

# The Gopher's Gambit

## *Survival Advantages of Artifact-Based Intention Perception*

Cynthia Hom<sup>†,1</sup><sup>a</sup>, Amani R. Maina-Kilaas<sup>†,1</sup><sup>b</sup>, Kevin Ginta<sup>2</sup><sup>c</sup>, Cindy Lay<sup>3</sup><sup>d</sup>, and  
George D. Montañez<sup>1</sup><sup>e</sup>

<sup>1</sup>AMISTAD Lab, Department of Computer Science, Harvey Mudd College, Claremont, CA, USA

<sup>2</sup>Department of Math and Computer Science, Biola University, La Mirada, CA, USA

<sup>3</sup>Department of Mathematical Sciences, Claremont McKenna College, Claremont, CA, USA  
{chom, amainakilaas, gmontanez}@hmc.edu, kevin.ginta@biola.edu, clay22@cmc.edu

<sup>†</sup>denotes equal authorship.

**Keywords:** awareness, intention perception, risk, trap, agents, intention trilogy

**Abstract:** Being able to assess and calculate risks can positively impact an agent's chances of survival. When other intelligent agents alter environments to create traps, the ability to detect such intended traps (and avoid them) could be life-saving. We investigate whether there are cases for which an agent's ability to perceive intention through the assessment of environmental artifacts provides a measurable survival advantage. Our agents are virtual gophers assessing a series of room-like environments, which are potentially dangerous traps intended to harm them. Using statistical hypothesis tests based on configuration coherence, the gophers differentiate between designed traps and configurations that are randomly generated and most likely safe, allowing them access to the food contained within them. We find that gophers possessing the ability to perceive intention have significantly better survival outcomes than those without intention perception in most of the cases evaluated.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Imagine a wealthy individual has announced they have hidden a large sum of money in an abandoned mine. You feel particularly adventurous and visit the mine in search of treasure. Approaching one of the mine's many entrances, your excitement plummets as you notice the hazardous conditions. The precarious wooden floor planks separating you from a 50-foot drop are worn and rotted. Trails of crumbling rock intermittently fall from the roof and walls, indicating a potential cave-in at any time. You slowly realize this may not be accidental; perhaps the owner of the mine *intended* to make the situation hopelessly dangerous. As you survey the space with increasing skepticism, you notice some strange beam-and-rope structures attached to a few of the platforms—their trap-like appearance sets off additional red flags. Weighing your safety against the possibility of reward, you decide the perilous quest is not worth the risk.

*Red flags* often warn us of danger. They are observable signals which humans and animals instinctively use to determine what actions to take after sensing potential danger. More generally, risk assessment identifies possible events, along with their likelihood of occurring, that may negatively impact the individual. Risk assessment is a fundamental tool for survival, not only in nature but also in other dangerous situations and environments, such as volatile confrontations and unstable locations (Lowrance, 1980). The perception of agent intention, which we call *intention perception*, represents a particular kind of risk assessment, judging whether other external agents intend to harm or simply ignore the perceiving agent. While intention perception is often physical and direct, such as using eye tracking to estimate attention, intentions can also be communicated through artifacts, such as words and engineered works.

This manuscript is one of a trilogy of forthcoming papers by our research group exploring the potential survival advantages of intention perception in artificial agents. The other two studies focus on direct and indirect intention perception based on agent interactions, exploring the impact of intention perception on an agent's ability to survive hazardous environments as well as avoid dangerous confrontations.

<sup>a</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5346-7451>

<sup>b</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1555-4666>

<sup>c</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1410-2465>

<sup>d</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3305-6815>

<sup>e</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1333-4611>

This present work moves beyond direct perception of agents to consider intention perception through evaluation of indirect physical artifacts, namely, through the assessment of potentially intended traps. We ask the question, “*Are there cases for which intention perception provides survival advantages for simulated agents?*” While an advantage may be expected, it is not obvious whether such an advantage would outweigh potential trade-offs or be measurable over stochastic noise. We therefore investigate this question and find that all three studies arrive at the same conclusion: having intention perception often leads to measurable and significant survival advantages for agents that possess it.

Given that traps intentionally constructed by agents are far more likely to be lethal than unintended traps (see Section 3.1), being able to differentiate intentionally-constructed traps from randomly assembled configurations should correlate with higher survival rates. We thus test if an agent’s ability to perceive intention indirectly, through the study of an artifact, continues to provide survival advantages. Note, in what follows we often refer to both designed and randomly generated configurations as *traps*, since from the gopher’s perspective, every configuration is a potential trap.

## 2 RELATED WORK

There has been a wide array of research on spatial awareness and risk assessment (Brown and Humphrey, 1955; Vorhees and Williams, 2014; Norman et al., 2013; Nogueira et al., 2015; Crawford and Cacioppo, 2002; Norman et al., 2013). However, most work involving risk perception focuses on the psychological reasoning behind an individual’s actions.

Brown and Humphrey found that spatial learning is not necessarily bound to a specific location, but rather is often generalizable since performance can be facilitated between new and different environments (Brown and Humphrey, 1955).

Navigation in regards to spatial learning has been categorized into two distinct types: *allocentric way-finding* and *egocentric way-finding* (Vorhees and Williams, 2014). The former refers to agents navigating through distal cues such as visual perception of landmarks, while the latter refers to agents navigating through internal cues such as feedback from limb movement. Our experiment uses a version of allocentric way-finding since the agent observes its environment without direct contact.

Others have found that humans tend to observe

stimuli that represent danger even when correlation is weak or they’ve been primed not to (Crawford and Cacioppo, 2002). Even though attention and awareness have distinct neural signatures (Norman et al., 2013), our brain is hard-wired to identify stimuli that can produce negative outcomes.

There is growing empirical and theoretical support that animals, including humans, use these pessimistic cognitive biases to judge ambiguous cues as negative events (Nogueira et al., 2015). Thus, “better-safe-than-sorry” is an approach often taken in nature, and forms an appropriate characteristic to model within our agents.

## 3 METHODS

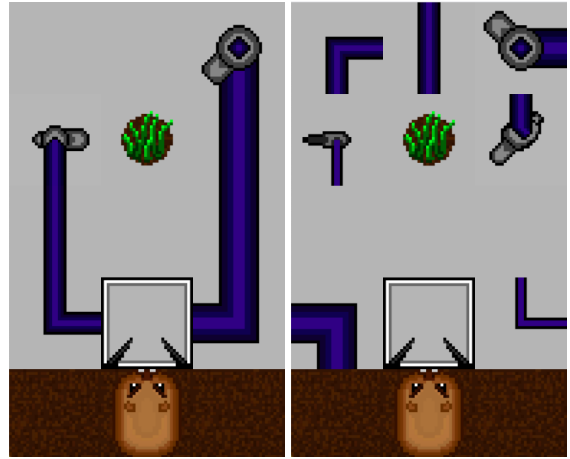


Figure 1: A real trap (left) and a randomly generated trap (right), in our simulated agent world.

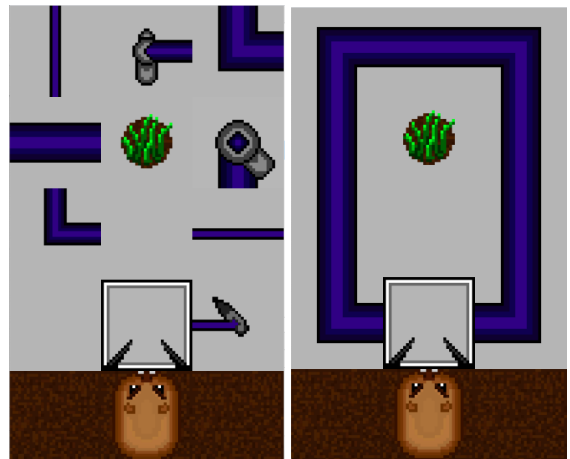


Figure 2: Coherence is correlated with functionality but does not imply it, as exemplified by a functional incoherent trap (left) and a nonfunctional coherent trap (right).

Our goal is to study how survival is impacted when an agent can detect their environment as “intentionally set up.” We represent this situation by having a simulated gopher agent analyze a series of traps that each contain food. The simulated gopher then decides, based on a notion of intentionality, if it should enter and attempt to eat the food.

### 3.1 The Traps

The traps are designed as grids that hold an assortment of components needed to make the trap functional. The components consist of a door, connecting wires, and a laser gun that we call an “arrow.” If everything is properly connected, with matching orientations and wire thicknesses, the door will send a “pulse” through the wires to the arrow, which should then fire a laser and “zap” the gopher. Because of these requirements, a randomly generated trap layout with pieces haphazardly strewn around is unlikely to pose a threat. Traps that are designed to harm the gopher are much more likely to be “coherent,” meaning that each wire or arrow cell should be properly connected to another.

In more detail, every trap is composed of a 4x3 grid of “cells.” For each trap, the bottom center cell is the door, the one above is a floor cell, and the one above that is food, creating a 3-cell path for the gopher.

Table 1: Trap cell piece types.

| Type  | Description                 |
|-------|-----------------------------|
| Floor | Space for gopher to walk on |
| Door  | Trap entryway               |
| Wire  | Carries pulse signal        |
| Arrow | Shoots the projectile       |
| Food  | Contains food for gopher    |
| Dirt  | Space between traps         |

For trap variations, this leaves the remaining 9 cells to be designated as wire cells, floor cells, or arrow cells of various thicknesses and rotations.

Considering these variations, there are  $4.28 \times 10^{17}$  total possible traps, most of which would be nonfunctional. The gopher faces a series of real and random traps. In general, the randomly-generated traps zap the gopher with an observed frequency of 6.4%, and kill the gopher with an observed frequency of 1.9%.

### 3.2 Gophers

Some simulated gopher agents are given intention perception—the ability to assess trap coherence. We conjecture that there is a difference between the co-

herence of intentionally designed traps and randomly generated traps, and thus equip gophers with “sensors” that measure the coherence of observed traps. If it is statistically surprising to stumble upon a coherent randomly-generated trap, the gopher will reject the hypothesis that the trap was randomly generated, conclude it was intended for the gopher, and choose to not enter the trap. Note that coherence is not the same as functionality, as illustrated in Figure 2. Gophers then repeat this process of deciding and entering traps until the gopher either gets killed, dies from starvation, or survives by making it through fifty traps.

Gophers with intention perception sense if traps are deliberately harmful using the algorithm described in Section 3.3. The intention perception gopher will always enter a trap deemed random and will always avoid a trap deemed intentional unless passing the trap would cause the gopher to starve.

Gophers without intention perception, which we call *baseline gophers*, cannot analyze the traps, and choose to enter according to the following probability:

$$P'_e(H) = P_e \cdot (1 - H^{10}) + H^{10} \quad (1)$$

where  $P_e$  is the default probability of entering,  $H$  is the current level of hunger (ranging from 0 to 1), and  $P'_e(H)$  is the adjusted probability of entering. The number of traps a gopher is allowed to endure without eating is called the Maximum Fasting Interval (MFI), and hunger is then given by

$$H(n) = \frac{n+1}{\text{MFI}} \quad (2)$$

where  $n$  is the number of traps the gopher has gone without food.

If the gopher does enter the trap, a pulse is instantly released from both sides of the door. If there are coherent connections, this pulse will travel to an arrow which will fire and possibly hit the gopher. The strength of the attack depends on the thickness of the arrow, with wide arrows having the highest probability of killing the gopher.

Since the pulse takes time to travel, eating food for a while may be a disadvantage. Thus, we base the amount of time a gopher spends eating on its confidence about entering the trap according to the following process. Let the gopher’s probability of entering given the specific trap  $t$  be denoted by  $P_{e,t}$ . For baseline gophers,  $P_{e,t} = P_e$ , and for intention gophers  $P_{e,t} = 1$  if the trap is concluded random and  $P_{e,t} = 0$  if concluded real. We define the “ideal time” ( $T_i$ ) a gopher should spend eating as  $T_i = 5P_{e,t}$ . We then create “probability bins” corresponding to timers ranging from 1 to 5 frames and identify the ideal bin ( $B_i$ ) as the lowest bin greater or equal to  $T_i$ . The ideal bin is

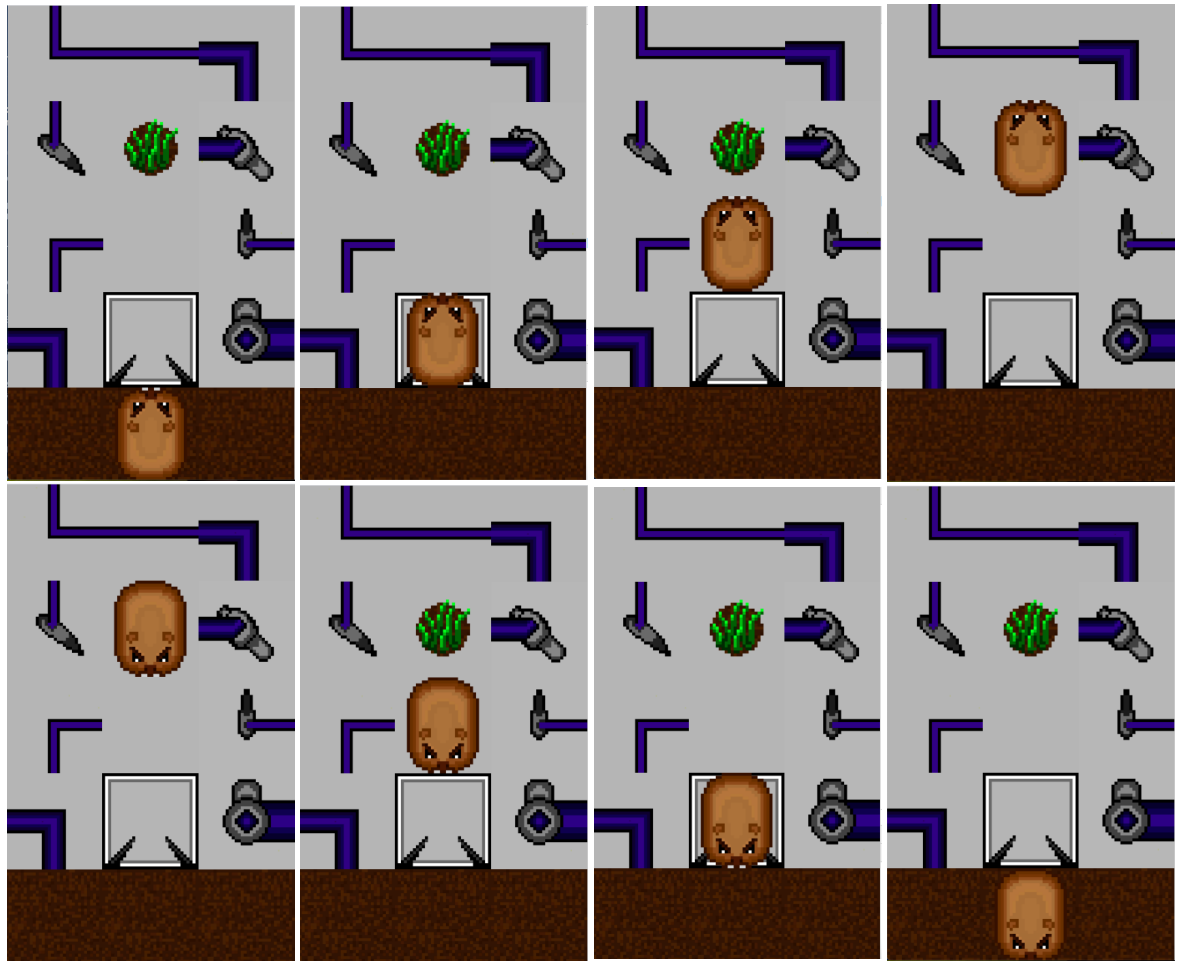


Figure 3: The baseline gopher as it enters a random trap, eats, and then leaves.

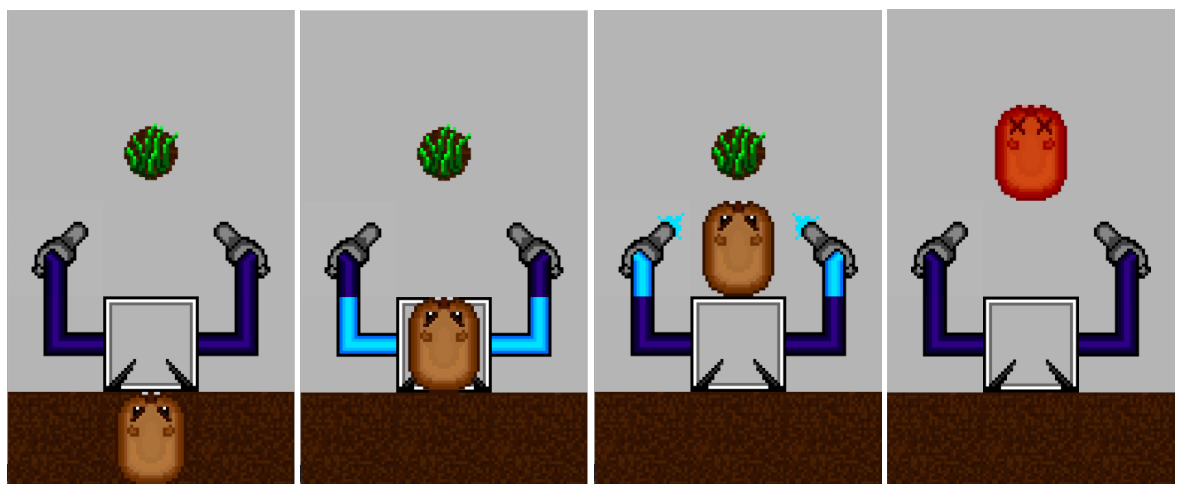


Figure 4: The baseline gopher as it enters a real trap and is killed.

assigned 0.6 probability. If  $1 < B_i < 5$ , then the adjacent bins are assigned 0.15 each. Otherwise if  $B_i$  is 1 or 5, then the nearest bin is assigned 0.2 and the second nearest 0.1. The remaining two bins are assigned 0.05. We then select the real timer according to these probabilities.

Table 2: Observed frequency of intention gopher concluding a real trap, when real traps are sampled with  $P_r$  probability. The actual proportion of real traps encountered will often deviate slightly from the expected proportion,  $P_r$ .

| $P_r$ | Frequency (rounded) |
|-------|---------------------|
| 0.00  | 0.0000              |
| 0.05  | 0.0499              |
| 0.10  | 0.0995              |
| 0.15  | 0.1488              |
| 0.20  | 0.1997              |
| 0.25  | 0.2490              |
| 0.30  | 0.2989              |
| 0.35  | 0.3495              |
| 0.40  | 0.3990              |
| 0.45  | 0.4485              |
| 0.50  | 0.5018              |
| 0.55  | 0.5511              |
| 0.60  | 0.6005              |
| 0.65  | 0.6494              |
| 0.70  | 0.7013              |
| 0.75  | 0.7514              |
| 0.80  | 0.7997              |
| 0.85  | 0.8501              |
| 0.90  | 0.8984              |
| 0.95  | 0.9489              |
| 1.00  | 1.0000              |

### 3.3 The Intention Perception Algorithm

#### 3.3.1 Statistical Model Definition

To simulate indirect intention perception, we use the *functional information* model introduced by Hazen et al. (Hazen et al., 2007) within the statistical hypothesis test framework of Montañez (Montañez, 2018), joining other recent studies building on this same framework (Díaz-Pachón et al., 2020; Thorvaldsen and Hössjer, 2020). The model evaluates the surprise level ( $S$ ) of a random configuration variable meeting or exceeding a given level of function.

Following Montañez, we compute the model as

$$S(x) = -\log_2 \left[ |\mathcal{X}|(1 + \ln |\mathcal{X}|) \frac{p(x)}{F_g(x)^{-1}} \right] \quad (3)$$

where  $\mathcal{X}$  is the space of possible configurations,  $p(x)$  a probability measure on space  $\mathcal{X}$ , and  $F_g(x)$  the pro-

portion of configurations that have levels of function greater than or equal to those of configuration  $x$  (Montañez, 2018).

Under the model,  $F_g(x)$  is calculated according to the following equation:

$$F_g(x) = M_g(x)/|\mathcal{X}|, \quad (4)$$

where  $|\mathcal{X}|$  is the total number of configurations, and  $M_g(x)$ , the number of configurations with levels of function greater than or equal to  $x$ , is calculated according to

$$M_g(x) = |\{x' \in \mathcal{X} : g(x') \geq g(x)\}|, \quad (5)$$

with  $g(x)$  denoting the level of function for  $x$ .

#### 3.3.2 Using the Model

In our experiments, we define  $x$  as a configuration (e.g., trap),  $\mathcal{X}$  as the space of all possible configurations,  $p(x) = 1/|\mathcal{X}|$ , and  $g(x)$  as the number of coherent connections per nonempty cell. We define a coherent connection as an interface between two cells with identical thickness types, as well as matching endpoints (see Figure 10), while we define a nonempty cell as either a wire or an arrow cell.

$M_g(x)$  is then the total number of configurations with a number of coherent connections per nonempty cell that is greater than or equal to that of  $x$ , the configuration in question.

Successful use of the above statistical model requires computing  $M_g(x)$  for every  $g(x)$  observed. To aid simulation, we pre-compute  $M_g(x)$  for all possible  $g(x)$  values, shown in Table 4 of the Appendix. When intention perception gophers are presented with an unknown configuration  $x$ ,  $g(x)$  is computed and used to retrieve the corresponding pre-calculated  $M_g(x)$  value from the table. Using Equations 3 and 4 to calculate  $S(x)$  and  $F_g(x)$ , respectively, yields the surprise value under the null hypothesis that the unknown configuration was generated by a uniform random process.

We reject the null hypothesis that a trap is randomly generated at an  $\alpha$  level of 0.0001, corresponding to a surprise value of 13.29 bits. Thus, under the null hypothesis there is no more than a probability of 0.0001 that a trap with surprise value of 13.29 bits or greater was randomly generated by the null distribution process (Montañez, 2018). Note that  $\alpha$  controls the false positive rate: empirically verifying that no more than 100 out of every 1,000,000 randomly generated traps should achieve surprise values of 13.29 or more bits, we found that only 17 of 20,000,000 traps did so under independent uniform random sampling. This gives an observed rate of fewer than one per million, well under the maximum of one hundred

per million guaranteed by the bound. The same  $\alpha$  threshold achieves a false negative rate of zero when tested against all sixty-three designed traps in our set. It should be noted that trap architects did not have coherence as a goal when designing their traps, but simply sought to create traps that reliably killed gophers. The high degree of coherence in their traps was simply a side-effect of the design process.

### 3.4 Cautious Gophers

Gophers with intention perception can be more timid than gophers without such perception, since the former will avoid traps that baseline gophers would enter. To rule out the possibility that survival advantages of intention perception are due simply to an increase in caution, we perform an additional experiment. This experiment involves creating a “cautious gopher,” which uses the same logic as the intention perception gopher except with an intention algorithm uncorrelated with the actual design of the traps. Instead of basing its conclusion on the trap in front of it, the cautious gopher randomly determines traps to be real with the observed frequency that intention perception gophers do. Thus, they are exactly as cautious as intention perception gophers, but do not benefit from intention perception itself.

The observed frequencies in Table 2 were each calculated from 10,000 independent simulations of intention perception gophers, each of which assessed between 1 and 50 traps. Note that since the intention perception gopher’s algorithm for trap assessment is highly accurate, these observed frequencies quickly approach the true percentage of real traps.

## 4 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

Once a gopher decides to enter a trap, it will move directly toward the food, eat there for a short while, and then exit the trap, regardless of whether it is a baseline, intention perception, or cautious gopher. If any arrows fire while the gopher is present, the gopher will immediately leave regardless of whether it was hit, modeling animal skittishness. If a gopher decides to exit while still eating, it does not count as having eaten.

Our experiments are parameterized to control for the effects of various design choices and to adjust simulation behavior.  $P_e$  is the default probability of entering a trap and is used in the baseline gopher’s decision algorithm in conjunction with its hunger.  $P_r$  is the probability that any trap the gopher encounters is a real trap.  $P_{k,w}$ ,  $P_{k,n}$ , and  $P_{k,s}$  are the probabilities of

each arrow thickness type killing a gopher on a successful hit. Note that each hit is an independent event and there is no notion of “health” in this simulation. Finally, the Maximum Fasting Interval (MFI) is the number of traps that a gopher can endure without eating before it starves. A summary of these parameters and their default values is given below in Table 3.

Table 3: Default values for experiment parameters.

| Param.    | Description                     | Value                |
|-----------|---------------------------------|----------------------|
| $P_e$     | Default prob. of entering trap  | 0.8                  |
| $P_r$     | Prob. of encountering real trap | 0.2                  |
| $P_{k,w}$ | Prob. of kill w/ wide arrow     | 0.45                 |
| $P_{k,n}$ | Prob. of kill w/ normal arrow   | $\frac{2}{3}P_{k,w}$ |
| $P_{k,s}$ | Prob. of kill w/ skinny arrow   | $\frac{1}{3}P_{k,w}$ |
| MFI       | Maximum Fasting Interval        | 4                    |

For each setting of the parameter values (called a *seed*), we ran 10,000 independent trials, averaged the measured outcomes and computed their confidence intervals. We present these results next.

## 5 RESULTS

Figures 5–8 show the gopher’s lifespan and food consumption when varied against multiple factors. As stated previously, each line represents the mean of 10,000 independent runs per seed, surrounded by (tight and nearly imperceptible) 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 5 reveals that intention perception provides an advantage with regard to both survival rate and food consumption as we vary the baseline gopher’s probability of entering a trap ( $P_e$ ). Across all  $P_e$  values, the lifespan of a gopher with intention perception is, on average, double the lifespan of a baseline gopher lacking intention perception. Additionally, the gopher with intention perception has the highest food consumption despite a gradual incline for the baseline gopher. However, for high  $P_e$ , baseline gophers have higher values of normalized food consumption.

We also see that the gopher with intention perception has a higher survival rate across various projectile strengths. Figure 6 shows a significantly lower lifespan and food consumption for baseline gophers lacking intention perception but only a marginal disadvantage for normalized food consumption. We further observe a positive relationship between maximum projectile strength and normalized food consumption for both baseline and intention perception gophers.

Figure 7 indicates that as the Maximum Fasting Interval increases, so does the disparity between the

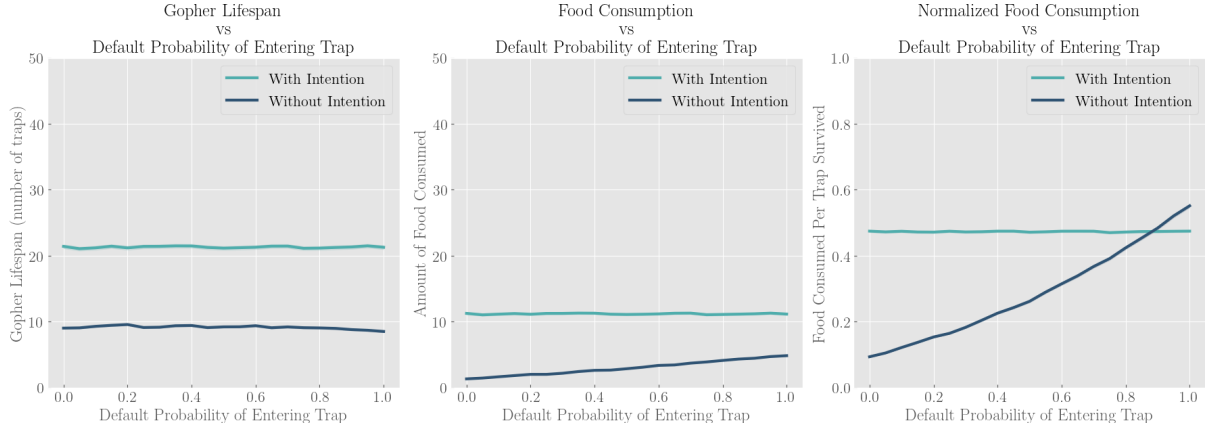


Figure 5: The effect of the default probability of entering a trap ( $P_e$ ) on survival and food consumption.

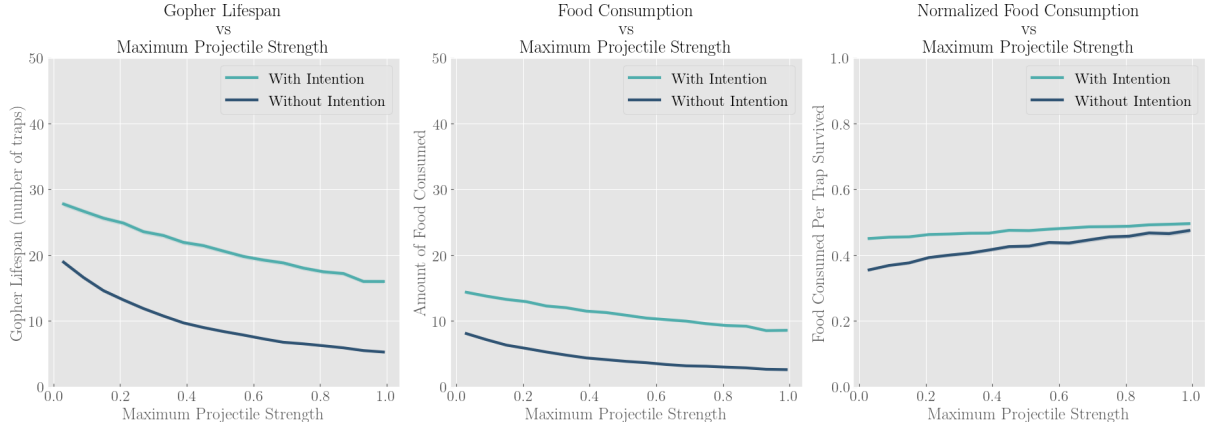


Figure 6: The effect of the maximum projectile strength ( $P_{k,w}$ ) on survival and food consumption.

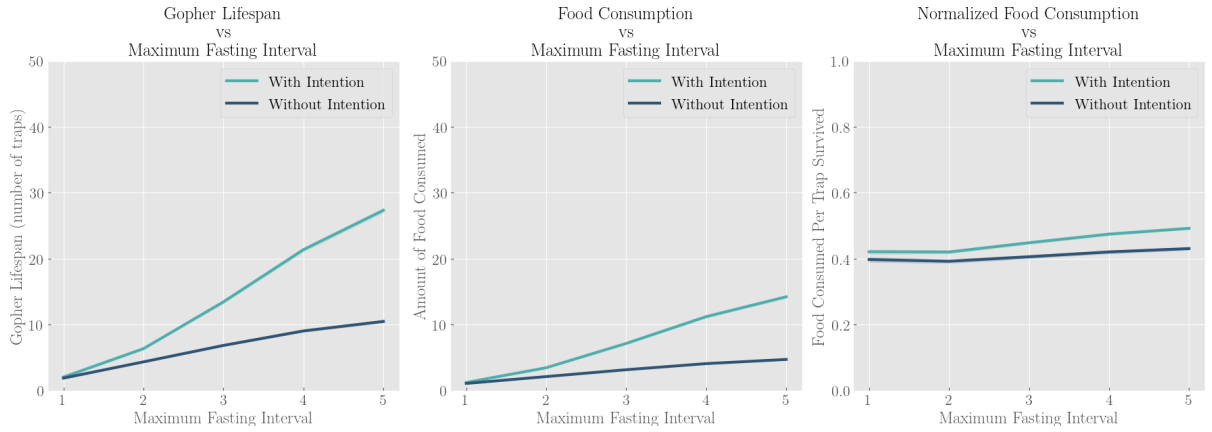


Figure 7: The effect of the maximum fasting interval (MFI) on survival and food consumption.

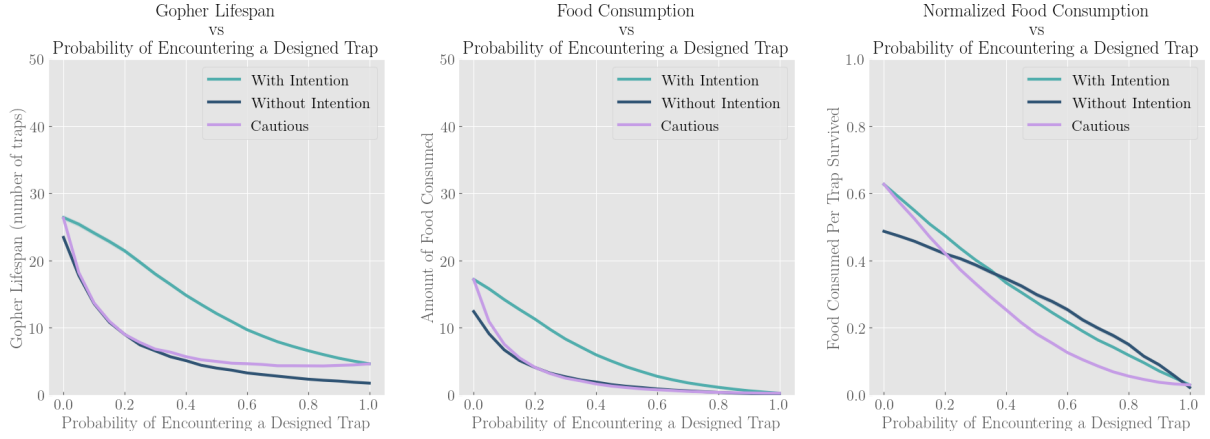


Figure 8: The effect of the probability of encountering a designed trap ( $P_r$ ) on survival and food consumption, with the addition of the cautious gopher.

performance of gophers with intention perception and that of gophers without for all three of our metrics.

Gophers with intention perception have a longer lifespan and higher overall food consumption as the probability of encountering a real trap ( $P_r$ ) increases as shown in Figure 8. Both the baseline and cautious gophers experience a sharp decline in lifespan and thus total amount of food as  $P_r$  increases. However, the baseline gopher lacking intention perception has the highest normalized food consumption at high  $P_r$  values.

Figure 8 demonstrates that intention perception provides a strong survival advantage over mere caution, as the cautious gopher consistently has a lower lifespan, food consumption, and normalized food consumption across varied  $P_r$  values. However, when traps are either all random or all real, the behavior and therefore performance of the cautious and intention gopher is identical. This is due to the nature of the cautious gopher, which uses the same algorithm as intention, except that it blindly considers a trap as real with the same frequency as an intention gopher. When  $P_r = 1.0$  or  $P_r = 0.0$ , this frequency is 1.0 and 0.0, respectively (cf. Table 2), such that the intention perception and cautious gophers behave identically.

Note that when using our default value of  $P_r = 0.2$ , this frequency is 0.1997, as shown in Table 2. Since cautious gophers decide to enter a trap solely based on this frequency and their hunger, the frequency at which they enter a trap is about  $1 - 0.1997 = .8003 \approx 0.8$ . Also note that, under default values, the baseline gopher enters traps with about  $P_e = 0.8$ . For this reason, the cautious gopher behaves like the baseline gopher when varying the other parameters, and therefore has been omitted from the other graphs.

Figure 9 displays the status of gophers with and without intention perception as they progress through

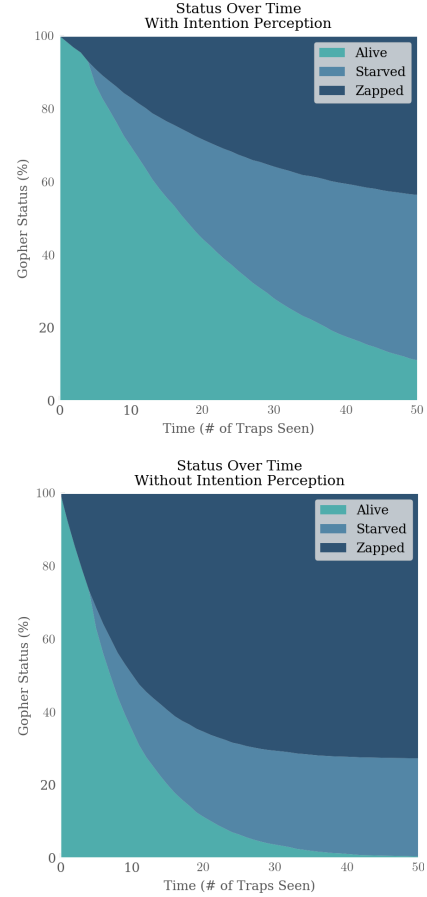


Figure 9: The effect of intention on the status of gophers during a trap progression with default parameters.

a simulation of fifty traps. Just over 11% of intention perception gophers survive all fifty traps while only 0.4% of baseline gophers do, giving intention perception gophers over 27 times a greater survival rate under default parameters.

Although the percentage of living gophers decreases rapidly for both, this rate is much faster for baseline gophers. Regarding the cause of death, gophers with intention perception are far more likely to starve (45.3% starved compared to 26.9%). Baseline gophers, on the other hand, are much more likely to encounter real traps, get zapped and die before ever starving (72.7% killed by projectiles compared to 43.6%).

## 6 DISCUSSION

Our results establish that the gophers with intention perception consistently live longer than baseline gophers. However, gophers with intention perception are also more likely to die from starvation; by avoiding coherent traps, intention gophers often reach maximum hunger. Their maximum hunger then forces these intention gophers into real traps where they get zapped and ultimately flee the trap without eating, resulting in their starvation.

When varying different parameters, the gophers with intention perception consistently outperform the baseline gophers in both lifespan and overall food consumption. In addition, the lifespan graph is highly similar to the food consumption graph for all parameters, likely because gophers that live longer consume a greater cumulative amount of food.

However, for all parameters except the MFI, the normalized food consumption of the baseline gopher eventually either approaches or in a few cases surpasses that of the intention perception gopher. Note that this trend is consistent with the observation that intention perception gophers are more likely to die from starvation. In general, this trend is likely because of two factors: (a) Normalized food consumption is independent of how long the gopher lives, unlike lifespan and food consumption, and (b) Normalized food consumption favors entering a greater proportion of traps, since passing a trap adds to the number of traps encountered but not to food consumption.

These two factors are influenced differently by the different parameters, leading to the varying shape of each normalized food consumption graph. In particular, high  $P_e$  and  $P_r$  values both affect the second factor. For high  $P_e$  values, baseline gophers blindly enter most traps they encounter since they mainly use the value of  $P_e$  to decide whether to enter a trap, while intention perception gophers still pass by the more coherent ones. The same phenomenon occurs for high  $P_r$  values. Intention perception gophers enter fewer traps, while baseline gophers still enter the same proportion since their probability of entering a trap is not

dependent upon  $P_r$ .

The maximum projectile strength,  $P_{k,w}$  instead influences the first factor. As  $P_{k,w}$  increases, both gophers are less likely to experience a non-fatal zap and be forced to leave a trap without eating, a scenario which lowers the ratio of food per trap. Thus, both gophers' normalized food consumption increases as  $P_{k,w}$  increases. However, since baseline gophers do not distinguish between real and random traps, they are generally zapped more often, such that their normalized food consumption increases more than that of intention perception gophers.

The MFI is unique in that the normalized food consumption values for intention perception gophers and baseline gophers diverge instead of converge. In fact, this trend is present in all MFI graphs. This is likely because an intention perception gopher most frequently dies when its level of hunger forces it to enter a trap. When the MFI increases, intention perception gophers that reach this level of hunger are more likely to do so later in the simulation. This means that there are more data points for the normalized food consumption ratio, which reduces the negative effect of fleeing and starving, and leads to the observed positive trend.

### 6.1 Survival and Emergence

While our experiments provide evidence for the utility of intention perception in agents, we do not argue that this utility alone should lead us to expect the emergence of such traits in nature. While differential survival advantages can explain the selection of already existing traits, survival advantages would not necessarily explain a trait's initial emergence. As Hugo de Vries astutely related, "Natural selection may explain the survival of the fittest, but it cannot explain the arrival of the fittest" (De Vries, 1904) and Wagner later argued, "Natural selection can preserve innovations, but it cannot create them." (Wagner, 2014) To claim that the utility of a feature would explain its emergence is like arguing that the usefulness of a time machine would explain how a person procured one. Instead, the utility of a time machine would only explain why they would *keep* one (if they happened to find it), or why they would endeavor to invent one. Natural selection, in contrast, lacks both foresight and intention. It cannot retain based on hopes of future reward or create based on potential future utility. One must thus take caution when extrapolating from demonstrated utility to expected emergence. We state plainly that our demonstration of survival advantages for intention perception does not, by itself, serve as a justification for the expected emergence of such traits in nature.

## 7 CONCLUSIONS

We set out to answer whether there were cases where intention perception could offer survival advantages for simulated agents. The goal was to determine whether an agent with intention perception—the ability to perceive its environment as “set up” based on artifacts left behind—has a better chance of surviving than an agent without intention perception. Designating gophers as our agents and gopher traps as their environments, we tested whether gophers equipped with the ability to detect intended configurations would have measurably higher survival rates than those lacking such an ability. We show that they do, and that such detection is possible (and highly accurate) when based on the statistical analysis of artifacts. Furthermore, given that intention perception gophers fare significantly better than cautious gophers, this gives evidence of objective “signal” in the configurations in this context (Silver, 2012), exploitable through statistical methods. Such information could potentially be leveraged by other artificial decision-making systems.

Through our experiments, we found that not only were there cases where such perception was helpful, but that it was helpful in the majority of cases tested. Our results show that gophers with intention perception tend to survive significantly longer and consume more food on average than those without intention perception. We also saw that the benefit of intention perception is greater when prioritizing safety over food, as the gap between intention and baseline gophers grows with larger MFI values. These findings are consistent with other forthcoming work by our research group on intention perception, which show significant survival advantages for intention perception agents in predator-prey scenarios and game-theoretic adversarial situations.

Our results clearly establish that there exist cases in which intention perception significantly benefits an artificial agent’s chances of survival and suggest the existence of perhaps many more.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Special thanks to Jerry Liang, Aditya Khant, Kyle Rong, and Tim Buchheim for assistance in experimental set-up. This research was supported in part by the National Science Foundation under Grant No. 1950885. Any opinions, findings or conclusions expressed are the authors’ alone, and do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Science Foundation.

## REFERENCES

- Brown, W. L. and Humphrey, C. E. (1955). Generalization in spatial learning. *The American Journal of Psychology*, 68(3):396–408.
- Crawford, L. E. and Cacioppo, J. T. (2002). Learning where to look for danger: Integrating affective and spatial information. *Psychological Science*, 13(5):449–453.
- De Vries, H. (1904). *Species and Varieties, Their Origin by Mutation: Lectures Delivered at the University of California*. Open Court Publishing Company.
- Díaz-Pachón, D. A., Sáenz, J. P., and Rao, J. S. (2020). Hypothesis Testing with Active Information. *Statistics & Probability Letters*, 161:108742.
- Hazen, R. M., Griffin, P. L., Carothers, J. M., and Szostak, J. W. (2007). Functional information and the emergence of biocomplexity. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 104(1):8574–8581.
- Lowrance, W. W. (1980). The nature of risk. In *Societal risk assessment*, pages 5–17. Springer.
- Montañez, G. D. (2018). A unified model of complex specified information. *BIO-Complexity*, 2018(4).
- Nogueira, S. S. d. C., Fernandes, I. K., Costa, T. S. O., Nogueira-Filho, S. L. G., and Mendl, M. (2015). Does trapping influence decision-making under ambiguity in white-lipped peccary (*tayassu pecari*)? *PloS one*, 10(6):e0127868.
- Norman, L. J., Heywood, C. A., and Kenridge, R. W. (2013). Object-based attention without awareness. *Psychological Science*, 24(6):836–843.
- Silver, N. (2012). *The Signal and the Noise: Why So Many Predictions Fail—But Some Don’t*. Penguin.
- Thorvaldsen, S. and Hössjer, O. (2020). Using Statistical Methods to Model the Fine-Tuning of Molecular Machines and Systems. *Journal of Theoretical Biology*, 501:110352.
- Vorhees, C. V. and Williams, M. T. (2014). Assessing spatial learning and memory in rodents. *ILAR journal*, 55(2):310–332.
- Wagner, A. (2014). *Arrival of the Fittest: Solving Evolution’s Greatest Puzzle*. Simon and Schuster.

## APPENDIX

### A.1 Computing $M_g(x)$

To calculate  $M_g(x)$ , we use combinatorics together with numerical computation methods. Note that there are 9 variable cells in each trap, and thus 10 possible coherent (well-matched) connections. Computationally, we first loop through every possible combination of coherent connections. For each combination, we assign a number to each of the 9 variable cells, denoting the number of possible different trap pieces it can contain if the trap has at least  $c$  coherent connections in total. Some cells are limited in their freedom

to connect to adjacent cells, having required connections for a specific orientation and component type. Cells that have no required connections have 91 possibilities, cells with one required connection have 9, and cells with two required connections have only 1. For a visual explanation, see Figure 10.

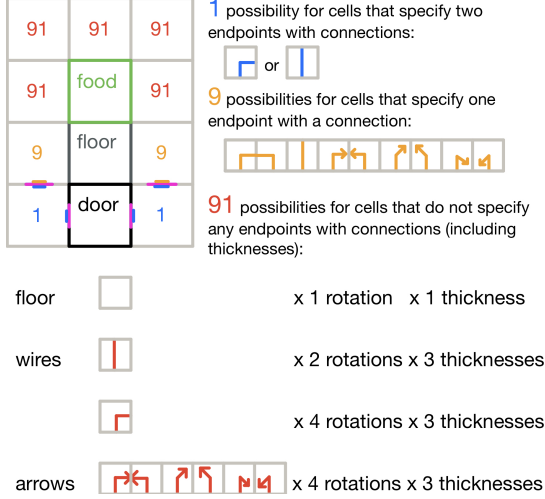


Figure 10: Trap cell possibilities in more detail (pink line indicates a required connection in this example).

Let  $n$  denote the total number of cells in a configuration that are assigned the number 91. For each cell assigned 91, one out of 91 possible trap pieces for that cell is a cell of type `floor`, while 90 out of 91 possible trap pieces are either `wire` or `arrow` cells. (see Table 1). We loop through all  $n' \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  possible numbers of `floor` cells.

Also note that for each configuration, any cells within a group of consecutive coherent connections must all have the same thickness type. Let the number of such groups be denoted by  $\gamma$ . For example, the trap in Figure 10 has two such groups.

Now, let  $\lambda(n', b, \gamma)$  denote the number of ways to achieve a configuration with  $n'$  `floor` cells,  $b$  cells assigned the number 9, and  $\gamma$  separate groups of consecutive coherent connections. We calculate  $\lambda(n', b, \gamma)$  with the following equation:

$$\lambda(n', b, \gamma) = \binom{n}{n'} \cdot 90^{n-n'} \cdot 9^b \cdot 3^\gamma. \quad (6)$$

Note that the total number of nonfloor (either `wire` or `arrow`) cells in the configuration is  $t = 9 - n'$ . After calculating  $\lambda(n', b, \gamma)$  for a given  $n'$ ,  $b$ , and  $\gamma$ , we add  $\lambda(n', b, \gamma)$  to a running total of the number of configurations with at least  $c$  connections and exactly  $t$  nonempty cells, denoted  $\Lambda(c, t)$ . Note that  $\Lambda(c, t)$  is the total number of configurations with at least  $c$  connections and exactly  $t$  nonempty cells, and thus

does not represent the total number of configurations with exactly  $c/t$  connections per nonempty cell. Let  $g(x) = c_x/t_x$  be the connections per nonempty cell of configuration  $x$  and  $C$  be the set of all pairs  $c, t$  such that  $c/t = g(x)$ , where  $1 \leq t \leq 9$ . We then calculate  $v(g(x))$ , the total number of traps with exactly  $g(x)$  connections per nonempty cell:

$$v(g(x)) = \sum_{c, t \in C} \Lambda(c, t) - \Lambda(c+1, t) \quad (7)$$

We subtract  $\Lambda(c+1, t)$  from each  $\Lambda(c, t)$  because  $\Lambda(c+1, t)$  is the number of configurations with exactly  $t$  nonempty cells that have more than exactly  $c$  connections.

Finally, let  $G$  be the set of all possible ratio values  $g(x')$  such that  $g(x') \geq g(x)$ . By Equation 5 we obtain,

$$M_g(x) = \sum_{g(x') \in G} v(g(x')). \quad (8)$$

The output of our program is summarized in Table 4.

Table 4: Minimum ratio of connections to nonempty cells vs. number of permutations.

| Ratio, $g(x)$  | Number of permutations, $M_g(x)$ |
|----------------|----------------------------------|
| 0.000 = 0 / 9  | 427929800129788411               |
| 0.111 = 1 / 9  | 354394707075243198               |
| 0.125 = 1 / 8  | 123453353582343198               |
| 0.143 = 1 / 7  | 102193295525793198               |
| 0.167 = 1 / 6  | 101346901331553198               |
| 0.200 = 1 / 5  | 101327843325852198               |
| 0.222 = 2 / 9  | 101327577622082748               |
| 0.250 = 1 / 4  | 18317428758242748                |
| 0.286 = 2 / 7  | 12289201862932377                |
| 0.333 = 1 / 3  | 12103878714006177                |
| 0.375 = 3 / 8  | 1272268411781292                 |
| 0.400 = 2 / 5  | 689654429107497                  |
| 0.429 = 3 / 7  | 689623309037907                  |
| 0.444 = 4 / 9  | 677046035997297                  |
| 0.500 = 1 / 2  | 41696845623225                   |
| 0.556 = 5 / 9  | 18559182512862                   |
| 0.571 = 4 / 7  | 919349539299                     |
| 0.600 = 3 / 5  | 616034679885                     |
| 0.625 = 5 / 8  | 615255422625                     |
| 0.667 = 2 / 3  | 239164711182                     |
| 0.714 = 5 / 7  | 6417454230                       |
| 0.750 = 3 / 4  | 3925431153                       |
| 0.778 = 7 / 9  | 1459677645                       |
| 0.800 = 4 / 5  | 26456355                         |
| 0.833 = 5 / 6  | 22595625                         |
| 0.857 = 6 / 7  | 17067672                         |
| 0.875 = 7 / 8  | 10561401                         |
| 0.889 = 8 / 9  | 4297158                          |
| 1.000 = 9 / 9  | 26730                            |
| 1.111 = 10 / 9 | 3                                |