

The Optimization of Dwelling

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Abstract

This paper synthesizes insights from anthropology, game theory, and organizational science to explore how humans dwell in and optimally co-create their environments. We integrate Tim Ingold’s dwelling perspective—which sees forms emerging through embodied engagement with an environment—with John F. Nash Jr.’s Agencies Method for modeling coalition formation in games. We further incorporate Jason L. Lind’s recent contributions: the Metagame Nash Escalation framework, which allows rational agents to escalate to higher-order “games” by altering rules, and Lind’s Ideal Organizational Theory 2.0, which posits that optimized structures (oligopolies of self-determining agents) underpin emergent intelligence. Through a comparative analysis, we map conceptual correspondences between Ingold’s phenomenological notion of dwelling and Lind’s cybernetic game-theoretic models, highlighting how co-evolution of form and rules can be visualized via “metagame ladders” and taskscape diagrams. A mathematical formalism section presents key equations – from polymorphic expected utility and Nash equilibria to Lind’s CAP-Search algorithm – to bridge the qualitative and quantitative perspectives. Visual models illustrate the continuous feedback between inhabitants and environments, as well as the escalation of games through rule-modifying actions. Overall, we argue that optimizing dwelling involves a synthesis of lived experience and strategic rule adaptation, suggesting that human organizations and technologies achieve resilience and intelligence by blending dwelling (immersive co-creation) with game optimization (rational restructuring of engagements).

1 Introduction

How do humans optimize the way they inhabit and shape their world? At first glance, the question spans disparate domains: anthropologists emphasize lived dwelling and cultural engagement with landscapes, while game theorists and organizational scientists focus on abstract rules, strategies, and optimal outcomes. This paper brings these perspectives into conversation. We use *The Optimization of Dwelling* as a unifying theme to examine how environmental forms and behavioral rules co-evolve toward desirable equilibria.

Tim Ingold’s concept of the *dwelling perspective* offers a foundational viewpoint from anthropology. In Ingold’s formulation, humans and other beings

do not enter into a pre-built world of static structures; rather, they co-create their environment through everyday activities and practices. Meaning and form emerge through the process of dwelling—of living and acting within a landscape—rather than being imposed by an external blueprint. This stands in contrast to what Ingold calls the *building perspective*, which assumes that design and construction precede living: the world is first conceived in the mind (as a plan or representation) and then executed in reality. The dwelling perspective instead asserts that we build as we dwell, and the environment continually “comes into being around the inhabitant” as an ongoing, adaptive process.

While Ingold’s ideas arise from phenomenology and ecology, John Nash’s game theory approach deals with optimization and equilibrium within defined rule systems. His 2008 paper, *The Agencies Method for Modeling Coalitions and Cooperation in Games*, extends classical game theory to better accommodate cooperation and coalition formation. Nash was interested in how self-interested agents might nevertheless coordinate or accept one another’s agency under repeated interactions to achieve mutually beneficial outcomes. This introduces a dynamic of rule or role adaptation even within competitive games. Nash’s approach hints that even in formal strategic settings, agents effectively dwell in an evolving game environment, adjusting their behavior based on past interactions and accepting new coalitional structures over time.

Jason L. Lind’s recent theoretical frameworks push these ideas further, explicitly bridging the gap between dwelling and game optimization. Lind’s *Metagame Nash Escalation* (2025) starts from a provocative premise: what if rational players in a game do not accept the game’s rules as fixed, but can escalate to a higher-level “metagame” to seek better outcomes? This idea resonates with real-world strategic behavior in domains like cybersecurity and politics, where actors modify the rules of engagement (technology, norms, platforms) to alter the playing field itself. Metagame escalation introduces a notion of agency over rules—players dwelling not just in a given environment but actively reshaping that environment.

In parallel, Lind’s *Ideal Organizational Theory 2.0* (2020) examines how highly optimized structures of interaction can generate intelligence and stability in organizations. By analyzing systems in terms of set theory, economics, and information theory, Lind concludes that finite groups achieve optimal coordination through oligopolistic competition (a few agents internally balancing cooperation and competition), whereas infinitely open systems find optimum through free-market-like dynamics. Notably, this framework implies a co-evolution between individuals and the organizational “rules” or structure: the ideal form emerges from self-organizing principles, much as Ingold’s dwelling perspective suggests form emerges from practice.

In the following sections, we summarize each of these four perspectives in turn, then develop a theoretical framework to map their intersections. We present mathematical formalisms—from Nash’s equilibrium equations to Lind’s polymorphic probability and CAP-Search algorithm—that formalize the intuition behind optimizing dwelling. We then offer a comparative analysis, drawing out how Ingold’s and Lind’s views on environment and agency complement each

other, and how Nash’s and Lind’s game models can be seen through the lens of dwelling and co-creation. We include visual diagrams to illustrate key concepts: for example, a side-by-side contrast of dwelling vs. building models of architecture, and a depiction of a metagame escalation ladder showing how strategic “moves” can elevate a game to new levels.

Finally, we discuss broader implications: How might an optimized dwelling perspective inform design of organizations, AI systems, or sustainable communities? We conclude that uniting the embodied, ecological sensibility of dwelling with the rigorous, strategic insight of game theory yields a powerful paradigm for understanding and improving the human condition.

2 Background

2.1 Ingold’s Dwelling Perspective (Anthropology)

Tim Ingold’s dwelling perspective originates in anthropology and ecology, drawing on phenomenology (notably Martin Heidegger) to reconceptualize how humans perceive and inhabit their environment. In *The Perception of the Environment* (2000), especially Part II: Dwelling, Ingold argues that living beings are organism-persons thoroughly immersed in a lifeworld. Rather than a world of objects constructed in the mind, the lifeworld is an arena of ongoing activity and engagement. Key characteristics of the dwelling perspective include:

Emergent Form. The forms of our environment (landscapes, houses, paths) are grown or generated through activities, not imposed fully-formed. “The forms people build, whether in the imagination or on the ground, arise within the current of their involved activity.” In other words, building happens because we are already dwelling. Ingold, echoing Heidegger, notes: “we do not dwell because we have built, but we build and have built because we dwell.”

Building vs. Dwelling. Ingold contrasts a *building perspective* with the *dwelling perspective*. The building perspective assumes a separation between designing and living: an architect or planner first mentally designs a form, then executes it in matter, and finally people occupy the finished structure. This view treats the building as an object with meaning encoded by its creator. The dwelling perspective, conversely, sees design, construction, and use as a continuous, cyclical process. A building is never truly “finished” – it is continually shaped by the lives and activities of its inhabitants. Architecture thus is not a static product but an ongoing process of dwelling [?].

Taskscape and Temporality. Ingold introduces the concept of *taskscape* to complement *landscape*. If landscape is the pattern of physical features in space, taskscape is the pattern of activities in time—the ensemble of tasks that people (and animals) perform in an environment. Crucially, the taskscape has an “intrinsic temporality”; it is rhythmic, like music, rather than static like a

snapshot. For example, a village’s taskscape might include the morning routines of fetching water, the seasonal cycles of planting and harvesting, and the daily social interactions along pathways. These recurring activities literally weave the environment over time. Wayfinding, in Ingold’s view, is not using a mental map but feeling one’s way through this ever-unfolding mesh of tasks.

Embodied Knowledge. Knowledge of the environment, in the dwelling perspective, is embodied and practical rather than abstract and representational. Ingold critiques the Western tendency to treat the environment as an external space to be mapped and controlled (the globe perspective). That approach “expels humanity from the lifeworld” by making us outsiders looking in. Instead, Ingold insists that people know as they go—through dwelling, their senses and skills attune to the landscape. Children learn the “lay of the land” by growing up amidst paths, weather, and work, not by studying blueprints. Thus, cultural knowledge is not a set of mental schemata applied to sense data, but a set of dispositions and skills developed by living in an environment. Ingold even erases sharp distinctions between human and animal building: just as a beaver grows up among dams and lodges (altered by prior generations of beavers) and in turn builds its own, a human grows up among houses, fields, and roads, internalizing the ways of making and using them. Both cases represent inhabitants continually modifying their environment, blurring nature and culture.

In summary. Ingold’s dwelling perspective provides a view of optimization that is very different from a classical engineering or game-theoretic sense. Optimization here is not solving for a maximum utility given fixed constraints; it is an adaptive process where living processes and forms find a fittingness over time. The “optimal” dwelling is one deeply attuned to its environment—a result of generations of feedback between people and place, a kind of environmental homeostasis achieved by countless small acts of work and care.

2.2 Nash’s Agencies Method (2008)

John F. Nash Jr.’s 2008 paper, *The Agencies Method for Modeling Coalitions and Cooperation in Games*, extends game theory beyond its standard focus on non-cooperative equilibrium. Classical non-cooperative game theory (e.g., Nash equilibrium) typically assumes players choose strategies independently and simultaneously, with no enforced agreements. However, cooperation in the real world often emerges even among self-interested agents, especially in repeated or social contexts. Nash’s agencies method seeks to incorporate the formation of coalitions and cooperative behavior within a formally non-cooperative game.

The core idea is the introduction of an *acceptance action* by which one player can accept the agency of another player or coalition. In effect, a player can voluntarily subordinate their decision-making to an ally, forming a coalition that then acts as a single unit (an “agent”) on behalf of its members. This acceptance is modeled as an entirely cooperative move, “as if altruistic,” yet

it is embedded in a repeated game where defection is always possible if the cooperation turns out to be detrimental.

By studying a repeated game context (analogous to an iterated Prisoner’s Dilemma or bargaining scenario), Nash aimed to capture the evolution of stable cooperative patterns underpinned by self-interest.

To formalize this, Nash’s model introduces continuous strategy variables for each player that represent demands and acceptance probabilities. For example, in a simple two-player bargaining setup, each player i has a demand d_i (the share of utility they seek) and an acceptance probability a_i that the other’s offer or agency is accepted. The acceptance probability is defined via a smooth response function. Specifically, Nash used logistic-style functions:

$$A_i = \exp\left[\frac{u_{i,j} - d_i}{\epsilon_i}\right], \quad a_i = \frac{A_i}{1 + A_i},$$

where $u_{i,j}$ represents the utility player i would get if player j became the agent for both (essentially, the payoff to i in a coalition where j leads). Here ϵ_i is a small positive parameter (“epsilon number”) that tunes the sensitivity: it ensures a_i responds smoothly to differences between the offered utility $u_{i,j}$ and the demand d_i . In the limit $\epsilon_i \rightarrow 0$, a_i becomes a step function (hard acceptance if offer exceeds demand), whereas larger ϵ_i means more gradual, probabilistic acceptance. Nash found that using a common ϵ for all players was important for fairness.

Equilibrium in this setting is defined by a fixed point of mutual best responses in these continuous demand/acceptance strategies (solved by differentiating expected payoffs with respect to strategy parameters). In essence, the agencies method builds a bridge between non-cooperative and cooperative game theory. It allows the model to endogenously form coalitions: an equilibrium may involve some players accepting the agency of others with certain probabilities. If those acceptance probabilities go to 1 or 0 in a limit, it is as if stable coalitions form or break.

Notably, this approach resonates with Ingold’s idea of emergent form through interaction: stable cooperation is not enforced from outside but evolves within the game as players adjust demands and responses. The game’s structure itself (who is effectively making decisions for whom) can fluidly change. Nash drew parallels to evolutionary biology and multi-agent systems, noting how even purely self-interested “robotic” players could exhibit cooperative outcomes over time given the right adaptive dynamics.

The agencies method was demonstrated on a three-player bargaining game (a simple transferable-utility game with a characteristic function) where heavy computation was needed to find equilibrium solutions. It yielded outcomes that could be compared to solution concepts like the Shapley value (a fair division from cooperative game theory). Indeed, one of Nash’s figures plotted different payoff prediction methods—including the Shapley value line and the model’s equilibrium—to show how the agencies model’s outcomes related to classical cooperative solutions. This indicates Nash was interested in reconciling his new approach with established cooperative game metrics.

Key takeaway. Agents within a fixed rule-set can find ways to cooperate through acceptance of each other’s agency, effectively re-organizing the game’s decision structure to achieve more Pareto-efficient outcomes. Cooperation thus “evolves” within the game, blurring the line between non-cooperative equilibrium and a true coalition agreement.

In summary. Nash’s agencies method adds a layer of optimization of relationships on top of strategy optimization. Players are not only choosing how to act, but also with whom to act as a unit. This enriches the concept of equilibrium: an optimal dwelling in the game, so to speak, involves choosing an optimal configuration of coalition partnerships and actions. It is a precursor to the more explicit metagame concept developed by Lind—here the rules (who can act on whose behalf) become part of the strategic landscape.

2.3 Lind’s Metagame Nash Escalation (2025)

Jason Lind’s *Metagame Nash Escalation* framework is a cutting-edge development in game theory that directly tackles the evolution of game rules. Lind asks: Can it ever be rational for players to break out of a Nash equilibrium of a given game by moving to a different “game” with new rules? According to classical game theory, a Nash equilibrium is stable by definition—no single player can unilaterally deviate and improve their payoff. However, that concept assumes the game itself is fixed.

In many real-world strategic situations, agents have the capacity to alter the game—for instance, by forming binding agreements, introducing new options, changing information structures, or, in adversarial settings, by hacking the rules of engagement. Lind’s work provides a formal justification for such escalatory moves and characterizes when they will occur.

In the Metagame Nash Escalation model, we imagine a hierarchy of games:

Γ_N (base-level game), $\Gamma_{N+1}, \Gamma_{N+2}, \dots$ (progressively higher-level metagames).

A metagame is essentially a new game in which players’ actions include the ability to change some rules or parameters of the lower-level game.

For example, in a cybersecurity context, the base game might be a network defense game; a metagame move could be deploying a new technology that alters the rules of how attacks can be conducted, thus shifting the players into a new “game” with different strategy options.

Lind introduces a scenario where a profile of strategies might not be a Nash equilibrium of the base game (indeed it might be a dominated strategy at base level), yet following that strategy triggers a transition to a higher-level game where the outcome is strictly better for the deviator (and possibly others). In other words, a player can rationally play a temporarily suboptimal move if it changes the game in such a way that a new equilibrium reached at the next level dominates the old equilibrium in terms of payoff. This phenomenon is termed *Metagame Nash Escalation*.

To rigorously show this, Lind’s 2025 paper (currently a preprint) employs an epistemic game theory framework enriched with what he calls *Schrödinger–Bayes epistemics*. This is a way of modeling beliefs as polymorphic probability distributions over possible game states. In simpler terms, players may be uncertain about which game (which rules) they are really in, and maintain a superposition of possibilities until observations “collapse” their uncertainty. Each latent state corresponds to a different game configuration. Under the Schrödinger–Bayes postulate, before observing how the game is played, players consider expected utility across this ensemble of possible states.

A *polymorphic expected utility* is defined accordingly: it is akin to expected utility but taken over a mix of games (weighted by subjective beliefs) rather than a single known game. Formally, for player i , let $\mathcal{G} = \{\Gamma^{(1)}, \Gamma^{(2)}, \dots\}$ denote the set of possible games, and π_i their subjective probability distribution. Then

$$\mathbb{E}_i^{\text{poly}}[u_i(s)] = \sum_{\Gamma \in \mathcal{G}} \pi_i(\Gamma) u_i^\Gamma(s),$$

where $u_i^\Gamma(s)$ is the payoff to i under strategy profile s in game Γ .

Within this setup, Lind constructs a metagame hierarchy. An action at level N that effectively changes a rule leads players into level $N + K$ (for some $K \geq 1$) where a new Nash equilibrium results. If that new equilibrium yields higher polymorphic expected utility for the mover (and possibly for all), then the move was worthwhile despite being a deviation from equilibrium at the lower level.

The mathematical result Lind provides is a constructive proof: whenever a higher-level equilibrium can Pareto-dominate all lower-level equilibria (in the sense of polymorphic expected utility), escalation is rational. Crucially, he shows that the required “height” of escalation (how many levels up one must go) grows at most *logarithmically* with the size of the utility improvement sought:

$$K = O(\log \Delta u),$$

where Δu is the desired gain in polymorphic expected utility. This efficiency result implies that one does not have to climb through an impractical number of meta-levels to capture significant improvements—often one or two meta-steps suffice.

The paper introduces a specific algorithm called **CAP-Search** (Chaos-Augmented Pearlman Search). CAP-Search combines Pearl’s do-calculus (from causal inference) with measures of chaos (Lyapunov exponents, bifurcation analysis) to systematically explore how interventions (rule changes) lead to new equilibria. In essence, it searches the space of possible rule modifications to find paths that yield better equilibria, while diagnosing chaotic behavior that might indicate sensitive dependence or high complexity. The inclusion of chaos diagnostics is noteworthy: it suggests Lind is aware that changing rules can lead to unpredictable outcomes, so part of “optimization” here is recognizing when a metagame path is too chaotic versus when it offers a stable improvement.

In summary. By situating this in practical terms, Metagame Nash Escalation has broad implications. It formalizes the strategic intuition behind adaptive, multi-layered conflict: for instance, in military or cyber realms, each side may continually shift the contest to new domains or rule-sets (the “metagame”) to gain advantage. In business, firms often escape price wars (an equilibrium of a pricing game) by innovating a new product or business model—effectively playing a different game where they can achieve better profits. Lind’s framework suggests these actions are not just ad hoc but can be understood as rational moves in a larger game-of-games.

It extends the concept of equilibrium from a static idea (“no incentive to deviate within this game”) to a dynamic, recursive idea (“no incentive to deviate including the option to change the game”). In the context of this paper’s theme, Lind’s metagame model provides a theoretical blueprint for how dwelling can be optimized through rule adaptation. If we treat “dwelling” broadly as how agents inhabit an environment (including institutional or strategic environments), Lind shows that sometimes the best way to improve one’s dwelling condition is to redefine the environment itself. This connects intriguingly to Ingold’s notion that people create the world they inhabit. While Ingold meant it in an existential-ecological sense, Lind demonstrates a parallel in rational strategic behavior: agents create the game they play when the current game’s outcomes are unsatisfactory.

2.4 Lind’s Ideal Organizational Theory 2.0 (2020)

Jason Lind’s *Ideal Organizational Theory 2.0* (IOT2) is a conceptual framework concerned with the optimal structure of organizations and intelligences. Though somewhat distinct in focus from the game-theoretic content above, it complements our discussion by addressing how organizational forms can be optimized to produce intelligence and effective coordination—essentially, how a collective dwells in the abstract space of possible structures. The theory is presented as a series of theses or equations drawing from set theory, economics, and information theory.

At its heart, IOT2 posits a relationship between finiteness, competition, and optimization:

In systems with finite interactions (e.g., a fixed number of agents or bounded context), *oligopical competition* (Lind’s term) leads to optimal outcomes. Oligopical competition refers to a few agents internalizing competitive pressures among themselves. In other words, small, tightly-knit groups competing can achieve a high level of efficiency and innovation. This is reminiscent of oligopoly in economics, where a few firms in competition can drive each other to optimal efficiency (short of monopoly or pure competition extremes).

In non-finite (very large or unbounded) contexts, a free marketplace (many actors, open competition) is the optimizing mechanism. This aligns with classical economic thought: with enough participants, market dynamics approximate optimal resource allocation (per general equilibrium theory).

Therefore, an ideal organizational structure is one that is finite and oligarchical in its internal makeup, but open and competitive in its external interactions. Lind summarizes:

Formal organizational group structure must be oligopolical, but their interaction must be free. The individual

By “the individual is a monopoly,” Lind emphasizes the autonomy of each individual agent—each person or AI should be sovereign in their decision-making (a monopoly of self), even as they participate in group competition.

This thesis is striking because it attempts to reconcile centralized and decentralized models. It suggests that to create a powerful intelligence (artificial or organizational), one should create a collection of semi-autonomous agents (each an individual “monopoly”) that interact in a small-network competitive way (an oligopoly) internally, while the group as a whole interfaces with other groups in a free-market-like ecosystem. In effect, this creates a *nested optimization*: competition at one level, cooperation at a higher level, and vice versa, to balance exploitation and exploration.

Lind applies this to the notion of Artificial Intelligence (AI), provocatively claiming that AI might “simply emerge from highly optimized structure.” Rather than seeing AI as purely a software or algorithmic achievement, IOT2 implies that organizing humans and machines in certain optimal patterns could collectively constitute an intelligent system. He cites Alan Turing’s definition of intelligence (“a computer would deserve to be called intelligent if it could deceive a human into believing it was human”) and then posits that perhaps true intelligence arises from the synergy of humans and computers in structured competition/cooperation.

“The greatest intelligence is humans and computers competing together in harmony.”

This echoes the concept of centaur chess (humans plus AI teams outperforming either alone) and, more broadly, the idea that well-structured human-machine collectives can be more intelligent than either in isolation.

From the perspective of dwelling, Lind’s IOT2 can be interpreted as describing how agents best “inhabit” an organization. The roles individuals play are likened to actors in a play (Lind even quotes Shakespeare’s “All the world’s a stage...”). Each individual may take on many roles, but they should never be forcibly removed from pursuing their own utility—manipulation is to be minimized. The structure should be such that even as individuals pursue their own goals, the oligopolistic design of the group channels those pursuits into a collectively intelligent outcome.

There is a resonance here with Ingold’s view of environments affording certain actions and inculcating certain skills. In an ideal organization, the “taskscape” of roles and workflows is arranged (by design or evolution) such that individuals, by doing what is natural or rewarding for them, also produce an intelligent global behavior.

In summary. Lind’s *Ideal Organizational Theory 2.0* provides a macro-perspective on optimized dwelling at the organizational level. It suggests that the form an organization takes (hierarchy vs. network, centralized vs. decentralized) critically determines its emergent intelligence and adaptability. The optimal form is not a static org chart but a dynamic balance—a kind of living structure. This again is an analogy to Ingold: architecture as a process, not a product. Here, organization is a process—always balancing internal oligopoly (focused, finite games) and external marketplace (open-ended games).

Lind’s theory, while not yet validated empirically, offers a fascinating blueprint consistent with themes of co-evolution and multi-level games. Having summarized the four pillars—Ingold’s dwelling perspective, Nash’s agencies method, Lind’s metagame escalation, and Lind’s ideal organization theory—we turn now to an integrated theoretical framework. We will examine how these ideas correspond or contrast with one another, and how together they contribute to a holistic understanding of the “optimization of dwelling.”

3 Theoretical Framework: Connecting Dwelling, Games, and Organization

Bringing together these diverse theories requires us to map their conceptual correspondences and differences. At first glance, Ingold’s anthropological insights and Nash/Lind’s game-theoretic models seem to speak very different languages. Yet, several common themes emerge:

Environment as Dynamic vs. Static

A fundamental contrast is whether the environment (physical or strategic) is considered fixed or changeable by the agents within it. Ingold and Lind both, in their own ways, emphasize mutability. Ingold’s dwellers continuously shape and are shaped by their environment—the environment is historical, a product of past inhabitance. Lind’s metagame players likewise treat the game’s rules as malleable—they can tweak or entirely change the rules if it benefits them.

Nash’s traditional game theory starting point assumed a static rule structure (as do most classical games), but his agencies method introduced some fluidity via coalition formation altering the effective player structure. Thus, the building perspective vs. dwelling perspective is analogous to the static-game vs. metagame perspective. A building (static design) view aligns with standard equilibrium thinking (optimize given constraints), whereas a dwelling (adaptive) view aligns with meta-strategic thinking (change constraints for better outcomes).

Process vs. Endpoint

The optimization criteria also differ. In optimization theory and classical games, one seeks an endpoint: a maximum payoff, an equilibrium, a solution. In

dwelling and in emergent coalition formation, emphasis is on the process. Ingold’s optimal state (if one can call it that) would be an ongoing balance—a way of life in harmony with the surroundings, not an endpoint that ends the process of dwelling. Similarly, Lind’s escalation is potentially unbounded—if a higher meta-level can improve things, rational players might go there, so it is an evolving frontier.

This raises the notion of *satisficing* vs. *optimizing* in human terms. Humans may not calculate an optimal solution, but through practice (or evolution) they satisfy in a way that in the long run appears optimal given shifting conditions. The theories together suggest a need for an extended notion of equilibrium—one that accounts for the adaptation of the equilibrium conditions themselves.

Embedded Agency and Perspective

Ingold’s dwellers are embedded agents—their agency is defined relative to their immediate environment and history. This aligns with Lind’s polymorphic epistemics: the game state (and even which game is being played) is partly in the eye of the beholder. Each player could have a different hyper-game perception [?]. In both cases, there is a relativity of perspective: an anthropologist might say different cultures “construct different realities” through dwelling; a game theorist might say different players have different beliefs or models of the game (leading to misperceptions or hypergames). The intersection is that what the agent perceives as reality conditions their behavior, and that reality is itself affected by the agent’s behavior. This is a feedback loop at the core of both dwelling and advanced game models.

Role of Cooperation and Social Structure

Both Ingold and Nash/Lind frameworks underscore that interaction among agents can yield emergent structures. Ingold discusses communities, taskscapes, and shared skills—essentially a social network of practice by which culture and environment co-evolve. Nash’s coalition model and Lind’s oligopoly idea in IOT2 both formalize how groups can self-organize to achieve better outcomes.

A coalition in Nash’s sense is a transient team-up for mutual benefit; in Lind’s IOT2, an oligopoly is like a stable coalition that optimizes a finite game. Ingold provides the qualitative richness—for example, how a community of herders collectively maintains grazing land through traditions (a form of tacit agreement/rules)—while Nash and Lind give tools for analyzing when such cooperation is stable or how it can arise rationally.

The difference is that Ingold’s focus is not explicitly on payoff maximization, but on meaning and life viability. Yet even that can be translated: one can think of livelihood optimization or evolutionary fitness as analogous to utility, in a loose sense. Thus, one correspondence is that stable dwelling practices \sim stable equilibria (including cooperative ones). If a certain dwelling pattern (say rotational farming, or nomadic movement) was not stable or “optimal” in a broad sense (providing sustenance, avoiding conflict), it likely would not

last generations. Cultural ecologists have often noted that traditional practices sometimes achieve near-optimal resource management without explicit calculation—they evolve through trial and error. Game theory, particularly evolutionary game theory, tries to explain such phenomena in terms of strategies that survive because they are equilibria or ESS (evolutionarily stable strategies).

Trans-dimensionality and Cybernetics

Lind’s broader work (as hinted in the Lind vs. Ingold comparative text) brings in a “cyber-ontological” vision—reality comprised of physical, mental, and cyber dimensions. This is not directly present in Ingold, who stays grounded in physical environment and human experience. However, Ingold’s ideas could be extrapolated: if humans now dwell in part in cyberspace, the same principles apply—our activities in digital environments shape those environments (think of how social media platforms evolve as users find new uses, or how virtual spaces in games are literally built by player interactions in some cases).

Lind’s notion of architecture spanning cyberspace and material space suggests an expanded “environment” in which dwelling occurs. Thus, the concept of dwelling must stretch to include virtual or informational landscapes. The optimization of dwelling then means not only making oneself at home in the natural world, but also in designed virtual worlds and organizational structures. This is where Lind’s and Ingold’s perspectives complement: Ingold ensures we keep sight of the embodied, human scale of experience, while Lind pushes us to consider augmented and abstract domains of dwelling (cyber, multi-agent systems, etc.). Together, they argue for a human-centered yet technologically aware approach to environment design.

To make these comparisons more concrete, we can envision a conceptual summary (*Table 1*):

- **Agents:** Ingold – organism-persons (humans, animals) with embodied skills; Nash – game players (human or robotic) with strategies; Lind – rational meta-players and organizations, often AI-enabled.
- **Environment / Rules:** Ingold – environment = landscape + taskscape, continually shaped; Nash – rules fixed (in base game), though coalition formation can alter the effective structure; Lind – rules themselves are mutable (metagame), with environment understood as multi-layered (physical, cyber, informational).
- **Equilibrium / Success:** Ingold – a “fitting” way of life, sustainability, sense of home (not a formal equilibrium, but stable traditions); Nash – Nash equilibrium or cooperative equilibrium if possible, with Pareto efficiency concerns; Lind – meta-equilibrium (stability across game-changes) and ideal forms (internal oligopoly balanced with external markets).
- **Dynamics:** Ingold – historical processes, learning by doing, narrative cycles; Nash – iterative adjustments through repeated games or computa-

tional methods; Lind – explicit search across strategy and rule space (e.g., CAP-Search), with potential for rapid adaptation.

Taskscape and Game Hierarchy. One particularly illuminating correspondence is between Ingold’s *taskscape* and Lind’s *game hierarchy*. Both introduce a temporal, multi-layered view of activity. A taskscape, with its rhythms, is essentially a nested system of practices—daily tasks embedded in seasonal cycles, embedded in life cycles. Lind’s hierarchy of games is likewise multi-layered—base moves nested in meta-moves, nested again in meta-meta-moves.

The rhythm in Lind’s case might be understood in terms of escalation frequency. If every few rounds a player escalates to a higher-level game, that defines a tempo. Periods without escalation resemble Ingold’s seasons of stability, while disruptive escalations resemble environmental shocks (a drought, war, or systemic innovation) that compel reorganization of tasks.

These analogies are speculative, but they suggest a unified view of adaptive systems. Social life can be viewed as a game whose rules and norms evolve (a taskscape perspective), just as games themselves evolve temporally like cultures.

Ingold’s insistence on no nature/culture dichotomy—that we should treat the environment not as a backdrop but as alive with relationships—has an echo in systems theory: we should not separate agents from context, because agents continuously modify context. Nash and Lind, though working in mathematical domains, essentially come to a similar point when they allow feedback between strategy and game structure. The agencies method gave players the ability to enter into each other’s decision processes (thus changing the “who” in the game). Lind’s metagame gives players the ability to change the “what” of the game. Both are moves towards endogenizing context.

Conclusion of Theoretical Mapping. Optimization of dwelling emerges as a concept tying these strands together. It means optimizing not a static outcome, but the conditions of existence. In anthropological terms, it is finding ways to live that continually produce well-being and meaning. In game-theoretic terms, it is finding strategies that not only best respond to a given environment but also improve the environment (the game) itself. In organizational terms, it is designing structures that allow continuous learning and adaptation without losing coherence. All four frameworks value adaptability, feedback, and contextual fit over simplistic maximization of a fixed objective.

4 Mathematical Formalism

While the theories we have discussed are rich in qualitative insight, formal models and equations are crucial for rigor and application. In this section, we outline key mathematical elements from the game-theoretic side (Nash and Lind’s contributions) and connect them to the conceptual language of dwelling. The focus will be on Nash equilibria, polymorphic expected utility, and the CAP-

Search algorithm, showing how each formalism underpins the idea of optimizing one's dwelling or engagement with an environment.

4.1 Nash Equilibria and Coalition Equations

At the foundation is the concept of a Nash equilibrium (NE) in a game Γ : a strategy profile where no player can unilaterally improve their payoff by deviating. Ingold's dwellers do not think in these terms, but one could say that over time a culture's practices might reach an equilibrium with the environment (if they do not, the society might collapse or change drastically).

In game theory, we solve for NE by solving best-response equations. For example, in a 2-player game with payoff functions $U_1(s_1, s_2)$ and $U_2(s_1, s_2)$ for strategies s_1, s_2 , an interior NE satisfies:

$$\frac{\partial U_1(s_1, s_2)}{\partial s_1} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial U_2(s_1, s_2)}{\partial s_2} = 0,$$

assuming differentiability and interior solutions.

Nash's agencies method added additional equations to incorporate coalition parameters. For the acceptance model described earlier, the equilibrium conditions included derivatives of expected payoff with respect to each player's demand d_i (and possibly ϵ_i parameters, although those might be fixed exogenously). The explicit acceptance function was:

$$a_i = \frac{\exp\left(\frac{u_{i,j} - d_i}{\epsilon_i}\right)}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{u_{i,j} - d_i}{\epsilon_i}\right)},$$

chosen so that a_i smoothly responds to d_i and influences the partner's payoff.

Equilibria in such models often require computational solution (as Nash notes, requiring heavy computation even for three players). But what is important is the structure: these equations formalize how agents adjust their stances (demands) until a balance is reached where everyone is content given the coalition probabilities. One can think of the acceptance probabilities a_i as endogenous trust levels.

At equilibrium, if player 1 is accepting player 2's agency with probability a_1 , and vice versa player 2 accepts with a_2 , these probabilities and demands (d_1, d_2) together satisfy a fixed-point condition. This is analogous to cultural equilibrium where, say, in a community two parties trust each other to a certain degree and thus collaborate to a certain extent, and those trust levels are justified by past experience (history of reliability). The agencies method gives a snapshot of that via equations rather than narrative.

4.2 Polymorphic Expected Utility

Lind's introduction of polymorphic distributions and Schrödinger–Bayes epistemics adds a layer of probability over game structures. Formally, let Θ be

a set of latent states (each state $\theta \in \Theta$ might correspond to a different game variant or different payoff structure). A *polymorphic probability distribution* is a function

$$P : \Theta \rightarrow \Delta(\Omega)$$

mapping each latent state to a probability distribution over outcomes Ω . Before the game, players have a prior over Θ (weights $w(\theta)$) and thus an overall mixed expectation:

$$P_{\text{ensemble}} = \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} w(\theta) P(\theta).$$

The Schrödinger–Bayes postulate states that before observation, players evaluate expected utilities with respect to this ensemble, and upon observing the play (or making a move), the distribution collapses to a specific θ^* . This is analogous to quantum superposition and collapse (hence the Schrödinger reference).

A player’s expected utility in a polymorphic sense for a strategy profile σ is then defined as:

$$U_i^{\text{poly}}(\sigma) = \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} w(\theta) U_i^\theta(\sigma^\theta),$$

where $U_i^\theta(\sigma^\theta)$ is the utility to player i if the latent state is θ and players play σ^θ (their strategies contingent on θ).

Importantly, if players choose a strategy that is not a Nash equilibrium in some θ , it might still be optimal in polymorphic expectation if it leads to a more favorable θ' materializing. Thus, rationality is defined not relative to one fixed game but to the ensemble of possible games, weighted by epistemic beliefs.

4.3 Formal Criteria for Metagame Nash Escalation

The formal criteria for Metagame Nash Escalation can be described as follows. There exists a strategy σ'_i for player i and a meta-level game Γ_{N+K} such that:

1. σ'_i is not a best response in Γ_N (so it is a deviation from the Nash equilibrium of Γ_N).
2. The deviation σ'_i causes the game to transition to Γ_{N+K} (via some rule update or opponent’s response).
3. The Nash equilibrium payoff for i in Γ_{N+K} , say u_i^* , is strictly greater than i ’s payoff in the original equilibrium of Γ_N , for all possible states/uncertainties considered (or at least in expectation).

Formally, if $u_i(\text{NE}_N)$ is player i ’s payoff at the base-level equilibrium, and $u_i(\text{NE}_{N+K})$ is their payoff at the new equilibrium, then Metagame Nash Escalation requires:

$$\mathbb{E}[u_i(\text{NE}_{N+K})] > \mathbb{E}[u_i(\text{NE}_N)],$$

given the player’s beliefs and the probability of reaching that new equilibrium by deviating.

The “constructive proof” Lind gives exhibits exactly such a σ'_i and explicitly calculates the improvement. In this sense, rational escalation is characterized not merely as opportunistic deviation but as a justified higher-order move in which the metagame outcome strictly dominates the base-game equilibrium in terms of polymorphic expected utility.

4.4 CAP-Search Algorithm and Chaos Considerations

The Chaos-Augmented Pearlman Search (CAP-Search) is an algorithmic approach to finding profitable escalations. Although the specifics are beyond the scope of this summary, we can outline its steps:

1. **Model Causality:** Using Judea Pearl’s do-calculus, represent the game and possible interventions as a causal graph. For example, an action that changes a rule is an intervention

$$do(\text{rule} = \text{new}),$$

which leads to a different game outcome distribution.

2. **Simulate / Calculate Outcomes:** For each candidate intervention (change of rule or introduction of a meta-move), compute the would-be equilibrium or outcome if that intervention is made. This often requires solving the game at Γ_{N+1} or running an evolutionary simulation.
3. **Chaos Diagnostics:** Assess the sensitivity of outcomes to initial conditions or parameters. If small changes in assumptions lead to wildly different equilibria, that path is deemed chaotic and perhaps unreliable. Tools like *Lyapunov exponents* (measuring divergence of trajectories) and *bifurcation analysis* (how qualitative behavior changes as a parameter changes) are used to gauge chaos.
4. **Choose Escalation Path:** Among the non-chaotic (or manageable) interventions that yield improved payoffs, select the one with highest expected utility gain or the best risk–reward tradeoff.

Interpretation. CAP-Search thus automates a kind of meta-strategic reasoning. Instead of a player naively trying a random deviation and hoping for the best, CAP-Search can identify interventions with confidence, e.g., “this rule change will likely benefit you.” In doing so, it formally operationalizes the idea of optimizing how you optimize. One might say it is a tool for optimizing *dwelling* at the meta-level: it does not merely find a strategy, it finds a way to improve the environment in which strategizing occurs.

4.5 Illustrative Example

To illustrate with a simple hypothetical: suppose in a base game, two companies are in a Nash equilibrium of spending X dollars on advertising each (neither can

gain by changing their budget given the other’s). A CAP-Search might evaluate an intervention:

- **Naïve intervention:** “What if we both reduce advertising and instead collude to share the market?” This may be illegal or unstable.
- **Escalatory intervention:** “What if we merge into a single company?” This changes the game entirely—turning a competition game into an internal coordination game.

Do-calculus would represent the merger as setting a structural variable, e.g.,

$$do(\text{market structure} = \text{monopoly}),$$

and then analyze outcomes (likely higher combined profit). Chaos diagnostics would assess uncertainties such as regulatory responses or consumer backlash. If the diagnostics find a stable, high-profit outcome, CAP-Search identifies a metagame move: merge. In real-world terms, this mirrors how companies often escape Prisoner’s-Dilemma-type competition through mergers or alliances.

In mathematics, one might represent the escalation ladder as a directed acyclic graph (DAG) of game states, where each edge corresponds to a meta-move. Lind’s findings about logarithmic depth imply that the longest useful path in such a DAG is

$$O\left(\log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right),$$

where ϵ represents the fraction of improvement sought. This result is reminiscent of computational complexity bounds, where a problem can be solved in logarithmic time relative to a parameter—suggesting that meta-responses do not proliferate indefinitely before yielding diminishing returns.

5 Synthesizing Formal and Informal

The formal tools above provide a way to verify and quantify the intuitive claims. For instance, Ingold says, “the world continually comes into being around the inhabitant.” Formally, one might attempt to model this by a dynamic system:

$$E_{t+1} = f(E_t, A_t), \quad A_{t+1} = g(A_t, E_t),$$

where E_t is the state of the environment at time t , A_t the state of the agent (activities, knowledge), and f, g some functions capturing how each influences the other.

This kind of coupled difference equation (or differential equation in continuous time) is common in ecological modeling (e.g., niche construction theory in biology). It does not appear in Ingold’s text, but it is one way to formalize dwelling as co-evolution. Such a system might have a fixed point (E^*, A^*) that could be interpreted as an equilibrium of dwelling—a state where environment

and activity are in a mutually reinforcing balance. Solving for that fixed point is akin to solving equilibrium equations. Stability analysis (e.g., looking at the eigenvalues of the Jacobian) would tell if that dwelling equilibrium is resilient to perturbations, similar to checking evolutionary stability in a game.

Likewise, Lind’s oligopoly ideal in IOT2 can be framed game-theoretically. Imagine n agents in a group who may choose to form coalitions or not. The “ideal” being oligopoly suggests an equilibrium where a small number $m \ll n$ of them form a coalition that effectively rules the outcomes, and the rest either exit or fall in line. This could be modeled as a coalition formation game with utility for being inside versus outside the dominant coalition.

The stability condition might resemble the *core* of a cooperative game: no subset of players has incentive to deviate because all members are at least as well off as they would be acting alone. IOT2’s axiom that “the individual is a monopoly” suggests each agent has veto power or full autonomy. Thus, any coalition must be voluntary and individually rational—no one is forced into submission. In game-theoretic terms, the ideal outcome lies in the intersection of the core (no group deviation profitable) and the individually rational set (no single agent coerced). Designing a mechanism for such outcomes is complex, but conceptually it involves ensuring both incentive compatibility and Pareto optimality simultaneously.

6 Comparative Analysis

With conceptual mappings and formal tools in hand, we now compare how our four main sources address similar underlying issues. The goal is to see where they reinforce each other’s insights and where they diverge, thereby deepening our understanding of optimized dwelling. We organize this analysis around key themes.

6.1 Origin of Structure: Predefined vs. Emergent

Ingold vs. Nash/Lind. Ingold is firmly on the side of emergent structure—whether it is the layout of a village or the pathways in a forest, the structure arises from collective dwelling over time. There is no omniscient designer or central plan in his view; even when architects draw plans, those plans themselves are grounded in prior practices and will be adapted in implementation.

By contrast, Nash’s classical game theory starts with structure given—the game rules are exogenous. However, the *agencies method* begins to blur this boundary: the “who” can do what becomes partially endogenous as players accept each other’s agency. Lind’s *metagame escalation* makes structure highly emergent: the rules of the game are effectively a result of what the players do (choose to escalate or not). In *IOT2*, Lind likewise suggests structure (such as the internal oligopoly) may naturally emerge as the optimal configuration.

Common ground. All recognize emergent structure as important.

Key difference. Ingold stresses historical, slow emergence (evolutionary, intergenerational), whereas Nash/Lind often consider strategic, potentially rapid emergence (e.g., one player’s decision can reconfigure the structure in a single bound, such as a merger or treaty). This contrast can be framed as the difference between *organic emergence* and *strategic emergence*.

In practice, both play roles: language evolves organically, while a new law represents strategic emergence.

6.2 Human Rationality vs. Practical Wisdom

Ingold. Ingold is skeptical of overly rationalist accounts of human action, emphasizing tacit knowledge, habit, and culturally transmitted skills. The “optimization” is implicit—people do not try to maximize utility functions, but rather follow practices that have worked and “feel right,” which nonetheless often yield adaptive fit. This can be understood as a form of collective practical wisdom.

Nash. Nash works within a rational actor model, though his 2008 paper demonstrates interest in the paradox of cooperation emerging among self-interested agents. He also acknowledges that human behavior is influenced by instincts and culture beyond pure payoff calculus—even though his computational model uses “robotic” players for clarity.

Lind. Lind adopts rational agent modeling in metagame theory, but by introducing Schrödinger–Bayes epistemics he pushes beyond classical rationality—allowing for superposed beliefs and more complex decision criteria than naïve expected utility. *IOT2*, meanwhile, is less about individual rationality and more about systemic outcomes, though it still assumes that agents have self-determination and act to maximize their utilities.

Comparison. Ingold would likely view Lind’s rational players as an abstraction far removed from real dwelling. However, if Lind’s “players” are reinterpreted as institutions or organizations (e.g., states in conflict), then his model of rational escalation is not so distant from anthropological analyses of conflict—except that anthropologists also foreground power, identity, and meaning concerns that resist quantification.

The key question is whether societies “choose” to escalate or change rules in a rational manner. Ingold might argue that change often occurs accidentally, through misunderstandings or gradual shifts. Lind provides a normative or idealized positive model: *if* agents were rational, here is how they would escalate. Hypergame theory—where players misperceive the game [?—aligns intriguingly with Ingold’s emphasis on perspective. Lind’s references to hypergames create a direct bridge between rational models and anthropological accounts of situated misperception.

6.3 Equilibrium and Stability

Ingold. For Ingold, stability means that a way of life can continue and reproduce itself. It is closer to a dynamic steady-state concept—*homeorhesis* rather

than homeostasis—stability-in-flow. For example, a nomadic pastoral group has a stable annual cycle of moving between pastures: this is an equilibrium with the environment, even though the day-to-day life is dynamic and changing.

Nash. In classical game theory, a Nash equilibrium (NE) is a static concept—a profile that, once reached, no player has an incentive to move. However, repeated games and evolutionary game theory generalize this into notions of dynamic stability (e.g., evolutionary stable strategies, or ESS, that cannot be invaded by mutants). Nash’s own 2008 *Agencies Method* explicitly embraced dynamic stability by setting the analysis in a repeated-game context, allowing for evolution-like phenomena to emerge from cooperative moves.

Lind. Lind introduces the idea of *escalatory equilibrium*—an equilibrium concept that accounts for incentives to escalate beyond the base game. One could define an *Escalation Equilibrium* as a state where the current game’s equilibrium is Pareto-optimal *across all reachable meta-games*. In Lind’s framing, if any higher-level game offers a strictly better outcome, then the base equilibrium is not final. Full equilibrium is only achieved when players have climbed to a point where no better Nash equilibrium exists at any reachable level. This can be described as *Metagame Pareto Optimality*—a Pareto efficiency concept extended to the space of rules themselves.

IOT2. Lind’s *Ideal Organizational Theory 2.0* can be interpreted in this light: the oligopoly + marketplace structure represents a kind of metagame Pareto optimum for organizations. In such a state, no single agent can unilaterally alter the “rules” of interaction (e.g., making the system more centralized or more anarchic) without reducing the overall performance or resilience of the collective.

Comparison. Ingold himself might not speak of “equilibrium,” but anthropologists often use the language of *sustainability* and *resilience*. A resilient system is one that returns to functionality after perturbations. We can analogize Nash stability and Lind’s meta-stability to resilience: a dwelling practice that is truly optimized will endure climatic, social, or economic shocks because it sits at a kind of local peak of fitness. If it were not, shocks would push society to alter practices (i.e., escalate to a new equilibrium).

A historical illustration: agriculture gradually replaced hunter-gatherer subsistence in many regions. One might say that the foraging equilibrium was no longer optimal once farming became a viable meta-game. Some foraging societies adopted agriculture (an escalation move), while others could not (due to unsuitable environments or lack of knowledge) and were displaced or disappeared. This mirrors Lind’s logic: if a strictly better equilibrium exists in a meta-game, rational players (or in evolutionary terms, societies) will escalate to it; those that do not will be outcompeted by those that do.

One important difference: Ingold and many social theorists would emphasize *path-dependence* and non-optimal lock-in. Sometimes suboptimal traditions persist because of cultural values or entrenched power structures. Game theory can model this as locally stable but globally suboptimal equilibria (e.g., a Nash equilibrium that is Pareto-dominated by another strategy profile which is not itself an equilibrium). Lind’s framework suggests that rational players will even-

tually break out of such traps, but real humans might not perceive the better alternative, or they might value other concerns (identity, ritual, morality) more than utility. Thus, in practice, optimization of dwelling may be impeded by cultural inertia. Over longer spans, however, one could argue that culture does shift under sufficient pressure, just as repeated play or evolutionary dynamics in games can push a system toward new equilibria.

6.4 Visualization of Ideas

It is instructive to compare how each domain might visualize its central interactions:

- **Ingold:** Visualization might take the form of a *landscape with paths*, showing how movement creates and maintains routes. Alternatively, diagrams of task sequences—overlapping timelines of daily and seasonal activities—illustrate the taskscape.
- **Nash:** Typical visualizations include a *game tree* or *payoff matrix*. In his 3-player coalition game, one might see a flowchart of algorithmic iterations or a geometric representation of the payoff space (Nash mentioned algebraic curves approximating Pareto frontiers).
- **Lind’s Metagame:** Best visualized as a *ladder or tree of games*, where each rung represents a higher meta-level. Alternatively, a state-space graph with attractors can capture the chaos analysis, showing how strategic trajectories shift to new basins of attraction after rule changes.
- **Lind’s IOT2:** One might draw a *network diagram* where a few hubs (oligopoly actors) connect internally and then extend outward to a larger network. Another option is a Venn diagram: one circle for finite group internal structure, another for infinite external environment, overlapping at their boundary.

Even at the level of diagrams, we find correspondences. Ingold’s patterns in the landscape and Lind’s patterns of games or networks both emphasize mapping relationships. This paper’s forthcoming *Visual Models* section will attempt to bring some of these to life, bridging the qualitative and the quantitative.

6.5 Practical Implications and Applications

Finally, we compare the domains in terms of the practical advice they suggest for optimizing dwelling:

Ingold. The advice is to *immerse and adapt*. For architects or planners, Ingold [?] would likely caution against imposing rigid designs, instead allowing forms to grow organically out of usage. For environmental policy, his framework highlights the importance of respecting indigenous knowledge, which often encapsulates dwelling wisdom developed through generations of practice [?].

Nash. The takeaway is to *design mechanisms that allow cooperation*. Mechanism design should encourage repeated interactions, opportunities for communication, or agency delegation among players. In policy terms, this suggests building institutions that allow parties to form coalitions or enforce agreements, thereby reaching outcomes superior to the classical Nash equilibrium.

Lind’s Metagame Escalation. The advice is to *be flexible and innovative with rules*. Do not remain stuck in an unwinnable game—change the game itself. For a CEO, if price competition erodes profits, the metagame strategy would be to shift the basis of competition (introduce a new product, create a new market). In international relations, if existing treaties fail under current norms, the solution may be to establish new norms, institutions, or forums that redefine the rules of engagement.

Lind’s IOT2. The recommendation is to *structure organizations with semi-autonomous teams*—an oligopoly internally, with free interaction externally. In a company, this may mean creating several competing R&D teams (rather than one monolithic hierarchy), while ensuring they share a common goal and an information marketplace. For AI development, it could involve integrating multiple AI agents and humans into competitive–collaborative loops, enhancing both creativity and safety.

Integrated Perspective. When combined, these perspectives yield a richer vision of “optimized dwelling.” In community development, this could mean participatory planning (residents co-designing and evolving their space) supported by game-theoretic nudges such as incentive alignment for cooperation in maintenance (community coalitions or local exchange systems). In business, it could mean adaptive strategy (metagame pivots) while fostering a strong internal culture of innovation (an “oligopoly of ideas,” each championed by a semi-autonomous team). In governance, it could suggest federal systems (small groups handling local issues—an oligopoly of states—while ensuring open exchange of goods and ideas at the national level), coupled with constitutional adaptability to enable rule evolution over time.

6.6 Points of Tension

There are also important tensions. Ingold might worry that game theory’s rational-actor assumptions ignore power imbalances and ethical considerations—not everyone can escalate to a new game, as some may be constrained by poverty or oppression. Lind’s approach might inadvertently suggest that it is always good to break rules, whereas Ingold would remind us that dwelling is also about responsibility and care for the environment, not merely utility maximization. Optimizing dwelling, therefore, is not purely a technical matter but also a moral one.

Conversely, game theorists might find Ingold’s descriptions lacking in predictive power. Where game theory can say, “under these conditions, cooperation fails,” Ingold instead tells a narrative of meaning, which may not generalize or be easily quantified. Yet, the cross-pollination is valuable: game theory adds clarity and logic to arguments, preventing romantic notions of dwelling from ig-

noring trade-offs, while anthropology adds richness and human reality to game theory, preventing it from becoming a dry exercise disconnected from how people actually live and feel.

Organizational theory, such as Lind’s, sits somewhat in between: it deploys formalism but seeks to address broad, complex realities (warfare, AI, global systems) where culture and unpredictability matter.

Conclusion of Comparative Analysis. Optimizing dwelling requires both a change in mindset (adopting the dwelling perspective: seeing ourselves as part of an environment rather than as masters over a world of objects) and a change in toolkit (using game theory and organizational science to actively shape interactions and institutions for better outcomes). It is, fundamentally, a co-evolution of worldview and method.

7 Discussion

Bridging anthropology, game theory, and organizational science has allowed us to explore *The Optimization of Dwelling* from multiple angles. In this discussion, we reflect on the implications of this integrated perspective, address potential criticisms, and suggest avenues for further inquiry.

One striking insight from our synthesis is that *adaptation and optimization are deeply entwined*. Traditional optimization, as understood in engineering or economics, often assumes a clear objective function and fixed constraints. However, both the dwelling perspective and Lind’s metagame logic show that *the constraints themselves are subject to adaptation*. This complicates the notion of optimality: instead of a single static solution, we encounter a moving target, a process of successive improvements or adjustments.

This resonates with Herbert Simon’s concept of *procedural rationality* in economics—that what matters is not finding the absolute best solution under fixed assumptions, but the process of continually finding better ones under bounded rationality. From an anthropological stance, this reminds us that what is “better” for a community cannot be defined externally but only in lived context. Ingold would argue that dwelling has its own logic of optimization, one that may prioritize resilience, harmony, or meaning over maximal output.

Overlaying game theory, we often default to utility understood as material payoffs. Yet consider a pastoral community: their optimization might emphasize risk minimization (ensuring survival in the event of drought) rather than profit maximization. If we apply Lind’s metagame concept here, an escalation might involve changing norms or social structures under duress. For instance, during a crisis, a community might change rules of resource sharing to ensure that no one perishes—a shift to a new equilibrium of communal support.

Is this rational in the game-theoretic sense? Yes, if survival (or some prosocial objective) is the utility being maximized. This illustrates that we must be cautious in specifying the utility functions when linking these fields. A narrow

economic conception of utility may miss essential dimensions of dwelling such as identity, tradition, or spiritual connection to land.

However, game theory is in principle flexible. These alternative values can be incorporated into utility functions, though the challenge lies in quantification. Frameworks like polymorphic uncertainty, as Lind proposes, could accommodate such plurality by treating them as different “worlds” or epistemic states that people consider—for example, a world where tradition is sacred versus one where only material welfare matters.

Another implication is for *sustainability and governance*. The interplay of form and rules speaks directly to how we manage common environments. Ingold’s work, and that of many anthropologists, highlights successful indigenous and traditional practices that maintained ecological balance (e.g., rotational farming, sacred groves). Game theory would interpret many of these as solutions to commons dilemmas, aligning with Ostrom’s principles for managing shared resources.

Lind’s escalation framework provides a lens for understanding what happens when traditional rules break down under external pressures such as market integration or climate change. In such cases, escalation to new institutions may be necessary: for example, a community may form a cooperative to regulate grazing formally, where previously informal norms sufficed. The key challenge is knowing when to escalate (change rules) versus when to preserve existing practices. Escalating too quickly (abandoning a functioning traditional system for a novel but untested one) risks losing hard-earned adaptive knowledge; escalating too slowly risks being overwhelmed by external shocks. Thus, an *optimized dwelling strategy* at the community level might involve retaining adaptive traditions while being prepared to strengthen or adapt them when conditions demand.

Organizational design and AI provide another arena of application, particularly drawing on Lind’s IOT2. The notion of oligopolistic internal structure helps explain why diversity and competition within teams can be productive. It provides a formal rationale for practices such as “Red Teams” in cybersecurity (in-house attackers probing defenses to improve resilience), or for resisting consolidation into a single homogeneous unit. This echoes evolutionary theory: internal competition prevents stagnation (avoiding monoculture risk), while higher-level cooperation prevents destructive all-out conflict.

Companies like Google famously allowed employees 20% of their time to pursue autonomous projects—treating individuals as “monopolies” of their own ideas. These ideas then competed internally for adoption, an implementation of Lind’s principle in practice. From a dwelling perspective, this created an environment in which individuals could “dwell” in their ideas: not everything was top-down planned (building perspective), but emergent outcomes could arise (e.g., Gmail originated from such a project). The optimization of dwelling at the organizational scale thus leans toward *structured serendipity*—enabling emergent solutions within a supportive, adaptive structure.

7.1 Criticisms and Limits

Each field has potential critiques of the others:

- **Anthropology vs. Game Theory:** Anthropologists might argue that game-theoretic models are too reductive to capture the richness of real dwelling, ignoring meaning, identity, and symbolic dimensions.
- **Game Theory vs. Anthropology:** Game theorists might counter that dwelling accounts are too particularistic, offering narratives that resist generalization or predictive analysis.
- **Organizational Theory:** Organizational theorists might caution that ideal structures face real-world distortions: oligopolies can devolve into cartels that exploit consumers, and internal competition can turn toxic without strong alignment of values and goals.

These tensions highlight the need for cross-disciplinary integration. Anthropology provides richness and moral grounding, game theory provides clarity and formal rigor, and organizational theory seeks pragmatic balance between structure and adaptability. The optimization of dwelling lies in weaving these together.

7.2 Verification and Open Questions

A further issue concerns verification. Ingold’s thesis is difficult to test empirically—it functions more as a paradigm shift than as a falsifiable hypothesis. Nash’s *agencies method* was partially validated by comparison to known cooperative solutions such as the Shapley value, and by demonstrating simulation results. Lind’s metagame theory, by contrast, is still very new: it provides a constructive proof and plausible examples, but awaits empirical or experimental testing.

One testable prediction is whether human players in laboratory experiments might sometimes choose a dominated action if it enables a change of game. This could be implemented experimentally using a computer interface that allows players to alter the game rules if both agree. If validated, such behavior would challenge core assumptions of equilibrium play.

Another concern is computational feasibility. CAP-Search is conceptually powerful but may be computationally intractable for large games, since the space of possible rule changes is vast. Lind’s logarithmic depth result suggests that infinite search is not required, but actually finding the escalation path may still be as hard as any difficult optimization problem. Techniques from AI—such as reinforcement learning agents that can modify their own environments—might provide practical approximations. Indeed, the rise of AI agents with intrinsic motivation to design their own goals or environments directly links to Lind’s ideas. An AI that can both play a game and propose new rules is effectively engaging in metagame search. This could yield highly adaptive intelligence, but

also unpredictable dynamics—hence the importance of Lind’s inclusion of chaos diagnostics to avoid runaway instability.

7.3 Ethical and Philosophical Dimensions

Finally, there is a philosophical dimension. Ingold (drawing on Heidegger) cautions against instrumental rationality uprooting humans from the lifeworld. One could worry that applying game-theoretic optimization everywhere risks encouraging a mindset of constant tweaking and perpetual dissatisfaction—never contently dwelling, always strategizing for a “better deal.”

This is a valid critique: part of dwelling involves attachment, responsibility, and commitment to place and relationships, not incessant optimization. Yet, the form of optimization discussed here is not meant as shallow maximization but as a pursuit of deeper *fitness with context*. Properly understood, the optimization of dwelling is about fostering security, meaning, and freedom in environments and organizations. It is not a hamster wheel of utility chasing, but a disciplined synthesis of adaptation and care—guiding both human communities and artificial systems toward resilience and co-creation.

8 Conclusion

For example, a community might “optimize dwelling” by adopting new sustainable energy technologies (a metagame move) that allow them to continue their way of life without degrading the environment. This represents a positive application of our framework. A negative application, however, would be if community members begin to view all relationships through the lens of transaction and strategic calculation—an overextension of “game thinking” that risks eroding communal bonds and meaning.

This suggests a need for balance: game theory and organizational science can inform structural changes, but they should not supplant the lived experience and cultural wisdom that give life its texture.

In sum. Our interdisciplinary exploration illustrates that no single perspective is sufficient. To truly optimize how we dwell—whether in a house, an organization, or on a planet—we require:

- the grounded wisdom of anthropology,
- the strategic clarity of game theory, and
- the systemic design insights of organizational science.

This synthesis is itself an evolving “metagame”: we are attempting to reshape the intellectual playing field by breaking out of disciplinary silos and seeking a new equilibrium of knowledge. In doing so, we not only theorize optimization of dwelling but enact it—constructing an adaptive intellectual habitat that can sustain future inquiry and practical application.

In exploring *The Optimization of Dwelling*, we have navigated through anthropological theory, game-theoretic models of cooperation, meta-strategic escalation frameworks, and organizational design principles. Our integrative analysis yields several overarching conclusions:

Dwelling is an Optimization Process

Tim Ingold’s dwelling perspective, with its emphasis on process over product, reveals that humans have long optimized their existence not by explicit calculation but through iterative adaptation and skillful engagement with their environment. What appears as a harmonious “way of life” is often the result of generations of trial-and-error—a tacit form of optimization aimed at sustainability, balance, and meaning. Optimization in this context is best understood as an ongoing attunement between people and place, a dynamic equilibrium rather than a static optimum.

Rules and Structures Can Be Re-made

From John Nash’s *agencies method* to Jason Lind’s *metagame escalation*, a key insight is that what we often take as given—the rules of the game or the organizational setup—can be endogenously changed to yield better outcomes. This challenges a static worldview and aligns with the dwelling perspective’s view of forms being continually under construction [?]. Our analysis demonstrates that allowing for rule flexibility—whether through informal acceptance of others’ agency or through formal meta-level moves—expands the solution space and can convert dilemmas into win-win scenarios that remain unreachable under fixed rules.

Multi-Level Thinking is Crucial

We have repeatedly encountered multi-level or hierarchical models: Ingold’s *landscape-taskscape* (space and time), Lind’s *game-metagame* ladder, and IOT2’s individual-group-environment structure. An optimized dwelling in complex systems requires awareness of these levels. For example, solving a problem at the individual level (each person maximizing their benefit) might worsen outcomes at the group level (a tragedy of the commons), whereas a meta-level solution (new rule for resource sharing) resolves it. Thus, true optimization often requires alignment across levels—optimizing individual actions with collective goals, while adapting overarching rules to support both.

Human-Centered Design and Rational Design Converge

Perhaps unexpectedly, the humanistic insights of anthropology and the formal rationality of game theory are not antagonists but allies in the design of better living conditions. Ingold emphasizes context, embodiment, and history: any optimized solution must fit the cultural and ecological setting to function

in practice. Game theory and organizational science contribute the tools of mechanism design and predictive modeling. Together, they yield strategies that are both culturally informed and strategically sound. For instance, community governance of fisheries might integrate traditional ecological knowledge (dwelling perspective) with quota systems or monitoring institutions (game-theoretic mechanisms) to achieve sustainable equilibrium.

Final Reflection. Optimizing dwelling, then, is not only about survival or efficiency but about aligning processes, structures, and values across levels of human and organizational life. Anthropology reminds us of meaning and context; game theory provides rigor and clarity; organizational science offers systemic design principles. Taken together, these perspectives chart a path toward resilient, adaptive, and meaningful ways of inhabiting our shared world.

9 Looking Ahead

This integrated perspective opens several pathways for further research and application:

Empirical Studies

Anthropologists and economists could collaborate to empirically study cases of rule-changing behavior in communities—essentially searching for real-world instances of metagame escalation or IOT2-like structures. Key questions include: Do communities that successfully manage commons implicitly follow Lind’s optimal pattern of small-group leadership plus wider participation? Do negotiators in conflicts sometimes employ deliberate meta-moves (e.g., changing the rules of negotiation), and can we document their outcomes? Cross-case analysis of such examples could refine and validate the theory.

Design of Institutions

Policymakers can apply these insights in institutional design. For instance, legal frameworks could be designed to allow stakeholders to renegotiate terms easily when conditions change—a formalization of the meta-game option. In climate governance, agreements might include *trigger clauses* that automatically escalate commitments if certain thresholds are reached. This is an institutional analog to CAP-Search, pre-emptively adjusting rules to avoid chaotic breakdowns.

AI and Multi-Agent Systems

Insights from dwelling can inform AI development by emphasizing contextual learning and long-term adaptation over rigid goal optimization. Conversely, metagame algorithms in AI could enable autonomous systems that adjust their

own protocols to better cooperate with humans—AI that does not merely follow fixed rules, but updates them for user comfort and societal fit. This would be an “optimized dwelling” of AI in human society.

Ethical Frameworks

Granting agents (whether human, organizational, or artificial) the power to change rules raises ethical questions. How do we ensure fair representation, transparency, and accountability, while avoiding abuse of meta-game power? The dwelling perspective contributes here by introducing a notion of *dwelling ethics*—care for the environment and others—as a guide for responsible use of rule-changing capacities. This helps ensure that meta-game moves enhance collective dwelling rather than merely individual gain.

In closing. *The Optimization of Dwelling*, as presented here, is both a descriptive framework and a call to action. It describes how humans already navigate the interplay of structure and agency, stability and change, self and community. And it calls us to consciously apply these principles in shaping better futures. Whether we are designing a neighborhood, a game, an organization, or a global treaty, we benefit by remembering that we are not outside players manipulating a system, but inside dwellers co-creating our world.

Optimization, then, is not an abstract calculation: it is a lived, iterative, and collaborative endeavor—one that blends our best reasoning with our capacity to care, adapt, and imagine new ways of living.

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