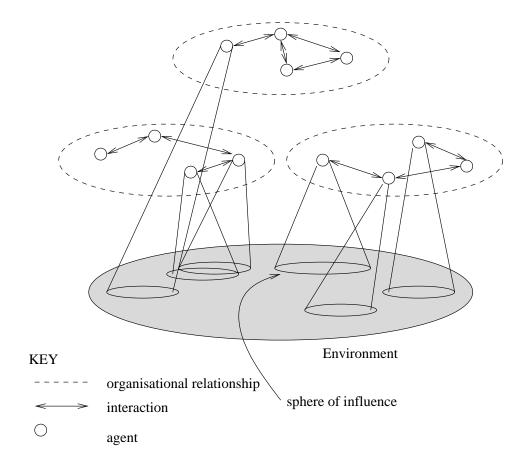
LECTURE 8: MULTIAGENT INTERACTIONS

An Introduction to Multiagent Systems
CIS 716.5, Spring 2005

What are Multiagent Systems?



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Thus a multiagent system contains a number of agents . . .

- ... which interact through communication ...
- ... are able to act in an environment ...
- ... have different "spheres of influence" (which may coincide)...
- ... will be linked by other (organisational) relationships.

Utilities and Preferences

- Assume we have just two agents: $Ag = \{i, j\}$.
- Agents are assumed to be self-interested: they have preferences over how the environment is.
- Assume $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \ldots\}$ is the set of "outcomes" that agents have preferences over.
- We capture preferences by utility functions:

$$u_i:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$$

 $u_i:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$

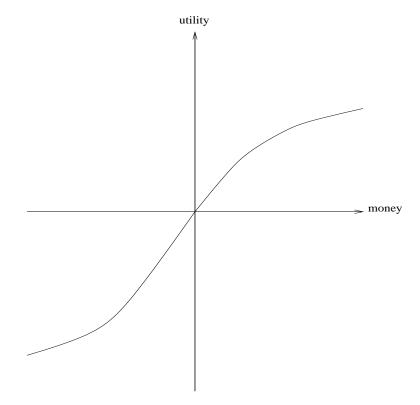
Utility functions lead to preference orderings over outcomes:

$$\omega \succeq_i \omega'$$
 means $u_i(\omega) \geq u_i(\omega')$
 $\omega \succ_i \omega'$ means $u_i(\omega) > u_i(\omega')$

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What is Utility?

- Utility is *not* money (but it is a useful analogy).
- Typical relationship between utility & money:



Multiagent Encounters

- We need a model of the environment in which these agents will act...
 - agents simultaneously choose an action to perform, and as a result of the actions they select, an outcome in Ω will result;
 - the actual outcome depends on the combination of actions;
 - assume each agent has just two possible actions that it can perform C ("cooperate") and "D" ("defect").
- Environment behaviour given by state transformer function:

 $au: \underbrace{Ac} imes \underbrace{Ac} o \Omega$ agent i's action agent j's action

Here is a state transformer function:

$$\tau(D,D) = \omega_1 \quad \tau(D,C) = \omega_2 \quad \tau(C,D) = \omega_3 \quad \tau(C,C) = \omega_4$$

(This environment is sensitive to actions of both agents.)

• Here is another:

$$\tau(D, D) = \omega_1 \quad \tau(D, C) = \omega_1 \quad \tau(C, D) = \omega_1 \quad \tau(C, C) = \omega_1$$

(Neither agent has any influence in this environment.)

• And here is another:

$$\tau(D,D) = \omega_1 \quad \tau(D,C) = \omega_2 \quad \tau(C,D) = \omega_1 \quad \tau(C,C) = \omega_2$$

(This environment is controlled by j.)

Rational Action

 Suppose we have the case where both agents can influence the outcome, and they have utility functions as follows:

$$u_i(\omega_1) = 1$$
 $u_i(\omega_2) = 1$ $u_i(\omega_3) = 4$ $u_i(\omega_4) = 4$
 $u_j(\omega_1) = 1$ $u_j(\omega_2) = 4$ $u_j(\omega_3) = 1$ $u_j(\omega_4) = 4$

With a bit of abuse of notation:

$$u_i(D, D) = 1$$
 $u_i(D, C) = 1$ $u_i(C, D) = 4$ $u_i(C, C) = 4$
 $u_j(D, D) = 1$ $u_j(D, C) = 4$ $u_j(C, D) = 1$ $u_j(C, C) = 4$

• Then agent i's preferences are:

$$C, C \succeq_i C, D \rightarrow_i D, C \succeq_i D, D$$

"C" is the rational choice for i.
(Because i prefers all outcomes that arise through C over all outcomes that arise through D.)

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Payoff Matrices

• We can characterise the previous scenario in a *payoff matrix*

		i	
		defect	coop
	defect	1	4
\dot{j}		1	1
	coop	1	4
		4	4

- Agent *i* is the *column player*.
- Agent j is the row player.

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Solution Concepts

- How will a rational agent will behave in any given scenario?
 Play...
 - dominant strategy;
 - Nash equilibrium strategy;
 - Pareto optimal strategies;
 - strategies that maximise social welfare.

Dominant Strategies

- Given any particular strategy s (either C or D) agent i, there will be a number of possible outcomes.
- We say s_1 dominates s_2 if every outcome possible by i playing s_1 is preferred over every outcome possible by i playing s_2 .
- A rational agent will never play a dominated strategy.
- So in deciding what to do, we can delete dominated strategies.
- Unfortunately, there isn't always a unique undominated strategy.

Nash Equilibrium

- In general, we will say that two strategies s_1 and s_2 are in Nash equilibrium (NE) if:
 - 1. under the assumption that agent i plays s_1 , agent j can do no better than play s_2 ; and
 - 2. under the assumption that agent j plays s_2 , agent i can do no better than play s_1 .
- Neither agent has any incentive to deviate from a NE.
- Unfortunately:
 - 1. Not every interaction scenario has a pure strategy NE.
 - 2. Some interaction scenarios have more than one NE.

Pareto Optimality

- An outcome is said to be Pareto optimal (or Pareto efficient) if there is no other outcome that makes one agent better off without making another agent worse off.
- If an outcome is Pareto optimal, then at least one agent will be reluctant to move away from it (because this agent will be worse off).
- If an outcome ω is *not* Pareto optimal, then there is another outcome ω' that makes *everyone* as happy, if not happier, than ω . "Reasonable" agents would agree to move to ω' in this case. (Even if I don't directly benefit from ω' , you can benefit without me suffering.)

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Social Welfare

• The social welfare of an outcome ω is the sum of the utilities that each agent gets from ω :

$$\sum_{i\in Ag}u_i(\omega)$$

- Think of it as the "total amount of money in the system".
- As a solution concept, may be appropriate when the whole system (all agents) has a single owner (then overall benefit of the system is important, not individuals).

Competitive and Zero-Sum Interactions

- Where preferences of agents are diametrically opposed we have strictly competitive scenarios.
- Zero-sum encounters are those where utilities sum to zero:

$$u_i(\omega) + u_i(\omega) = 0$$
 for all $\omega \in \Omega$.

- Zero sum implies strictly competitive.
- Zero sum encounters in real life are very rare ... but people tend to act in many scenarios as if they were zero sum.

The Prisoner's Dilemma

Two men are collectively charged with a crime and held in separate cells, with no way of meeting or communicating. They are told that:

- if one confesses and the other does not, the confessor will be freed, and the other will be jailed for three years;
- if both confess, then each will be jailed for two years.

Both prisoners know that if neither confesses, then they will each be jailed for one year.

Payoff matrix for prisoner's dilemma:

		i	
		defect	coop
	defect	2	1
\dot{J}		2	4
	coop	4	3
		1	3

- Top left: If both defect, then both get punishment for mutual defection.
- Top right: If i cooperates and j defects, i gets sucker's payoff of 1, while j gets 4.
- Bottom left: If j cooperates and i defects, j gets sucker's payoff of 1, while i gets 4.
- Bottom right: Reward for mutual cooperation.

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What Should You Do?

- The individual rational action is defect.
 This guarantees a payoff of no worse than 2, whereas cooperating guarantees a payoff of at most 1.
- So defection is the best response to all possible strategies: both agents defect, and get payoff = 2.
- But intuition says this is not the best outcome:
 Surely they should both cooperate and each get payoff of 3!

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Solution Concepts

- There is no dominant strategy (in our sense).
- (D, D) is the only Nash equilibrium.
- All outcomes except(D, D) are Pareto optimal.
- (C, C) maximises social welfare.

 This apparent paradox is the fundamental problem of multi-agent interactions.

It appears to imply that cooperation will not occur in societies of self-interested agents.

- Real world examples:
 - nuclear arms reduction ("why don't I keep mine...")
 - free rider systems public transport;
 - in the UK television licenses.
- The prisoner's dilemma is ubiquitous.
- Can we recover cooperation?

Arguments for Recovering Cooperation

- Conclusions that some have drawn from this analysis:
 - the game theory notion of rational action is wrong!
 - somehow the dilemma is being formulated wrongly
- Arguments to recover cooperation:
 - We are not all machiavelli!
 - The other prisoner is my twin!
 - The shadow of the future...

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The Iterated Prisoner's Dilemma

- One answer: play the game more than once.
 If you know you will be meeting your opponent again, then the incentive to defect appears to evaporate.
- Cooperation is the rational choice in the infinititely repeated prisoner's dilemma.
 (Hurrah!)

Backwards Induction

 But... suppose you both know that you will play the game exactly n times.

On round n-1, you have an incentive to defect, to gain that extra bit of payoff...

But this makes round n-2 the last "real", and so you have an incentive to defect there, too.

This is the *backwards induction* problem.

 Playing the prisoner's dilemma with a fixed, finite, pre-determined, commonly known number of rounds, defection is the best strategy.

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Axelrod's Tournament

- Suppose you play iterated prisoner's dilemma against a range of opponents . . .
 - What strategy should you choose, so as to maximise your overall payoff?
- Axelrod (1984) investigated this problem, with a computer tournament for programs playing the prisoner's dilemma.

Strategies in Axelrod's Tournament

• ALLD:

"Always defect" — the *hawk* strategy;

• TIT-FOR-TAT:

- 1. On round u = 0, cooperate.
- 2. On round u > 0, do what your opponent did on round u 1.

TESTER:

On 1st round, defect. If the opponent retaliated, then play TIT-FOR-TAT. Otherwise intersperse cooperation & defection.

JOSS:

As TIT-FOR-TAT, except periodically defect.

Recipes for Success in Axelrod's Tournament

Axelrod suggests the following rules for succeeding in his tournament:

Don't be envious:

Don't play as if it were zero sum!

Be nice:

Start by cooperating, and reciprocate cooperation.

Retaliate appropriately:

Always punish defection immediately, but use "measured" force — don't overdo it.

Don't hold grudges:

Always reciprocate cooperation immediately.

Game of Chicken

Consider another type of encounter — the game of chicken:

		i	
		defect	coop
	defect	1	2
\dot{j}		1	4
	coop	4	3
		2	3

(Think of James Dean in *Rebel without a Cause*: swerving = coop, driving straight = defect.)

Difference to prisoner's dilemma:

Mutual defection is most feared outcome.

(Whereas sucker's payoff is most feared in prisoner's dilemma.)

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Solution Concepts

- There is no dominant strategy (in our sense).
- Strategy pairs (C, D)) and (D, C)) are Nash equilibriums.
- All outcomes except (D, D) are Pareto optimal.
- All outcomes except (D, D) maximise social welfare.

Other Symmetric 2 x 2 Games

- Given the 4 possible outcomes of (symmetric) cooperate/defect games, there are 24 possible orderings on outcomes.
 - $-CC \succ_i CD \succ_i DC \succ_i DD$ Cooperation dominates.
 - $-DC \succ_i DD \succ_i CC \succ_i CD$ **Deadlock.** You will always do best by defecting.
 - $-DC \succ_i CC \succ_i DD \succ_i CD$ Prisoner's dilemma.
 - $-DC \succ_i CC \succ_i CD \succ_i DD$ Chicken.
 - $-CC \succ_i DC \succ_i DD \succ_i CD$ Stag hunt.

Summary

- This lecture has looked at agent interactions, and one approach to characterising them.
- The approach we have looked at here is that of game theory, a powerful tool for analysing interactions.
- We looked at solution concepts of Nash equilibrium and Pareto optimality.
- We then looked at the classic Prisoner's Dilemma, and how the game can be analysed using game theory.
- We also looked at the iterated Prisoner's Dilemma, and other canonical 2×2 games.