Game-theoretic Foundations of Multi-agent Systems

Lecture 3: Games in Normal Form

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Outline

- 1. Normal-form Games: Definition, Notations, and Examples
- 2. Dominant Strategy Equilibrium
- 3. Nash Equilibrium
- 4. Price of Anarchy
- 5. Minmax Theorem
- 6. Rationalizability
- 7. Correlated Equilibrium



Normal-form Games

- Let's start with games in which all agents act simultaneously
- Agents choose their actions without knowledge of other agents' actions
- Such games are referred to as strategic-form games or normal-form games



Normal-form Games: Definition

- The game consists of a set of agents, $N = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$
- Set of available actions to agent i is denoted by A_i
- Action taken by agent i is denoted by $a_i \in A_i$
- Outcome of game is an action profile of all agents, $a=(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$
- Set of all action profiles is denoted by $A = \prod A_i$
- Agent i has a utility function u_i that maps outcomes to real numbers



Some Notations

- $a_{-i} = (a_1, \ldots, a_{i-1}, a_{i+1}, \ldots, a_n)$ is an action profile of all agents except i
- $A_{-i} = \prod_{i \neq i} A_i$ is set of action profiles of all agents except i
- $a = (a_i, a_{-i}) \in A$ is another way of denoting an action profile (or an outcome)



Matrix-form Representation

- When A_i is finite for all i, we call the game finite game
- For 2 agents and small action sets, game can be represented in matrix form

• Each cell indexed by row r and column c contains a pair, (p, q), where $p = u_1(r, c)$ and $q = u_2(r, c)$.



Example: Matching Pennies

- Each agent has a penny and independently chooses to display either heads or tails
- Agents compare their pennies
- If they are the same, agent 1 pockets both, otherwise agent 2 pockets them

	Heads	Tails
Heads	-1, 1	1,-1
Tails	1,-1	-1, 1

• Zero-sum game: Utility of one agent is negative of utility of other agent



Example: Rock, Paper, Scissors Game

• Three-strategy generalization of the matching-pennies game

	Rock	Paper	Scissors
Rock	0,0	-1, 1	1,-1
Paper	1, -1	0,0	-1, 1
Scissors	-1, 1	1,-1	0,0



Example: Coordination Game

- Two drivers driving towards each other in a country with no traffic rules
- Drivers must independently decide whether to drive on the left or on the right
- If drivers choose the same side (left or right) they have some high utility, and otherwise they have a low utility

	Left	Right
Left	1, 1	-1, -1
Right	-1, -1	1,1

• Team game: For all outcomes s, and any pair of agents i and j, it is the case that $u_i(a) = u_j(a)$ (also known as common-payoff game or pure-coordination game)



Example: Cournot Competition

- Two firms producing a homogeneous good for the same market
- Action of each firm is the amount of good it produces $(a_i \in [0, \infty])$
- Utility of each firm is its total revenue minus its total cost

$$u_i(a_1, a_2) = a_i p(a_1 + a_2) - ca_i$$

- $p(\cdot)$ is the price function that maps total production to a price
- c is a unit cost
- E.g., $p(x) = \max(0, 2 x)$ and c = 1



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Mixed and Pure Strategies

- Let $\Omega(X)$ be set of all probability distributions over X
- Set of (mixed) strategies for agent i is denoted by $S_i = \Omega(A_i)$
- For mixed strategy $s_i \in S_i$, $s_i(a)$ is probability that action a is played under s_i
- Pure strategy is a mixed strategy that puts probability 1 on a single action
- Support of mixed strategy s_i is set of pure strategies, a_i , such that $s_i(a_i) > 0$
- Expected utility of agent i for a (mixed) strategy profile $s = (s_1, \ldots, s_n)$ is

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



Example

Agent 2
$$R\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) P\left(0\right) S\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$$

$$R\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) 0,0 -1,1 1,-1$$

$$Agent 1 P\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) 1,-1 0,0 -1,1$$

$$S\left(0\right) -1,1 1,-1 0,0$$

•
$$u_1 = 2/9 \times 0 + 1/9 \times 1 + 4/9 \times 1 - 2/9 \times 1 = 1/3$$

•
$$u_2 = 2/9 \times 0 - 1/9 \times 1 - 4/9 \times 1 + 2/9 \times 1 = -1/3$$



Dominant and Dominated Strategies

- Let s_i and s'_i be two strategies of agent i
- s_i strictly dominates s'_i if
 - $u_i(s_i, s_{-i}) > u_i(s'_i, s_{-i})$ for all $s_{-i} \in S_{-i}$
- s_i weakly dominates s'_i if
 - $u_i(s_i, s_{-i}) \ge u_i(s_i', s_{-i})$ for all $s_{-i} \in S_{-i}$, and
 - $u_i(s_i,s_{-i})>u_i(s_i',s_{-i})$ for at least one $s_{-i}\in S_{-i}$
- s_i is strictly/weakly dominant if it strictly/weakly dominates all other strategy
- s_i is strictly/weakly dominated if another strategy strictly/weakly dominates it
- $s = (s_1, \ldots, s_n)$ is dominant strategy equilibrium if s_i is dominant strategy for all i



Example: Prisoner's Dilemma

- Two prisoners suspected of a crime are taken to separate interrogation rooms
- Each can either confess to the crime or deny it

D C
D
$$-2, -2$$
 $-4, -1$
C $-1, -4$ $-3, -3$

- Absolute value of utilities are the length of jail term each prisoner gets
- Confess is strictly dominant strategy for both prisoners
- (C,C) is a strict dominant strategy equilibrium
- The dilemma: (D,D) is better for both prisoners, but they won't play it!



Iterated Elimination of Strictly Dominated Strategies

All strictly dominated pure strategies can be ignored

- · Column R can be eliminated, since it is dominated by, for example, column L
- ullet M is not dominated by U or D but is dominated by 0.5U + 0.5D mixed strategy
- Note, however, that it was not dominated before the elimination of the R column



Iterated Elimination of Strictly Dominated Strategies (cont.)

- Once one pure strategy is eliminated, another strategy that was not dominated can become dominated
- In finite games, iterated elimination of strictly dominated strategies ends after finite number of iterations
- Order of elimination does not matter when removing strictly dominated strategies (Church–Rosser property)
- Elimination order can make a difference in final outcome when removing weakly dominated strategies
- If the procedure ends with a single strategy for each agent, then the game is said to be dominance solvable



Existence of Dominant Strategy Equilibrium

- Dominant strategy equilibrium does not always exist
- Example: Matching pennies

	Heads	Tails
Heads	-1, 1	1, -1
Tails	1, -1	-1, 1



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Best Response

- Picking a strategy would be simple if an agent knew how others were going to act
- Best response: $s_i^* \in BR_i(s_{-i})$ iff $u_i(s_i^*, s_{-i}) \ge u_i(s_i, s_{-i})$ for all strategies $s_i \in S_i$
- Best response is not necessarily unique
 - If there is more than one best response, any mixed strategy over those must be a best response as well
- Best response is not a solution concept
 - I.e., it does not identify an interesting set of outcomes
 - Because agents do not know what strategies others will play
- However, we can leverage the idea of best response to define what is arguably the most central notion in game theory, the Nash equilibrium



Nash Equilibrium - Intersection of Best Responses

- $s^* = (s_1^*, ..., s_n^*)$ is a Nash equilibrium iff $\forall i, s_i^* \in Br_i(s_{-i}^*)$
- No agent can profitably deviate given strategies of others
- Nash equilibrium is a stable strategy profile
- Nash theorem: Every finite game has a Nash equilibrium



John Forbes Nash Jr. 1928-2015



Example: Battle of Sexes

- Husband and wife wish to meet this evening, but have a choice between two events to attend: football or opera
- Husband would prefer to go to football, wife would prefer opera
- Both would prefer to go to the same event rather than different ones

		Wife	
		Football	Opera
Husband	Football	2,1 (2,1)	0,0
	Opera	0,0	1,2 (1,2)

Are these the only Nash equilibria?



Example: Battle of Sexes (cont.)

	F (p)	O(1-p)
F	2,1	0,0
0	0,0	1, 2

- In general, it is tricky to compute mixed-strategy equilibria (will discuss this later)
- It becomes easy when we know (or can guess) support of equilibrium strategies
- Let us now guess that both agents randomize over both F and O
- Wife's strategy is to play F w.p. p and O w.p. 1-p
- Husband must be indifferent between F and O (why?):

$$u_H(F) = u_H(O) \Rightarrow 2 \times p = (1 - p) \Rightarrow p = 1/3$$

• You can show that the unique mixed-strategy NE is $\{(\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3}), (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3})\}$

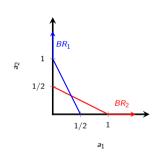


Example: Cournot Competition

- $u_i(a_1, a_2) = a_i \max(0, 2 a_1 a_2) a_i$
- Using first order optimality conditions, we have

$$BR_i(a_{-i}) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{a_i \geq 0} a_i(2-a_i-a_{-i}) - a_i$$

$$= \begin{cases} (1-a_{-i})/2 & \text{if } a_{-i} < 1, \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise.} \end{cases}$$





The "Equilibrium Selection Problem"

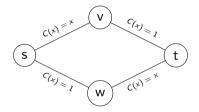
- You are about to play a game that you have never played before with a person that you have never met
- According to which equilibrium should you play?
 - Equilibrium that maximizes the sum of utilities (social welfare)
 - Or, at least not a Pareto-dominated equilibrium
 - So-called focal equilibria (e.g., "Meet in Paris" game you and a friend were supposed to meet in Paris at noon on Sunday, but you forgot to discuss where and you cannot communicate. Where will you go?)
 - Equilibrium that is the convergence point of some learning process
 - An equilibrium that is easy to compute
 - . . .
- Equilibrium selection is a difficult problem



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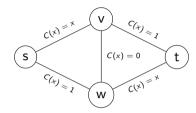
Braess's Paradox



- Suppose there are 2k drivers commuting from s to t
- C(x) indicates travel time in hours for x fraction of drivers
- k drivers going through v, and k going through w is NE (why?)



Braess's Paradox (cont.)



- Suppose we install a teleportation device allowing instant travel from v to w
- What is new NE?
- What is optimal commute time?
- Price of anarchy: ratio between (worst) NE performance and optimal performance
 - Ratio between 2 and 3/2 in Braess's Paradox



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Maxmin Strategy

• Maxmin strategy for agent *i* is

$$\underset{s_i}{\operatorname{argmax}} \min_{s_{-i}} u_i(s_i, s_{-i})$$

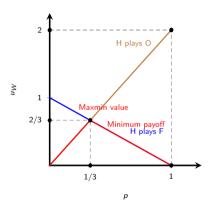
• Maxmin value for agent *i* is

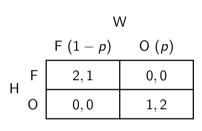
$$\max_{s_i} \min_{s_{-i}} u_i(s_i, s_{-i})$$

• If *i* plays maxmin strategy and others play arbitrarily, *i* still receives expected payoff of at least their maxmin value



Example: Battle of Sexes







Minmax Strategy

• Minmax strategy against against *i* is

$$\underset{s_{-i}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \max_{s_i} u_i(s_i, s_{-i})$$

Minmax value for agent i is

$$\min_{s_{-i}} \max_{s_i} u_i(s_i, s_{-i})$$

- Minmax strategy against i keeps maximum payoff of agent i at minimum
- Agents' maxmin value is always less than or equal to their minmax value (try to show this!)



Minimax Theorem (John von Neumann, 1928)

In any finite, two-player, zero-sum game, in any Nash equilibrium¹, each agent receives a payoff that is equal to both their maxmin value and their minmax value

$$\max_{s_i} \min_{s_{-i}} u_i(s_i, s_{-i}) = \min_{s_{-i}} \max_{s_i} u_i(s_i, s_{-i})$$

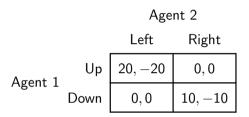
 Minimax theorem does not hold with pure strategies only (example?)



¹You might wonder how a theorem from 1928 can use the term "Nash equilibrium," when Nash's work was published in 1950. John von Neumann used different terminology and proved the theorem in a different way; however, the given presentation is probably clearer in the context of modern game theory



Example



- What is maximin value of agent 1 with and without mixed strategies?
- What is minimax value of agent 1 with and without mixed strategies?
- What is NE of this game?



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Rationalizability

- Rationalizable strategy: Perfectly rational agent could justifiably play it
 - Best response to some beliefs about strategies of others
- Agents cannot have arbitrary beliefs about other agents
- Agent *i*'s beliefs must take into account:
 - Other agents' rationality
 - Other agents' knowledge of agent i's rationality
 - Other agents' knowledge of agent i's knowledge of their rationality
 - ... (infinite regress)



Example: Matching Pennies

	Heads	Tails
Heads	-1, 1	1, -1
Tails	1,-1	-1, 1

- Row playing H is rationalizable (Row could believe Col plays H)
- Col playing H is rationalizable (Col could believe Row plays T)
- Row playing T is rationalizable (Col could believe Row believes Col plays T)
- ...
- In this game, all pure strategies are rationalizable



Rationalizability: Properties

- Nash equilibrium strategies are always rationalizable
- Some rationalizable strategies are not Nash
 - Set of rationalizable strategies in finite games is nonempty
- To find rationalizable strategies:
 - In 2-player games, use iterated elimination of strictly dominated strategies
 - In *n*-player games, iterated elimination of never-best response strategies
 - Eliminate strategies that are not optimal against any belief about others' strategies



Example: 2/3-Beauty Contest Game

- No agent plays more than 100
- 2/3 of average is strictly less than 67 (100 \times 2/3)
- ullet Any integer > 67 is never-best response to any belief about others' strategy
- No agent plays more than 67
- 2/3 of average is less than 45 (67 \times 2/3)
- ullet Any integer > 45 is never-best response to any belief about others' strategy
- . . .
- Only rationalizable action is playing 0



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Example: Battle of Sexes

		W		
		Football	Opera	
Н	F	2, 1	0,0	
	Ο	0,0	1,2	

- Unique mixed strategy NE yields each agent expected payoff of 2/3
- In NE, agents randomize over strategies independently
- Can they both do better by coordinating?
- Agents can observe random coin flip and condition their strategies on its outcome



Example: Battle of Sexes (cont.)

- Suppose there is publicly observable fair coin
- If it is heads/tails, they both get recommendation to go to football/opera
- If they see heads, they believe that the other one goes to football
- Going to football is best response, agents have no incentive to deviate
- Similar argument can be made when they see tails
- Expected utilities for this play of game increases to (1.5, 1.5)



Correlated Recommendations

- Let $R = (R_1, \ldots, R_n)$ be random variable taking values in $A = \prod_i A_i$
- Let R be distributed according to $\pi \in \Delta(A)$
- $r = (r_1, \ldots, r_n)$ is an instantiatation of R and a pure strategy profile
- $r_i \in A_i$ is called recommendation to agent i
- $\pi(r_i)$ represents marginal probability for $R_i = r_i$
- Given r_i , agent i can use conditional probability to form beliefs others' signals

$$\pi(r_{-i}|r_i) = \frac{\pi(r_i, r_{-i})}{\sum_{r'_{-i} \in A_{-i}} \pi(r_i, r'_{-i})}$$



Correlated Equilibrium: Formal Definition

• Correlated equilibrium of finite game is joint probability distribution $\pi \in \Delta(A)$ such that if R is random variable distributed according to π , then for all $i, r_i \in A_i$ with $\pi(r_i) > 0$, and $r_i' \in A_i$

$$\sum_{r_{-i} \in A_{-i}} \pi(r_{-i} \mid r_i) \left[u_i(r_i, r_{-i}) - u_i(r'_i, r_{-i}) \right] \ge 0$$

 No agent can benefit by deviating from their recommendation, assuming that other agents follow their recommendations

Example: Game of Chicken

Driver 2
Dare Yield

Driver 1 $\begin{array}{c|cccc}
D & -5, -5 & 1, -1 \\
\hline
V & -1, 1 & 0, 0
\end{array}$

- (D,Y) and (Y,D) are strict pure-strategy NE
- Assume Driver 1 yields w.p. p and Driver 2 yields w.p. q
- Using mixed equilibrium characterization, we have

$$p-5 \times (1-p) = -(1-p) \implies p = 4/5$$

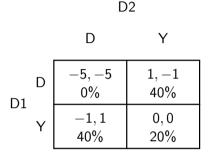
 $q-5 \times (1-q) = -(1-q) \implies q = 4/5$

• Mixed-strategy NE utilities are (-0.2, -0.2), people die with probability 0.04



Example: Game of Chicken (cont.)

- Is this correlated equilibrium?
- Suppose D1 gets Y recommendation
- Conditional probability that D2 yields is 1/3
- Expected utility of Y is 1 × 2/3
- \bullet Expected utility of D is 1 \times 1/3 5 \times 2/3
- Following the recommendation is better
- If D1 gets D recommendation, D2 must yield
- Following recommendation is again better
- Similar analysis works for D2
- Expected utilizes is (0,0), so nobody dies!





Characterization of Correlated Equilibrium

• Join distribution $\pi \in \Delta(S)$ is correlated equilibrium of finite game iff

$$\sum_{r_{-i}\in A_{-i}} \pi(r) \left[u_i(r) - u_i(r'_i, r_{-i}) \right] \ge 0, \quad \forall i, r_i, r'_i \in A_i$$
 (1)

- Proof (only for one side):
 - Correlated equilibrium can be written for all $i, r_i, r'_i \in A_i$ with $\pi(r_i) > 0$ as:

$$\sum_{r_{-i} \in A_{-i}} \frac{\pi(r_i, r_{-i})}{\sum_{r'_{-i} \in A_{-i}} \pi(r_i, r'_{-i})} \left[u_i(r_i, r_{-i}) - u_i(r'_i, r_{-i}) \right] \ge 0$$

- Denominator does not depend on variable of sum
- So it can be factored and canceled
- If $\pi(r_i) = 0$, LHS of (1) is zero regardless of i and r'_i , so equation always holds



Acknowledgment

- This lecture is a slightly modified version of ones prepared by
 - Asu Ozdaglar [MIT 6.254]
 - Vincent Conitzer [Duke CPS 590.4]
- Aravind Vellora Vayalapra helped with importing slides from PowerPoint to LATEX