genome in the population is assigned to one cell of CLA, and each cell in CLA is equipped with a set of LAs, with each of them corresponding to one gene in the genome. The population is made from genomes of all cells. The operation of CLA-EC can be described as follows: At the first step, all LAs in the CLA-EC choose their actions synchronously. The set of actions chosen by LA of a cell determines the string genome for that cell. Based on a local rule, a vector of reinforcement signals is generated and given to the LAs residing in the cell. All LAs in the CLA-EC update their action probability vectors based on the received reinforcement signal using a learning algorithm. The process of action selection and updating the internal structure of LAs is repeated until a predetermined criterion is met.

CLA-EC has been used in several applications such as function optimization and data clustering, to mention a few [24]. In what follows, we present an algorithm based on CLA-EC for function optimization problem. Assuming a binary finite search space, a function optimization problem can be described as the minimization of a real function $f: \{0,1\}^m \to R$. In this algorithm, the chromosome is represented using a binary string of m bits, and then, each cell of CLA-EC is equipped with mtwo-action LAs, each of which is responsible for updating a gene. The action set of all LAs corresponds to the set $\{0, 1\}$. Then, the following steps are repeated until the termination criterion is met.

- 1) All LAs choose their actions synchronously.
- 2) Concatenate the chosen actions of LAs in each cell *i*, and generate a new chromosome $\underline{\alpha}^i$.
- 3) The fitnesses of all chromosomes are computed. If the fitness of the new chromosome of a cell is better than the previous one, it will be replaced.
- 4) A set of $N_s(i)$ neighboring cells of each cell *i* is selected.
- 5) In the selected neighbors, the number of cells with the same value of genes is counted. Let $N_{ii}(k)$ be the number of *j*th genes that have the same value of k at the selected neighboring cells of *i*. Then, the reinforcement signal for *j*th LA of cell *i* is computed as

$$\beta_{ij} = \begin{cases} U[N_{ij}(1) - N_{ij}(0)], & \text{if } \alpha_j^i = 0\\ U[N_{ij}(0) - N_{ij}(1)], & \text{if } \alpha_j^i = 1 \end{cases}$$
(5)

where α_i^i is the value of *j*th gene in the *i*th chromosome and U(.) is the step function.

initialize the CLA. while not done do for every cell i in the CLA concurrently do generate a new chromosome. evaluate the new chromosome is better than the previous one then replace the previous chromosome by the new one. end if select $N_s(i)$ neighboring cells generate the reinforcement signal for all LAs. update action probability vectors of all LAs. end for end while

Fig. 5. CLA-EC-based optimization algorithm.



Fig. 6. Cellular network of the Philadelphia problem.

The overall operation of the CLA-EC-based optimization algorithm is shown algorithmically in Fig. 5.

V. COMPUTER EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we give three sets of computer simulations for CLA with multiple LAs in each cell. The first two experiments are the simulations of the proposed fixed and DCA algorithms, and the next one is the results of the CLA-EC-based function optimization algorithm.

A. Channel Assignment in Cellular Networks

In order to show the effectiveness of the proposed CLAbased channel assignment algorithms, computer simulations are conducted. In these simulations, interference is shown by a constraint matrix C. The element c(u, v) of constraint matrix C, which represents the minimum gap among channels assigned to cells u and v, is defined on the basis of normalized distance of cells u and v, denoted by d(u, v). In the rest of this section, the simulation results of the proposed fixed and DCA algorithms are given.

1) FCA in Cellular Networks: In this section, we give the results for the proposed FCA algorithm for a simplified version of Philadelphia problem. The Philadelphia problem is a channel assignment problem based on a hypothetical but realistic cellular mobile network covering the region around this city [25]. The cellular network of the Philadelphia problem is based on a regular grid with 21 cells shown in Fig. 6.

In the Philadelphia problem, the interference constraints between any pair of cells are represented by an integer, i.e., c(i, j), as defined by

$$c(i,j) = \begin{cases} 5, & \text{if } i = j \\ 2, & \text{if } 0 < d(i,j) \le 1 \\ 1, & \text{if } 1 < d(i,j) \le 2\sqrt{3}. \end{cases}$$
(6)

The demand vector of the Philadelphia problem is given in the second column of Table I. If we wanted to solve the

TABLE I Demand Vectors for Philadelphia Problem

Cell	Original	Modified	Modified	
	Vector	Vector 1	Vector 2	
1	8	1	1	
2	25	1	1	
3	8	1	1	
4	8	1	1	
5	8	1	1	
6	15	1	2	
7	18	1	2	
8	52	1	2	
9	77	1	2	
10	28	1	2	
11	13	1	2	
12	15	1	2	
13	31	1	2	
14	15	1	2	
15	36	1	1	
16	57	1	1	
17	28	1	2	
18	8	1	2	
19	10	1	2	
20	13	1	2	
21	8	1	2	

original version of Philadelphia problem, we needed to have, in each cell, several LAs with large number of actions, which leads to slow rate of convergence of CLA to its compatible configuration. To speed up the convergence of CLA, we have simplified the original version of Philadelphia problem by simplifying the constraint matrix and the demand vector. To obtain our simplified version of Philadelphia problem, we have changed the interference model and demand vector as explained hereinafter. In the simplified version of the problem, the interference c(i, j) is defined as follows:

$$c(i,j) = \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } i = j \\ 1, & \text{if } d(i,j) = 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(7)

Note that c(i, j) will be zero if there is no interference between two cells *i* and *j*. Each cell and, at most, its six neighboring cells constitute a cluster. The cells in this cluster define the neighboring cells in CLA. In the simplified version of the Philadelphia problem, we consider only two demand vectors. These demand vectors are given in the last two columns of Table I.

Figs. 7 and 8 show the evolution of the interference in the cellular network with different set of channels during the operation of the network. These figures show the following: 1) The interference is decreasing as time goes on; 2) the interference becomes zero when CLA converges to a compatible configuration; and 3) by increasing the number of channels allocated to the network, the speed of convergence of CLA also increases.

2) DCA in Cellular Networks: In this section, we present the simulation results of the proposed CLA-based DCA algorithm and compare it with two related DCA algorithms: channel segregation [21] and reinforcement learning [22] algorithms. For simulations, it is assumed that there are seven BSs, which are organized in a linear array, that share five fullduplex and interference-free channels. In these simulations, the



Fig. 7. Interference for different channels for demand vector 1.



Fig. 8. Interference for different channels for demand vector 2.



Fig. 9. Average blocking probability of calls.

interference constraints between any pair of cells represented by c(i, j) are defined as follows:

$$c(i,j) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } d(i,j) \le 2\\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(8)

The elements in matrix C corresponding to pairs of noninterfering cells are defined to be zero. We assume that the arrival of calls is Poisson process with rate λ and channel holding time of calls is exponentially distributed with mean $\mu = 1/3$. We also assume that no handoff occurs during the channel holding time. The results of simulations reported in this section are obtained from 120 000-s simulations. Fig. 9 shows the average blocking probability of calls for the proposed algorithm, which is compared with the results obtained for channel segregation and reinforcement learning algorithms. Fig. 10 shows the average blocking probabilities for different strategies for a typical run.



Fig. 10. Evolution of blocking probability of calls for a typical run.



Fig. 11. Evolution of interference among channels assigned to neighboring cells.



Fig. 12. Probability of assigning different channels to different cells for fixed sweep strategy.

Fig. 11 shows the evolution of the interference as the CLA operates. Figs. 10 and 11 show that the blocking probability and interference decrease as the learning proceeds. That is, the CLA segregates channels among the cells of the network.

Figs. 12 and 13 show the probability of assigning different channels to different cells for different sweeping strategies for a typical simulation. These figures show that the proposed algorithm can segregate channels among different cells of the network.

The simulation results presented for fixed and DCA algorithms show that the CLA-based algorithms may converge to local optima as shown theoretically in [10]–[12]. This may due to access to the limited information in each cell. In order to alleviate this problem, we can allow additional information



Fig. 13. Probability of assigning different channels to different cells for maximum usage strategy.

regarding channels in the network to be gathered and used by each cell in order to allocate channels. The additional information helps CLA to find an assignment, which results in a lower blocking probability for the network. In [26], a CLAbased DCA algorithm is given that allows additional information to be exchanged among neighboring cells. The simulation results show that the exchange of additional information among neighboring cells decreases the blocking probability of calls.

B. Function Optimization

This section presents the experimental results for two function optimization problems and then compare these results with the results obtained using simple genetic algorithm (SGA) [27], population-based incremental learning (PBIL) [28], and compact genetic algorithm (cGA) [29] in terms of solution quality, and the number of function evaluations taken by the algorithm to converge completely for a given population size. The algorithm terminates when the CLA completely converges. A CLA completely converges when all LAs residing in all cells converge. Each quantity of the reported results is the average taken over 20 runs. The algorithm uses 1-D CLA with L_{R-I} LA in each cell and neighborhood vector $N = \{-1, 0, +1\}$. The CLA-based algorithm is tested on two different standard function minimization problems. These functions that are given hereinafter are borrowed from the study in [30]. The first one is the second De Jongs function given by the following expression:

$$F_2(x_1, x_2) = 100 \left(x_1^2 - x_2\right)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2 \tag{9}$$

where $-2.048 \le x_1, x_2 \le 2.048$. The second one is *the forth De Jongs function* given by the following expression:

$$F_4(x_1, x_2) = \sum_{i=1}^{30} i \times x_i^4 + N(0, 1)$$
(10)

where $-1.28 \le x_i \le 1.28$. In order to study the speed of the convergence of CLA-EC, the best, the worst, the mean, and the standard deviation of fitness of all cells for each of the function optimization problem are reported. Figs. 14 and 15 show the result of simulations for F_2 and F_4 . Simulation results indicate that CLA-EC converges to near of an optimal solution. For



Fig. 14. Evolution of five-cell CLA-EC for F_2 .



Fig. 15. Evolution of five-cell CLA-EC for F_4 .



Fig. 16. Effects of population size on the evolution of five-cell CLA-EC for function F_2 .

these experiments, $N_s(i)$ is set to 2, and learning parameters of all LAs are set to 0.01.

The size of CLA-EC (population size) is another important parameter, which affects the performance of CLA-EC. Figs. 16 and 17 show the effect of the size of CLA-EC on the speed of convergence of CLA-EC. Each point in these figures shows the best fitness obtained at one iteration. For these experiments, $N_s(i)$ is set to 2, and learning parameters of all LAs are set to 0.01. The results of computer experiments show that, as the size of CLA-EC increases, the speed of convergence increases. However, it is observed that, for some experiments, there exists a value if the size of CLA-EC increases beyond that; no increase in the performance occurs.

Figs. 18 and 19 compare the performance of CLA-EC with that of SGA [11], cGA [13], and PBIL [2]. The SGA uses



Fig. 17. Effects of population size on the evolution of five-cell CLA-EC for function F_4 .



Fig. 18. Comparison of CLA-EC with some other algorithms for F_2 .



Fig. 19. Comparison of CLA-EC with some other algorithms for F_4 .

two-tournament selection without replacement and uniform crossover with exchange probability of 0.5. Mutation is not used, and crossover is applied with probability one. The PBIL uses a learning rate of 0.01, and the number of selection genomes is half of the population size. The parameters of cGA are the same as the parameters used in [13]. Convergence is considered as the termination condition for all algorithms. For these experiments, $N_s(i)$ is set to 2, and learning parameters of all LAs are set to 0.01. The results show the superiority of the CLA-based algorithm over the SGA, PBIL, and cGA.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, the CLA with multiple LAs in each cell has been introduced, and its steady-state behavior has been studied.

It is shown that, for commutative rules, this CLA converges to a stable configuration for which the average reward for the CLA is maximum. Then, two applications of the proposed model to channel assignment in cellular mobile networks and function optimization are given. For both applications, computer simulations show that the CLA-based solutions produce better results. The numerical results also confirm the theory. New research on CLA can be pursued on several directions: 1) searching for new applications; at present time, applications of CLA to the sensor networks and *ad hoc* networks are being undertaken; 2) to study the behavior of CLA for different local rules; and 3) development of extended versions of CLA such as irregular, dynamic, and associative CLAs.

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Hamid Beigy received the B.Sc. and M.Sc. degrees in computer engineering from Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran, in 1992 and 1995, respectively, and the Ph.D. degree in computer engineering from Amirkabir University of Technology, Tehran, Iran, in 2004.

Since 2004, he has been an Assistant Professor with the Department of Computer Engineering, Sharif University of Technology, Tehran. His current research interests include machine learning and statistical pattern recognition, automata learning,

computational intelligence, parallel algorithms, bioinformatics, and routing and load balancing algorithms for networks.



Mohammad Reza Meybodi received the B.S. and M.S. degrees in economics from Shahid Beheshti University, Tehran, Iran, in 1973 and 1977, respectively, and the M.S. and Ph.D. degrees in computer science from Oklahoma University, Norman, in 1980 and 1983, respectively.

He is currently a Full Professor with the Department of Computer Engineering and Information Technology, Amirkabir University of Technology, Tehran. Prior to his current position, he was an Assistant Professor with Western Michigan Univer-

sity, Kalamazoo, from 1983 to 1985 and an Associate Professor with Ohio University, Athens, from 1985 to 1991. His research interests include channel management in cellular networks, learning systems, parallel algorithms, soft computing, and software development.