

Unleashing the Agents: From a Descriptive to an Explanatory Perspective in Agent-based Modelling

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Abstract. Agent-based modelling endows the experimenter with high levels of flexibility, and consequently, responsibility. Possibly because of that, developing good models is hard. In this work, we engage in the discussion around improving the analytical value and disciplinary acceptance of agent-based social simulation. To this end, we propose to make the agents themselves observers, as opposed to just participants of the simulation, in order to introduce explanatory power that cannot be leveraged alone based on descriptive analysis on the macro level. We further justify the use of institutional concepts for any baseline mechanism that seeks to retrace essential human cognitive functions, especially when aiming to produce accessible insights into the simulation participants' functioning. Following this, we exemplify the idea using a cooperation game of moderate complexity, and finally, discuss challenges, applications, and future directions.

Keywords: Agent-based Modelling, Social Simulation, Methodology, Explanatory Simulation, Institutions, Norms, Corruption Game, Institutional Analysis, Grammar of Institutions, Nested ADICO, Stereotyping, Social Learning

1 Introduction

Agent-based Modelling and Simulation (Gilbert 2008) (ABM) is experiencing uptake for an increasingly wide range of coordination and cooperation problems based on its accessible agent metaphor and the ability to reconstruct problems incrementally and from the perspective of the problem domain. Most importantly, however, the modelling can be informed from a theory-driven perspective and/or be based on existing empirical data (Tolk 2015), making ABM suitable both for conceptual work as well as for specific applications (e.g., simulating behaviour during emergencies (Pan et al. 2007)).

However, on the flip side, the flexibility of the agent concept can be problematic. On the one hand, the principles of agent-based modelling encourage experimenters to think in terms of the problem domain, and selectively favour complexity of the problem domain or the embedded agent concept. On the other hand, the flexibility of the agent concept allows for the encoding of agent

behaviour on arbitrary levels of complexity, construed either as simple executional rules, or as complex architectures that account for cognitive and social determinants of behaviour.

To accommodate the complexity of the resulting scenarios, ABM makes it convenient for experimenters to detach themselves from the underlying agent implementation, and rather ascribe agency (and potentially intentionality) to the modelled entities, and focus on the analysed phenomenon, as opposed to retracing the modelled processes on the micro level. Combined with the analytical focus on the problem domain, this leaves researchers at risk to perceive the underlying agent model (if not the entire simulation) as a black box, and treat the produced results at face value for the ensuing interpretation.

The inability to account for the introduced assumptions and following abstraction is frequently put forth in advocacy for methods that can rely on a comprehensive formalisation of the problem, in addition to methodological concerns about the exploration of parameter space and so on (see discussion in Section 2).

In this work, we explore how we can address this concern, and shift the agent itself back into the spotlight as a means to provide better explanatory insights into the model dynamics. To achieve this, we will, of course, need to introduce a set of assumptions about the agents, which is in line with a recent call to endow agent-based models with stronger social-psychological capabilities (Jager 2017) to emphasise the sociality aspects of agents. To illustrate our point, we will explore this idea using a conceptual cooperation problem that emulates prototypical behaviours found in economic exchange, such as corruption.

The paper is structured as follows: In Section 2, we introduce the backdrop that motivates the use of agent conceptions that exhibit explanatory functions (while driving the phenomenon of interest). In Section 3, we introduce a candidate approach to leverage insights into the dynamics of agent-based models. Following that, in Section 4, we provide a cooperation scenario that employs the proposed architecture, and subsequently evaluate it in Section 5. Section 6 concludes the paper with a discussion of the insights and outlines further research directions.

2 Background

The principles of social simulation more generally, and agent-based modelling specifically, have come a long way. Since Schelling’s experimentation with cellular automata to analyse sociological phenomena (Schelling 1971) – marking the birth of social simulation – , Axelrod’s seminal work on cooperation (Axelrod 1986) shifted agent-based concepts into the mainstream, and Epstein’s declaration of simulation as the ‘third way of doing science’ (Epstein 1999) substantiated the methodological rite of passage. The accessibility of the intuitions underlying the agent concept, the availability of de facto standard modelling platforms (see Kravari and Bassiliades (2015) for a comprehensive overview; Abar et al. (2017)’s survey provides a refined differentiation of platforms by application

domains), and increasing maturity of methodological prescriptions and documentation standards (e.g., ODD (Grimm et al. 2010)), lowered the threshold for the use of agent-based simulation in a wide range of disciplines, including political science (Cederman 2005), economics (Farmer and Foley 2009), social psychology (Jackson et al. 2017), criminology (Birks et al. 2012), and religious violence (Shults et al. 2017), just to name a few.

Beyond the use as a tool for the analysis of specific phenomena, the principles of agent-based modelling have contributed to the exploration of fundamental sociological concepts, such as the role of trust for cooperation, reciprocity, but also how the topology of social networks shapes opinion.¹

However, confronted with the complexity of interaction on a social level, modellers are required to make strong assumptions about the underlying agent concept, as reflected in the KISS vs. KIDS discussion (Edmonds and Moss 2005), including the decision whether to choose primitive rule executors without any autonomy and prescribed social interaction, or to opt for richer agent architectures that account for cognitive and social capabilities of humans (for an overview refer to Balke and Gilbert (2014)), how to consider the bounds of human rationality (Simon 1955) or the scenario-dependent situational adaptation of operational strategies (e.g., Janssen and Jager (1999)). At the same time, it is at the modeller's discretion to decide how interactions between individuals are represented (e.g., in comprehensive detail or as compound action), and to what extent agents can observe their physical and social environment (limited observation, noise²), as well as their ability to retain and access information.

This flexibility, the seemingly arbitrary choice of detail and subsumption of socio-cognitive functions by abstract architectures, made ABM subject to criticism, including the consideration of high-level abstractions, choice of assumptions and their empirical support (Lengnick 2013), as well as epistemological challenges in identifying causal relationships (Grüne-Yanoff 2009)³, practitioner's concerns about the abstract representation of agency (Levy et al. 2016), and, last but not least, challenges from a methodological standpoint (Galán and Izquierdo 2005; Galán et al. 2017).

Despite the mentioned challenges, agent-based modelling provides conceptual riches and explorative potential that few other techniques can offer. It builds on the human metaphor, without carrying the psychological burdens of actual humans (biases, unintended learning effects, questionnaire fatigue, etc.), the control of which makes empirical studies with human participants expensive and error-prone. Being freed from such limitations, we propose to go beyond making agents mere actors in the scenarios of interest, and exploit their impartial nature and deterministic properties to make the agents themselves observers of the scena-

¹ Bianchi and Squazzoni (2015) collated an insightful overview that illustrates the impact of ABM on sociology.

² The importance of considering noise in the physical and social environment has been convincingly argued by Macy and Tsvetkova (2015).

³ Equally noteworthy is the rebuttal of Grüne-Yanoff's argument by Elsenbroich (2012).

rio, endowing them with an *explanatory* role following the motto: “Don’t tell me *what* you do, tell me *why* you do it.”

At this stage, the seasoned modeller may suggest that most agent-based modelling platforms, in fact, offer mechanisms that allow the runtime inspection of agent properties.⁴ However, while existing, this functionality is generally intended to support the development process in order to debug agent properties (e.g., resource levels), and is focused on the situational state of the inspected entity. The approach put forth in the following sections qualitatively differs in that it provides richer statement representations that aim at reflecting the ‘narrative’ of the scenario from the perspective of an agent. It thus emphasises a dynamic perspective that captures and condenses the interaction history in an intuitively accessible syntactic form over the more conventional comparative-static approach applied in the step-wise inspection of agent state, along with reliance on the experimenter to ‘manually infer’ associated agent behaviour.⁵

3 Concept

If we not only plan to ascribe but rather endow agents with human-like reflective capabilities, we have to decide which cognitive operations we should assume for a quasi-reflective agent, while retaining a lightweight representation and furthermore, maintain the same level of scenario independence.

3.1 Institution as cognitive basis

Informing this decision, we could allude to the superior human reasoning capabilities, and consequently favour concepts that emphasise deliberation abilities, such as represented by cognitive agent architectures. However, the focus on such would emphasise the individual, and misrepresent the mechanisms that facilitate humans’ functioning in social groups and underemphasise subconscious processes dominating routine-based decision-making (see e.g., Kahneman (2013)). Instead, for a realistic baseline representation of social functioning, we posit that we primarily rely on more fundamental mechanisms that make our social environment computable by allowing us to develop predictive capabilities instead of retaining all detail information (i.e., dealing with the bounds of rationality (Simon 1955)), while being adaptive to changing social and situational circumstances – institutions. Institutions (North 1991; Hodgson 2006), stylised as the “rules of the game” (North 1990), are entrenched social behaviour, such as conventions (e.g., which side of the road to drive on), social norms (e.g., queueing for payment), and rules (e.g., traffic regulation, contracts), that are imposed by some authority or arise based on emergent behaviour (e.g., group dynamics) and are transmitted by socialisation. An essential aspect for functioning institutions is

⁴ Swarm (Minar et al. 1996), MASON (Luke et al. 2005), NetLogo (Tisue and Wilensky 2004) and Repast (North et al. 2013) are noteworthy examples of those.

⁵ At this stage, we want to acknowledge the anonymous reviewers who provided valuable feedback for further refinement.

their adoption, accepted normative status, and subsequent embedding in participants’ mental structure. This fundamental role of institutions becomes clearer when interpreting their establishment itself as self-referential, in that the “essence of belief is the establishment of habit” (Peirce 1878). Searle (2005) likewise deems institutional structures fundamentally embedded in our cognitive processes (Searle 2005), and, assuming a more radical position, Castelfranchi suggests we can interpret “minds [themselves] as social institutions” (Castelfranchi 2014).

In essence, if we assume that the belief in institutions (irrespective of the concrete form) is the lowest common denominator of any individual’s (and, in extension, any society’s) belief system, the use of institution representations is a sensible starting point for leveraging the explanatory power of agents.

While we discussed the role of institutions as fundamental structure, we have yet to clarify the relevant processes that we assume for the associated agent model. One of those is the concept of “implicit social cognition” (Greenwald et al. 2002), visible in the ability to form and operate on observed patterns of individual and social characteristics – a specific function we commonly refer to as *stereotyping*. This implies the ability to draw generalisations across multiple attribute combinations, something we humans are specifically good at. More importantly, we are fast to do so (Zeithamova et al. 2012), and willingly sacrifice accuracy and ignore representativeness. Another relevant function to understand and generalise social information is the ability to not only learn directly from personal experiences (experiential learning), but to learn from one’s social environment by applying some form of *social learning* (Bandura 1977). However, while we deem the ability to rely on stereotypes for heuristic purposes as essential, the ability to learn from the social environment is less central to the principal functioning of human-like agents, making it an optional component of such baseline architecture, especially when the impact of social learning itself is subject to experimental exploration – as we will show in our example.

With this position in mind, we will turn to a candidate representation mechanism from the area of institutional modelling and analysis that allows us to integrate the fundamental processes described above.

3.2 Nested ADICO (nADICO)

When intending to provide a generic way to capture individuals’ observations to infer its institutional function, we are, of course, subjected to a wide range of potential representation options, especially from the area of electronic institutions (Noriega 1997) and normative multi-agent systems (Boella et al. 2007). Seeking for a generic cross-disciplinary approach, we employ a formalism that builds on Crawford and Ostrom (1995, 2005)’s *Grammar of Institutions*, borrowed from the area of institutional analysis (Ostrom 1990). The fundamental idea of the grammar is to rely on a uniform structure that allows the encoding of any form of institution (i.e., convention, norm, or rule). For this purpose, the grammar consists of an *Attributes* component (A) that describes acting individuals’ characteristics, a *Deontic* component (D) used to capture the normative signal as obligation, prohibition or permission. The actual action is encoded in the *Aim*

component (I), and the contextual conditions (such as location, time, or previous actions) are represented in the *Conditions* component (C). Where existing, sanctions or consequences are specified in the *Or else* component (O). Using those components in varying combinations allows the capturing of different institution types. The combination of the AIC components is sufficient to express conventions (e.g., ‘Drivers (A) drive (I) on the right side of the road (C)’). Social norms, in contrast, have a regulative character and include the deontic (ADIC) to describe the prohibition, permission or obligation attached to an expression (e.g., ‘Drivers (A) *must* (D) drive (I) on the right side of the road (C)’). Rules, finally, exploit the entire structure (ADICO) by specifying the consequence for violation (e.g., ‘Drivers (A) must (D) drive (I) on the right side of the road (C), *or else* they will be fined (O)’).

While expressive in its ability to capture institutions, ADICO operates on the macro level, intended to analyse institutional outcomes in the context of institutional analysis. However, operationalising a representation that allows agents to endogenously infer the normative function of observations at runtime requires a refined structure, an aspect addressed by Nested ADICO (nADICO) (Frantz et al. 2013, 2015). nADICO changes the semantics for normative specifications in observations a) by allowing statements to retain information about consequences or other contextual information to substantiate the inferred understanding, and b), by allowing the combination and nesting of ADICO components to comprehensively capture actions, involved roles and actors, as well as associated normative content, both for actions and consequences. Using the rule example from above, this would translate into ‘Drivers (A) must (D) drive (I) on the right side of the road (C), or else police officers (A) must (D) fine them (I) under any circumstances (C)’, with the syntax ADICADIC. Other, more complex examples include the use of logical operators to describe the relationship between actions and consequences (e.g., (ADIC and ADIC)ADIC to represent the co-occurrence of actions and a single consequence; ADIC(ADIC or ADIC) to model both inclusive (*or*) and exclusive (*xor*) sanction alternatives, etc.). This representation enables a comprehensive representation of complex behavioural traces.

The syntactic representation (*structure*) is augmented with a *process* that guides the aggregation and synthesis of observations into nADICO statements that represent the agent’s normative understanding. As a first step, it involves the collection of observations under consideration of past actions, involved actors and received interaction feedback. The generalisation of statements occurs based on observable non-unique attributes, or social markers (e.g., roles), and combinations thereof. A detailed specification of structural aspects and the norm inference process can be found in Frantz et al. (2015).

While generic in its nature, the grammar components can be customised in a domain-specific manner (e.g., considering properties such as action objects, contextual conditions such as spatio-temporal information, etc.) to accommodate an open-ended adaptation to modelled scenarios. In addition to actor, action and contextual information, feedback signals are captured by (directly or indirectly) injecting those from the simulation into the inference process.

3.3 Intrusive vs. non-intrusive application

For its application, we differentiate between an *intrusive* and a *non-intrusive* approach, which determines the role of the discussed mechanism in the context of developed models. In both cases, agents act as observers and develop a normative understanding of the observed social and/or physical environment that is accessible to the experimenter. For the non-intrusive case, the extracted information is thus of explanatory value for the experiment observer, whereas in the intrusive case, the agent itself uses the collected information to inform its decision-making. In this case, the explanatory mechanisms thus become part of the analysed model itself.

This differentiation is essential for the flexible application of the proposed approach. While we deem the approach generic and “attachable” to existing agent models in the non-intrusive variant, using the proposed mechanism for decision-making (intrusive application) would, of course, introduce an “ideological bias” with respect to the proposed cognitive model and associated capabilities.

4 Corruption Game

To explore this concept, we introduce an illustrative scenario that features complex interactions between different role-based actors and affords motivational autonomy of the agents based on experiential learning.

The scenario, which we refer to as the *Corruption Game*, borrows the structural characteristics of Axelrod’s metanorm game (Axelrod 1986) to inform action choices, but differs in that it ignores evolutionary aspects and refines the scenario a) by explicitly modelling alternative action choices (including inaction) on the part of actors and enforcers, and b) by introducing explicit interaction of actor and second-order enforcer, aspects we will explore in detail in the following. The interaction schema of the game is depicted in Figure 1.

The narrative underlying this game is the interaction of citizens with administrative officials that may react to transgressions (e.g., corruptive behaviour) by rewarding or punishing actors. Said officials are themselves subject to oversight by second-order officials who monitor their compliance as a response to citizens’ complaints. This allows the exploration of prototypical scenarios, including administrative interactions such as handling tax returns, or being punished for traffic violations, etc. – aspects that leave the first-order officials with considerable levels of discretion, making them potential subject of petty corruption. In the course of exploration, interesting questions revolve around the conditions under which the general behaviour shifts between violation and cooperation.

In the operationalisation, this translates into agents of two roles, either as citizens or officials (enforcers), with citizens pursuing cooperative or non-cooperative actions that are observed by enforcers, whose principal role is to reward cooperative behaviour and punish violations. As a third option, enforcers may simply ignore requests, which reflects institutional dysfunction, in contrast to wrongful decision-making by rewarding cheaters or punishing non-cheaters. Similarly, a citizen’s inaction would reflect the withdrawal from economic participation.

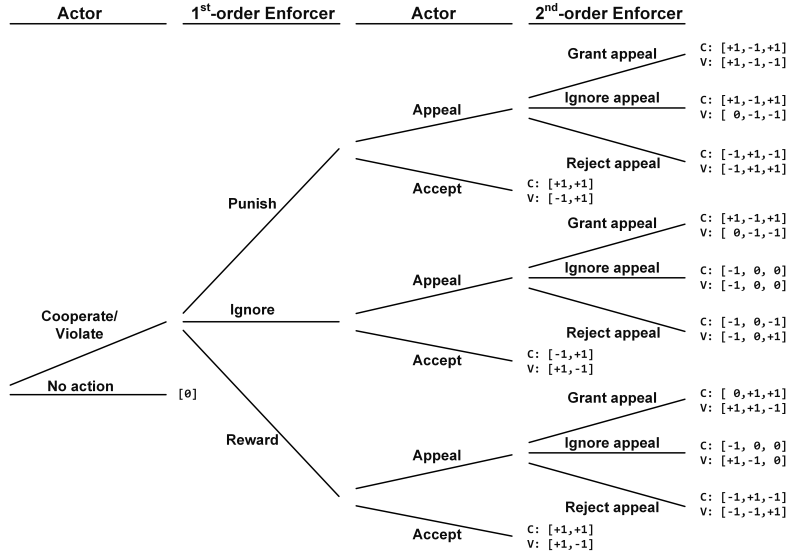


Fig. 1: Corruption Game

Feedback for action-reaction combinations is applied to all involved interaction partners, and specified as part of the operationalisation.

Whatever the official's response, citizens can challenge any decision (or inaction) by appealing to a higher-level official, whose reaction determines the feedback for all involved stakeholders (citizen, first-order official, second-order official). Officials can act both as first- and second-order enforcers, but cannot act within the same transaction (i.e., an official cannot process the appeal against its own decision). The feedback for the action sequence chosen for this evaluation is denoted in the schema in Figure 1 (Syntax: $[citizen[1stOfficial[2ndOfficial]]]$, with $1stOfficial$ and $2ndOfficial$ feedback only applying where interaction with officials takes place). For this baseline exploration, the feedback structure is modelled symmetrically (i.e., the extent of negative and positive feedback is identical) and rewards correctly identified cooperative behaviour, but equally rewards undetected cheating. The reason for this largely unbiased feedback specification is the exploration of social processes that mitigate or are decisive for the convergence towards violation or cooperative behaviour. In addition to introducing a more realistic breadth of action choices, the non-binary decisions are motivated by the ability of participants to withdraw from interactions if necessary – an aspect often ignored in analytical games, but a realistic indicator to assess the impact of corruption or institutional dysfunction.

As indicated in the conceptual description in Section 3, agents develop an understanding of normative behaviour by collecting experiential observations and aggregating feedback for generalised sequences of role attributes and associated actions. For this model, we will go beyond the generalisation of observations, but further allow agents to inform their action choices using such observations (intrusive approach). Agents can thus retrieve the memorised feedback in aggregated form for different initial actions (e.g., violate) to drive their decision-making.

5 Evaluation

For the evaluation of the introduced model, we parametrised the scenario with the values shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Parameters

Parameter	Value Range and Step Size
Number of Citizens	25 – 75; step size: 25
Number of Officials	25 – 75; step size: 25
Exploration Probability	0.1
Cheater Fraction	0.3 – 0.7; step size: 0.2
Cheating Probability	0.5 (fixed)
Weight for Observations	0.5 (fixed)
Memory Length	100 (fixed)

For the initial evaluation, we used the baseline scenario and selectively de/activated game characteristics (social learning⁶, ignoring actions, appealing) and systematically varied independent variables shown in Table 1 and measured the agents’ preference for cooperative (COOPERATIVE) and deviant behaviour (VIOLATE), as well as for abstinence from any interaction (INACTIVE). The condensed results are shown in the correlation overview in Table 2.⁷

Table 2: Correlation Overview

Parameter	COOPERATE	VIOLATE	INACTIVE
Number of Citizens	0.22	0.25	0.51
Number of Officials	0.36	0.55	0
Quota of Cheating Citizens	−0.3	0.45	0
Social Learning	−0.03	0.03	−0.25
Social Learning Separated by Role	0.32	−0.22	−0.35
Ignoring Actions	−0.38	0.36	0.51
Appealing	0.33	−0.14	−0.33

The results offer a mix of expected and interesting observations. With increasing number of citizens, we observe an increase in both cooperative and violation behaviour (with a mild tendency towards violations), but more importantly, observe that actors increasingly abstain from participating in transactions. The variation of officials is likewise associated with compliance and violation, but leads to stronger levels of violation behaviour. An increasing fraction of cheating citizens leads to an overall increase in violations, which is without surprise.

Social learning in itself does not have an impact on cooperative or violation behaviour. Instead, social learning appears to lead to an overall activation

⁶ Social learning is operationalised as allowing agents to memorise fellow agents’ institutional statement of the last action. For this operationalisation, the assumption is that all actions are overt. Agents’ memory is bounded; they are able to store feedback for the last 100 experienced or observed interactions.

⁷ We performed 5 runs for each parameter combination for 2000 rounds. All correlation values have been determined using Spearman’s ρ .

of participation. If limited to specific roles (i.e., citizen, official) – ‘social learning separated by role’ –, social learning leads to stronger levels of cooperative behaviour, along with an overall stronger activation of participants.

The final two parameters, selectively preventing agents from ignoring actions and appealing, have been introduced to reduce the game in breadth (ignoring) and depth (appealing) in order to understand the effects of those actions on cooperative behaviour.⁸

At this stage, we have reviewed initial results, and little choice but to take those at face value, making the interpretation prone to the problems described in Section 2, such as the oversimplified ascription of complex behaviour to agents, and the inability to retrace underlying processes. Following the motivation of this work, we will turn to the agents themselves and draw on their explanatory power to substantiate the insights. To achieve this, we recorded the emerging institutional statements across all agents, and discuss the impact of individual factors.

Citizen Numbers Exploring the impact of citizen numbers, the initial observation in Table 2 was the stronger engagement both on cooperative and violation side. Reviewing the relationship between number of citizens and prevalent statements in detail (see Table 3), we can make clarifying observations. Action choices resulting from an increasing number of actors have been absorbed into a few statements, here represented as simplified action sequences. The statements are read from right to left and include both role of actor as well as action. The first statement thus consists of three actions and posits that citizens accept an official’s sanctioning after violating in the first place. Coming back to the results, we can see that a side effect of the increase of citizens is an increase in mistaken rewards of violators by officials. As a general observation, the extent to which citizens tolerate wrong assessment and institutional dysfunction rises.

Table 3: Traces of Citizen Behaviour and Correlation to Citizen Number

Statement	Correlation
CITIZEN: ACCEPT - OFFICIAL: SANCTION - CITIZEN: VIOLATE	0.58
CITIZEN: ACCEPT - OFFICIAL: REWARD - CITIZEN: VIOLATE	0.22
CITIZEN: ACCEPT - OFFICIAL: IGNORE - CITIZEN: COOPERATE	0.3
CITIZEN: ACCEPT - OFFICIAL: REWARD - CITIZEN: COOPERATE	0.25

Social Learning While our initial observations highlighted that social learning per se does neither favour cooperation nor violation, it supposedly leads to a stronger activation of participants. The statements that offer most insights (see Table 4) include the reduction in accepting an official’s ignorance by cooperative citizens, reduction of citizens’ inactivity, with an equal spread across other action variations (cooperation and violation).

Social Learning separated by Role While social learning promotes unbiased participation, when looking at role-separated social learning, the results point into a

⁸ For the sake of focus, we will concentrate the discussion on the early parameters.

Table 4: Traces of Citizen Behaviour and Correlation with Social Learning

Statement	Correlation
CITIZEN: ACCEPT - OFFICIAL: IGNORE - CITIZEN: COOPERATE	-0.4
CITIZEN: IGNORE	-0.51

different direction. In this case agents only learn from their peers, which leads to a behavioural bias towards cooperative behaviour. How does this come about?

Looking at an excerpt of the collected statements (see Table 5), we can find a clue in the faster adoption of relevant information. By learning from their peers, agents quickly adopt preferable coordination behaviour. For example, agents are quick to learn that cooperative behaviour should be rewarded (Statement 4). However, exploring statements involving appeal processes offer a better insight. As such, officials learn to reject appeals that are lodged by violators (Statement 1), but may also quickly adopt suboptimal behaviour, such as the granting appeals to violating citizens (Statement 3), and also learn that non-reaction to appeals (Statement 2) is a potential action alternative. Without discussing all individual statements further, we can see a more refined dynamic that highlights stronger exploitation of complex institutional processes (i.e., utilising the depth of the action space).

Table 5: Traces of Citizen Behaviour and Correlation to Role-Separated Social Learning

Index	Statement	Correlation
1	OFFICIAL: REJECT_APPEAL - CITIZEN: APPEAL - OFFICIAL: SANCTION - CITIZEN: VIOLATE	0.38
2	CITIZEN: ACCEPT - OFFICIAL: IGNORE - CITIZEN: APPEAL - OFFICIAL: SANCTION - CITIZEN: VIOLATE	0.25
3	OFFICIAL: GRANT_APPEAL - CITIZEN: APPEAL - OFFICIAL: SANCTION - CITIZEN: VIOLATE	0.25
4	CITIZEN: ACCEPT - OFFICIAL: REWARD - CITIZEN: COOPERATE	0.38
5	CITIZEN: ACCEPT - OFFICIAL: IGNORE - CITIZEN: APPEAL - OFFICIAL: IGNORE - CITIZEN: COOPERATE	0.26
6	OFFICIAL: REJECT_APPEAL - CITIZEN: APPEAL - OFFICIAL: IGNORE - CITIZEN: COOPERATE	0.26
7	OFFICIAL: GRANT_APPEAL - CITIZEN: APPEAL - OFFICIAL: IGNORE - CITIZEN: APPEAL - OFFICIAL: SANCTION - CITIZEN: COOPERATE	0.13
8	OFFICIAL: REJECT_APPEAL - CITIZEN: APPEAL - OFFICIAL: SANCTION - CITIZEN: COOPERATE	0.26
9	OFFICIAL: GRANT_APPEAL - CITIZEN: APPEAL - OFFICIAL: SANCTION - CITIZEN: COOPERATE	0.23
10	CITIZEN: IGNORE	-0.35

Micro-Level Inspections While this approach allows us to retrace behavioural shifts in detail, we still operate on the macro level, based on aggregated preferred action choices of all involved agents, albeit at greater detail.

However, when exhausting the explanatory value on the macro level, we can further explore individual agents and identify the motivations for their behaviour. Agents develop conceptions of all explored and observed action choices, which is due to the generic nature of the approach, but it also offers a differenti-

ated insight into the inner workings of agents, and enables us, as experimenters, to assess where cognitive processes are sufficiently represented. Figure 2 shows an extract consisting of four statements of an agent’s runtime understanding (in original syntax), centred around its decision-making with respect to the action ‘appeal’. The statements clearly show how agents can operate with conflicting signals. The first statement, for example, suggests that an agent should appeal (positive deontic value) after an official’s punishment of its violation. The motivation for this is reduced to the observation that chances are that the official may actually grant the appeal. The second statement effectively explores the opposing signal of discouraging appealing because of potential rejection. Similarly, the last two statements highlight conflicting motivations as to whether appealing after showing cooperative behaviour is useful.

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A=A(*, {ROLE=[CITIZEN]}), D=3.0, I=I(APPEAL, *), C=C({PREVIOUS_ACTION=L0: A=A(*, {ROLE=[OFFICIAL]}), I=I(SANCTION, *),
C=C({PREVIOUS_ACTION=L0: A=A(*, {ROLE=[CITIZEN]}), I=I(VIOLATE, *), C=C(*), O=(null)), O=(null))),
O=(L1: A=A(*, {ROLE=[OFFICIAL]}), D=-3.0 (inv), I=I(GRANT_APPEAL, *), C=C(*), O=(null))

A=A(*, {ROLE=[CITIZEN]}), D=-1.0, I=I(APPEAL, *), C=C({PREVIOUS_ACTION=L0: A=A(*, {ROLE=[OFFICIAL]}), I=I(SANCTION, *),
C=C({PREVIOUS_ACTION=L0: A=A(*, {ROLE=[CITIZEN]}), I=I(VIOLATE, *), C=C(*), O=(null)), O=(null))),
O=(L1: A=A(*, {ROLE=[OFFICIAL]}), D=1.0 (inv), I=I(REJECT_APPEAL, *), C=C(*), O=(null))

A=A(*, {ROLE=[CITIZEN]}), D=-0.5, I=I(APPEAL, *), C=C({PREVIOUS_ACTION=L0: A=A(*, {ROLE=[OFFICIAL]}), I=I(REWARD, *),
C=C({PREVIOUS_ACTION=L0: A=A(*, {ROLE=[CITIZEN]}), I=I(VIOLATE, *), C=C(*), O=(null)), O=(null))),
O=(L1: A=A(*, {ROLE=[OFFICIAL]}), D=0.5 (inv), I=I(REJECT_APPEAL, *), C=C(*), O=(null))

A=A(*, {ROLE=[CITIZEN]}), D=0.5, I=I(APPEAL, *), C=C({PREVIOUS_ACTION=L0: A=A(*, {ROLE=[OFFICIAL]}), I=I(REWARD, *),
C=C({PREVIOUS_ACTION=L0: A=A(*, {ROLE=[CITIZEN]}), I=I(COOPERATE, *), C=C(*), O=(null)), O=(null))),
O=(L1: A=A(*, {ROLE=[OFFICIAL]}), D=-0.5 (inv), I=I(GRANT_APPEAL, *), C=C(*), O=(null))

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Fig. 2: Excerpt of Micro-level Statements for Action ‘APPEAL’

Following this brief exposition, we can see that the mechanism is able not only shed explanatory insights on behavioural changes, but also retracably represent individual-level cognitive processes, such as the representation of cognitive dissonance (Festinger 1957) exemplified here.

6 Discussion

In this paper, we argued for the use of a generic agent conception that satisfies a fundamental subset of processes found in social animals (stereotyping, social learning), and specifically humans, and attach or integrate this mechanism with existing agent-based models, so as to leverage these processes to provide additional explanatory power – in addition to the conventional aggregate macro-level observation of dependent variables. To explore model internals, agents aggregate and generalise their observations, and represent those in a uniform way that allows their aggregation on arbitrary level of social organisation (e.g., individual observations, groups, or society at large). We showcased this approach using a moderately complex institutional scenario in order to explore the emerging behaviour at greater depth.

This work intends to drive the discussion around *exploring agency to understand agency* using institutional mechanisms. Given this motivation, the approach

ach presented here is a candidate operationalisation in the form of a domain-independent baseline architecture that allows for the consideration of fundamental functions of human operation in social environments. Questions that warrant further discussion revolve around the minimal cognitive functions (here: stereotyping) sufficient for a baseline operationalisation, and in how far such architecture affords an ‘ideological buy in’ from experimenters and thus constrains modelling freedom.

Apart from these conceptual concerns, this proposal comes with a set of practical challenges that need to be addressed to increase its usability. For example, the generative nature of the institutional statement makes their capturing and analysis comparatively hard,⁹ which is overshadowed by the challenge of capturing all individually generated information in the first place.

But coming back to the motivation of this work, what are the concrete benefits of shifting from descriptive macro-level to micro-level explanatory approaches?

- Agents can be used as passive, non-intrusive observers, e.g., only used for verification of the model, or for the inspection of specific runs. The condensed generative conception of the institutional environment can thus be used for methodological support during model development.
- Using a generic institution operationalisation allows the detection of both intentional and unintentional behaviour. This provides the experimenter with insight into both ‘desirable’ and ‘undesirable’ behaviours that may withdraw themselves from experimental observation for cases in which the underlying dynamics are obscured by aggregate metrics. This aspect is of analytical value, since it allows the experimenter to draw explanatory links between micro-level interaction and macro-level phenomena.

We believe that both aspects have the potential of contributing to building greater confidence in the development and analysis of agent-based models.

Next steps involve the application of this approach to existing datasets to explore its usability for real-world applications, both in terms of usefulness and efficiency. Specific challenges, as outlined above, refer to the efficiency of the approach, which is a first attack point. Another aspect is to make this mechanism available, e.g., as a plugin, for the use in new or existing simulation scenarios. Reflecting on the choice of an institution representation opens manifold further opportunities, especially since the chosen mechanism is compatible with encodings in the area of policy analysis (Siddiki et al. 2011). Essentially, we suggest that any explanatory approach will, in one way or another, have to consider institutional aspects.

Concluding, we believe that it is important to arrive at an interdisciplinary reassurance that agent-based modelling has the capability to explore complex social phenomena, but unlike other quantitative approaches, can also offer ways to facilitate the interpretation of its own operation – and which vehicle would be more self-referential than the agents themselves?

⁹ For the scenario presented in this paper, the initial analysis afforded a schema consisting of more than 600 institutional statements.

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