Abstract—EADS North America and George Mason University have partnered to build analytical tools for border security that incorporate social, cultural, behavioral and organizational aspects of interactions among border security forces, smugglers and the population and represent integrated technology architectures made up of fixed and mobile sensor and surveillance networks. These tools provide critical capabilities that influence border security operations, planning, analysis and training.

We present the results of the first sprint of our effort, demonstrating the feasibility of social simulation for the security of the Southwestern U.S. border. First, we recount how we used open-source data on border security forces and smuggling organizations, replicating for 2009 the landscape of gateway organizations and cartels in Sonora along with the border security architecture for the Tucson sector of Customs and Border Patrol (CBP). We then describe the architecture of the model that connects a disaggregated view of these organizations to a high-fidelity representation of the physical environment and sensor networks. Finally, we conclude with a short discussion of model dynamics, validity and generalizability of our approach.

Index Terms—border security, social simulation, open-source intelligence, adaptive adversaries, geospatial analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Research objectives

Legitimate commerce, organized crime, migration and demographic change meet in borderlands. The U.S. experience with border security initiatives indicates that providing sufficient risk mitigation guarantees faces considerable cost and technological challenges, especially when addressing rapidly adapting and increasingly sophisticated opponents like the Mexican drug cartels and their U.S. counterparts [1]–[3]. EADS North America and George Mason University have partnered to respond to this challenge by building the next generation of tools to support border security analytics. These tools incorporates social, cultural, behavioral and organizational aspects of interactions among border security forces, smugglers and the population into an integrated technology architecture made up of fixed and mobile sensor and surveillance networks. They provide capabilities that influence operations, planning, analysis and training:

1) Creating a unified representation of the border security architectures with organizational, social and policy contexts.
2) Addressing budgetary challenges by emphasizing cost–benefit and economic spillovers at all levels.
3) Presenting anticipated interactions and reactions of adversaries and stakeholders.

The tool enables decision makers to derive tactical courses of action that are robust to intelligence failures, forces of nature and adversary disruption and find portfolios of long-term policies, plans, procedures and programs that perform well in uncertain and dynamic environments.

B. Challenges to the security of the Southwestern U.S. borders

When designing the architecture of the model that serves as the core of our tool, we needed to distinguish challenges that are common to most border security problems from those specific to the U.S.–Mexico border. Firstly, the model should account for regulatory and budgetary realities of securing borders that shape the performance of border security programs to a large extent. Secondly, the model should incorporate local, state and federal law enforcement agencies and other government bodies, businesses and local populations that differ in how they perceive the current situation of the borderland; what it should be, and whether it is converging to what they desire or not. Doing so amounts to turning model building into a process of eliciting and shaping stakeholders’ framing of the problem. Lastly, the model should represent border security organizations in the U.S. and across the border that do not fall under a unified command structure and pursue their own independent ends. The ability to model interagency and international coordination is particularly necessary when building institutions to engender an environment hostile to criminal elements across the border.

Issues specific to the U.S.–Mexico border go beyond the enormous geographic, organizational and environmental diversity of the border. Narcoinsurgency in Mexico has nurtured an ecosystem of adaptive and increasingly sophisticated adversaries. Cartels engage in modern influence and psychological operations [4]. They not only seek silence and impunity, but also manage perceptions by various means [5], [6]. Some of these means are designed to shock and intimidate: Beheadings, kidnappings, assassinations and bombings. Others subvert and
undermine the legitimacy of the Mexican state: Staging blockades, checkpoints and demonstrations; writing songs and news stories extolling cartel virtues, and corrupting journalists on both sides of the border. Drug cartels are also increasingly more technologically savvy and use intelligence tradecraft to learn about the behaviors of their competitors and law enforcement agencies. Accounting for opponents’ adaptability and their attempts to shape the environment and population attitudes enables decision makers to switch from the short-term to long-term interactions and wargame their courses of action against the opponents’ most disruptive innovation.

In summary, to respond to the challenges listed above, our tool needs to:

(a) Account for multiple, independent or coordinating law enforcement agencies (Blue) and independent, coordinating or competing drug cartels and human smugglers (Red).
(b) Represent Blue and Red behavior parsimoniously with a bottom-up perspective that is neither filled with unnecessary detail, nor oversimplified to a degree that blurs significant distinctions among actors in the system; for example, differences between Blue’s concept of operations in Texas and Arizona.
(c) Tackle strategic interactions between Blue and Red in which each opponent chooses its courses of action by fusing what it expects the opponent to do with what the opponent has done historically.
(d) Deal with repeated interactions among multiple Blue and Red in rich social and economic settings, enabling the measurement of human security and economic impacts.
(e) Be computationally tractable, so it can be used as a real-time decision support tool.

C. Motivation for social simulation

Probabilistic risk assessment (PRA) is the first tool for high-level decision support in border security [7]. Effective deployment of PRA is limited, because it requires elicitation of a vast number of highly subjective probabilities and cannot directly express available geospatial, technological and organizational aspects of border security. Other methods of decision support for border security can interact with the data more directly, in particular, geospatial analysis [8], [9], operations research methods [10]–[12] and statistical analysis [13]. However, these methods ignore the adaptive nature of the adversary and the organizational context of border security. In order to pass the litmus test of (a)–(e), we turned to multiagent simulations as a potential solution.

Multiagent simulation is a relatively new modeling paradigm that explores how interactions among individual entities form aggregate phenomena [14]. A multiagent simulation is essentially composed of agents and the world they inhabit. What distinguishes these agents from other modeling approaches is that they are not centrally governed, and do not have to maximize any single common objective function; instead they have rules or reasoning mechanisms that dictate agents’ behavior. By simulating agents’ learning and interactions with each other and their environment, multiagent models can generate outcomes from the bottom up rather than the top down.

Multiagent simulation has already been applied to border security issues. For example, [15] explored the effects of using mini UAVs along with other surveillance assets on the southwestern U.S. border; [16], [17] studied dynamics of sensor networks and wireless communication networks during patrols; [18] developed a simulation to support a tabletop war gaming application, and [19] applied computational game theory for point of entry security; [20] to patrol planning by Federal Air Marshals aboard commercial flights. [21] optimized intelligence analysis processes by developing a multiagent model of the interactions of terrorist and antiterrorist organizations; [22] built cognitive architectures and simulation methodologies for robust courses of action under strategic uncertainty, and [23] applied simulation to study counternarcotics in Afghanistan. To the best of our knowledge, our effort is the first to use social simulation to move beyond supporting tactical, day-to-day operations.

Using multiagent simulations as the paradigm to view borderlands as complex adaptive systems, we organized our research into concurrent modeling, data collection and analysis tracks. We used simulation to represent cognitive and organizational bases of decision making that give rise to emergent outcomes for Blue and Red interactions. These outcomes provide futures that can be used to assess the performance of courses of action or to evaluate investments into and modifications of security programs, procedures, plans and policies. Moreover, we can determine the robustness of proposed courses of action when facing adaptive and anticipatory adversaries and stakeholders who may resort to deception. Finally, the model provides guidance on how to structure operational data. This functionality helps analysts to structure intelligence, especially by inferring and encoding the structure of the adversary organization and expressing the range of operations it can wage. Secondarily, it highlights intelligence inconsistent with history or organizational objectives of adversaries.

II. OUTLINE OF THE SOLUTION

A. Agents, environments and behaviors

Our current model incorporates the following components:

1) Detailed geography of the border area.
2) The adversarial ecosystem including Blue and Red organizations and their information sharing processes, zones of control, preferred market niches, modes of penetration and alliances.
3) Autonomous cognitive agents that form organizations mentioned above, each satisfying individual and organizational goals with heterogeneous decision making and learning.
4) Selected licit and illicit markets in order to calculate revenues for cartels and their contractors and to set baseline opportunity costs for recruitment.
For example, in our simulation Red is divided into cartels, gateway organizations and individual smugglers. A cartel supplies cargo only to the gateway organizations willing to take it across the border with the lowest expected cost. A gateway organization is more complex: It is composed of individuals driven by greed, fear and personal loyalties; pursues several goals concurrently; has some idea of who its opponents, competitors, suppliers and buyers are; can share information with other gateway organizations, and is responsible for recruiting individual smugglers.

Gateway organizations give smugglers a cargo at a certain location and provide them with the location of a pick-up point. Smugglers are free to choose any route that matches their endurance and time constraints, minimizing their perceived risk of being detected and intercepted. This risk is a mix of historical knowledge of areas in which other smugglers have been caught, the prevalence of Blue patrols observed by smugglers from the same or allied organizations and knowledge of fixed sensors and their viewsheds.

B. Data requirements and collection

The key enabler in our model is the data collection process we designed to support modeling. We collected and collated past and present patterns of illegal border activities and border security architectures, and information on the environment and human terrain and sought to understand individual and group decision making for the players involved from various narrative sources.

Environmental data layers came first. Figure 1 outlines the key input layers for the Arizona–Sonora scenario, covering both sides of the border: Landcover information, roads and tracts and terrain roughness derived from terrain relief. We used these layers to calculate possible routes and time, costs of traversing each route on foot and on vehicle, and viewsheds for various sensors. We used information on population density, night-time lights and land ownership to provide additional inputs for the initial phases of the routing problem by smugglers, and to limit and delay access by Blue patrols. Information on water sources, intermediary resupply points and potential shelters is used by smugglers and human traffickers traveling on foot.

All geospatial layers are subject to significant preprocessing. A “gluing” process links layers from various sources. For example, road network and population data layers can be merged from national geospatial sources such as the Census Bureau, the U.S. Geological Survey, the Mexican Geography and Census Bureau and the International Boundary and Water Commission, or taken from a unified data source like OpenStreetMap. Landcover data can be taken from low-resolution sources with global coverage such as Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer and Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer [24] or stitched together from higher-resolution, but differently encoded national sources. We gave special treatment to landcover and relief data that make modeling perceptions of individuals and mobile sensor platforms computationally tractable.

Another dataset describes Blue concept of operations. Figure 2 presents a sample initial border security architecture. The simulation requires locations, force allocations and rotation schedules of CBP stations and forward operating bases along with locations of mobile platforms, integrated fixed towers and unmanned ground sensors. For the Arizona–Sonora border, we used openly available information by the CBP Tuscon sector [25] and environmental impact studies [26]. Collaboration between Border Patrol and other federal land owners like the U.S. National Park Service is reportedly far from perfect. For example, roads and vehicles are not allowed on certain federal lands alongside the Arizona–Sonora border, keeping the Border Patrol out while illegal border crossers can use vehicles, horses and bikes in areas restricted to licit and governmental traffic [27], [28]. That is why users of our tool can outline boundaries of responsibility for Blue organizations and rules for crossing these boundaries on the land ownership layer.
The Red side is described by outlining the initial population of cartels, gateway organizations and their human and technical resources. Figure 3 outlines the competitive landscape of the Arizona–Sonora borderland around 2009. South and Central American cartels have long used analytical and surveillance technologies for intelligence and counterintelligence. As reported in [29], in 1996 the Cali cartel used link analysis on a database of phone records of Cali residents to cross-reference phone calls among its members and American and Columbian counternarcotics officials. It managed to detect, capture and kill at least 12 informants. More recently, [30] reported that the Mexican cartels have deployed an encrypted distributed radio network across almost all Mexican states. At the tactical level, radio traffic monitoring, coordination of movement and opportunistic use of small UAVs is reportedly widespread among smugglers [31]. We also included data on the operational and tactical sophistication of gateway organizations, along with their locations, preference for smuggling drugs or trafficking humans and border penetration mode2.

C. System architecture

The architecture of our system, outlined in Figure 4, is organized around a data warehouse for storing physical, geographic and social data, and the Mason simulation engine. We provide users with a work process using open source platforms for inputting and editing organizational and network data [32] and for managing geospatial data [33].

2We currently only cover border penetration via terrain. We have not represented the use of ultralights, sewage, storm water systems and point of entry with corrupted officials or forged documents.

The Mason simulation core [34] is a Java framework that can be used for a single run on a laptop with a graphical user interface or on a desktop for small–scale experiments. It decouples visualization from simulation execution, making it possible to deploy the simulation to a cluster or cloud for large–scale parameter sweeps. We can run the current version of the Arizona–Sonora simulation for a two-year period at high spatial, temporal and organizational resolutions once in 30 minutes on a single core with 4 Gb of memory. During model development, we routinely conducted overnight unit checking and parameter sweeps of 5000 to 10000 runs on a small cluster.

The Mason graphical user interface helps the user to monitor and inspect model dynamics at runtime by displaying the following data:

1) Trails and current positions of Blue patrols and Red smuggling groups.
2) Current vision ranges and sensor coverage for Blue and Red, including Blue common operating picture and current perceptions by Red of the locations of Blue patrols.
3) Perception of detection and interception risks for each Red organization.
4) Time series on successful penetrations, drug load deliveries and seizures, smuggling groups spotted and intercepted.
5) Information on the history of detections for each sensor and Blue organization.
6) Readiness statistics for Blue and Red, including information on captured and recaptured smugglers and new recruits.
7) Information on financial resources of Red.

The user interface can be used to perturb the model during runtime. Various additional statistics at a high level of disaggregation are saved to the database for offline analysis. This allows the user to perform face-validity checks, statistically compare various scenarios and course of actions and visualize the results.
III. VALIDITY OF THE SOCIAL SIMULATION APPROACH

We are currently performing initial validation of model outputs, investigating qualitative properties of the model and preparing for quantitative validation. The validation plan follows the pattern set forth by [35] and includes both verification or face validation by subject matter expert to determine conceptual validity, comparisons with reimplementation of operations research and statistical models and the external validation against real-world observations at micro and macro levels. For example, macro-level pattern matching may include comparing simulated smuggling corridors to ones reported in the real life. Such a comparison is presented in Figure 5. The outlines of the real-life corridors have been created by collating newspaper articles and narratives of routes taken by smugglers and illegal immigrants that mention geographic features. The simulated view on Figure 5(b) presents an “ant trail” of recent smuggling traces after 6 months of simulated interactions.

[Sparse data exists in open sources on exact routes, their spatiotemporal variability and results of Red interactions with Blue. In Figure 6, we present two samples of high-resolution event data that could constitute desired targets for quantitative validation: Locations in which bodies of deceased immigrants were found [36] and locations of seizures of marijuana and cocaine loads [37]. Unfortunately, neither dataset includes additional data such as date, amount of drug seized and route taken. Nevertheless, this and other data we already collected is sufficient to start the validation process.

IV. FUTURE OUTLOOK

We are working on code hardening and documentation, empirical validation and mechanisms for scenario analysis. We have expanded data farming and large-scale computational experimentation to test assumptions on border security architectures, and Blue organizational behavior, force levels and patrol posture. Large-scale computational experimentation in our effort is key to capture the uncertainty of the system; design corresponding robust courses of actions and portfolios of policies, plans, procedures and programs that perform well in this uncertain environment, and to estimate “known unknowns” [38]. We are also working on exposing the simulation to the subject matter experts to obtain better face validity and follow the validation steps outlined in the previous section.

In the current version of the model, we do not have a disaggregated view of the population of the borderland, representation of points of entry or of the logistics and economic layers. We will therefore work on representing and synthesizing the underlying rural and urban population of the borderland at the individual resolution. We can then develop a module where the population can perceive the economic and security effects of interactions between the CBP border architecture and the activities of the transnational criminal organizations and local gangs.

Finally, we are working on extending the common ontology of subsystems and actors, and their objectives, capabilities and constraints by collecting data on the organizational features and technological properties of joint border security arrangements. This includes adding new environments like the Carrizo Cane forests alongside the Rio Grande in Texas, allowing for riverine operations by Blue and Red. These steps continue the move our effort toward a comprehensive computational framework that connects security, economics, and politics of border security with current and future border security technologies.

For example, unobservable or hard-to-collect quantities such as the tonnage of drugs and the number of immigrants that go through the border without being intercepted or observed at any point.
REFERENCES


