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2 Learning and Evolution of Social 3 Norms*

4 RODRIGO HARRISON¹, MAURICIO G. VILLENA²

5 ¹Instituto de Economía, Pontificia Universidad Católica
6 de Chile, Macul, Santiago, Chile

7 ²Escuela de Negocios, Universidad Adolfo Ibáñez,
8 Peñalolén, Santiago, Chile

9 Synonyms

10 Conventions; Customs; Learning (and evolution) of social
11 norms; Social rules

12 Definition

13 *Social norms can be understood as standards of behavior*
14 *that are based on widely shared beliefs of how individual*
15 *group members ought to behave in a given situation (Horne*
16 *2001) (see Voss 2001). The group can be a family, an*
17 *organization, or a society. Members may follow the norm*
18 *voluntarily if their individual preferences are consistent with*
19 *the normative behavior, or they might be enforced by pun-*
20 *ishment if the differences between individual preferences and*
21 *normative behavior result in a violation of the norm.*

22 While social norms can be modeled using alternative
23 theoretical learning models (see for instance, Young 1998),
24 in this brief review we focus on the basic elements of
25 evolutionary game theory (EGT), which has been widely
26 used to formally study the conditions under which social
27 norms may emerge and be established in society (Weibull
28 1996; Vega-Redondo 1996).

29 Theoretical Background

30 One of the key research questions regarding social norms
31 is how they can emerge in different social environments.
32 While norms are typically taken as given in much of the
33 economic and sociological literature, EGT tools allow us
34 to formally model social norms dynamics. Indeed, when
35 EGT concepts, which have thus far been mainly applied in

biology to analyze animal behavior, are applied to the
36 socioeconomic context they are mostly used to study the
37 development of social norms in society. As Mailath
38 (1998: 1348) explains: *Since evolutionary game theory stud-*
39 *ies populations playing games, it is also useful for studying*
40 *social norms and conventions. Indeed, many of the motivat-*
41 *ing ideas are the same.”* 42

EGT does not assume optimizing behavior per se, 43
though it does retain the idea that individuals adjust 44
their behavior in response to persistent differentials in 45
material incentives. In other words, while agents do pur- 46
sue individual material payoffs, which in these models 47
represent evolutionary success, i.e., fitness, they are not 48
always in a position to obtain straightaway the payoffs an 49
optimizing agent would obtain. This may be due to *social* 50
norms of behavior restricting the course of action of indi- 51
viduals, in such a way as to prevent them from adjusting 52
their behavior toward the optimal strategy immediately (it 53
takes time to change a social norm), or it may be just 54
because individuals do not realize what is the best strategy 55
at once. However, if this situation persists in time, some 56
individuals will start adopting the more efficient strategy 57
and therefore receiving a higher payoff than the rest of the 58
population. In the long run, the rest of the population will 59
start imitating this more profitable course of action. Thus, 60
the incumbent norm will be replaced by this new, more 61
successful, strategy, which in time will be adopted as the 62
new norm of behavior in the population. *In this sense,* 63
evolutionary models can be interpreted as models of learn- 64
ing, where individuals learn about the game on a trial-and- 65
error basis, and where more efficient behavior, in evolu- 66
tionary terms, tends to be imitated. 67

The evolutionary approach to social norms has proved 68
to be complementary to the extensive economic and 69
sociological literature on norms. In particular, the con- 70
cepts of Evolutionary Stable Strategy (ESS) and Replicator 71
Dynamics (RD) are the more basic tools used in the 72
analysis of social norm dynamics. A typical framework in 73
which these concepts are applied is one where individuals 74
are *repeatedly drawn at random from a large population* to 75
play a symmetric two-person game. An ESS is a strategy, 76
which, if adopted by a population of agents, cannot be 77
invaded by any alternative strategy that is initially rare. An 78

* This review is based on Villene and Villena (2004).

79 ESS is an equilibrium refinement of the Nash equilibrium
 80 (NE). Hence, an ESS is an NE which is “evolutionarily”
 81 stable, meaning that once it is fixed in a population, nat-
 82 ural selection alone is sufficient to prevent alternative
 83 (mutant) strategies from successfully invading.

84 The criterion of evolutionary stability emphasizes the
 85 role of mutations in an evolutionary process – a mutation
 86 mechanism. However, a selection mechanism is also
 87 required that favors some varieties over others. This is
 88 precisely the role of *the RD*, which does not embrace any
 89 mutation mechanism at all. Robustness against mutations
 90 is indirectly taken care of by dynamic stability criteria. The
 91 replicator permits the analysis of a genuinely diverse range
 92 of behavior (i.e., a polymorphic profile of strategies) as
 93 opposed to the concept of ESS, which makes good theo-
 94 retical sense only when it represents a monomorphic
 95 situation.

96 In order to better exemplify the modeling of social
 97 norms using EGT, let us now formalize the concept of
 98 replicator dynamics. Let us consider a game with n pure
 99 strategies. If an agent playing strategy i meets an agent
 100 adopting strategy j , the payoff to i is π_{ij} . Assuming that
 101 $p = (p_1, \dots, p_n)$ is the probability of meeting each type in
 102 the population, the expected payoff to an i -player is then

103
$$\pi_i(p) = \sum_{j=1}^n p_j \pi_{ij}.$$
 Hence, the average payoff in the game

104 becomes $\bar{\pi}(p) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \pi_i(p)$. Consequently, in this setting
 105 the RD in a polymorphic population is given by

$$\frac{dp_i}{dt} = p_i(\pi_i(p) - \bar{\pi}(p)) \quad (\text{all } i), \quad (1)$$

106 where $\bar{\pi}(p)$ denotes the average fitness of the population.
 107 Equation 1 is called the replicator equation.

108 From Eq. 1 it transpires that according to the
 109 replicator equation, the strategies that grow are those
 110 that perform better than average, and that generally the
 111 best performing strategies grow the fastest. In this frame-
 112 work, an NE is a stationary point of the dynamic system.
 113 On the other hand, each stable stationary point is an NE
 114 and an asymptotically stable fixed point is a perfect equi-
 115 librium. Moreover, evolutionary stability becomes
 116 a sufficient (but not necessary) condition for asymptotic
 117 stability if only pure strategies can be inherited.

118 In what follows we present a simple application of the
 119 concept of RD in the modeling of social norms.

Cooperative Versus Noncooperative Social Norms

Let us consider a doubly symmetric two-player game with two pure strategies and payoff matrix:

$$A = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} C & NC \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} C \\ NC \end{matrix} & \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \end{matrix} \quad (2)$$

Since $C-C > NC-C$ and $NC-NC > C-NC$, we have that this game is a coordination game. We can think of this game, for example, as a two-person common property resource game in which the common resource is an inshore fishery exploited by two fishermen, and that each agent can exploit the fishery choosing between two different levels of effort, e.g., fishing effort might be measured by the number of standardized vessels operating in a fishery during a particular day. In particular, here we consider a low fishing effort, C , which we call cooperative, and a high fishing effort, NC , which we call noncooperative. From the payoff matrix it can be inferred that if both players choose the cooperative fishing effort, they will be better off than if both players use the noncooperative fishing effort, i.e., a payoff of 6 against one of 3. This could be the case if both players adopt the large fishing effort, the stock could be harvested to a level where extraction gets more difficult and therefore not as profitable as in that case where both fishermen use the low fishing effort giving thus more time to the stock to recover. Playing in a cooperative manner is not without its risks, since if one plays cooperatively and the other noncooperatively the player can end up receiving nothing while his/her opponent gets a payoff of 4. In terms of our example this makes sense, since, as we have assumed here, cooperation means using a lower effort to exploit the resource, which, depending on the relation between efforts, can imply that the other individual using a larger effort can be able to harvest the stock down to a level where it is not more profitable for individual 1 to continue in business or even can harvest the entire stock and there will then be nothing left for individual 1. In any case the cooperative individual will lose revenue by using a lower effort than the other individual who uses a larger effort. Finally, if considering the risk of playing cooperative both players decide to use the noncooperative fishing effort then they get a return of 3, which is lower than that obtained if both players decide to play cooperative, getting a return of 6.

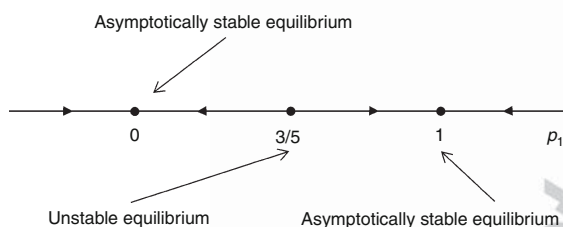
Consequently, according to the basic principles of traditional game theory, it is evident that here both players (strictly) prefer the strategy profile $C-C$, which gives payoff 6 to each player. Indeed, $C-C$ is a strict NE. However, the pure strategy profile $NC-NC$ is also a strict NE,

167 resulting in payoff 3 to each player. If one player expects
 168 the other to play strategy NC with sufficiently high prob-
 169 ability, then his or her unique optimal action is to play
 170 strategy NC as well. The game has a third Nash equilib-
 171 rium, which is mixed. This corresponds to the symmetric
 172 pair (x, x) where $x = 3/5, 2/5$, the payoff to each player in
 173 this equilibrium being $18/5$. All Nash equilibria are clearly
 174 perfect: Two are strict, and one is interior.

175 Now we suppose that within the population there is
 176 a proportion of players using the cooperative strategy C,
 177 and other of players adopting the noncooperative strategy
 178 NC which we denote p_1 and p_2 respectively. We also have
 179 the identity $p_1 + p_2 = 1$. Thus, we get the following
 180 replicator equation:

$$\dot{p}_1 = p_1(1 - p_1)(5p_1 - 3). \quad (3)$$

181 In order to see how solutions of (3) change over time,
 182 let us draw the associated phase portrait.



183 Hence, it is clear that the steady states $p_1 = 0$, and $p_1 = 1$
 184 are asymptotically stable, while $p_1 = 3/5$ is unstable. In
 185 other words, if one starts to the left of $3/5$, i.e., where the
 186 population playing C, cooperative, is a rather small pro-
 187 portion of the total population, the system tends to the
 188 steady state $p_1 = 0$, i.e., the cooperative population is
 189 wiped out. If one starts anywhere to the right of $3/5$, the
 190 system tends to the steady state $p_1 = 1$, i.e., the population
 191 adopting the noncooperative strategy is wiped out. The
 192 unstable equilibrium at $p_1 = 3/5$ is the boundary, or
 193 separatrix, between the region of attraction of $p_1 = 0$ and
 194 that of $p_1 = 1$.

196 In this example we have used the concept of the RD to
 197 analyze the evolution of a population where there is
 198 a proportion of players using the cooperative strategy C,
 199 and other of players adopting the noncooperative strategy
 200 NC. We can interpret these two strategies as two different
 201 social norms, one cooperative and the other noncooper-
 202 ative. The result presented here clearly shows that in this
 203 particular example, the emergence of one social norm as
 204 the dominant one depends on the initial number of people
 205 who subscribe to each norm of behavior. In particular, if,
 206 initially, less than 60% of the total population adheres to
 207 the cooperative social norm, then the noncooperative one

will become the dominant in the long run and people
 adopting the cooperative strategy will be wiped out. Oth-
 erwise, the cooperative social norm will become the dom-
 inant and the population adopting the noncooperative
 strategy will be wiped out. This clearly points to the
 importance of initial conditions, which somehow deter-
 mine future developments, and to the relevance of study-
 ing the historical context when analyzing social norms in
 specific settings.

From this simple example it can also be inferred that
 there can be some conflicts between social norms and that
 some norms of behavior are not always positive in terms of
 society's welfare. Indeed, it can be noted that the RD does
 not reject the socially inefficient profile NC-NC, i.e., where
 players use the noncooperative fishing effort. In this sense
 a socially inefficient norm of behavior, e.g., always use
 strategy NC when meeting, may be evolutionarily (asymptotically) stable. Certainly, depending on the initial popu-
 lation adhering to the cooperative social norm, the
 noncooperative convention can become the dominant in
 the long run and people adopting the cooperative strategy
 will be wiped out.

Important Scientific Research and Open Questions

Finally, there are many interesting research projects related to learning and the evolution of social norms that could be highlighted: (a) the "economic anthropology" of Herbert Gintis and Samuel Bowles, which is based mainly on EGT tools, reviewing topics such as *the importance and origins of reciprocity, fairness and cooperation in primitive societies, and the measure of social norms and preferences using experimental games* (see Bowles 2004; Gintis 2000); (b) the work on the "evolution of preferences" as developed by Werner Güth (see Heifetz 2005); (c) the study of the "evolution of social norms in specific economic settings" – an excellent example here is provided by the work of Sethi and Somanathan (1996) which examines the problem of the exploitation of a common property resource within an evolutionary game theoretic framework– and (d) the "evolution of rationality," where social norm-guided behavior, which is associated with a nonrational conduct, is contrasted with rational, optimizing, behavior (see, Banerjee and Weibull 1994) (see, Vega-Redondo 1996: 85).

Cross-References

► Learning and Evolutionary Game Theory

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Corrected Proof