Game-Theoretic Analysis Alternate Solution Concepts

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Computing Mixed Nash Equilibria

Fun Game

Maxmin and Minmax

Iterated Removal of Dominated Strategies

Rationalizability

Correlated Equilibrium

Fun Game Maxmin and Minmax

Iterated Removal of Dominated Strategies

s Rationalizability

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- It's hard in general to compute Nash equilibria, but it's easy when you can guess the **support**
- For BoS, let's look for an equilibrium where all actions are part of the support

Fun Game Maxmin

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- Let player 2 play B with p, F with 1 p.
- If player 1 best-responds with a mixed strategy, player 2 must make her indifferent between *F* and *B* (why?)

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$$u_1(B) = u_1(F)$$

 $2p + 0(1-p) = 0p + 1(1-p)$
 $p = \frac{1}{3}$

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- Likewise, player 1 must randomize to make player 2 indifferent.
 - Why is player 1 willing to randomize?

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Computing Mixed Nash Equilibria: Battle of the Sexes



- Likewise, player 1 must randomize to make player 2 indifferent.
 - Why is player 1 willing to randomize?
- Let player 1 play B with q, F with 1 q.

$$u_2(B) = u_2(F)$$

 $q + 0(1 - q) = 0q + 2(1 - q)$
 $q = \frac{2}{3}$

- Thus the strategies $(\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3})$, $(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3})$ are a Nash equilibrium.

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40, 80

80,40

• In a breakout room, play each game once as each player.

B





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• What does row player do in equilibrium of this game?



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 - row player randomizes 50–50 all the time
 - that's what it takes to make column player indifferent

Computing Mixed NE	Fun Game	Maxmin and Minmax Iter	rated Removal	of Dominated Strategies	Rationalizability	Correlated Equilibrium
Fun Game!						
		L		R		
	Т	80, 40; 320, 40; 4	4,40	40,80		
	В	40,80		80, 40		

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- What does row player do in equilibrium of this game?
 - row player randomizes 50–50 all the time
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- What happens when people play this game?
 - with payoff of 320, row player goes up essentially all the time
 - with payoff of 44, row player goes down essentially all the time

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- Player *i*'s **maxmin strategy** is a strategy that maximizes *i*'s worst-case payoff, in the situation where all the other players (whom we denote -i) happen to play the strategies which cause the greatest harm to *i*.
- The **maxmin value** (or **safety level**) of the game for player *i* is that minimum amount of payoff guaranteed by a maxmin strategy.

Definition (Maxmin)

The maxmin strategy for player *i* is $\arg \max_{s_i} \min_{s_{-i}} u_i(s_i, s_{-i})$, and the maxmin value for player *i* is $\max_{s_i} \min_{s_{-i}} u_i(s_i, s_{-i})$.

• Why would *i* want to play a maxmin strategy?

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- Why would *i* want to play a maxmin strategy?
 - a conservative agent maximizing worst-case payoff
 - a paranoid agent who believes everyone is out to get him

- Player *i*'s **minmax strategy** against player -i in a 2-player game is a strategy that minimizes -i's best-case payoff, and the **minmax value** for *i* against -i is payoff.
- Why would *i* want to play a minmax strategy?

Definition (Minmax, 2-player)

In a two-player game, the **minmax strategy** for player *i* against player -i is $\arg \min_{s_i} \max_{s_{-i}} u_{-i}(s_i, s_{-i})$, and player -i's **minmax value** is $\min_{s_i} \max_{s_{-i}} u_{-i}(s_i, s_{-i})$.

- Player *i*'s **minmax strategy** against player -i in a 2-player game is a strategy that minimizes -i's best-case payoff, and the **minmax value** for *i* against -i is payoff.
- Why would *i* want to play a minmax strategy?
 - to punish the other agent as much as possible

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- 2. For both players, the set of maxmin strategies coincides with the set of minmax strategies.

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- 1. Each player's maxmin value is equal to his minmax value. By convention, the maxmin value for player 1 is called the **value of the game**.
- 2. For both players, the set of maxmin strategies coincides with the set of minmax strategies.
- 3. Any maxmin strategy profile (or, equivalently, minmax strategy profile) is a Nash equilibrium. Furthermore, these are all the Nash equilibria. Consequently, all Nash equilibria have the same payoff vector (namely, those in which player 1 gets the value of the game).

Iterated Removal of Dominated Strategies

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Rationalizability Corr

Correlated Equilibrium

Saddle Point: Matching Pennies



Unit: Lecture: Leyton-Brown & Wright (10)

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Two travelers purchase identical African masks while on a tropical vacation. Their luggage is lost on the return trip, and the airline asks them to make independent claims for compensation. In anticipation of excessive claims, the airline representative announces: "We know that the bags have identical contents, and we will entertain any claim between \$180 and \$300, but you will each be reimbursed at an amount that equals the minimum of the two claims submitted. If the two claims differ, we will also pay a reward R to the person making the smaller claim and we will deduct a penalty R from the reimbursement to the person making the larger claim."

- Action: choose an integer between 180 and 300
- If both players **pick the same number**, they both get that amount as payoff
- If players **pick a different number**:
 - the low player gets his number (L) plus some constant R
 - the high player gets L R, R = 5.
- Play this game in a breakout room, if we have time. Do it once with R = 5, once with R = 180.

• What is the equilibrium?

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- What happens?
 - with R = 5 most people choose 295–300
 - with R = 180 most people choose 180

Dominated strategies

- No equilibrium can involve a strictly dominated strategy
 - Thus we can remove it, and end up with a strategically equivalent game
 - This might allow us to remove another strategy that wasn't dominated before
 - Running this process to termination is called **iterated removal of dominated strategies**.

Iterated Removal of Strictly Dominated Strategies

- This process preserves all Nash equilibria.
 - If there are multiple dominated strategies, the order of removal doesn't matter
- Thus, it can be used as a preprocessing step before computing an equilibrium
 - Some games are solvable using this technique
 - Example: Traveler's Dilemma!

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- 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
 - ...
- Examples
 - is *heads* rationalizable in matching pennies?

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- Will there always exist a rationalizable strategy?

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 - Yes, equilibrium strategies are always rationalizable.

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 - is *heads* rationalizable in matching pennies?
 - is *cooperate* rationalizable in prisoner's dilemma?
- Will there always exist a rationalizable strategy?
 - Yes, equilibrium strategies are always rationalizable.
- Furthermore, in two-player games, rationalizable ⇔ survives iterated removal of strictly dominated strategies.

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If there is intelligent life on other planets, in a majority of them, they would have discovered correlated equilibrium before Nash equilibrium.

– Roger Myerson

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Examples					

- Consider again Battle of the Sexes.
 - Intuitively, the best outcome seems a 50-50 split between (F, F) and (B, B).
 - But there's no way to achieve this, so either someone loses out (unfair) or both players often miscoordinate

٠,

	go	wait
- Another classic example: traffic game go	-100, -100	10, 0
В	0, 10	-10, -10

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Intuition					

• What is the natural solution here?

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Intuition					

- What is the natural solution here?
 - A traffic light: a fair randomizing device that tells one of the agents to go and the other to wait.
- Benefits:
 - the negative payoff outcomes are completely avoided
 - fairness is achieved
 - the sum of social welfare exceeds that of any Nash equilibrium
- We could use the same idea to achieve the fair outcome in battle of the sexes.
- Our example presumed that everyone perfectly observes the random event; not required.
- More generally, some random variable with a commonly known distribution, and a private signal to each player about the outcome.
 - signal doesn't determine the outcome or others' signals; however, correlated

Formal definition

Definition (Correlated equilibrium)

Given an *n*-agent game G = (N, A, u), a **correlated equilibrium** is a tuple (v, π, σ) , where v is a tuple of random variables $v = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ with respective domains $D = (D_1, \ldots, D_n)$, π is a joint distribution over v, $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n)$ 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

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

Theorem

For every Nash equilibrium σ^* there exists a **corresponding correlated equilibrium**

 σ .

- 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



- 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