# Multi-agent learning

# Reinforcement Learning

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**Part I: Single-state RL in games**. First half of Ch. 2 of Peyton Young (2004): "Reinforcement and Regret".

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**Part II: Convergence to dominant strategies**. Begin of Beggs (2005): "On the Convergence of Reinforcement Learning".

	#Players	#Actions	Result
Theorem 1:	1	2	Pr(dominant action) = 1
Theorem 2:	1	$\geq 2$	Pr(sub-dominant actions) = 0
Theorem 3:	$\geq 1$	$\geq 2$	Pr(dom) = 1, $Pr(sub-dom) = 0$

# Part I: Single-state reinforcement learning

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Author: Gerard Vreeswijk. Slides last modified on May  $4^{\mathrm{th}}$ , 2020 at 12:54

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- Each round, t, players A and B choose actions  $x \in X$  and  $y \in Y$ , respectively:

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■ It follows that payoffs are time homogeneous, i.e.,

$$(x^{s}, y^{s}) = (x^{t}, y^{t})$$

$$\Rightarrow u(x^{s}, y^{s}) = u(x^{t}, y^{t}).$$



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- A possible mixed strategy to play at round t is to randomise on the normalised propensity of x at t:

$$(q_x^t)_{x \in X}$$
, where  $q_x^t =_{Def} \frac{\theta_x^t}{\sum_{x' \in X} \theta_{x'}^t}$ .

### An example

The total accumulated payoff at round t, the sum  $\sum_{x \in X} \theta_x^t$ , is abbreviated by  $v^t$ .

Rounds:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	<b>10</b>	11	<b>12</b>	13	<b>14</b>	$ heta^{14}$	
Payoff $x_1$ :	1	8	3	•	•	•	7	4	•	1	•	•	•	1	•	25	$ heta_1^{14}$
Payoff $x_2$ :	1	•	•	6	•	5	•	•	•	•	6	•	•	•	8	24	$ heta_2^{ar{1}4}$
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- It is the cumulative payoff for each action that matters, not the average payoff. (There is a difference.)
- In this example, it is assumed that the initial propensities,  $\theta_x^0$ , are one. In general, they could be anything. But  $\|\theta^0\| = 0$  is forbidden.

We can obtain further insight in the dynamics of the process by considering the change of the mixed strategy:

 $\Delta q_x^t$ 

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B. Arthur (1993): "On Designing Economic Agents that Behave Like Human Agents". In: *Journal of Evolutionary Economy* **3**, pp 1-22.

#### Designing Economic Agents (Arthur, 1991)

chooses one of 14 possible actions at each time that have random payoffs or profits drawn from a stationary distribution that is unknown in advance. This would be the case, for example, where a firm, government agency, or research department is faced each period with a choice among N alternative pricing schemes, or policy options, or research projects, each with consequences that are poorly understood at the outset and that vary from "trial" to "trial". The agent chooses one alternative at each time, observes its consequence or payoff, and over time updates his choice as a result. What makes this iterated choice problem interesting is the tension between *exploitation* of high-payoff actions that have been undertaken many times and are therefore well understood, and exploration of seldom-tried actions that potentially may have higher av erage payoff.

The classic multi-arm-bandit version of this problem is to design a learning algorithm or automaton that maximizes some criterion—such as expected average payoff. Our problem is different. It is to design a learning algorithm or learning automaton that can be tuned to choose actions in this iterated choice situation the way humans

action. That is, it sets  $p_t - \sigma_t / \sigma_t$ .

- 2) Chooses one action from the set according to the probabilities  $p_t$  and triggers that action.
- 3) Observes the payoff received and updates strengths by adding the chosen actions's j's payoff to action j's strength. That is, where action j is chosen, it sets the strengths to  $S_i + \beta_i$  where  $\beta_i = \Phi(j)e_j$ ; (e is the jth unit vector).
- 4) Renormalizes the strengths to sum to a value from a prechosen time sequence. In this case, it renormalizes strengths to sum to  $C_t = Ct^{\nu}$ .

This last step allows us to set the rate and deceleration of the learning via the parameters C and  $\nu$  that are fixed in advance. The rate of learning, it turns out, is proportional to  $1/(Ct^{\nu})$ . Parameters C and  $\nu$  thus define a two-parameter family of algorithms that can be used to calibrate the automaton.

The algorithm has a simple behavioral interpretation (at least when  $\nu = 0$ ). The strength vector summarizes the current confidence the agent or automaton has learned to associate with actions 1 through N. Confidence associated with an action increases according to the (random) payoff it brings in when taken. The automaton chooses its ac-

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Börgers and Sarin (2000). "Naïve Reinforcement Learning with Endogeneous Aspirations" in: *Int. Economic Review* **41**, pp. 921-950.

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- A history is a finite sequence of actions  $\xi^t : (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_t, y_t)$ .
- A strategy for A is a function  $g: H \to \Delta(X)$  that maps histories to probability distributions over X. Let  $q_{t+1} =_{Def} g(\xi^t)$ .

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Peyton Young (2004, p. 17): "Its proof is actually quite involved (...)".



# Alan Beggs, Economics professor, Wadham College, Oxfo



# The learning model

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Apply the so-called conditional Borel-Cantelli lemma:<sup>2</sup> if  $\{E_n\}_n$  are events, and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \Pr(E_n \mid X_{n-1}, \dots, X_1)$$

is unbounded, then an infinite number of  $E_n$ 's occur a.s.  $\square$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>A.k.a. the *second Borel-Cantelli lemma*, or the *Borel-Cantelli-Lévy lemma* (Shiryaev, p. 518).

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Author: Gerard Vreeswijk. Slides last modified on May  $4^{\mathrm{th}}$ , 2020 at 12:54

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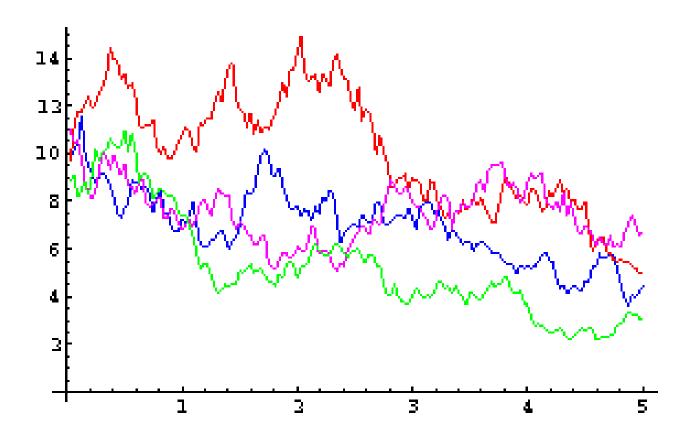
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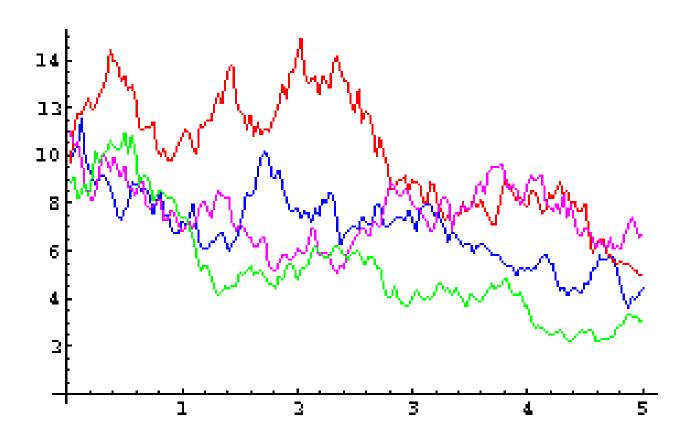
Why? For it is known that every non-negative super-martingale converges to a finite limit *C* a.s.

# Super-martingale (informal idea)



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A super-martingale is a *stochastic process* in which the conditional expectation of the next value, given the current and preceding values, is less than or equal to the current value:

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Ordinary mathematics.

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Taylor expansion for, say, n = 4:

$$f(x+h) = f(x) + hf'(x) + \frac{h^2}{2!}f''(x) + \frac{h^3}{3!}f'''(x) + \underbrace{\frac{h^4}{4!}f''''(x+\theta h)}_{\text{Lagrange}}$$
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$$(x+h)^{-1} = x^{-1} + h(-x^{-2}) + \frac{h^2}{2!}(2(x+\theta h)^{-3})$$
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$$= \frac{1}{x} - \frac{h}{x^2} + \frac{h^2}{(x+\theta h)^3}.$$



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$$(A_2(n) + \pi_2(n+1))^{\epsilon} \leq A_2^{\epsilon}(n) + \dots + etc.$$

(Take 
$$x = A_2(n)$$
 and  $h = \pi_2(n+1)$ .)



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Because payoffs are bounded,  $E[\pi_1(\dots)] > \gamma E[\pi_2(\dots)]$ ,  $1 - \gamma < \epsilon - \gamma < 0$ , constants  $K_1$ ,  $K_2$ ,  $K_3 > 0$  can be found such that

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■ For  $\epsilon \in (1, \gamma)$  and for n large enough, this expression is non-positive.

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**Theorem 2**. If the expected payoff (conditional on the history) of  $a_i$  dominates the expected payoff (conditional on the history) of  $a_j$ , for all  $j \neq i$ , then the probability that  $a_i$  will be played converges to zero, for all  $j \neq i$ .

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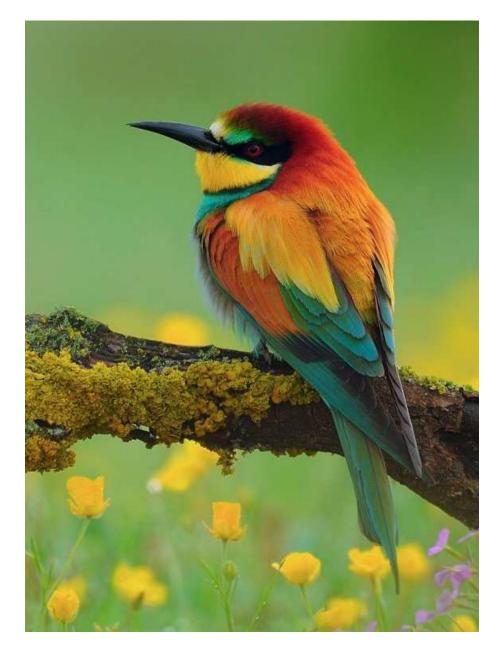
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(Beggs, 2005).

## Summary

- There are several rules for reinforcement learning on single states.
- Sheer convergence is often easy to prove.
- Proving convergence to best actions in a stationary environment is more difficult.
- Convergence to best actions in non-stationary environments, e.g., convergence to dominant actions, or best responses in self-play, is state-of-the art research.



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#### ■ Differences:

- 1. No-regret learning als learns from hypothetical payoffs.
- 2. It is more easy to obtain results regarding performance.