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# Emergence of cooperation via intention recognition, commitment and apology – A research summary

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**Abstract.** The mechanisms of emergence and evolution of cooperation in populations of abstract individuals, with diverse behavioral strategies in co-presence, have been undergoing mathematical study via evolutionary game theory, inspired in part on evolutionary psychology. Their systematic study resorts to simulation techniques, thus enabling the study of aforesaid mechanisms under a variety of conditions, parameters and alternative virtual games. The theoretical and experimental results have continually been surprising, rewarding and promising. In our recent work, we initiated the introduction, in such groups of individuals, of cognitive abilities inspired on techniques and theories of Artificial Intelligence, namely those pertaining to Intention Recognition, Commitment and Apology (separately and jointly), encompassing errors in decision-making and communication noise. As a result, both the emergence and stability of cooperation become reinforced comparatively to the absence of such cognitive abilities. This holds separately for Intention Recognition, for Commitment and for Apology, and even more so when they are jointly engaged.

Our presentation aims to sensitize the reader to these evolutionary game theory based issues, results and prospects, which are accruing in importance for the modeling of minds with machines, with impact on our understanding of the evolution of mutual tolerance and cooperation. Recognition of someone's intentions, which may include imagining the recognition others have of our own intentions, and may comprise not just some error tolerance, but also a penalty for unfulfilled commitment though allowing for apology, can lead to evolutionary stable win/win equilibriums within groups of individuals, and perhaps amongst groups. The recognition and the manifestation of intentions, plus the assumption of commitment – even whilst paying a cost for putting it in place – and the acceptance of apology, are all facilitators in that respect, each of them singly and, above all, in collusion.

**Keywords:** Intention recognition, commitments, evolution of cooperation, apology, multi-agent systems, evolutionary game theory

## 1. Introduction

In collective strategic interaction, wherein multiple agents pursue individual strategies, conflicts will arise

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because the actions of individual agents may have an effect on the welfare of others and on their own in return. Hence, in these situations the need arises for the regulation of individual and collective behavior, traditionally having followed two distinct approaches, well-known in the Economics and Artificial Intelligence literature [3,17,31,36,38,40,41,44,51,53]: the spontaneous emergence of order approach, which studies how

norms result from endogenous agreements among rational individuals, and the mechanism by design approach, which studies how norms are exogenously imposed in order to attain desirable properties of the whole.

In this short research summary, we describe the main results we obtained following essentially the former approach, but crucially complementing it in instilling some individual agents with cognitive abilities that can and will induce cooperation in the population. These abilities enable such individuals to recognize the opportunity whether to decide to cooperate outright, or possibly propose costly cooperation commitments, susceptible to compensation on defaulting, and to accept apology redressing dues. In consequence, cooperation can evolve and emerge.

The problem of evolution of cooperation and of the emergence of collective action – cutting across areas as diverse as Biology, Economy, Artificial Intelligence, Political Science or Psychology – is one of the greatest interdisciplinary challenges science faces today [2,32,45,60]. To understand the evolutionary mechanisms that promote and keep cooperative behaviour is all the more complex as increasingly intricate is the intrinsic complexity of the partaking individuals.

In its simplest form, a cooperative act is metaphorically described as the act of paying a cost to convey a benefit to someone else. If two players simultaneously decide to cooperate or not, the best possible response will be to try to receive the benefit without paying the cost. In an evolutionary setting, we may also wonder why would natural selection equip selfish individuals with altruistic tendencies while it incites competition between individuals and thus apparently rewards only selfish behavior? Several mechanisms responsible for promoting cooperative behavior have been recently identified [46,60]. From kin and group ties, to different forms of reciprocity and networked populations, several aspects have been shown to play an important role in the emergence of cooperation (see survey in [46,60]).

Moreover, more complex strategies based on the evaluation of interactions between third parties allow the emergence of kinds of cooperation that are immune to exploitation because then interactions are channelled to just those who cooperate. Questions of justice and trust, with their negative (punishment) and positive (help) incentives, are fundamental in games with large diversified groups of individuals gifted with intention recognition capabilities. In allowing them to choose amongst distinct behaviours based on suggestive infor-

mation about the intentions of their interaction partners – these in turn influenced by the behaviour of the individual himself – individuals are also influenced by their tolerance to error or noise in the communication. One hopes that, to start with, understanding these capabilities can be transformed into mechanisms for spontaneous organization and control of swarms of autonomous robotic agents [4], these being envisaged as large populations of agents where cooperation can emerge, but not necessarily to solve a priori given goals, as in distributed Artificial Intelligence (AI).

With these general objectives, we have specifically studied the way players' strategies adapt in populations involved in cooperation games. We used the techniques of Evolutionary Game Theory (EGT) [35,60], considered games such as the Prisoner's Dilemma and Public Goods Game [35,60], and showed how the actors participating in repeated iterations in these games can benefit from having the ability to recognize the intentions of other actors, to apologize when making mistakes, or to establish commitments, or to combine some of them, thereby leading to an evolutionary stable increase in cooperation [18,19,24,26–28], compared to extant best strategies.

In this paper, we summarize our recent publications on how intention recognition, commitment arrangement and apology can, separately and jointly, lead to the evolution of high levels of cooperation. We discuss how these works provide useful insights for mechanism design in multi-agent systems for regulative purposes. Evolutionary emergent futures are what we have studied, tied to the co-presence of fixed strategies in agents, though an agent may replace its strategy by a more advantageous one on occasion (social learning). We have not yet made a strategy also evolve by adopting features of other strategies into its own, through rule-defined strategies updating, which could be a direction for multi-agent systems (MAS).

## 2. Intention recognition promotes the evolution of cooperation

The ability of recognizing (or reading) intentions of others has been observed and shown to play an important role in many cooperative interactions, both in humans and primates [39,52,61]. However, most studies on the evolution of cooperation, grounded on evolutionary dynamics and game theory, have neglected the important role played by a basic form of intention recognition in behavioral evolution. In our work

[24,26], we have addressed explicitly this issue, characterizing the dynamics emerging from a population of intention recognizers.

In that work, intention recognition (IR) was implemented using Bayesian Networks (BN) [24,49,50], taking into account the information of current signals of intent, as well as the mutual trust and tolerance accumulated from previous one-on-one play experience – including how my previous defections may influence another’s intent – but without resorting to information gathered regarding players’ overall reputation in the population.

A player’s present intent can be understood here as how he’s going to play the next round with me, whether by cooperating or defecting [24]. Intention recognition can also be learnt from a corpus of prior interactions among game strategies [25,26], where each strategy can be envisaged and detected as players’ (possibly changing) intent to behave in a certain way [20,21]. In both cases, we experimented with populations with different proportions of diverse strategies in order to calculate, in particular, what is the minimum fraction of individuals capable of intention recognition for cooperation to emerge, invade, prevail and persist.

It is noteworthy that the notions of intentions used in our two models have been specialized for the concrete game-theoretical contexts in place. A more general definition, e.g. as described in Bratman’s seminal work [5–7], can accommodate for intention changes or even abandonment. For instance, a player can change his intention or strategy before the next interaction or round of game takes place. That aspect is generally not considered in EGT models, as players can change their strategy only at the end of a generation [60]. However, we envisage a convenient extension to that direction since our intention recognition methods – performed through Bayesian Network inference techniques, as described in [21] – can cope with intention changes and abandonment; even more, they have been tested with a benchmark generated in the EGT context itself [20]. Further discussion of the intention recognition models in the EGT context and possible extensions can be found in [19, Chapter 6].

Intention recognition techniques have been studied actively in AI for several decades [10,23,56], with several applications such as for improving human–computer interactions, assistive living, moral reasoning and team work [22,30,34,37,50,55]. In most of these applications the agents engage in repeated interactions with each other. Our results, both analytically and through extensive agent-based simulations, sug-

gest that equipping the agents with an ability to recognize intentions of others can improve their cooperation and reduce misunderstanding that can result from noise and mistakes. The simulations are carried out in the course of the repeated Prisoner’s Dilemma, in the presence of noise, and for varying configurations of the game as well as for a large number of runs. For further details of the simulation setups see [24–26].

### 3. Commitments promote the emergence of cooperation

Agents make commitments towards others when they give up options in order to influence others. Most commitments depend on some incentive that is necessary to ensure that an action (or even an intention) is in the agent’s interest and thus will be carried out in the future [16]. Asking for prior commitments can just be used as a strategy to clarify the intentions of others, whilst at the same time manifesting our own. All parties then clearly know to what they commit and can refuse such a commitment whenever the offer is made. A classical example of such an agreement is marriage. In that case mutual commitment ensures some stability in the relationship, reducing the fear of exploitation and providing security against potential cataclysms.

In our recent works [18,27] we investigate analytically and numerically whether costly commitment strategies, in which players propose, initiate and honor a deal, are viable strategies for the evolution of cooperative behavior, using the symmetric one-shot Prisoner’s Dilemma (PD) game to model a social dilemma. Next to the traditional cooperate (C) and defect (D) options, a player can propose its co-player to commit to cooperation before playing the PD game, willing to pay a personal cost to make the proposal credible. If the co-player accepts the arrangement and also plays C, they both receive their rewards for mutual cooperation. Yet if the co-player plays D, then he or she will have to provide the proposer with a compensation at a personal cost. The cost of compensation is agreed upon in advance, and is assumed to be enforceable, for instance, through the deposit-refund scheme [11] or external parties [42], although our work allows partial enforcement too [18]. Finally, when the co-player does not accept the deal, the game is not played and hence both obtain no payoff. Several free-riding strategies were included in the model, including (i) the fake committers, who accept a commitment proposal yet defect when playing the game, assuming that they can ex-

1 exploit the proposers without suffering a too severe con- 52  
 2 sequence; and (ii) the commitment free-riders, who de- 53  
 3 fect unless being proposed a commitment, which they 54  
 4 then accept and cooperate afterwards in the PD game. 55  
 5 In other words, these latter players are willing to co- 56  
 6 operate when a commitment is proposed but are not 57  
 7 prepared to pay the cost of setting it up. 58

8 Resorting the EGT mathematical analysis and sim- 59  
 9 ulations, we have shown that when the cost of arrang- 60  
 10 ing a commitment is justified with respect to the bene- 61  
 11 fit of cooperation, substantial levels of cooperation can 62  
 12 be achieved, especially when one insists on sharing the 63  
 13 arrangement cost [18]. On the one hand, such commit- 64  
 14 ment proposers can get rid of fake committers by 65  
 15 proposing a strong enough compensation cost. On the 66  
 16 other hand, they can maintain a sufficient advantage 67  
 17 over the commitment free-riders, because a commit- 68  
 18 ment proposer will cooperate with players alike her- 69  
 19 self, while the latter defect among themselves. We have 70  
 20 also compared the commitment strategy with the sim- 71  
 21 ple costly punishment strategy – an important one for 72  
 22 the evolution of cooperation [13] – where no prior 73  
 23 agreements are made. The results show that the first 74  
 24 strategy leads to a higher level of cooperation than the 75  
 25 latter one. For further details of the simulation setups 76  
 26 and mathematical analysis see [18,27]. 77

27 Note that in our work we specify commitments in 78  
 28 the context of one-shot interactions. When considering 79  
 29 repeated games, such as the repeated PD, we might ex- 80  
 30 tend the specification by having conditional commit- 81  
 31 ments, such as conditional promises and threats [57]. 82  
 32 It would be interesting to ask in this context whether 83  
 33 a long-term relationship is better sustained through di- 84  
 34 rect reciprocity or through proposing long-term com- 85  
 35 mitments, and how those two mechanisms interact. 86

36 There has been an extensive literature of AI and 87  
 37 MAS research on commitment, e.g., [8,9,57,64,65], 88  
 38 but the main concern therein is how to formalize dif- 89  
 39 ferent aspects of commitment and how a commitment 90  
 40 mechanism can be implemented in multi-agent inter- 91  
 41 actions to enhance these (e.g. for improved collabora- 92  
 42 tive problem solving [65]), especially in the context of 93  
 43 (non-evolutionary) game theory. Our work would pro- 94  
 44 vide insights into the design of MAS that rely on com- 95  
 45 mitments or punishment in order to incentivize coop- 96  
 46 eration among agents, see for example [33]. 97

#### 47 **4. Economical use of costly commitment via** 48 **intention recognition**

49 Commitments have been shown to promote cooper- 98  
 50 ation if the cost of arranging them is justified with re- 99  
 51 100

52 spect to the benefit of cooperation. But commitment 53  
 54 may be quite costly, which leads to the possible preva- 54  
 55 lence of commitment free-riders [18]. Hence, it should 55  
 56 be avoided when necessary. On the other hand, there 56  
 57 are many cases where it is difficult to recognize the 57  
 58 intention of another agent with sufficient confidence 58  
 59 to make any decision based on it. One may have in- 59  
 60 sufficient information for making the prediction (not 60  
 61 enough actions being observed, such as in the first in- 61  
 62 teraction scenario), or even one may know the agent 62  
 63 well, but also know that the agent is very unpredictable. 63  
 64 In such cases, the strategy of proposing a commitment, 64  
 65 or manifesting an intention, can help to impose or clar- 65  
 66 ify intentions of others. In addition, intention is usually 66  
 67 defined as choice with commitment [5,12,54]. That is, 67  
 68 once the agent intends to do something, it must settle 68  
 69 on some state of affairs for which to aim, because of 69  
 70 its resource limitation and in order to coordinate its fu- 70  
 71 ture actions. Deciding what to do establishes a personal 71  
 72 form of commitment [12,54]. Proposing a commitment 72  
 73 deal to another agent consists in asking it to express or 73  
 74 clarify its intended decisions. 74

75 In a marriage commitment, by giving up the option 75  
 76 to leave the other, spouses gain security and an oppor- 76  
 77 tunity for a much deeper relationship that would be 77  
 78 impossible otherwise [15,43], as it might be risky to 78  
 79 assume a partner's intention of staying faithful with- 79  
 80 out the commitment of marriage. A contract is an- 80  
 81 other popular kind of commitment, e.g. for an apart- 81  
 82 ment lease [15]. When it is risky to assume another 82  
 83 agent's intention of being cooperative, arranging an ap- 83  
 84 propriate contract provides incentives for cooperation. 84  
 85 However, for example in accommodation rental, a con- 85  
 86 tract is not necessary when the cooperative intention 86  
 87 is of high certainty, e.g. when the business affair is 87  
 88 between close friends or relatives. It said arranging a 88  
 89 commitment deal can be useful to encourage coopera- 89  
 90 tion whenever intention recognition is difficult, or can- 90  
 91 not be performed with sufficiently high certainty. On 91  
 92 the other hand, arranging commitments is not free, and 92  
 93 requires a specific capacity to set it up within a rea- 93  
 94 sonable cost (for the agent to actually benefit from it) 94  
 95 [42,43] – therefore it should be avoided when oppor- 95  
 96 tunity to do so. 96

97 With such motivations in mind, in our work [19,28] 97  
 98 we showed that if the player first predicts the intentions 98  
 99 of a co-player and proposes commitment only when 99  
 100 they are not confident about their intention prediction, 100  
 101 it can significantly facilitate the conditions for coopera- 101  
 102 tion to emerge. The improvement (in level of coopera- 102  
 103 tion) is most significant when it is costly to arrange

1 commitments and when the cooperation is highly ben- 52  
 2 efcial. The results were obtained using agent-based 53  
 3 simulations within the context of the one-shot PD. 54

4 In short, it seems to us that intention recognition, 55  
 5 and its use in the scope of commitment, is a founda- 56  
 6 tional cornerstone where we should begin at, naturally 57  
 7 followed by the capacity to establish and honor com- 58  
 8 mitments, as a tool towards the successive construc- 59  
 9 tion of collective intentions and social organization 60  
 10 [58,59]. Finally, one hopes that understanding these 61  
 11 capabilities can be useful in the design of efcient 62  
 12 self-organized and distributed engineering applications 63  
 13 [4], from bio- and socio-inspired computational algo- 64  
 14 rithms, to swarms of autonomous robotic agents. 65

## 16 5. Apology in committed vs. commitment-free 67 17 repeated interactions 68

18 Apology is perhaps the most powerful and ubiq- 69  
 19 uitous mechanism for conflict resolution [1,14,48], 70  
 20 especially among individuals involving in long-term 71  
 21 repeated interactions (such as a marriage). An apol- 72  
 22 ogy can resolve a conflict without having to in- 73  
 23 volve external parties (e.g. teachers, parents, courts), 74  
 24 which may cost all sides of the conflict significantly 75  
 25 more. Evidence supporting the usefulness of apol- 76  
 26 ogy abounds, ranging from medical error situations to 77  
 27 seller–customer relationships [1]. Apology has been 78  
 28 implemented in several computerized systems such as 79  
 29 human–computer interaction and online markets so as 80  
 30 to facilitate users’ positive emotions and cooperation 81  
 31 [62,63]. 82

32 The iterated Prisoner’s Dilemma (IPD) has been the 83  
 33 standard model to investigate conflict resolution and 84  
 34 the problem of the evolution of cooperation in repeated 85  
 35 interaction settings [2,60]. This IPD game is usually 86  
 36 known as a story of tit-for-tat (TFT), which won both 87  
 37 Axelrod’s tournaments [2]. TFT cooperates if the op- 88  
 38 ponent cooperated in the previous round, and defects 89  
 39 if the opponent defected. But if there can be erroneous 90  
 40 moves due to noise (i.e. an intended move is wrongly 91  
 41 performed), the performance of TFT declines, because 92  
 42 an erroneous defection by one player leads to a se- 93  
 43 quence of unilateral cooperation and defection. A gen- 94  
 44 erous version of TFT, which sometimes cooperates 95  
 45 even if the opponent defected [47], can deal with noise 96  
 46 better, yet not thoroughly. For these TFT-like strate- 97  
 47 gies, apology is modeled implicitly as one or more co- 98  
 48 operative acts after a wrongful defection. 99

49 In our recent work [29], we describe a model con- 100  
 50 taining strategies that explicitly apologize when mak- 101  
 51 ing an error between rounds. An apologizing act con- 102

52 sists in compensating the co-player an appropriate 53  
 54 amount (the higher the more sincere), in order to en- 55  
 56 sure that this other player cooperates in the next ac- 57  
 58 tual round. As such, a population consisting of only 59  
 60 apologizers can maintain perfect cooperation. How- 61  
 62 ever, other behaviors that exploit such apology be- 63  
 64 havior could emerge, such as those that accept apol- 64  
 65 ogy compensation from others but do not apologize 65  
 66 when making mistakes (fake apologizers), destroying 66  
 67 any benefit of the apology behavior. To study which 67  
 68 behaviour emerges from this game, we consider a pop- 68  
 69 ulation of different possible strategies, including those 69  
 70 that apologize when making mistakes and those which 70  
 71 are not willing to do so. Also, we have strategies 71  
 72 that accept apology (hence, compensation) from oth- 72  
 73 ers and those which do not. Resorting to EGT meth- 73  
 74 ods [60], we show that when the apology occurs in 74  
 75 a system where the players first ask for a commit- 75  
 76 ment before engaging in the interaction [18,19,27,28], 76  
 77 this exploitation can be avoided. Our results lead to 77  
 78 the following conclusions, having been validated both 78  
 79 analytically and through extensive agent-based sim- 79  
 80 ulations: (i) Apology alone is insufficient to achieve 80  
 81 high levels of cooperation; (ii) Apology supported by 81  
 82 prior commitment leads to significantly higher levels 82  
 83 of cooperation; (iii) Apology needs to be sincere to 83  
 84 function properly, whether in a committed relation- 84  
 85 ships or commitment-free ones (which is in accord- 85  
 86 ance with existing experimental studies, e.g. in [48]); 86  
 87 (iv) A much costlier apology tends to be used in com- 87  
 88 mitted relationships than in commitment-free ones, as 88  
 89 it can help better identify free-riders such as fake apol- 89  
 90 ologizers: ‘commitments bring about sincerity’. 90

91 As apology [62,63] and commitment [64,65] have 91  
 92 been widely studied in AI and Computer Science, for 92  
 93 example, about how these mechanisms can be formal- 93  
 94 ized, implemented, and used to enhance cooperation 94  
 95 in human–computer interactions and online market sys- 95  
 96 tems [62,63], as well as general multi-agent systems 96  
 97 [64,65], our study would provide important insights for 97  
 98 the design and deployment of such mechanisms; for 98  
 99 instance, what kind of apology should be provided to 99  
 100 customers when making mistakes, and whether apol- 100  
 101 ogy can be enhanced when complemented with com- 101  
 102 mitments to ensure better cooperation, e.g. compensa- 102  
 103 tion from customer’s for wrongdoing.

## 103 6. Conclusions 104

105 We have argued that the study of the aforementioned 105  
 106 issues has come of age and is ripe with research oppor- 106

tunities, having communicated some of the inroads we explored, and pointed to the more detailed published results of what we have achieved, with respect to intention recognition, commitment and mutual tolerance through apology, within the overarching evolutionary game theory context.

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