Introduction to Game Theory

8. Stochastic Games

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Stochastic Games

- A stochastic game is a collection of normal-form games that the agents play repeatedly
- The particular game played at any time depends probabilistically on
 - the previous game played
 - > the actions of the agents in that game
- Like a probabilistic FSA in which
 - > the states are the games
 - > the transition labels are joint action-payoff pairs

Markov Games

- A **stochastic** (or **Markov**) game includes the following:
 - > a finite set Q of states (games),
 - \triangleright a set $N = \{1, ..., n\}$ of agents,
 - \triangleright For each agent i, a finite set A_i of possible actions
 - A transition probability function $P: Q \times A_1 \times \cdots \times A_n \times Q \rightarrow [0, 1]$ $P(q, a_1, ..., a_n, q') = \text{probability of transitioning to state } q'$ if the action profile $(a_1, ..., a_n)$ is used in state q
 - For each agent *i*, a real-valued **payoff function** $r_i: Q \times A_1 \times \cdots \times A_n \to \Re$
- This definition makes the inessential but simplifying assumption that each agent's strategy space is the same in all games
 - > So the games differ only in their payoff functions

Histories and Rewards

- Before, a history was just a sequence of actions
 - > But now we have action profiles rather than individual actions, and each profile has several possible outcomes
- Thus a history is a sequence $h_t = (q^0, a^0, q^1, a^1, ..., a^{t-1}, q^t)$, where t is the number of stages
- As before, the two most common methods to aggregate payoffs into an overall payoff are average reward and future discounted reward
- Stochastic games generalize both Markov decision processes (MDPs) and repeated games
 - ➤ An MDP is a stochastic game with only 1 player
 - > A repeated game is a stochastic game with only 1 state
 - Iterated Prisoner's Dilemma, Roshambo, Iterated Battle of the Sexes, ...

Strategies

- For agent *i*, a **deterministic** strategy specifies a choice of action for *i* at every stage of every possible history
- A mixed strategy is a probability distribution over deterministic strategies
- Several restricted classes of strategies:
 - As in extensive-form games, a **behavioral strategy** is a mixed strategy in which the mixing take place at each history independently
 - ➤ A **Markov strategy** is a behavioral strategy such that for each time *t*, the distribution over actions depends only on the current state
 - But the distribution may be different at time t than at time $t' \neq t$
 - A **stationary strategy** is a Markov strategy in which the distribution over actions depends only on the current state (not on the time *t*)

Equilibria

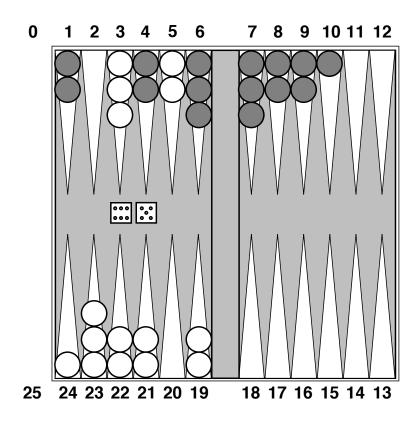
- First consider the (easier) discounted-reward case
- A strategy profile is a **Markov-perfect equilibrium** (MPE) if
 - it consists of only Markov strategies
 - > it is a Nash equilibrium regardless of the starting state
- **Theorem**. Every *n*-player, general-sum, discounted-reward stochastic game has a MPE
- The role of Markov-perfect equilibria is similar to role of subgame-perfect equilibria in perfect-information games

Equilibria

- Now consider the average-reward case
- A stochastic game is **irreducible** if every game can be reached with positive probability regardless of the strategy adopted
- **Theorem**. Every 2-player, general-sum, average reward, irreducible stochastic game has a Nash equilibrium
- A payoff profile is **feasible** if it is a convex combination of the outcomes in a game, where the coefficients are rational numbers
- There's a folk theorem similar to the one for repeated games:
 - If (p_1,p_2) is a feasible pair of payoffs such that each p_i is at least as big as agent *i*'s minimax value, then (p_1,p_2) can be achieved in equilibrium through the use of enforcement

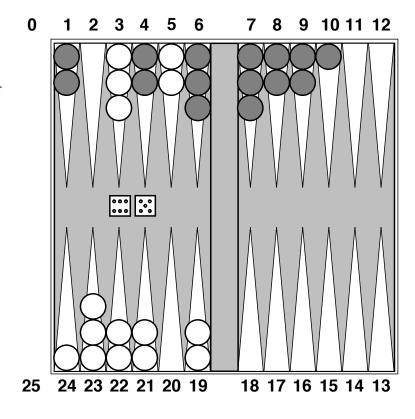
Two-Player Zero-Sum Stochastic Games

- For two-player zero-sum stochastic games
 - > The folk theorem still applies, but it becomes vacuous
 - > The situation is similar to what happened in repeated games
 - The only feasible pair of payoffs is the minimax payoffs
- One example of a two-player zero-sum stochastic game is Backgammon
- Two agents who take turns
 - Before his/her move, an agent must roll the dice
 - The set of available moves depends on the results of the dice roll



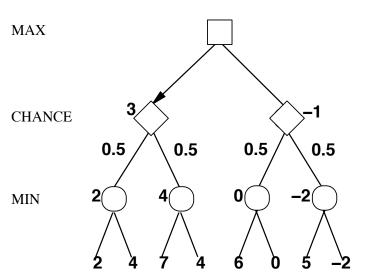
Backgammon

- Mapping Backgammon into a Markov game is straightforward, but slightly awkward
- Basic idea is to give each move a stochastic outcome, by combining it with the dice roll that comes *after* it
- Every state is a pair: (current board, current dice configuration)
 - Initial set of states = {initial board} x
 {all possible results of agent 1's first dice roll}
 - Set of possible states after agent 1's move =
 {the board produced by agent 1's move}
 x {all possible results of agent 2's dice roll}
 - Vice versa for agent 2's move
- We can extend the minimax algorithm to deal with this
 - But it's easier if we don't try to combine the moves and the dice rolls
 - Just keep them separate



The Expectiminimax Algorithm

- Two-player zero-sum game in which
 - Each agent's move has a deterministic outcome
 - ➤ In addition to the two agents' moves, there are chance moves
- The algorithm gives optimal play (highest expected utility)



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function Expection Expection Inimax (s) returns an expected utility

if s is a terminal state then return Max's payoff at s

if s is a "chance" node then

return \sum_{s'} P(s'|s)EXPECTIMINIMAX(s')

else if it is Max's move at s then

return max{EXPECTIMINIMAX(result(a, s)) : a is applicable to s}

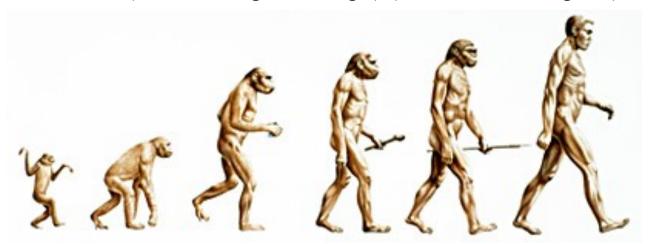
else return min{EXPECTIMINIMAX(result(a, s)) : a is applicable to s}
```

In practice

- Dice rolls increase branching factor
 - > 21 possible rolls with 2 dice
 - \triangleright Given the dice roll, \approx 20 legal moves on average
 - > For some dice roles, can be much higher
 - depth $4 = 20 \times (21 \times 20)^3 \approx 1.2 \times 10^9$
 - > As depth increases, probability of reaching a given node shrinks
 - ⇒ value of lookahead is diminished
- α - β pruning is much less effective
- TDGammon uses depth-2 search + very good evaluation function
 - $\triangleright \approx$ world-champion level
 - ➤ The evaluation function was created automatically using a machinelearning technique called *Temporal Difference* learning
 - hence the TD in TDGammon

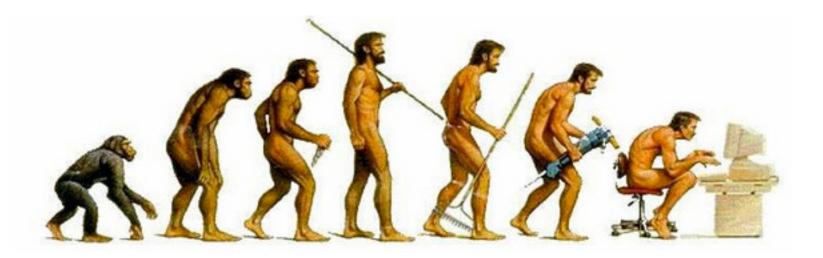
Evolutionary Simulations

- An evolutionary simulation is a stochastic game whose structure is intended to model certain aspects of evolutionary environments
 - At each **stage** (or **generation**) there is a large set (e.g., hundreds) of agents
- Different agents may use different strategies
 - \triangleright A strategy s is represented by the set of all agents that use strategy s
 - Over time, the number of agents using s may grow or shrink depending on how well s performs
- s's **reproductive success** is the fraction of agents using s at the end of the simulation,
 - \triangleright i.e., (number of agents using s)/(total number of agents)



Reproduction Dynamics

- At each stage, some set of agents (maybe all of them, maybe just a few) is selected to perform actions at that stage
 - Each agent receives a *fitness* value: a stochastic function of the action profile
- Depending on the agents' fitness values, some of them may be removed and replaced with agents that use other strategies
 - > Typically an agent with higher fitness is likely to see its numbers grow
 - > The details depend on the **reproduction dynamics**
 - The mechanism for selecting which agents will be removed, which agents will reproduce, and how many progeny they'll have



Replicator Dynamics

• **Replicator dynamics** works as follows:

$$ightharpoonup p_i^{new} = p_i^{curr} r_i / R,$$

where

- $\triangleright p_i^{new}$ is the proportion of agents of type i in the next stage
- $\triangleright p_i^{curr}$ is the proportion of agents of type i in the current stage
- $ightharpoonup r_i$ = average payoff received by agents of type *i* in the current stage
- $ightharpoonup R_i$ = average payoff received by all agents in the current stage
- Under the replicator dynamics, an agent's numbers grow (or shrink) proportionately to how much better it does than the average
- Probably the most popular reproduction dynamics
 - > e.g., does well at reflecting growth of animal populations

Replicator Dynamics

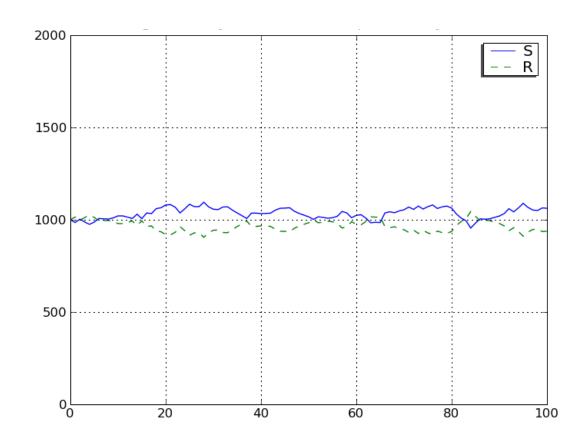
- **Imitation dynamics** (or **tournament selection**) works as follows:
 - Randomly choose 2 agents from the population, and compare their payoffs
 - The one with the higher payoff reproduces into the next generation
 - \triangleright Do this *n* times, where *n* is the total population size
- Under the imitation dynamics, an agent's numbers grow if it does better than the average
 - > But unlike replicator dynamics, the amount of growth doesn't depend on **how much** better than the average
- Thought to be a good model of the spread of behaviors in a culture

Example: A Simple Lottery Game

- A repeated lottery game
- At each stage, agents make choices between two lotteries
 - "Safe" lottery: guaranteed reward of 4
 - "Risky" lottery: [0, 0.5; 8, 0.5],
 - i.e., probability ½ of 0, and probability ½ of 8
- Let's just look at stationary strategies
- Two pure strategies:
 - > S: always choose the "safe" lottery
 - > R: always choose "risky" lottery
- Many mixed strategies, one for every p in [0,1]
 - \triangleright R_p : probability p of choosing the "risky" lottery, and probability 1-p of choosing the "safe" lottery

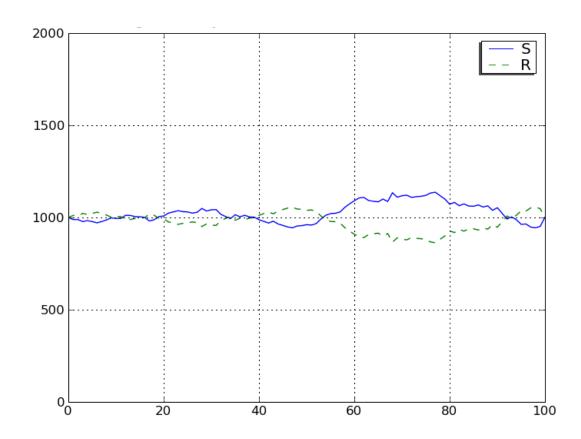
Lottery Game with Replicator Dynamics

- At each stage, each strategy's average payoff is 4
 - ➤ Thus on average, each strategy's population size should stay roughly constant
- Verified by simulation for *S* and *R*
- Would get similar behavior with any of the R_p strategies



Lottery Game with Imitation Dynamics

- Pick any two agents, and let s and t be their strategies
- Regardless of what *s* and *t* are, each agent has equal probability of getting a higher payoff than the other
 - Again, each strategy's population size should stay roughly constant
- Verified by simulation for S and R
- Would get similar behavior with any of the S_p strategies

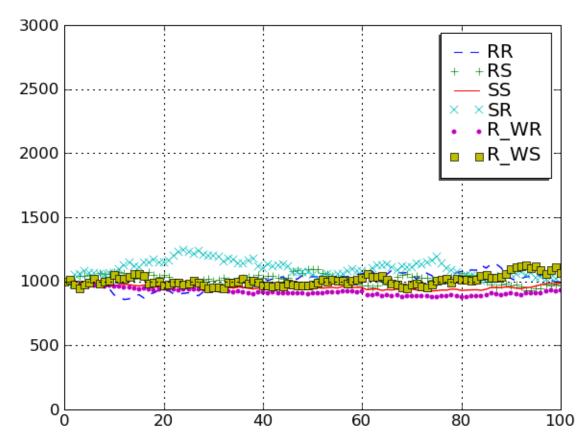


Double Lottery Game

- Now, suppose that at each stage, agents make two rounds of lottery choices
 - 1. Choose between the safe or risky lottery, get a reward
 - 2. Choose between the safe or risky lottery again, get another payoff
- This time, there are 6 stationary pure strategies
 - > SS: choose "safe" both times
 - > RR: choose "safe" both times
 - > SR: choose "safe" in first round, "risky" in second round
 - > RS: choose "risky" in first round, "safe" in second round
 - R-WR: choose "risky" in first round
 - If it wins (i.e., reward is 8), then choose "risky" again in second round
 - Otherwise choose "safe" in second round
 - > *R-WS*: choose "risky" in first round
 - If it wins (i.e., reward is 8), then choose "safe" in second round
 - Otherwise choose "risky" in second round

Double Lottery Game, Replicator Dynamics

- At each stage, each strategy's average payoff is 8
 - ➤ Thus on average, each strategy's population size should stay roughly constant
- Verified by simulation for all 6 strategies



Double Lottery Game, Imitation Dynamics

- Pick any two agents a and b, and let choose actions
 - Reproduce the agent (hence its strategy) that wins (i.e., higher reward)
 - > If they get the same reward, choose one of them at random
- We need to look at each strategy's distribution of payoffs:

R-WS			R-WR			SR		RS		SS	RR		
12	8	0	16	8	4	12	4	12	4	8	16	8	0
.5	.25	.25	.25	.25	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	1	.25	.5	.25

- Suppose *a* uses *SS* and *b* uses *SR*
 - $P(SR \text{ gets } 12 \text{ and } SS \text{ gets } 8) = (0.5)(1.0) = 0.5 \implies SR \text{ wins}$
 - P(SR gets 4 and SS gets 8) = (0.5)(1.0) = 0.5 = SS wins
 - > Thus a and b are equally likely to reproduce
- Same is true for any two of {SS, SR, RS, RR}

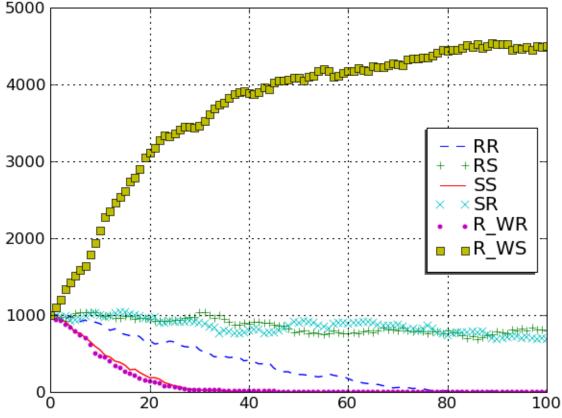
Double Lottery Game, Imitation Dynamics

R-WS			R-WR			SR		RS		SS	RR		
12	8	0	16	8	4	12	4	12	4	8	16	8	0
.5	.25	.25	.25	.25	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	1	.25	.5	.25

- Suppose *a* uses *R-WS* and *b* uses *SS*
 - Even though they have the same *expected* reward, *R-WS* is likely to get a slightly higher reward than *SS*:
 - $P(R-WS \text{ gets } 12 \text{ and } SS \text{ gets } 8) = (0.5)(1.0) = 0.5 \implies R-WS \text{ wins}$
 - P(R-WS gets 8 and SS gets 8) = (0.25)(1.0) = 0.25 => tie
 - $P(R-WS \text{ gets } 0 \text{ and } SS \text{ gets } 8) = (0.25)(1.0) = 0.25 \implies SS \text{ wins}$
 - Thus a reproduces with probability 0.625, and b reproduces with probability 0.375
- Similarly, a is more likely to reproduce than b if a uses R-WS and b uses any of {SS, RR, R-WR}

Double Lottery Game, Imitation Dynamics

- If we start with equal numbers of all 6 strategies, *S-WR* will increase until *SS*, *RR*, and *R-WR* become extinct
 - The population should stabilize with a high proportion of S-WR, and low proportions of SR and RS
 - Verified by simulation:



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Significance

- Recall from Session 1 that people are risk-averse
- Furthermore, there's evidence that people's risk preferences are *state-dependent*
 - Someone who's sufficiently unhappy his/her their current situation is likely to be risk-prone rather than risk-averse
- Question: why does such behavior occur?
- The evolutionary game results suggest an interesting possibility:
 - Maybe it has an evolutionary advantage over other behaviors

P. Roos and D. S. Nau. Conditionally risky behavior vs. expected value maximization in evolutionary games. In *Sixth Conference of the European Social Simulation Association (ESSA 2009)*, *Sept. 2009*.

Summary

- Stochastic (Markov) games
 - > Reward functions, equilibria
 - Expectiminimax
 - > Example: Backgammon
- Evolutionary simulations
 - > Replicator dynamics versus imitation dynamics
 - > Example: lottery games, risk preferences