LECTURE 2

Dominance and Bayesian Rationality in Strategic Situations & Incomplete Information

MAIN POINTS OF PREVIOUS LECTURE

Formal Representations of a Game

- The two forms of a game
 - extensive form
 - normal form (strategic form)
 - [Sequence form]
 - [Characteristic function]

Extensive Form Games

FORMAL DEFINITION OF EXTENSIVE FORM GAME (1)

z An extensive form game is the following collection: $E = \{N; T, \prec; A, \alpha; \iota; H_i; \rho; v_i\}$

z where

- 1. *N* is the finite **set of players** (*n* is the number of players)
- 2. *T* is a **set of nodes**, that together with the binary relation \prec on T represents **precedence** and form an arborescence, i.e. <u>it</u> totally orders the predecessors of each member of T:
 - z it means that each node can be reached by one and only one path

FORMAL DEFINITION OF EXTENSIVE FORM GAME (2)

- z Using the **tree** $T_{,<}$ we can define:
 - z Predecessors of $x \in T$ $P(x) := \{t \in T | t \prec x\}$
 - z Immediate predecessor of x $p_1(x) := \max\{t \in T | t < x\}$
 - z n-th predecessor of x $p_n(x) \coloneqq p_1 p_{n-1}((x))$ with $p_0(x) = x$
 - z Immediate successors of x $S(x) \coloneqq p_1^{-1}(x)$
 - z Outcomes $Z := \{t \in T \mid S(t) = \emptyset\}$
 - z Decision nodes $X \coloneqq T \setminus Z$
 - z Initial nodes $W \coloneqq \{t \in T \mid P(t) = \emptyset\}$
 - z Terminal successors of x $Z(x) := \{z \in Z | x \prec z\}$

FORMAL DEFINITION OF EXTENSIVE FORM GAME (2)

- *z A* is the set of **actions** and α : $T \setminus W \rightarrow A$ is a **function** that labels each non-initial node with the **last action taken** to reach it.
 - z This function is assumed to be injective
 - z $\alpha(S(x))$ is the set of feasible actions at x.
- z $\iota: X \to N$ represents the rules for determining whose move it is at a decision nodes x

FORMAL DEFINITION OF EXTENSIVE FORM GAME (3)

- Information is represented by a partition *H* of X that divides the decision nodes into information sets.
 - A cell $H(x) \in H$ contains the nodes that the player cannot distinguish from x: $H(x) \subseteq X$
 - We require $x \in H(x') \Rightarrow \iota(x) = \iota(x') \& \alpha(S(x)) = \alpha(S(x'))$
- $\rho \in \Delta(W)$ is a **probability distribution** on initial nodes
- $v_i: Z \to \Re$ is the **utility** function of player i.

VERY IMPORTANT NOTION

- *Information Set*: for player *i* is a collection of decision nodes satisfying two conditions:
 - 1. player *i* has the move at every node in the collection, and
 - 2. *i* doesn't know which node in the collection has been reached.
- <u>Meaning</u>:
 - the histories/sequence of actions that lead to the nodes in an information set are not distinguishable for player *i*



Further Definitions - 1:

• <u>Strategy</u>: a <u>complete</u> plan of action (what to do in *every* contingency):

 $s^{i}: H^{i} \rightarrow A$ such that $s^{i}(h^{i}) \in A(h^{i})$ for any $h^{i} \in H^{i}$

where:

- H^i is the collection of i's information sets
- A is the set of possible actions
- $A(h^i)$ is the set of actions feasible in h^i

Further Definitions - 2:

• *Set of Strategy*: under our assumption of finiteness the **set of pure strategy** for player *i* is

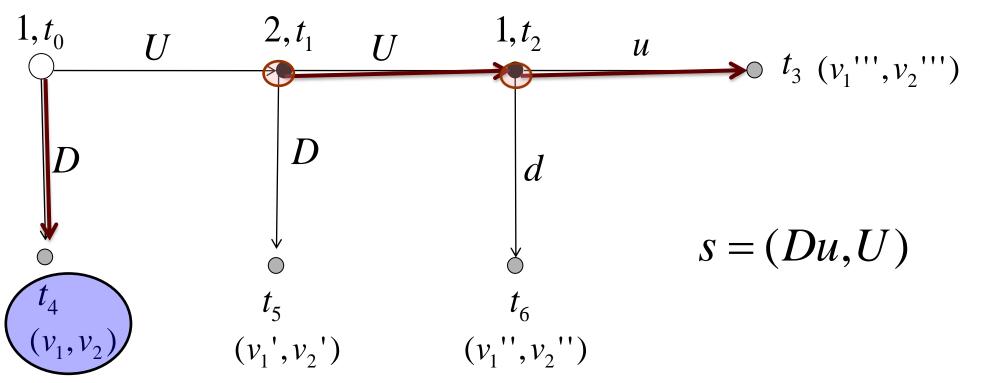
$$S_i = \prod_{h_i \in H_i} A(h_i)$$

• Similarly, the set of strategy profiles is

$$s \in S = \prod_{i \in N} S_i$$

where *s* is a vector

Example of a strategy set and of a strategy profile



$$S^{1} = \{U, D\} \times \{u, d\} = \{(U, u), (U, d), (D, u), (D, d)\}$$
$$S^{2} = \{U, D\}$$

Mixed Strategies

• *Mixed strategy*: a randomization over pure strategies:

$$\sigma^{i}: S^{i} \rightarrow [0,1]$$

where $\sigma^{i}(s^{i}) = Pr(i \text{ plays pure strategy } s^{i})$.

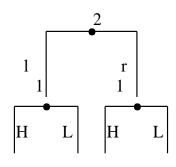
- The set of mixed strategy of player i is $\Delta(S^i)$
- Mixed Strategy Profile

 $\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \{\sigma^1, ..., \sigma^n\} \in \Delta(S^1) \times ... \times \Delta(S^n)$

Behavioral strategies

- A *behavioral strategy* specifies a probability distribution over feasible actions at each information set.
 bⁱ: Hⁱ → Δ(A) such that
 - $b^{i}(h^{i}) \in \Delta(A(h^{i}))$ for any $h^{i} \in H^{i}$

Example



 $S_1 = \{HH, HL, LH, LL\}$ $\Sigma_1 = \{ p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4 : p_i \ge 0 \& \sum_{i=1}^4 p_i = 1 \}$ $B_1 = \{p, q : p = \Pr\{H \mid l\}, q = \Pr\{H \mid r\}\}.$

PROBLEM

- Mixed and behavioral strategies are different objects
- Set of mixed strategies

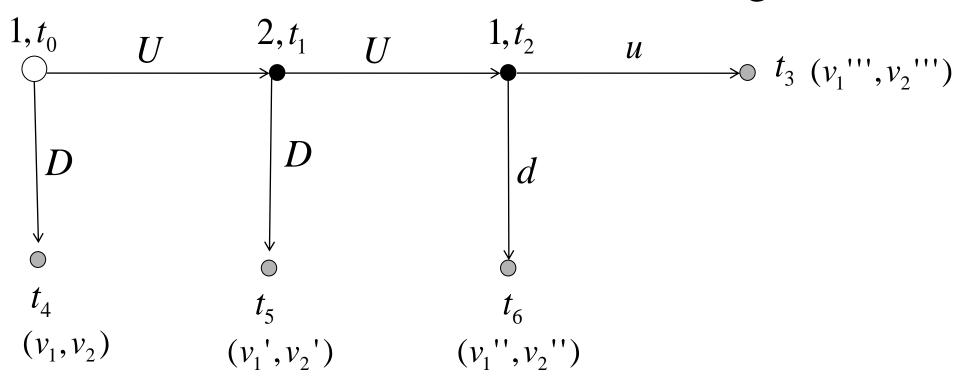
$$\Sigma_i := \Delta(S_i) = \Delta(\prod_{h \in H_i} A(h))$$

• Set of behavioral strategies

$$B_i := \prod_{h \in H_i} \Delta(A(h))$$

- Different sets, mixed seems more general
- What is the relationship between mixed and behavioral strategies? To answer we need two further notions

Mixed and behavioral strategies



	U	D	
u	$\sigma^1(\{Uu\})$	$\sigma^1(\{Du\})$	$\pi^1(\{u\} \mid t_1)$
d	$\sigma^1(\{Ud\})$	$\sigma^1(\{Dd\})$	$\pi^1(\{d\} t_1)$
	$\pi^1(\{U\} t_0)$	$\pi^1(\{D\} t_0)$	

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Expected Payoffs

• Expected payoff with mixed strategy:

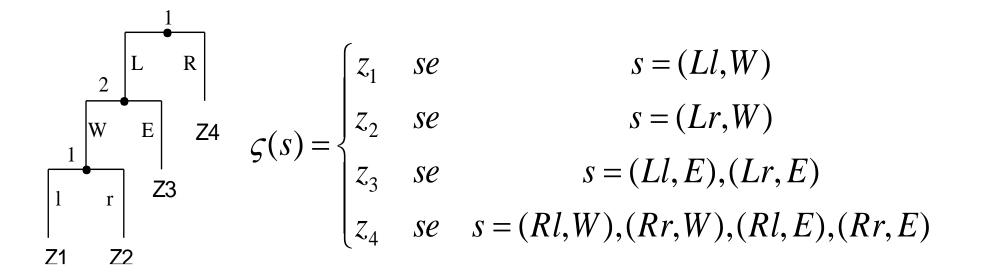
$$v_i(\sigma) \coloneqq \sum_{z \in Z} v_i(z) P(z \mid \sigma)$$

• Expected payoff with behavioral strategy:

$$v_i(b) \coloneqq \sum_{z \in Z} v_i(z) P(z \mid b)$$

• Two strategy profiles are outcome equivalent if and only if they induce the same probability on the set of final nodes.

EXAMPLE 1: outcome function

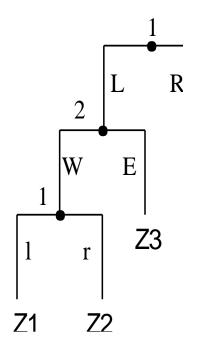


$$S_{1} = \{Ll, Lr, Rl, Rr\} \quad S_{2} = \{W, E\}$$

$$S = S_{1} \times S_{2} = \{Ll, Lr, Rl, Rr\} \times \{W, E\} =$$

$$= \{(Ll, W), (Ll, R), (Lr, W), (Lr, E), (Rl, W), (Rl, E), (Rr, W), (Rr, E)\}$$

Probabilities of outcomes using mixed strategy profiles



$$\sigma_1 = \Pr(Rl) = \Pr(Ll) = 1/2$$
$$\sigma_2 = \Pr(W) = 1$$

 $Pr(z_{1} | \sigma) = Pr(Ll) \times Pr(W) = 1/2 \times 1 = 1/2$ $Pr(z_{2} | \sigma) = Pr(Lr) \times Pr(W) = 0 \times 1 = 0$ $Pr(z_{3} | \sigma) = Pr(Ll) \times Pr(E) + Pr(Lr) \times Pr(E) = 0$ $Pr(z_{4} | \sigma) = Pr(Rl) \times Pr(W) + Pr(Rr) \times Pr(W) + Pr(Rl) \times Pr(E) = 1/2.$

Probabilities of outcomes using behavioral strategy profiles

R

2

r

72

71

E

Ζ3

$$\pi^{1} = \begin{cases} \Pr(L) = 1/2 \\ \Pr(l) = 1/2 \end{cases} \quad \pi^{2} = \Pr(W) = 1 \end{cases}$$

 $Pr(z_1 | b) = Pr(L) \times Pr(W) \times Pr(l) = 1/4$ $Pr(z_2 | b) = Pr(L) \times Pr(W) \times Pr(r) = 1/4$ $Pr(z_3 | b) = Pr(L) \times Pr(E) = 0$ $Pr(z_4 | b) = Pr(R) = 1/2.$

Relationship between mixed and behavioral strategies

• Clearly mixed strategies are more general than behavioral strategies because allow "correlation" among information sets in the sense of **probabilities of vectors** instead of **vectors of probabilities**:

$$\Sigma_i = \Delta \left(\prod_{h_i \in H_i} A(h_i) \right) \text{ versus} \Pi_i = \prod_{h_i \in H_i} \Delta \left(A(h_i) \right)$$

• Thus it is not surprising that for any behavioral strategy profile there exists an **outcome equivalent** mixed strategy profile:

$$\sigma_i(s_i)[b] \coloneqq \underset{h \in H_i}{\times} b_i[h](s_i(h)).$$

• What about the other way ?

KUHN'S THEOREM

For any mixed strategy profile in a finite extensive game with <u>perfect recall</u> there is an outcome-equivalent behavioral strategy profile.

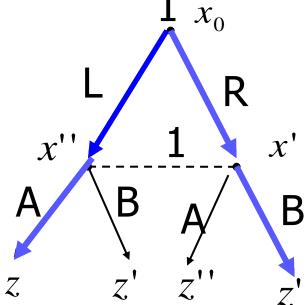
Game with imperfect recall where there exists a mixed strategy not equivalent to a behavioral

$$\sigma_1 = \Pr(LA) = \Pr(RB) = 1/2$$

Probabilities of outcomesusing σ_1

 $x' = \frac{\Pr(z \mid \sigma_1) = \Pr(LA) = 1/2}{\Pr(z' \mid \sigma_1) = \Pr(RA) = 0} = \frac{\Pr(z' \mid \sigma_1) = \Pr(RB) = 0}{\Pr(z'' \mid \sigma_1) = \Pr(RB) = 1/2}$

Probabilities of outcomesusing behavioral strategies $Pr(z \mid \pi_1) = \pi_1(L) \times \pi_1(A) = 1/2 \Rightarrow \pi_1(L) > 0 \& \pi_1(A) > 0$ $Pr(z'\mid \pi_1) = \pi_1(L) \times \pi_1(B) = 0 \Rightarrow \pi_1(L) = 0 \text{ or } \pi_1(B) = 0$ $Pr(z''\mid \pi_1) = \pi_1(R) \times \pi_1(A) = 0 \Rightarrow \pi_1(R) = 0 \text{ or } \pi_1(A) = 0$ $Pr(z''\mid \pi_1) = \pi_1(R) \times \pi_1(B) = 1/2 \Rightarrow \pi_1(R) > 0 \& \pi_1(B) > 0$ $Contraddiction: \neg \exists \pi_1 \text{ satisfying such conditions}$



Strategic Form Games

Alternative representation of a game

- The extensive game is a detailed and thus complex representation of a strategic situation
- A simpler but more concise representation of strategic situations is the STRATEGIC FORM or NORMAL FORM

FORMAL DEFINITION OF STRATEGIC FORM GAME

- 1. Set of players $N = \{1,...,n\}$
- 2. Set of strategies S_i
- 3. payoff function

•
$$u_i(s): S \rightarrow \Re$$
,

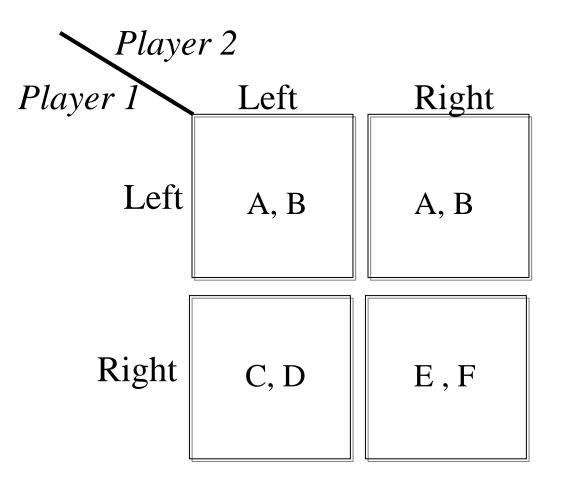
• which maps strategy profiles $s = (s_1, ..., s_n) \in S = S_1 \times ... \times S_n$ into real numbers

into real numbers

• game in normal form

 $\Gamma = \{N, S_1, ..., S_n, u_1, ..., u_n\}$

A Simple Normal Form Game in Matrix Form

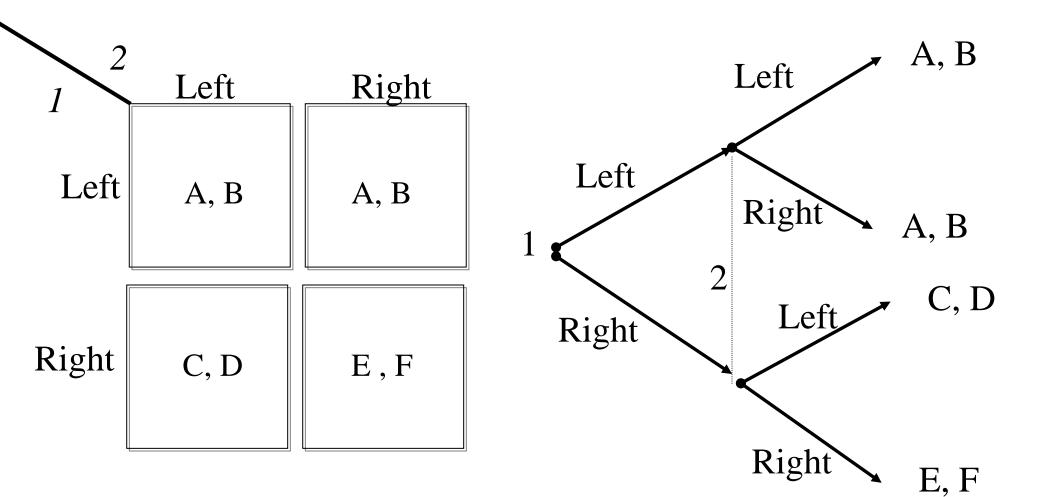


PROBLEM

• WHAT IS THE RELATION BETWEEN EXTENSIVE FORM AND STRATEGIC FORM GAMES ?

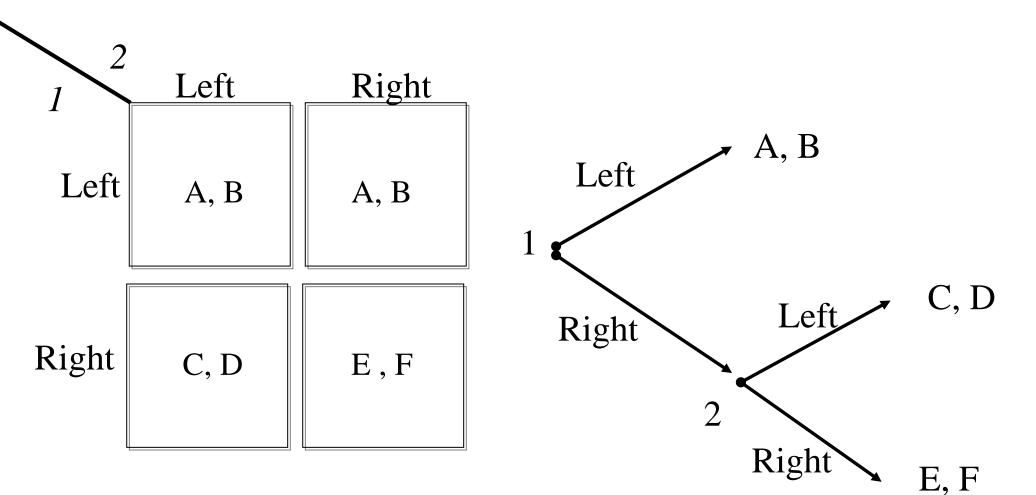
From NFG to EFG

Game 1 has the following EFG representation:



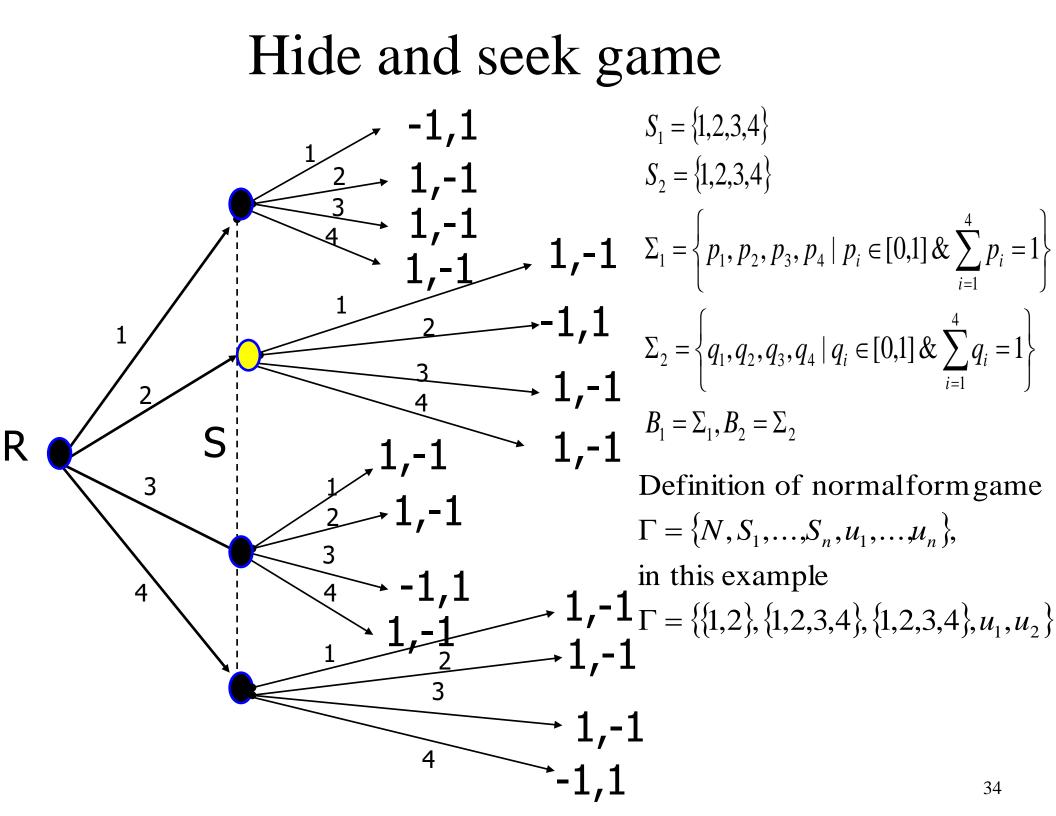
From NFG to EFG

Also the following is an EFG representation of game 1:



From EFG to NFG

- Use
 - 1. the previous definition of strategies to construct the set of pure strategies,
 - 2. the payoff functions are obtained combining the outcome function with v_i
 - $u_i = v_i \bullet \varsigma. \qquad \text{In particular}$ $u_i(\sigma) = \sum_{s \in S} v_i(\varsigma(s)) \prod_{j=1}^n \sigma_j(s_j)$



Hide & seek game in matrix form

R R	1	2	3	4
1	(-1, 1)	(1, -1)	(1, -1)	(1, -1)
2	(1, -1)	(-1, 1)	(1, -1)	(1, -1)
3	(1, -1)	(1, -1)	(-1, 1)	(1, -1)
4	(1, -1)	(1, -1)	(1, -1)	(-1, 1)

Example 2: trade

$$S_{1} = \{p_{L}, p_{H}\}$$

$$S_{2} = \{YY, YN, NY, NN\}$$

$$\Sigma_{1} = \left\{q_{1}, q_{2} \mid q_{i} \in [0,1] \& \sum_{i=1}^{2} q_{i} = 1\right\}$$

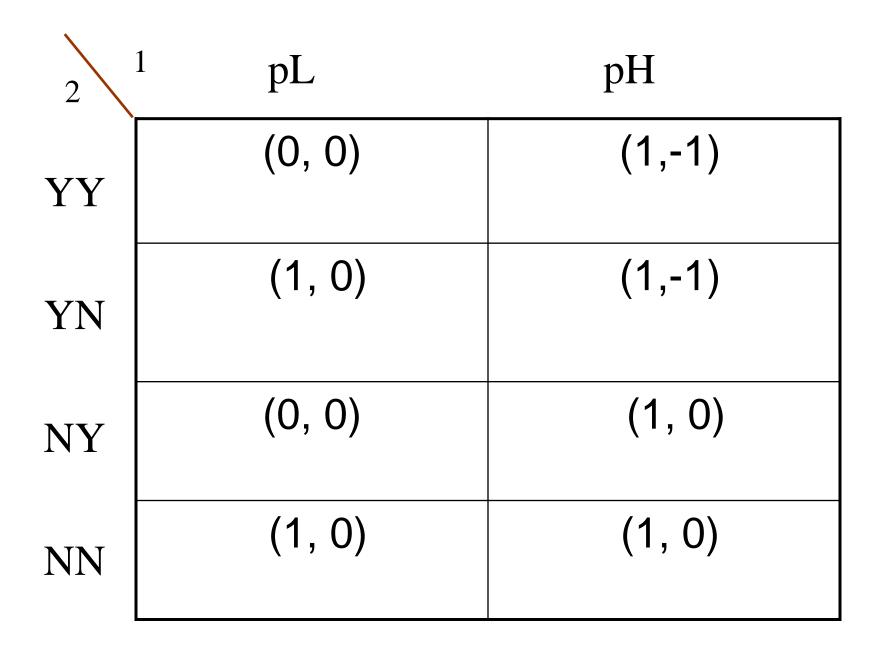
$$\sum_{i=1}^{PH} \sum_{i=1}^{2} (1, -1) \sum_{i=1}^{2} q_{i} = 1 = 1$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{PH} \sum_{i=1}^{2} (1, -1) \sum_{i=1}^{2} q_{i} = 1$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{2} p_{i} = 1$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{2} p$$

The normal form game as a bi-matrix

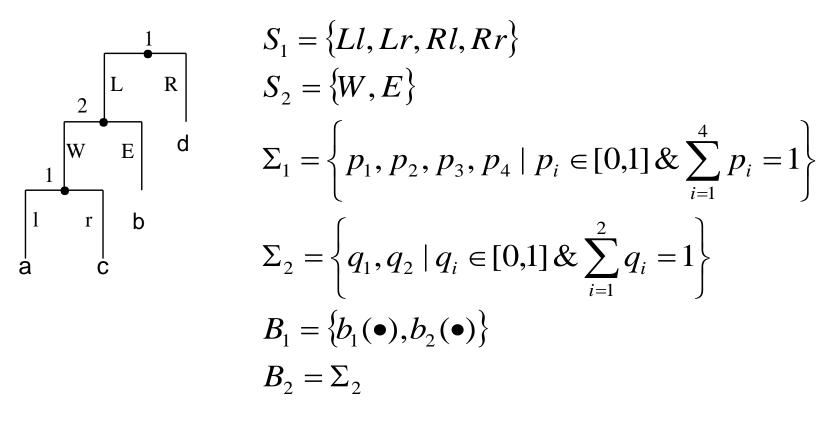


IMPORTANT REMARK

- Usually the strategic game obtained from an extensive game has "equivalent" strategies for some player.
- The strategies are "<u>equivalent</u>" if they give the same payoffs for all possible opponents' behavior.
- The game obtained reducing to one all equivalent strategies is called

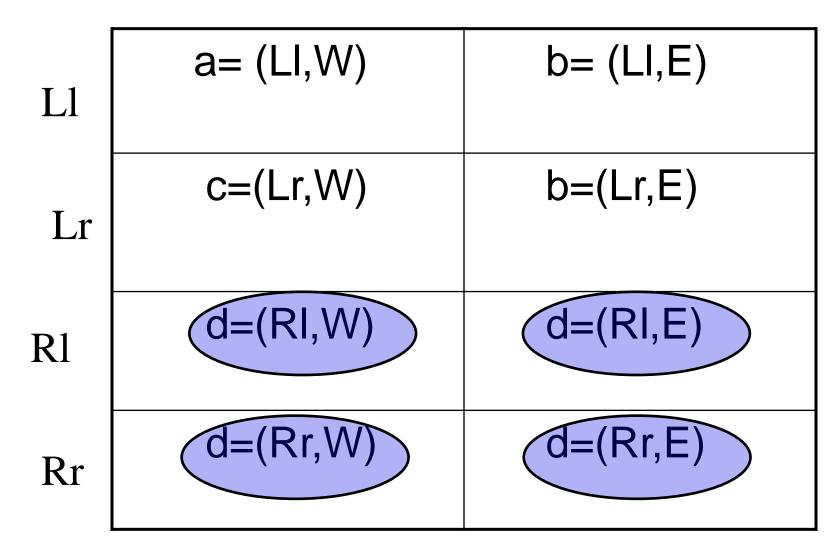
reduced strategic form game.

EXAMPLE 1



Definition of normal form game $\Gamma = \{N, S_1, \dots, S_n, u_1, \dots, u_n\},$ in this example $\Gamma = \{\{1, 2\}, \{Ll, Lr, Rl, Rr\}, \{W, E\}, u_1, u_2\}_{39}$

The normal form game as a matrix W E



The reduced strategic form game W E a=(LI,W)b=(LI,E)Ll c=(Lr,W)b=(Lr,E)Lr d=(R,W)d=(R,E)R

RELATIONS BETWEEN EXTENSIVE AND STRATEGIC FORM GAMES

- To each strategic game, we can associate different extensive games, therefore
- Different extensive form may give rise to the same strategic form
- To each extensive game, we can associate a unique strategic game

PROBLEM WHAT IS THE RIGHT MODEL TO USE? EXTENSIVE FORM GAMES OR STRATEGIC FORM GAMES?

TRIVIAL ANSWER

EXTENSIVE FORM GAMES ARE A DETAILLED DESCRIPTION STRATEGIC FORM GAMES ARE A CONCISE DESCRIPTION

FIRST PROBLEM ARE EXTENSIVE FORM GAMES TOO DETAILLED?

SECOND PROBLEM

ARE STRATEGIC FORM GAMES TOO CONCISE?

CONCLUSION ON EFGs VERSUS NFGs

• Normal form games provides enough information

• but

• they are less intuitive on the sequentiality of behaviour,

SO

- to discuss dynamic problems EFGs are more useful even if <u>all</u> considerations can be translated in concepts related to NFGs
- <u>Be aware of the problems with the reduced</u> <u>strategic form</u>

NEW CONCEPTS TO MODEL STRATEGIC INTERACTION

Game's solution

WHAT IS A GAME'S SOLUTION?

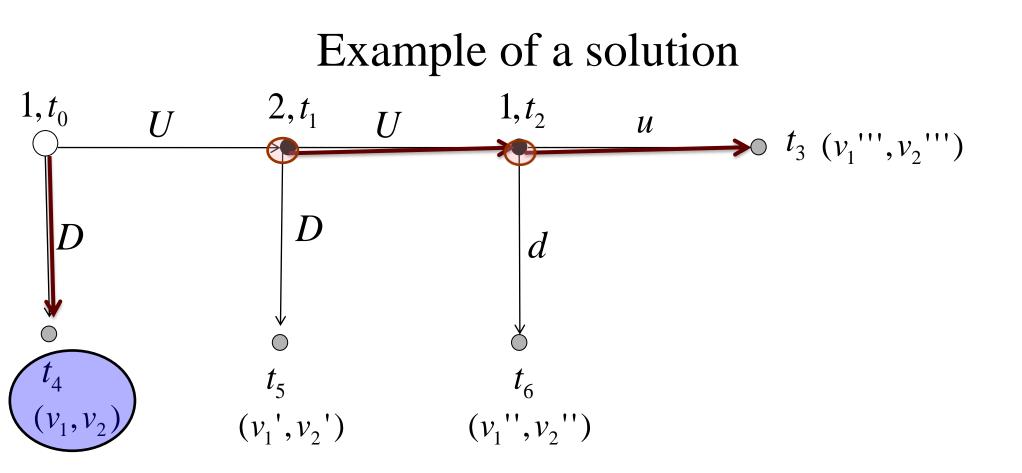
- If we want to forecast the likely outcome of a strategic situation, we need to forecast players' behavior, i.e. we need a solution for games.
- A solution is a pattern of players' behavior satisfying some kind of "plausibility" conditions

• Questions:

- 1. What is a pattern of players' behavior?
- 2. What are our plausibility conditions

• Answers:

- 1. <u>A strategy profile</u>
- 2. Rational behavior



Suppose the solution is $s^* = (Du, U)$, then the likely outcome is t_4

Example of a solution in a strategic form game

		2	
		U	D
1	Uu	(v_1''', v_2''')	(v_1', v_2')
	Ud	(v_1'', v_2'')	(v_1', v_2')
	Du	(v_1, v_2)	(v_1, v_2)
	Dd	(v_1, v_2)	(v_1, v_2)

If the solution is $s^* = (Du, U)$, then the likely outcome is (Du, U)

How to define a game's solution? RATIONALITY

- Problem: how to define players' rationality in strategic situations?
- Rational behavior in strategic contexts depends on others' expected behavior
 - Players are **rational and intelligent**
- The problem is to formalize rationality AND intelligence
 - Let we start assuming **<u>rationality</u>**

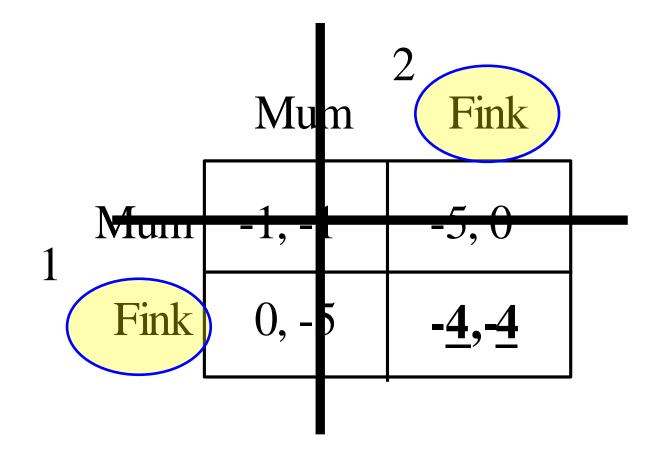
SOLUTION IN STRATEGIC FORM GAMES

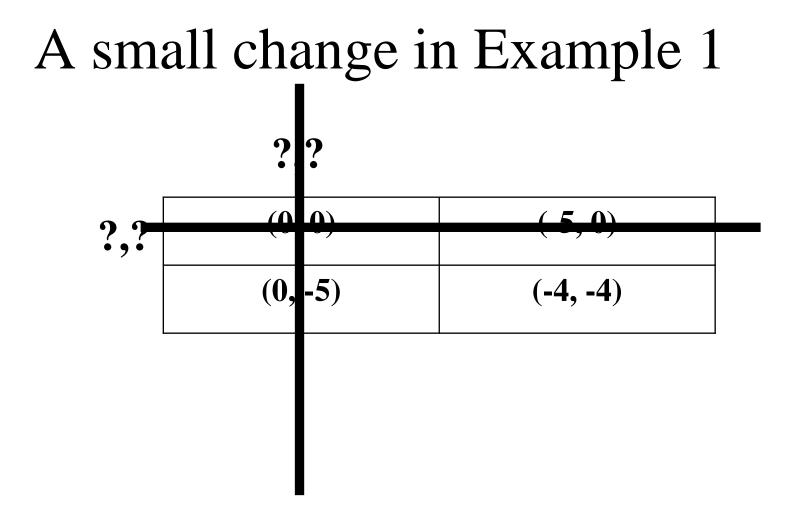
Dominance as solution criterion: *rationality as avoidance of bad choices*

Example 1: Prisoner's Dilemma

- Two suspects are arrested and charged with a crime.
- They are held in separate cells.
- The DA separately offers each the chance to turn state's evidence.
- A jail sentence of x years has utility –x.

Example 1 in Normal Form





Elimination of dominated strategies

- *Dominated Strategy*:
 - x strictly dominates y if the player gets a higher payoff from playing x than playing y, *regardless* of what the other players do.
 - x weakly dominates y if the player's payoff is at least as great by playing x than y, *regardless* of what the other players do.

Example 2: the role of mixed strategies

NB: in the definition of dominance, we can/must use mixed strategies:

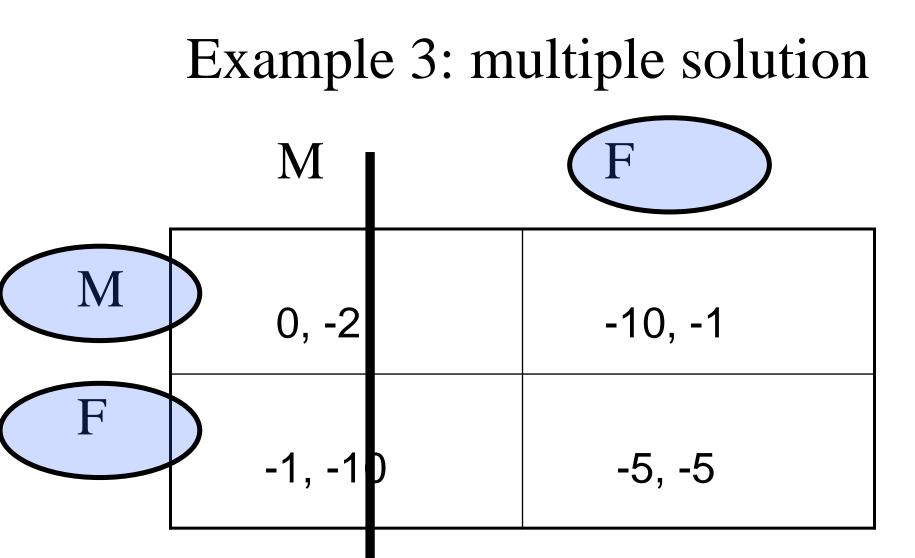
L R U 10, 1 0, 4 Ι 4, Z 4, J D 10, 2 0, 5

Strict Dominance

- **Def:** s_i is strictly dominated for player *i* iff $\exists \sigma_i \in \Sigma_i \quad \forall s_{-i} \in S_{-i} \quad u_i(\sigma_i, s_{-i}) > u_i(s_i, s_{-i})$
- **Def:** the set of pure strategies strictly undominated for player *i* is

$$S_i^1 = \left\{ s_i \in S_i \mid \neg \exists \sigma_i \in \Sigma_i \quad \forall s_{-i} \in S_{-i} \quad u_i(\sigma_i, s_{-i}) > u_i(s_i, s_{-i}) \right\}$$

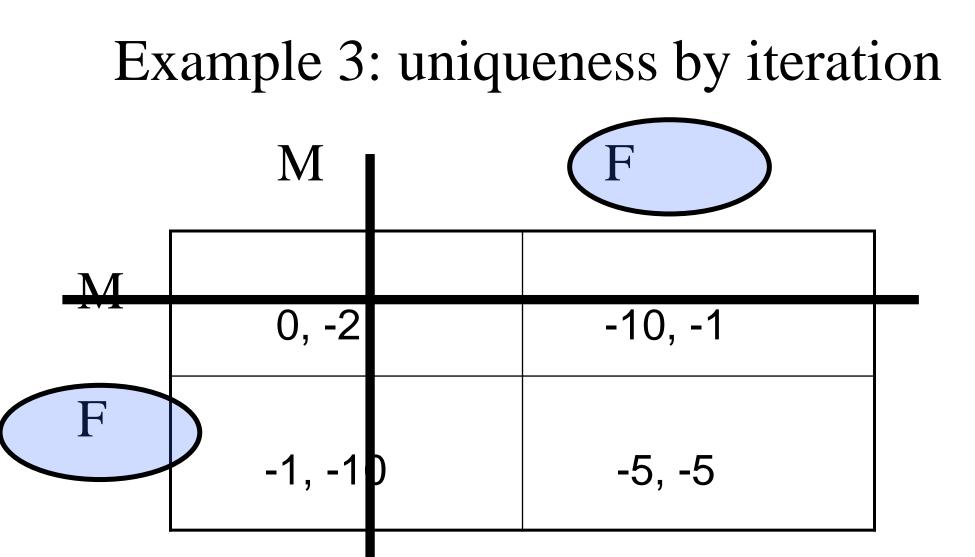
- Remarks:
 - 1. It is the same mixed strategy that should be considered wrt all opponents' strategies
 - 2. It is not a limitation to consider opponents' pure strategies since expected utility is linear in probabilities and thus can not increase its value
 - 3. For the same reason a mixed strategy that gives strictly positive probability to a dominated pure strategy is dominated, even if there exists dominated mixed strategy that do not give positive probability to dominated pure strategies



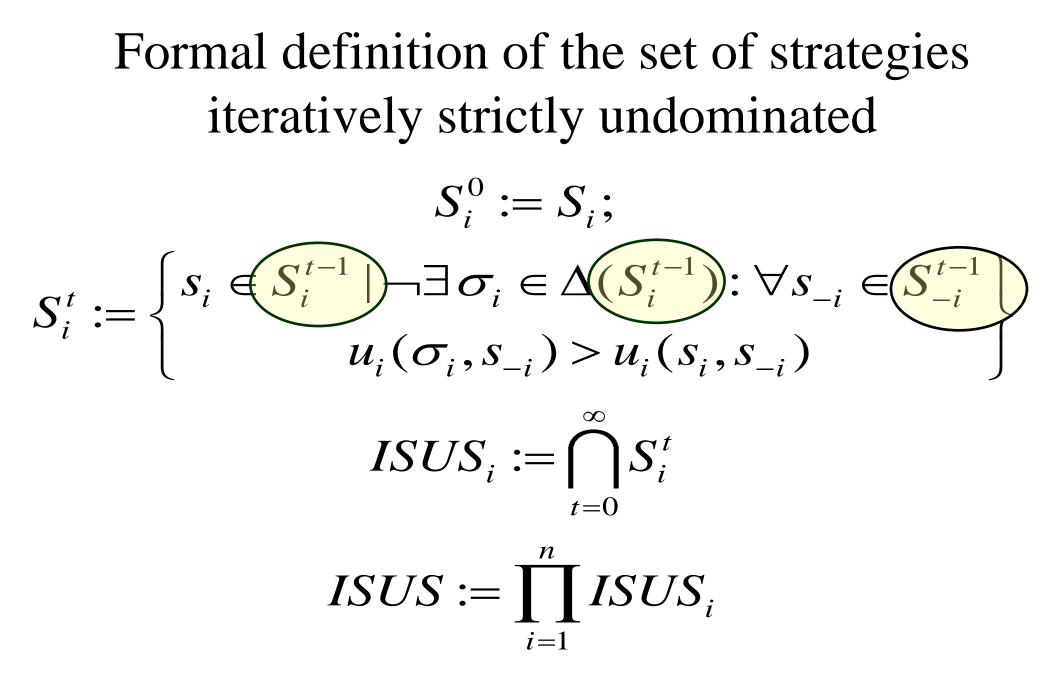
Solution by deletion of strictly dominated strategies: $\{M, F\} \times \{F\}$, i.e. there are two possible solutions: (M, F) and (F,F).

But:

- If **players are intelligent**, then they must anticipate opponents' rational behavior
- what is the implication of <u>assuming intelligence</u> for the elimination of dominated strategies?
- Iterative solutions:
 - iterative deletion of dominated strategies
- In example 3 if player 1 is intelligent and thus anticipates the opponent's rational behavior, the solution is {F} x {F}.



Solution by **iterated** deletion of strictly dominated strategies: $\{F\} \ge \{F\}$.



Formal definition of ISUS applied to game 3 - 1

$$S_{1}(0) \coloneqq S_{1} = \{M, F\}; S_{2}(0) \coloneqq S_{2} = \{M, F\}$$
$$S_{1}(1) \coloneqq \{S_{1} \in S_{1}(1-1) = \{M, F\} | \neg \exists \sigma_{1} \in \Delta(S_{1}(1-1)) = \Delta(\{M, F\}): \\ u_{1}(\sigma_{1}, s_{2}) > u_{1}(s_{1}, s_{2}) \forall s_{2} \in S_{2}(1-1) = \{M, F\} \} = \{M, F\}$$

since
$$u_1(M,M) = 0 > u_1(F,M) = -1 \& u_1(M,F) = -10 < u_1(F,F) = -5$$

$$S_2(1) \coloneqq \begin{cases} s_2 \in S_2(1-1) = \{M,F\} | \neg \exists \sigma_2 \in \Delta(S_2(1-1)) = \Delta(\{M,F\}) : \\ u_2(s_1,\sigma_2) > u_2(s_1,s_2) \forall s_1 \in S_1(1-1) = \{M,F\} \end{cases} = \{F\}$$

since $u_2(M,M) = -2 < u_2(M,F) = -1 \& u_2(F,M) = -10 < u_2(F,F) = -5$

Formal definition of ISUS applied to game 3 - 2

$$S_{1}(2) \coloneqq \begin{cases} s_{1} \in S_{1}(2-1) = \{M, F\} | \neg \exists \sigma_{1} \in \Delta(S_{1}(2-1)) = \Delta(\{M, F\}) : \\ u_{1}(\sigma_{1}, s_{2}) > u_{1}(s_{1}, s_{2}) \forall s_{2} \in S_{2}(2-1) = \{F\} \end{cases} = \{F\} \\ \text{since } u_{1}(M, F) = -10 < u_{1}(F, F) = -5 \\ S_{2}(2) \coloneqq \begin{cases} s_{2} \in S_{2}(2-1) = \{F\} | \neg \exists \sigma_{2} \in \Delta(S_{2}(2-1)) = \Delta(\{F\}) : \\ u_{2}(s_{1}, \sigma_{2}) > u_{2}(s_{1}, s_{2}) \forall s_{1} \in S_{1}(2-1) = \{M, F\} \end{cases} = \{F\}$$

since player 2 conchooseonly F

Formal definition of ISUS applied to
game 3 - 3

$$S_1(3) \coloneqq \begin{cases} s_1 \in S_1(3-1) = \{F\} \mid \neg \exists \sigma_1 \in \Delta(S_1(3-1)) = \Delta(\{F\}) \colon \\ u_1(\sigma_1, s_2) > u_1(s_1, s_2) \forall s_2 \in S_2(3-1) = \{F\} \end{cases} = \{F\}$$

since player 1 conchooseonly F
 $S_2(3) \coloneqq \begin{cases} s_2 \in S_2(3-1) = \{F\} \mid \neg \exists \sigma_2 \in \Delta(S_2(3-1)) = \Delta(\{F\}) \colon \\ u_2(s_1, \sigma_2) > u_2(s_1, s_2) \forall s_1 \in S_1(3-1) = \{F\} \end{cases} = \{F\}$

since player 2 conchooseonly F

. . .

$$S_{1}^{\infty} \coloneqq \bigcap_{t=0}^{\infty} S_{1}(t) = \{M, F\} \cap \{M, F\} \cap \{F\} \cap \{F\} \cap \dots = \{F\}$$
$$S_{2}^{\infty} \coloneqq \bigcap_{t=0}^{\infty} S_{2}(t) = \{M, F\} \cap \{F\} \cap \{F\} \cap \{F\} \cap \dots = \{F\}$$
$$S^{\infty} \coloneqq \prod_{i=1}^{n} S_{i}^{\infty} = \{F\} \times \{F\} = \{F, F\}.$$

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Iterated Strictly Undominated strategies

• Remarks:

- 1. $S_i^{\infty} \neq \phi$ since it is the infinite intersection of a decreasing sequence of non empty compact sets
- In the definition, at each stage we consider the simultaneous deletion of all strictly dominated strategies, but it is possible to prove that the order of deletion does not matter

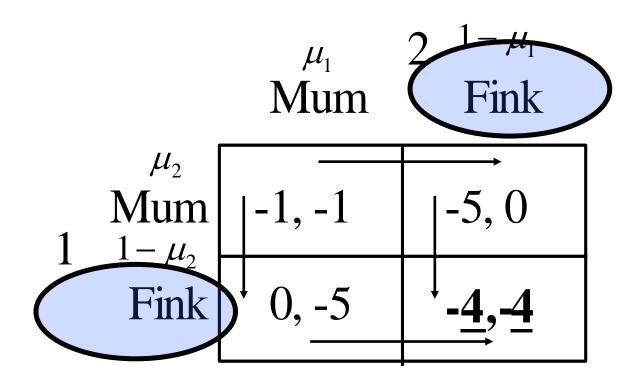
Bayesian rationality and rationalizability *rationality as search for possible good choices* An alternative notion of solution: Bayesian rationality

• A strategy is **Bayesian rational** iff it maximizes expected utility with respect to some beliefs on opponents' behavior:

$$s_{i} \in BR_{i}$$

if and only if
$$\exists \mu_{i} \in \Delta(S_{-i}) : \forall s'_{i} \in S_{i}$$
$$u_{i}(s_{i}, \mu_{i}) \ge u_{i}(s'_{i}, \mu_{i})$$

Example 1 again

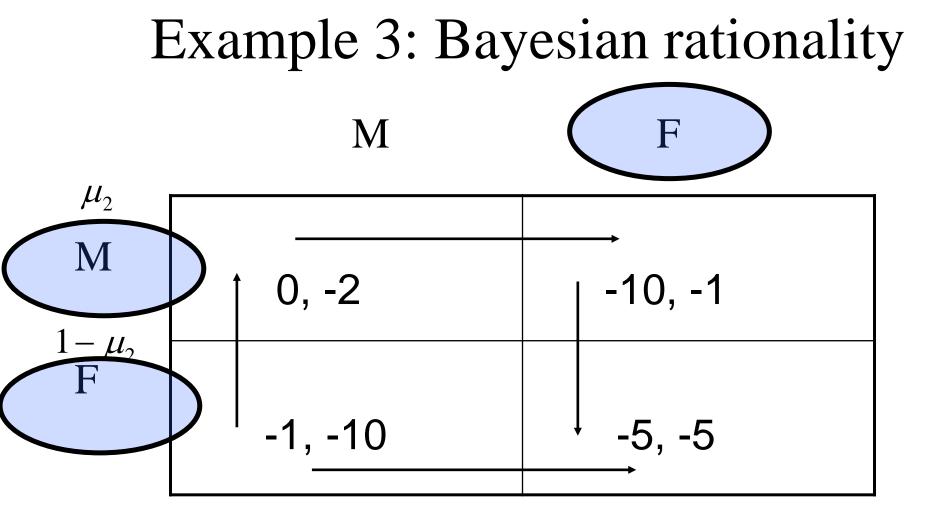


$$u_i(F,\mu_i) \ge u_i(M,\mu_i) \Leftrightarrow$$

$$0\mu_i - 4(1-\mu_i) \ge -1\mu_i - 5(1-\mu_i)$$

Solution of the Prisoner's Dilemma using Bayesian Rationality

 $BR_1 = \{Fink\}$ since $u_1(F, \mu_1) = 0 \times \Pr(M) - 4 \times \Pr(F)$ $u_1(M, \mu_1) = -1 \times \Pr(M) - 5 \times \Pr(F)$ Therefore $\forall \mu_1 \in \Delta(\{M, L\})$ $u_1(F, \mu_1) \ge u_1(M, \mu_1)$, i.e. there exists no conjecture μ_1 such that player 1 maximizes her expected utility playing M. Similarly for player 2 $BR_2 = \{Fink\}$. 71



Solution by Bayesian Rationality: {M, F} x {F}, i.e. there are two possible outcomes: (M, F) and (F,F).

$$u_{2}(F, \mu_{2}) \ge u_{2}(M, \mu_{2}) \Leftrightarrow$$

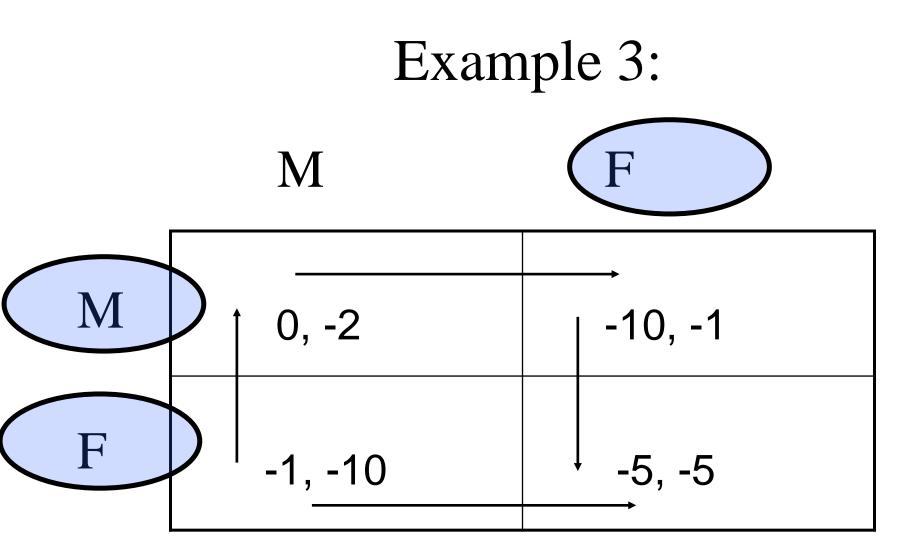
-1 $\mu_{2} - 5(1 - \mu_{2}) \ge -2\mu_{2} - 10(1 - \mu_{2})$
satisfied $\forall \mu_{2} \in \Delta(S_{1}) = \Delta(\{M, F\})$

Solution of Example using Bayesian Rationality

 $BR_1 = \{M, F\}$ since $u_1(M, M) = 0 > u_1(F, M) = 1,$ therefore $\exists \mu_1 \in \Delta(\{M, L\})$ such that $M \in BR_1$ $u_1(M, F) = -10 < u_1(F, F) = -5,$ therefore $\exists \mu_1 \in \Delta(\{M, L\})$ such that $F \in BR_1$ $BR_2 = \{F\}$ since $\forall \mu_2 \in \Delta(\{M, L\}) \ u_2(F, \mu_2) \ge u_2(M, \mu_2),$ i.e. there exists no conjecture μ_2 , such that player 2 maximizes her expected utility playing M.

But:

- If **players are intelligent**, then they must anticipate opponents' rational behavior
- what is the implication of <u>assuming intelligence</u> for Bayesian rationality?
- Iterative solutions: – rationalizability
- In example 3 if player 1 is intelligent and thus anticipates the opponent's rational behavior, the solution is {F} x {F}.



Solution by iterated Bayesian Rationality: {F} x {F}.

Formal definition of
Rationalizability
$$R_{i}(1) \coloneqq S_{i};$$

$$R_{i}(t) \coloneqq \begin{cases} s_{i} \in R_{i}(t-1) | \exists \mu_{i} \in \Delta(R_{-i}(t-1)); \\ u_{i}(s_{i}, \mu_{i}) \ge u_{i}(s_{i}', \mu_{i}) \forall s_{i}' \in R_{i}(t-1) \end{cases}$$

$$R_{i} \coloneqq \bigcap_{t=1}^{\infty} R_{i}(t)$$

$$R \coloneqq \prod_{i=1}^{n} R_{i}$$

$$N.B.: \quad R_{i}(2) \equiv BR_{i}$$
₇₆

Formal definition of Rationalizability applied to game 3-1

$$R_{1}(1) \coloneqq S_{1} = \{M, F\}; R_{2}(1) \coloneqq S_{2} = \{M, F\}$$

$$R_{1}(2) \coloneqq \{S_{1} \in R_{1}(2-1) = \{M, F\} \mid \exists \mu_{1} \in \Delta(R_{2}(2-1)) = \Delta(\{M, F\}) \colon \{u_{1}(s_{1}, \mu_{1}) \ge u_{1}(s_{1}', \mu_{1}) \forall s_{1}' \in R_{1}(2-1) = \{M, F\}$$

since $u_1(M, M) = 0 \ge u_1(F, M) = -1 \& u_1(F, F) = -5 \ge u_1(M, F) = -10$ $R_2(2) \coloneqq \begin{cases} s_2 \in R_2(2-1) = \{M, F\} | \exists \mu_2 \in \Delta(R_1(2-1)) = \Delta(\{M, F\})) \\ u_2(s_2, \mu_2) \ge u_2(s_2', \mu_2) \forall s_2' \in R_2(2-1) = \{M, F\} \end{cases} = \{F\}$

since $u_2(M, F) = -1 \ge u_2(M, M) = -2 \& u_2(F, F) = -5 \ge u_2(F, M) = -10$

Formal definition of Rationalizability applied to game 3 -2

$$R_{1}(3) \coloneqq \begin{cases} s_{1} \in R_{1}(3-1) = \{M, F\} | \exists \mu_{1} \in \Delta(R_{2}(3-1)) = \Delta(\{F\}) :\\ u_{1}(s_{1}, \mu_{1}) \ge u_{1}(s_{1}', \mu_{1}) \forall s_{1}' \in R_{1}(3-1) = \{M, F\} \end{cases} = \{F\} \\ \text{since } u_{1}(F, F) = -5 \ge u_{1}(M, F) = -10 \\ R_{2}(3) \coloneqq \begin{cases} s_{2} \in R_{2}(3-1) = \{F\} | \exists \mu_{2} \in \Delta(R_{1}(3-1)) = \Delta(\{M, F\}) :\\ u_{2}(s_{2}, \mu_{2}) \ge u_{2}(s_{2}', \mu_{2}) \forall s_{2}' \in R_{2}(3-1) = \{F\} \end{cases} = \{F\} \\ \text{since player 2 con chooseonly } F \end{cases}$$

Formal definition of Rationalizability applied to game 3 - 3

 $R_{1}(4) \coloneqq \begin{cases} s_{1} \in R_{1}(4-1) = \{F\} \mid \exists \mu_{1} \in \Delta(R_{2}(4-1)) = \Delta(\{F\}) : \\ u_{1}(s_{1}, \mu_{1}) \ge u_{1}(s_{1}', \mu_{1}) \forall s_{1}' \in R_{1}(4-1) = \{F\} \end{cases} = \{F\}$

since player 1 conchooseonly F

$$R_{2}(4) \coloneqq \begin{cases} s_{2} \in R_{2}(4-1) = \{F\} \mid \exists \mu_{2} \in \Delta(R_{1}(4-1)) = \Delta(\{F\}): \\ u_{2}(s_{2}, \mu_{2}) \ge u_{2}(s_{2}', \mu_{2}) \forall s_{2}' \in R_{2}(4-1) = \{F\} \end{cases} = \{F\}$$

since player $2 \operatorname{conchooseonly} F$

$$R_1 := \bigcap_{t=1}^{\infty} R_1(t) = \{M, F\} \cap \{M, F\} \cap \{F\} \cap \{F\} \cap \dots = \{F\}$$

$$R_2 := \bigcap_{t=1}^{\infty} R_2(t) = \{M, F\} \cap \{F\} \cap \{F\} \cap \{F\} \cap \dots = \{F\}$$

 \sim

$$R \coloneqq \prod_{i=1}^{n} R_i = \{F\} \times \{F\} = \{F, F\}.$$

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Further example of rationalizability

- Consider a partnership between two people:
 - They share a profit

$$P = 4(x + y + 0.25xy)$$

- that depends on their effort, x and y
- The effort is any real number in [0,4] and cost to each player respectively x^2 and y^2
- The players choose the effort simultaneously and indipendently.
- The game in strategic form is:

$$N = \{1, 2\}, \qquad S_i = [0, 4],$$

$$v_1(x, y) = 2(x + y + 0.25xy) - x^2$$

$$v_2(x, y) = 2(x + y + 0.25xy) - y^2$$

First best: Pareto efficient efforts

• Find x, y to maximize the joint profit

$$4(x + y + 0.25xy) - x^{2} - y^{2}$$

FOC: $4 + y - 2x = 0$ and $4 + x - 2y = 0$
 $x^{FB} = 4$ $y^{FB} = 4$.

Solution by rationalizability

• Find the best reply function:

$$\frac{\partial v_1}{\partial x} = 2 + 0.5 y - 2x = 0 \Longrightarrow x = BR_1(y) = 0.25 y + 1$$
$$\frac{\partial v_2}{\partial y} = 2 + 0.5 x - 2y = 0 \Longrightarrow y = BR_2(x) = 0.25 x + 1$$

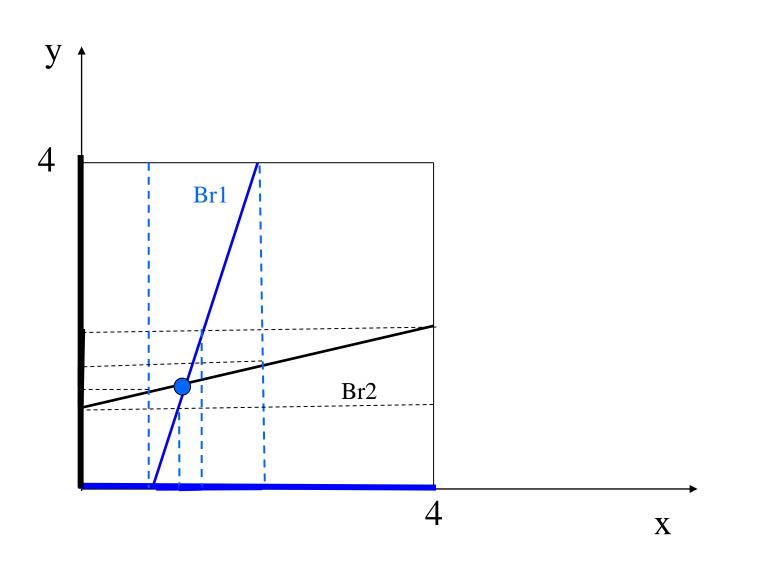
The set of rationalizable strategies

$$\begin{aligned} R_i(1) &\coloneqq S_i = [0,4]; \\ R_i(2) &\coloneqq BR_i(S_j) = 0.25([0,4]) + 1 = [1,2] \\ R_i(3) &\coloneqq BR_i(R_j(2)) = 0.25([1,2]) + 1 = [1.25,1.5] \\ R_i(4) &\coloneqq BR_i(R_j(3)) = 0.25([1.25,1.5]) + 1 = [1.31,1.37] \end{aligned}$$

$$R_i := \bigcap_{t=1}^{\infty} R_i(t) = 4/3.$$

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Graphically



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PROBLEM

What are the connections between rationalizability and iterative deletion of dominated strategies ?

THEY ARE STRATEGICALLY EQUIVALENT

SECOND CRUCIAL PROBLEM

Intelligent players anticipate opponents' rational behavior implying **iterative solutions**

HOWEVER TO MAKE OPERATIVE THIS ANTICIPATION OF OPPONENTS' RATIONAL BEHAVIOR, PLAYERS NEED TO KNOW 1. <u>OPPONENTS' STRATEGY SETS</u> 2. <u>OPPONENTS' PAYOFF FUNCTIONS</u> I.E.

THE GAME

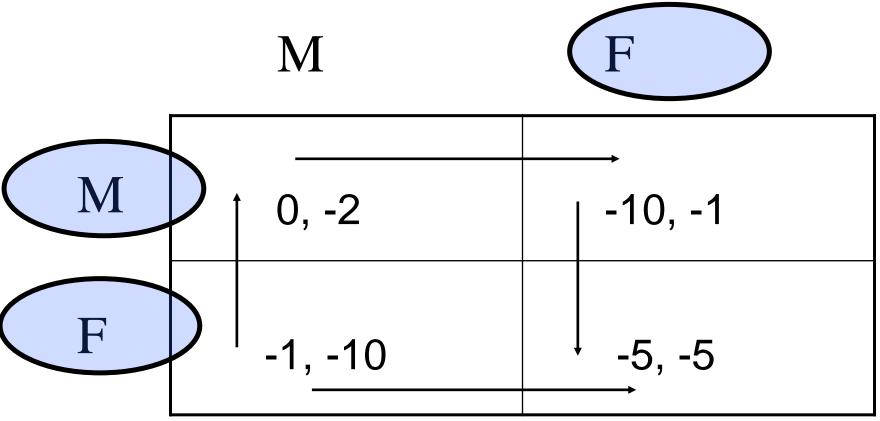
However standard models do not specify players' information on the game itself: *information sets regard actions only*

PROBLEM - 2

To apply rationalizability (or iterated deletion of strictly dominated strategies) the players should refer to the assumptions of

Common knowledge of each player rationality

However to be operative, this assumption requires that each player knows others' payoff functions and possible choices, i.e. actions and information sets This means that the **game should be common knowledge**



Solution by iterated Bayesian Rationality: {F} x {F}.

PROBLEM

- This means that the **game should be common knowledge**
- But then:

• How can we model players' information on the game?

IMPERFECT INFORMATION

VS

INCOMPLETE INFORMATION

Imperfect Information vs. Incomplete Information

- Standard models do not specify players' information on the game itself: *information sets regard actions only*
- Standard **informal assumption**:

The game is common knowledge, i.e.

1. all the players know the **game**

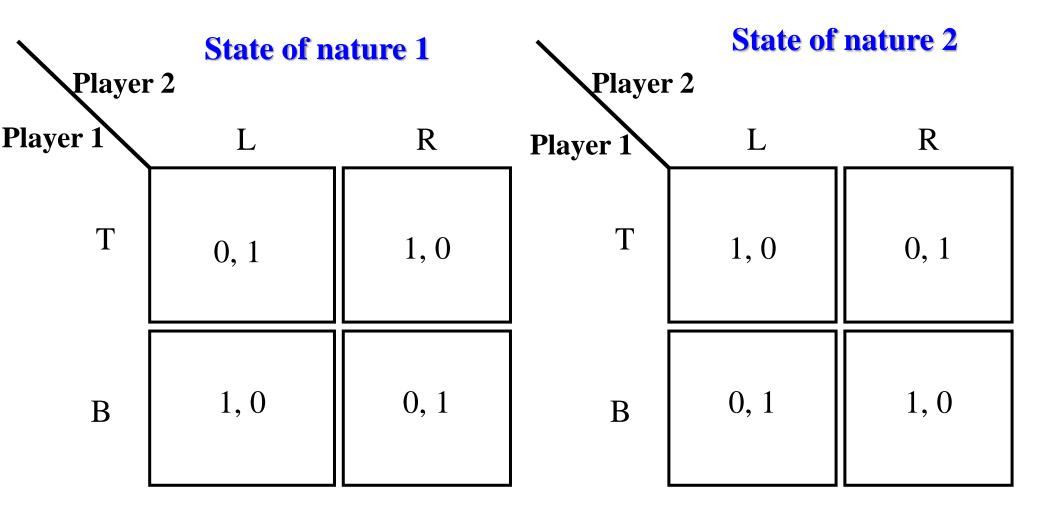
- 2. All the players know that all the players know the game
 3. Etc. ad infinitum
- If a game satisfies this assumption is called **complete information game**

Imperfect Information vs. Incomplete Information

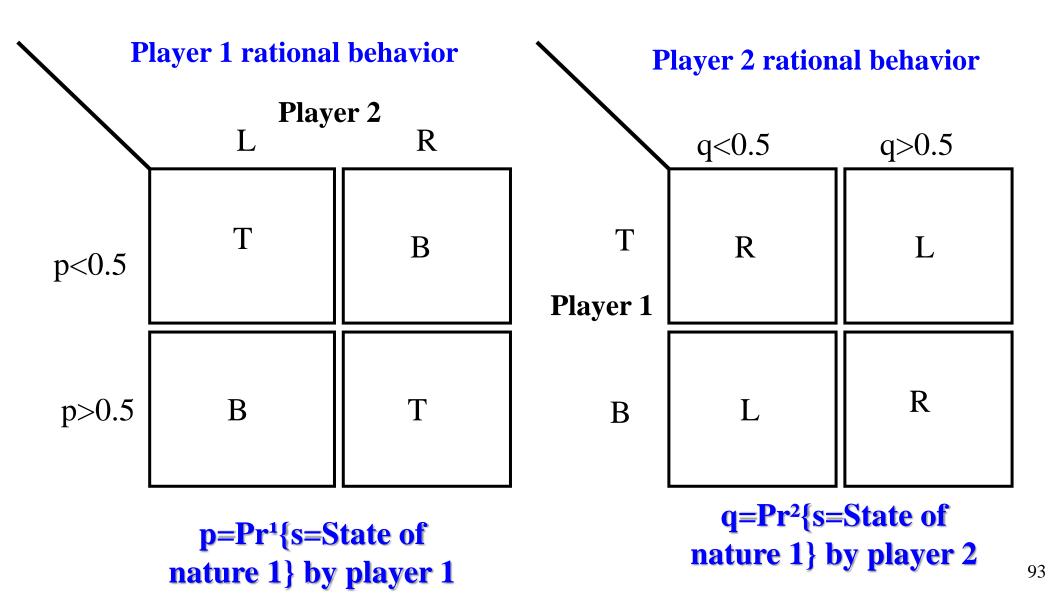
Definitions

- Game of *imperfect information*: one or more players do not know the full history of the game, i.e. previous moves.
- Game of *incomplete information*: the players have private information about the **game**, which we will call the **state of nature**.
- We need new formal tools to deal with incomplete information: information sets are not enough since they regard players' actions

Example 1: the problem when the true game being played is unknown - 1



Example 1: players' best response as function of: Prior belief Opponent's strategy



Example 1: the problem when the true game being played is unknown - 3

- As the previous slide shows
 - 1's optimal strategy depends on
 - 1. Prior belief p and
 - 2. <u>The strategy of 2</u>, which in turn depend on
 - 1. Prior belief q and
 - 2. <u>The strategy of 1</u>, which in turn depend on
 - 1. Prior belief p and
 - 2. <u>The strategy of 2</u>, which in turn depend on ...
- <u>Therefore when we don't know the s.o.n., it is not</u> <u>enough to have beliefs on it (first order beliefs), but we</u> <u>need beliefs on beliefs (second order beliefs)</u>, etc. i.e. we need
 - Infinite hierarchy of beliefs

Example 1: the problem when the true game being played is unknown - 4

- According to the **Bayesian approach**, each player has a belief on the unknown s.o.n.
- But unlike to decision making problem, in an interactive situation we are naturally lead, as previously shown, to

Infinite hierarchies of beliefs

- A state of nature and an infinite hierarchy of beliefs is a state of the world
- But this object is cumbersome and hardly manageable
- This is the **explicit approach** and its complexity was the main obstacle to the development of the theory of games of incomplete information
- Till a breakthrough by Harsanyi

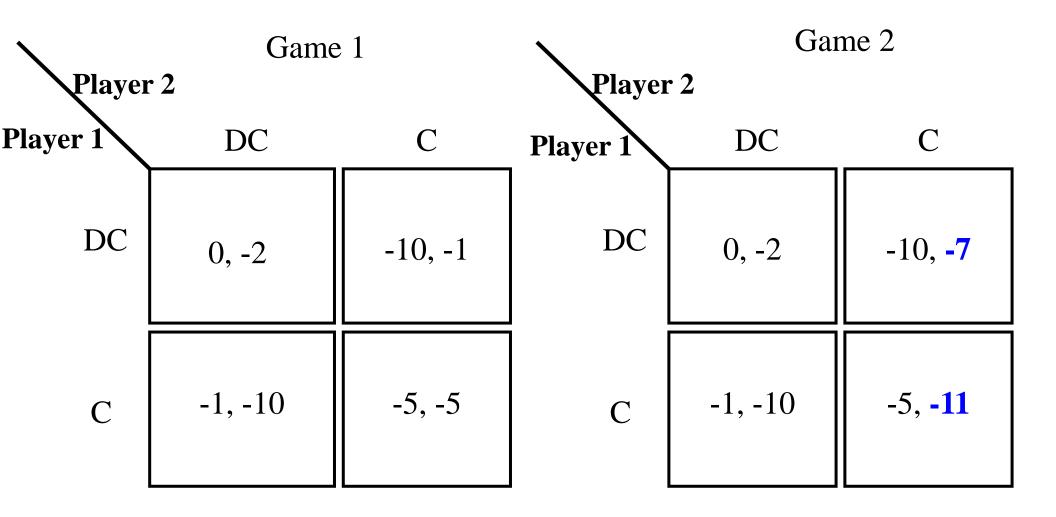
Imperfect Information vs. Incomplete Information: Harsanyi idea

- The key to analyze games of incomplete information is to transform them into games of imperfect information by letting nature move first, randomly selecting each possible players' private information on the game
- (Harsanyi transformation).
- BUT
- What is selecting Nature?
- A player's type

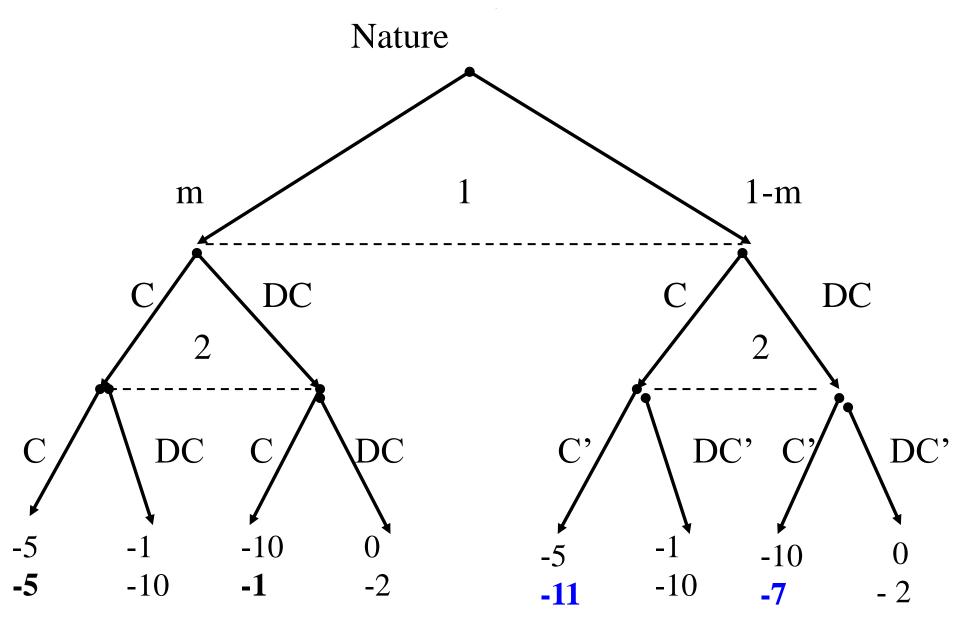
Example 1: a modified prisoner's dilemma with different possible payoffs

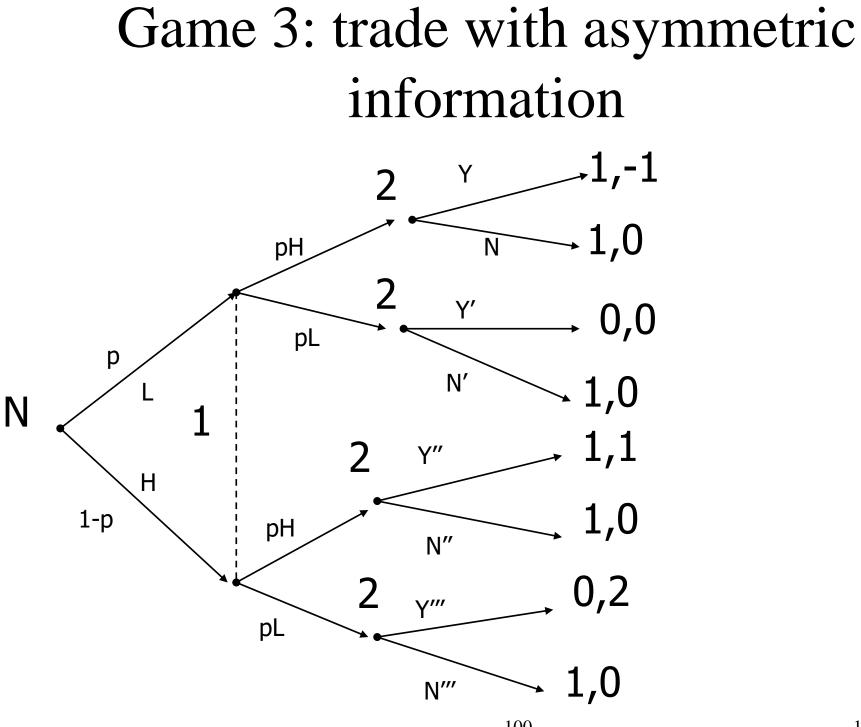
- Prisoner 2 has two possible different payoffs:
 - With probability m the players' payoffs are that of figure 1
 - With probability 1-m the players' payoffs are that of figure 2
 - Player 2 payoffs are 2's **private information**
- Thus the players are possibly playing two different games, with player 2 informed of the true game and player 1 not informed (asymmetric information).

The possible payoffs of player 2



The Extensive Form of example 1





Bayesian games and the Harsanyi approach

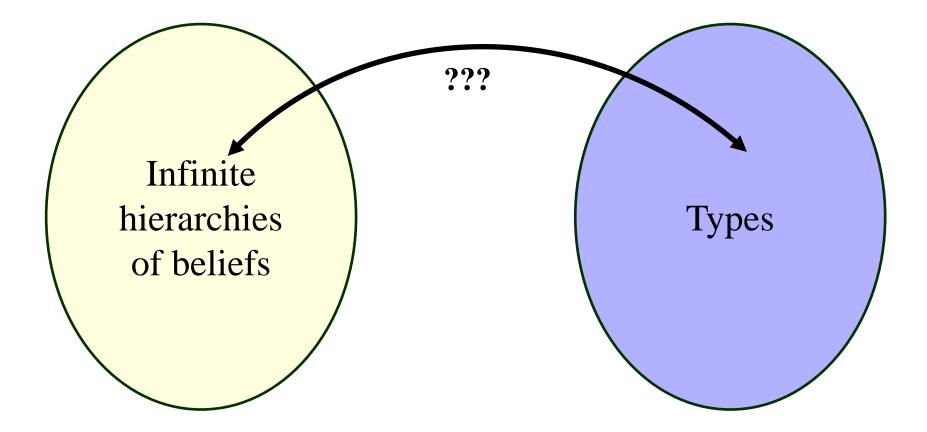
The notion of Bayesian game

- Using the Harsanyi approach, the situation of incomplete information is reinterpreted as a game of imperfect information
- Nature makes the first move, choosing realizations of the random variables that determine
 - each player's **PRIVATE INFORMATION ON THE RULE OF THE GAME**
 - each player's **TYPE** in game theoretic jargon
- Each players observes the realization of his/her type, not of opponents' types
- This sort of game is called **BAYESIAN GAME**.

The notion of TYPE

- A PLAYER'S SET OF TYPES is a random variable, its realization is a PLAYER'S TYPE representing the player's private information.
- <u>A type is a full description of</u>
 - Player's beliefs on the rule of the game i.e. on state of nature
 - Beliefs on other players' beliefs on s.o.n. and its own beliefs
 - **– Etc.**
- NB: there is a circular element in the definition of type, which is unavoidable in interactive situations
- i.e. the Harsanyi approach solves the problem of modelling incomplete information in a simple ingenious way at the cost of making the set of possible types potentially extremely complex
- In example 1:
 - player 1 set of types is the null set since player 1 has no private information
 - player 2 set of types has two element, the payoffs of figure 1 and figure 2. $_{103}$

Types and infinite hierarchies of beliefs



Bayesian Games

(Harsanyi, Management Science 1967-8)

- u_i = utility function for i, u_i(a,t) depends on both actions a and types t.
- normal form game $G = \{N; A_1, ..., A_n; u_1, ..., u_n\}$
- Bayesian game $\Gamma = \{N; A_1, ..., A_n; T_1, ..., T_n; p_1, ..., p_n; u_1, ..., u_n\}$
- $A_i = \text{strategy set for } i$, actions in the Bayesian Game: $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in A = A_1 \times \dots \times A_n$.
- $T_i = type \ set \ for \ i, \ types: \ t = (t_1,...,t_n) \in T = T_1 \times ... \times T_n$
- p_i = beliefs for i, p_i(t_{-i} | t_i) = i's belief about types t_{-i} given type t_i.

Definition

• A *strategy in a Bayesian game* for i is a plan of action for each of i's possible types

 $d_i: T_i \rightarrow A_i$

• As usual it says what to do in every possible contingency (each of the possible types).

Bayesian Games

(Harsanyi, *Management Science* 1967-8)

- ASSUMPTION:
- Beliefs $\{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$ are <u>consistent</u> if they can be derived using Bayes' rule from a **common joint distribution p(t) on T**: i.e., there exists p(t) such that

$$p_i(t_{-i}|t_i) = \frac{p(t)}{p(t_i)} \text{ where } p(t_i) = \sum_{t_{-i} \in T_{-i}} p(t_{-i}, t_i)$$

for all i and t_i.

• Beliefs are **consistent** if nature moves first and types are determined according to the **common prior** p(t) and each i is informed only of t_i.

Beliefs derived from common prior - 1

• EXAMPLE: joint & marginal probability

		A TYPES		
		A low costs	A high costs	Marginal Pr of B costs
B TYPES	B low costs	0.45	0.05	0.5
	B high costs	0.15	0.35	0.5
	Marginal Pr of A costs	0.6	0.4	1

Beliefs derived from common prior - 2

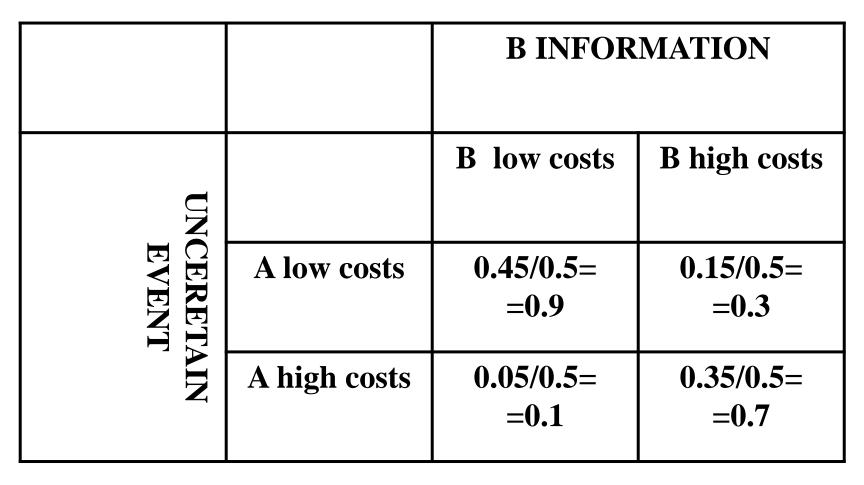
 EXAMPLE: conditional probability Pr{B cost | A cost}

		A INFORMATION or A TYPES	
		A low costs	A high costs
UNCERTAI EVENTS o B TYPES	B low costs	0.45/0.6= =0.75	0.05/0.4= =0.125
RTAIN VTS or VPES	B high costs	0.15/0.6= =0.25	0.35/0.4= =0.875

Beliefs derived from common prior - 3

• EXAMPLE: conditional probability

Pr{A cost | B cost}

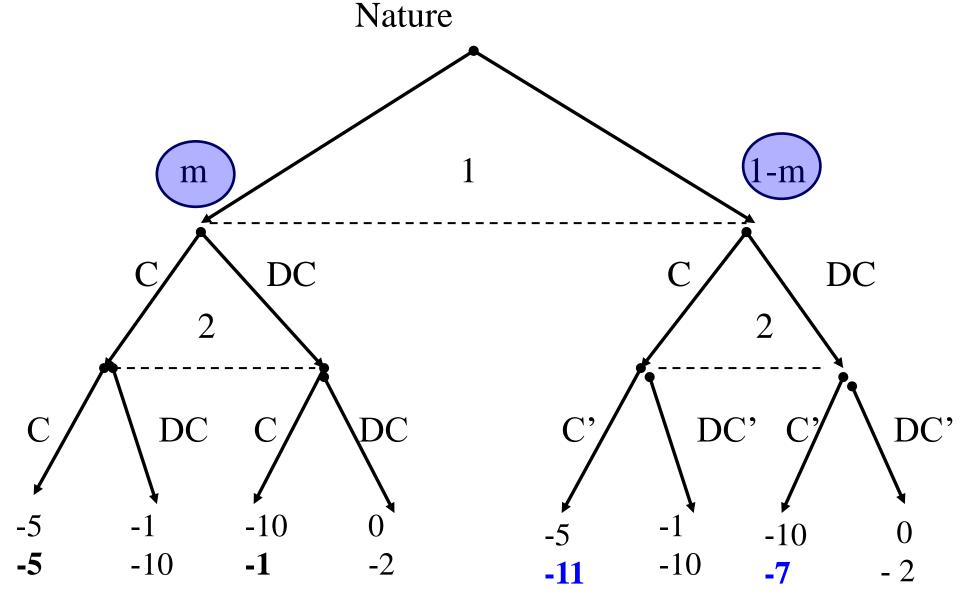


The Harsanyi approach applied to example 1

- According to this approach each player's type are determined by the realization of a random variable;
- The random variable's actual realization is observed only by the player
- Its ex ante probability distribution is assumed to be common knowledge among all the players

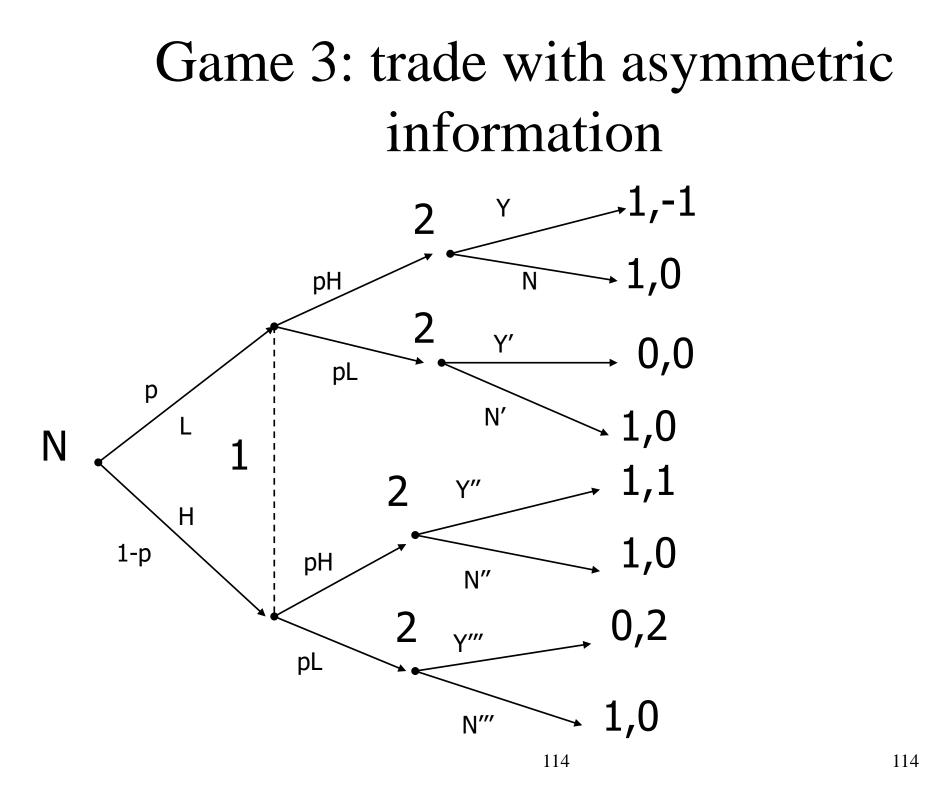
The Extensive Form of example 1

 $T = \{(Fig \ 1, \emptyset), (Fig \ 2, \emptyset)\} \ p(t') = Pr\{(Fig \ 1, \emptyset)\} = m \Rightarrow$ $p_1(t'|t_1) = Pr\{Fig \ 1|\emptyset\} = m/1 \ \& \ p_2(t'|t_2) = Pr\{\emptyset|Fig \ 2\} = Pr\{\emptyset|Fig \ 1\} = 1$



The Bayesian strategic form of example 1

2	C-C'	C-DC'	DC-C'	DC-DC'
С	-5,	-5m-1(1-m),	-5,	-1,
	-5m-11(1-m)	-5m-10(1-m)	-5m-11(1-m)	-10
DC	-10,	-10m+0(1-m),	0m-10(1-m),	0,
	-1m-7(1-m)	-1m-2(1-m)	-2m-7(1-m)	-2



The Bayesian strategic form of trade with asymmetric information

$\frac{1}{2}$	рН	pL
YY'Y"Y"	(1, 0)	(0, 2-2p)
YY'Y"N"	(1, 0)	(1-p , 0)
YY'N"Y"	(1 , -p)	(0 , 2-2p)
YN'Y"Y"	(1, 0)	(p, 2-2p)
NY'Y"Y"	(1 , 1 - p)	(0, 2-2p)
YY'N"N"	(1 , -p)	(1-p , 0)
YN'Y"N"	(1, 0)	(1, 0)
NY'Y"N"	(1 , 1 - p)	(1-p , 0)
NN'Y"Y "	(1 , 1 - p)	(p, 2-2p)
YN'N"Y"	(1 , -p)	(p, 2-2p)
NY'Y"N"	(1 , 1 - p)	(1-p , 0)
YN'N"N"	(1 , -p)	(1, 0)
NY'N"N"	(1, 0)	(1-p , 0)
NN'Y"N"	(1 , 1 - p)	(1, 0)
NN'N"Y"	(1, 0)	(p, 2-2p)
NN'N''N'''	(1, 0)	(1, 0)

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SUMMING UP - 1

- **BAYESIAN GAME:** a game in which players have private information on payoff relevant parameters
- **STATE OF NATURE:** payoff relevant data. It is convenient to think of a s.o.n. as a full description of a game form
 - **TYPE**: full description of player's private relevant characteristics, therefore it fully describes
 - **1.** Player's beliefs (i.e. information) on s.o.n.
 - 2. Player's beliefs on others' beliefs
 - 3. Player's beliefs on others' beliefs on its beliefs
 - 4. Etc. ad infinitum

SUMMING UP - 2

- **STATE OF THE WORLD:** a specification of s.o.n. **and** players' types. i.e. of
 - 1. Payoff relevant parameters
 - 2. Beliefs of all levels
- **COMMON PRIOR AND CONSISTENT BELIEFS:** players' beliefs are said to be **consistent** if they are derived from the same probability distribution (the **common prior**) by conditioning on each player's private information, i.e. on each player's **type**.
- **Therefore if beliefs are consistent, the only source of differences in beliefs is difference in information**