MULTIAGENT DECISION MAKING

What is game theory?

- Game theory is a framework for analysing interactions between a set of agents.
- Abstract specification of interactions.
- Describes each agent's preferences in terms of their *utility*.
 - Assume agents want to maximise utility.
- Give us a range of *solution strategies* with which we can make some predictions about how agents will/should interact.
- Game theory is *not* about being selfish.

Introduction

- Last time we looked at how an agent can make sequential decisions
 - Where outcome/utility depends on a sequence of decisions/actions.
- All under the control of one agent.
 - Static world
- What if we have more than one agent?
 - Utility depends on what all the agents do.
- This is the domain of *game theory*

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• As with all good games, the congestion game captures some underlying truths about the world at an abstract level:



• (Though you might want to alter the payoffs somewhat.)

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The Prisoner's Dilemma



(Okay, so if you know the movie, this isn't a 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.

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Constant sum games

• Matching pennies

	he	ads	ta	ils
heads		-1		1
	1		-1	
tails		1		-1
	-1		1	

• Any game with $u_i(a) + u_j(a) = c$ for all $a \in A_i \times A_j$ is a constant sum game.

• In between is the El Farol bar problem:



• If everyone goes to the bar it is no fun, but if only some people go then everyone who goes has a good time. Should you go or not?

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• Rock, paper, scissors:



is another constant sum game.

• Game in two senses.

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General sum games

• Battle of the Sexes

	this		that	
this		1		0
	2		0	
that		0		2
	0		1	

- Game contains elements of cooperation and competition.
- The interplay between these is what makes general sum games

Strategies

- We analyze games in terms of *strategies*, that is what they decide to do.
 - Combined with what the other agent(s) do(es) this jointly determines the payoff.
- An agent's *strategy set* is its set of available choices.
- Can just be the set of actions *pure* strategies.
- In the Prisoner's Dilemma (PD), the set of pure strategies is: cooperate defect
- We need more than just pure strategies in many cases.

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- The *support* for a mixed strategy s_i is the set of pure strategies $\{a_i | s(a_i) > 0\}$
 - All the actions that might be picked by a particular mixed strategy.
- The payoff of a mixed strategy is the expected utility of the strategy:

$$u_i(s) = \sum_{a \in A} u_i(a) \prod_{j=1}^n s_j(a_j)$$

- *Mixed strategies* are probability distributions over pure strategies.
- In the PD, one mixed strategy is:

pick cooperate with probability 0.7, pick defect with probability 0.3

- Clearly there are many possible pure strategies.
 - Strategy set S_i is set of all probability distributions over A_i.
 (Actions may vary between agents).
- For the PD, a strategy set of an agent is all possible probability distributions over cooperate and defect.

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- A *profile* is a selection of strategies, one for each agent.
- A set of of *mixed strategy profiles* is $S_1 \times \ldots \times S_n$.

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Solution concepts

- For an agent acting alone we can compute the *optimal strategy* maximises the expected utility.
- In a multiagent setting this isn't very meaningful.
- Best strategy depends on what others are doing.
- *Solution concepts* identify sets of outcomes (subsets of the whole) that are interesting in some way.
- External view Pareto optimality.
- Internal view Nash equilibrium.



• Though we can't say which outcome is best, we can say that some outcomes are better than others.

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- *s Pareto dominates s'* if for all i, $u_i(s) \ge u_i(s')$ and there is some j such that $u_j(s) > u_j(s')$.
- Defines a partial order over strategies.
- *s* is *Pareto optimal* if there is no *s*' such that *s*' Pareto dominates *s*.
- "Pareto optimal" is also described as "strictly Pareto efficient".

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- Best response is not a solution concept since we don't, in general, know what other agents will do.
- But we build the idea of *Nash equilibrium* (NE) on top of it.
- A strategy profile *s* = (*s*₁, . . . , *s_n*) is a Nash equilibrium if, for all agents *i*, *s_i* is a best response to *s*_{-*i*}.
- NE is stable, since no agent can do better by switching strategy while everyone else sticks.
- Every game (within reason) has a (mixed strategy) Nash equilibrium.

Nash equilibrium

- Pareto dominance doesn't tell an individual agent how to play the game.
- Nash equilibrium is more useful from this perspective.
- If I know how you will play the game, I can maximise. I choose my *best response*.
- *i*'s best response to the strategy profile s_{-i} is the mixed strategy $s_i^* \in S$ such that $u_i(s_i^*, s_{-i}) \ge u_i(s_i, s_{-i})$ for all s_i .

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• What is the Nash equilibrium for the Prisoner's Dilemma:



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Dominated strategies IV

	L		С	
U		1		1
	3		0	
L		1		1
	0		4	

- Removing dominated strategies will not remove any Nash
- If we only use strict dominance, the order of elimination doesn't

- We can do it by learning.
- Agent *A* observes agent *B*'s choices, and formulates the best
- If *B* i splaying a mixed strategy, this will correctly identify the
 - However, may be susceptible to manipulation.
- What if both agents are learning?
- Turns out that under some conditions, agents can work their

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Evolutionarily Stable Strategies

• Consider a large population of agents playing a two player game.

- Equilibrium strategy

- Is the equilibrium strategy stable against some fraction of the population switching to a different strategy.
- A mixed strategy *s* is an *evolutionarily stable strategy* if for all other strategies *s*':

-u(s,s) > u(s',s); or

$$-u(s,s) = u(s',s)$$
 and $u(s,s') = u(s',s')$

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Hawk/Dove game

	ha	wk	d	ove
hawk		-2		0
	-2		6	
dove		6		3
	0		3	

- Unique symmetric Nash equilibrium, (3/5, 2/5).
- Also the unique ESS.
- But, for example, (*dove*, *dove*) is not an ESS, though it is Pareto optimal.

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- If a mixed strategy *s* is an evolutionarily stable strategy, then it is a Nash equilibrium.
- Any ESS is a best response to itself, and is therefore an NE.
- The reverse does not hold only strict Nash equilibria are ESS.
- In a two-player game, given a mixed strategy *s*, if (*s*, *s*) is strict Nash equilibrium, then *s* is an evolutionarily stable strategy.
- Interesting because we can *learn* ESS and hence NE.

- There are several sets of *replicator dynamics* which explain how agents should change their strategy based on how strategies payoff in the current mix.
- If agents adjust their strategy this way, the population will converge to NE.
- Can look at this as either:
 - the behavior of a large population; or
 - a computational process for establishing the mixed strategy NE.
- A population of 100 agents where the ESS has 10 agents using strategy s_1 , 20 using s_2 and 70 using s_3 tells us that $\langle (s_1, 0.1), (s_2, 0.2), (s_3, 0.7) \rangle$ is an NE.

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Iterated Games

- All we did so far assumes that agents only play the game with each other once.
 - One-shot games
- Even when learning, the assumption is that agents are trying to establish how an opponent plays the one-shot game.
 - Either playing an anonymous crowd of opponents; or
 - Observing an agent who is doing this.
- Different behavior when you know that you will play the same agent multiple times.
- Shadow of the future.

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Backwards Induction

• 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.

Iterated Prisoner's dilemma

- If you know you will be meeting your opponent again, then the incentive to defect appears to evaporate.
 - If you defect, you can be punished (compared to the co-operation reward.)
 - If you get suckered, then what you lose can be amortised over the rest of the iterations, making it a small loss.
- Cooperation is (provably) the rational choice in the infinititely repeated prisoner's dilemma.
- But what if there are a finite number of repetitions?

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- That seems to suggest that you should *never* cooperate.
- So how does cooperation arise? Why does it make sense?
- After all, there does seem to be such a thing as society, and even in a big city like New York, people don't behave so badly. Or, maybe more accurately, they don't behave badly all the time.
- Turns out that:
 - As long as you have some probability of repeating the interaction co-operation can have a better expected payoff.
 - As long as there are enough co-operative folk out there, you can come out ahead by co-operating.
- But is always co-operating the best approach?

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Strategies in Axelrod's Tournament

• <u>ALLD</u>:

"Always defect" — the *hawk* strategy;

• <u>TIT-FOR-TAT</u>:

1. On round u = 0, cooperate.

- 2. On round u > 0, do what your opponent did on round u 1.
- <u>TESTER</u>:

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.





- Robert Axelrod (1984) investigated this problem, with a computer tournament for programs playing the iterated prisoner's dilemma.
- Axelrod hosted the tournament and various researchers sent in approaches for playing the game.

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- Surprisingly TIT-FOR-TAT for won.
- But don't read too much into this.
 - Turns out that TIT-FOR-TWO-TATS would have done better.
- In scenarios like the IPD tournament, the best approach depends heavily on what the full set of approaches is.
- TIT-FOR-TAT did well because there were other players it could co-operate with.
 - In scenarios with different strategy mixes it would not win.

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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.

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Markov Games

- Can think of Markov games as a hybrid of MDPs and games.
- In MDPs, choices about action determine the next state an agent is in.
 - Actions can vary with state
- In games, joint choices of actions determine payoffs.
- In Markov games, joint choices of action determine the next state and agent is in.
 - The game that defines outcomes can vary with state.
- Markov games are very much at the cutting edge of research.

Sequential Games

- In normal-form games we assume moves are simultaneous.
- Another area of game theory studies *sequential* games.
 - Players take it in turns
- We don't have time to look at this.
- Can always map the sequence of moves into a strategy, and consider this to be a very big normal form game.

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Bayesian Games

- Everything we have done so far assumes agents know what game they are playing.
- Assume that:
 - Number of players
 - Set of actions
 - Payoffs

are common knowledge across all players.

- Now look at games of incomplete information or Bayesian games.
- Represent the lack of knowledge with a probability distribution over a set of games
 - Agents' beliefs about which game they are playing.

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- Not a very restrictive assumption.
- Pad games if necessary with dominated strategies.
- Agents' beliefs are posteriors, based on a common prior conditioned on private signals.
 - Start the same, experience differs.

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- To decide what to do, the row player has to look at his possible choices and use the probability distribution over the possible outcomes to determine his expected payoff.
- Does the same to establish expected payoffs of the other agent.
- Then apply the usual kinds of analysis, suitably complicated by the expected value calculations.
- Mixed strategies add another layer of expectation.



Summary

- Today we looked at some game theory.
- In artificial intelligence, game theory is used to help analyze interactions between agents.
- However, it is (has been) an area of growing interest and importance in computer science as a whole.
- Lots of work on figuring out incentives to make systems work as we want them to.
 - Mechanism design.
- Lots more we could say about multiagent decision-making also:

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- Voting

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- Social choice theory

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