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Title: Mechanistic and Data-Driven Agent-Based Models to Explain Human Behavior in Online Networked Group Anagram Games

Authors: Vanessa Cedeno-Mieles, Zhihao Hu, Yihui Ren, Xinwei Deng, Abhijin Adiga, Christopher Barrett, Noshir Contractor, Saliya Ekanayake, Gizem Korkmaz, Chris J. Kuhlman, Dustin Machi, Madhav V. Marathe, S. S. Ravi, Brian Goode, Naren Ramakrishnan, Parang Saraf, Nathan Self, Noshir Contractor, Joshua Epstein, Michael Macy

Contact: Chris J. Kuhlman
Email: {ckuhlman}
Tel.: +1 540 231 {3997}, {8832};
Fax: +1 540 231 2891

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Network Dynamics and Simulation Science Laboratory
Biocomplexity Institute of Virginia Tech
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

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Abstract

In anagram games, players are provided with letters for forming as many words as possible over a specified time duration. Anagram games have been used in controlled experiments to study problems such as collective identity, effects of goal-setting, internal-external attributions, test anxiety, and others. The majority of work on anagram games involves individual players. Recently, work has expanded to group anagram games where players cooperate by sharing letters. In this work, we analyze experimental data from online social networked experiments of group anagram games. We develop mechanistic and data-driven models of human reasoning to predict detailed game player actions (e.g., what word to form next). With these results, we develop a composite agent-based model that incorporates the models from data analysis. We compare model predictions against experimental data, which enables us to provide explanations of human reasoning and behavior. Finally, we provide illustrative case studies using agent-based simulations to demonstrate the efficacy of models to provide insights that are beyond those from experiments alone.

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background and Motivation

In one form of an **individual anagram game**, a player is provided with a set of alphabetical letters to form as many words as possible with those letters in a prescribed time duration. The performance of a player is often quantified based on the number of words formed.

In a **group anagram game** (GrAG), multiple players collaborate. Each player is given letters and forms words with her own letters, and can share letters with her neighbors to enable everyone to form more words. Figure 1 provides a schematic of a 3-player group anagram game. Each player (v_1 , v_2 , and v_3) is initially provided with $n_l = 3$ letters as shown. A player may form words, and through the communication channels in gray, may request letters and reply to letter requests.

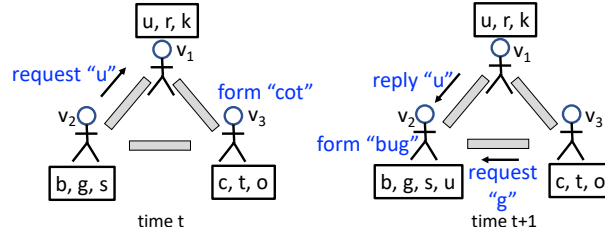


Fig. 1: Simplified view of a networked group anagram game (GrAG), with illustrative actions among $n = 3$ players that communicate and share letters through the gray channels. Each player is initially given $n_l = 3$ letters. Letters that a player has “in-hand” to form words are shown in boxes. Player actions are shown in blue. At time t , v_2 requests a “u” from v_1 and v_3 forms the word “cot.” At the next time, v_2 receives a “u” from v_1 , forms the word “bug,” and receives a request from v_3 .

Overwhelmingly, research on anagram games considers the individual setting. It has been extensively studied (over 20 published works) for more than 60 years to analyze the effects of goal-setting, compensation types, internal-external attributions, and test anxiety (e.g., [1], [2]). Other names for anagram game are *word formation game* and *word construction game*.

There are several reasons to study group anagram games. Face-to-face group anagram games have recently been played. In particular, [3] used them to study experimentally the formation of collective identity (CI), as defined in social psychology [4] as an individual’s cognitive, moral, and emotional connection with a broader community, category, practice, or institution [5]. A second motivation is their relevance to other types of group dynamics, notably intergroup and intragroup cooperation and competition (e.g., [6]). A third motivation is that many of the phenomena listed above for the individual anagram game could be studied in group settings with models of group behavior.

Overall, researches involving anagram games encompass a broad range of disciplines like sociology, economics, management science, and (social) psychology [1], [2], [7]. It is clear that using anagram games is valuable in various fields of research. With all of this experimental work on anagram games, it is surprising that very little work has been done in modeling and simulating these games. The first and only work on modeling GrAGs was recently completed [8]. We enumerate the differences between our work and [8] in Section I-B immediately below.

B. Our Work Scope and Differentiators from Previous Work

Our work starts with data from online social network group anagram games (GrAG). (The game platform and online experiments are not the focus in this work.) With these data: (i) data analytics are performed to support model development; (ii) different models for different player actions in the GrAG are developed; (iii) the models are evaluated against experimental data; and (iv) these models are then recast as agent-based models and executed within an agent-based modeling and simulation (ABMS) platform to run computational experiments beyond the experiments conducted that produced the data.

Figure 2 serves to emphasize our models and to differentiate our work from that in [8]. The *time series model* of the figure is the subject of [8], which builds the model using multinomial logistic regression. In that work, the goal was to develop models to predict the *type* of action taken in time, e.g., predictions of the form: player v_i takes action “form word” at time t . Also, if a player action is form word, and the player has letters that cannot form a word (e.g., letters q , z , and r) then that model will nevertheless form an unspecified (unrealistic) word from these letters. Moreover, the models of [8] do not consider the particular letters assigned to players in a game and hence have no heterogeneity. Consequently, all player behaviors will tend toward the same mean behavior in ABSs.

Our work here, in contrast, focuses on the three *component models* of Figure 2. Different models are developed for the actions “form word,” “request letter,” and “reply to (letter) request.” Our models account for network structure, letter assignments and letters in-hand (i.e., letters that a player has to form words), and particular player parameter assignments (detailed below)—all of which can vary among players—so results will remain distinct across agents. That is, we capture heterogeneity in several ways. Note that our ABMS framework, that simulates GrAG scenarios beyond the experiments, uses both the time series model (to determine what action to take in time) and the models developed herein (to predict the specifics of each action). Hence, it is a **composite model**.

Thus, all of the following are completely different in this work, compared to that in [8]: data analytics, the aspects of the game that are being modeled, the types of modeling techniques used, the models themselves, and the quantities that the models predict.

Composite Model		
<i>Time series model</i> : Model for Action Selection at Each Time		
Form Word <i>Component Model</i>	Request Letter <i>Component Model</i>	Reply to Request <i>Component Model</i>

Unifying theme across three models for the actions
form word, request letter, reply to request:

$$(\text{player action specifics}) = (\text{human reasoning}) \times (\text{aptitude}) \times (\text{data objects})$$

Fig. 2: Design of the composite (agent-based) model. At each time in a group anagram game, a player takes one of four actions, consistent with the online game: form word, request letter, reply to letter request, or think. The selection of each action is determined by a multinomial logistic regression model from [8]. Each of the first three actions requires a component model (and software module) that simulates human reasoning and outputs the *specifics* of an action. These *component models* in the figure are the focus of this work. The algorithms for these three actions are in Figure 9, Figure 12, and in [9], Figure 13. Thinking is an idling action, no model is needed. The common theme across these models is given in blue. This structure is intimately linked with the concepts in Figure 3.

C. Novelty of Our Work

First, our work is an exemplar of a detailed procedure for combining mechanistic and data-driven models to form single models of human *reasoning* and *decision-making* that output human *actions* in a game. Mechanistic models, for our purposes, have the following characteristics: (i) the models are based on first principles and are not tied to any particular domain; and (ii) the models can be specified and implemented without any experimental data. Data-driven models are essentially stochastic models built from data analyses of experiments. Second, because the mechanistic models capture player behavior, these models *explain* behaviors, as described in our contributions below. Third, our mechanistic models are novel: Levenshtein Distance (LD) [10] and a greedy optimization procedure describe human decision-making and have not been used in anagrams contexts (we could not find LD used in any modeling of human behavior, as we do here). Fourth, with these models, we develop an ABMS platform to model the detailed actions of players in GrAGs beyond the experiment conditions.

As called for in the social sciences, (1) our focus is on model predictions and explanations [11], and (2) we provide methods and solutions for a human behavior game of wide interest [12].

D. Contributions

1. A process for combining mechanistic and data-driven approaches to build models of human reasoning based on group anagram games experimental data. We provide the details of our process in Section V. See Figure 3. First, mechanistic models are conjectured and evaluated by comparing their predictions to experimental data. This does three things: (i) enables comparisons of model predictions with experimental data, and if these comparisons are favorable (which they are), then (ii) the structures of the models provide *explanations* for human decision-making [13], [14], and (iii) the mechanistic models form the basis of the ABMs. Second, because the mechanistic models can be improved by including data from experiments, we use data-driven modeling approaches to introduce stochasticity to account for variability across human subject game players. Hence we utilize these two modeling approaches in a well-defined process.

2. Mechanistic models. We use concepts such as LD, word corpora, word proximity networks (WPNs), and a greedy optimization algorithm (defined in Section V) to develop mechanistic models for two of the three player actions. The LD model, used for word formation, could be used within any agent that is required to form words, and the greedy optimization algorithm, used for requesting letters, could be used by agents to make a choice from among a finite set of options. That is, these models are not tied to our GrAG. But the next contribution presents their utility within the GrAG.

3. New experimental findings and explanations of player behaviors based on cognitive and economic theories. The analyses focus on data for three types of player actions: (1) form a word; (2) request a letter; and (3) reply to a letter request. A summary of some explanations follows. A word that a player forms is explained by considering the letters that the player has in-hand (i.e., in her possession) and LD [10]—an edit distance—between the most recently formed word and the next word to be formed from a candidate set of words (Section V-B). This is motivated by, and consistent with, cognitive load theory [15] in that people try to reduce cognitive load during learning. Here, the closer the next word formed is to the previously formed word—as measured by LD—the lesser the cognitive load in forming a new word. We base the letter that a player requests on rational choice theory [16]. Our analyses (Section V-C) demonstrate that the letter that a player requests from her neighbors is explained by identifying the letter that maximally increases the number of words that the player can form, when also considering the letters that the player has in-hand (greedy optimization algorithm). This behavior is consistent with rational choice theory. This is because players’ earnings in games are proportional to the number of words formed, so it is rational for players to choose letters to maximize their candidate word set. It is interesting that our explanation means that players are reasoning beyond more naive approaches, such as simply requesting some “most frequently” used letter (e.g., preferring “e” over “z”). (We have modeled this second approach—results not shown here—and this model’s results are not consistent with the data.) Finally, we also show that there are four types of behavior in replying to letter requests (Section V-D)).

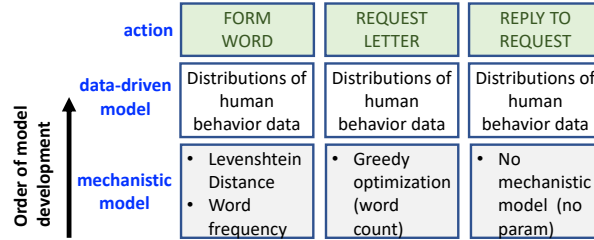


Fig. 3: Combined mechanistic and data-driven models for the three player actions in the GrAG. These are models of human reasoning, which output specific player actions in the game. The particulars of the mechanistic and data-driven models are given in the respective boxes under the actions and are detailed in Section V. Mechanistic models are built first, and then augmented with data-driven models. The player actions map onto those in Figure 2.

4. Agent-based models and results. A family of ABMs are developed, yielding a composite model, where each ABM is comprised of a distinct model for each of the three actions, with user-specified parameter values for player/agent characteristics, such as the agent’s vocabulary and their aptitude, i.e., the degree to which they perform optimally. See Figure 2. The multi-logit regression model based on [8] is adopted to determine which action each agent selects at each discrete time in a simulation (time granularity is seconds). The selected action then invokes the appropriate model developed herein. Note that there is a fourth action, a no-operation (no-op), where the agent does nothing at particular times, which represents agent thinking and requires no model. We also provide aggregate comparisons of model predictions with experimental data, and new insights from exercising the ABMs (see Section VII), such as demonstrating how player performance decreases with decreasing player aptitude.

II. RELATED WORK

Anagram experiments. Over 20 experiment works (e.g., [1], [2]) use *single player* anagram games. The only *face-to-face* cooperative team anagram games are reported in [3]. The game is used to foster CI among teammates. Multiple simultaneously-playing teams can change composition (4-player teams) as players vote others into and off the team. This motivated the *online* experiments in [8] where one team of fixed size plays the game through a web browser.

Agent-based models of anagram games. To the best of our knowledge there is only one work that models the anagram game. [8] designs, constructs, and evaluates three data-driven ABMs as part of an iterative abductive analysis. Differences between our work and [8] include the following. First, the ABMs in [8] are purely statistical; there are no mechanistic models incorporated in the work, which limits transferability across contexts. Second, in [8], if a player action is form word, and the player has letters “q,” “z,” and “r,” then their model will form an unspecified (unrealistic) word from these letters. Their work similarly handles other player actions. This is because that work is primarily concerned with predicting the time series of

types of player actions, and not the details of actions. In our work here, with the above letters, no word is formed because no word can be constructed from these letters (and so would not be in a word corpus). Third, the previous difference immediately implies that if simulations are run many times and the results are averaged, then all agent model results will tend to the *same* mean behavior (e.g., the same number of letter requests) in [8]. Our ABMs account for initial conditions, letters in-hand, and particular player parameter assignments—all of which can vary among players—so results will remain distinct across agents. Consequently, we can account for differences, for example, in the quality of letters assigned to players. That is, our models are of much greater fidelity.

Online experiments and data-driven modeling. There are several online experiments using data-driven modeling to analyze different phenomena like CI, diffusion, etc. In [17], a statistical aggregated model is created to analyze human cooperation through social dilemmas. In [18], a statistical aggregated model provides a network-theoretic approach to empirically determine the structural signatures of online collective identity. In [19], online health forums are used to study diffusion. Apart from [8], none of these works build ABMs from networked experiments where individuals take a series of actions that may be repeated over time. Our experiments are comparable in size to these works.

Networked experiments and modeling. There are several other online (e.g., [20]) and in-person (e.g., [3], [21]) experiments with interacting participants that can be represented as networks, and analyses of network populations (e.g., [22], [23]), where edges represent interaction channels.

Mechanistic modeling. Several works use mechanistic models to simulate human behavior using processes and representations analogous to those used by humans. [24] proposes a dynamic mechanistic model of human response for human reliability analysis. [25] discusses a mechanistic understanding of human decision making.

Explanatory modeling. There are many works (e.g., [13], [14], [26]) that describe different definitions of explanations, different types of explanations that models provide, and procedures for arriving at explanations. We follow ideas from [13], [14] (principally, that the structure of mechanistic models that adequately predict human behavior can be used to explain behavior). As a counter example, [26] discusses the need for visual representations for simulation explanation when models are not well understood. However, it is precisely our goal in this paper to describe our modeling approach, our models, and our experimental justification for them. We present well-motivated, well-defined, formal models in Section V that are also used in ABM.

III. WEB-BASED GROUP ANAGRAMS EXPERIMENTS

We built a customized web application (web app) for a group anagrams game consisting of game instructions, a workflow, set of user screens, and data capture software (all button clicks by all players are recorded), which sits on top of an off-the-shelf infrastructure [27]. Players are provided game instructions, participate in the online anagrams game through their web browsers, and are paid based on their performance. A total of 48 experiments were performed using a total of 367 players, with numbers of players per game ranging from 3 to 17. In the following, we describe the team anagrams game/experiment (omitting details such as recruitment procedures and game instructions).

Figure 4 provides a visual description of the game setup. A game begins with n players, v_1 through v_n . Each player has a degree d that specifies the number of connections to other players. A connection (edge) between two players denotes a communication channel where a letter ℓ can be requested and sent (sending a letter is a reply). Thus, an experiment configuration is a graph $G(V, E)$ with player set V and communication channels E . In experiments, G is a k -regular random graph, with uniform degree $2 \leq k \leq 8$. Each player starts the game with n_ℓ initial letters, which they can use to form words or share among their neighbors, when requested. At the beginning of a game, a Word Corpus C^W is defined with a list of words a player can form during the game. A key to the important data structures per player in a game, and their descriptions, are in Figure 4. The three major player actions in a game are now described.

Player action: forming a word. At any point during a game, a player v_i can form a word w_i . All letters in the word w_i must come from the set of letters v_i has in-hand L_i^{ih} (superscript *ih*). A specific letter ℓ can appear any number of times in a word. For a word submission to be accepted in the game, the word has to be in the game word corpus C^W .

Player action: requesting a letter. At any point during a game, a player v_i can request a letter ℓ_{ij}^{req} from a neighbor v_j 's set of n_ℓ initial letters L_j^{init} . The anagrams game screen shows all neighbors' *initial* letters as available for request. A letter received by v_i is put into the set L_i^{ih} .

Player action: replying with a letter. At any point during a game, a player v_i can reply with a letter ℓ_{ij}^{rep} to a neighbor v_j 's request (ℓ_{ij}^{rep} must be in L_i^{ih}). The anagrams game screen for v_i shows all of the letters requested of v_i .

To encourage cooperation, any letter in L_i^{ih} can be used any number of times in forming words, and the letter is not lost; the letter bestows an infinite supply of use. Similarly, if v_i requests a letter ℓ from v_j , and v_j replies with it, v_j still retains a copy of the letter and can use it. Also, earnings for the team is based on the total number of words formed, and all players receive $(1/n)$ of the total earnings. Typical player earnings are \$7 to \$10 per game.

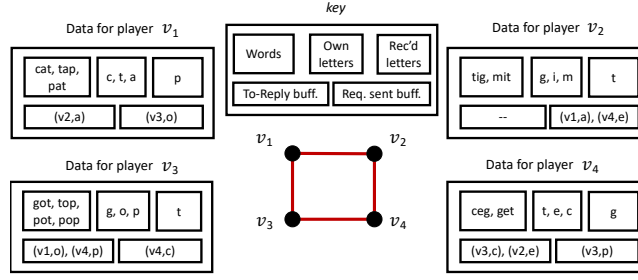


Fig. 4: Example anagrams game configuration with a $k = 2$ -regular graph on $n = 4$ players and $n_l = 3$ letters *initially* assigned to each player. Requests for letters and replies with letters are sent across the links. The key indicates the types of bins and buffers that contain specific information for players. For example, the To-Reply buff. (reply buffer) of player v_i contains letter requests from other players v_j , in the form (v_j, letter) , to which v_i has not yet replied. Analogously, the Requests sent buff. (buffer) keeps track of a player's letter requests that have yet to be filled. Own (received) letters are letters a player has originally or received from neighbors, to use in forming words.

IV. AGENT-BASED MODEL OVERVIEW

We refer to our ABM as a **composite model** or a **model family** because it consists of an action selection module and three component modules for the actions: form word, request letter, and reply to (letter) request. See Figure 5. We use the multinomial logistic regression approach in [8] for the action selection module, which is based on four variables that account for history effects and the state of each player (see Figure 4 for an example of player states). The four variables are the size of the To-Reply buffer, the number of letter in-hand, the number of words formed, and the number of consecutive actions. See [8] for details; we discuss it no further.

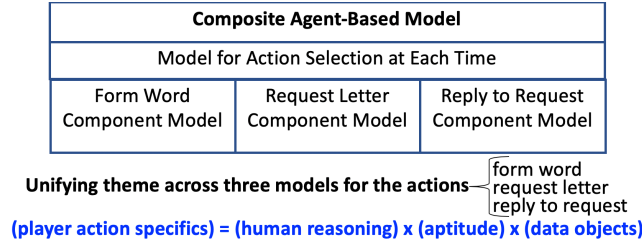


Fig. 5: Design of the composite agent-based model. At each time in a group anagrams game, a player takes one of four actions, consistent with the online game: form word, request letter, reply to letter request, or think. The selection of each action is determined by a multinomial logistic regression model from [8]. Each of the first three actions requires a component model (software module) that simulates human reasoning and outputs the *specifics* of an action. The algorithms for these three actions are described in Figure 9, Figure 12, and Figure 16. Thinking is an idling action, no model is needed. The common theme across these models is given in blue. This structure is intimately linked with the concepts in Figure 3.

Our focus is on the three component models of Figure 5. The goal is to devise mechanistic and data-driven models for these three actions. By specifying different parameters and behaviors for each component model, we produce different ABMs; hence, our claim that our ABM is a composite model.

There is a unifying theme to these models, shown in Figure 5. For each model, the inputs are (i) key concepts in characterizing human reasoning that underpin the data and algorithm; (ii) an aptitude variable; and (iii) relevant data objects from the game state. The output is behavior: a *specific* human action (e.g., form the word “dog,” reply to all current letter requests).

The control flow structure for simulations using ABM is provided in Figure 6. In essence, we loop over *runs* (i.e., individual game simulation instances), as multiple instances are used to assess stochasticity. For each run, we loop over time in discrete units of seconds, and for each time, we loop over all agents $v_i \in V$. Note that there are many definitions in the **Input** section of the figure that are subsequently used.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND MODEL DEVELOPMENT

Each of the player actions from Figure 5 is described in turn. For each action—which is a component model of the ABM—we provide (i) our premise for understanding players' behavior and the key concepts for this premise, (ii) experimental results for these key ideas that justify (i.e., give evidence for), and provide data for, the component model of the composite ABM, and (iii) a formal algorithm for the component model for the action in Figure 5. Note that (a) the steps of algorithms that we specify below are not focused on efficient implementation, but rather on conveying the steps of the algorithms as they relate to the data analyses, and (b) all of the data structures required for the algorithms, and more, are illustrated in Figure 4. First, we address preliminaries.

Input: Graph of players and interactions $G(V, E)$ with players $v_i \in V$, $1 \leq i \leq n$, and communication and letter sharing channels E . Maximum duration of game (i.e., one run) t_{max} . Number of simulation runs n_{runs} to execute. For each v_i : word corpus C_i^W ; initial letter assignments L_i^{init} ; words formed to this point in game W_i^f ; aptitude in forming words b_i^{wf} ; aptitude in requesting letters b_i^{req} ; aptitude in replying to letter requests b_i^{rpl} ; the initial letters of neighbors of v_i , L_i' , that v_i can request.

Distributions (several are families of distributions): distributions $\mathcal{D}^{d^L}(|C_i^W|, b_i^{wf}, d_{min}^L)$ of d_{act}^L for a specific d_{opt}^L ; distribution \mathcal{D}^{wr} of word ranks; distributions $\mathcal{D}^{lr}(|C_i^W|, b_i^{req}, r_{num})$ of letter ranks; distribution $\mathcal{D}^{n^{rpl}}(b_i^{rpl})$ of the number of contiguous replies to make; distribution $\mathcal{D}^{\Delta t}(b_i^{rpl}, n^{rpl})$ for time duration over which letters are replied to.

Output: For each run, time, and agent v_i , output v_i 's action, payload (e.g., word formed, letter requested, letter received) to produce the entire simulation history.

Steps:

- 1) Read and store inputs (see above).
- 2) **for** $j = 1$ **to** n_{runs} **do** ## Loop over runs.
 - (a) Reset all parameters and initial conditions for a new simulation run.
 - (b) Read in separate inputs that vary across runs.
 - (c) **for** $t = 1$ **to** t_{max} **do** ## Loop over time.
 - (i) **for each** $v_i \in V$ **do** ## Loop over agents.
 - (I) Determine next action a_i for v_i using multinomial logistic regression [8].
 - (II) Based on a_i , call routine to execute action: FORM WORD (Figure 9), REQUEST LETTER (Figure 12), REPLY TO REQUEST (Figure 16), or if the action is "think" (idle), then *no op*.
 - (III) Output appropriate data for v_i .

Fig. 6: Steps of the Algorithm for ABM SIMULATION CONTROL FLOW. The action FORM WORD is described in Figure 9, the action REQUEST LETTER is described in Figure 12, and the action REPLY TO REQUEST is described in Figure 16.

A. Preliminaries

We introduce two concepts used in data analysis and modeling. **Levenshtein distance** (d^L) [10], is prominent in our work and the work's novelty, and is motivated by work in linguistics and bioinformatics [28], [29]. It is a string metric that quantifies the difference in letters of two words. In starting with one word to obtain a second word, a letter substitution counts as one, as does each of letter insertion and letter deletion. Hence, going from "had" to "hats," requires $d^L = 2$: one to substitute "t" for "d" and one for inserting an "s."

A **word proximity networks** (WPN) is a clique graph $H(V_H, E_H)$ where vertices V_H are words that can be formed, according to a word corpus C^W , with the letters that a player currently has in-hand and E_H is the set of edges between pairs of words, labeled with its d^L .

Each player is assigned a **word corpus** C^W . For this we use a list of the top 5000 words from the 450 million word Corpus of Contemporary American English, the only large and balanced corpus of American English [30].

B. Player Action: Form Word

Basic premise and key concepts. We seek to identify a method that explains the process of players selecting words to form. Our premise is that given the last word w_1 that v_i has formed, the next word w_2 that v_i will form will be one with minimal d^L from w_1 because this requires a minimal number of letter manipulations (i.e., lesser cognitive load [15]). For the first word, v_i selects the most frequent word from the corpus that can be formed with L_i^{ih} . We note that for each player v_i , there is a set L_i^{ih} of letters that she has in-hand (superscript "ih") and a corresponding set $W_i^{ih} \subseteq C^W$ of words that v_i can form from the entire corpus C^W of words, based on the letters in L_i^{ih} . As v_i requests and receives more letters from her neighbors, the cardinalities of L_i^{ih} and W_i^{ih} will (typically) increase. Also note that for a given word w_1 formed by v_i in a game, W_i^{ih} can be partitioned based on $d^L(w_1, w_2)$ for each $w_2 \in W_i^{ih}$ using the WPN. Let $W_i^{ih}(w_1, d^L) \subseteq W_i^{ih}$ be the set of words at d^L from w_1 that v_i can form.

Our data analysis is based on two central ideas, for each player v_i : (i) we compare d^L values between two consecutive words formed (w_1 and then w_2), both the actual value $d_{i,act}^L(w_1, w_2)$ measured from experiments and the optimal (i.e., minimal) value $d_{opt}^L(w_1, w^*)$ for some $w^* \in W_i^{ih}(w_1, d_{min}^L)$, both of which are based on v_i 's set L_i^{ih} [we drop the arguments when they are obvious from context]; and (ii) for a given set $W_i^{ih}(w_1, d^L)$ of words, we use the popularity of words as provided by the rank (frequency of use) from [30] of the words in $W_i^{ih}(w_1, d^L) \subseteq C^W$. Here, d_{min}^L is the minimum d^L at which any word in W_i^{ih} is from w_1 . All of these parameters are either inputs (e.g., C^W), measured in experiments, or computed from experimental data. These high-level steps enable us to understand players' behavior in forming words, as described next.

Data analysis. First, for each player v_i in the game, we consider pairs of consecutive words formed, (w_1, w_2) . From this, we compute $d_{i,act}^L(w_1, w_2)$, the actual d^L . Also from these data and from L_i^{ih} at the time w_2 was formed, we can compute

the set $W_i^{ih}(w_1, d_{min}^L) \subseteq W_i^{ih}$ of words that v_i can form that are at d_{min}^L from w_1 . We compute $\Delta d^L = d_{i,act}^L - d_{min}^L$ from (w_1, w_2) . A value of zero means that the player is performing optimally according to our premise; a value > 0 means that v_i is performing suboptimally— v_i is making more letter edits (expending greater effort) than is required by the data. For each v_i , over all n_w words formed by v_i , we compute an average $\Delta d_{i,ave}^L = (1/(n_w - 1)) \sum_{j=1}^{n_w-1} [\Delta d_j^L]$. We rank the players $v_i \in V$ by $\Delta d_{i,ave}^L$, least to greatest, and produce five equi-sized player groups, such that the first group (i.e., the top 20% of players) performs closest to optimal and the last group (i.e., the bottom 20% of players) performs farthest from optimal. We label these five groups of players as P_1 through P_5 , with P_1 (resp. P_5) corresponding to the top (resp., bottom) 20% of players. We take this player-centric approach because we want to produce agent models based on individual player and groups of players' behaviors.

Second, for each of the five groups of players, we plot all data points $(x, y) = (d_{min}^L, d_{i,act}^L(w_1, w_2))$ for each person in that group, in Figure 7. In each plot, for each $d_{min}^L (\equiv d_{opt}^L)$ on the x-axis, there is a range of $d_{i,act}^L(w_1, w_2)$ for all v_i in a particular 20% bin. The number of observations for the plot is given at the top of the plot and the number of observations for each box is also specified. If we break the players down into 10% bins, and confine our observations to $1 \leq d_{min}^L \leq 3$, it is observed that the top 30% of players perform such that the median value of $d_{i,act}^L(w_1, w_2)$ equals d_{min}^L . That is, in a median sense, these top 30% of players form word w_2 such that $d_{i,act}^L(w_1, w_2) = d_{min}^L$, and hence w_2 is formed optimally. Moreover, if we look at the top 80% of players, then $d_{min}^L \leq d_{i,act}^L(w_1, w_2) \leq d_{min}^L + 1$. These data for $|C^W| = 5000$ substantiate our premise that players form word w_2 based on d^L . Although not shown, similar results are generated for $|C^W| = 1000, 2000, 3000$, and 4000, if we take these sets as the 1000, 2000, 3000, and 4000 most frequently used words in the original corpus of 5000 words.

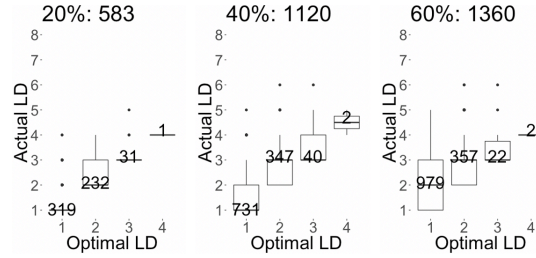


Fig. 7: Experimental data using word corpus $|C^W| = 5000$, with three plots of d_{opt}^L vs. $d_{i,act}^L$. Each plot corresponds to a grouping of players by 20% bins of player performance in forming words according to d^L , and represents, in turn, P_j , $j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$. Data for P_4 and P_5 are not shown. For each P_j , the d_{opt}^L is computed as the minimum possible $d_i^L(w_1, w_2)$, given w_1 in an experiment, for all $w_2 \in W_i^{ih} \subseteq C^W$. This value is plotted against the actual d^L , $d_{i,act}^L(w_1, w_2)$, based on the actual word w_2 formed in the experiments. Numbers are numbers of observations in the data. If $d_{i,act}^L(w_1, w_2) = d_{opt}^L$, then the experimental data correspond exactly with the model.

Third, for a given w_1 and $d_{i,act}^L$, $W_i^{ih}(w_1, d_{i,act}^L) \subseteq W_i^{ih}$ is the candidate set of words that v_i can form as w_2 . The issue is how players extract a particular word from $W_i^{ih}(w_1, d_{i,act}^L)$ as w_2 . Figure 8 provides the answer. For each v_i , we rank the words in $W_i^{ih}(w_1, d_{i,act}^L)$ in decreasing order of frequency of occurrence (which is obtained from the word corpus itself), such that the first ranked word is the most frequently used word. This plot shows the number of times the chosen word w_2 is of a particular rank. It is clear that players select w_2 based on the frequency of the word's use, e.g., the top-ranked word is selected almost 700 times from the corpus. This result also holds over different corpus sizes from 1000 to 5000 words.

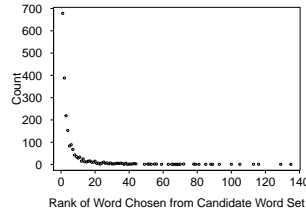


Fig. 8: Experimental data for $|C_i^W| = 5000$ showing ranks of words formed by players. Lesser rank means higher word frequency from corpus. Players most often choose words with lesser rank.

Remark: These data analyses substantiate our claim that our models are explanatory. Here, the data are consistent with the explanation that humans reason about what word to form using LD and word frequency (familiarity).

Remark: It is emphasized that players in the experiments are not given a word corpus, frequency of letter use, d^L concepts and values, etc. Our construction and procedures presented here are our representation of the mental reasoning processes that players engage in, resulting in human behavior in the form of detailed actions. In experiments, players are only given letters and the ability to share them. This remark holds for the next two models, too.

Input: Agent $v_i \in V$. Agent word-forming aptitude b_i^{wf} . Word corpus or vocabulary C_i^W for v_i . Letters in-hand L_i^{ih} . Most recent word formed by v_i , w_1 . Words W_i^f formed up to now by v_i . Distribution $\mathcal{D}^{d^L}(|C_i^W|, b_i^{wf}, d_{min}^L)$ of $d_{i,act}^L$ for a specific d_{opt}^L . Distribution \mathcal{D}^{wr} of word ranks.

Output: Next word w_2 that v_i forms, if any.

Steps:

- 1) From L_i^{ih} and C_i^W , construct the set W_i^{ih} of words that v_i can form. Let $V_H \equiv W_i^{ih}$.
- 2) Remove from $V_H (= W_i^{ih})$ all words in W_i^f except w_1 ; cannot form same word twice.
- 3) **If** $W_i^{ih} = \emptyset$, return no word. Terminate this algorithm.
- 4) Form a word proximity network (WPN). Specifically, form a clique graph $H(V_H, E_H)$. Let $E_H = \{\{w_i, w_j\} \mid \forall w_i, w_j \in V_H, i \neq j\}$ be the undirected edge set. Each edge $\{w_i, w_j\}$ is labelled with Levenshtein distance $d^L(w_i, w_j)$.
- 5) Construct the word set W_{v_i} consisting of words w_j for $w_i = w_1$ where $\{w_1, w_j\} \in E_H$.
- 6) Partition W_{v_i} into subsets of words, where each subset of words has the same d^L from w_1 . Let these subsets be W^k , with $1 \leq k \leq q$, where q is the maximum d^L label of any edge incident on w_1 .
- 7) Let d_{min}^L be the minimum value of k such that $W^k \neq \emptyset$.
- 8) With the three-tuple $(|C_i^W|, b_i^{wf}, d_{min}^L)$, identify the correct distribution $\mathcal{D}^{d^L}(|C_i^W|, b_i^{wf}, d_{min}^L)$ from which to draw an actual d^L , $d_{i,act}^L$, for v_i . Sample $d_{i,act}^L$. See Figure 10.
- 9) From the subset (partition) of words $W^{d_{i,act}^L} \subseteq W_{v_i}$, order the words in decreasing order of popularity or use, obtained directly from the input corpus C_i^W . This ranks the words.
- 10) From the distribution \mathcal{D}^{wr} of word ranks (formed from data such as those in Figure 8), draw a rank r_i of a word.
- 11) The word to form is $w_2 \in W^{d_{i,act}^L}$ that has rank r_i . Add w_2 to W_i^f .
- 12) Return w_2 .

Fig. 9: Steps of the Algorithm FORM WORD, invoked from Figure 6. This algorithm returns a word that an agent forms.

Algorithm for form word. See the algorithm in Figure 9, which follows the description just given. Figure 10 provides examples of $\mathcal{D}^{d^L}(|C_i^W|, b_i^{wf}, d_{min}^L)$, for the top 20% of players referred to in the algorithm. It is from distributions such as these that $d_{i,act}^L$ (for an agent action in a simulation) is sampled, based on d_{min}^L .

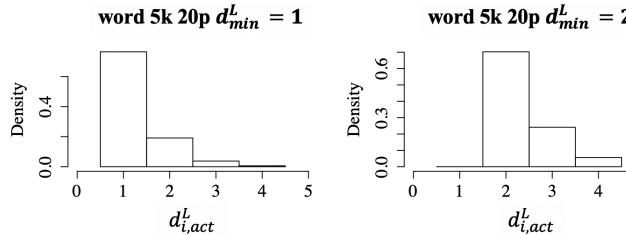


Fig. 10: For $|C_i^W| = 5000$, and for $b_i^{wf} = P_1$, there are two plots for the distribution $\mathcal{D}^{d^L}(|C_i^W|, b_i^{wf}, d_{min}^L)$ of $d_{i,act}^L$ for a fixed $d_{opt}^L = d_{min}^L = 1$ (Left) and $d_{opt}^L = d_{min}^L = 2$ (Right). Values for 3 and > 3 are not shown. For a given d_{opt}^L computed in Figure 9, the appropriate distribution is sampled to obtain $d_{i,act}^L$ for v_i . These distributions are formed from the data in Figure 7.

C. Player Action: Request Letter

Basic premise and key concepts. Our goal is to uncover a process that explains how players select the next letter to request from their neighbors. Our premise is that player v_i will select the next letter to request as the letter from the set of candidate neighboring letters L_i' that produces the greatest increase in the number of words that a player can form with the letters in-hand. The key idea is to examine each candidate letter ℓ and determine the number of words $|W_i^{ih\ell}|$ that can be formed with existing letters in L_i^{ih} and the requested letter combined (this word set is $W_i^{ih\ell}$), rank these letters in decreasing order of $|W_i^{ih\ell}|$, and select the letter to request based on this ranking. This greedy process—in the sense of selecting the best letter, one at a time—gives a player the best opportunity to form new words. Note that as more letters have been requested and received, $|L_i'|$ decreases. We now provide the evidence for behavior that is aligned with this premise.

Data analysis. First, we rank all players by their performance in requesting letters, as follows. For each player v_i , and for each candidate letter $\ell \in L_i'$ requested, there is accompanying $L_i^{ih\ell}$, and we compute $|W_i^{ih\ell}|$. We rank these letters ℓ in decreasing size of $|W_i^{ih\ell}|$, so the top-ranked letter generates the most new words. With this ranking of letters, we identify the rank $r_{i,act}$ of the letter $\ell_{i,act}$ that was actually chosen in the experiment. For each v_i , we then compute an average letter rank

$r_{i,ave} = (1/n_{rh})\sum_{j=1}^{n_{rh}}[r_{i,act}]$ where n_{rh} is 1/2 of the total number of letter requests. We use only the first 1/2 of requests because as $|L'_i|$ decreases, the selected rank and the top-ranked letters will be more closely aligned because there are so few letters left; hence, in order to not bias the results, we use only the first 1/2 of letter requests. We rank the players v_i from smallest to largest value of $r_{i,ave}$, and divide the players into five equi-sized groups, P_1 through P_5 , where P_1 (resp., P_5) is the set of players with the least (resp. greatest) average rank. This partitioning is to ensure a sufficient number of observations for each bin. This means that the players in P_1 perform most closely to the idealized model directly above. Again, we partition based on player behaviors because we want to develop agent behaviors based on player behavior.

Second, we analyze each P_j , $j \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, separately, as follows. We take each $v_i \in P_j$, note each $r_{i,act}$ corresponding to each letter request in the first 1/2 of requests, and count the number of occurrences of the ranks of each requested letter, and summing the counts over all players. Results are shown in Figure 11. Note that for each 20% grouping, the number of occurrences of a selected rank generally increases as the rank decreases, though the effect is sometime less pronounced for some cases. We claim that the data support our premise, i.e., our model explains the data. That is, players select letters to request that generate the greatest increase in the number of words that they can form.

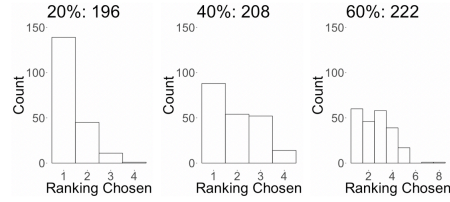


Fig. 11: Experimental data for the 5000-word corpus, with one plot for each value of the aptitude for letter request b_i^{req} of P_j , $j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, P_4 and P_5 are not shown. For each aptitude, the frequency of the rank of the chosen letter is plotted. Letter ranks are generated in decreasing order of the number of words that can be formed when a candidate letter is joined with L_i^{th} . These data show that players most often choose letters with lower rank in all five bins, meaning that they choose letters that can form relatively more words.

Algorithm for request letter. See the algorithm in Figure 12. Figure 13 provides a set of distributions for $\mathcal{D}^{lr}(|C_i^W|, b_i^{req}, r_{num})$, used in the algorithm, for the specific case of $|C_i^W| = 5000$ words.

D. Player Action: Reply to Letter Requests

Unlike the previous two models, this model is purely data-driven because there is no clear mechanistic model for this action.

Basic premise and key ideas. The goal is to produce a model that explains how players respond to letter requests from their neighbors. The basic premise is that players can be partitioned into categories of behavior, such as those players that always reply to all current letter requests in an uninterrupted series of replies, once they choose to reply to letter requests. The

Input: Agent $v_i \in V$. Agent letter requesting aptitude b_i^{req} . Word corpus or vocabulary C_i^W for v_i . Letters in-hand L_i^{th} . The set L'_i of letters that v_i 's neighbors were initially assigned that v_i has not yet requested; this is the candidate set of letters to request. The request number r_{num} for v_i . Distributions $\mathcal{D}^{lr}(|C_i^W|, b_i^{req}, r_{num})$ of letter ranks.

Output: Next letter ℓ^* that v_i requests, if any.

Steps:

- 1) Instantiate a map $m(\ell, W_i^{ih\ell})$.
- 2) **for each** $\ell \in L'_i$ **do**
 - (a) Form letter set $L_i^{ih\ell} = L_i^{th} \cup \{\ell\}$.
 - (b) Form all words $W_i^{ih\ell}$ from corpus C_i^W with all letters in $L_i^{ih\ell}$.
 - (c) Add $(\ell, W_i^{ih\ell})$ to $m(\ell, W_i^{ih\ell})$.
- 3) **If** each word set $W_i^{ih\ell} = \emptyset$, return no letter; terminate this algorithm.
- 4) Rank the letters in $\ell \in L'_i$ according to decreasing values of $|W_i^{ih\ell}|$ using $m(\ell, W_i^{ih\ell})$. Let $r(\ell)$ be the rank of ℓ .
- 5) *Comment:* The rank in absolute numbers of words is the same as the rank for the increase in numbers of new words that can be formed.
- 6) Determine the rank $r_{i,act}$ of the letter to select for requesting, as follows. Form the tuple $(|C_i^W|, b_i^{req}, r_{num})$, and select a distribution $\mathcal{D}^{lr}(|C_i^W|, b_i^{req}, r_{num})$ that is formed from data such as those in Figure 13. Sample from this distribution and call the sample $r_{i,act}$.
- 7) Select the letter ℓ^* such that $r(\ell^*) = r_{i,act}$. Remove ℓ^* from L'_i . Return ℓ^* .

Fig. 12: Steps of the Algorithm REQUEST LETTER, invoked from Figure 6. This algorithm returns a letter an agent requests.

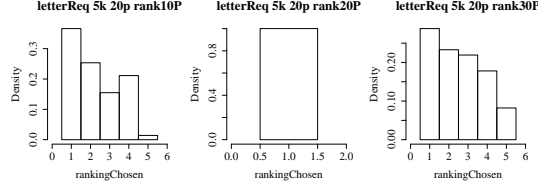


Fig. 13: For $|C_i^W| = 5000$, $b_i^{req} = P_1$, and for a particular request number r_{num} , there is a plot of the distribution $\mathcal{D}^{\ell r}(|C_i^W|, b_i^{req}, r_{num})$ of $r_{i,act}$. The three plots are for $r_{num} \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, in turn. $r_{num} \in \{4, 5\}$ are not shown. These distributions are formed from the data in Figure 11 and used in the algorithm of Figure 12 to obtain $r_{i,act}$ for v_i . There are analogous plots for each P_j , $j \in \{2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and for different vocabularies.

key ideas are that for each category, we need to determine how many replies to letter requests are made uninterrupted (i.e., contiguously), and for each number of letter replies, the time duration over which these letter replies are made.

Data analysis. There are four observed player behaviors in responding to letter requests: (1) a player replies to all letter requests in its reply buffer when she takes the reply action (FB case); (2) a player always replies to less than the full reply buffer (LTFB case); (3) a player sometimes replies as a player in (1) and sometimes as a player in (2) (Mixed case); and (4) a player never responds to any letter requests (NR case). See Table I. For each category, the fractions of players over all games that exhibit these behaviors are provided. The last two rows indicate whether we need to analyze the number of contiguous replies and whether we need to analyze the time over which these replies take place.

TABLE I: The four categories of player behavior for taking the action reply to letter requests of neighbors. See text for category names.

Player Category	FB	LTFB	Mixed	NR
Frac. Players	0.664	0.0636	0.176	0.0964
Need Reply Size	no	yes	yes	no
Need Reply Time	yes	yes	yes	no

First, we address the number letter requests that are replied to for the action reply to letter requests. We require data for only LTFB and Mixed categories because FB means that all letter requests in the buffer are replied to and NR means players never reply to any letter requests (see Table I). These data for LTFB and Mixed are shown in Figure 14, where the fraction of full buffer denotes the number of replies, binned in 25% increments, with a fifth category of 1.0 (i.e., respond to the full buffer). There are more data for the mixed category, and within this category, players tend to reply to 50% or 100% of the buffer.

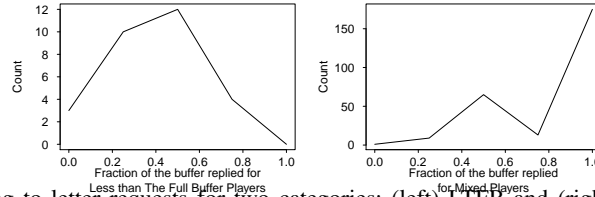


Fig. 14: Experimental data for replying to letter requests for two categories: (left) LTFB and (right) Mixed. The x-axis is partitioned into 25% increments, with a fifth category of 100% of buffer: $[0, 25\%]$, $(25\%, 50\%]$, $(50\%, 75\%]$, $(75\%, 100\%]$, and 100% of the reply buffer. The y-axis values are counts. These data are over all players in the LTFB and Mixed categories.

Second, we must know how long it takes for players to contiguously reply to more than one request. As Table I (last row) denotes, we must obtain these data for categories FB, LTFB, and Mixed. For each of these categories, we break the data into the times to reply to 2, 3, 4, 5, and ≥ 6 letter requests. Since there is far more data for FB than for LTFB and Mixed, we combine the LTFB and Mixed data for one distribution. Sample distributions are not provided owing to space limitations. A representative distribution of time durations for FB and for number of replies of $n^{rpl} = 2$, is provided in Figure 15.

Third, we evaluate how multiple replies are made. We find that for the FB category, the individual letter replies are roughly evenly spaced in time, whereas for LTFB and Mixed categories, the reply times to requests are more random.

Algorithm for reply to (letter) request. See the algorithm in Figure 16.

The distribution $\mathcal{D}^{n^{rpl}}(b_i^{rpl})$, used in the algorithm, is provided in Figure ?? . Figure ?? shows distributions $\mathcal{D}^{\Delta t}(b_i^{rpl}, n^{rpl})$ for the reply times for $b_i^{rpl} = \text{FB}$.

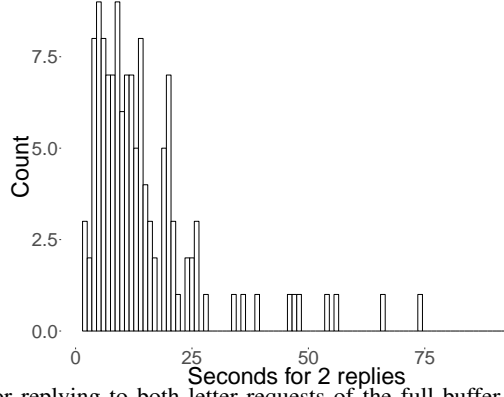


Fig. 15: Distributions of time durations for replying to both letter requests of the full buffer for player category FB (i.e., $n^{rpl} = 2$). Most of these two-reply actions occur in less than 25 seconds. There are similar distributions for other conditions.

Input: Agent $v_i \in V$. Agent reply to (letter) request aptitude b_i^{rpl} . Word corpus or vocabulary C^W for v_i . Graph of all players and comm. channels in simulation $G(V, E)$. Letters in hand L_i^{ih} . The set L'_i of letters that v_i 's neighbors were initially assigned that v_i has not yet requested; this is the candidate set of letters to request. Most recent word formed by v_i , w_1 . For reply aptitude $b_i^{rpl} = \text{LTFB}$ or Mixed, the distribution for sampling the number of requests to contiguously reply to n^{rpl} , $\mathcal{D}^{n^{rpl}}(b_i^{rpl})$. For aptitudes $b_i^{rpl} = \text{FB}$, LTFB, or Mixed, the distributions for time duration over which the n^{rpl} are made, $\mathcal{D}^{\Delta t}(b_i^{rpl}, n^{rpl})$.

Output: The number n^{rpl} of contiguous replies to make, and the time at which each letter is replied. (Letters are replied to in FIFO order.)

Steps:

- 1) The ordering of multiple replies to letter requests (i.e., for $n^{rpl} > 1$) are in FIFO (first in, first out) order.
- 2) Determine the number n^{rpl} of replies to letter requests that will be replied to contiguously by v_i , as follows. **If** $b_i^{rpl} = \text{FB}$, then the n^{rpl} is the size of the reply buffer. **Else If** $b_i^{rpl} = \text{LTFB}$ or Mixed, then the n^{rpl} is determined by sampling $\mathcal{D}^{n^{rpl}}(b_i^{rpl})$. **Else If** $b_i^{rpl} = \text{NR}$, then the $n^{rpl} = 0$ because this category of reply behavior does not reply to any request; terminate this algorithm.
- 3) Determine the total time duration Δt over which all n^{rpl} are made, by sampling $\mathcal{D}^{\Delta t}(b_i^{rpl}, n^{rpl})$.
- 4) Determine how the n^{rpl} replies to (letter requests) are spaced out over the interval Δt , as follows. **If** $b_i^{rpl} = \text{FB}$, then the n^{rpl} replies are spaced uniformly in time interval $[t, t + \Delta t]$, where the current time is t . **Else If** $b_i^{rpl} = \text{LTFB}$ or Mixed, then the n^{rpl} replies are spaced uniformly at random in time interval $[t, t + \Delta t]$.
- 5) With FIFO ordering, these steps provide an ordered list R of (time, reply to letter request) elements.
- 6) Execute these letter replies at the specified times, with “thinking” or “idle” action at intermittent times.
- 7) Return this ordered list R .

Fig. 16: Steps of the Algorithm REPLY TO REQUEST, invoked from Figure 6. This algorithm returns a time-ordered list of letter replies to execute.

Remark: In these various algorithms, elements of sets are returned, or a distribution corresponding to particular inputs is sampled. In some cases, there are no data for some condition. For these types of situations, we implement a recursive search technique to sample from the distribution or set with the closest set of inputs.

VI. MODEL EVALUATIONS

Evaluation Procedure. We evaluate our composite ABM by comparing experimental data with predictions from the component models of Figure 5 for form words and request letters.

For each experiment (game) and each player in each game, we have a time history trace of each of their actions, so that we have the complete state of each player in time. For each player in each game, when one of the three above actions is taken, we take the state of the player and execute the appropriate algorithm among Figures 9, 12, and 16. Moreover, for each of the three component models, we implemented a *null* model, in turn, where a word is selected uniformly at random from W_i^{ih} , a letter to request is selected uniformly at random from L'_i , or the number n^{rpl} of replies is chosen uniformly at random. Thus, we have for each v_i and each action type, three *kinds* of values for that action: (i) the experimentally measured value, (ii) the value generated according to the appropriate algorithm of Section V, and (iii) the value from the appropriate null model.

Our measures are as follows, and we compute each of these for each kind of data. For action “form word,” we compute $d_{i,act}^L(w_1, w_2)$ for successive words. For action “request letter,” we compute the rank r of the letter chosen. For action “reply to (letter) request,” we compute n^{rpl} .

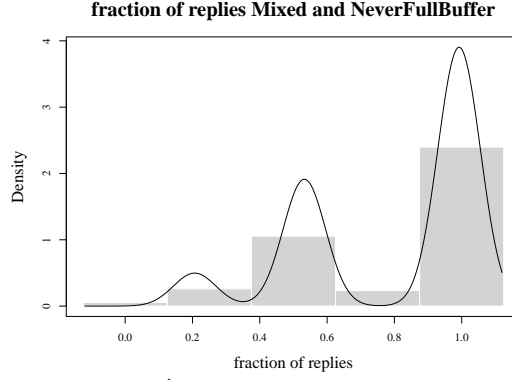


Fig. 17: For $b_i^{rpl} = \text{LTFB}$ and Mixed the distribution $\mathcal{D}^{n^{rpl}}(b_i^{rpl})$ to determine the fraction of the reply buffer to reply to with the requested letters. The value n^{rpl} is determined from sampling this distribution, and along with current size of the request buffer; this is used in the algorithm of Figure 16. These distributions are formed from the data in Figure 14.

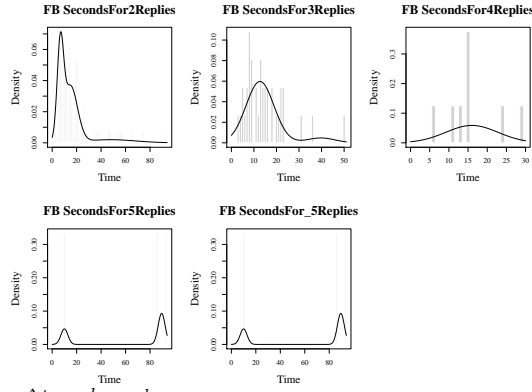


Fig. 18: For $b_i^{rpl} = \text{FB}$, the distribution $\mathcal{D}^{\Delta t}(b_i^{rpl}, n^{rpl})$ to determine the duration Δt over which all n^{rpl} are made. The value Δt is determined from sampling this distribution and is used in the algorithm of Figure 16. These distributions are formed from the data in Figure 15. Similar distributions were developed for $b_i^{rpl} = \text{LTFB}$ and Mixed categories of behavior.

Evaluation Results. For each of these kinds of data, we generate sequence histories of values, with error bars, for comparisons, and we compute α values that average these results. For example, for v_i , and word formation, we have $\alpha_i^{wf} = 1/(n^{wf} - 1) \sum d_i^L(w_1, w_2)$, for successive words w_1 and w_2 , for each of the three kinds of data. (Note: w_1 is the same for all three types of data.) Similarly for letter requests, we calculate v_i 's average rank of requested letters as $\alpha_i^{req} = 1/(n_i^{req}) \sum_{j=1}^{n_i^{req}} r_j$ and for replies to letter requests, we compute the average number of letter replies per reply action as $\alpha_i^{rpl} = 1/(n_i^{rpl}) \sum_{j=1}^{n_i^{rpl}} n^{rpl}$. We then compute the differences in corresponding α values between the model (labeled “opt” for optimal) and the experimental data, and the differences in α values between the null model and the experimental data. Figure 17 shows box plots of these differences for words formed and or letter requests. We see that the box plots for the optimal or true model have lesser variance and lesser median values than those for the null model, indicating greater conformance with experiments.

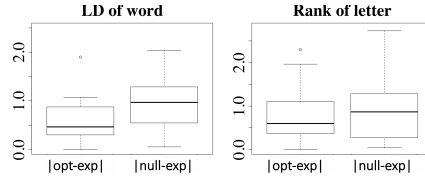


Fig. 19: (Left) Box plots for the LDs of formed words, comparing the model of Section V-B to a null model. (Right) Box plots for the ranks of letters requested, comparing the model of Section V-C with the null model. See text for details of data generation. The models of Section V are in better agreement with experimental data than null models.

VII. AGENT-BASED SIMULATIONS AND RESULTS

Simulation model. We conduct discrete time agent-based simulations (ABSSs) of the GrAG. Each time unit is one second of the 300-second GrAG. At each time and for each agent, an action is selected. Based on the action chosen, the corresponding

model for that action, developed herein, is executed (Figures 9 and 12 for “form word” and “request letter,” respectively, and Figure XXX of [8] for “reply to request”; the thinking action is a no-op). We run $n_{runs} = 30$ runs or simulation instances and average the results, with $t_{max} = 300$ seconds, as in the experiments. We use the 5000-word corpus C^W . Note that these are purely simulation studies and are not tied to the experiments. The goal is to demonstrate that the models alone provide insights into human behavior and game results.

Study 1: Effect of model aptitude properties. We use a game configuration $G(V, E)$ consisting of six players that form a circle, with each player having two neighbors. The initial letter assignments are given in Table II. We systematically vary the aptitudes of players in forming words b_i^{wf} , in requesting letters b_i^{req} , and in replying to letter requests b_i^{rpl} . See Table III. Recall that these aptitudes correspond to the bins P_1 through P_5 into which we partitioned the game players in experiments. In going from P_1 to P_5 , the skill levels of players decrease.

TABLE II: Initial letter assignments to players in simulations for six players arranged as 2-regular graph.

Player #:	1	2	3	4	5	6
Init. Ltrs:	b, a, t	m, e, n	l, u, t	s, o, p	h, u, g	r, i, e

TABLE III: Parameters that are systematically varied in the simulations. These aptitude (b_i^{wf} , b_i^{req} , b_i^{rpl}) settings are the same for all agents in a simulation.

Sim. No.	b_i^{wf}	b_i^{req}	b_i^{rpl}	Sim. No.	b_i^{wf}	b_i^{req}	b_i^{rpl}
1	P_1	P_1	FB	6	P_5	P_5	LTFB
2	P_2	P_2	FB	7	P_5	P_5	NR
3	P_3	P_3	FB	8	P_4	P_5	FB
4	P_4	P_4	FB	9	P_5	P_4	FB
5	P_5	P_5	FB	—	—	—	—

Figure 18 (left) shows the average number of interactions (requests sent, replies received, requests received, replies sent) and the average number of words formed per player for the first five simulation numbers (sim. no.) of Table III. There is a drop-off in performance in going from $b_i^{wf} = b_i^{req} = P_1$ to P_5 , for fixed $b_i^{rpl} = \text{FB}$. We observe that decreasing the letter request aptitude b_i^{req} and the word formation aptitude b_i^{wf} decreases the quality of letters requested and hence the number of words that can be formed.

To determine how b_i^{rpl} affects performance, we plot in Figure 18 (right) results from simulation numbers 5, 6, and 7 of Table III. Using $b_i^{wf} = b_i^{req} = P_5$ as a reference, there is a large decrease in reply interactions going from $b_i^{rpl} = \text{FB}$ to $b_i^{rpl} = \text{LTFB}$. Surprisingly, $b_i^{rpl} = \text{LTFB}$ shows a behavior comparable to not replying to any letter requests ($b_i^{rpl} = \text{NR}$).

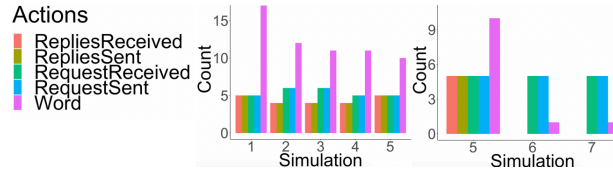


Fig. 20: (Left) Simulation results for Sim. nos. 1 through 5 of Table III. The average number of words formed per player drops in going from $b_i^{wf} = b_i^{req} = P_1$ to P_5 , for fixed $b_i^{rpl} = \text{FB}$. (Right) Simulation results for Sim. nos. 5, 6, and 7 of Table III. Using $b_i^{wf} = b_i^{req} = P_5$ as a baseline, these results show a precipitous drop-off in replies to letter requests, and to words formed, in going from $b_i^{rpl} = \text{FB}$ to $b_i^{rpl} = \text{LTFB}$. $b_i^{rpl} = \text{LTFB}$ shows a behavior comparable to $b_i^{rpl} = \text{NR}$.

Study 2: Effect of network connectivity and quality of letter assignments to players. We use a game configuration $G(V, E)$ consisting of four players v_i ($1 \leq i \leq 4$), that form a star. The initial letter assignments are given in Figure 19. All players have the following conditions $b_i^{wf} = b_i^{req} = P_1$, and $b_i^{rpl} = \text{FB}$. Player v_1 begins the game with the four most popular vowels in the alphabet; v_2, v_3 with the 6 most popular consonants; and v_4 with the five least popular constants. The numbers of requests received and replies sent are greatest for player v_1 . The number of words formed is least for player v_4 . Players v_2 and v_3 form more words than v_4 because they possess more popular consonants.

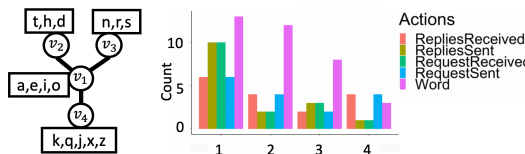


Fig. 21: Simulation for players v_i ($1 \leq i \leq 4$), arranged in a star. All players have the following conditions $b_i^{wf} = b_i^{req} = P_1$, and $b_i^{rpl} = \text{FB}$. Player v_1 is at the center with three neighbors. v_1 begins the game with the four most popular vowels in the alphabet; v_2, v_3 with the 6 most popular consonants and v_4 with the five least popular constants. See text for discussion of results.

VIII. SUMMARY AND LIMITATIONS

We have presented mechanistic and data-driven models for representing the reasoning and actions of humans in networked group anagram games. Our contributions are in Section I-D. We would like to (a) conduct more experiments at greater k and (b) control the quality of letters given to players in the game.

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