

An Introduction to Multiagent Systems

Thus a multiagent system contains a number of agents ...

- . . . which interact through communication . . .
- ... are able to act in an environment ...
- ... have different "spheres of influence" (which may coincide)..
- will be linked by other (organisational) relationships.

Lecture 6

2 Utilities and Preferences

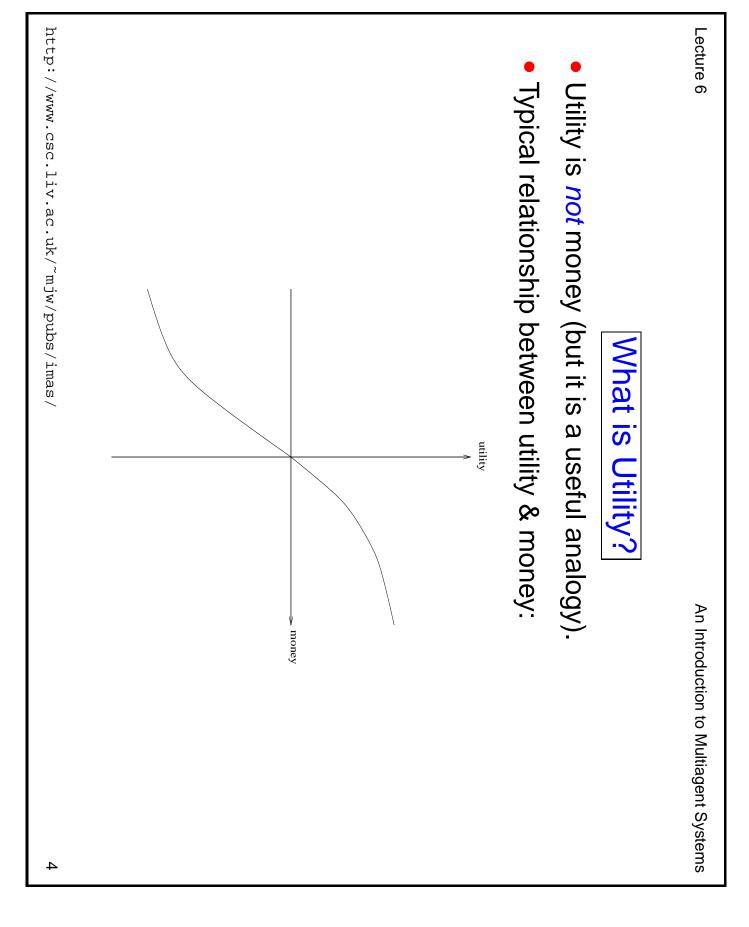
- Assume we have just two agents: $Ag = \{i, j\}$.
- Agents are assumed to be self-interested: they have preferences over how the environment is.
- Assume $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \ldots\}$ is the set of "outcomes" that agents have preferences over.
- We capture preferences by *utility functions*:

$$u_i: \Omega \to I\!R$$
$$u_j: \Omega \to I\!R$$

Utility functions lead to preference orderings over outcomes:

$$\omega \succeq_i \omega'$$
 means $u_i(\omega) \ge u_i(\omega')$
 $\omega \succ_i \omega'$ means $u_i(\omega) > u_i(\omega')$

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3 Multiagent Encounters

- We need a model of the environment in which these agents will act.
- agents simultaneously choose an action to perform, and as a result of the actions they select, an outcome in Ω will result;
- the actual outcome depends on the combination of actions;
- assume each agent has just two possible actions that it can perform C ("cooperate") and "D" ("defect").
- Environment behaviour given by state transformer function:

$$\tau: \underbrace{Ac}_{i's \text{ action}} \times \underbrace{Ac}_{j's \text{ action}} \to \Omega$$

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Here is a state transformer function:

$$au(D,D)=\omega_1$$
 $au(D,C)=\omega_2$ $au(C,D)=\omega_3$ $au(C,C)=\omega_4$

(This environment is sensitive to actions of both agents.)

Here is another:

$$au(D,D)=\omega_1$$
 $au(D,C)=\omega_1$ $au(C,D)=\omega_1$ $au(C,C)=\omega_1$

(Neither agent has any influence in this environment.)

And here is another:

$$au(D,D)=\omega_1 \quad au(D,C)=\omega_2 \quad au(C,D)=\omega_1 \quad au(C,C)=\omega_2$$

(This environment is controlled by j.)

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Rational Action

Suppose we have the case where *both* agents can influence the outcome, and they have utility functions as follows:

$$u_i(\omega_1) = 1$$
 $u_i(\omega_2) = 1$ $u_i(\omega_3) = 4$ $u_i(\omega_4) = 4$
 $u_i(\omega_1) = 1$ $u_i(\omega_2) = 4$ $u_i(\omega_3) = 1$ $u_i(\omega_4) = 4$

With a bit of abuse of notation:

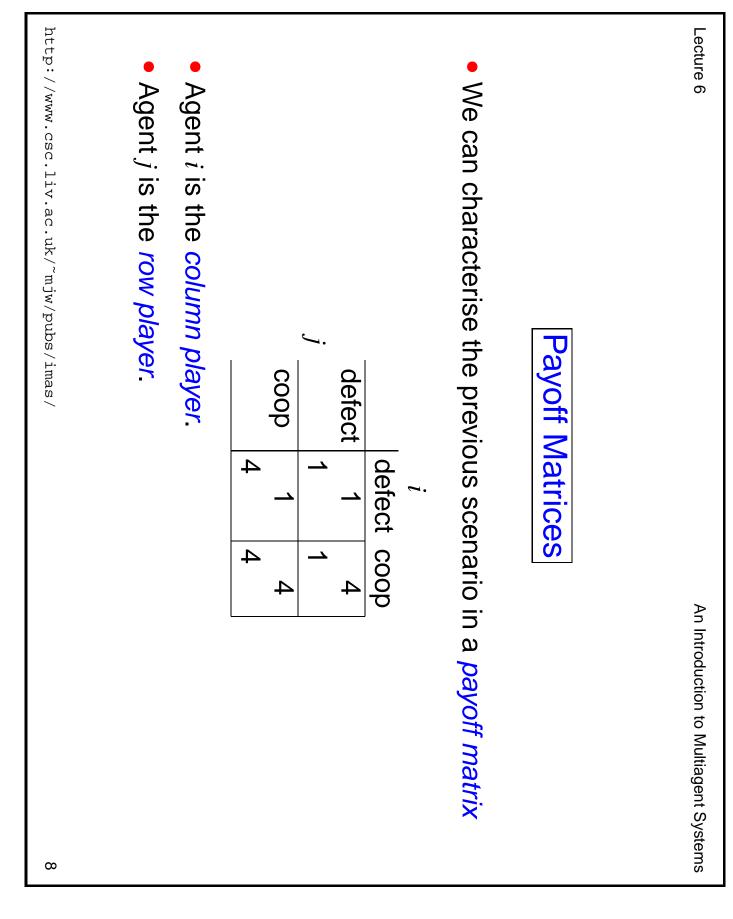
$$u_i(D,D) = 1$$
 $u_i(D,C) = 1$ $u_i(C,D) = 4$ $u_i(C,C) = 4$
 $u_j(D,D) = 1$ $u_j(D,C) = 4$ $u_j(C,D) = 1$ $u_j(C,C) = 4$

Then agent i's preferences are:

$$C, C \succeq_i C, D \succ_i D, C \succeq_i D, D$$

• "*C*" is the *rational choice* for *i*.

outcomes that arise through D.) (Because *i* prefers all outcomes that arise through *C* over all



Dominant Strategies

- Given any particular strategy s (either C or D) agent i, there will be a number of possible outcomes
- We say s_1 dominates s_2 if every outcome possible by *i* playing s_1 is preferred over every outcome possible by *i* playing s_2 .
- A rational agent will never play a dominated strategy.
- So in deciding what to do, we can delete dominated strategies.
- Unfortunately, there isn't always a unique undominated strategy.

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Nash Equilibrium

- In general, we will say that two strategies s_1 and s_2 are in Nash equilibrium if:
- 1. under the assumption that agent *i* plays s_1 , agent *j* can do no better than play s_2 ; and
- 2. under the assumption that agent j plays s_2 , agent i can do no better than play s₁.
- Neither agent has any incentive to deviate from a Nash equilibrium.
- Unfortunately:
- 1. Not every interaction scenario has a Nash equilibrium.
- 2. Some interaction scenarios have more than one Nash equilibrium.



Competitive and Zero-Sum Interactions

- Where preferences of agents are diametrically opposed we have strictly competitive scenarios
- Zero-sum encounters are those where utilities sum to zero:

$$u_i(\omega) + u_j(\omega) = 0$$
 for all $\omega \in \Omega$

- Zero sum implies strictly competitive.
- Zero sum encounters in real life are very rare ... but people tend to act in many scenarios as if they were zero sum.

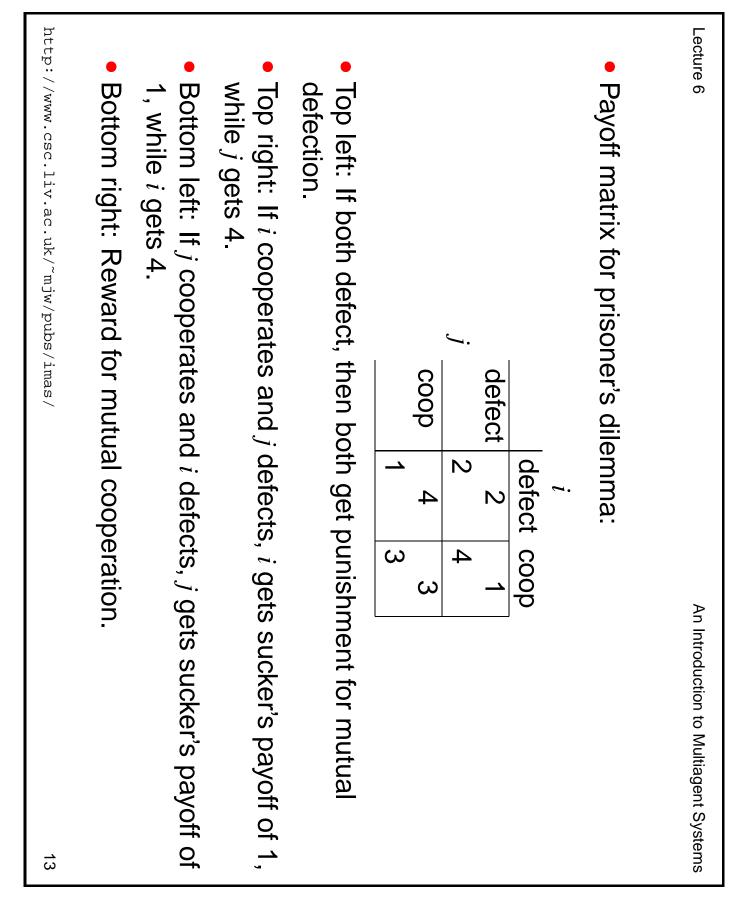
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4 The Prisoner's Dilemma

separate cells, with no way of meeting or communicating. Two men are collectively charged with a crime and held in They are told that:

- if one confesses and the other does not, the confessor will be freed, and the other will be jailed for three years;
- if both confess, then each will be jailed for two years

each be jailed for one year. Both prisoners know that if neither confesses, then they will



The individual rational action is defect.

cooperating guarantees a payoff of at most 1. This guarantees a payoff of no worse than 2, whereas

- So defection is the best response to all possible strategies: both agents defect, and get payoff = 2.
- But intuition says this is not the best outcome:

Surely they should both cooperate and each get payoff of 3!

This apparent paradox is the fundamental problem of multi-agent interactions

self-interested agents It appears to imply that cooperation will not occur in societies of

- Real world examples:
- nuclear arms reduction ("why don't I keep mine...")
- free rider systems public transport;
- in the UK television licenses
- The prisoner's dilemma is ubiquitous.
- Can we recover cooperation?



Arguments for Recovering Cooperation

- Conclusions that some have drawn from this analysis:
- the game theory notion of rational action is wrong!
- somehow the dilemma is being formulated wrongly
- Arguments to recover cooperation:
- We are not all machiavelli!
- The other prisoner is my twin!
- The shadow of the future...

4.1 The Iterated Prisoner's Dilemma

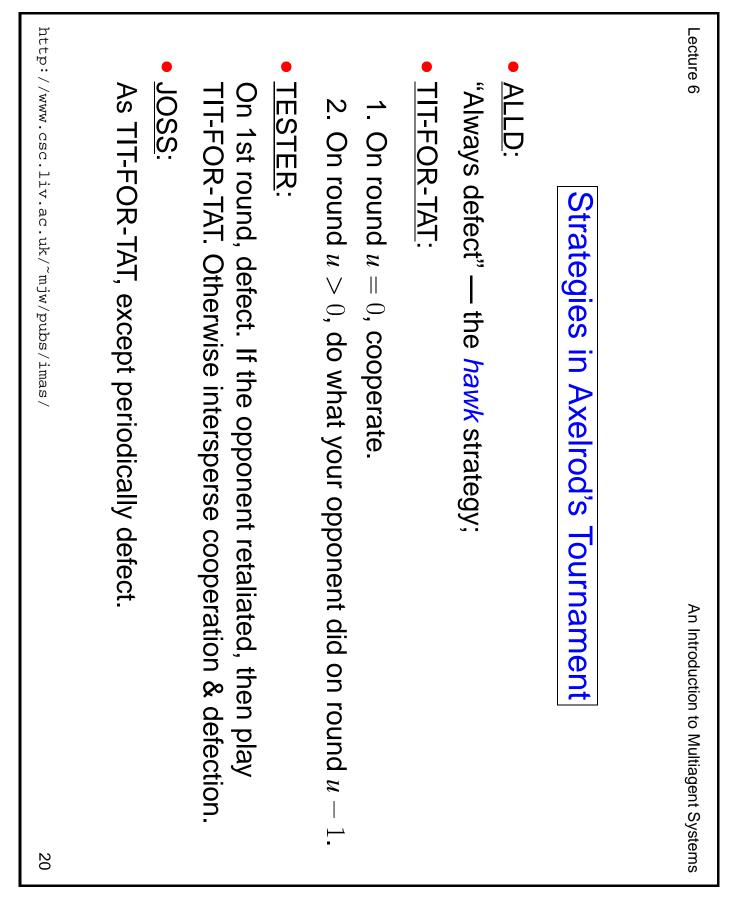
One answer: play the game more than once. If you know you will be meeting your opponent again, then the

incentive to defect appears to evaporate.

Cooperation is the rational choice in the infinititely repeated (Hurrah!) prisoner's dilemma.

http://www.csc.liv.ac.uk/~mjw/pubs/imas/ Lecture 6 Playing the prisoner's dilemma with a fixed, finite, But... suppose you both know that you will play the game But this makes round n-2 the last "real", and so you have an bit of payoff... exactly *n* times the best strategy. pre-determined, commonly known number of rounds, defection is On round n - 1, you have an incentive to defect, to gain that extra This is the *backwards induction* problem. incentive to defect there, too. 4.2 Backwards Induction An Introduction to Multiagent Systems 100

Lecture 6 Axelrod (1984) investigated this problem, with a computer Suppose you play iterated prisoner's dilemma against a range of tournament for programs playing the prisoner's dilemma. payoff? What strategy should you choose, so as to maximise your overall opponents ... 4.3 Axelrod's Tournament An Introduction to Multiagent Systems



Recipes for Success in Axelrod's Tournament

Axelrod suggests the following rules for succeeding in his tournament

Don't be envious:

Don't play as if it were zero sum!

Be nice:

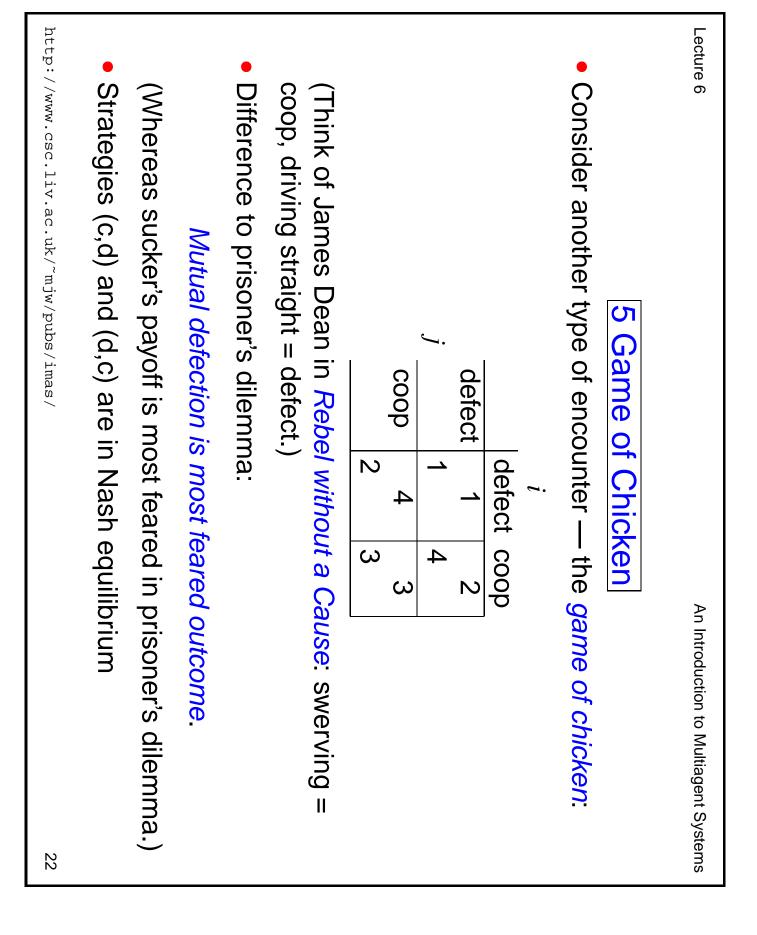
Start by cooperating, and reciprocate cooperation.

Retaliate appropriately:

Always punish defection immediately, but use "measured" force don't overdo it.

Don't hold grudges:

Always reciprocate cooperation immediately.



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6 Other Symmetric 2 x 2 Games

- Given the 4 possible outcomes of (symmetric) cooperate/defect
- games, there are 24 possible orderings on outcomes. $-DC \succ_i CC \succ_i CD \succ_i DD$ $DC \succ_i DD \succ_i CC \succ_i CD$ $DC \succ_i CC \succ_i DD \succ_i CD$ $CC \succ_i DC \succ_i DD \succ_i CD$ $CC \succ_i CD \succ_i DC \succ_i DD$ Prisoner's dilemma. Deadlock. You will always do best by defecting. Stag hunt Chicken. Cooperation dominates

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