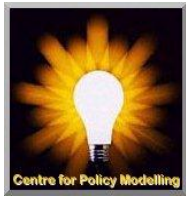




Manchester
Metropolitan
University



Social Simulation

– *an introduction*

Bruce Edmonds

Centre for Policy Modelling
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MANCHESTER
1824

The University
of Manchester

NeISS



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS



About Modelling



What is a model?

*Something, **A**, that is used to understand or answer questions about something else, **B***

- e.g: A scale model to test in a wind tunnel
- e.g: The official accounts of a business
- e.g: The minutes of a meeting
- e.g: A flow chart of a legal process
- e.g: A memory of a past event
- e.g: A computer simulation of the weather
- e.g: The analogy of fashion as a virus

Models usually abstract certain features and have other features that are irrelevant to what is modelled



A simple consequence of this...

- That if you are **only** exploring a model to find out about the model, then this is useless, unless...:
- This understanding helps one understand other models, for example:
 - An idea about something – *this is generally private but not publically useful knowledge*
 - Or is of SUCH generality it informs us about **SO** many other models that it is worth adsorbing
- Normally we use a model to tell us about something else, something observed (maybe via intermediate models, such as data)



What is a *formal* model?

Something that (in theory) can be written down precisely, whose content is specified without ambiguity

- e.g: mathematical/statistical relations, computer programs, sets of legal rules

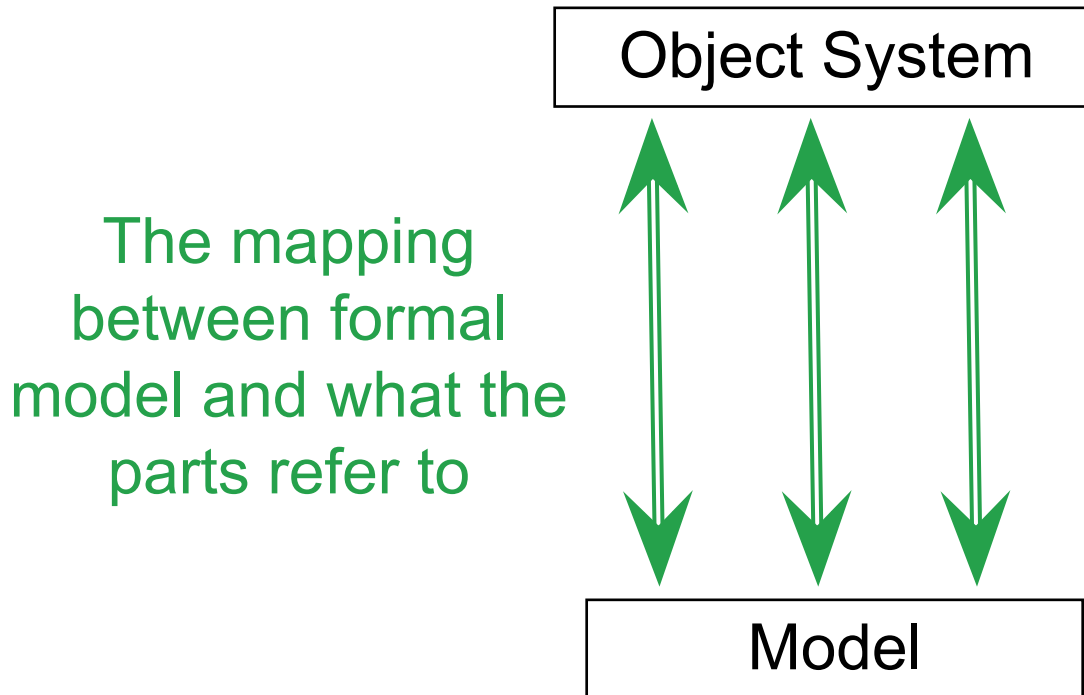
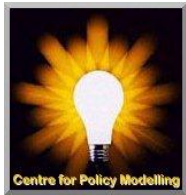
Can make exact copies of it

Agreed rules for interpreting/using them

Can make *certain* inferences from them

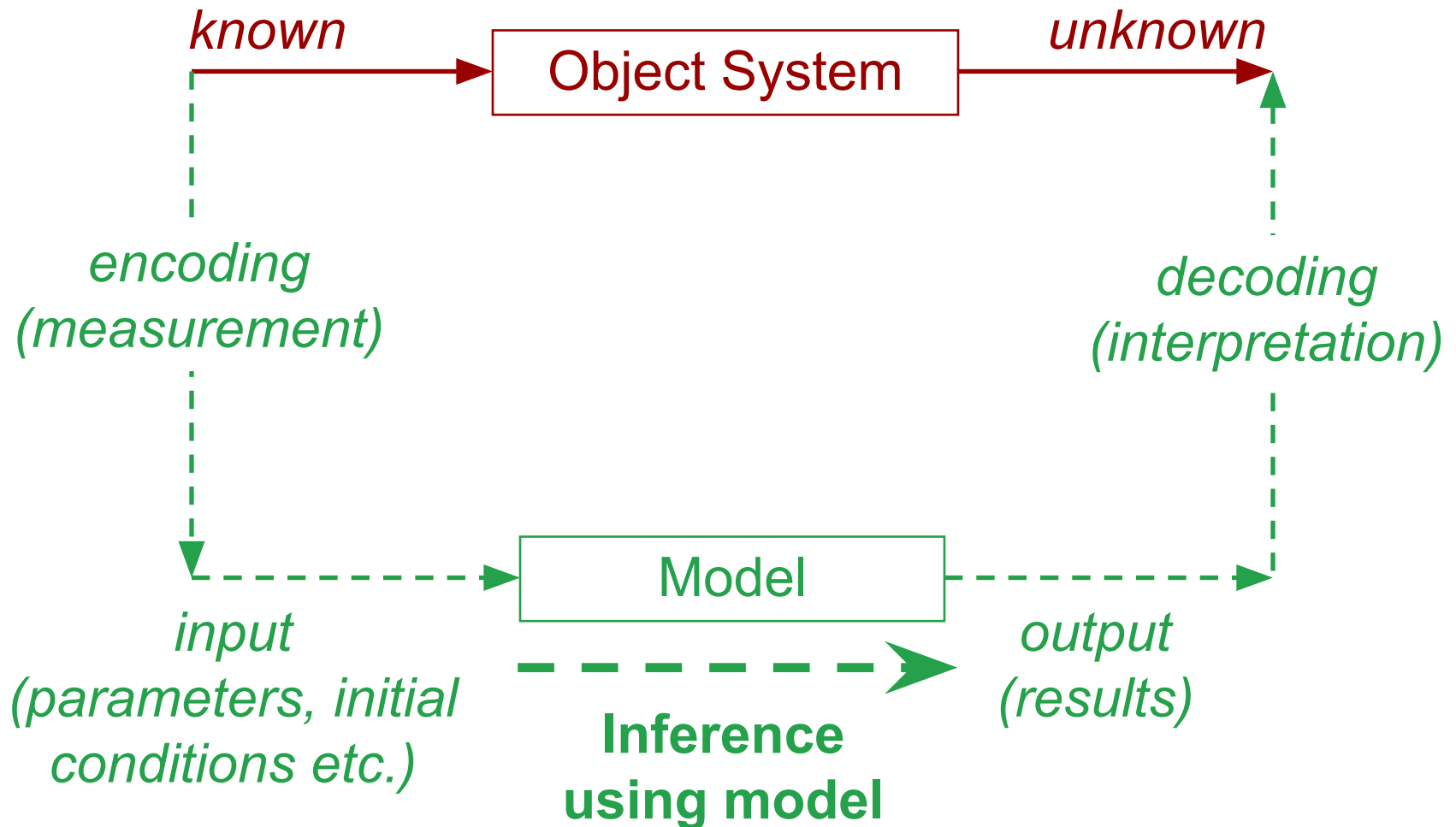
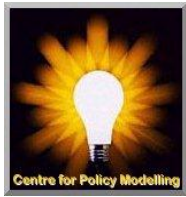
- ***Not***: an analogy, a memory, a physical thing

The Model and its Target

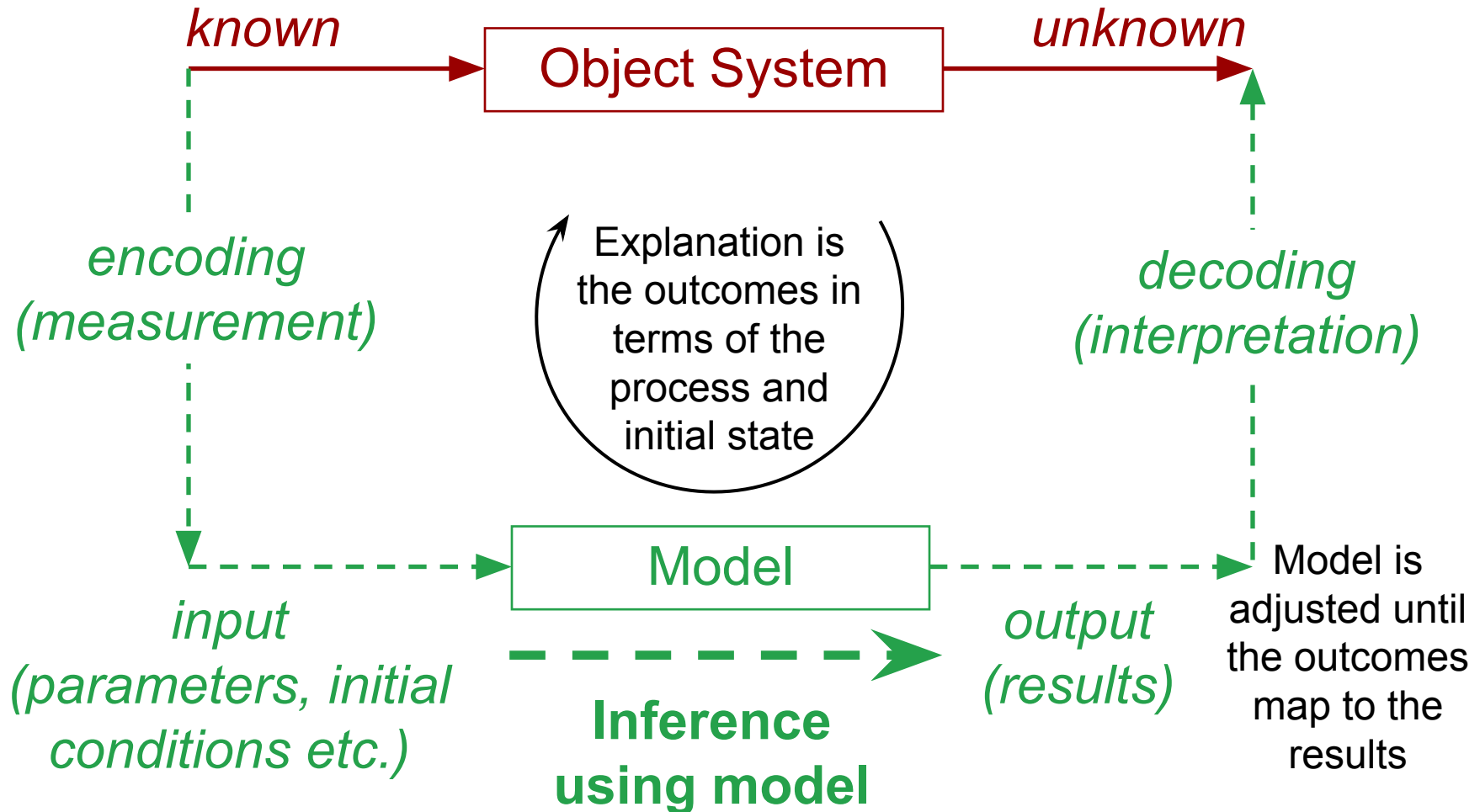
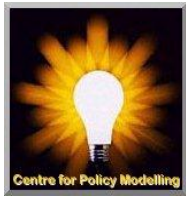


- A formal model is not a model at all without this **mapping relation** telling us the intended meaning of its parts

A Model used for prediction of unknown data



A Model used for explanation of known data in terms of mapping





The Whole Modelling Chain

- In both prediction and explanation...
- to get anything useful out...
- One has to traverse the whole modelling chain, three steps:
 1. From target system to model
 2. Inference using the model
 3. From model back to target system
- The “usefulness” of the model, roughly speaking, comes from the strength of the whole chain
- If one strengthens one part only to critically weaken another part this does not help



Modelling Purposes

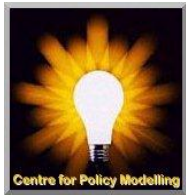
All modelling has a purpose (or several)

Including:

- Description
- Prediction
- Establishing/suggesting explanations
- Illustration/communication
- Exploration
- Analogy

These are frequently conflated!

The Modelling Context



All modelling has a context

- The background or situation in which the modelling occurs and should be interpreted
- Whether explicit or (more normally) implicit
- Usually can be identified reliably but not described precisely and completely
- The context inevitably hides many implicit assumptions, facts and processes

Modelling only works if there is a reliably identifiable context to model *within*



Analytic **formal models**

Where the model is expressed in terms that allow for formal inferences about its general properties to be made

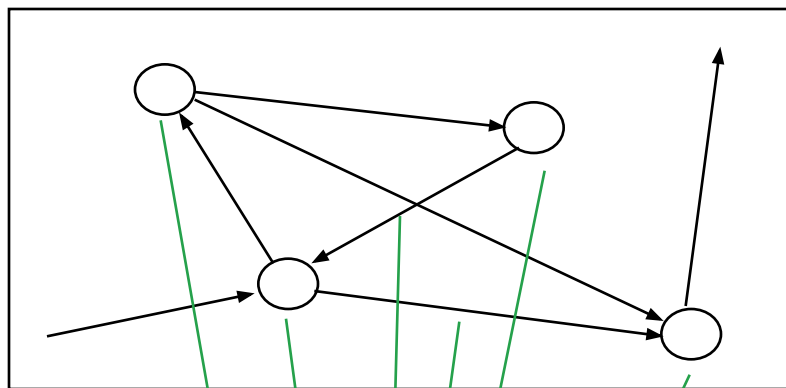
- e.g. Mathematical formulae
- Where you don't have to compute the consequences but can *derive* them logically
- Usually requires numerical representation of what is observed (but not always)

Only fairly “simple” mathematical models can be treated analytically – the rest have to be simulated/calculated

Equation-based or statistical modelling



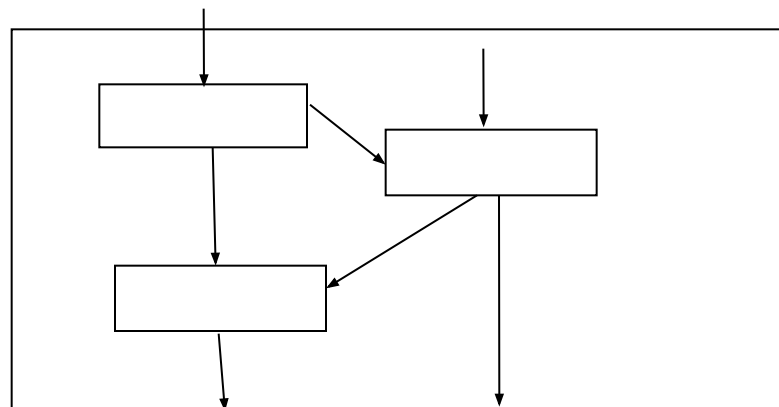
Real World



Actual Outcomes

**Aggregated
Actual Outcomes**

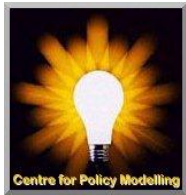
Equation-based Model



**Aggregated
Model Outcomes**



Computational **models**



Where a process is modelled in a series of precise instructions (the program) that can be “run” on a computer

- The same program always produces the same results (essentially) but...
- ...may use a “random seed” to randomise certain aspects
- Can be simple or very complex
- Often tries to capture more “qualitative” aspects of phenomena
- A computational model of social phenomena is a **social simulation**



Origins of Social Simulation

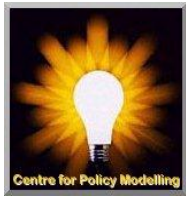
(Occasionally) Interacting Streams:

- Sociology, including social network analysis
- Distributed Computer Science Programming Languages
- Artificial Intelligence & Machine Learning
- Ecological Modelling

(Strangely) *Not much from:*

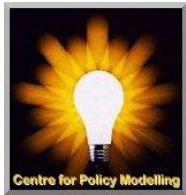
- (Mainstream) Economics
- Cognitive Modelling
- Numerical Simulation
- System Dynamics

Two Different Directions



1. Towards the detailed interaction between entities
 - Trying to capture how the complex interaction between decision-making actors might result in the “unexpected” *emergence* of outcomes
 - Roughly this is **Agent-based simulation**
2. Towards the detail of circumstance
 - Trying to use data that allows different regions or cases to be captured by different models
 - Roughly this is **Microsimulation**

Other kinds of social simulation model



- **Cellular Automaton Models** – where patches in a surface change state in response to their neighbours' states
- **System Dynamic Models** – where a system of equations representing top-level, aggregate variables are related, then computationally simulated (sometimes with animation)
- **Population Dynamics Models** – where a statistical distribution represents a collection of individuals plus how these distributions change over time



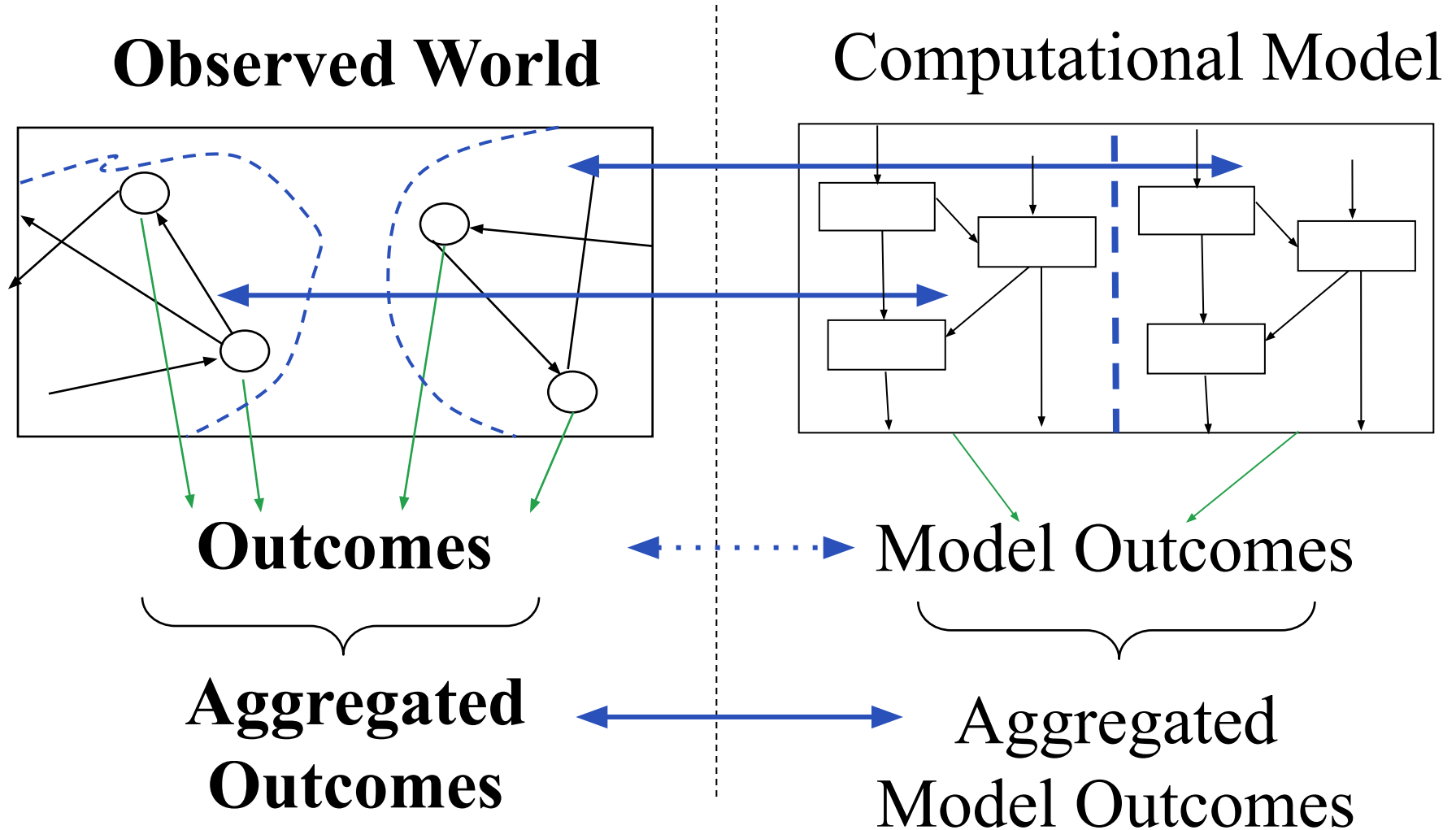
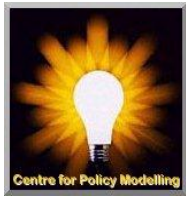
A little bit about
Microsimulation



About Microsimulation

- Instead of having a generic process over all relevant situations one has a model for each situation
- This is limited and determined by available data for each of these situations
- Often these situations are geographical regions
- Often each model is a population dynamics model with a different distribution for each region, trained on available data (usually each distribution come from a family which encode assumptions about the processes)
- Thus variation is not handled by some generic “noise” but rather aggregation is put off to a post-hoc summary of the complex results retaining the context-specificity
- This approach is heavily **data-driven**
- You have to look at each separate region to determine if the local model is a good fit in each case

Microsimulation



Example 1: *General Election*

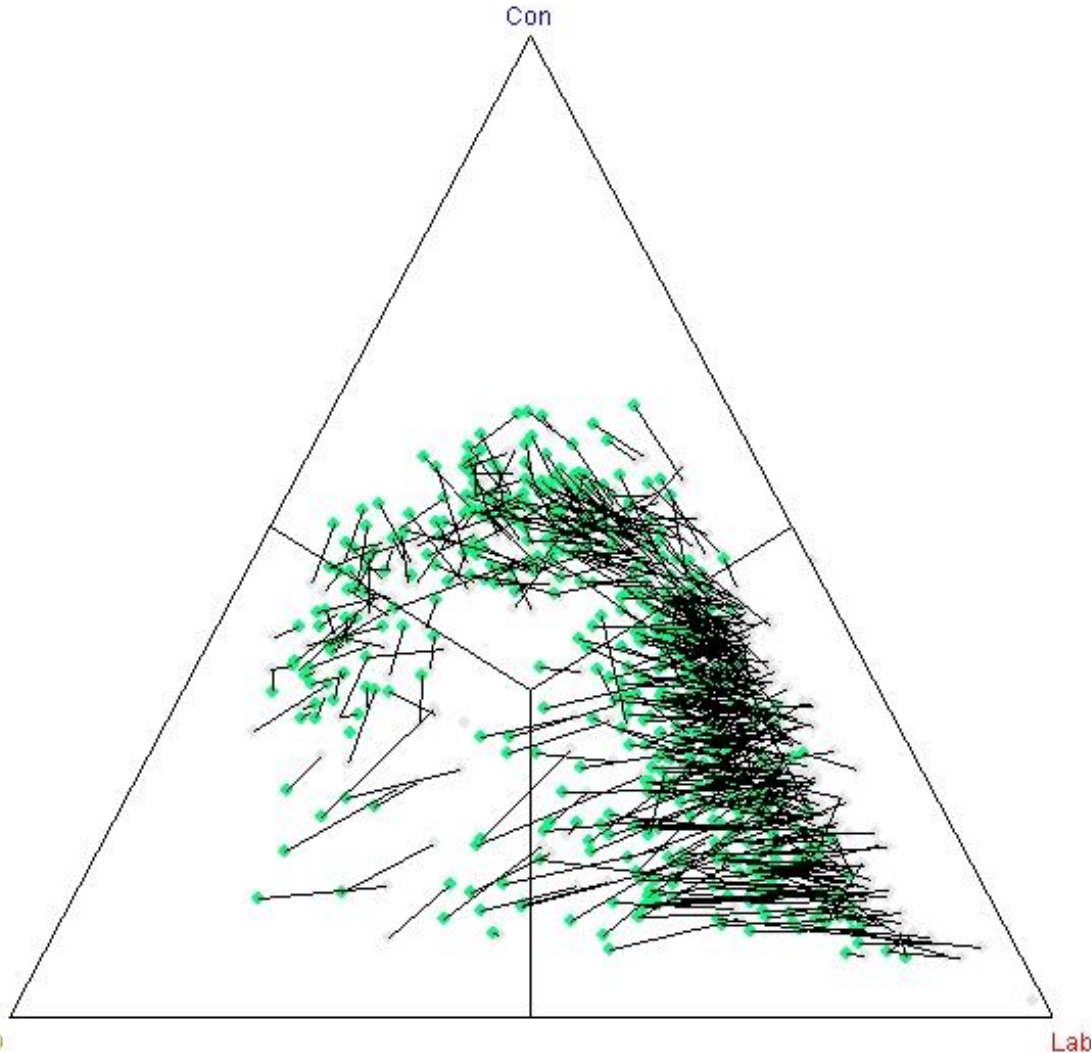
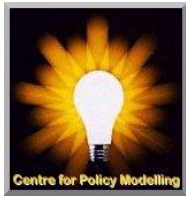


Forecasting

- John Curtice (Strathclyde) and David Firth (Warwick) (+ input from others)
- Each constituency is statistically modelled as a three-way split (Lab, Con, LD) based on how much this swung with the general trend according to past data

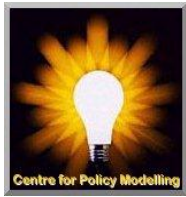


Example 1: *General Election* *Forecasting*



- Each line is the 3-way vote share for each constituency in UK general elections,
- green spots show 2005 shares, tail is the 2001 shares

Pros and Cons of Microsimulation



Advantages

- Data-driven
- Allows for local differences (context-sensitive)
- Assumptions are statistical rather than behavioural
- Relates well to maps and hence results are readily communicable

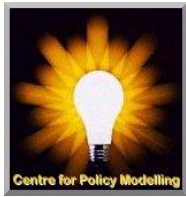
Disadvantages

- Needs a lot of data at the granularity being modelled
- Does not (without extension) capture interactions between regions
- Can take a lot of computer power
- Does not result in a simple explanation or abstraction



Much more about
Agent-Based Social Simulation

Some Key Historical Figures



- **Herbert Simon**

- Observed administrative behaviour and described it using algorithms – ‘*procedural rationality*’ (rather than optimisation of utility)
- Also (with Alan Newell) produced first computational models of aspects of cognition

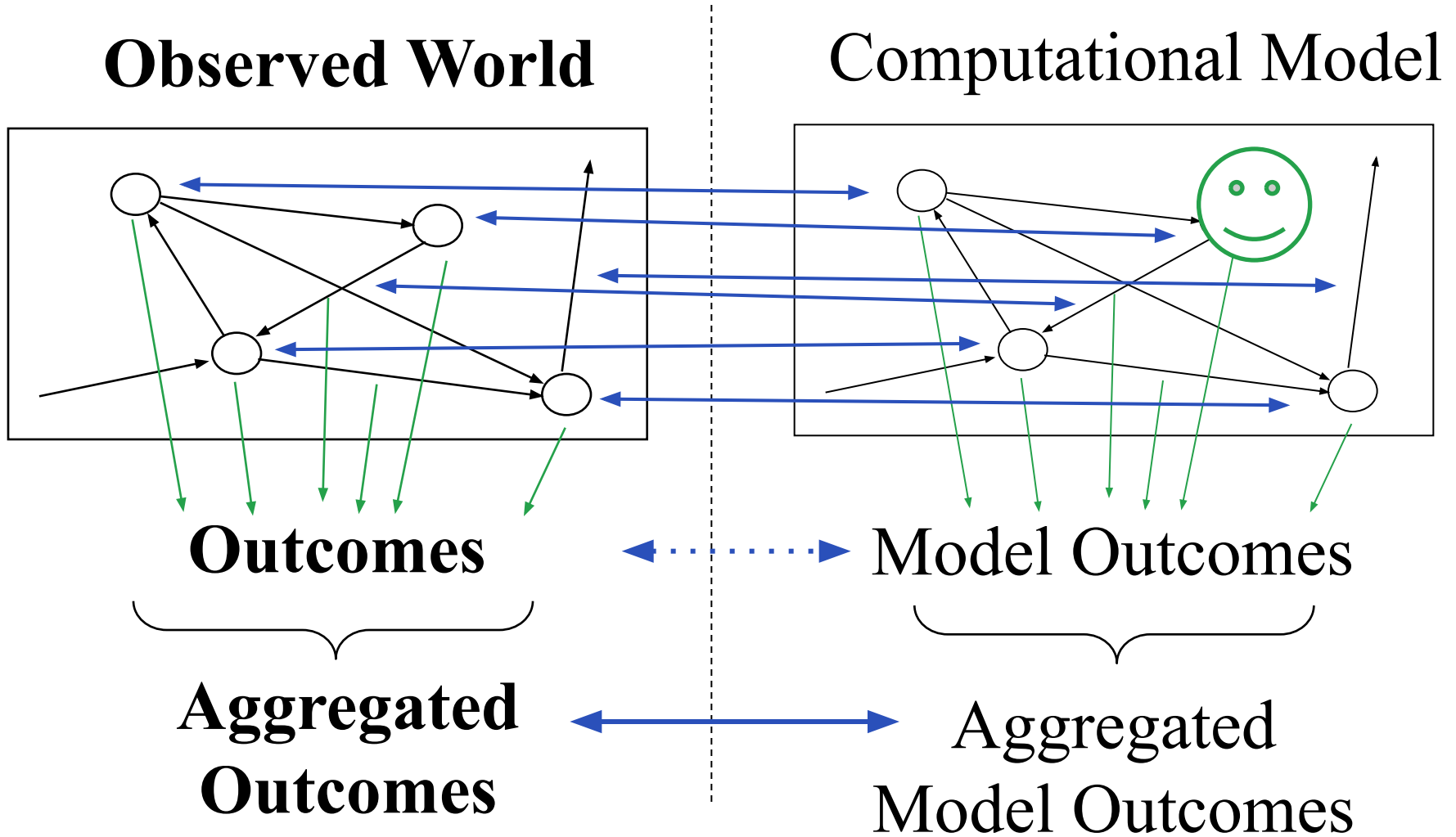
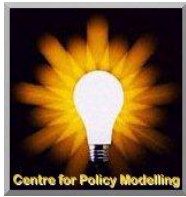
- **Thomas Schelling**

- A simple but effective example of individual-based modelling (in the coming slides) showing power of simulation establishing a micro-macro link

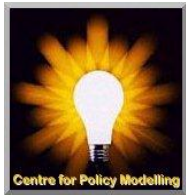
- **Mark Granovetter**

- Distinguished the importance of tracing individual interactions, ‘*social embeddedness*’
- Highlighted such processes and structure (‘ties’)

Agent-based simulation

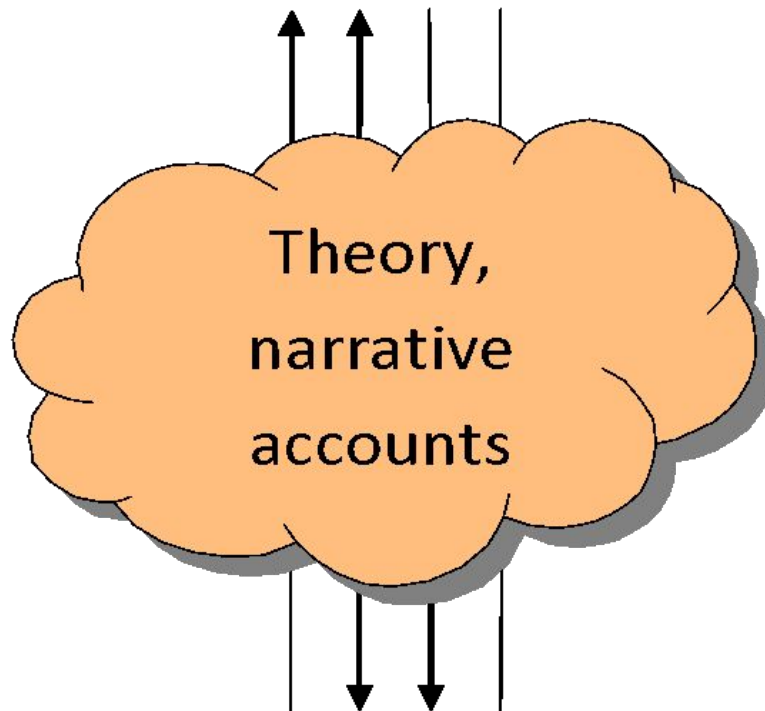


Micro-Macro Relationships



**Macro/
Social data**

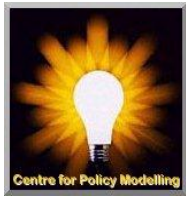
Social, economic surveys; Census



**Micro/
Individual data**

Qualitative, behavioural, social psychological data

Characteristics of agent-based modelling



- Computational description of process
- Not usually analytically tractable
- More context-dependent...
- ... but assumptions are much less drastic
- Detail of unfolding processes accessible
 - more criticisable (including by non-experts)
- Used to explore inherent possibilities
- Validatable by data, opinion, narrative ...
- Often very complex themselves

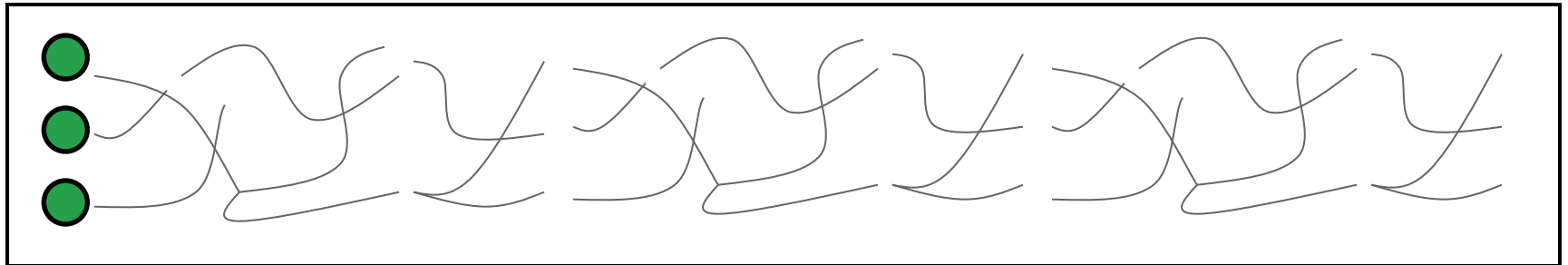


What happens in ABSS

- Entities in simulation are decided up
- Behavioural Rules for each agent specified (e.g. sets of rules like: if *this has happened* then *do this*)
- Repeatedly evaluated in parallel to see what happens
- Outcomes are inspected, graphed, pictured, measured and interpreted in different ways

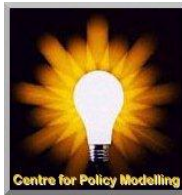
Specification (incl. rules)

Representations of Outcomes



Simulation

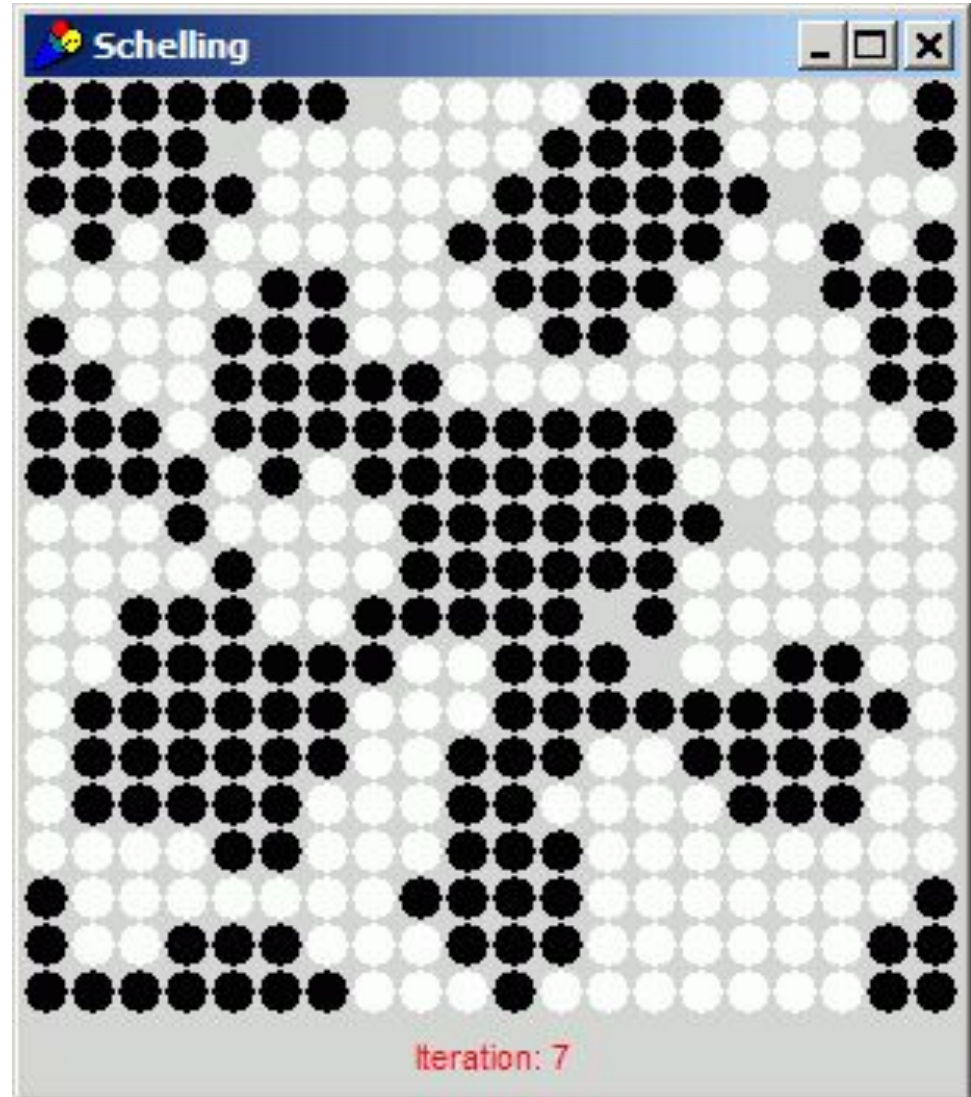
Example 2: Schelling's Segregation Model



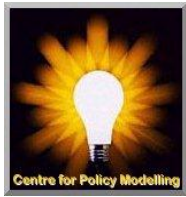
Schelling, Thomas C. 1971.
Dynamic Models of Segregation.
Journal of Mathematical Sociology 1:143-186.

Rule: each iteration, each dot looks at its neighbours and if less than 30% are the same colour as itself, it moves to a random empty square

Conclusion:
Segregation can result from wanting only a few neighbours of a like colour

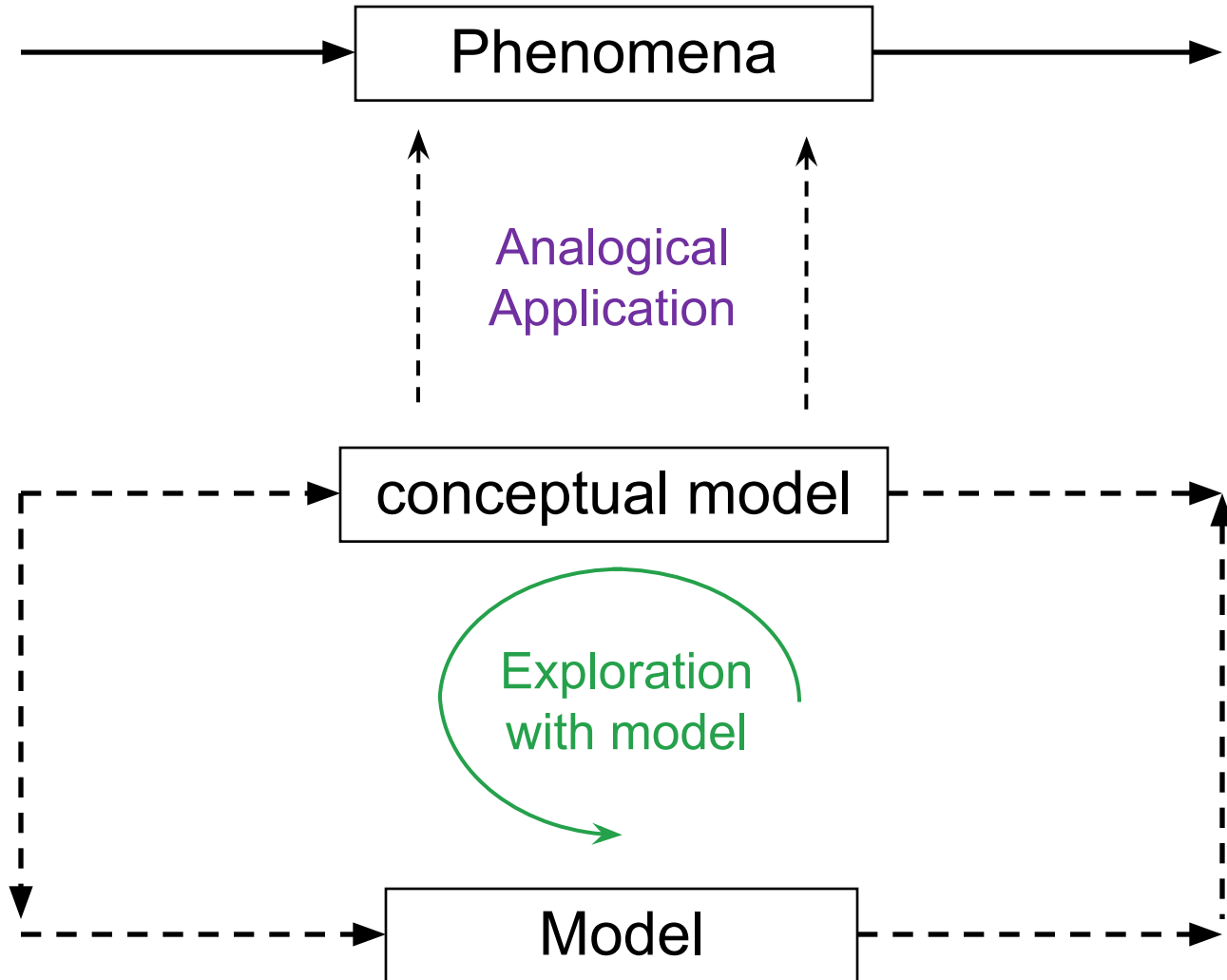
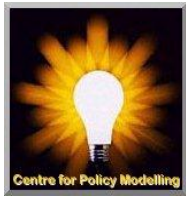


Simple, Conceptual Simulations Such as Schelling's

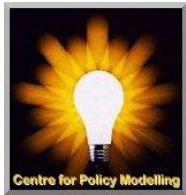


- Are highly suggestive
- Once you play with them, you start to “see” the world in terms of your model – a strong version of Kuhn’s *theoretical spectacles*
- They can help persuade beyond the limit of their reliability
- They may well not be directly related to any observations of social phenomena
- Are more a model of an idea than any observed phenomena
- Can be used as a counter-example

Modelling a concept of something

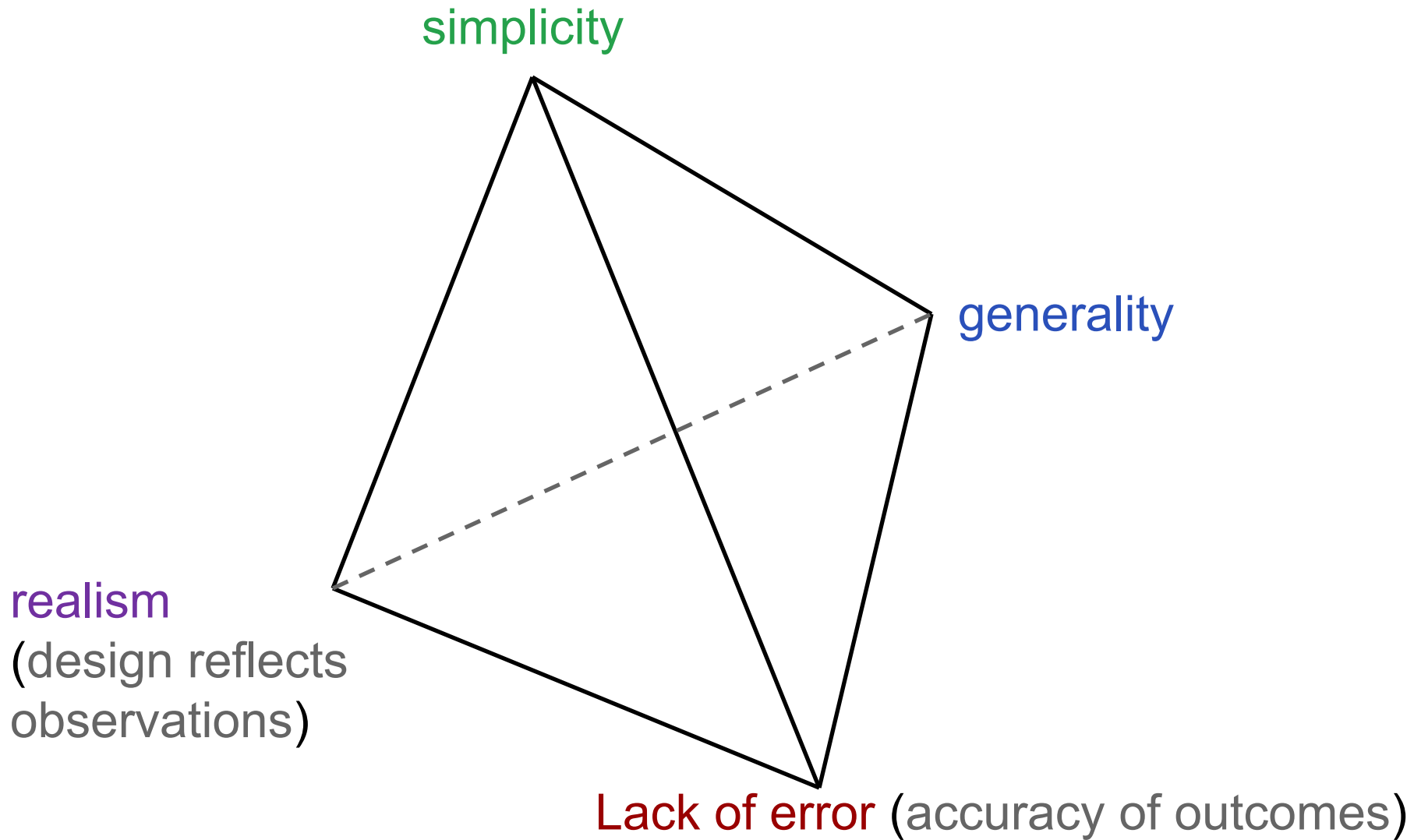
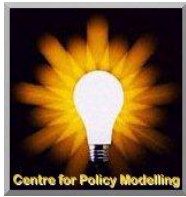


Some Criteria for Judging a Model

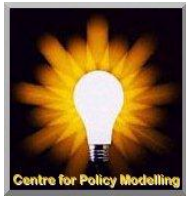


- Soundness of design
 - w.r.t. knowledge of how the object works
 - w.r.t. tradition in a field
- Accuracy (lack of error)
- Simplicity (ease in communication, construction, comprehension etc.)
- Generality (when you can safely use it)
- Sensitivity (relates to goals and object)
- Plausibility (of design, process and results)
- Cost (time, effort, etc.)

Some modelling trade-offs



Example 3: *A model of social influence and water demand*



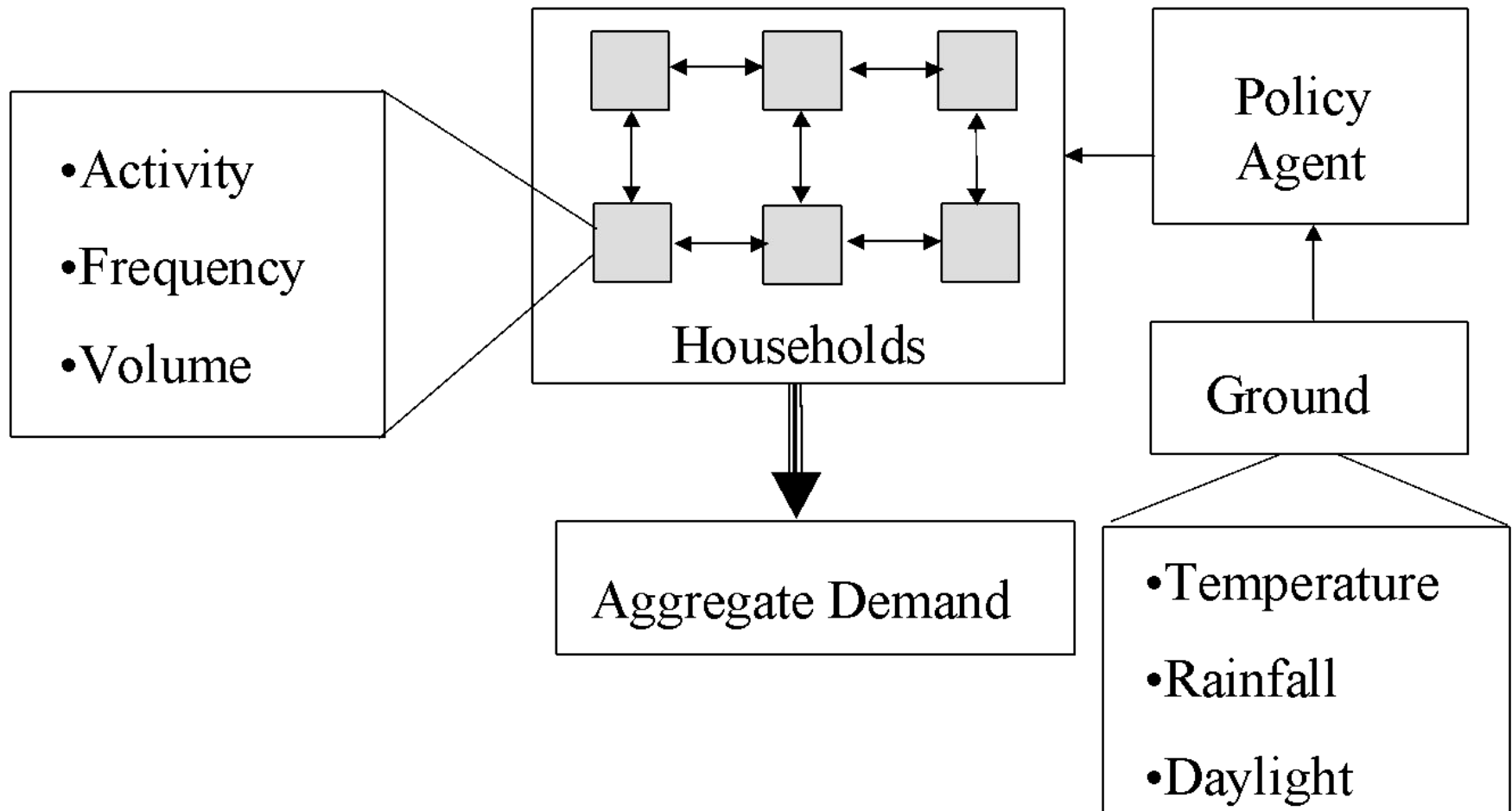
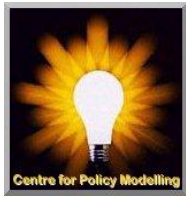
- Investigate the possible impact of social influence between households on patterns of water consumption
- Design and detailed behavioural outcomes from simulation validated against expert and stakeholder opinion at each stage
- Some of the inputs are real data
- Characteristics of resulting aggregate time series validated against similar real data



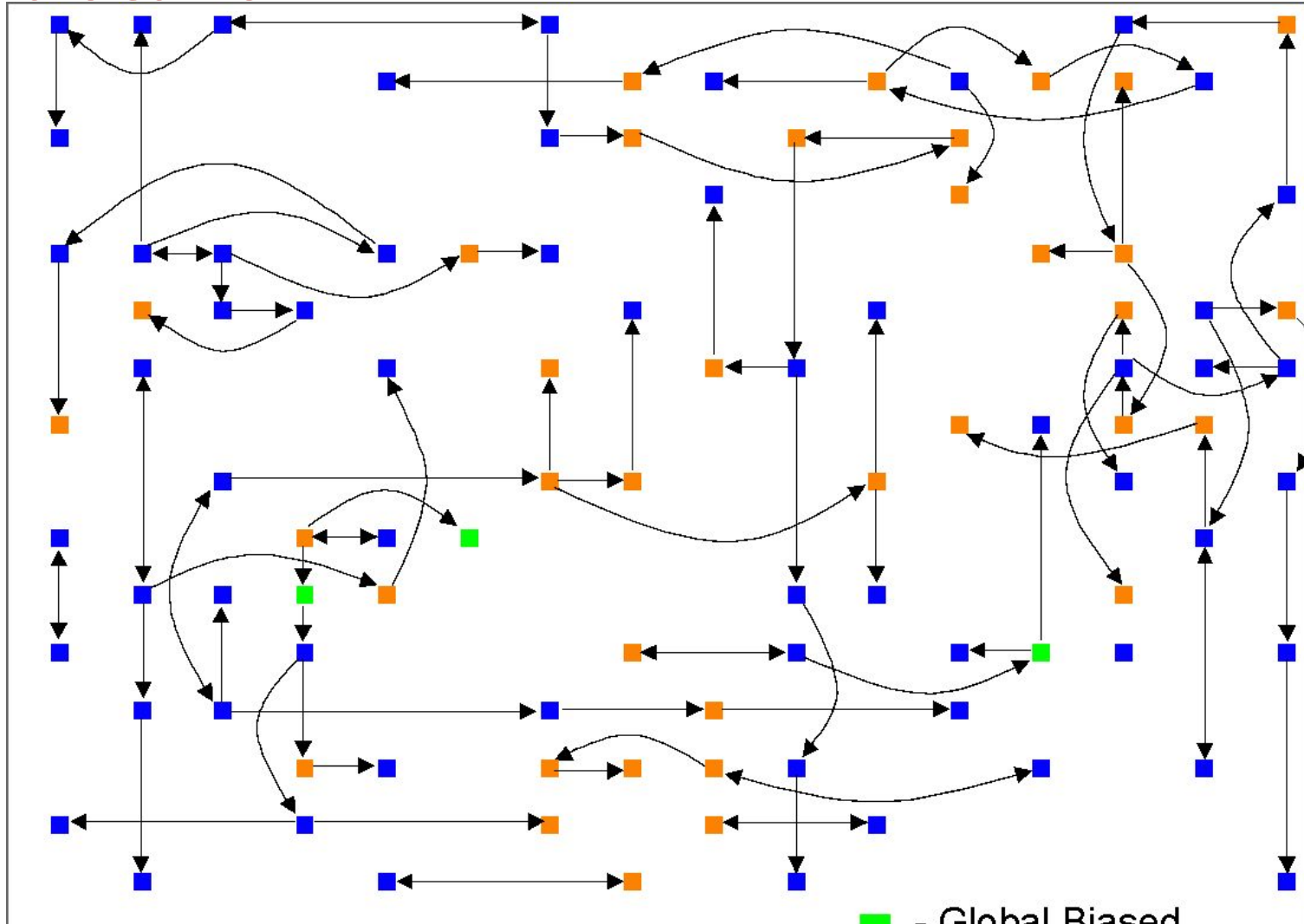
Type, context, purpose

- **Type:** A complex agent-based descriptive simulation integrating a variety of streams of evidence
- **Context:** statistical and other models of domestic water demand under different climate change scenarios
- **Purposes:**
 - to critique the assumptions that may be implicit in the other models
 - to demonstrate an alternative

Simulation structure

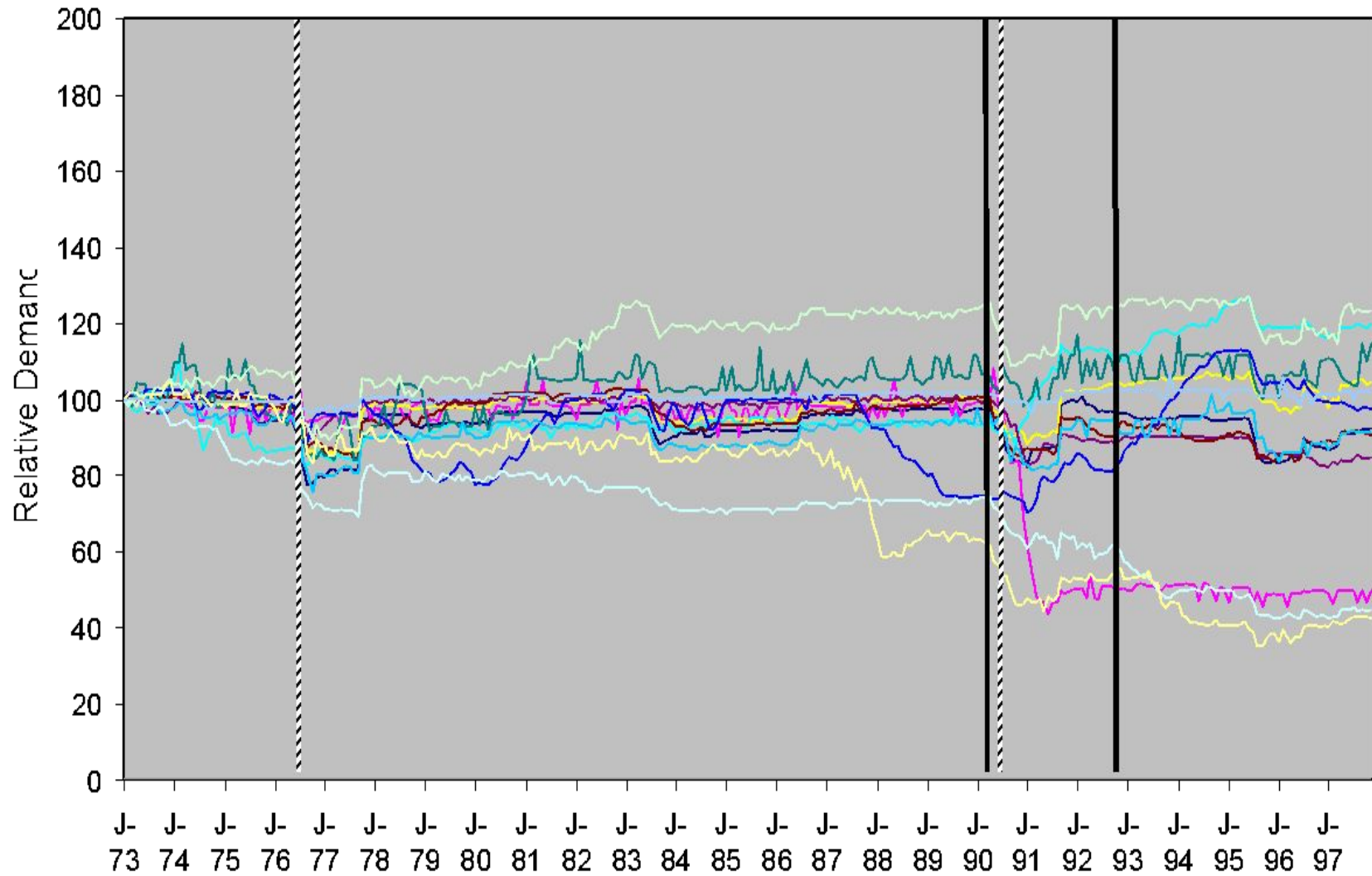
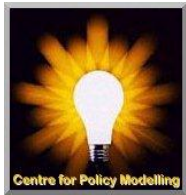


Some of the household influence structure

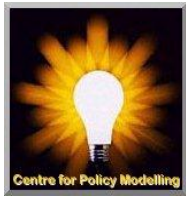


- - Global Biased
- - Locally Biased
- - Self Biased

Example results



Conclusions from Water Demand Example



- The use of a concrete descriptive simulation model allowed the detailed criticism and, hence, improvement of the model
- The inclusion of social influence resulted in aggregate water demand patterns with many of the characteristics of observed demand patterns
- The model established how it *was possible that* processes of mutual social influence could result in widely differing patterns of consumption that were self-reinforcing



What ABSS Can Do

- ABSS can allow the production and examination of sets of possible complicated processes both emergent and immergent
- Using a precise (well-defined and replicable) language (a computer program)
- But one which allows the tracing of very complicated interactions
- And thus does not need the strong assumptions that analytic approaches require to obtain their proofs
- It allows the indefinite experimentation and examination of outcomes (*in vitro*)
- Which can inform our understanding of some of the complex interactions that may be involved in observed (*in vivo*) social phenomena



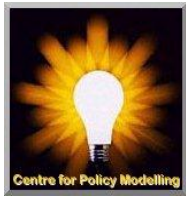
Conclusion



The *in vitro* and *in vivo* analogy

- *In vivo* is what happens in real life, e.g. between complex chemicals in the cell
 - Any data or experiments here involve the whole complex context of the target system
 - But these are often so complex its impossible to detangle the interactions at this level
- *In vitro* is what happens in the test tube with selected chemicals, it is a model of of the cell
 - This allows experiments and probes to tease out how some of the complex interactions occur
 - But you never know if back in the cell these may be overwhelmed or subverted by other interactions

Discursive vs Simulation Approaches



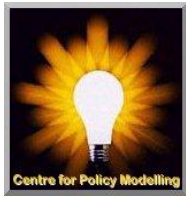
Natural Language

- Rich, semantic, meaningful, flexible
- But imprecise
- Map to what is observed is often complex and implicit
- Difficult to keep track of complicated interactions and outcomes
- Has “pre-prepared” meaning and referents

Computer Simulation

- Precise, well defined, replicable, flexible
- But brittle
- Semantically thin
- Map to observed *can be* explicit and more direct
- Good at keeping track of complicated interactions and outcomes
- Meaning needs to be established through use

Analytic vs Simulation Approaches



Analytic Modelling

- Precise, well defined, replicable
- Very brittle
- Not Semantic
- Map to observed can be indirect and/or difficult to establish
- Strong checkable inference
- General characterisation of outcomes
- Requires *strong* assumptions to work

Computer Simulation

- Precise, well defined, replicable, flexible
- More expressive descriptive
- Semantically thin
- Map to observed *can be* explicit and more direct
- Inference is more contingent, (sets of) example outcomes
- Can relate more easily to a broader range of evidence

The End

*These slides are accessible from the 'slides' link on the
Introduction to Social Simulation Course Page
<http://sites.google.com/site/socialsimulationcourse>*

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Centre for Policy Modelling

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Manchester Metropolitan Business School

<http://www.business.mmu.ac.uk>

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