

# Behavioral Game Theory

Based on joint work with James Wright

# Talk Overview

- 1 Recap
- 2 Computing Correlated Equilibria
- 3 Behavioral Game Theory
- 4 Models of Human Behavior in Simultaneous-Move Games
- 5 Experimental Setup
- 6 Comparing our Models in Terms of Predictive Performance
- 7 Digging Deeper: Bayesian Analysis of Model Parameters

# Computational Problems in Domination

- Identifying strategies **dominated by a pure strategy**
  - polynomial, straightforward algorithm
- Identifying strategies **dominated by a mixed strategy**
  - polynomial, somewhat tricky LP
- Identifying strategies **that survive iterated elimination**
  - repeated calls to the above LP
- Asking whether a strategy survives iterated elimination under **all elimination orderings**
  - polynomial for strict domination (elimination doesn't matter)
  - NP-complete otherwise

# Rationalizability

- Rather than ask what is irrational, ask what is a best response to **some** beliefs about the opponent
  - assumes opponent is rational
  - assumes opponent knows that you and the others are rational
  - ...
- Equilibrium strategies are always rationalizable; so are lots of other strategies (but not everything).
- In two-player games, rationalizable  $\Leftrightarrow$  survives iterated removal of strictly dominated strategies.

# Formal definition

## Definition (Correlated equilibrium)

Given an  $n$ -agent game  $G = (N, A, u)$ , a **correlated equilibrium** is a tuple  $(v, \pi, \sigma)$ , where  $v$  is a tuple of random variables  $v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$  with respective domains  $D = (D_1, \dots, D_n)$ ,  $\pi$  is a joint distribution over  $v$ ,  $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$  is a vector of mappings  $\sigma_i : D_i \mapsto A_i$ , and for each agent  $i$  and every mapping  $\sigma'_i : D_i \mapsto A_i$  it is the case that

$$\sum_{d \in D} \pi(d) u_i(\sigma_1(d_1), \dots, \sigma_i(d_i), \dots, \sigma_n(d_n)) \geq \sum_{d \in D} \pi(d) u_i(\sigma_1(d_1), \dots, \sigma'_i(d_i), \dots, \sigma_n(d_n)).$$

# Existence

## Theorem

For every Nash equilibrium  $\sigma^*$  there exists a *corresponding correlated equilibrium*  $\sigma$ .

- This is easy to show:
  - let  $D_i = A_i$
  - let  $\pi(d) = \prod_{i \in N} \sigma_i^*(d_i)$
  - $\sigma_i$  maps each  $d_i$  to the corresponding  $a_i$ .
- Thus, correlated equilibria always exist

# Remarks

- Not every correlated equilibrium is equivalent to a Nash equilibrium
  - thus, correlated equilibrium is a **weaker notion** than Nash
- Any **convex combination of the payoffs** achievable under correlated equilibria is itself realizable under a correlated equilibrium
  - start with the Nash equilibria (each of which is a CE)
  - introduce a second randomizing device that selects which CE the agents will play
  - regardless of the probabilities, no agent has incentive to deviate
  - the probabilities can be adjusted to achieve any convex combination of the equilibrium payoffs
  - the randomizing devices can be combined

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# Computing CE

$$\sum_{a \in A | a_i \in a} p(a) u_i(a) \geq \sum_{a \in A | a_i \in a'} p(a) u_i(a'_i, a_{-i}) \quad \forall i \in N, \forall a_i, a'_i \in A_i$$

$$p(a) \geq 0 \quad \forall a \in A$$

$$\sum_{a \in A} p(a) = 1$$

- variables:  $p(a)$ ; constants:  $u_i(a)$

# Computing CE

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- variables:  $p(a)$ ; constants:  $u_i(a)$
- we could find the social-welfare maximizing CE by adding an objective function

$$\text{maximize: } \sum_{a \in A} p(a) \sum_{i \in N} u_i(a).$$

# Why are CE easier to compute than NE?

$$\sum_{a \in A | a_i \in a} p(a) u_i(a) \geq \sum_{a \in A | a'_i \in a} p(a) u_i(a'_i, a_{-i}) \quad \forall i \in N, \forall a_i, a'_i \in A_i$$

$$p(a) \geq 0 \quad \forall a \in A$$

$$\sum_{a \in A} p(a) = 1$$

- intuitively, correlated equilibrium has only a single randomization over outcomes, whereas in NE this is constructed as a product of independent probabilities.
- To change this program so that it finds NE, the first constraint would be

$$\sum_{a \in A} u_i(a) \prod_{j \in N} p_j(a_j) \geq \sum_{a \in A} u_i(a'_i, a_{-i}) \prod_{j \in N \setminus \{i\}} p_j(a_j) \quad \forall i \in N, \forall a'_i \in A_i.$$

- This is a nonlinear constraint!

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# Fun Game

- Guess 95% of the average

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- Guess 95% of the average
- Guess 40% of the average

# Behavioral Game Theory

- Behavioral game theory: Aims to extend game theory to modeling human agents.
  - There are a wide range of BGT models in the literature.
  - Historically, BGT has been most concerned with explaining behavior, often on particular games, rather than predicting it.
  - No study compares a wide range of models, considers predictive performance, or looks at such a large, heterogeneous set of games.

# This Talk

## We:

- Compared predictive performance of:
  - Nash equilibrium, plus
  - Four prominent models from behavioral game theory
  - Using six experimental datasets from the literature
- Bayesian sensitivity analysis:
  - Yields new insight into existing model (Poisson-CH)
  - Argues for a novel simplification of an existing model (Quantal level- $k$ )



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# Nash equilibrium and human subjects

- Nash equilibrium often makes **counterintuitive predictions**.
  - In Traveler's Dilemma: The vast majority of human players choose 97–100.
- Modifications to a game that don't change Nash equilibrium predictions at all **can cause large changes** in how human subjects play the game [Goeree & Holt 2001].
  - In Traveler's Dilemma: When the penalty is large, people play much closer to Nash equilibrium.
  - But the size of the penalty does not affect equilibrium.

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- Modifications to a game that don't change Nash equilibrium predictions at all **can cause large changes** in how human subjects play the game [Goeree & Holt 2001].
  - In Traveler's Dilemma: When the penalty is large, people play much closer to Nash equilibrium.
  - But the size of the penalty does not affect equilibrium.
- Clearly Nash equilibrium is **not the whole story**.
- Behavioral game theory proposes a number of models to better explain human behavior.

# Behavioral game theory models

Themes:<sup>1</sup>

- 1 **Quantal response**: Agents best-respond with high probability rather than deterministically best responding.
- 2 **Iterative strategic reasoning**: Agents can only perform limited steps of strategic “look-ahead”.

One model (QRE) is based on quantal response, two models (Lk, CH) are based on iterative strategic reasoning, and one model (QLk) incorporates both.

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<sup>1</sup>Recall: we restrict attention to unrepeated, simultaneous-move games.

# BGT model: Quantal response equilibrium (QRE)

**QRE** model [McKelvey & Palfrey 1995] parameter:  $(\lambda)$

- Agents **quantally best respond** to each other.

$$QBR_i(s_{-i}, \lambda)(a_i) = \frac{e^{\lambda u_i(a_i, s_{-i})}}{\sum_{a'_i \in A_i} e^{\lambda u_i(a'_i, s_{-i})}}$$

- Precision parameter**  $\lambda \in [0, \infty)$  indicates how sensitive agents are to utility differences.
  - $\lambda = 0$  means agents choose actions uniformly at random.
  - As  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$ , QBR approaches best response.

# BGT models: Iterative strategic reasoning

- Level-0 agents choose uniformly at random.
- Level-1 agents reason about level-0 agents.
- Level-2 agents reason about level-1 agents.
- There's a probability distribution over levels.
  - Higher-level agents are “smarter”; scarcer
  
- Predicting the distribution of play: weighted sum of the distributions for each level.

## BGT model: Lk

Lk model [Costa-Gomes et al. 2001] parameters:  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$

- Each agent has one of 3 **levels**: level-0, level-1, or level-2.
- Distribution of level  $[2, 1, 0]$  agents is  $[\alpha_2, \alpha_1, (1 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2)]$
- Each level- $k$  agent makes a “mistake” with prob  $\epsilon_k$ , or best responds to level- $(k - 1)$  opponent with prob  $1 - \epsilon_k$ .
  - Level- $k$  agents believe all opponents are level- $(k - 1)$ .
  - Level- $k$  agents aren't aware that level- $(k - 1)$  agents will make “mistakes”.

$$IBR_{i,0} = A_i,$$

$$IBR_{i,k} = BR_i(IBR_{-i,k-1}),$$

$$\pi_{i,0}^{Lk}(a_i) = |A_i|^{-1},$$

$$\pi_{i,k}^{Lk}(a_i) = \begin{cases} (1 - \epsilon_k)/|IBR_{i,k}| & \text{if } a_i \in IBR_{i,k}, \\ \epsilon_k/(|A_i| - |IBR_{i,k}|) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

# BGT model: Cognitive hierarchy

Cognitive hierarchy model [Camerer et al. 2004] parameter:  $(\tau)$

- An agent of level  $m$  best responds to the **truncated, true** distribution of levels from 0 to  $m - 1$ .
- **Poisson-CH**: Levels are assumed to have a Poisson distribution with mean  $\tau$ .

$$\pi_{i,0}^{PCH}(a_i) = |A_i|^{-1},$$

$$\pi_{i,m}^{PCH}(a_i) = \begin{cases} |TBR_{i,m}|^{-1} & \text{if } a_i \in TBR_{i,m}, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$TBR_{i,m} = BR_i \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^{m-1} \Pr(\text{Poisson}(\tau) = \ell) \pi_{-i,\ell}^{PCH} \right)$$



# BGT model: QLk

**QLk** model [Stahl & Wilson 1994] parameters:  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_{1(2)})$

- Distribution of level  $[2, 1, 0]$  agents is  $[\alpha_2, \alpha_1, (1 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2)]$
- Each agent **quantally** responds to next-lower level.
- Each QLk agent level has its own precision  $(\lambda_k)$ , and its own beliefs about lower-level agents' precisions  $(\lambda_{\ell(k)})$ .

$$\pi_{i,0}^{QLk}(a_i) = |A_i|^{-1},$$

$$\pi_{i,1}^{QLk} = QBR_i(\pi_{-i,0}^{QLk}, \lambda_1),$$

$$\pi_{j,1(2)}^{QLk} = QBR_j(\pi_{-j,0}^{QLk}, \lambda_{1(2)}),$$

$$\pi_{i,2}^{QLk} = QBR_i(\pi_{-i,1(2)}^{QLk}, \lambda_2).$$

# Prediction using Nash equilibrium

- We would like to compare BGT models' prediction performance to Nash equilibrium.
- Unmodified Nash equilibrium is not suitable for predictions:
  - 1 Games often have multiple Nash equilibria.
  - 2 A Nash equilibrium will often assign probability 0 to some actions.

# Prediction using Nash equilibrium

- We would like to compare BGT models' prediction performance to Nash equilibrium.
- Unmodified Nash equilibrium is not suitable for predictions:
  - 1 Games often have multiple Nash equilibria.
  - 2 A Nash equilibrium will often assign probability 0 to some actions.
- We constructed two different Nash-based models to deal with multiple equilibria:
  - **UNEE** (Uniform Nash Equilibrium with Error):
    - Predict the average of all Nash equilibria, + error.
  - **NNEE** (Nondeterministic Nash Equilibrium with Error):
    - Predict the post-hoc "best" Nash equilibrium, + error.
- Both models avoid probability 0 predictions via a tunable error probability.

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# Experimental setup: Overview

What do we need to compare predictive models?

- 1 **Metric** to measure performance
- 2 Test to evaluate **generalization performance**
- 3 **Experimental data** describing real human play

**Key issue:** must set models' free parameters using data (a tricky optimization problem), then test generalization performance.

# 1. Performance Metric

- We score the performance of a model by the **likelihood** of the test data:

$$\mathbf{P}(\mathcal{D}_{test} \mid \mathcal{M}, \vec{\theta}^*).$$

- To evaluate this score (and make meaningful model predictions) we must choose the **parameters** to maximize the likelihood of the training data:

$$\vec{\theta}^* = \arg \max_{\vec{\theta}} \mathbf{P}(\mathcal{D}_{train} \mid \mathcal{M}, \vec{\theta}).$$

## 2. Test to evaluate Generalization Performance

- We estimate generalization performance using **10-fold cross-validation**.
- Problem: this estimate may depend upon the particular partition into folds.
- We average over multiple (again, 10) cross-validation runs.
- We can then compute **95% confidence interval** by assuming a *t*-distribution of these averages [Witten & Frank 2000].
  - This assumption is validated by the law of large numbers as the number of cross-validation repetitions grows.

### 3. Experimental data

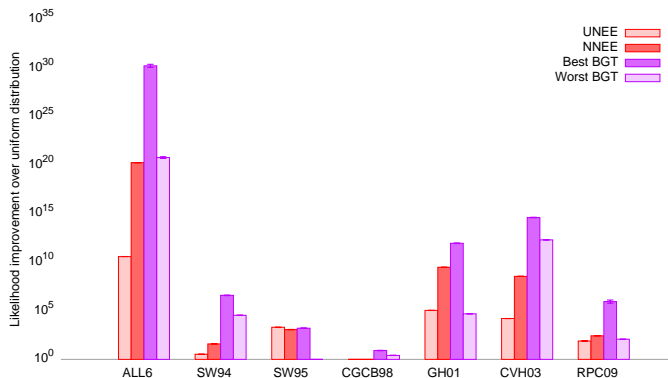
- Subjects played 2-player normal form games once each.
- Each action by an individual player is a single observation.
- Data from **six experimental studies**, plus a combined dataset:
  - SW94: 400 observations from [Stahl & Wilson 1994]
  - SW95: 576 observations from [Stahl & Wilson 1995]
  - CGCB98: 1296 observations from [Costa-Gomes et al. 1998]
  - GH01: 500 observations from [Goeree & Holt 2001]
  - CVH03: 2992 observations from [Cooper & Van Huyck 2003]
  - RPC09: 1210 observations from [Rogers et al. 2009]
  - ALL6: All 6974 observations



# Talk Overview

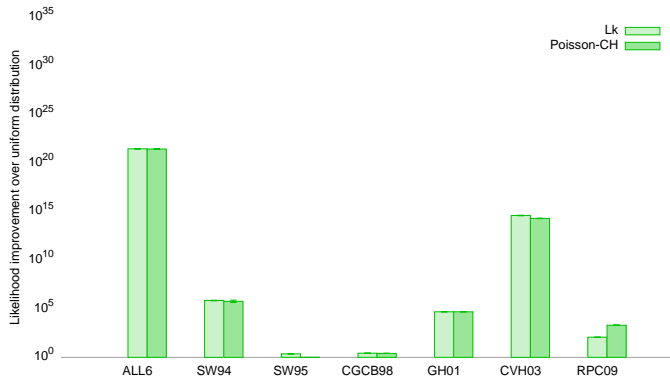
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# Model comparisons: Nash equilibrium vs. BGT



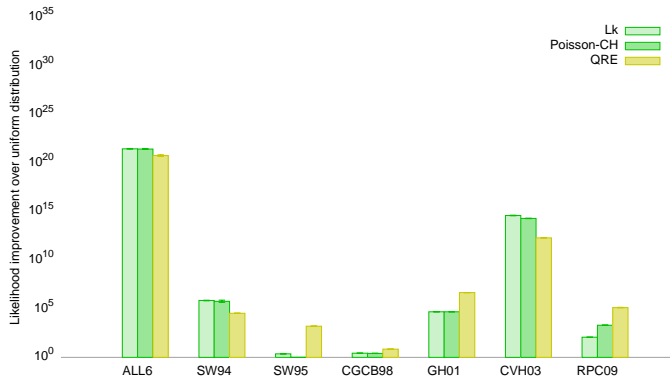
- UNEE almost always worse than every BGT model (exceptions: GH01, SW95).
- Even NNEE worse than Qlk and QRE in most datasets.

# Model comparisons: Lk and CH vs. QRE



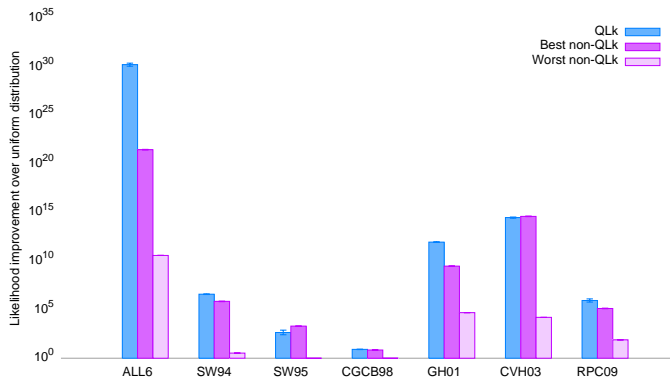
- Lk and Poisson-CH performance was roughly similar.
- No consistent ordering between Lk/Poisson-CH and QRE.
  - Iterative strategic reasoning and quantal response appear to capture distinct phenomena.

# Model comparisons: Lk and CH vs. QRE



- Lk and Poisson-CH performance was roughly similar.
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# Model comparisons: QLk



- We would expect a model with both iterative and quantal response components to perform best.
- That is the case: QLk is the best predictive model on almost every dataset.

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# Taking Stock of What We Have Done

Take-home message so far:

QLk is the **best of the models** for prediction.

For the rest of the talk, we will concentrate on gaining a **deeper understanding of QLk**. We will:

- use Bayesian methods to understand QLk's parameter space
  - determining which ranges of values parameters can take
  - identifying the most important parameters
- indulge ourselves by digressing to consider Poisson-CH 😊

# Refresher: QLk's Parameters

QLk has **5 different parameters**:

- $\alpha_1$ : Proportion of level-1 agents.
- $\alpha_2$ : Proportion of level-2 agents.
- $\lambda_1$ : Precision of level-1 agents.
- $\lambda_2$ : Precision of level-2 agents.
- $\lambda_{1(2)}$ : Level-2 agents' belief about level-1 agents' precision.

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_{i,0}^{QLk}(a_i) &= |A_i|^{-1}, \\ \pi_{i,1}^{QLk} &= QBR_i(\pi_{-i,0}^{QLk}, \lambda_1), \\ \pi_{j,1(2)}^{QLk} &= QBR_j(\pi_{-j,0}^{QLk}, \lambda_{1(2)}), \\ \pi_{i,2}^{QLk} &= QBR_i(\pi_{-i,1(2)}^{QLk}, \lambda_2).\end{aligned}$$



# Bayesian Sensitivity Analysis

Two questions:

- 1 How **sure** are we about the parameter values we fit?
  - That is, how strongly does the data argue for particular parameter values?

# Bayesian Sensitivity Analysis

Two questions:

- 1 How **sure** are we about the parameter values we fit?
  - That is, how strongly does the data argue for particular parameter values?
- 2 How **important** are the different parameters?
  - We say that a parameter is important if the model's predictions are **substantially degraded if we change its value**.

# Posterior distributions

- Maximum likelihood only tells us the most likely parameter setting, given the data.
- The **posterior distribution** over parameter settings describes the relative probability (normalized likelihoods) of all possible parameter settings.
- Individual parameters can be analyzed by inspecting the **marginal posterior distribution**.
  - Flat distributions indicate uncertainty about parameter values.
  - Sharp distributions indicate a high degree of certainty.

# Posterior distributions: Monte Carlo sampling

- The posterior distribution rarely has an analytic representation.
- We use **Monte Carlo sampling** to draw an approximate sample of values from the joint posterior distribution.
- Expectations taken over these approximate samples are unbiased estimators of the true expectations.

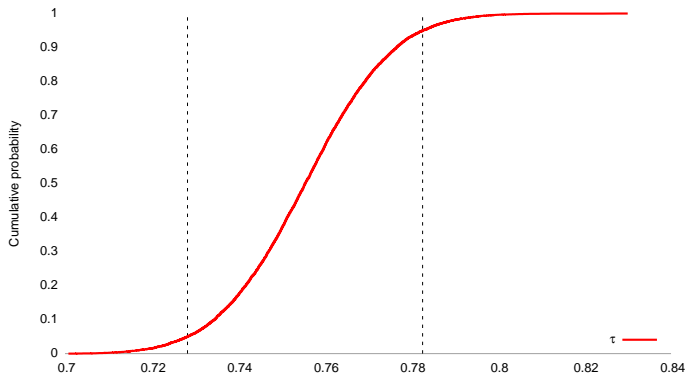
## Warm-up: Poisson-CH

Regarding the single parameter ( $\tau$ ) for the Poisson-CH model:

*“Indeed, values of  $\tau$  between 1 and 2 explain empirical results for nearly 100 games, suggesting that a  $\tau$  value of 1.5 could give reliable predictions for many other games as well.”*

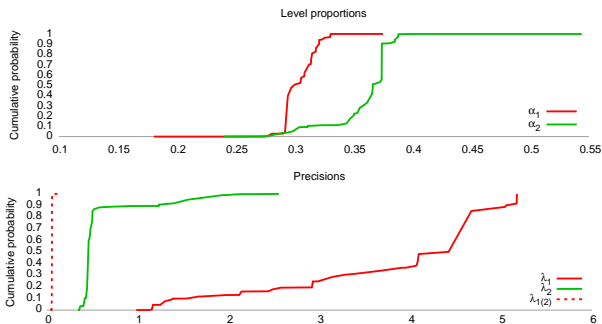
*[Camerer et al. 2004]*

# Warm-up: Poisson-CH's Posterior Distribution

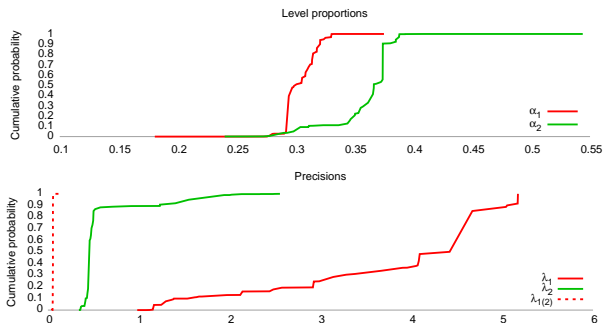


Our analysis gives 99% posterior probability that the best value of  $\tau$  is **0.8 or less**.

# Posterior distributions: QLk



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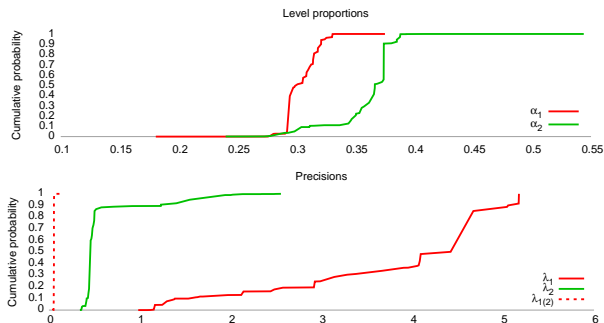


Some surprises:

- 1  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$ : Best fits predict **more** level-2 agents than level-1.



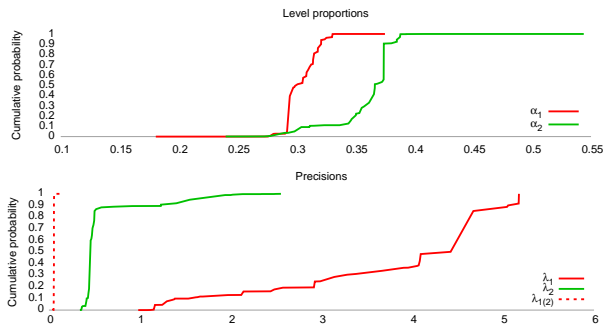
# Posterior distributions: QLk



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- 2  $\lambda_1$  is not very identifiable from data; multimodal.

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- 1  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$ : Best fits predict **more** level-2 agents than level-1.
- 2  $\lambda_1$  is not very identifiable from data; multimodal.
- 3  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$ : Level-2 agents have **lower** precision than level-1 agents.
- 4  $\lambda_1, \lambda_{1(2)}$ : Level-2 agents' beliefs are very wrong.

# Sensitivity measures: Main and total effect

## Definition

The **main effect** of a parameter  $\theta_j$  is the percentage of variance in the prediction that is reduced when  $\theta_j$  is fixed to its true value.

**Problem:** If a parameter has most of its influence from **interactions** with other parameters, it will have a low main effect.

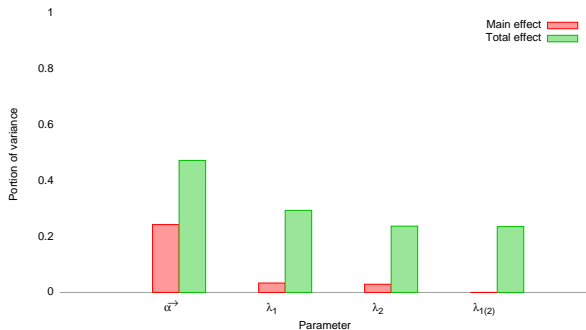
- Could compute second-order effects, third-order, ...
- There are exponentially many of these!

## Definition

The **total effect** of a parameter  $\theta_j$  is the sum of all main and higher-order effects that  $\theta_j$  participates in.

We estimate both of these quantities using Monte Carlo sampling.

# Parameter importance: QLK



- High interaction effects for all parameters.
- Precision parameters influence mostly through interactions.
- Proportion parameters ( $\vec{\alpha}$ ) about twice as important as precision parameters ( $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_{1(2)}$ ).

# Homogeneous QLk

- QLk is **not very sensitive** to its individual precision parameters.
- The precision parameters are also hard to identify.
- Would a **single precision parameter  $\lambda$**  serve just as well?

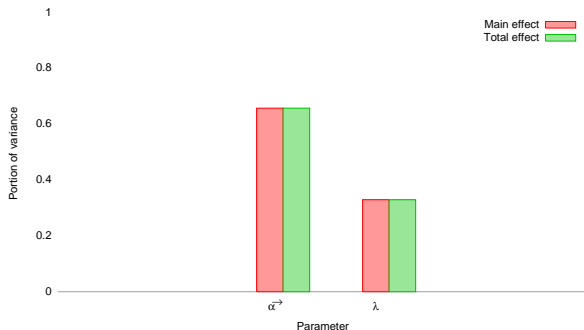
## Definition (Homogeneous QLk model)

$$\pi_{i,0}^{HQLk}(a_i) = |A_i|^{-1},$$

$$\pi_{i,1}^{HQLk} = QBR_i(\pi_{-i,0}^{HQLk}, \lambda),$$

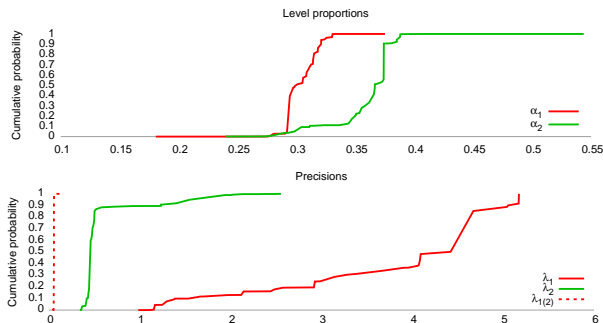
$$\pi_{i,2}^{HQLk} = QBR_i(\pi_{-i,1}^{HQLk}, \lambda).$$

# Homogeneous QLK: Parameter importance



- Virtually no interaction effects.
- Proportion parameters ( $\vec{\alpha}$ ) still about twice as important as precision ( $\lambda$ ).

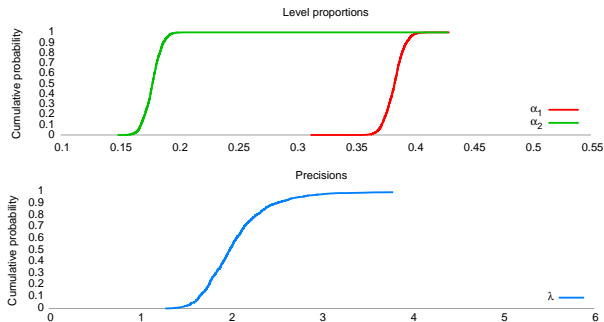
## Thinking back to QLK



Recall...

- $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$ : Best fits predict **more** level-2 agents than level-1.
- $\lambda_1$  is not very identifiable from data; multimodal.
- $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$ : Level-2 agents have **lower** precision than level-1 agents.
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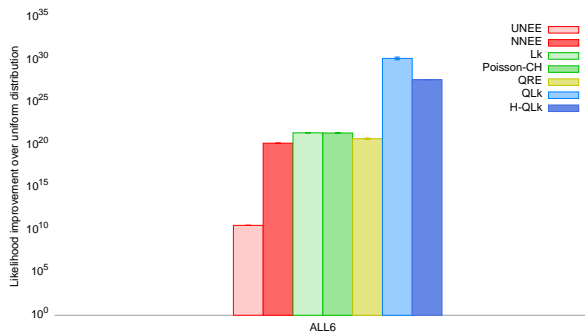
# Homogeneous QLk: Posterior distribution



- More agents of type 1 than 2.
- More confident identification of precision ( $\lambda$ ):
  - Unimodal;
  - Narrower confidence region.



# Homogeneous QLk: Performance



Performance of H-QLk and QLk are similar; H-QLk still outperforms all other models.

# Summary

- Compared **predictive performance** of four BGT models.
  - BGT models typically predict human behavior better than Nash equilibrium-based models.
  - QLk has best performance of the four.
- **Bayesian sensitivity analysis** of parameters.
  - Best parameter for Poisson-CH is likely much lower than previously thought.
  - Parameters for QLk are counterintuitive, hard to identify, interaction-laden.
  - Using a single precision for all agents yields better more intuitive parameter values, similar predictive performance.