

1 Models as games: a novel approach for ‘gamesourcing’ parameter data and 2 communicating complex models

3 1 Summary

- 4 1. Models have become indispensable tools in conservation science in the face of
5 increasingly rapid loss of biodiversity through anthropogenic habitat loss and natural
6 resource exploitation. In addition to their ecological components, accurately representing
7 human decision-making processes in such models is vital to maximise their utility. This
8 can be problematic, as such socio-ecological models because increasingly complex, and
9 thus both challenging to communicate and parameterise.
- 10 2. Games have a long history of being used as science communication tools, but are less
11 widely used as data collection tools, particularly in videogame form. This is surprising,
12 given many parallels between models and videogames. We here propose a novel
13 approach to (1) aid communication of complex socio-ecological models, and (2)
14 “gamesourcing” human decision-making data, by explicitly casting an existing modelling
15 framework as an interactive videogame. NICE!
- 16 3. We present players with a natural resource management game as a front-end to the
17 modelling framework GMSE. Players actions replace a model algorithm involving
18 management decisions about a population of wild animals which graze on crops, and can
19 thus lower agricultural yield. A number of (non-player) farmers respond to the player’s
20 management, taking actions that may affect their yield as well as the animal population.
21 Players are asked to set their own management goal (e.g. maintain the animal population
22 at a certain level or improving yield), and make decisions accordingly. Trial players were
23 also asked to provide any feedback on both gameplay and purpose.
- 24 4. We demonstrate the utility of this approach by collecting and analysing game play data
25 from a small sample of trial plays, in which we systematically vary two model
26 parameters, and allowing trial players to interact with the model through the game

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model algorithm

interface. As an illustration, we show how variations in land ownership and the number of farmers in the system affects decision-making patterns as well as population trajectories (extinction probabilities).

5. We discuss the potential and limitations of this model-game approach in the light of trial player feedback received, focusing in particular on (1) concerns about perceived lack of realism and potential adverse effects on external validity of decision-making, and (2) potential issues with audience bias and player sampling. Player feedback further highlights the parallels between games and models, and in particular the need for clear communication of model limitations and assumptions. We conclude that videogames provide an effective means to do so, and that although they provide a promising means to collect data on human decision-making, it is vital to carefully consider both external validity and potential biases when doing so.

2 Introduction

In recent years, the use and application of models has become widespread and indispensable in conservation science, ranging from demonstrating the likely effects of climate change (IPCC 2021) to supporting the understanding of fundamental processes in natural resource management (e.g. Fryxell et al. 2010; Cusack et al. 2020). Given the continued rapid global loss of biodiversity (Ceballos et al. 2015; Ceballos, Ehrlich, and Dirzo 2017), understanding the mechanisms and consequences of such loss is vital. Although a number of drivers of biodiversity loss have been identified (e.g. Maxwell et al. 2016), one of the most prevalent and widespread ones is human exploitation of habitats and natural resources, both directly (e.g. through hunting or habitat loss to agriculture) or indirectly (e.g. through international trade in natural resources) (e.g. Wilting et al. 2017). Because resource use is fundamentally driven by economic and social processes, it has long been recognised that accurate predictions thereof is reliant as much on understanding resource dynamics as it is on understanding human behaviour and decision-making (Milner-Gulland 2012; Schlüter et al. 2012). Thus, the development of socio-ecological

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53 models in which natural resource dynamics and human decision making interact is becoming
54 increasingly urgent.

55 Cutting-edge modelling approaches have made significant progress towards this goal. For
56 example, [Orach, Duit, and Schlüter \(2020\)](#) used an agent-based model to show how coalitions of
57 interest groups can stabilise natural resource dynamics, whereas [Cusack et al. \(2020\)](#) used a
58 novel agent-based modelling framework ([Duthie et al. 2018](#)) to assess the effect of lobbying on
59 species extinction risk. Although such modelling efforts represent significant progress in
60 modelling complex socio-ecological systems, their increased complexity poses ~~in~~ two,
61 interlinked, challenges. First, models are often difficult to communicate clearly to non-specialist
62 audiences in the first place, and this challenge increases with model complexity ([Grimm et al.](#)
63 [2006](#)). This is particularly important for models for resource use in socio-ecological systems, as
64 they are often specifically intended for use by managers or stakeholders who may lack technical
65 expertise. Much has been said about improving the uptake of models in such settings (e.g.
66 [Addison et al. 2013](#); [Schuwirth et al. 2019](#); [Will et al. 2021](#)), and detailed documentation of the
67 purpose, organisation and predictions has been highlighted as particularly important ([Grimm et](#)
68 [al. 2020](#)). Even so, often the evidence for practical uptake of many models is limited ([Addison et](#)
69 [al. 2013](#); [Zasada et al. 2017](#)). Second, their complexity implies the need for extensive data to
70 parameterise them effectively. In terms of socio-ecological systems, while data to parameterise
71 the ecological component are often relatively easily available, the human decision-making
72 components are often based on limited theory and lack a general empirical basis ([Groeneveld et](#)
73 [al. 2017](#)). Not only may this lead to limited predictive power, a perceived lack of empirical basis
74 may negatively affect their acceptance by stakeholders (cf. model “quality” as in [Kolkman et al.](#)
75 [2016](#)). To maximise the adoption of complex socio-ecological models as management tools, both
76 appropriate representation of human decision-making and effective communication are therefore
77 key.

78 Games have a long history of being in research ([Sandbrook, Adams, and Monteferri 2015](#);
79 [Chabris 2017](#); [Redpath et al. 2018](#)) including as tools to aid the communication of complex ideas
80 and processes to non-specialists ([Garcia, Dray, and Waeber 2016](#); [Tan et al. 2018](#); [Fjaellingsdal](#)

81 [and Kloeckner 2019](#)), with online and video games recently becoming popular (**REF**). Given this
82 long history, it is striking that the parallels between videogames in particular and models are not
83 discussed more widely. All models are abstract representations of environments, actors and
84 relationships, with inputs (parameters) and outputs (predictions or inferences). Similarly, all
85 games present a player with an environment in a given state (parameters), including one or more
86 actors, which can take actions (inputs) to affect the environment for a given effect (outputs). It is
87 worth stressing that every game has an underlying model that defines the state of the
88 environment, relationships between objects in this environment, and inputs and outputs available
89 to the player. However, while games are by definition designed with player (user) interaction in
90 mind, models rarely have user-facing or even user-friendly interfaces, and running or adapting
91 them to specific circumstances usually relies on technical expertise. Casting models as games
92 provides an opportunity to effectively improve the communication and understandability of even
93 relatively complex models. Inputs and outputs may be presented in a visual way and tweaked
94 depending on the type of audience, and both potential applications and limitations of the model
95 can be demonstrated effectively.

96 In addition, presenting a model as a game provides an opportunity to empirically collect data on
97 how stakeholders make decisions in the modelled environment. Games have already been widely
98 used for data collection to answer specific questions (e.g. [Meinzen-Dick et al. 2016](#); [Villamor](#)
99 [and Badmos 2016](#); [S. Rakotonarivo et al. 2021](#); [O. S. Rakotonarivo et al. 2021](#)) on what affects
100 decision-making in socio-ecological systems. A less well-explored potential of using this
101 approach is using in-game decisions directly as a “big data” source to improve the
102 parameterisation of the underlying model itself. Many existing models represent human decision-
103 making by relatively crude algorithms (e.g. fully rational utility maximisation) despite
104 widespread recognition that this does not reflect real-world decision-making ([Groeneveld et al.](#)
105 [2017](#)). By presenting real-world stakeholders with in-game decisions that would otherwise be
106 taken by a predefined algorithm, large data sets of actions and outcomes may be collected. Given
107 a large enough sample of players and in-game conditions, such data might then be used to train
108 decision-making algorithms that better reflect human decision-making in natural resource

1 am sold!

109 management¹. It is notable that this “gamesourcing” or “Gamorithm” (Sipper and Moore 2020)
110 approach has already been widely used in a number of other fields (e.g. crowdsourcing accurate
111 protein-structure models (Khatib et al. 2011), and classification of fluorescence microscopy
112 images (Sullivan et al. 2018)), but remains rare in conservation science (but see van den Bergh et
113 al. 2021). Thus, model-games can be considered “virtual laboratories” (Duthie et al. 2021) to not
114 only test specific hypotheses or predictions, but potentially also as an effective method to source
115 data to parameterise the underlying models, based on in-game decisions by real humans.

116 We here aim to illustrate the potential for this model-game approach, both in terms of aiding
117 model communication as well data collection for improved parameterisation, by introducing
118 Animal&Farm (A&F). We developed A&F as a simple interactive game front-end for a complex
119 socio-ecological modelling framework (GMSE), in which the player acts as the manager of a
120 virtual environment in which a population of wild grazing animals (the natural resource) may
121 adversely affect farming yield, with farmers acting to maximise their yield and potentially
122 hunting the animals. We argue that ~~but~~ by acting as an interface between users (i.e. players) and
123 a complex underlying model with many components and assumptions, such a game can
124 simultaneously (1) aid the communication and useability of the underlying model and (2) can be
125 used to gather data to improve the parameterisation of such models. We first briefly summarise
126 the underlying modelling framework, its potential and limitations. Second, we describe both the
127 structure of A&F itself as well as its database back-end. Third, we outline how this approach
128 may be used to collect data on player decision-making in simulated *in silico* experiments, and
129 present some example results of doing so; noting that these findings are intended as illustrative
130 only. Finally, using test player feedback as a basis, we discuss both the limitations of this
131 approach as well as its wider potential.

¹ Note that there are of course limitations to this, and that data on decisions made would only be relevant to the context of the game (i.e. internally valid in the game context). Wider external validity depends on a number of factors; we discuss limitations in more detail below.

3 Outline of approach

[A&F is available to play online.](#)

Overall, it consists of two main components; (1) the underlying model(s) describing the wild grazing animal (“resource”) population dynamics, the observation of this population, and farmer (“user” or stakeholder) actions, all implemented using the GMSE framework as described below; and (2) the game interface for the underlying model, which allows the player to set management actions (specifically, costs for user actions) that would otherwise be determined by the management model in the default GMSE set up.

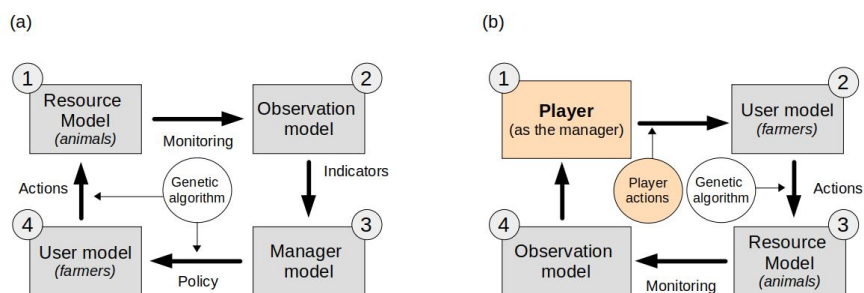
3.1 Underlying model: GMSE

We used the Generalised Management Strategy Evaluation (GMSE) modelling framework to model the socio-ecological system underlying A&F. The GMSE R package ([REF](#)) was designed as a flexible solution for parameterising systems that model the management, observation, exploitation and population dynamics of a natural resource (e.g. a population of hunted wildlife). In this section, we summarise the basic functionality of GMSE as relevant to the present manuscript; for a full description see [Duthie et al. \(2018\)](#) and [Nilsson et al. \(2021\)](#) (the latter containing an appendix with the full ODD model description).

3.1.1 Basic introduction of GMSE principles and structures

GMSE consists of four submodels (Figure 1a): (1) the **resource model**, an individual-based model for an animal population situated on a landscape modelled as 100x100 square cells; (2) the **observation model** which represents the process of observations (including a degree of uncertainty) of the animal population, feeding into (3) the **manager model** which uses the observation of the animal population to make management decisions, involving costs set for agents in (4) the **user model**, representing a number of agents (farmers) that each own a part of the landscape. In each time step, both manager and user agents are allocated a (fixed) budget. The users (farmers) may allocate their budget to taking one of several potential actions (here:

157 hunting animals, scaring animals of their land, or tending crops - they may only take these
 158 actions on their own land).



159

160 Figure 1. The basic structure of (a) the GMSE modelling framework and its default order of operations
 161 with the genetic algorithm (GA) modelling the decision-making process of both users and manager, and
 162 (b) the adaptation of the GMSE framework to accommodate the model-game approach presented here. The
 163 grey boxes represent the various GMSE submodels, with the arrows representing the process links
 164 between them. The yellow boxes and circles are the adapted components in the model-game adaptation,
 165 with player interaction replacing the manager model in GMSE, and the underlying GA for the manager -
 166 the GA is still used to make user decisions. Grey circles indicate the order of operations in each.

167 The goal for the manager is to maintain the animal population to a desired level (the management
 168 target, normally set externally as a model parameter). It does so by controlling the cost for user
 169 (farmer) actions in the following time step: e.g. higher costs for hunting is likely to decrease the
 170 number of animals hunted, limiting negative effects on the population and thus making
 171 population increases more likely, decreasing scaring cost may increase the number of users
 172 choosing scaring. Users (farmers) aim to maximise agricultural yield from their land; yield
 173 equals 1 per cell owned per time step, but yield is decreased by the presence of animals on a cell
 174 (e.g. through grazing) and may be increased by tending crops (one of the possible three actions).
 175 Through this, users have an incentive to control the number of animals of their land, either
 176 through allocating budget to hunting or through scaring. The former permanently reduces the
 177 number of animals present, the latter has a certain probability of moving an animal away from

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178 the user's land, for the duration of the time step. Users can only take actions on land that they
179 own.

180 Costs for actions (by the manager) or actions taken (by the users) are chosen using a genetic
181 algorithm (GA), a heuristic optimisation algorithm which mimics the choice of decision as
182 evolution by natural selection; a large number of possible decisions are iteratively compared by
183 assessing their outcome, with the decision that maximises a given utility function (yield for
184 users, and minimising distance to population target for the manager) identified as the "fittest."
185 The GA is run separately for each agent (manager and all users) in each time step.

186 In the default resource (animal) model in GMSE, the animal population is modelled as a form of
187 logistic growth, with a small amount of added random mortality per time step and death caused
188 by hunting; for more detail see below and in [Duthie et al. \(2018\)](#). In each time step, each animal
189 moves a given distance in a random direction, and feeds from the cell it is present in. In the
190 current model, neither movement nor population growth rate is affected by agricultural yield.

191 It is worthwhile stressing that in the current GMSE implementation, using the GA, both agent
192 types (users and the manager) essentially have only a single goal they each aim for. Users
193 (farmers) aim to maximise their yield, whereas the manager aims to minimise deviation from a
194 given population target - neither can balance multiple competing objectives. This is unlikely to
195 be reflective of real conservation scenarios, where it is common for conservation managers to at
196 least recognise other aims if not take these explicitly into account when setting policy, and other
197 stakeholders in the system (e.g. farmers) commonly having some interest in conservation
198 objectives (**REF?**). Human decision-making in such scenarios is inevitably about balancing
199 these different objectives, but parameterising algorithms that mimic such processes without
200 reference to long-term data is very challenging (**REF?**). Addressing this issue was a key
201 motivation for the development of the model-game approach presented here.

202 3.2 Animal&Farm

203 3.2.1 Structure as relating to GMSE

204 In the default implementation of GMSE 0.6.2.0, a single time t step consists of a series of calls
205 to the resource model, observation model, management model and user model, in that specific
206 order; in other words, a time step ends after user actions have been chosen (by the GA) and
207 implemented (Figure 1b). To allow players to assess the environment and interactively choose
208 management actions, A&F uses a modified version of GMSE.

209 A&F uses a development version of GMSE (v. 0.6.2.0, implemented in R version 4.1.0 (2021-
210 05-18), code available [here](#) in which the management model is replaced by user (player) inputs,
211 and the order of operations is altered to accommodate this. To initialise each game session, four
212 time steps are run using the default GMSE implementation; i.e. in these time steps the
213 management decisions are chosen by the default GA, and the resource, observation and user
214 models are run using the parameters as defined for the given ~~the~~ scenario (see 4.2 below). These
215 time steps are followed by a “partial” time step where only the resource and observation models
216 are run, skipping the management and user models. As a result, at the end of these initial time
217 steps (`init_man_control()`), the simulated system has five population and observation time
218 steps and is ready for the next choice of management action at $t = 5$, pending the first player
219 input. This is done both to set up all the required GMSE data structures using existing code, as
220 well as to provide the player with a short time series on which to base management decisions
221 going forward.

222 The current GMSE simulations used by A&F simulates a landscape of 100x100 cells, divided
223 into farms owned by 4-12 farmers (stakeholders; the precise number and land distribution is
224 randomly varied per session, see 4.2 below). Farmers can take three possible actions; tending
225 crops, hunting (culling) animals, or scaring animals off their land. All submodels used in A&F
226 are currently the default GMSE models (with the exception of the management model in time
227 steps $t > 5$, where the player assumes control over the management decisions (see below). Thus,
228 we only give brief details here, for full details and descriptions of all models, see [Duthie et al.](#)

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(2018) and Nilsson et al. (2021) for further details). The **animal population** model uses the logistic growth form with $N_0 = 1000$, $\lambda = 0.3$ and $K = 5000$, meaning that in the absence of any management the population is likely to increase from the initial population size (1000) to carrying capacity (5000). The **observation model** uses the default GMSE model (density-based sampling of a subset of the environment); only *observed* numbers of animals are available to the manager to base decisions on (and thus population trajectory plots in the game interface reflect observations only, which are subject to an unknown level of uncertainty). Both the **management model** (in the initialisation steps) and **user model** use the GA algorithms with default parameter settings. User (farmer) budgets are set to 1500 units per time step, manager budgets to 1000 units (both for the initial 5 time steps and the subsequent game play). The users (farmers) aim to maximise yield from their land, their annual budget is reset each year and is unaffected by yield. Yield is positively affected by tending crops, and may be negatively affected by the presence of grazing wild animals - thus hunting or scaring may offset any potentially negative effects on yield. Note that the choice of models and parameter values here serve as an example only; it is expected that future implementations and development of A&F will focus on specific research questions / case studies, and will adjust models and parameter settings accordingly (see Discussion).

Each following A&F time step then consists of (1) user input, taking the place of the default management model, in which the player can assess the environment using outputs provided (see below) and choose management actions (costs for user actions), and, (2) and once the player confirms their choice, a modified GMSE time step including sequential calls to the default user, resource and observation models (`gmse_apply_URM()`) (Figure 1b).

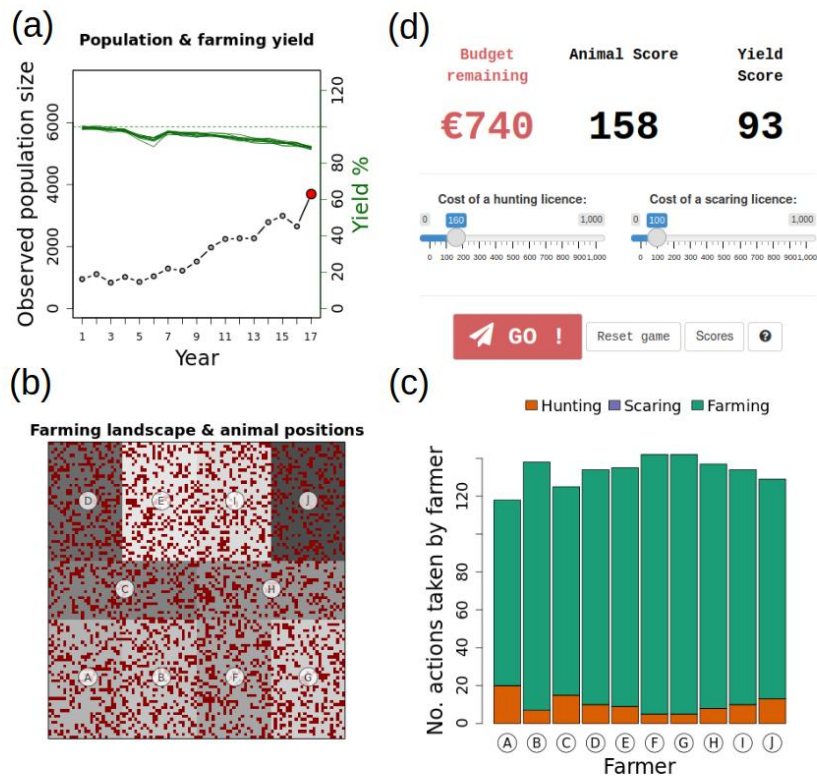
3.2.2 User interface

The user interface for A&F is a web application is coded in R, using Shiny (1.6.0), and packages shinyjs (2.0.0), shinyBS (0.61), and waiter (0.2.2).

On starting a new game session, the player is presented with a series of introductory screens explaining the background, flow and objective of the game , after which they are asked to enter a

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256 player name, which is stored and used to show player scores as the end of a session, compared to
 257 previous sessions by other players.



258
 259 Figure 2. The Animal & Farm main game interface, showing (a) animal (resource) population trajectory
 260 and yield per farmer, (b) the farming landscape with animal positions as red dots and farm ownership
 261 indicated by the grey shades, (c) actions taken by farmers in the previous game round, and (d) user inputs
 262 including a budget report and costs set for actions.

263 The main game screen consists of four components (Figure 2). First, a trajectory plot (Figure 2a)
 264 showing (1) observed animal population numbers and (2) agricultural yield for each farmer in

265 each time step, up to time t (at the start of the game this will show five observations from the
266 initialisation steps described above). Agricultural yield is expressed as a % of “maximum
267 unaffected yield,” i.e. yield in the absence of damage from wildlife or investment in tending
268 crops. Second, a plot of the landscape (Figure 2b) showing the distribution of farm ownership as
269 well as the position of animals at time t . Third, a bar plot of the number of actions taken by each
270 farmer at time t (Figure 2c). Fourth, a report of the current management budget available (not
271 allocated), player scores (see 3.2.3 below), and player inputs (Figure 2d). The player (manager)
272 inputs consist of two sliders, setting the cost for two out of the three actions available² to farmers
273 in time $t + 1$: killing animals (presented as the cost of a hunting licence) and scaring animals off
274 their land (presented as the cost of a scaring licence). Management budget allocated to one of
275 these cannot be allocated to another, and any budget not allocated is not rolled over to the next
276 time step. The third action available to farmers (tending crops) cannot be directly³ affected by the
277 manager (player), so no input is available for this .

278 The game progresses to the next time step $t + 1$ once the player confirms their choice of cost
279 inputs. At this point (1) the user, resource and observation models are run using the updated
280 action costs set by the player, (2) selected environment state data are stored in the database (See
281 3.2.3 below), and (3) trajectory, landscape and action plots are updated and budget allocation is
282 reset. The current implementation of A&F continues for a maximum of 20 time steps (following
283 the initial five) at which point the game session is ended and the player is presented with a
284 scoreboard. If the resource population reaches extinction, the game session is also terminated.

² A&F currently focuses only on hunting animals, scaring animals or tending crops as available actions to farmers; this may be expanded in the future to other actions available in GMSE.

³ It can be affected *indirectly* by setting the cost for the two actions prohibitively high, so that tending crops becomes more likely to be most beneficial to maximising yield (the farmer’s goal).

285 3.2.3 Game objective, scores and scoreboard

286 Other than preventing extinction of the animal population, A&F does not have a particular game
287 objective; instead, the player is asked to make management decisions reflecting their preference
288 of animal population and agricultural yield trajectory. The player is, however, presented with two
289 scores which allows them to assess their performance relative to their own previous game
290 sessions as well as those of other players.

291 The scores are arbitrarily defined to reflect performance in terms of the animal population
292 (“animal score,” A_t) on the one hand, and overall agricultural yield (“yield score,” Y_t) on the
293 other. Both scores can be interpreted as the mean % of the initial (i.e. at time $t = 5$) true size of
294 the animal population N_t and landscape yield y_t , with y_t calculated as the mean yield over all
295 landscape cells at time t .

296 $A_t = \left(\frac{N_t}{N_{t=5}} \right) \cdot 100$ and $S_t = \left(\frac{\sum_{t=5}^T y_t}{t} \right) \cdot 100$ where $t \geq 5$ and T the total number of time steps
297 for the game session.

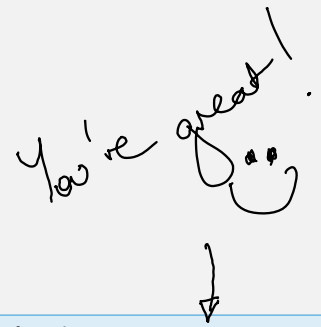
298 Both scores are initialised as $A_t = S_t = 100$ when the game is first initialised, to ensure score
299 development over a session can be interpreted as a change from that baseline.

300 Players can choose to either balance both scores, or score highly on one or the other. They are
301 updated and displayed on each time step, and the final scores are displayed on a score board after
302 the final time step ($t = 25$, so after 20 time steps played) is complete, or once the animal
303 population goes extinct. The scoreboard is a top 10 “leaderboard” of scores over all sessions
304 played by all players to date; if the current player’s score is not included in the top 10, it is
305 displayed at the bottom of the board with the correct rank relative to other players.

306 3.2.4 Data collection & database

307 Game play data (e.g. session variables, player inputs, environment state variables) are stored in a
308 MySQL relational database. Database structure is summarised in **Fig X** and a full list of
309 parameter values stored and their description is listed in **Table X**. The current version of A&F
310 stores only a subset of GMSE parameters (**Table X**); this may be easily extended in the future by

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311 adding additional fields to the relevant database table and ensuring the database interface
312 functions append the extra parameters. For any GMSE parameters that are not stored currently,
313 the default GMSE parameter values are used.

314 In summary, six main tables are used to store data (see **XXX** for a full description). Tables are
315 linked by the unique session ID present in each table.

316 • run

317 Holding player name, start- and end times for the session and a flag for whether or not the
318 animal population reached extinction or not (single record per session).

319 • run_par

320 Holding all game parameters for the GMSE simulation for a session. As per section
321 **XXX**, in the example application presented here, the majority of these will be constants,
322 with only ownership_var and remove_pr varying per session.

323 • scores

324 Holding the number of time steps achieved per session and the animal and yield score.

325 • gdata

326 A record per time step for each session, recording the true and observed population state,
327 the number of actions of each type taken, and the costs set by the manager (player), as
328 well as the total yield in the environment.

329 • yield

330 The yield achieved by each farmer in each time step, per session.

331 Records in tables run, run_par and scores are only updated at the start and end of each session,
332 whereas gdata and yield are the “live” tables that are appended to at each time step during a
333 game session. End times are recorded for each session where the player either reaches $t = 25$,

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334 manually resets the game during a session, or as the animal population reaches extinction;
335 i.e. when this field remains blank (NULL), it means that a session was not terminated “normally,”
336 i.e. by the browser being closed manually or timing out due to inactivity.

337 **4 Example application**

338 **4.1 “Sandbox” for *in silico* experiments**

339 The combination between the underlying modelling framework, game interface and the database
340 back-end, provides a platform to collect data on player interaction with the models in a range of
341 simulated environments. This might include *in silico* tests of the effect of specific variability in
342 the environment on simulation animal population extinction, or collecting “big data” on player
343 decision-making given a set of (more or less) variable parameters in terms of population,
344 observation or user (farmer) models. For example, a user of the platform may be interested in
345 testing how human decision-making varies depending on the extent of observed variation in
346 either the ecological (e.g. more or less uncertainty in animal population trajectories) or social
347 (e.g. higher or lower variability in land ownership or sizes of farmer budgets) parts of the
348 modelled system. Data from such experiments may then be combined with debriefing interviews
349 with players to further investigate what may drive such decision-making (e.g. [S. Rakotonarivo et](#)
350 [al. 2021](#)). Alternatively, by collating large amounts of decision-making data under varying
351 parameter settings as well as the outcome of each game session (e.g. animal population
352 extinction and/or trajectories), it may be possible to develop algorithms that can make decisions
353 that are most likely to lead to a desired outcome (e.g. minimising extinction probability while
354 maintaining agricultural yield, or maximising one or the other score). While the genetic
355 algorithm for manager decision-making currently implemented in GMSE is effective, it does not
356 currently balance multiple objectives, nor does it necessarily accurately reflect variability in real-
357 life decision-making processes. Parameterising an alternative algorithm directly based on
358 empirical decision-making data has the potential to address these shortcomings.

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4.2 Example scenario & method

4.2.1 Rationale & methods

We here illustrate one aspect of this potential by collecting decision-making data from a small sample of test players, during a short period. We chose to focus on a scenario that systematically varies two parameters, farmer land ownership distribution o_v and the number of farmers (stakeholders, s). While inequity in land ownership is commonplace and of interest to conservation strategies (**REF**), the current manager decision-making algorithm implemented in GMSE cannot explicitly take the extent of such variation in account. Thus, collecting empirical data on how decisions and resultant population trajectories may be affected by variable land distribution is important.

Each new game session is initialised with a random draw of one of three possible values of o_v , representing low, moderate and high variability in land ownership (resulting landscape patterns illustrated in **Fig X**) and one of nine possible values of s , i.e. 4-12 farmers. In addition to this variability, each session also has a small amount of random population mortality ($0.05 \leq r_d \leq 0.2$), sampled from a uniform distribution. Although the landscape ownership distribution is clearly shown to the player throughout the game (**see XX above**), the player is not told explicitly that ownership will vary before a session starts, or what the extent of this variability will be. This was done to ensure that a player would not selectively abort sessions. Other than this scenario-based parameter variation, game play progresses as described above, with the player able to make management decisions (setting costs for farmer actions) over 20 time steps following the initial five.

We circulated a link to the game with scenarios configured as above to a sample of 45 contacts working in conservation science and practical conservation and management, covering a range of academic institutions, research institutes, NGO's and government. Contacts were also asked to share the link with any potentially interested contacts. The main aim was to (1) obtain feedback on the model-game set up, and (2) collect example data to illustrate the potential of the approach, with specific emphasis on how communication of it may be improved in the future. An

386 accompanying covering letter explained this aim, the background to the work, and a request to
387 respond with any feedback. Note that the data collected here should not be interpreted as
388 comprehensive research on a specific question, and is intended as illustrative only.

389 4.2.2 Ethics

390 The work described here was approved by the University of Stirling's General University Ethics
391 Panel (GUEP), project no. 2519. While the game link is publicly accessible, it was not publicised
392 beyond the direct contacts described above. On accessing the link, players are presented with a
393 series of introductory screens explaining the background and purpose of the game, followed by a
394 digital consent form, which has to be agreed to by ticking a confirmation tick box, before a new
395 session can be started. No personally identifiable data are collected or stored, other than a player
396 nickname - the latter is only requested so that scores can be shown in context and compared to
397 other players; however this can be left as a default placeholder, and players explicitly told that
398 this is not expected to be their real name. Player nicknames are replaced by random identifiers
399 prior to further data processing.

400 4.3 Illustrative results

401 Between 21 July 2021 and 19 August 2021, we collected data on 76 play sessions by 28 unique
402 players⁴. Sessions lasted 4.5 on average (0.2 (179.4 minutes). As per the scenario set up, these
403 sessions were roughly equally distributed between land ownership variability o_v (0, 0.25 or 0.5,
404 $N = 21$ [28%], 32 [42%], and 23 [30%], respectively) and number of stakeholders s (4-12).

405 The animal population reached extinction in 23 out of the 76 sessions (30.3%). Extinction
406 probability appeared to be higher at both higher levels of land ownership variability ($o_v = 0.25$
407 and $o_v = 0.5$), particularly so at intermediate ($o_v = 0.25$) levels (Figure 3a). Differences in

⁴ Strictly speaking, unique player names. It is possible for the same player to play under multiple different player names. See Discussion for further details.

woah!

I'm wondering if folk (skim readers) may still think these are research results - depending on the journal, maybe having them in a box, or something like that, to clearly distinguish them as illustrative ??

extinction probability with variability in farmer (stakeholder) number was less pronounced (Figure 3b).

These extinction probabilities were reflected in the animal population trajectories in each parameter scenario. Figure 4 shows trajectories per level of landownership variability, with cases where the population reached extinction highlighted in red. Both higher levels of variability ($o_v = 0.25$ and $o_v = 0.5$) show fewer cases with rapid increasing trends.

Management actions taken by the players (over time, $t > 5$) are summarised in Figure 5. It is notable that when land ownership variability was higher ($o_v = 0.5$), chosen costs for hunting licences appeared to be more stable (i.e. less variable), particularly toward the end of playing sessions (Figures 5c vs. 5a-b). It should be noted that this may in part be an artifact of somewhat lower sample size at higher time steps (because in some sessions the population would have gone extinct part way through a session). On average, hunting licence costs also appeared to be set lower overall at higher land ownership variability. By comparison, costs set for scaring licences appeared to more stable over time (Figures 5d-f).

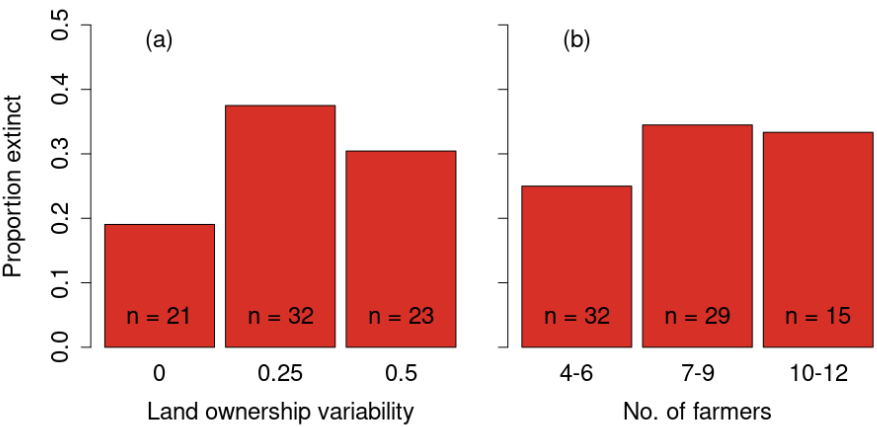
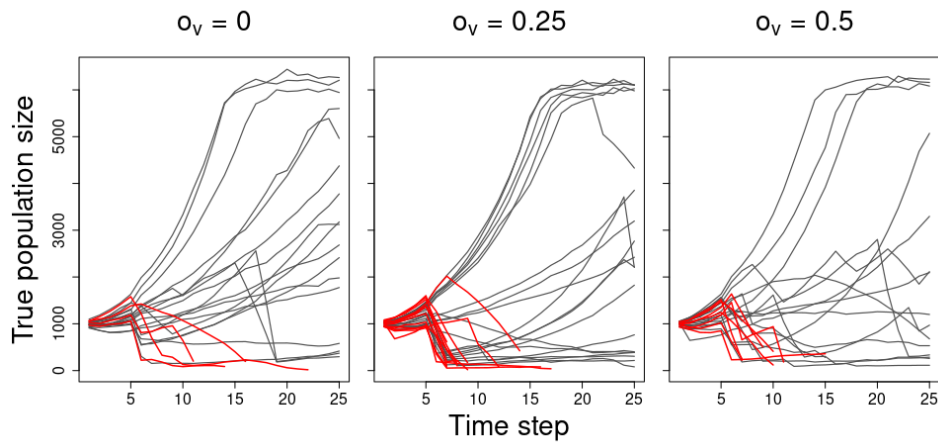


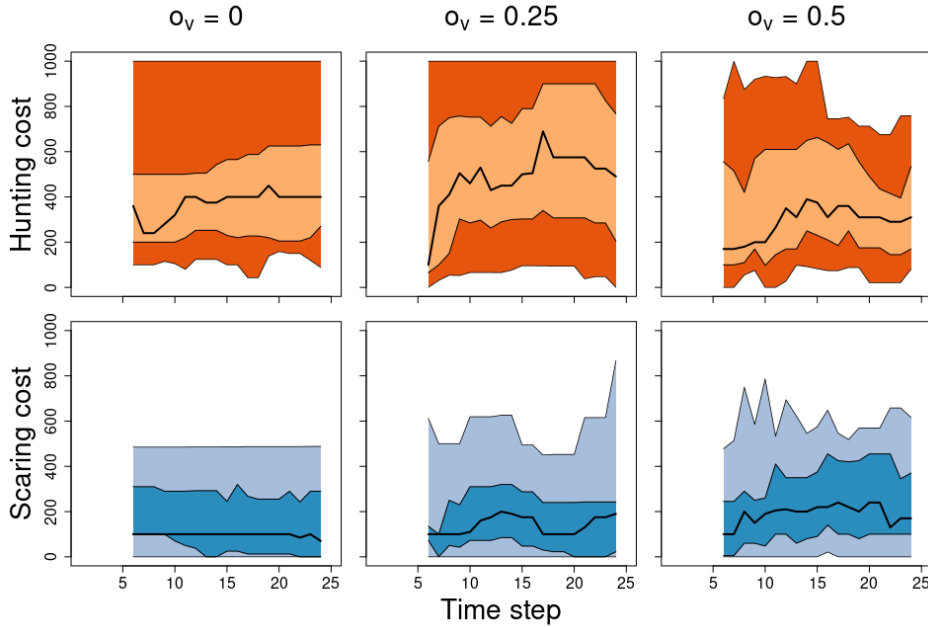
Figure 3. Proportion of game sessions where animal population reached extinction, as a function of (a) land ownership variability and (b) the number of farmers (stakeholders) in the game session.



425

426 Figure 4. Animal population trajectories per game session, split by levels of land ownership variability.

427 Trajectories highlighted in red are sessions where the population reached extinction.



428

429 Figure 5. Summary of player management actions (costs set for hunting- and scaring licences) over time,
 430 per ownership variability scenario. Solid black line is the mean cost per time step, with lighter and darker
 431 polygons representing the 25-75% and 2.5% and 97.5% quantiles of the cost distribution per time step.

432 5 Discussion

433 We have here outlined a framework for using an interactive game (A&F) as an interface to a
 434 socio-ecological model for natural resource management. The game interface allows players that
 435 are not familiar with the underlying model to interact directly and easily with it, with game play
 436 decisions directly reflecting parameter settings in the models. We argue that not only does this
 437 provide a convenient communication/education tool with respect to both the specific model and
 438 models in general, it also provides a tool to both perform *in silico* experiments on human
 439 decision-making in given natural resource management scenarios, as well as collect large

amounts of data that may be used to improve the model parameterisation. It is worth stressing that we are here specifically referring to model-games as data-collection tools, as opposed to exclusively as communication- or educational tools.

5.1 Potential

We illustrated the potential of this approach by presenting data from a small number of trial game play sessions: we showed that subtle variation in farmer land ownership can lead to noticeably different resource population trajectories and manager (player) decision-making patterns. While the data shown here should be taken as illustrative only, it highlights the potential to easily run a range of *in silico* experiments with direct relevance to real-world questions. For example, observation uncertainty and its consequences on decision-making is a perennial topic in conservation management (Nuno, Bunnefeld, and Milner-Gulland 2013). While real-world experiments on this would be extremely challenging and costly, GMSE provides a suitable modelling framework in which observation uncertainty can be manipulated, with A&F providing the platform to run controlled experiments with real-world stakeholders. This approach could extend to many if not all of the 74 parameters currently controllable by users in GMSE, ranging from variability in demography or behaviour of the natural resource, to user (farmer) behaviour or variability, and wider environmental change or stochasticity. The game interface and player interaction would remain the same, with only the underlying architecture and database back end requiring minor tweaks to accommodate the extra parameter variation.

In addition to use as an experimental tool, this approach also has great potential for use as a way to source large amounts of decision-making data which may then be used to re-parameterise the underlying models, to better reflect real-world decision making. Given a large enough sample of play sessions with a range of parameter combinations and outcomes, it may be possible to train machine learning algorithms on data collected from this approach, to represent human decision-making under a wide range of conditions. Such algorithms would potentially reflect a range of subtleties of the decision-making process, e.g. balancing multiple objectives in the presences of e.g. social, financial, and organisational constraints. Algorithms implemented in existing

Does this need
a reference?

468 modelling approaches (without reference to empirical data) including GMSE, are very limited in
469 how they can represent such “non-rational” decision-making.

470 5.2 Some limitations and potential solutions

471 5.2.1 “The game is unrealistic”

472 There are clearly a number of limitations to the model-game approach, particularly in terms of
473 directly using “game-sourced” data to (re)parameterise underlying models. One concern was
474 raised by several trial players, and can be summarised as the game or game play lacking
475 “realism,” or crucially, lacking aspects or features or real life, or the player’s experience of the
476 conservation problem (INSERT QUOTES?). This may be seen as particularly problematic if
477 such data collected is subsequently used to adjust model parameterisation; i.e. if the game world
478 is not seen as sufficiently realistic, it may be argued that player behaviour cannot be taken as
479 realistic (i.e. perceived lack of realism leading to lack of external validity, (Jackson 2012; Levitt
480 and List 2007)), and therefore any reparameterisation would be (at best) biased. While a very
481 important point, it is interesting to note that strictly speaking, this point relates to the *underlying*
482 *model* as opposed to the game or the game interface itself. That is, concerns about the lack of
483 “features” or assumptions made are as true of any model as they are of the game representation
484 of it, and indeed they are applicable to all models (“*all models are wrong*,” (Box 1979)). Indeed,
485 this in itself highlights the value of the model-game approach, in that it helps the user
486 (i.e. player) to fully understand the model’s structure, assumptions, and consequent limitations:
487 particularly given complex socio-ecological models, it can be challenging to effectively
488 communicate the full scope of features and limitations (Grimm et al. 2006, 2020). By casting the
489 model as a game, users are put in the center of the modelling process, and any limitations are
490 likely more apparent, more quickly. Recognition of this, particularly by those lacking technical
491 modelling expertise is vital when such models are put to applied use: all models are abstractions
492 of reality and their utility (“*some models are useful*,” (Box 1979)) depends on careful application
493 and recognition of this.

I'm not sure
they're necessary to
(don't want to
make it sound
too negative...)

Very well argued in this section!

494 5.2.2 “Humans are biased”

495 An additional limitation of “gamesourcing” data either in experimental settings or for
496 parameterising models, is the potential for the sampled decision-making data to be biased, e.g. in
497 terms of players or their motivations. For example, either intentionally or unintentionally, it may
498 be that players are sampled from a limited subset; e.g. all players may have a single professional
499 background such as conservation science, or the nature of the game (framing) may selectively
500 attract a subset of the public. As a consequence, decision-making may not be representative of a
501 wider population of potential players (e.g. more biased towards conservation rather than social
502 objectives). While this is an important potential issue, we argue that such issues can be avoided
503 by carefully controlling player recruitment, and subsampling of data collected in different
504 sampling regimes, depending on the research question. This may be achieved, for example, by
505 using game play session codes, separating game sessions for a specific experiment from “open”
506 play sessions (**REF Izzy’s game**).

507 Similar bias may occur if some players play the game with widely different motivations (e.g.
508 [Levitt and List 2007](#)): e.g. playing to “win,” simply maximise a single score, or deliberately
509 attempt to achieve undesirable outcomes. Indeed, it should be stressed that the scores used in the
510 example implementation presented here are to some extent entirely arbitrary, and the choice of
511 scoring system (including algorithms to calculate them) may inherently bias the decision-making
512 data collected, depending on player motivations. There are a number of ways in which this issue
513 can be addressed. First, in fully implementing this model-game approach, it will be vital to
514 collect player data through pre- or post-game questionnaires, including on e.g. professional
515 background, social- and ecological attitudes (as in e.g. [S. Rakotonarivo et al. 2021](#); [O. S. Rakotonarivo et al. 2021](#)), which can be used to control for any potential motivational biases in
516 decision-making data. It should be noted that the current example implementation of A&F allows
517 for anonymous play, and that collection of player personal data would require both further
518 ethical approval as well as additional infrastructure (i.e. unique player names through codes or
519 accounts). Second, it should be stressed that in setting up A&F, we were careful not to steer
520 players to play to maximise any specific objective (**INCLUDE PHRASE ON GAME GOAL**

Oh yay! Though
I wonder if actually
with anything to
reference ...

522 **IN INTRO SCREENS**). Careful framing of the game (either in open play or in more limited
523 experimental settings) in terms of game objectives, and ensuring that this matches the objective
524 of the particular application, is vital to avoid goal bias.

525 **5.3 Concluding remarks**

526 Provided that the limitations outlined above are taken into account, and the given application is
527 carefully considered, we believe that the approach outlined here has great potential to advance
528 both the understanding and capability of complex socio-ecological models for natural resource
529 management. As previous work has already shown, games and in particular videogames provide
530 a great tool to increase public engagement with quantitative models, and we here highlight how
531 this could be extended to provide effective, flexible and powerful tools for data collection.

532 **6 Acknowledgements**

533 We thank all the trial players for their time and effort in testing A&F. Special thanks to five of
534 the trial players for providing specific feedback on which much of the Discussion for this paper
535 was based, and which will form a starting point for future improvements of the model-game
536 approach.

537 **6.1**

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