Decision Making in Robots and Autonomous Agents

Game Theory: How should robots reason about interactive decisions?

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Robots Often Face *Strategic* Adversaries



Key issue we seek to model: Misaligned/conflicting interest

On Self-Interest

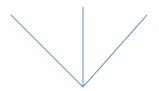
What does it mean to say that agents are self-interested?

- It does not necessarily mean that they want to cause harm to each other, or even that they care only about themselves.
- Instead, it means that each agent has his own description of which states of the world he likes—which can include good things happening to other agents

—and that he acts in an attempt to bring about these states of the world (better term: inter-dependent decision making)

Basic Constructs of Game (Extensive Form)

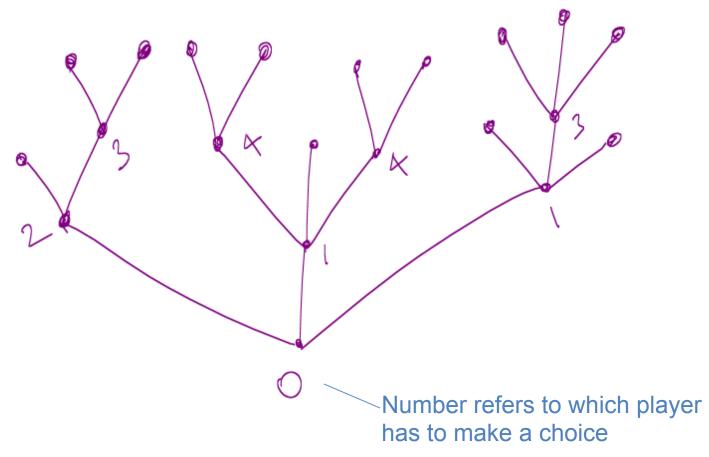
 Move: A point of decision for the player, defined by a set of actions that could be chosen (e.g., I am holding King-10-2). In an abstract form:



The move looks identical in a different game involving, say, passing – calling- betting

- Choice: The particular action that has actually been chosen (play King)
- Play: A sequence of choices, one following another, until the game terminates (King -> 10 -> 2)

Abstract Relation Between Moves



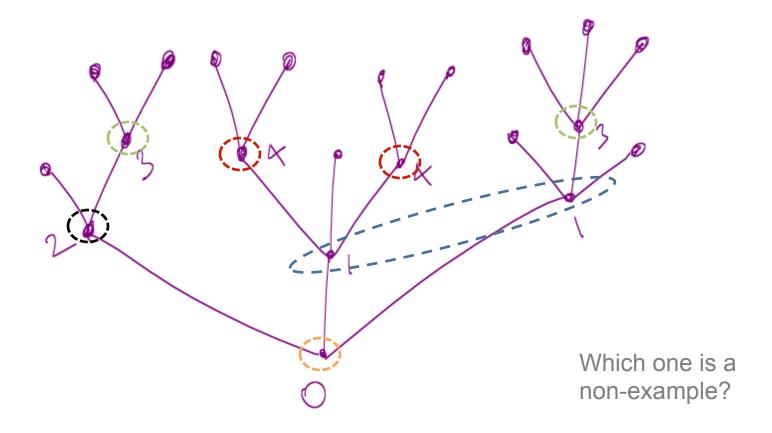
Game Trees

- The previous picture is often referred to as a game tree, a listing of moves and consequences
- It is a tree in the mathematical sense
- Strictly speaking, many games should have a game graph (not just a tree)
 - Why?
- However, the convention is to treat the play (history of moves) as unique even if it revisits a specific state

Information Sets

- What can each player know when he makes a choice at a move?
- We are not asking about their way of playing just, what is the most they could possibly know without violating the rules of the game?
 - e.g., think of card games with chance moves, or where a player picks a card and places it face down on the table
- Rules of the game specify which moves are indistinguishable
- Two requirements for information set:
 - Moves must be assigned to same player
 - Moves must have same number of alternatives

Information Sets - Pictorially



Specification of an Extensive Form Game

- A finite tree with a distinguished node
- A partition of the nodes of the tree into n+1 sets (specifying who takes the move)
- A probability distribution over the branches of chance moves
- A refinement of the player partition into information sets (characterizes, for each player, the ambiguity of location of the game tree of each of his moves)
- An identification of corresponding branches for each of the moves in each information set
- A set of outcomes and an assignment of outcomes to each endpoint of the tree

How Do Players Actually Choose?

- Each player has a linear utility function M_i over outcomes
- Each player is fully aware of the rules, and will maximize expected utility
- Pure strategy: prescription of decision for each situation
- For any fixed strategy, given the rules of the game, the game tree can be evaluated directly to yield a value
- If there are chance moves, selection of strategies of players defines a distribution over plays and the payoff is expected value w.r.t. this distribution

A Different Simple Model of a Game

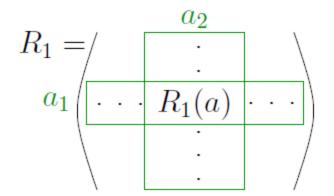
- Two decision makers
 - Robot (has an action space: A)
 - Adversary (has an action space: θ)
- Cost or <u>payoff</u> (to use the term common in game theory) depends on actions of both decision makers:
 - $R(a, \theta)$ denote as a matrix corresponding to product space

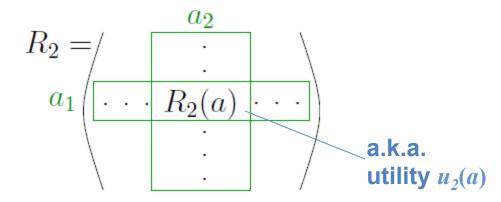
		Θ	
	1	-1	0
A	-1	2	-2
	2	-1	1

This is the **normal form** – simultaneous choice over moves

Representing Payoffs

In a general, bi-matrix, normal form game $(n,\mathcal{A}_{1...n},R_{1...n})$ Action sets of players Payoff function:





The combined actions $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$ form an action profile a $\in A$

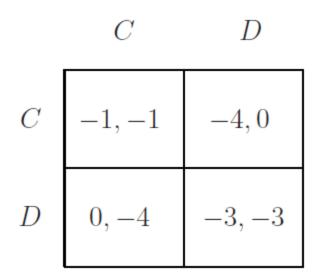
Example: Rock-Paper-Scissors

- Famous children's game
- Two players; Each player simultaneously picks an action which is evaluated as follows,
 - Rock beats Scissors
 - Scissors beats Paper
 - Paper beats Rock

TCP Game

- Imagine there are only two internet users: you and me
- Internet traffic is governed by TCP protocol, one feature of which is the backoff mechanism: when network is congested then backoff and reduce transmission rates for a while
- Imagine that there are two implementations: C (correct, does what is intended) and D (defective)
- If you both adopt C, packet delay is 1 ms; if you both adopt D, packet delay is 3 ms
- If one adopts C but other adopts D then D user gets no delay and C user suffers 4 ms delay

TCP Game in Normal Form



Note that this is another way of writing a bi-matrix game: First number represents payoff of row player and second number is payoff for column player

Some Famous Matrix Examples - What are they Capturing?

Prisoner's Dilemma: Cooperate or Defect (same as TCP game)

$$R_1 = \begin{array}{ccc} \mathsf{C} & \mathsf{D} & & \mathsf{C} & \mathsf{D} \\ \mathsf{C} & \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 \end{array} \right) & R_2 = \begin{array}{ccc} \mathsf{C} & \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \end{array}$$

Bach or Stravinsky (von Neumann called it Battle of the Sexes)

$$R_1 = \begin{array}{ccc} \mathsf{B} & \mathsf{S} & \mathsf{B} & \mathsf{S} \\ \mathsf{S} & \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) & R_2 = \begin{array}{ccc} \mathsf{B} & \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{array} \right)$$

Matching Pennies: Try to get the same outcome, Heads/Tails

$$R_1 = egin{array}{ccc} \mathsf{H} & \mathsf{T} & \mathsf{H} & \mathsf{T} \\ \mathsf{T} & \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} & R_2 = egin{array}{ccc} \mathsf{H} & \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$$

Different Categorization: Common Payoff

A common-payoff game is a game in which for all action profiles $a \in A_1 \times \cdots \times A_n$ and any pair of agents i, j, it is the case that $u_i(a) = u_i(a)$

	Left	Right
Left	1, 1	0,0
Right	0,0	1,1

Pure coordination: e.g., driving on a side of the road

Different Categorization: Constant Sum

A two-player normal-form game is constant-sum if there exists a constant c such that for each strategy profile $a \in A_1 \times A_2$ it is the case that $u_1(a) + u_2(a) = c$

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

Pure competition:
One player wants to coordinate
Other player does not!

What Can Players Do?

What can players do?

- Pure strategies (a_i) : select an action.
- Mixed strategies (σ_i): select an action according to some probability distribution.

Strategies

Notation.

- σ is a joint strategy for all players.

$$R_i(\sigma) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \sigma(a) R_i(a)$$
 Expected utility

- σ_{-i} is a joint strategy for all players except i.
- $\langle \sigma_i, \sigma_{-i} \rangle$ is the joint strategy where i uses strategy σ_i and everyone else σ_{-i} .

Solution Concepts

Many ways of describing what one ought to do:

- Dominance
- Minimax
- Pareto Efficiency
- Nash Equilibria
- Correlated Equilibria

Remember that in the end game theory aspires to predict behaviour given specification of the game.

Normatively, a solution concept is a rationale for behaviour

Concept: Dominance

 An action is strictly dominated if another action is always better, i.e,

$$\exists a_i' \in \mathcal{A}_i \ \forall a_{-i} \in \mathcal{A}_{-i} \qquad R_i(\langle a_i', a_{-i} \rangle) > R_i(\langle a_i, a_{-i} \rangle).$$

Consider prisoner's dilemma.

$$R_1 = \begin{array}{ccc} & & & & & & & C & D \\ C & \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} & & R_2 = \begin{array}{ccc} C & \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ D & \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$$

For both players, D dominates C.

Concept: Iterated Dominance

Actions may be dominated by mixed strategies.

$$R_{1} = \begin{array}{ccc} & D & E & & D & E \\ A & \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 0 \\ C & \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix} & & R_{2} = \begin{array}{ccc} & A & \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{array}$$

If strictly dominated actions should not be played...

$$R_{1} = \begin{array}{c|c} D & E & D & E \\ \hline A & 1 & 1 \\ \hline B & 4 & 0 \\ C & 0 & 4 \end{array} \qquad R_{2} = \begin{array}{c|c} D & E \\ \hline A & 1 & 0 \\ \hline C & 0 & 1 \end{array}$$

This game is said to be dominance solvable.

Concept: Minimax

Consider matching pennies.

$$R_1 = egin{array}{cccc} \mathsf{H} & \mathsf{T} & & \mathsf{H} & \mathsf{T} \\ \mathsf{T} & \left(egin{array}{cccc} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{array}
ight) & R_2 = egin{array}{cccc} \mathsf{H} & \left(egin{array}{cccc} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{array}
ight) \end{array}$$

- Q: What do we do when the world is out to get us?
 A: Make sure it can't.
- Play strategy with the best worst-case outcome.

$$\underset{\sigma_i \in \Delta(\mathcal{A}_i)}{\operatorname{argmax}} \quad \underset{a_{-i} \in \mathcal{A}_{-i}}{\min} \quad R_i(\langle \sigma_i, \sigma_{-i} \rangle)$$

Minimax optimal strategy.

Minimax

Back to matching pennies.

$$R_1 = \begin{array}{ccc} & \mathsf{H} & \mathsf{T} \\ \mathsf{H} & \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{array} \right) & \left(\begin{array}{c} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \end{array} \right) = \sigma_1^*$$

Consider Bach or Stravinsky.

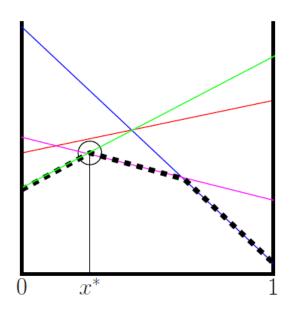
$$R_1 = \begin{array}{ccc} \mathsf{B} & \mathsf{S} \\ \mathsf{S} & \left(\begin{array}{cc} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) & \left(\begin{array}{c} 1/3 \\ 2/3 \end{array} \right) = \sigma_1^*$$

- Minimax optimal guarantees the saftey value.
- Minimax optimal never plays dominated strategies.

Computing Minimax

Minimax optimal strategies via linear programming.

$$\underset{\sigma_i \in \Delta(\mathcal{A}_i)}{\operatorname{argmax}} \quad \underset{a_{-i} \in \mathcal{A}_{-i}}{\min} \quad R_i(\langle \sigma_i, \sigma_{-i} \rangle)$$



Pick-a-Hand

- There are two players: chooser (player I) & hider (player II)
- The hider has two gold coins in his back pocket. At the beginning of a turn, he puts his hands behind his back and either takes out one coin and holds it in his left hand, or takes out both and holds them in his right hand.
- The chooser picks a hand and wins any coins the hider has hidden there.
- She may get nothing (if the hand is empty), or she might win one coin, or two.

Pick-a-Hand, Normal Form:

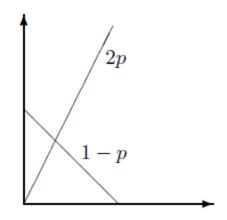
		hider	
H		L1	R2
ose	L	1	0
$^{\mathrm{cho}}$	R	0	2

- Hider could minimize losses by placing 1 coin in left hand, most he can lose is 1
- If chooser can figure out hider's plan, he will surely lose that 1
- If hider thinks chooser might strategise, he has incentive to play R2, ...
- All hider can guarantee is max loss of 1 coin

- Similarly, chooser might try to maximise gain, picking R
- However, if hider strategizes, chooser ends up with zero
- So, chooser can't actually guarantee winning anything

Pick-a-Hand, with Mixed Strategies

- Suppose that chooser decides to choose R with probability p and L with probability 1 – p
- If hider were to play pure strategy R2 his expected loss would be 2p
- If he were to play L1,
 expected loss is 1 p
- Chooser maximizes her gains by choosing p so as to maximize min{2p, 1 - p}



 Thus, by choosing R with probability 1/3 and L with probability 2/3, chooser assures expected payoff of 2/3, regardless of whether hider knows her strategy

Mixed Strategy for the Hider

- Hider will play R2 with some probability q and L1 with probability 1-q
- The payoff for chooser is 2q if she picks R, and 1 q if she picks L
- If she knows q, she will choose the strategy corresponding to the maximum of the two values.

- If hider knows chooser's plan, he will choose q = 1/3 to minimize this maximum, guaranteeing that his expected payout is 2/3 (because 2/3 = 2q = 1 q)
- expected gain of 2/3, hider can assure an expected loss of no more than 2/3, regardless of what either knows of the other's strategy.

Safety Value as Incentive

- Clearly, without some extra incentive, it is not in hider's interest to play *Pick-a-hand* because he can only lose by playing.
- Thus, we can imagine that chooser pays hider to entice him into joining the game.
- 2/3 is the maximum amount that chooser should pay him in order to gain his participation.

Another Game

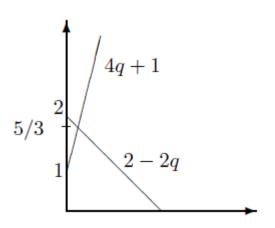
	1	player II	
_		L	R
yer	T	0	2
play	B	5	1

Mixed strategies:

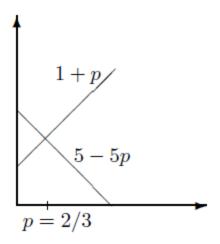
- Suppose player I plays T with probability p and B with probability 1-p
- Player II plays L with probability q and R with probability 1 – q

- For player I, expected
 payoff is 2(1 q) for playing
 pure strategy T; 4q + 1 for
 playing pure strategy B.
- If she knows q, she'll pick the strategy corresponding to max{2(1 - q), 4q + 1}
- Player II can choose q = 1/6 so as to minimize this maximum, and expected amount player II will pay player I is 5/3.

The Game Analysed Graphically



If pl. I knows q, she'll pick strategy based on max{2(1 – q), 4q + 1}. Player II can choose q = 1/6 so as to minimize this maximum. Expected amount player II will pay player I is **5/3**.



For pl. II, expected loss is 5(1 - p) if he plays pure strategy L and 1+p if he plays pure strategy R; he will aim to minimize this expected payout. In order to maximize this minimum, player I will choose p = 2/3, yielding expected gain 5/3.

Concept: Nash Equilibrium

- What action should we play if there are no dominated actions?
- Optimal action depends on actions of other players.
- A best response set is the set of all strategies that are optimal given the strategies of the other players.

$$BR_i(\sigma_{-i}) = \{ \sigma_i \mid \forall \sigma_i' \quad R_i(\langle \sigma_i, \sigma_{-i} \rangle) \ge R_i(\langle \sigma_i', \sigma_{-i} \rangle) \}$$

 A Nash equilibrium is a joint strategy, where all players are playing best responses to each other.

$$\forall i \in \{1 \dots n\}$$
 $\sigma_i \in \mathrm{BR}_i(\sigma_{-i})$

Nash Equilibrium

 A Nash equilibrium is a joint strategy, where all players are playing best responses to each other.

$$\forall i \in \{1 \dots n\}$$
 $\sigma_i \in \mathrm{BR}_i(\sigma_{-i})$

- Since each player is playing a best response, no player can gain by unilaterally deviating.
- Dominance solvable games have obvious equilibria.
 - Strictly dominated actions are never best responses.
 - Prisoner's dilemma has a single Nash equilibrium.

Nash Equilibrium - Example

Consider the coordination game.

$$R_1 = \begin{array}{ccc} \mathsf{A} & \mathsf{B} \\ \mathsf{B} & \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} & R_2 = \begin{array}{ccc} \mathsf{A} & \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{array}$$

Consider Bach or Stravinsky.

$$R_1 = \begin{array}{ccc} & \mathsf{B} & \mathsf{S} & & & \mathsf{B} & \mathsf{S} \\ \mathsf{B} & \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) & & R_2 = \begin{array}{ccc} \mathsf{B} & \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{array} \right) \end{array}$$

Nash Equilibrium - Example

Consider matching pennies.

$$R_1 = egin{array}{cccc} \mathsf{H} & \mathsf{T} & & \mathsf{H} & \mathsf{T} \\ \mathsf{T} & \left(egin{array}{cccc} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{array}
ight) & R_2 = egin{array}{cccc} \mathsf{H} & \left(egin{array}{cccc} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{array}
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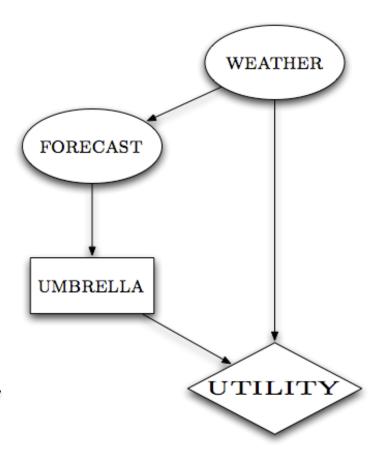
No pure strategy Nash equilibria. Mixed strategies?

$$BR_1\bigg(\langle 1/2, 1/2\rangle\bigg) = \{\sigma_1\}$$

Corresponds to the minimax strategy.

Influence Diagrams [Howard & Matheson '84]

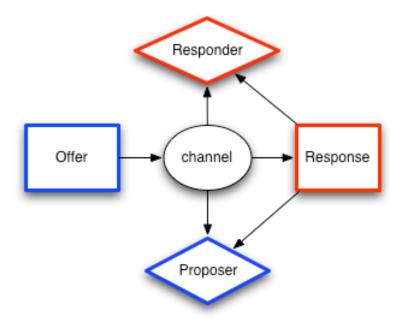
- Influence Diagrams (ID) extend Bayesian Networks for decision making.
- Rectangles are decisions; ovals are chance variables; diamonds are utility functions.
- Graph topology describes decision problem.
- Each node specifies a probability distribution (CPD) given each value of parents.



Multi-agent Influence Diagrams

[Milch and Koller 'o1]

- Extend Influence Diagrams to the multi-agent case.
- Rectangles and diamonds represent decisions and utilities associated with agents; ovals represent chance variables.
- A strategy for a decision is a mapping from the informational parents of the decision to a value in its domain.
- A strategy profile includes strategies for all decisions.



Reasoning Patterns through IDs

- Informally, a reasoning pattern is a form of argument that leads to and explains a decision
 - e.g.
 - modus ponens in logic
 - explaining away in Bayes nets
- What reasoning patterns can agents use in interactive decision making contexts?

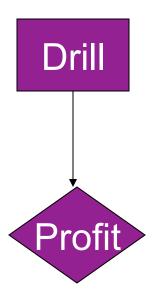
[A. Pfeffer & Y. Gal, On the reasoning patterns of agents in games, In Proc. AAAI 2007]

Characterization of Reasoning Patterns

- Four basic reasoning patterns, each characterized by paths in a multiple-agent version of influence diagrams
- Characterization based on graphical criteria only
 - could further refine characterization based on numerical parameters

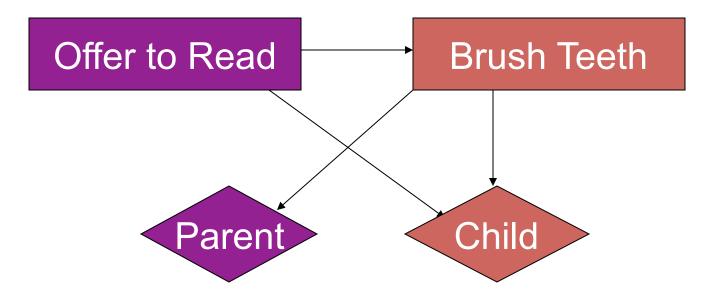
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Reasoning Pattern #1: Direct Effect



- An agent takes a decision because of its direct effect on its utility
 - without being mediated by other agents' actions

Reasoning Pattern #2: Manipulation

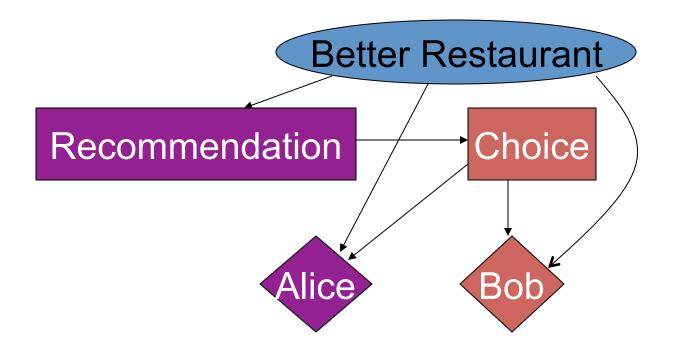


- Child knows about parent's action
- Parent does not care about reading, but wants child to brush teeth
- Child dislikes brushing teeth but likes being read to

⇒ Parent can manipulate child

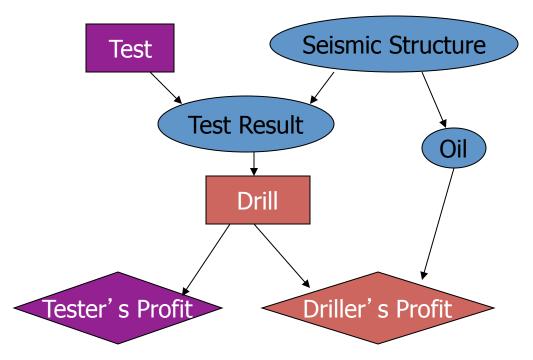
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Reasoning Pattern #3: Signaling



 A communicates something that she knows to B, thus influencing B's behavior

Reasoning Pattern #4: Revealing/Denying



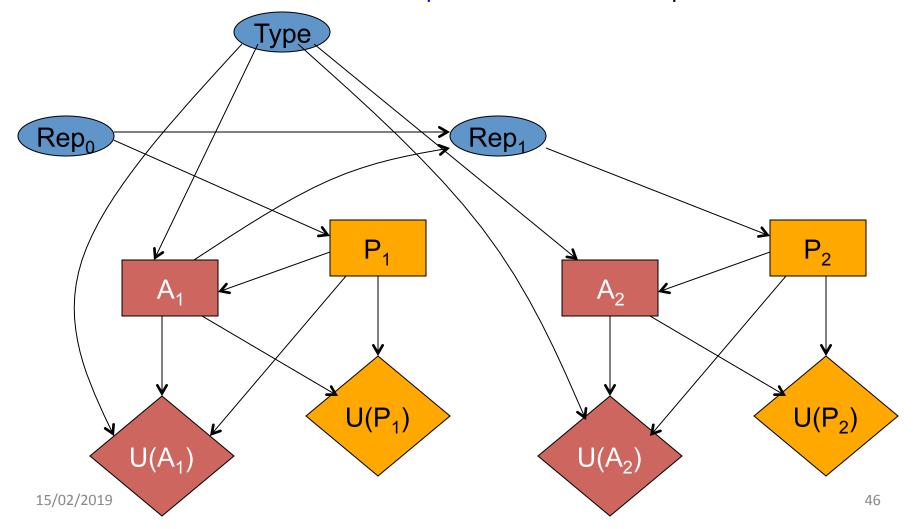
Driller cares about oil

- Tester receives fee if driller drills
- Tester causes driller to find out (or not) about information tester herself does not know

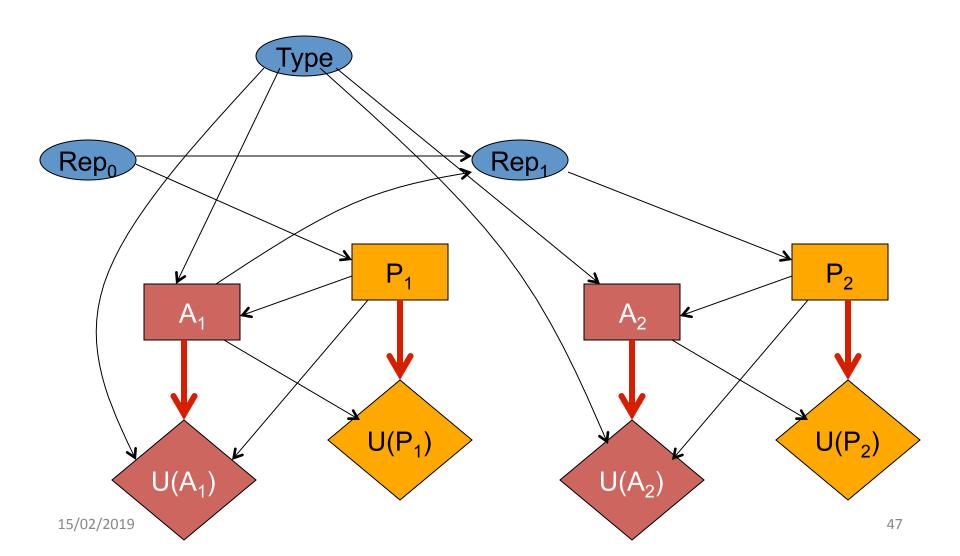
Example: Two Stage Principal-Agent *Game*

Type: described parameters specific to an agent

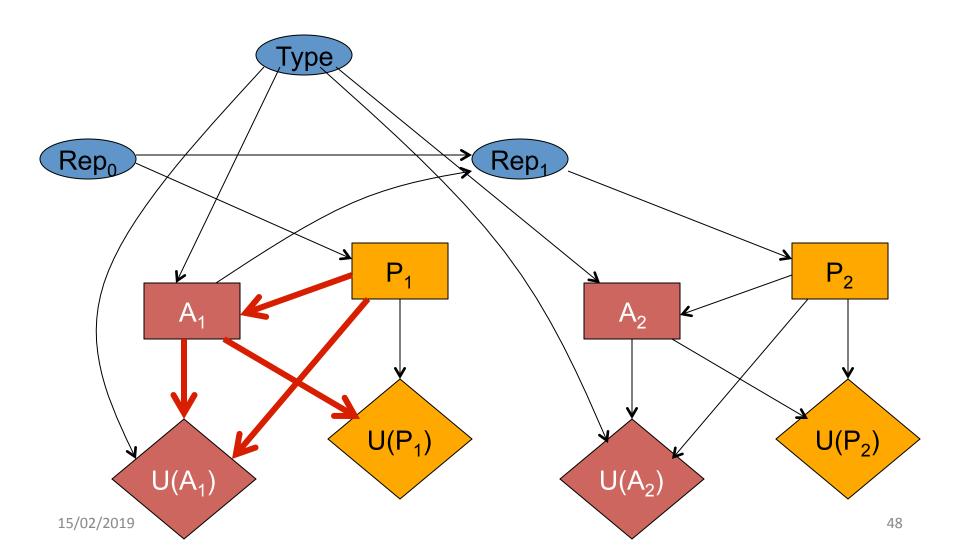
Rep: Quantification of "Reputation"



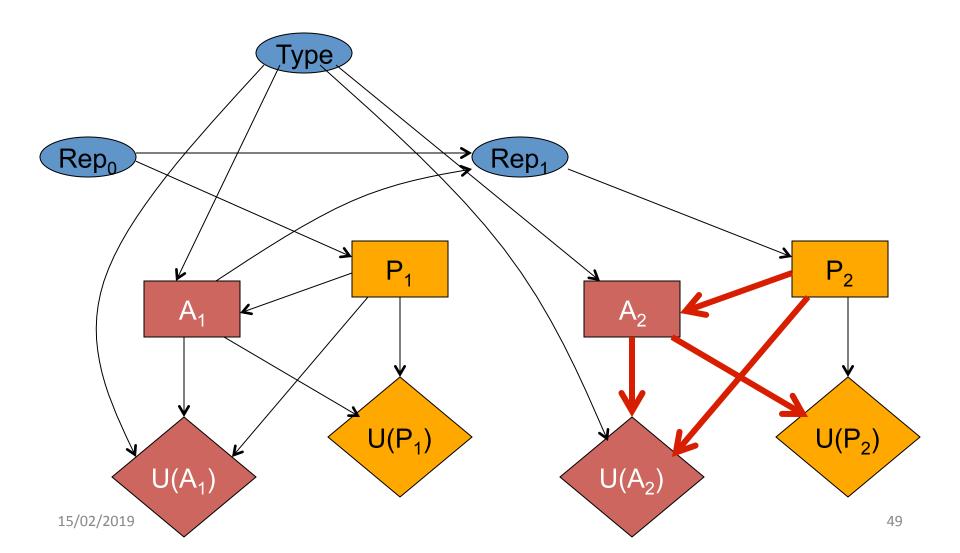
Direct Effect For All Four Decisions

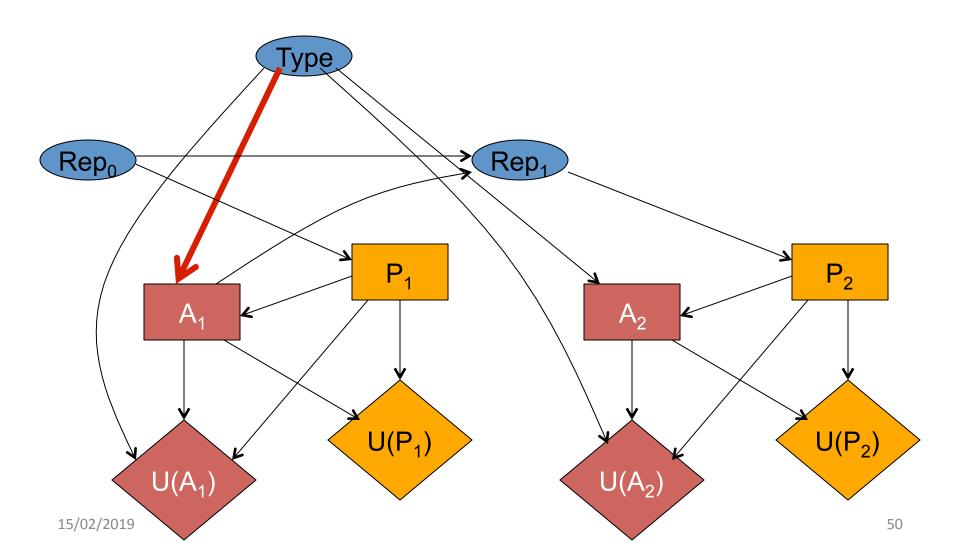


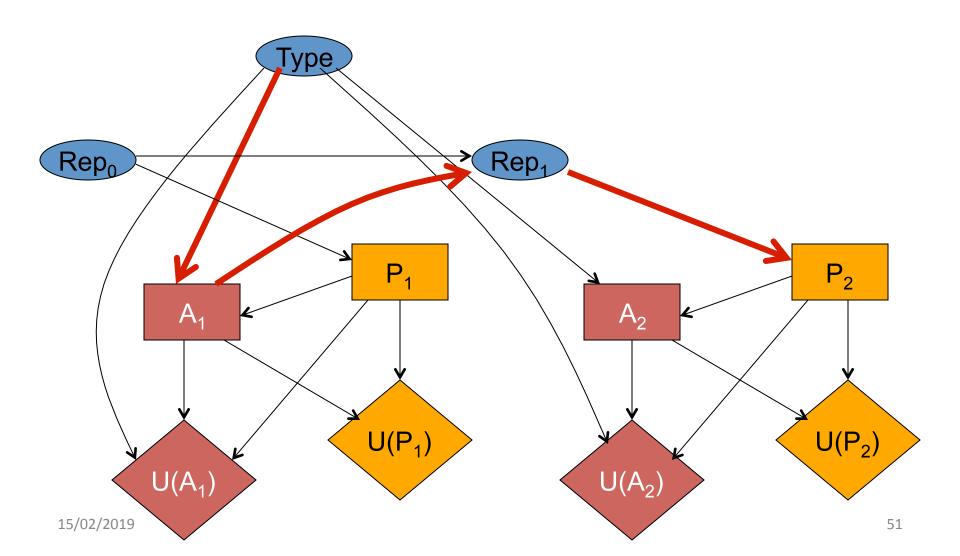
Manipulation $(P_1 \rightarrow A_1)$

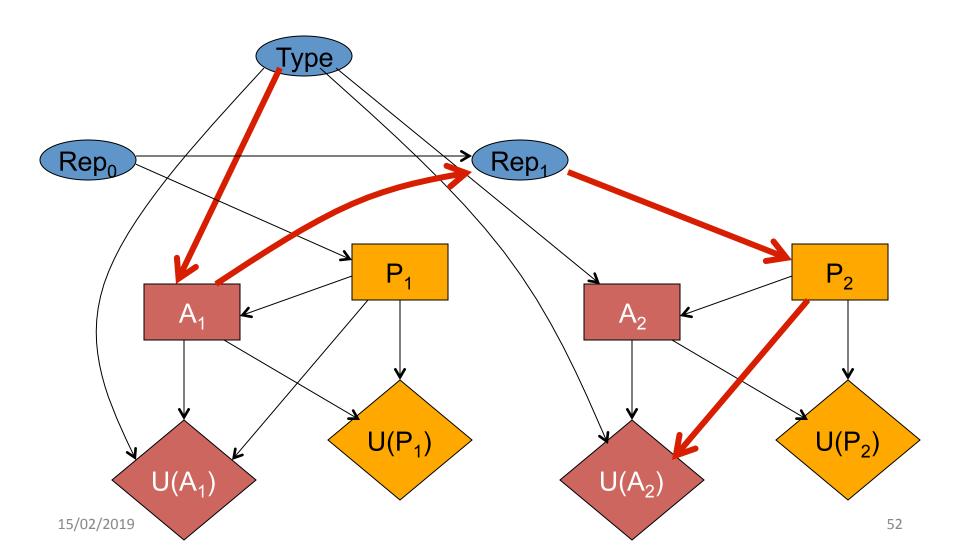


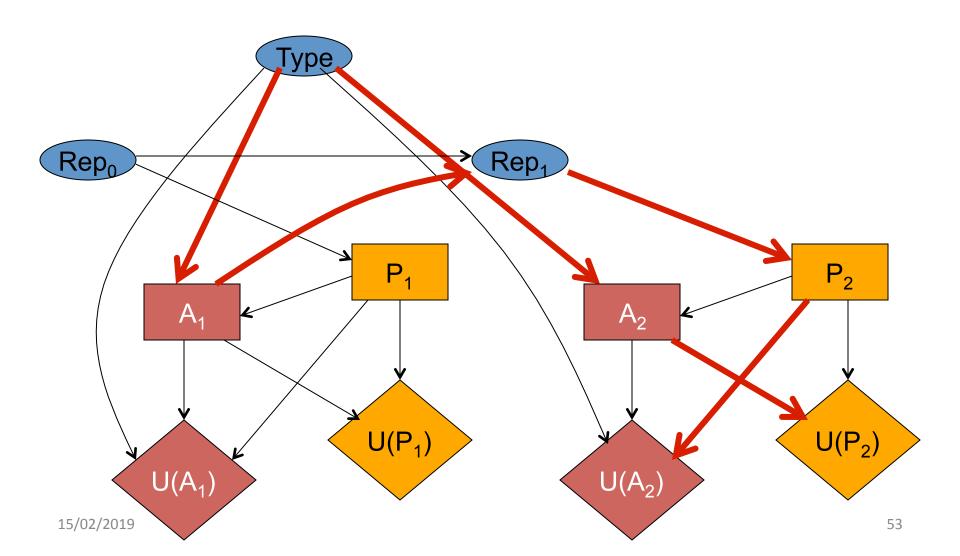
Manipulation $(P_2 \rightarrow A_2)$

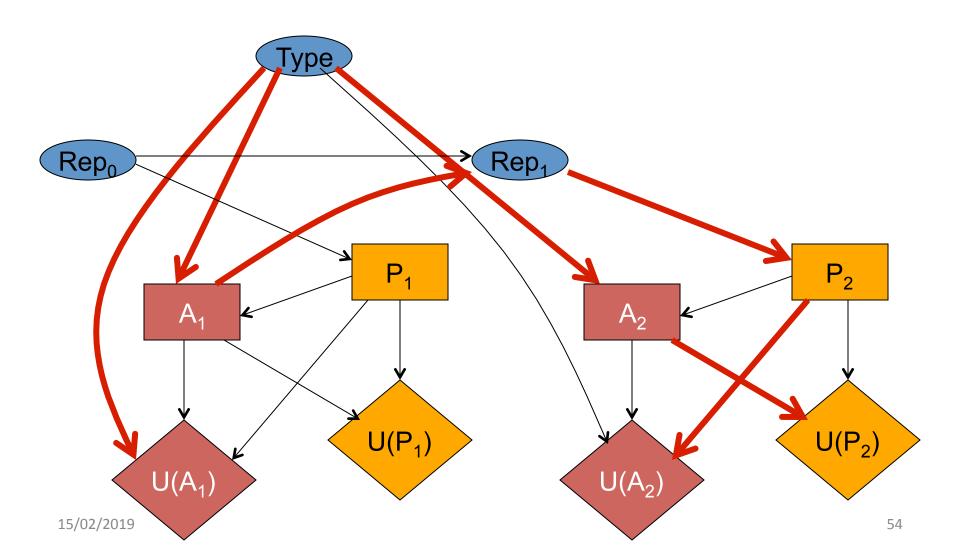




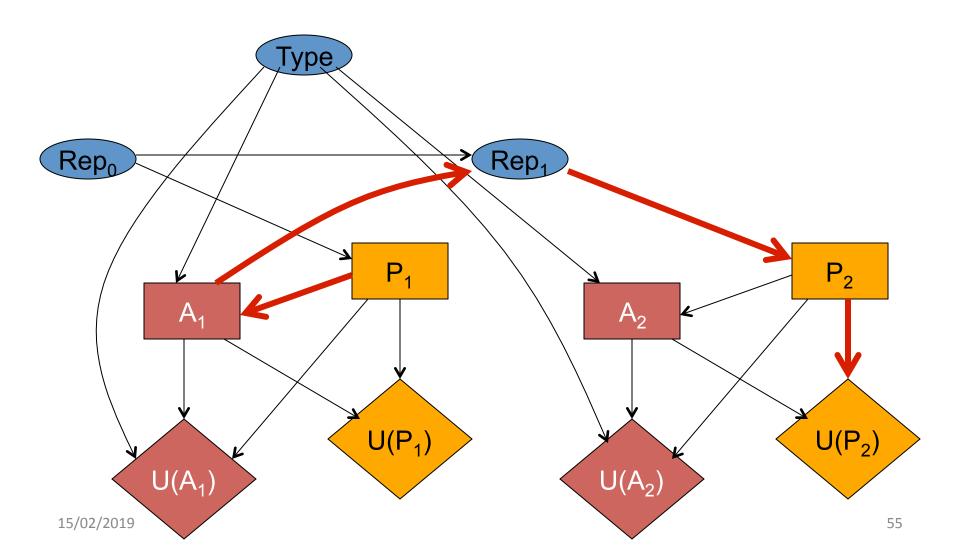




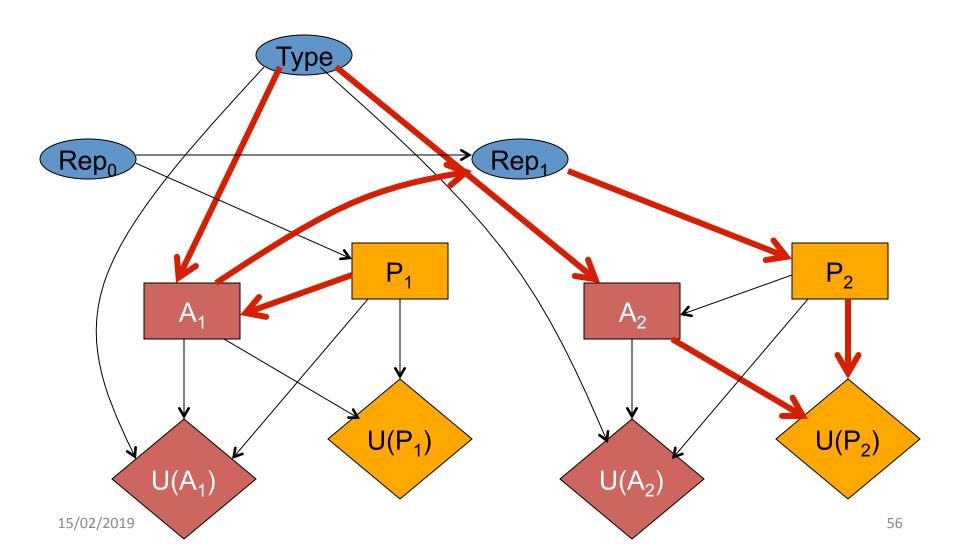




Revealing/Denying (P₁ reveals Type to P₂)



Revealing/Denying (P₁ reveals Type to P₂)



References

Some of the examples and related content are from:

- R.D. Luce, H. Raiffa, Games and Decisions, Dover 1985.
- A. Karlin, Y. Peres, Game Theory, Alive, AMS Press 2017.
- Tutorial at IJCAI 2003 by Prof Peter Stone, University of Texas

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