

Multi-agent learning

Bayesian play

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Wednesday 2nd June, 2021

Plan for today

Preparation

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- Bayes' rule.

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- Examples of Bayesian play.

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- Demo.

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Formalism

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Formalism

- Jordan's framework: reply rule
+ forecasting rule = predictive
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- Beliefs about reply rules of other players, Kuhn's result.

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- True distribution of play vs. subjective distribution of play.

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Main results

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- Domination of measures (a.k.a. absolute continuity).

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- Domination of measures (a.k.a. absolute continuity).
- Theorem of Blackwell and Dubins (1992).

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- Notion of ϵ -closeness.

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- Theorem of Kalai and Lehrer (1993):

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- Domination of measures (a.k.a. absolute continuity).
- Theorem of Blackwell and Dubins (1992).
- Notion of ϵ -closeness.
- Theorem of Kalai and Lehrer (1993): If a player gives all potential play paths a small positive probability ("grain of truth"), then, eventually, his/her subjective beliefs will be ϵ -close to the actual realisation of play.

Key publication

Kalai & Lehrer (1993). "Rational learning leads to Nash equilibrium". *Econometrica*, Vol. **61**, No. 5, pp 1019-1045.

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Kalai & Lehrer (1993). “Rational learning leads to Nash equilibrium”. *Econometrica*, Vol. **61**, No. 5, pp 1019-1045.

Scholarly resources

Young (2004): *Strategic Learning and its Limits*, Oxford UP. Ch. 7: “Bayesian Learning”.

Shoham *et al.* (2009): *Multi-agent Systems*. Ch. 7: “Learning and Teaching”. Sec. 7.3: “Rational Learning”.

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Shoham *et al.* (2009): *Multi-agent Systems*. Ch. 7: “Learning and Teaching”. Sec. 7.3: “Rational Learning”.

Practical computer science / AI application

Zeng & Sycara (1996): *Bayesian Learning in Negotiation* in: Working Notes of the AAAI Spring Symposium on Adaptation, Co-Evolution and Learning in Multiagent Systems, Stanford, CA.

Part I:

Elementary probability and Bayes' theorem

Conditional probability

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Typical exercise: “given $\Pr\{E\}$, $\Pr\{F\}$, and $\Pr\{F|E\}$, compute $\Pr\{E|F\}$ ”. (E.g., E = “influenza”, F = “fever”.)

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$$\Pr\{F\} = \Pr\{F|E\}\Pr\{E\} + \Pr\{F|E^c\}\Pr\{E^c\},$$

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so that

$$\Pr\{E|F\} = \frac{\Pr\{F|E\}\Pr\{E\}}{\Pr\{F|E\}\Pr\{E\} + \Pr\{F|E^c\}\Pr\{E^c\}}.$$

Bayes' theorem for continuous random variables

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As in the discrete case, these terms have standard names.

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- $f_X(x|Y = y)$ is the **posterior density** of X given $Y = y$.

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- $f_Y(y|X = x)$ is the **posterior density** of Y given $X = x$.
- $f_X(x)$ and $f_Y(y)$ are **marginal densities** of X and Y .

Part Ia: Bayes' rule applied to guess opponent's reply rules

Use Bayes' rule to compute $\Pr\{g = g_i \mid h\}$ for every i

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- Let $G = \{g_1, \dots, g_n\}$ denote possible reply rules of the opponent.
- Let g denote the actual reply rule of the opponent.

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- Let $G = \{g_1, \dots, g_n\}$ denote possible reply rules of the opponent.
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- Give every event $g = g_i$ the same prior probability $\Pr\{g = g_i\} = 1/n$.

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- We'd like to know $\Pr\{g = g_i \mid h\}$ for every i .

Use Bayes' rule to compute $\Pr\{g = g_i \mid h\}$ for every i

- Let $G = \{g_1, \dots, g_n\}$ denote possible reply rules of the opponent.
- Bayes' rule for $g = g_i$'s posterior probability:
$$\Pr\{g = g_i \mid h\} = \frac{\Pr(h \mid g = g_i)\Pr\{g = g_i\}}{\Pr\{h\}}.$$
- Let g denote the actual reply rule of the opponent.
- Give every event $g = g_i$ the same prior probability
 $\Pr\{g = g_i\} = 1/n.$
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- Let g denote the actual reply rule of the opponent.
- If h is marginalised by the events $g = g_i$

$$\Pr\{h\} = \sum_{j=1}^n \Pr\{h \mid g = g_j\}\Pr\{g = g_j\},$$

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- Because of identical priors and normalization, effectively
$$\Pr\{g = g_i \mid h\} \propto \Pr\{h \mid g = g_i\}.$$

Part II: Demo and examples

Demo and examples

Demo and examples

1. **Demo.** Learn reactive reply rules, such as

- **All-C**: always cooperate.
- **Unforgiving** (“unforgiving”): cooperate until opponent defects, then defect forever.
- **C-90%**: cooperate 90% of the time (randomly).
- **Tit-for-tat**: mimic opponent’s moves.
- **Josh 10%**: play tit-for-tat 90% of the time, defect 10% of the time.
- **Majority**: respond with the action most played by the opponent.
- **Eatherly**: mirror the (projected) mixed strategy of the opponent.
- ...

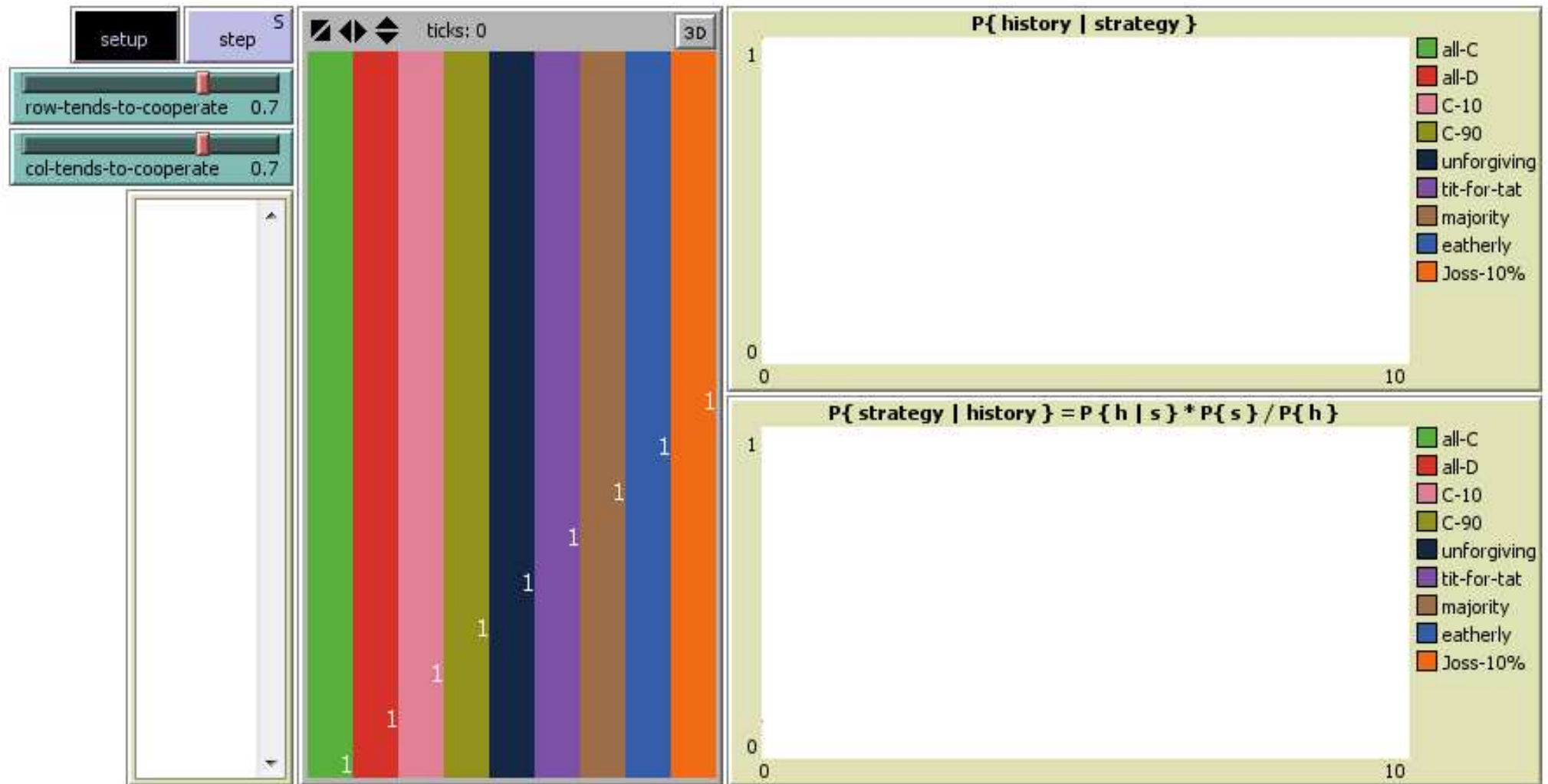
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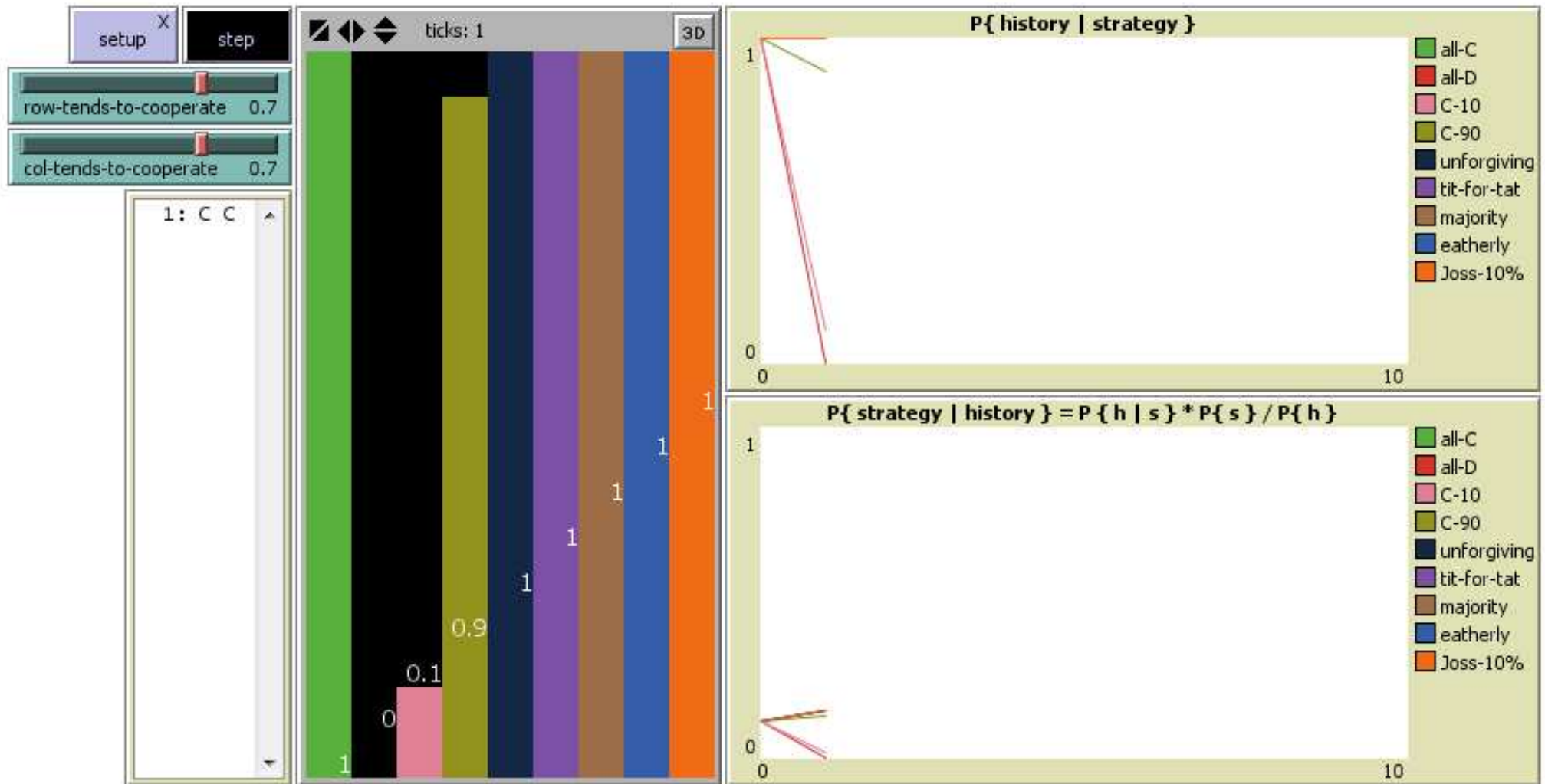
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2. **Examples.** Learn reply rules in the repeated prisoners’ dilemma; learn reply rules in the coordination game.

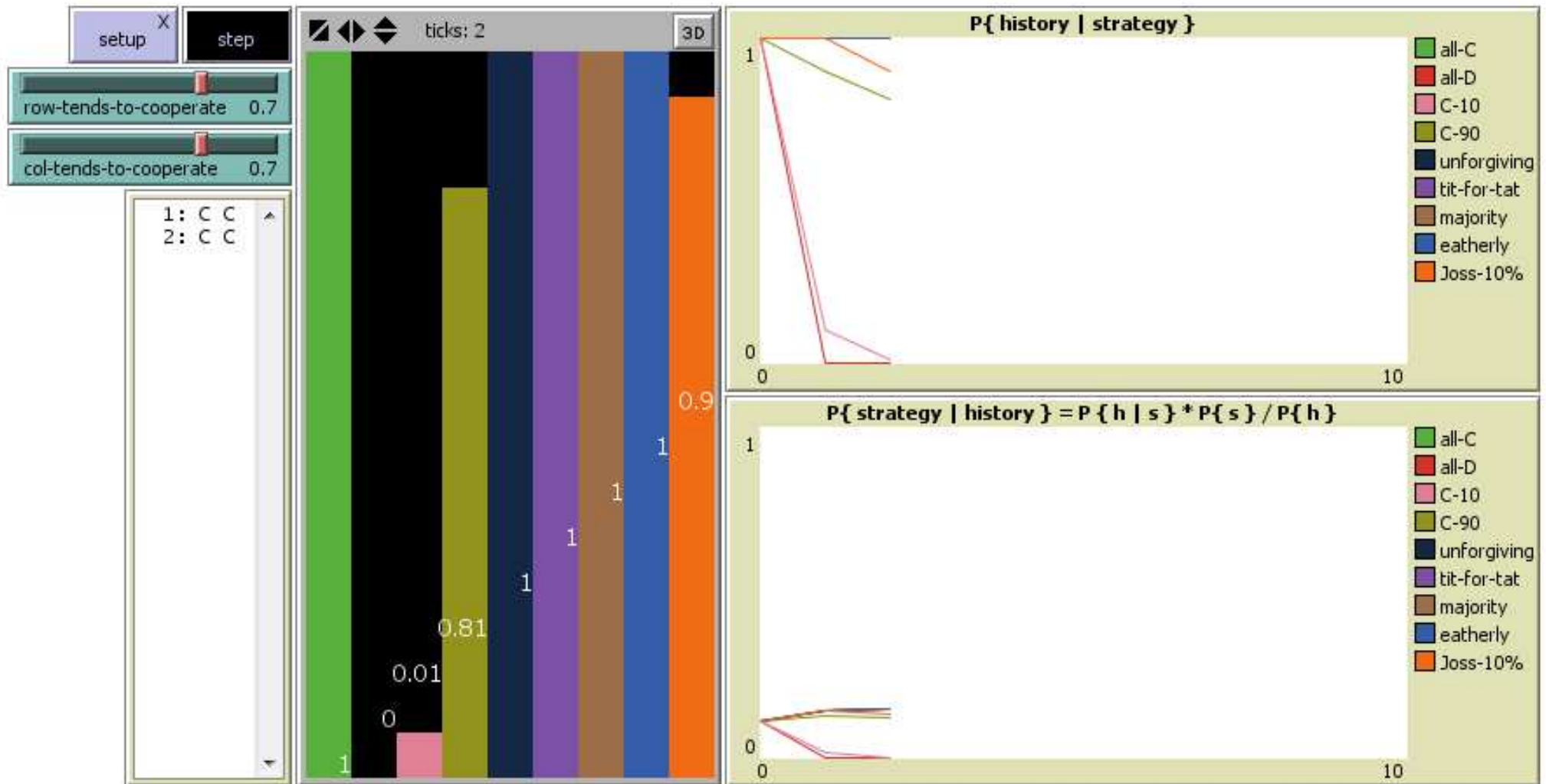
Example: learning on reactive strategies



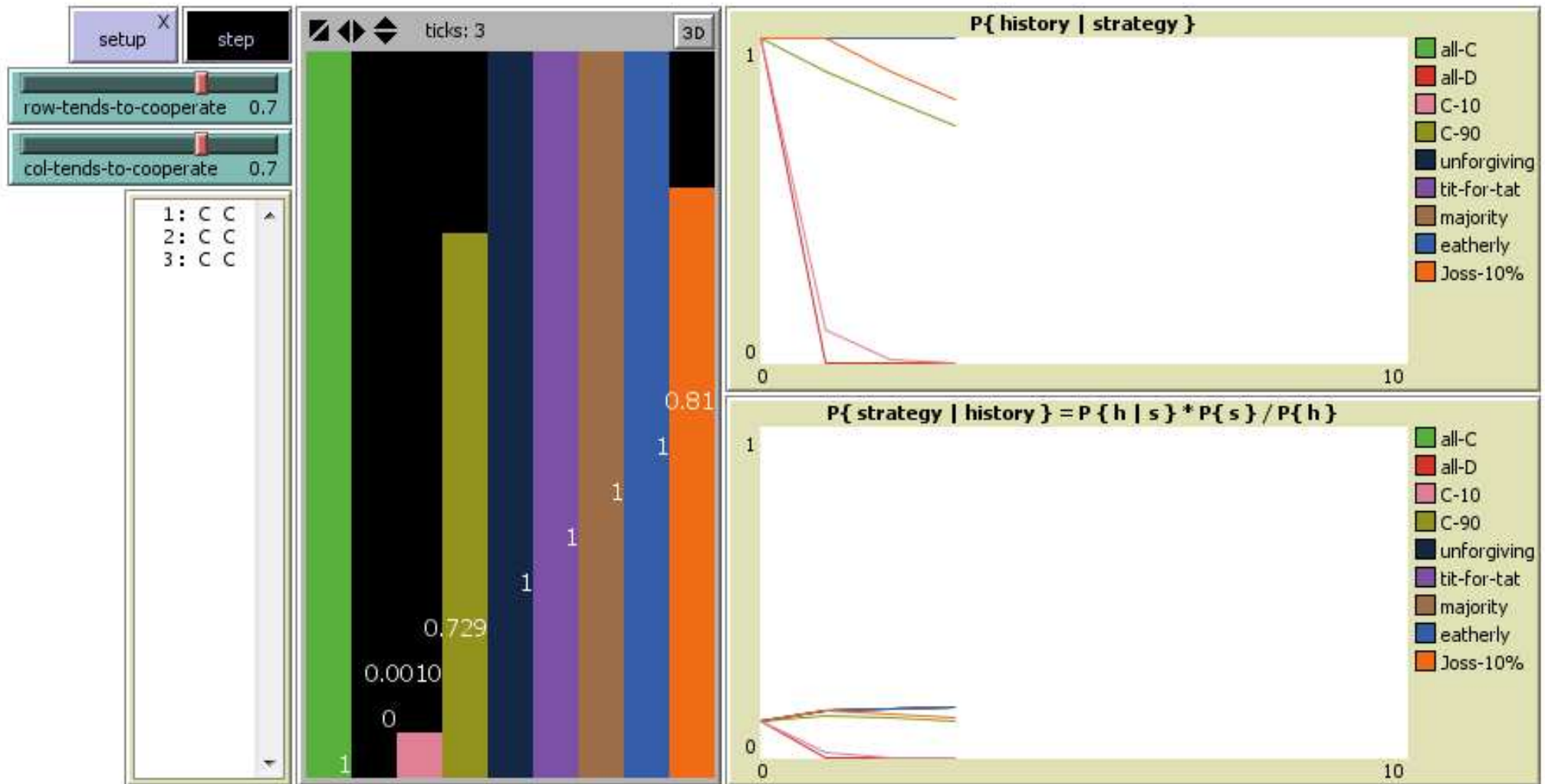
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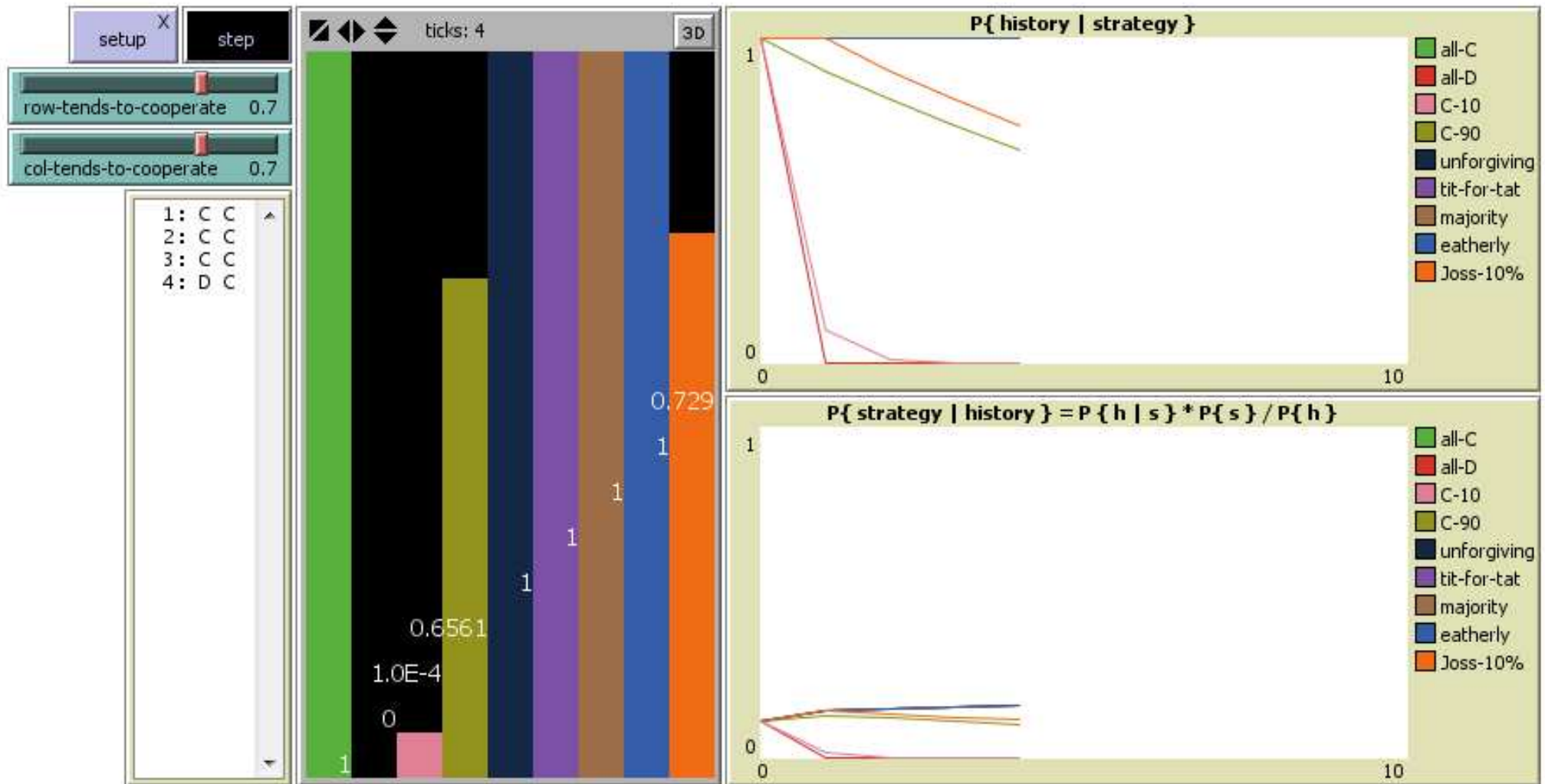
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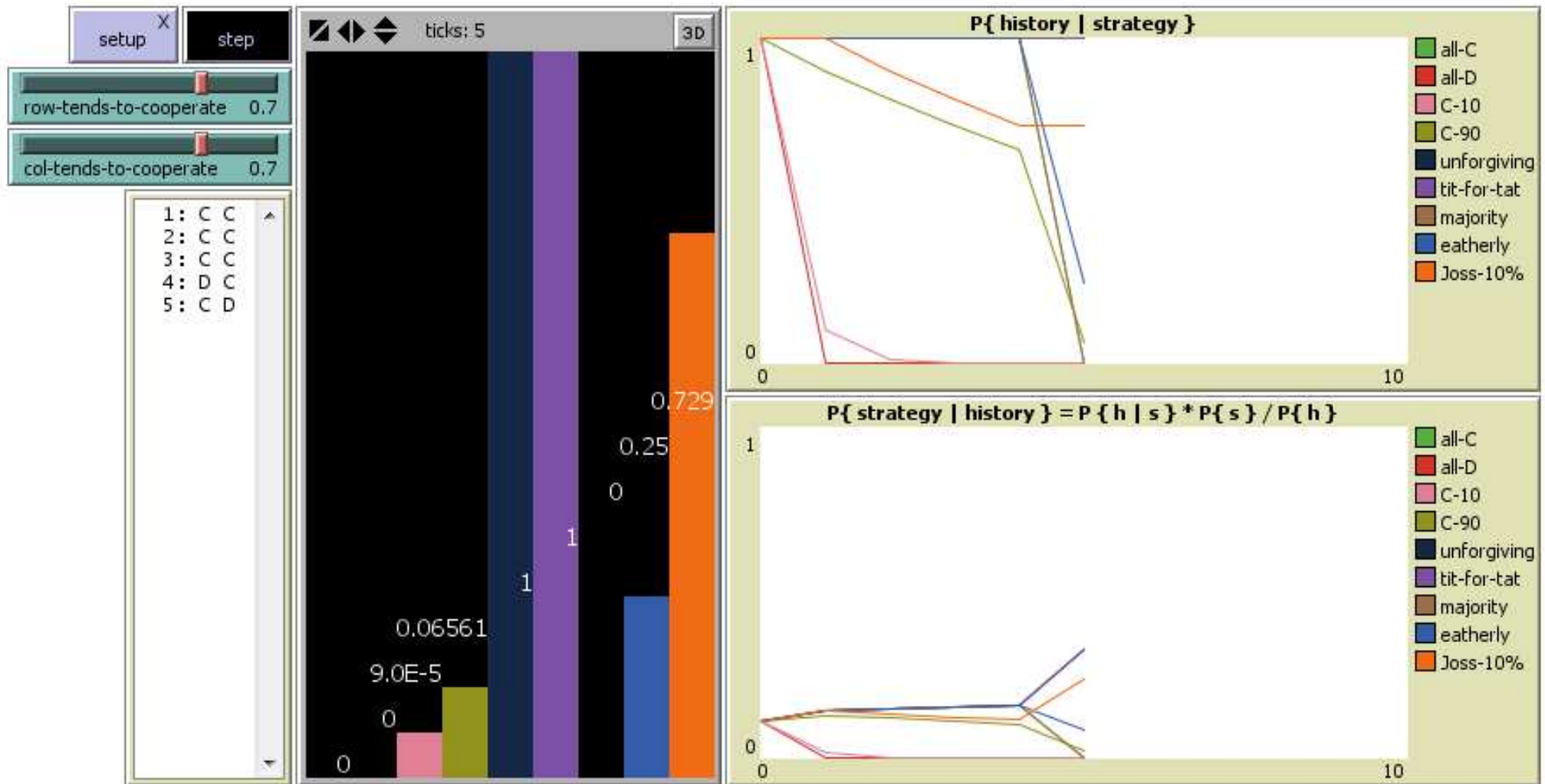
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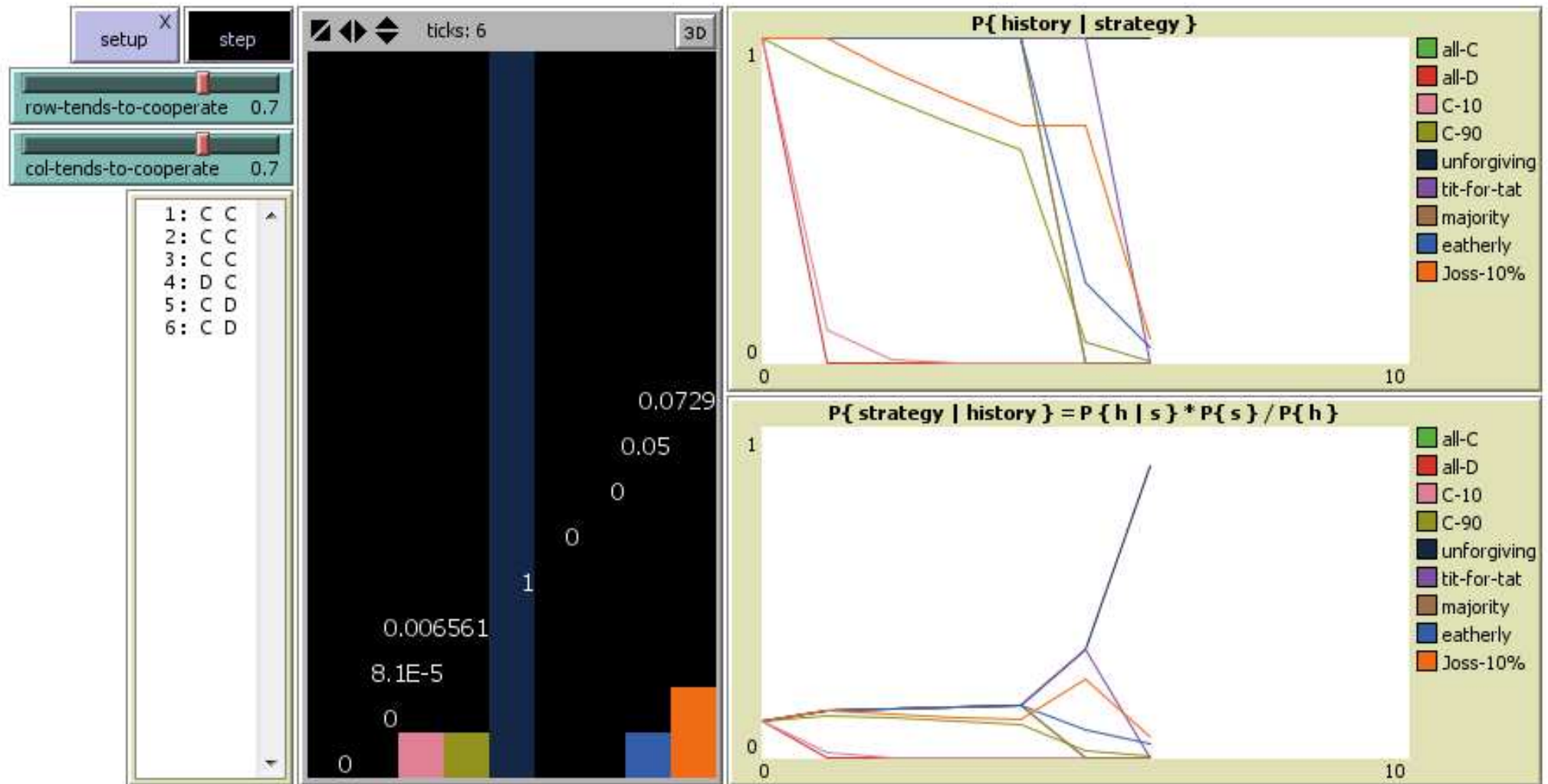
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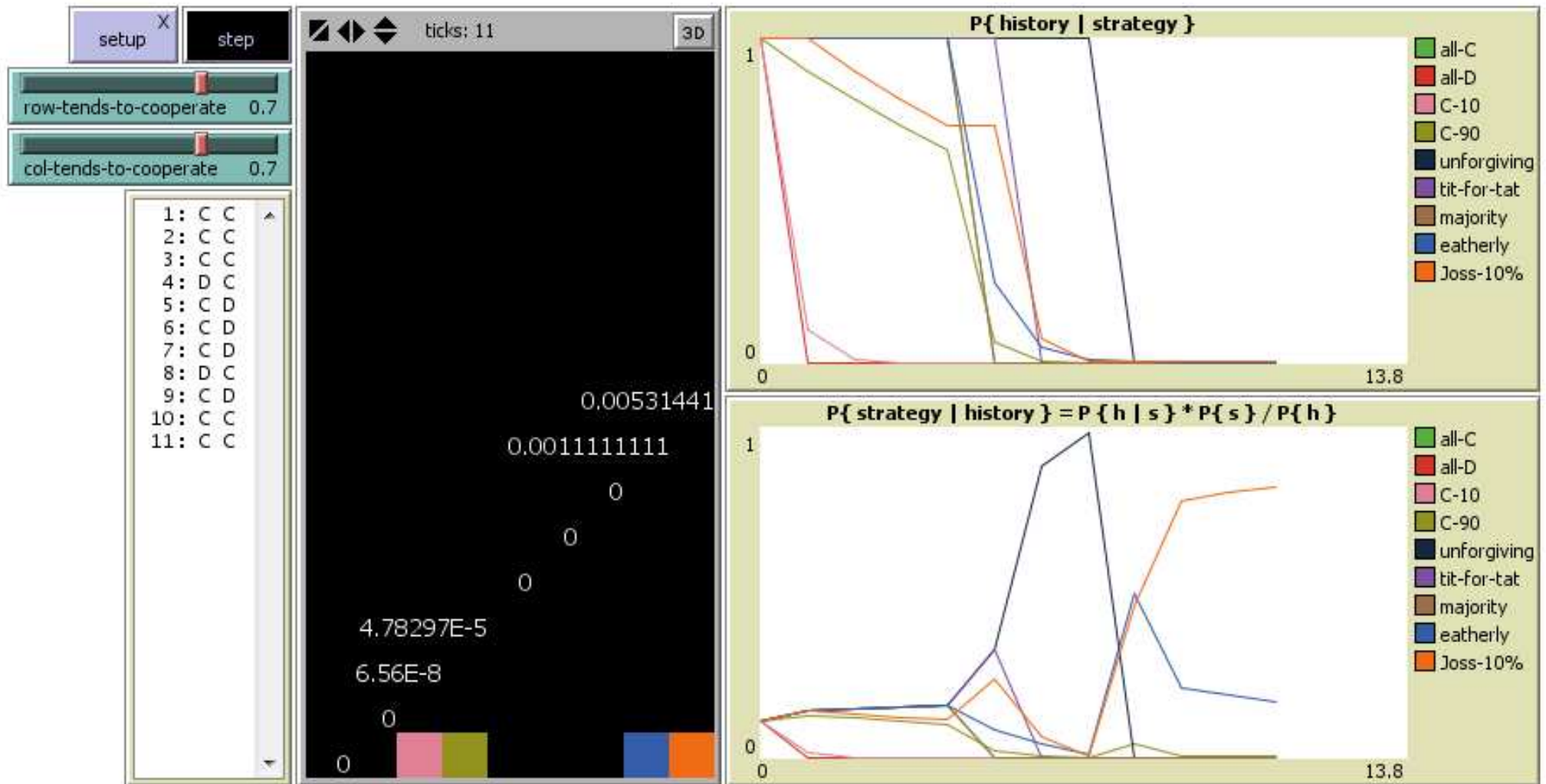
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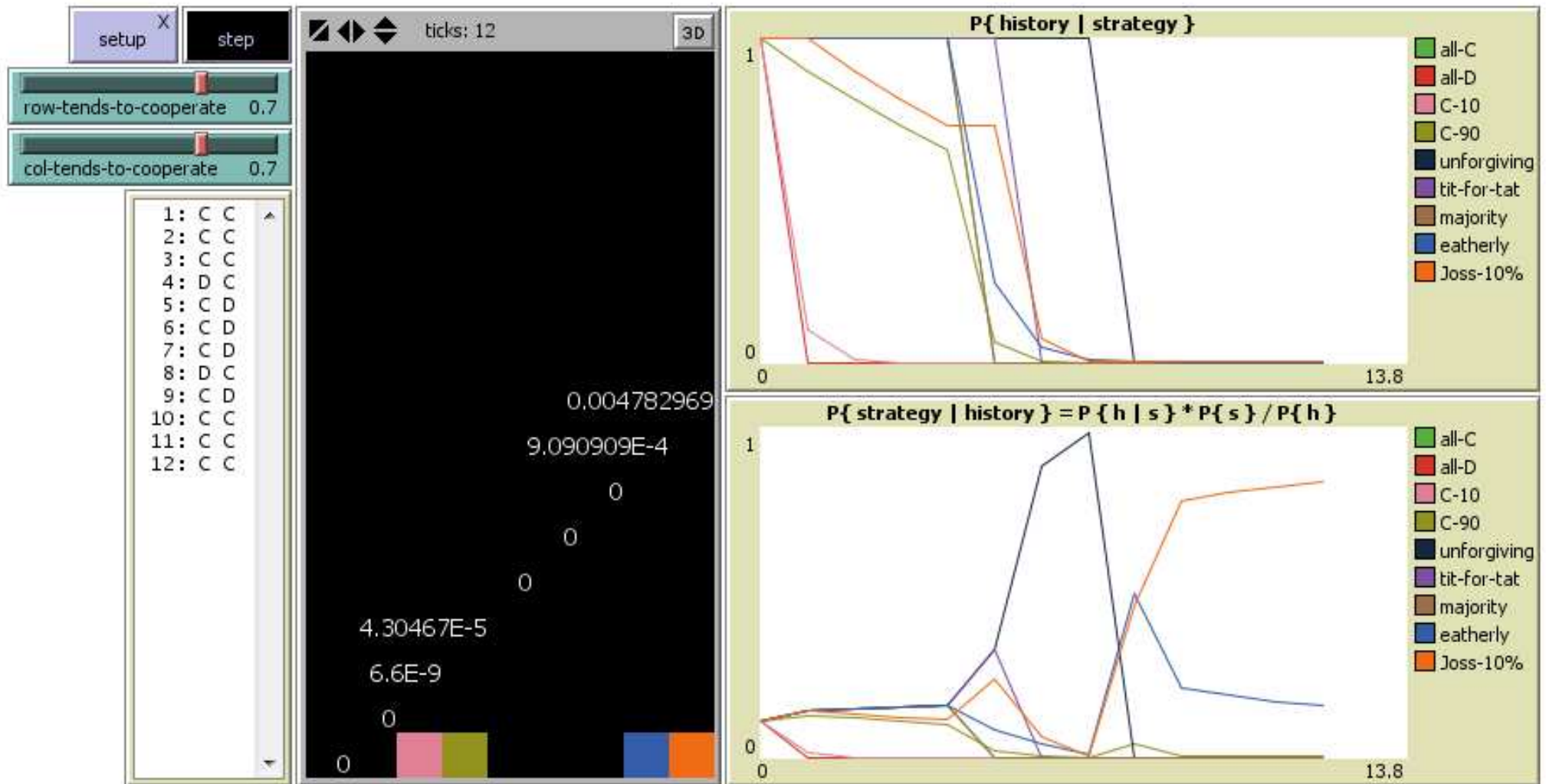
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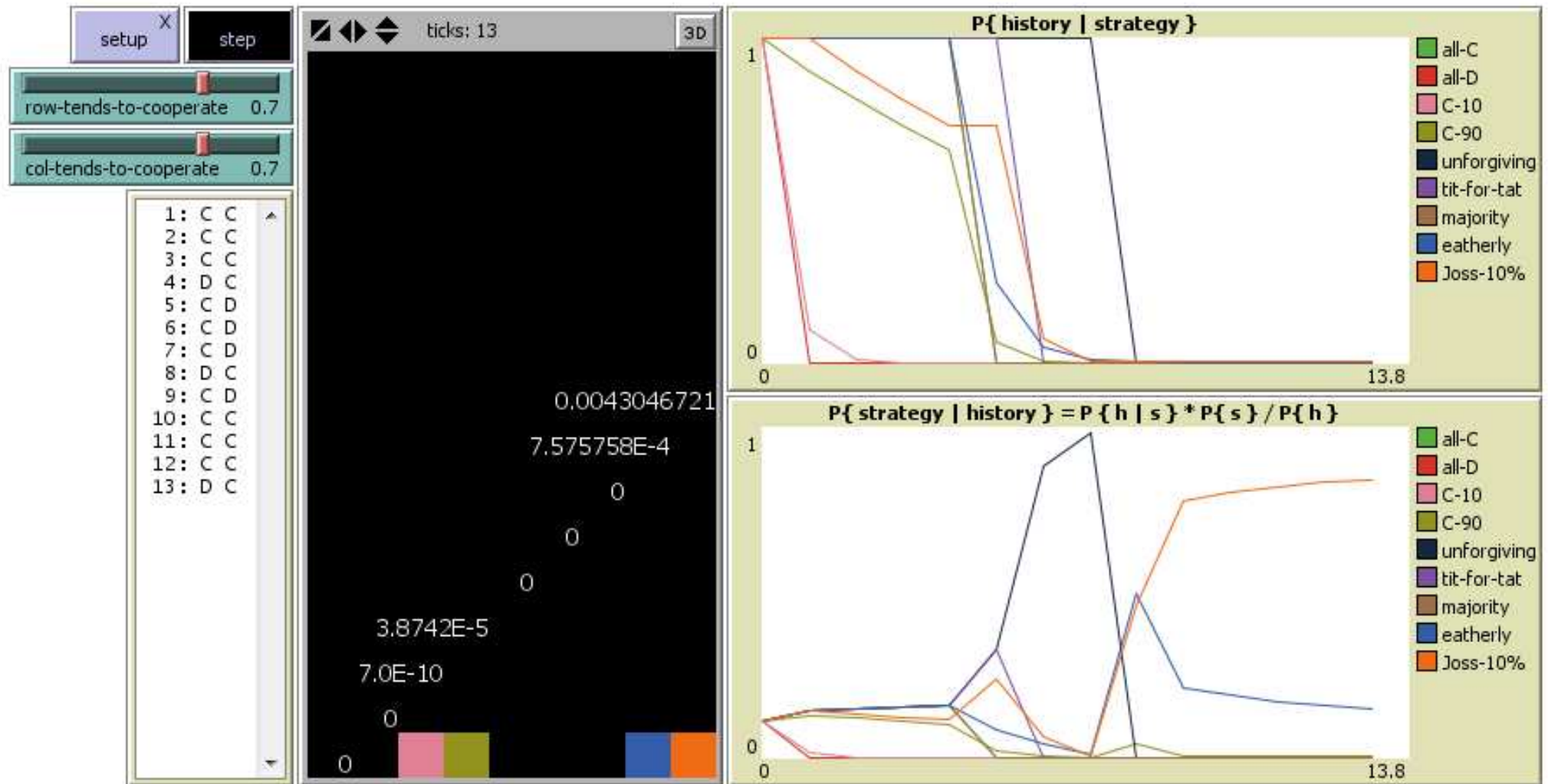
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Explanation of $\Pr\{h \mid s_2 = \text{Joss-10\%}\}$

Event	Description
$s_2 = \text{Joss-10\%}$	Player 2's strategy is Joss-10%
$X_1^{t-1} = C$	Player 1 cooperated in the previous round
$X_2^t = C$	Player 2 cooperates in the current round
ζ^t	Joss-10% randomises (hence defects)

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ζ^t	Joss-10% randomises (hence defects)

Round:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Player 1:	C	C	C	D	D	C	C
Player 2 x (and h):	C	D	C	C	D	C	C
$\Pr\{X_2^t = x \mid s_2 = \text{Joss-10\%}\}:$	0.9	0.1	0.9	0.9	1	0	0
$\Pr\{h_2^t = h \mid s_2 = \text{Joss-10\%}\}:$	0.9	0.09	0.081	0.0729	0.0729	0	0

Explanation of $\Pr\{h \mid s_2 = \text{Joss-10\%}\}$

Event	Description
$s_2 = \text{Joss-10\%}$	Player 2's strategy is Joss-10%
$X_1^{t-1} = C$	Player 1 cooperated in the previous round
$X_2^t = C$	Player 2 cooperates in the current round
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Round:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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$$\begin{aligned}
 \Pr\{h_2^t = C, h \mid X_1^{t-1} = C\} &= (\Pr\{X_2^t = C \mid X_1^{t-1} = C, \zeta^t\} \Pr\{\zeta^t\} + \\
 &\quad \Pr\{X_2^t = C \mid X_1^{t-1} = C, \bar{\zeta}^t\} \Pr\{\bar{\zeta}^t\}) \Pr\{h\} \\
 &= (0 \cdot 0.1 + 1 \cdot 0.9) \Pr\{h\} \\
 &= 0.9 \Pr\{h\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

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$g_t =_{Def}$ Play unforgiving before t , defect unconditionally at t and later.

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Example: Coordination game

Suppose Player 1 and 2 play the coordination game, and deem the following strategies possible:

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 $F^* : \text{play mixed } 0.5 \text{ forever} \}.$

Suppose

	1's prior	2's prior
L^*	0.6	0.2
R^*	0.3	0.5
F^*	0.1	0.3.

After

$$h = [(L, R), (R, L)]$$

Player 1 reasons:

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr\{R^*|h\} &= \frac{\Pr\{h|R^*\}\Pr\{R^*\}}{\sum_{j=1}^3 \Pr\{h|s_j\}\Pr\{s_j\}} \\ &= \frac{0 \cdot 0.3}{0 \cdot 0.6 + 0 \cdot 0.3 + (\frac{1}{2})^2 \cdot 0.1} \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

$$[\Pr\{(L, \cdot), (R, \cdot)|F^*\} = (\frac{1}{2})^2] \text{ and}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr\{F^*|h\} &= \frac{\Pr\{h|F^*\}\Pr\{F^*\}}{\sum_{j=1}^3 \Pr\{h|s_j\}\Pr\{s_j\}} \\ &= \frac{(\frac{1}{2})^2 \cdot 0.1}{0 \cdot 0.6 + 0 \cdot 0.3 + (\frac{1}{2})^2 \cdot 0.1} \\ &= 1.\end{aligned}$$

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Now, $\text{BR}(s_p | h) \cap S \neq \emptyset$, so that from round to round play vs. prediction is a closed system.

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- **Solution:** extend μ of H to μ on a **σ -algebra** of Ω .

Part III: Formalism

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Often, this is abbreviated to Δ_{-i}^H .

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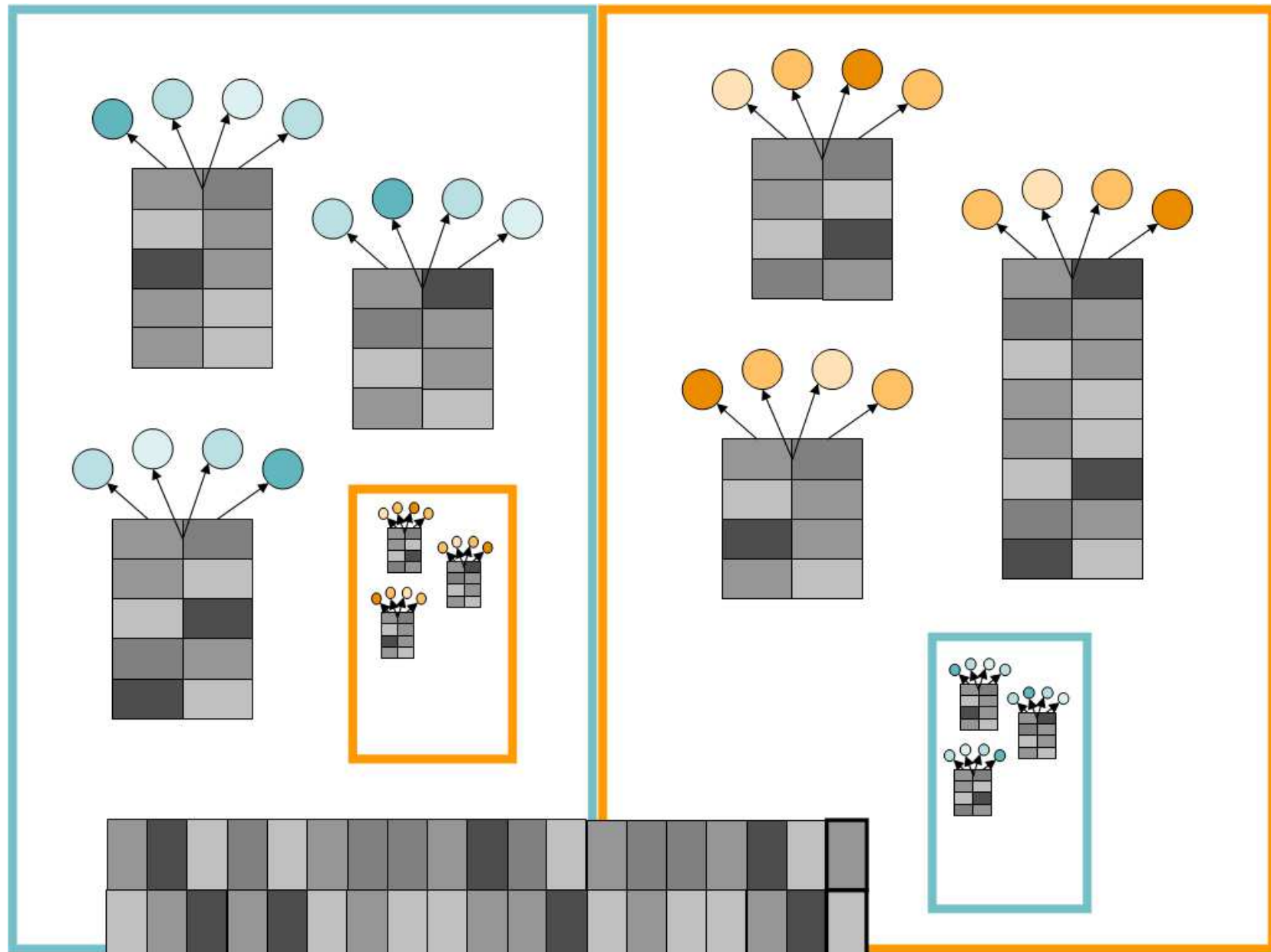
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Summary:

$$\begin{array}{c} H \times \Delta_{-i} \xrightarrow{\tau_i} \Delta_{-i} \\ \vdots \\ H \times \Delta_{-i} \xrightarrow{\sigma_i} \Delta_i \end{array}$$

Behav. strategy and belief of opponent's behav. strategy



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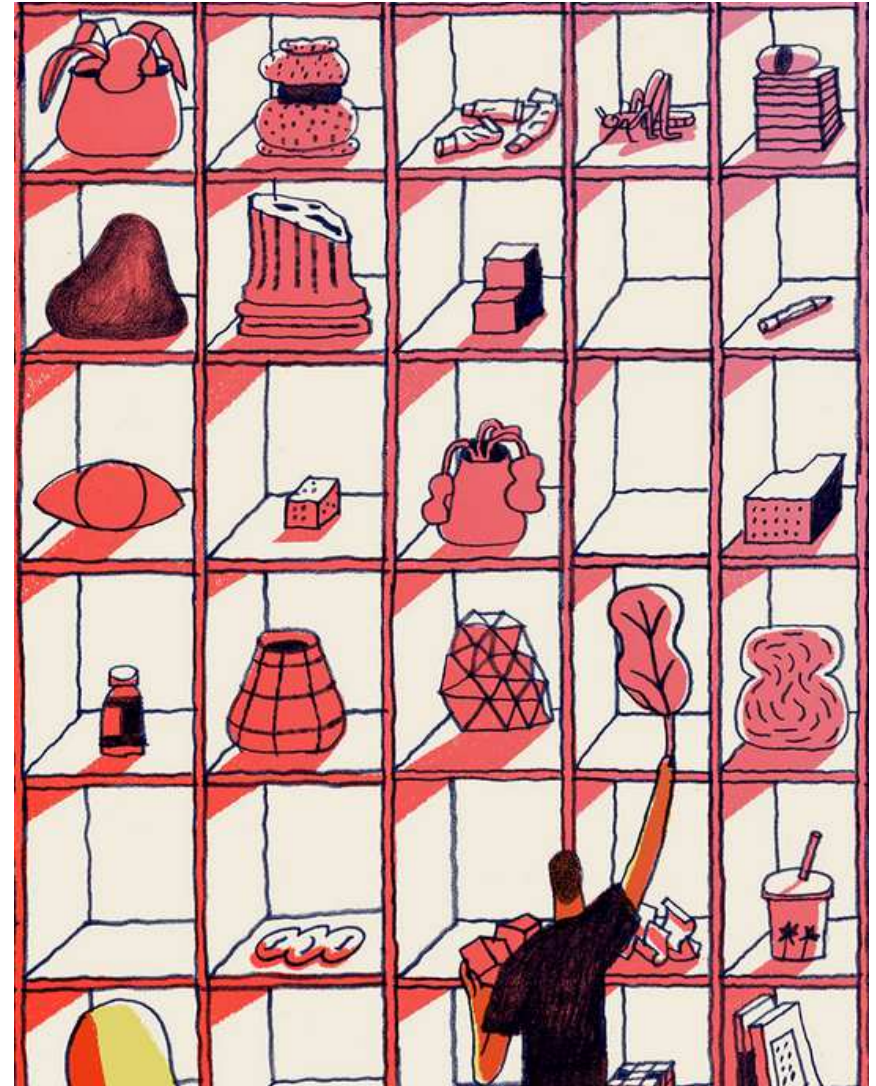
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- With Bayesian play, forecasting is much more subtler. There, a forecast is a probability distribution over the reply rules of other players.



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- Beliefs ν_i are maintained through Bayesian updating.

Part IV:

True distribution of play vs. subjective distribution of play

The true distribution of play μ on H

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(exercise) and write the latter set as Δ^H , we get rid of repetitions of histories in the function argument.

- The reply profile $g \in \Delta^H$ induces a probability distribution μ on H , inductively:

$$\mu\{hx\} = \begin{cases} 1 \cdot g(x) & \text{if } h = \emptyset, \\ \mu\{h\} \cdot g(x|h) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The probability measure μ on H , on its turn, induces a probability measure on (a σ -algebra of) Ω .

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Definition. (Correspondence between H and Ω .)

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Standard results in probability theory¹ now imply that μ' can be extended to a proper probability measure on (a σ -algebra of) Ω .

¹Carathéodory's extension theorem.

Player i 's subjective distribution of play μ_i on H

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E.g., $(\nu_2^1, g_2, \nu_2^3, \dots, \nu_2^n)$ represents the further course of play as Player 2 sees it.

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- We have just seen that the vector of all reply rules, g , generates a **true distribution of play**, μ , on Ω .
- Similarly, players i 's conditionalised predictive learning rule, (v_i, g_i) , generates a **subjective distribution of play**, μ_i , on Ω :

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \\ \mu_3 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_n \end{pmatrix} \text{ is generated by } (v, g) = \begin{pmatrix} g_1 & v_1^2 & v_1^3 & \dots & v_1^n \\ v_2^1 & g_2 & v_2^3 & \dots & v_2^n \\ v_3^1 & v_3^2 & g_3 & \dots & v_3^n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ v_n^1 & v_n^2 & v_n^3 & \dots & g_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Part V: Main results

The subjective view on distribution of play

Given ω , we would like to say something like:

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First stab at the formulation of a theorem:

If $t \rightarrow \infty$, then i 's subjective view on play at t , namely,

$$\mu_i\{\cdot \mid \text{realised play until } t\},$$

approximates the true distribution of play at t , namely,

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$$\mu \ll \mu_i,$$

i.e., if Player i assigns positive probabilities (however small) to every realisation deemed possible by μ , then i 's beliefs are said to contain a **grain of truth** on actual play.

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So, if i 's beliefs contain a grain of truth on actual play, then μ_i is, roughly put, “as expressive as” μ .

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Theorem (Blackwell and Dubins, 1962). *Let μ represent the true distribution of play, and let μ_i represent i 's view on the distribution of play. If $\mu \ll \mu_i$, then i 's beliefs merge with the true distribution of play.*

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- Very good predictor \Rightarrow good predictor.

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$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t} \sum_{s \leq t} \|q^{-i(s+1)} - p^{-i(s+1)}\|^2 = 0$$

- Player i is said to be a **very good predictor** on ω if the actual square error of prediction goes to zero a.s.:

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- Very good predictor \Rightarrow good predictor.
- From (Blackwell and Dubins, 1962) the following can be proven.

Corollary. If $\mu \ll \mu_i$ then i is a very good predictor a.s.

Very good prediction \nRightarrow all μ_i dominate μ

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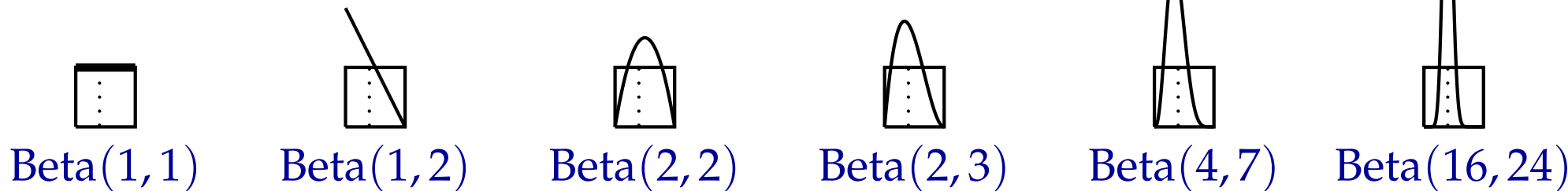
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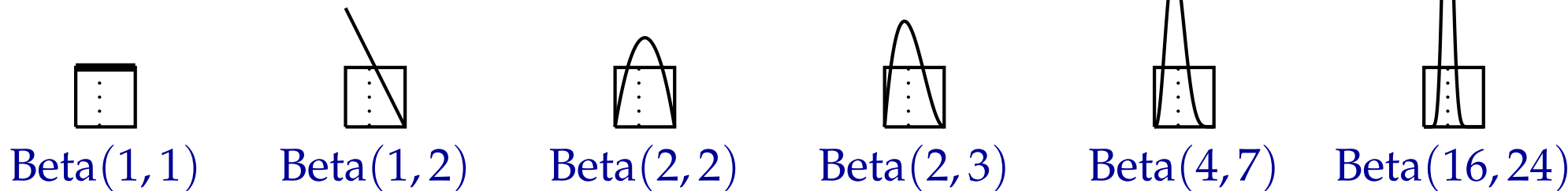
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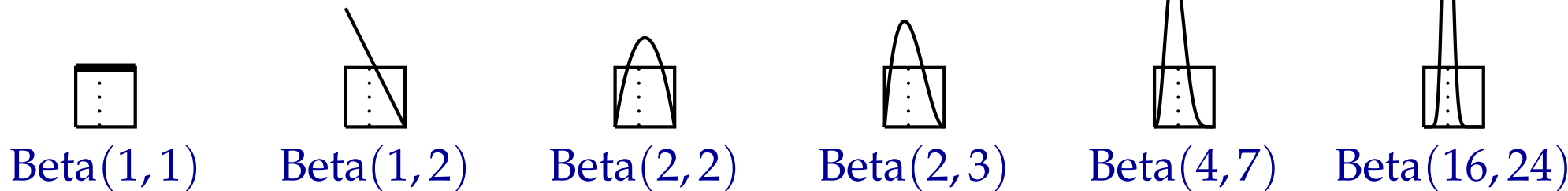


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Definition. Let μ and τ probability distributions. μ and τ are said to be ϵ -close, written $\mu \sim_{\epsilon} \tau$, if for some $Y \subseteq X$ we have $\mu\{Y\} > 1 - \epsilon$ and $\tau\{Y\} > 1 - \epsilon$ and for all measurable $E \subseteq Y$:

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Example. Let $\epsilon = 0.01$, $\mu\{E\} = 0.001$ and $\tau\{E\} = 0.009$. Then $|\mu\{E\} - \tau\{E\}| < \epsilon$ while $\tau\{E\} = 9\mu\{E\}$.

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- Thus, being ϵ -close means that not only does the player assess the future correctly, *it even assesses developments following unlikely histories correctly.*

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- Other than $\mu \ll \mu_i$, no other assumptions are made on μ and μ_i .
- This theorem implies closeness of probabilities also for courses of play that are extremely unlikely.
- The theorem does **not** state that a player learns to predict other players' **off path strategies**. (Recall Player 2's beliefs in unforgiving constellation.)

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 - It be analysed *quantitatively* (by indicating the rate of convergence).
This is much harder.

In Chapter 22 of the *Handbook on Computational Economics* (2006), Young describes how social dynamics can drift to so-called **stochastically stable states**, provided individuals act rationally most of the time.

The following slides were not used.

Notation: $B^A = \{f \mid f : A \rightarrow B\}$

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other's inverse. Both mappings are surjective.

Further, fundamental math defines 0 as \emptyset , and $n+1$ as $n \cup \{n\}$:

$$0 = \emptyset$$

$$1 = 0 \cup \{0\} = \emptyset \cup \{\emptyset\} = \{\emptyset\}$$

$$2 = 1 \cup \{1\} = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$$

$$3 = 2 \cup \{2\} = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}, \{\{\emptyset\}\}\}$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots$$

So

$$B^n = B^{\{0,1,\dots,n-1\}}$$

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Other examples (which we won't use):

- $(Z^X)^Y \sim (Z^Y)^X$
- $X^Y \times X^Z \sim X^{(Y \cup Z)}$, provided Y and Z are disjoint

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The factor $\lambda_r | h$ represents the posterior probability of choosing g_r^j given h :

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Playing against the strategies g_r^j with the probabilities λ_r and playing against an equivalently constructed behaviour strategy g^j generate identical probability distributions on future play paths.

(Kuhn, 1953; Aumann, 1964.)

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Proof of main theorem (Kalai and Lehrer, 1993)

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1. The theorem on Radon-Nikodym (mentioned above), which (roughly!) says that if $\nu \ll \mu$, then ν can be expressed in terms of μ .
2. Lévy's theorem, which (very roughly!) is about continuity of expectation through a so-called *filter*.²

Theorem. (Lévy's Convergence Theorem). Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a probability space, and let $\{\mathcal{F}_n\}_n$ be a non-decreasing family of σ -algebras contained in \mathcal{F} . Let \mathcal{F}_∞ be the smallest σ -algebra around $\cup\{\mathcal{F}_n\}_n$. Let X be a random variable with finite expectation. Then, both P -a.s.³ and in the L_1 -sense,⁴

$$E[X|\mathcal{F}_n] \rightarrow E[X|\mathcal{F}_\infty] \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

²Sequence of monotone non-decreasing σ -algebras.

³ $P\{|\dots - \dots| > \epsilon\} \rightarrow 0$.

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The Radon-Nikodym theorem

Given X and σ -finite probability measures μ and ν on X such that $\nu \ll \mu$, then there is a measurable function $f : X \rightarrow [0, \infty)$, such that for all μ -measurable sets E ,

$$\nu\{E\} = \int_E f d\mu.$$

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- The theorem tells if and how it is possible to change from one probability measure to another.
- Specifically, the probability density function of a random variable is the Radon-Nikodym derivative of the induced measure with respect to some base measure (usually the Lebesgue measure for continuous random variables).

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it follows that

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Essentially, it is a sufficient condition for the almost sure convergence to imply L1-convergence. The condition $|X_n| < Y$, $EY < \infty$ could be relaxed. Instead, the sequence $\{X_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ should be uniformly integrable.

Lévy's Theorem

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The theorem is simply a special case of Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem in measure theory.

Part VI: An Impossibility Result

Suppose players respond rationally

Definition. *Given a predictive learning rule (f_i, g_i) , rule g_i is said to be **rational** given f_i if, for each $h \in H$, rule g_i maximises expected discounted payoffs over all continuations of h .*

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- Also, g_i cannot depend on u_{-i} because i 's payoffs do not give information on the payoffs of opponents.

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Definition. A vector of n profiles

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There's no catch: recall that players converge even if they do not play best replies but play, e.g., maxmin.

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- From here, G' 's matrix is fixed, and G' is ready to be played.

Example. “Uncertain matching pennies”. Property: when λ is sufficiently small, G' still possesses a unique (mixed) Nash equilibrium.

$$M = \begin{array}{cc} & \begin{array}{cc} \text{H} & \text{T} \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \text{T} \end{array} & \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 + \epsilon_{11}, -1 + \epsilon'_{11} & -1 + \epsilon_{12}, 1 + \epsilon'_{12} \\ -1 + \epsilon_{21}, 1 + \epsilon'_{21} & 1 + \epsilon_{22}, -1 + \epsilon'_{22} \end{array} \right) \end{array}$$

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- This is far more stronger than the negation of asymptotic closeness, in the sense of Kalai and Lehrer.

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- Explanation:
 - Kalai *et al.*'s main theorem states that players will (almost) correctly predict the **on-path** portions of the other players' strategies.
 - Kalai *et al.*'s main theorem does **not** state that players will (almost) learn the true strategies of their opponents.