60-371 Artificial Intelligence Iterated Prisoner's Dilemma

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1 Abstract

This paper explores two Artificial Intelligence algorithms used to create optimal strategies to compete in the Iterated Prisoner's Dilemma. The study begins by examining the use of a genetic algorithm to breed the perfect prisoner. This is achieved by contrasting the performance of a variety of different configurations and fitness functions. The genetic algorithm was able to consistently breed well performing prisoners. A hill climbing approach was then taken, which proved to be ineffective at producing a competitive strategy given the lack of a natural successor function and no clear end goal. The traits of a strong genome are explored and finally, the performance of the two methods are contrasted.

2 Introduction

The Iterated Prisoner's Dilemma is a classic example of game theory which demonstrates that two agents acting for their own self interest may not result in an optimal outcome for either agent. The prisoner's dilemma is as follows:

Two individuals (herein Bob and Alice) have been arrested and placed in solitary confinement, meaning they may not communicate with one another. Each of them hope to spend the least amount of time in prison. The prosecutor approaches them and offers them the following deal:

- If Bob and Alice betray (herein defect) each other, they will both serve 2 years in prison
- If Bob defects but Alice remains silent (herein cooperate), Bob will be set free and Alice will spend 3 years in prison (and vice versa)
- If Bob and Alice both cooperate they will each spend 1 year in prison on a lesser charge

The iterated version of the prisoner's dilemma is simply a sequence of rounds of the above mentioned game. A player's resulting score is the summation of their score in each round.

It is implied that Bob and Alice will have no interactions with each other after their decisions. Therefore, they cannot punish/reward their accomplice. If Bob and Alice are both rational and self centered individuals then they will both choose to defect, as defecting yields the highest probability of a favourable outcome. It is interesting to note that if the prisoners act non-rationally and choose to cooperate, a "riskier" option, they will spend one third of the time in prison when compared to the rational option.

Taking after J. Golbeck ¹ the payoff matrix for this study (seen below) has been inverted such that a higher score implies a lesser sentence.

 $^{^{1}\}mathrm{Evolving}$ Strategies for the Prisoner's Dilemma

	Cooperate	Defect
Cooperate	(3,3)	(5, 0)
Defect	(0, 5)	(1,1)

Iterated prisoner's dilemma strategies have been widely studied, and many have concluded that Tit-for-Tat (herein TFT) produces the best average performance. TFT is exceedingly simple: Cooperate on the first turn, mirror the opponents last move thereafter. TFT is effective because it capitalizes on mutual cooperation, but is also able to defend itself against rogue defectors. These two qualities are extremely important and were kept in mind when designing the algorithms explained in this paper.

3 Genetic Algorithm

The genetic algorithm in this paper has a structure equivalent to:

```
Result: An evolved genetic prisoner population = []; for i \leftarrow 1 to popSize do | Push(population, RandomPrisoner()); end for g \leftarrow 1 to generation do | evaluation = EvaluateFitness(population); selection = WeightedRandomSample(evaluation); cross = CrossOver(selection); population = Mutate(cross); end return MaxFitness(population)
```

3.1 Representation

Each genetic prisoner's strategy is represented as a vector of size 4^n where n is the number of moves the prisoner keeps in memory. This vector is thought of as the prisoner's "genome". The prisoner's move is then calculated by encoding the last n rounds of the game into an integer and indexing the strategy vector at that point.

For example if Bob has a memory size of one, a possible strategy vector would be $S_B = [C, C, D, C]$. If in the previous round Bob cooperated and Alice defected, the corresponding history string would be represented as DC. The history string is then marshalled into a base two integer by changing Defections to 0's and Cooperations to 1's, yielding 01. The strategy vector is then indexed at the base 10 representation giving $S_{B1} = C$, thus Bob will Cooperate.

All examples below use a memory size of three as it was observed to yield the highest average score seen in Figure 1.

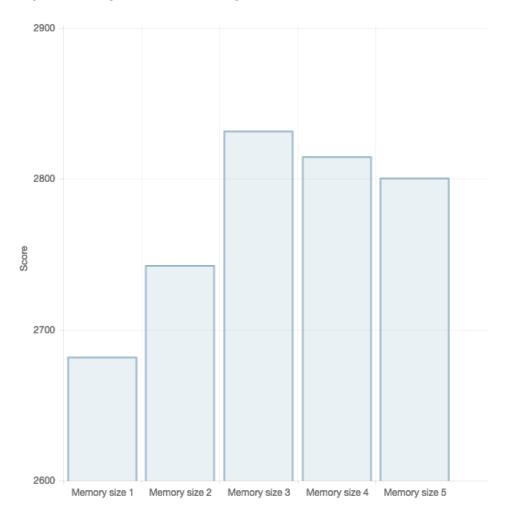


Figure 1: Graph of memory size vs average score over 100 games

3.2 Initial Population

The initial population was a pool of prisoners having completely randomized strategy vectors. The population size was variable, and the effects of varying sizes are explained in *section 3.7*

3.3 Fitness Function

Three different fitness functions were used to evaluate a prisoner's performance. A description of each, as well as their performance comparisons, follow.

3.3.1 Score Against Diverse Opponents

The prisoner being evaluated would play 100 rounds against a selection of nine strategies which were thought to be a uniform representation of all possible strategies. Total score was calculated and used as a performance grade. The nine strategies were:

- 1. All C Always cooperate
- 2. All D Always defect
- 3. Tit for Tat Cooperate first move, mirror opponents last move thereafter
- $4.\,$ Suspicious Tit for Tat Defect first move, mirror opponents last move thereafter
- 5. Tit for 2 Tat Cooperate first two moves, only cooperate if the opponent did not defect twice in a row thereafter
- 6. Suspicious Tit for 2 Tat Defect first two moves, only cooperate if the opponent did not defect twice in a row thereafter
- 7. Grudger Cooperate until the opponent defects, then defect without mercy
- 8. Sucker Defect until the opponent cooperates, then cooperate foolishly
- 9. Hesitant Only cooperate if the opponent has cooperated twice in a row

From a shallow point of view this method of evaluating fitness was mostly successful. After some contemplation it was decided that the nine strategies used were slightly biased towards those which tended to cooperate. This left some of the prisoners produced vulnerable to rogue defectors, and thus sub-optimal.

3.3.2 Hamming Distance From TFT Genome

The prisoner would be evaluated based on the hamming distance ² between its current strategy vector and the strategy vector representing the TFT genome. This obviously had a tendency to produce prisoners which acted increasingly similar to TFT. Although the performance of said bots was sound, this method did not produce any extraordinary or new strategies.

3.3.3 Score Against TFT

The prisoner would be evaluated based on its score after 100 rounds against TFT. Since TFT is widely accepted as one of the best overall strategies, it was decided that performance against it would be a suitable benchmark. This method seemed to produce the best results with the least amount of computation time. The prisoners behaved somewhat similarly to TFT but contained some genome sections which differed considerably. The result was a prisoner which mostly contained the desired qualities from TFT but also included some routines which gave it an advantage in certain situations.

3.3.4 Fitness Function Comparison

As evidenced by Figure 2 Score against TFT and Score Against Diverse produced very similar average scores (within 10 points). The main difference between the two is that Score Against Diverse took significantly longer to compute since it is pitting the prisoner against nine others compared to just one by Score against TFT. For these two reasons, Score against TFT is clearly the superior fitness function.

²Hamming Distance

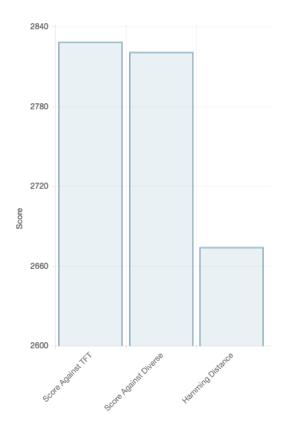


Figure 2: Graph of fitness function vs average score over 100 games

3.4 Selection

After evaluating fitness (explained in the previous section) a pool of prisoners were selected to advance into the next generation. This pool was determined using weighted random sampling. In order to accomplish this, an array was populated with the cumulative sums of each prisoner's fitness value. This array represents the discrete cumulative density function (CDF) ³ of the fitness distribution.

Evaluation: $[(P_1, 5), (P_2, 9), (P_3, 3)]$ CDF Array: $[(P_1, 5), (P_2, 14), (P_3, 17)]$

Figure 3: Example CDF Array Population

 $^{^3}$ CDF

A random integer was then calculated as $p = Rand \in [0, CDF_n]$, and binary search was performed to find the first element in the CDF array that was greater than or equal to p. The prisoner corresponding to this element is then added to the next generation. This process is repeated popSize times, forming the next generation.

This selection method was modeled after Roulette-wheel selection via stochastic acceptance ⁴ but has been optimized for practical usage by reducing time and space complexities.

3.5 Cross Over

The cross over process is trivially implemented. Given two genomes G_1, G_2 , a random integer $c = Rand \in [0, min(length(G_1), length(G_2))]$ is generated and used as the cross over point. Two new genomes are then given as:

$$G_1' = G_{1[0,c)}G_{2[c,length(G_2)]} \text{ and } G_2' = G_{2[0,c)}G_{1[c,length(G_1)]}$$

$$[C, D, C, D] \qquad [C, D, D, D]$$

$$[C, C, D, D] \qquad [C, C, C, D]$$

Figure 4: Crossover example for genome size 4

This cross over is applied to each adjacent pair of prisoners in the current generation. Since the order of the prisoners is random, it follows that the pairings are also random.

3.6 Mutation

The mutation phase is also easy to follow. Each gene of the genome is changed to a random decision $d = Rand \in [C, D]$ with a probability of p. Generally this value of p is low (between one and five percent) to avoid creating unstable evolution while still introducing some element of randomness.

⁴Roulette-wheel selection

3.7 Varying Population Size and Number of Generations

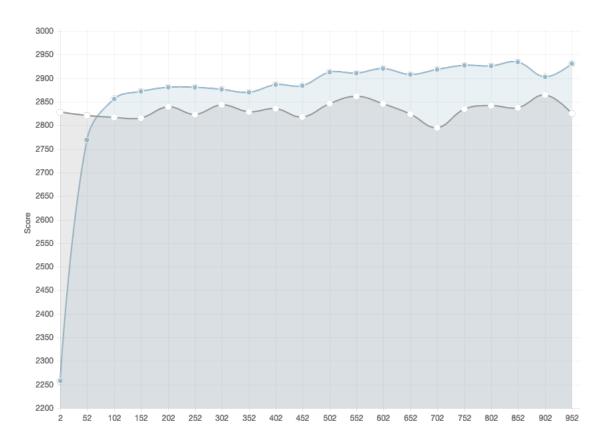


Figure 5: Blue line represents varying population, grey line varying generations

While all other factors remain constant, varying population size has a greater effect on the score when compared to varying the number of generations in the evolution. As seen in the graph above, increasing the number of generations has almost no effect on score while increasing the population size shows a clear upward trend. It is likely this phenomenon occurs because the genome strings converge rather quickly. Increasing population size diversifies the gene pool and gives a more optimal convergence point. Whereas, increasing the number of generations simply moves along the asymptote non-productively.

4 Hill Climbing

The hill climbing algorithm has a structure equivalent to:

```
Input: Initial Prisoner

Output: A prisoner with performance >= the initial prisoner for i \leftarrow 1 to iterations do

succ \leftarrow Mutate(init);

if Fitness(succ) > Fitness(init) then

init \leftarrow succ;
end

end

return succ
```

4.1 Successor Function

One of the main complications encountered when deriving a successor for any given prisoner is that there does not exist a natural relationship operator between two prisoners. As a consequence, successors must be determined using random mutation. Using random mutation to compute successors completely nullifies the locality aspect of the hill climbing search as it introduces a high probability of moving to an entirely different section in the search space. This loss of locality eliminates the usefulness of methods, such as random restarts and horizontal shoulder movements, which attempt to escape plateaus and local maxima.

4.2 Fitness Function

As *Score Against TFT* was previously proved to be the most effective method for evaluating a prisoner's performance, and the definition of a strong prisoner is universal across all algorithms, it was re-used as the fitness function of choice for hill climbing.

4.3 Varying Number of Iterations

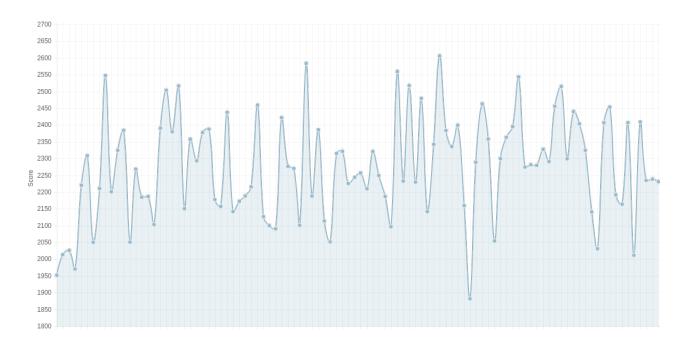


Figure 6: Score with respect to iterations between 1 and 1000

As seen in the figure above there no is strong correlation between the number of iterations performed and average score of the prisoner produced. In fact, the results are quite sporadic, with major performance decreases occurring throughout. This is likely due to the non-local successor function as it implies there is no deterministic way to improve a solution.

5 Conclusion

5.1 Traits of a Strong Genome

After extensive testing and experimentation, it was discovered that the most successful prisoners had a bias towards cooperating with their opponent. Most notably, a large portion of the well performing prisoners choose to cooperate on the first move. It was observed that rather than immediately responding to the most recent moves, these prisoners would typically alternate in small bursts between cooperating and defecting. A consistent pattern between the lengths of these intervals was not immediately obvious, although the periods of cooperation were generally longer than those of defection.

5.2 Genetic Algorithm vs Hill Climbing

The genetic algorithm was able to consistently produce prisoners who performed optimally against other generated and predefined strategies. This was not the case however for the prisoners generated by hill climbing. Most prisoners created with this method struggled to outperform their opponents and were routinely bested in tournament play.

The Iterated Prisoner's Dilemma is not a problem well suited for hill climbing. The lack of a natural successor function for a given strategy makes it impossible to generate neighouring states which preserve locality. In addition, since a solution to the problem does not exist, there is no clear goal for the hill climbing algorithm to strive for.

Prisoners resulting from genetic evolution wholly dominated those resulting from hill climbing. The lowest scoring genetic prisoners were able to outscore the best of the hill climbers. Genetically evolved prisoners learned the benefits of mutual cooperation, but also understood the danger of defection.

6 Source Code

All source code for this study was written in C++ and is available on Github.