Trusting Different Information Sources in a Weather Scenario: A Platform for Computational Simulation

Rino Falcone, Alessandro Sapienza and Cristiano Castelfranchi
Institute for Cognitive Sciences and Technologies, ISTC – CNR, Rome, Italy

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Abstract: Thinking about a scenario with possible risk of flooding and landslides caused by weather conditions, it results really interesting to investigate the way in which citizens take decisions on the basis of different information sources they can access. In this work we start describing a platform we realized in order to study this social phenomenon. Then we present some simulative experiments showing how a population of cognitive agents trusting in a different way their information sources can make decisions more or less suited to the several weather patterns. The complexity of decisions is based on the fact that the agents differently trust the various sources of information, which in turn may be differently trustworthy. In our simulations we analyse some interesting case studies, with particular reference to social agents that need to wait others in order to make decision.

1 INTRODUCTION

Dealing with information, there is not just the problem of finding information, but it also necessary to select the most reliable information sources (Falcone et al, 2015), with respect to the scope of information. In case of the weather forecast we can consider different sources: official bulletin of authorities, the direct evaluation of some agents during the meteorological event, our own evaluation, and so on. Some of these sources are not correlated among them (a forecast is referred to mathematical model of the weather linked to its previous data, while a direct evaluation can be based on a current perception of the phenomenon). Then it is necessary to integrate these sources and at the same time to define their trustworthiness. For trusting an information source (S) we used a cognitive model (Castelfranchi and Falcone, 2010) based on the dimensions of competence and reliability/motivation of this source. These competence and reliability evaluations can derive from different reasons, basically:

- Previous direct experience with S on that specific information content;
- Recommendations (other individuals Z reporting their direct experience and evaluation about S) or Reputation (the shared general opinion of others about S) on that specific information content (Conte and Paolucci, 2002) (Jiang, 2013) (Sabater-Mir, 2003) (Sabater-Mir and Sierra, 2001) (Yolum and Singh, 2003);
- Categorizations of S (it is assumed that a source can be categorized and that it is known this category), exploiting inference and reasoning (analogy, inheritance, etc.): on this basis it is possible to establish the competence/reliability of S on that specific information content (Burnett et al, 2010) (Burnett et al, 2013) (Falcone and Castelfranchi, 2008) (Falcone et al, 2013).

However, as the trust model is not the main part of this paper, we simplified it, omitting the complex analysis that defines trust in the different sources. Our focus is on the integration of the information sources also based on their trustworthiness. In particular, we are interested in analysing how different populations of cognitive agents (composed by different percentage of agents who rely on various sources) react to the various weather situations and how many of them take the right decision (given the real weather).

Following we present the platform we realized in its entirely, to show all its capability. However in the simulation scenarios we use a simplified version of it.
2 TRUST FOR SOURCE EVALUATION

Given the complexity of simulations, we chose to use a relatively simple trust model, letting many parameters being unified in just one.

Trust decision in presence of uncertainty can be handle using uncertainty theory (Liu, 2014) or probability theory. We decided to use the second approach, as in this platform agents know a priori all the possible events that can happen and they are able to estimate how much it is plausible that they occur. In particular we exploit Bayesian theory, one of the most used approach in trust evaluation (Quercia et al, 2006) (Melaye and Demazeau, 2005) (Wang and Vassileva, 2003).

In this model each information source $S$ is represented by a trust degree called $TrustOnSource$, with $0 \leq TrustOnSource \leq 1$, plus a Bayesian probability distribution PDF $1$ (Probability Distribution Function) that represents the information reported by $S$.

The trust model allows the possibility of many events: it just split the domain in the corresponding number of interval. In this work we use three different events (described below), then the PDF will be divided into three parts.

The $TrustOnSource$ parameter is used to smooth the information referred by $S$. This is the formula used for transforming the reported PDF:

$$NewValue = 1 + (Value - 1) \cdot TrustOnSource$$

The output of this step is called Smoothed PDF (SPDF). We will have that:

- The greater $TrustOnSource$ is, the more similar the SPDF will be to the PDF; in particular if $TrustOnSource = 1 \Rightarrow SPDF = PDF$;
- The lesser it is, the more the SPDF will be flatten; in particular if $TrustOnSource = 0 \Rightarrow SPDF$ is a uniform distribution with value 1.

The idea is that we trust on what $S$ says proportionally to how much we trust it. In words, the more we trust $S$, the more we tend to take into consideration what it says; the less we trust $S$, the more we tend to ignore its informative contribution.

We define GPDF (Global PDF) the evidence that an agent owns concerning a belief $P$. Once estimated the SPDFs for each information source, there will be a process of aggregation between the GPDF and the SPDFs. Each source actually represents a new evidence $E$ about a belief $P$. Then to the purpose of the aggregation process it is possible to use the classical Bayesian logic, recursively on each source:

$$f(P|E) = \frac{f(E|P) \cdot f(P)}{f(E)}$$

where:

- $f(P|E)$ = GPDF (the new one)
- $f(E|P)$ = SPDF;
- $f(P)$ = GPDF (the old one)

In this case $f(E)$ is a normalization factor, given by the formula:

$$f(E) = \int f(E|P) \cdot f(P) \, dP$$

In words the new GPDF (the global evidence that an agent has about $P$) is computed as the product of the old GPDF and the SPDF, that is the new contribute reported by $S$. As we need to ensure that GPDF is still a probability distribution function, it is necessary to scale it down $2$, using the normalization factor $f(E)$.

3 THE PLATFORM

Exploiting NetLogo (Wilensky, 1999), we created a very complex and complete platform, where a lot of parameters are taken into account to model a variety of situations. However we didn’t use it in its fullness, but we made some simplifications to shape our scenarios.

3.1 The Context

Given a population distributed over a wide area, some weather phenomena happen in the world with a variable level of criticality. The world is populated by a number of cognitive agents (citizens) that react to these situations, deciding how to behave, on the basis of the information sources they have and of the trustworthiness they attribute to these different sources: they can escape, take measures or evaluate absence of danger.

In addition to citizens, there is another agent called authority. Its aim is to inform promptly citizens about the weather phenomena. Moreover the authority will be characterized by an uncertainty, expressed in terms of standard deviation.

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1It is modeled as a distribution continuous in each interval.

2To be a PDF, it is necessary that the area subtended by it is equal to 1.
3.2 Information Sources

To make a decision, each agent consults a set of information sources, reporting to it some evidence about the incoming meteorological phenomena. There are three kinds of information sources (whether active or passive) available to agents:

1. Their personal judgment, based on the direct observation of the phenomena. Although this is a direct and always true (at least in that moment) source, it has the drawback that waiting to see what happens could lead into a situation in which it is no more possible to react in the best way (for example there is no more time to escape if one realizes too late the worsening weather).

2. Notification from authority: the authority distributes into the world weather forecast with associated different alarm signals, preparing citizens to the events. This is the first informative source that agents have.

3. Others’ behavior: agents are in some way influenced by community logics; tending to partially or totally emulate their neighbors behavior.

The personal judgment and the notification from the authority are provided as clear signals: all the probability is focused on a single event. Conversely, for others’ behavior estimation the probability of each event is directly proportional to the number of neighbors making each kind of decision. If no decision is available, the PDF is a uniform distribution with value 1.

3.3 Costs and Damages

Agents’ performances are measured in terms of costs and damages, both at an individual/personal level and at a community/public level. We define cost whatever an agent has to pay if it takes a given decision. For instance, escaping could have the cost of moving from a place to another and possibly to lose the value of its own home; taking measures to avoid possible damages could result in home quick repairs etc. Then we define damage whatever an agent has to pay if it takes a wrong decision: if an agents didn’t make home quick repairs, it’s home could have been damaged; if it is not escaped, it could have been injured and then end up in hospital.

3.4 Agents Description

At the beginning of the simulation, the world is populated by a number of agents belonging to four categories. The main difference between them lays in how much trust they have in their information sources:

1. Self-trusting agents prefer to rely on their own capabilities and direct experience, having a high level of trust in their self; they need to see the phenomena to make a decision, but as a consequence they need more time to take a decision. For this kind of agents the trust values are: self trust 0.9; authority trust 0.3; community trust 0.3.

2. Authority-trusting agents put trust mainly on what the authority says, so they are the first to make a decision (weather forecast are distributed in advance with respect to phenomena): self trust 0.3; authority trust 0.9; community trust 0.3.

3. Social-trusting agents model agents that are influenced by social dynamics; they need to see what other agents choose and then they follow the majority: self trust 0.3; authority trust 0.3; community trust 0.9;

4. Equal-trusting agents are just naïve agents that tend to believe to anything: self trust 0.9; authority trust 0.9; community trust 0.9.

These trust degrees are then used to apply the trust model above described.

3.5 World Description

The world is made by 32x32 patches that wraps both horizontally and vertically. It is geographically divided in 4 quadrants of equal dimension, where agents are distributed in a random way. The quadrants differs in the possible weather phenomena that happens, modeled through the presence of clouds:

1. No event: there is just a light rain, from 1 to 29 clouds;

2. Medium event: there is heavy rain, that can make damages to agents or their properties; form 30 to 89 clouds;

3. Critical event: a tremendous event due to too high level of rain, with possible risks for the agents’ sake; from 90 clouds on.

These phenomena are not instantaneous, but they happen progressively in time. In particular, in each quadrant it will be added a cloud on each tick until the phenomena is completed.

The four quadrants are independent from each other but there can be an indirect influence as agents can have neighbors in other quadrants.
These events are also correlated to the alarms that the authority raises through its standard deviation. We use it to produce the alarm generated by the authority and from it depends the correctness of the prediction.

Figure 1: a world example. There are 200 agents (50 per category) plus the authority that is represented by the yellow house.

Figure 2: An example of world after an event. Starting from the quadrants in the upper left and proceeding clockwise, we can see events 1, 2, 3 and 3.

3.6 Workflow

We start generating a world containing an authority and a given number of agents belonging to different categories. At the time to the authority raises an alarm, reporting the level of criticality of the event that is going to happen in each quadrant (critic = 3, mean = 2, none = 1). Being just a forecast, it is not sure that it is really going to happen. However, as a forecast, it allows agents to evaluate the situation in advance, before the possible event, that starts randomly from $t_0$ to $t_1^3$.

During the decision making phase, agents check their own information sources, aggregating the single contributes according to the corresponding trust values. They estimate the possibility that each event happens and take the choice that minimizes the risk. Then they choose how to behave.

While agents collect information they are considered as “thinking”, meaning that they have not decided yet. When this phase reaches the deadline, agents have to make a decision, that cannot be changed anymore. This information is then available for the other agents (neighborhood), that can in turn exploit it for their decisions.

Then agents pay the cost of their decisions and maybe even some damages. In the end costs and damages for agents and authority both are computed to estimate the result.

3.7 The Decision-Making Phase

Once consulted all the three sources of information, agents subjectively estimate the probability that each single event happens.

The designed platform offers two way to proceed in the decision-making phase:

1. **The cost-damage mode**: agents know costs and damages relative to the possible choices and they take into account some considerations concerning that. In this case agents choose trying to minimize the sum of costs and damages.

2. **The probability mode**: in this second mode, agents just take into account probabilities; then they aim to react according to the event that is consider more likely to happen.

In both cases there are three possible choices:

1. **Escape**: agents abandon their homes.
2. **Take measures**: agents take some measure (quick repairs) to avoid possible damages due to weather event;
3. **Ignore the problem**: agents continue doing their activities, regardless of possible risks.

Concerning the cost-damage mode, we define then:

1. $P_{\text{critical event}}$ = probability that there is a critical event;
2. $P_{\text{medium event}}$ = probability that there is a medium event;

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This has been made in order to ensure that self-trusting agents cannot always see the whole critical event.
Agents estimate the decisional effort as follow:

\[ DE_{\text{escape}} = C_{\text{escape}} + P_{\text{medium\_event}} \times D_{\text{ignore}} \]
\[ DE_{\text{take\_measures}} = C_{\text{take\_measures}} + P_{\text{critical\_event}} \times D_{\text{escape}} \]
\[ DE_{\text{ignore}} = C_{\text{ignore}} + P_{\text{critical\_event}} \times D_{\text{escape}} + P_{\text{medium\_event}} \times D_{\text{take\_measures}} \]

In words, each decision has a cost that agents have to pay in any case. If their choice was right, they will not have penalties, otherwise they will pay a damage that depends on the events that happens. While estimating which decision is more convenient, the possible damages are weighted considering the probability that the event happens. The agent will reason about what is the best choice and it will take the decision that minimizes the decisional effort, namely the one that probabilistically carries less risks. It is worth noting that while costs and damages are equal for all the agents, probabilities are subjectively estimated.

Each decision has also an effect on the whole community/administration. In fact even authority owns, like the agents, costs and damages that however are indirectly due to decisions took by each single agents.

As identifying weights properly could be a really challenging operation, one could be just interested simplifying this process, using then the probability mode. Here agents will take into account:

1. \( P_{\text{critical\_event}} \) = probability that there is a critical event;
2. \( P_{\text{medium\_event}} \) = probability that there is a medium event;
3. \( P_{\text{no\_event}} \) = probability that there is no event;

Once identified the highest probability, agents will perform accordingly.

It is worth noting that these two methods are equal in the case in which:

1. \( C_{\text{escape}} = C_{\text{take\_measures}} = C_{\text{ignore}} \)
2. \( D_{\text{escape}} = D_{\text{take\_measures}} = D_{\text{ignore}} \)

### 3.8 Platform Input

The first thing that can be customized is the agents’ population. It is possible to put any number of agents belonging to the 4 categories previously described. Also one can set agents’ decision-making deadline, customizing their behavior. It is possible to change the authority reliability, modifying its standard deviation. Then it is possible to determine the events that are going to happen on each quadrant configuring what we call the event map: it is the set of the four events relative to the four quadrants, starting from the top left and proceeding clockwise.

The last sets of parameters that one can customize are agents and authority decision cost and damages. A setting rather than another can completely change agents’ behavior. A setting rather than another can completely change agents’ behavior.

### 3.9 Results Estimation

For each quadrant, it is possible to exploit a series of data to understand simulations’ results (actually their average on 500 runs):

1. Kind of event that actually happens, kind of alarm raised by the authority and the corresponding absolute error: example 3/(2.92/0.08);
2. Percentage of agents taking each kind of decision: this data is also available for each agent category;
3. Accuracy: how much the decisions taken by each agents’ category are right.
4. Surplus on cost: difference between the right choice cost (without damages) and that of the taken choice.
5. Surplus on the authority cost: this dimension describes how much the single decisions cost in average from the authority point of view. There could be situations in which what is better for the authority/community is not good for the individual citizens.
4 SIMULATIONS

We decided to use the realized platform in order to understand how the decisions of agents preferring direct experience (self-trusting) or using trusted sources (authority-trusting) affect, positively or negatively agents that need others to decide (social-trusting).

We investigated a series of scenarios, populated by different percentages of agents belonging to those three categories, in order to verify the community behavior.

We tried influencing social-agents with authority trusting and self trusting agents. In fact, it is particularly interesting to observe what happen in presence of divergent sources.

4.1 Scenario: Authority, Self and Social

Simulation setting:
1. Agents population: we tried 7 different configurations of authority-trusting agents (AT), self-trusting agents (SeT) and social-trusting agents (SoT); (100,100,0), (80,80,40), (60,60,80), (40,40,120), (20,20,160), (10,10,180) and (0,200).
2. Authority reliability: we used the value 0.3 to shape a very reliable authority and 0.9 to shape an incompetent one.
3. Event map: [1 3 3 2].
4. Cost and damages: we choose to use the probability mode, so that we didn’t care about these parameters.
5. Decision making deadline (since the simulation starts): 30 ticks for AT; a randomly generated value in the interval [105,125] ticks for SeT; 115 for SoT.

For sake of simplicity, we report just result of quadrants 1, 2 and 4, as quadrants 2 and 3 are quite the same. The following graphs represent the accuracy of the two populations in each quadrant.

This is a really interesting scenario, as SoT agents sometime have to deal with discarding sources. In order to better understand the experiment, let’s analyze what happens when agents decide.

AT agents decide at time 30. Their decisions are influenced just by the authority, then they don’t need extra time to see what is going to happen neither are interested in what other agents do. Their performance strictly depends on the authority accuracy. Plus the whole category will always take the same decision: there won’t be an AT agent that decide differently from the others.

Concerning SeT agents, they are designed as the experts inside the population. They are able to understand the phenomena and decide accordingly. We assume that the last moment to make a decision is 125 ticks, but not all of them will take all this time to decide. Their deadline is randomly generated inside the interval [105, 125].

Their decision will always be true in case of no event or medium event, but just a few of them will be able to see completely a critical event. From the graph we can see it is about 45% of them.

Finally, SoT agents need to see what others do, but this means that they will be slower. Supposing that they will need 10 ticks from the moment in which they decide to the moment in which they actually put into practice their decision, we decided to set their deadline to 115 ticks. This means that at the moment they decide just half of SeT agents has decided, moreover it is the part that take the worst decision as it has the higher probability to do not see the whole phenomena. Conversely, all AT agents decided. This means that SoT agents will be mainly...
Figure 4: Accuracy in quadrants 1, 2 and 4 when the authority standard deviation is 0.9.

influenced by AT agents. This is clearly visible in all the graph: the SoT curve is nearer to AT curve than SeT curve.

Globally, SoT agents are able to perform well but they never get the best performance. Actually in case of critical event and high authority standard deviation they are the worst, but this is reasonable as they just use wrong information.

In case of medium or no event and low authority standard deviation, when both SeT and AT agents perform well and represent good sources, we notice that SoT agents perform a little worse than them. This is due to the fact that SoT agents are also socially influenced by agents in other quadrants, using information that is correct but in another context.

5 CONCLUSIONS

In the first part of this work we presented the platform we realized in order to study citizen behavior in case of different levels’ weather phenomena. It is in fact interesting to study how different citizens react to different stimuli derived by their information sources. The platform is endowed with a Bayesian trust evaluation model that allows citizens to deduce information from their own information sources. This very complex platform can be populated by a number of agents/citizens belonging to a set of predefined categories. In this case categories are useful to differentiate the behavior of each agents, specifying how much trust they have in their information source. In addition to agents, a lot of parameters can be customized, giving the possibility to recreate a lot of different simulation scenarios.

After that, we used the proposed platform with the aim of studying how agents that need to follow others behave. We put into the world three kind of agents weighing information sources differently (social trusting, authority trusting and self trusting) and we tried to understand the influence of these last two on social trusting agents.

Results clearly show that social agents are able to get good performance, following their information sources, but they never get optimal results. We also showed that they are negatively influenced by the behavior of agents in other quadrants. Although not well studied, this phenomenon results to be quite interesting and it could become object of interest following this research line.

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