

# **IA168 Algorithmic Game Theory**

Tomáš Brázdil

# Organization of This Course

## Sources:

- ▶ Lectures (slides, notes)
  - ▶ based on several sources
  - ▶ slides are prepared for lectures, some stuff on greenboard  
( $\Rightarrow$  attend the lectures)

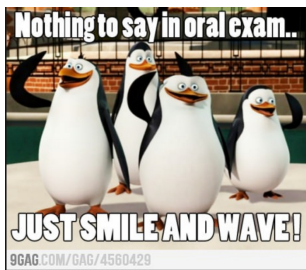
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- ▶ Books:
  - ▶ Nisan/Roughgarden/Tardos/Vazirani, **Algorithmic Game Theory**, Cambridge University, 2007.  
Available online for free:  
[http://www.cambridge.org/journals/nisan/downloads/Nisan\\_Non-printable.pdf](http://www.cambridge.org/journals/nisan/downloads/Nisan_Non-printable.pdf)
  - ▶ Tadelis, **Game Theory: An Introduction**, Princeton University Press, 2013

(I use various resources, so please, attend the lectures)

- ▶ Oral exam
- ▶ Homework



- ▶ 3 homework assignments

## Notable features of the course

- ▶ No computer games course!
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An example of an instruction email (from another course with the same system):

It is typically not sufficient to devote a single afternoon to the preparation for the exam.

You have to know `_everything_` (which means every single thing) starting with the slide 42 and ending with the slide 245 with notable exceptions of slides: 121 - 123, 137 - 140, 165, 167.

Proofs presented on the whiteboard are also mandatory.

Most importantly,

The previous slide is not  
a joke!



# What is Algorithmic Game Theory?

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What does the "algorithmic" mean?

- ▶ It means that we are "concerned with the computational questions that arise in game theory, and that enlighten game theory. In particular, questions about finding efficient algorithms to 'solve' games."

Let's have a look at some examples ....

# Prisoner's Dilemma

Prisoners' dilemma



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		confess		remain silent	
prisoner A	confess	 5 years 5 years	 0 year 20 years		
	remain silent	 20 years 0 year	 1 year 1 year		

- ▶ Two suspects of a serious crime are arrested and imprisoned.

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The problem: What would the suspects do?

## Prisoner's Dilemma – Solution(?)

	C	S
C	-5, -5	0, -20
S	-20, 0	-1, -1

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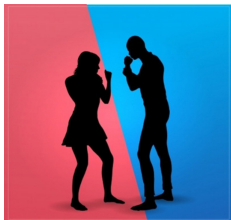
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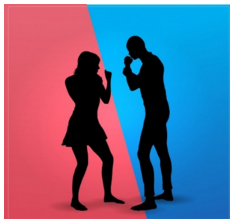
Are there always "dominant" strategies?

# Nash equilibria – Battle of Sexes



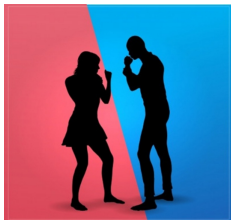
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If they cannot communicate, where should they go?

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Battle of Sexes can be modeled as a game of two players (the couple) with the following payoffs:

	<i>O</i>	<i>F</i>
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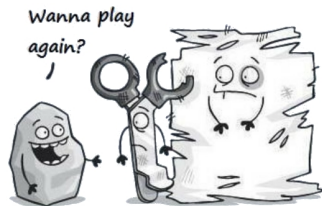
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$(O, O)$  is an example of a *Nash equilibrium* (as is  $(F, F)$ )



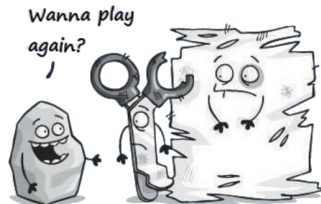
# Mixed Equilibria – Rock-Paper-Scissors

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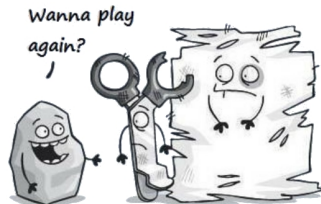
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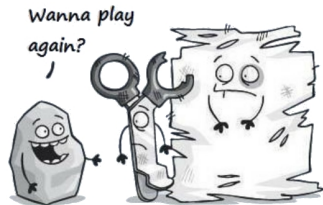
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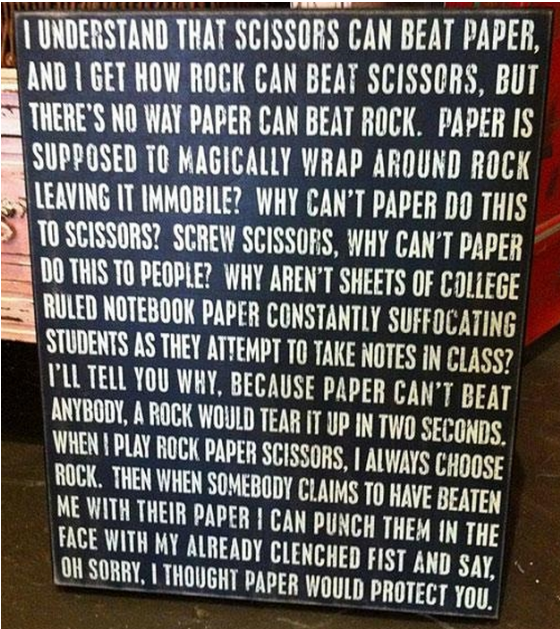
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Use *mixed strategies*: Each player plays each pure strategy with probability  $1/3$ . The expected payoff of each player is 0 (even if one of the players changes his strategy, he still gets 0!).

## Philosophical Issues in Games



I UNDERSTAND THAT SCISSORS CAN BEAT PAPER, AND I GET HOW ROCK CAN BEAT SCISSORS, BUT THERE'S NO WAY PAPER CAN BEAT ROCK. PAPER IS SUPPOSED TO MAGICALLY WRAP AROUND ROCK LEAVING IT IMMOBILE? WHY CAN'T PAPER DO THIS TO SCISSORS? SCREW SCISSORS, WHY CAN'T PAPER DO THIS TO PEOPLE? WHY AREN'T SHEETS OF COLLEGE RULED NOTEBOOK PAPER CONSTANTLY SUFFOCATING STUDENTS AS THEY ATTEMPT TO TAKE NOTES IN CLASS? I'LL TELL YOU WHY, BECAUSE PAPER CAN'T BEAT ANYBODY, A ROCK WOULD TEAR IT UP IN TWO SECONDS. WHEN I PLAY ROCK PAPER SCISSORS, I ALWAYS CHOOSE ROCK. THEN WHEN SOMEBODY CLAIMS TO HAVE BEATEN ME WITH THEIR PAPER I CAN PUNCH THEM IN THE FACE WITH MY ALREADY CLENCHED FIST AND SAY, OH SORRY, I THOUGHT PAPER WOULD PROTECT YOU.

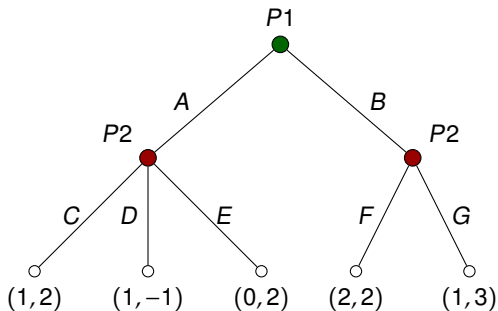
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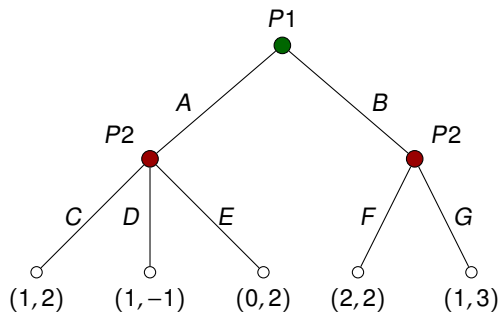
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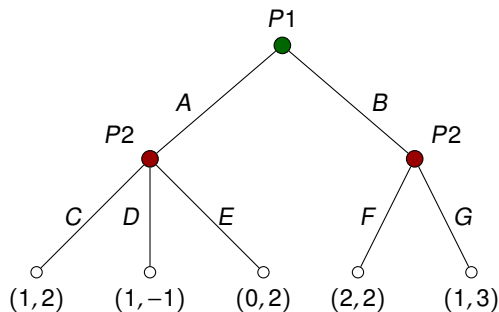
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What is their relationship to the strategic form games?

# Chance and Imperfect Information

Some decisions in the game tree may be by chance and controlled by neither player (e.g. Poker, Backgammon, etc.)

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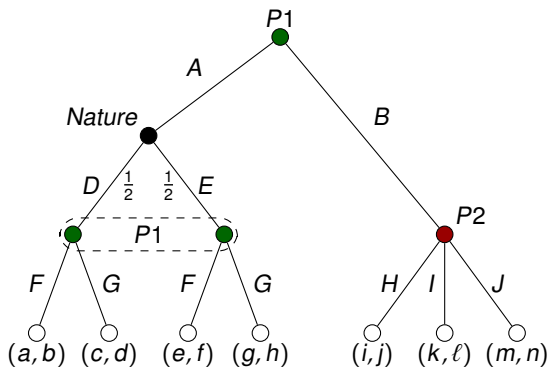
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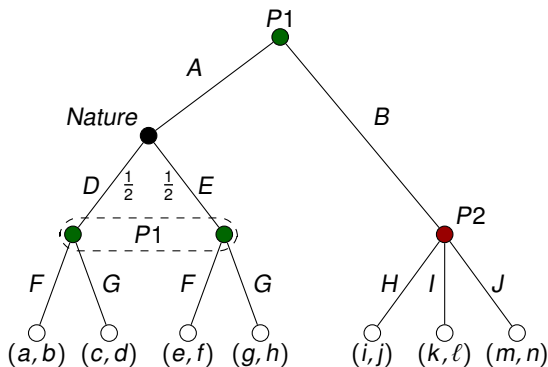
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Again, how to solve such games?

# Games of Incomplete Information

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$$u_1(b_1, b_2) = \begin{cases} v_1 - b_1 & b_1 > b_2 \\ \frac{1}{2}(v_1 - b_1) & b_1 = b_2 \\ 0 & b_1 < b_2 \end{cases}$$

Here  $v_1$  is the private value that player 1 assigns to the item and so the player 2 **does not know**  $u_1$ .

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How to deal with such a game? Assume the “worst” private value? What if we have a partial knowledge about the private values?

# Inefficiency of Equilibria

In Prisoner's Dilemma, the selfish behavior of suspects (the Nash equilibrium) results in somewhat worse than ideal situation.

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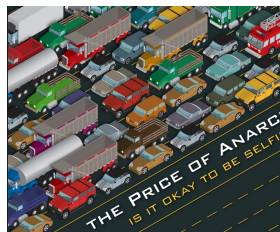
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*Price of Anarchy* is the maximum ratio between values of equilibria and the value of an optimal solution.

# Inefficiency of Equilibria – Selfish Routing

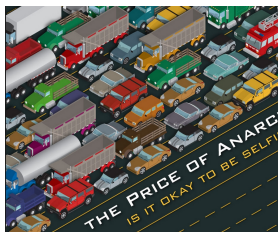
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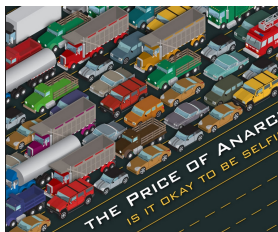




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- ▶ “Decentralized”: Each agent selfishly minimizes his travel time.

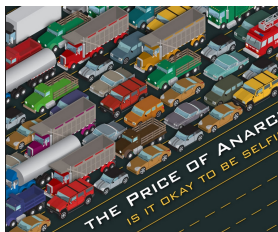


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- ▶ “Centralized”: A central authority tells each agent where to go.
- ▶ “Decentralized”: Each agent selfishly minimizes his travel time.

Price of Anarchy measure the ratio between average travel time in these two cases.



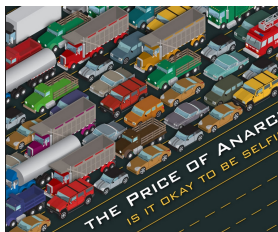
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Problem: Bound the price of anarchy over all routing games?



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- ▶ Games in Logic: modal and temporal logics, Ehrenfeucht-Fraïssé games, etc.

Games, the Internet and E-commerce: An extremely active research area at the intersection of CS and Economics

Basic idea: “The internet is a HUGE experiment in interaction between agents (both human and automated)”

How do we set up the rules of this game to harness “socially optimal” results?

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- ▶ Remaining time will be devoted to selected topics from extensive form games, games on graphs etc.

# Static Games of Complete Information

## Strategic-Form Games

### Solution concepts

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1. Players *simultaneously and independently* choose their *strategies*. This means that players play without observing strategies chosen by other players.

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A fact  $E$  is a *common knowledge* among players  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  if for every sequence  $i_1, \dots, i_k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  we have that  $i_1$  knows that  $i_2$  knows that ...  $i_{k-1}$  knows that  $i_k$  knows  $E$ .

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The goal of each player is to maximize his payoff (and this fact is a common knowledge).

# Strategic-Form Games

To formally represent static games of complete information we define *strategic-form games*.

## Definition 2

A game in *strategic-form* (or normal-form) is an ordered triple  $G = (N, (S_i)_{i \in N}, (u_i)_{i \in N})$ , in which:

- ▶  $N = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  is a finite set of *players*.
- ▶  $S_i$  is a set of (*pure*) *strategies* of player  $i$ , for every  $i \in N$ .

A *strategy profile* is a vector of strategies of all players  $(s_1, \dots, s_n) \in S_1 \times \dots \times S_n$ .

We denote the set of all strategy profiles by  $S = S_1 \times \dots \times S_n$ .

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## Definition 3

A *zero-sum* game  $G$  is one in which for all  $s = (s_1, \dots, s_n) \in S$  we have  $u_1(s) + u_2(s) + \dots + u_n(s) = 0$ .

## Example: Prisoner's Dilemma

- ▶  $N = \{1, 2\}$
- ▶  $S_1 = S_2 = \{S, C\}$
- ▶  $u_1, u_2$  are defined as follows:
  - ▶  $u_1(C, C) = -5, u_1(C, S) = 0, u_1(S, C) = -20,$   
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We usually write payoffs in the following form:

	C	S
C	-5, -5	0, -20
S	-20, 0	-1, -1

or as two matrices:

	C	S
C	-5	0
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	C	S
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## Example: Cournot Duopoly

- ▶ Two identical firms, players 1 and 2, produce some good.  
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Strategic-form game model  $(N, (S_i)_{i \in N}, (u_i)_{i \in N})$

- ▶  $N = \{1, 2\}$
- ▶  $S_i = [0, \infty)$
- ▶  $u_1(q_1, q_2) = q_1(\kappa - q_1 - q_2) - q_1 c_1$   
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# Solution Concepts

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## Example 4

Nash equilibrium is a solution concept. That is, we “solve” games by finding Nash equilibria and declare them to be reasonable outcomes.

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4. **Self-enforcement**: Any prediction (or equilibrium) of a solution concept must be *self-enforcing*.

Here 4. implies non-cooperative game theory: Each player is in control of his actions, and he will stick to an action only if he finds it to be in his best interest.

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For now, let us concentrate on

**pure strategies only!**

I.e., no mixed strategies are allowed. We will generalize to mixed setting later.



- ▶ Let  $N = \{1, \dots, n\}$  be a finite set and for each  $i \in N$  let  $X_i$  be a set. Let  $X := \prod_{i \in N} X_i = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_j \in X_j, j \in N\}$ .
  - ▶ For  $i \in N$  we define  $X_{-i} := \prod_{j \neq i} X_j$ , i.e.,

$$X_{-i} = \{(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) \mid x_j \in X_j, \forall j \neq i\}$$

- ▶ An element of  $X_{-i}$  will be denoted by

$$x_{-i} = (x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n)$$

We slightly abuse notation and write  $(x_i, x_{-i})$  to denote  $(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n) \in X$ .

# Strict Dominance in Pure Strategies

## Definition 5

Let  $s_i, s'_i \in S_i$  be strategies of player  $i$ . Then  $s'_i$  is *strictly dominated* by  $s_i$  (write  $s_i \succ s'_i$ ) if for any possible profile of the other players' strategies,  $s_{-i} \in S_{-i}$ , we have

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## Claim 1

*An intelligent and rational player will never play a strictly dominated strategy.*

Clearly, intelligence implies that the player should recognize dominated strategies, rationality implies that the player will avoid playing them.

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## Corollary 8

*If the strictly dominant strategy equilibrium exists, it is unique and rational players will play it.*

# Examples

In the Prisoner's dilemma:

	<i>C</i>	<i>S</i>
<i>C</i>	-5, -5	0, -20
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In the Battle of Sexes:

	<i>O</i>	<i>F</i>
<i>O</i>	2, 1	0, 0
<i>F</i>	0, 0	1, 2

## Examples

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In the Battle of Sexes:

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no strictly dominant strategies exist.

# Indiana Jones and the Last Crusade

(Taken from Dixit & Nalebuff's "The Art of Strategy" and a lecture of Robert Marks)

Indiana Jones, his father, and the Nazis have all converged at the site of the Holy Grail. The two Joneses refuse to help the Nazis reach the last step. So the Nazis shoot Indiana's dad. Only the healing power of the Holy Grail can save the senior Dr. Jones from his mortal wound. Suitably motivated, Indiana leads the way to the Holy Grail. But there is one final challenge. He must choose between literally scores of chalices, only one of which is the cup of Christ. While the right cup brings eternal life, the wrong choice is fatal. The Nazi leader impatiently chooses a beautiful gold chalice, drinks the holy water, and dies from the sudden death that follows from the wrong choice. Indiana picks a wooden chalice, the cup of a carpenter. Exclaiming "There's only one way to find out" he dips the chalice into the font and drinks what he hopes is the cup of life. Upon discovering that he has chosen wisely, Indiana brings the cup to his father and the water heals the mortal wound.

## Indy Goofed

- ▶ Although this scene adds excitement, it is somewhat embarrassing that such a distinguished professor as Dr. Indiana Jones would overlook his dominant strategy.
- ▶ He should have given the water to his father without testing it first.
  - ▶ If Indiana has chosen the right cup, his father is still saved.
  - ▶ If Indiana has chosen the wrong cup, then his father dies but Indiana is spared.
- ▶ Testing the cup before giving it to his father doesn't help, since if Indiana has made the wrong choice, there is no second chance – Indiana dies from the water and his father dies from the wound.

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Because it is common knowledge that all players will perform this kind of reasoning again, the process can continue until no more strictly dominated strategies can be eliminated.

The previous reasoning yields the **Iterated Elimination of Strictly Dominated Strategies (IESDS)**:

Define a sequence  $D_i^0, D_i^1, D_i^2, \dots$  of strategy sets of player  $i$ .  
(Denote by  $G_{DS}^k$  the game obtained from  $G$  by restricting to  $D_i^k, i \in N$ .)

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**Remark:** If all  $S_i$  are *finite*, then in 2. we may remove only some of the strictly dominated strategies (not necessarily all). The result is *not* affected by the order of elimination since strictly dominated strategies remain strictly dominated even after removing some other strictly dominated strategies.

In the Prisoner's dilemma:

	<i>C</i>	<i>S</i>
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all strategies survive all rounds (i.e. IESDS  $\equiv$  anything may happen, sorry)



## A Bit More Interesting Example

	<i>L</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>R</i>
<i>L</i>	4,3	5,1	6,2
<i>C</i>	2,1	8,4	3,6
<i>R</i>	3,0	9,6	2,8

IESDS on greenboard!

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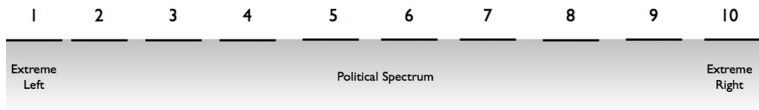
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- ▶ Payoff: The number of voters for the candidate; each candidate (selfishly) strives to maximize this number

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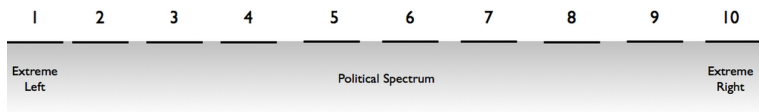


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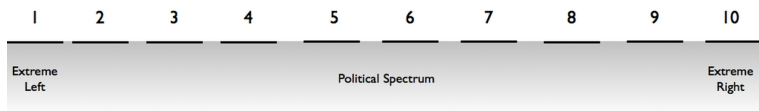


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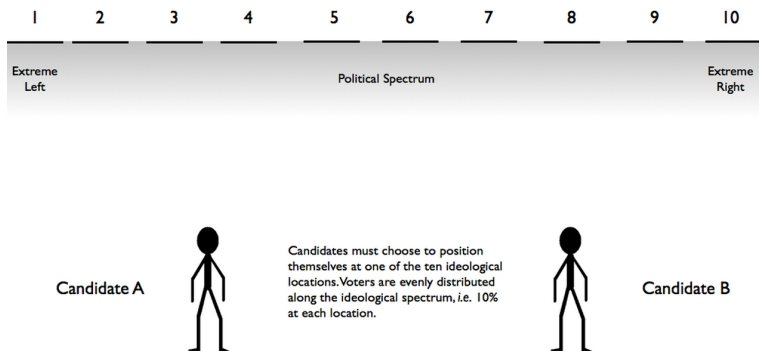
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- ▶ ...
- ▶ only 5, 6 survive IESDS

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Let us formalize this type of reasoning...

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A rational player never plays any strategy that is never best response.

# Best Response vs Strict Dominance

## Proposition 1

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The opposite does not have to be true in pure strategies:

	X	Y
A	1, 1	1, 1
B	2, 1	0, 1
C	0, 1	2, 1

Here A is never best response but is strictly dominated neither by B, nor by C.



# Elimination of Stupid Strategies = Rationalizability

Using similar iterated reasoning as for IESDS, strategies that are never best response can be iteratively eliminated.

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We say that  $s_i \in S_i$  is *rationalizable* if  $s_i \in R_i^k$  for all  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

## Definition 13

A strategy profile  $s = (s_1, \dots, s_n) \in S$  is a *rationalizable equilibrium* if each  $s_i$  is rationalizable.

We say that a game is *solvable by rationalizability* if it has a unique rationalizable equilibrium.

(Warning: For some reasons, rationalizable strategies are almost always defined using mixed strategies!)

# Rationalizability Examples

In the Prisoner's dilemma:

	<i>C</i>	<i>S</i>
<i>C</i>	-5, -5	0, -20
<i>S</i>	-20, 0	-1, -1



# Rationalizability Examples

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$(C, C)$  is the only rationalizable equilibrium.

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In the Battle of Sexes:

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<i>O</i>	2, 1	0, 0
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In the Battle of Sexes:

	<i>O</i>	<i>F</i>
<i>O</i>	2, 1	0, 0
<i>F</i>	0, 0	1, 2

all strategies are rationalizable.

# Cournot Duopoly

$$G = (N, (S_i)_{i \in N}, (u_i)_{i \in N})$$

▶  $N = \{1, 2\}$

▶  $S_i = [0, \infty)$

▶  $u_1(q_1, q_2) = q_1(\kappa - q_1 - q_2) - q_1 c_1 = (\kappa - c_1)q_1 - q_1^2 - q_1 q_2$

$u_2(q_1, q_2) = q_2(\kappa - q_2 - q_1) - q_2 c_2 = (\kappa - c_2)q_2 - q_2^2 - q_2 q_1$

Assume for simplicity that  $c_1 = c_2 = c$  and denote  $\theta = \kappa - c$ .

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What is a best response of player 1 to a given  $q_2$  ?

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Solve  $\frac{\delta u_1}{\delta q_1} = \theta - 2q_1 - q_2 = 0$ , which gives that  $q_1 = (\theta - q_2)/2$  is the only best response of player 1 to  $q_2$ .

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Since  $q_2 \geq 0$ , we obtain that  $q_1$  is never best response iff  $q_1 > \theta/2$ .

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Now, in  $G_{Rat}^1$ , we still have that  $q_1 = (\theta - q_2)/2$  is the best response to  $q_2$ , and  $q_2 = (\theta - q_1)/2$  the best resp. to  $q_1$



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Since  $q_2 \in R_2^1 = [0, \theta/2]$ , we obtain that  $q_1$  is never best response iff  $q_1 \in [0, \theta/4)$

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Thus  $R_1^2 = R_2^2 = [\theta/4, \theta/2]$ .

....

## Cournot Duopoly (cont.)

$$G = (N, (S_i)_{i \in N}, (u_i)_{i \in N})$$

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Assume for simplicity that  $c_1 = c_2 = c$  and denote  $\theta = \kappa - c$ .

In general, after  $2k$  iterations we have  $R_i^{2k} = R_i^{2k} = [\ell_k, r_k]$  where

▶  $r_k = (\theta - \ell_{k-1})/2$  for  $k \geq 1$

▶  $\ell_k = (\theta - r_k)/2$  for  $k \geq 1$  and  $\ell_0 = 0$

## Cournot Duopoly (cont.)

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Solving the recurrence we obtain

$$\blacktriangleright \ell_k = \theta/3 - \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^k \theta/3$$

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Hence,  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \ell_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} r_k = \theta/3$  and thus  $(\theta/3, \theta/3)$  is the only rationalizable equilibrium.

## Cournot Duopoly (cont.)

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Are  $q_i = \theta/3$  the best outcomes possible?

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---

Are  $q_i = \theta/3$  the best outcomes possible? NO!

$$u_1(\theta/3, \theta/3) = u_2(\theta/3, \theta/3) = \theta^2/9$$

but

$$u_1(\theta/4, \theta/4) = u_2(\theta/4, \theta/4) = \theta^2/8$$

# IESDS vs Rationalizability in Pure Strategies

## Theorem 14

*Assume that  $S$  is finite. Then for all  $k$  we have that  $R_i^k \subseteq D_i^k$ . That is, in particular, all rationalizable strategies survive IESDS.*



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The opposite inclusion does not have to be true in pure strategies:

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B	2,1	0,1
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Recall that  $A$  is never best response but is strictly dominated by neither  $B$ , nor  $C$ . That is,  $A$  survives IESDS but is not rationalizable.

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# Proof of Theorem 14

## Claim

If  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{Rat}^k$ , then  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G$ .

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**Proof of the Claim.** By induction on  $k$ . For  $k = 0$  we have  $G_{Rat}^k = G_{Rat}^0 = G$  and the claim holds trivially.

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Assume that the claim is true for some  $k$  and that  $s_j$  is a best response to  $s_{-j}$  in  $G_{Rat}^{k+1}$ .

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Then  $s'_i \in G_{Rat}^{k+1}$  since  $s'_i$  is *not* eliminated from  $G_{Rat}^k$ .

However, since  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{Rat}^{k+1}$ , we get  $u_i(s_i, s_{-i}) \geq u_i(s'_i, s_{-i})$ .

Thus  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{Rat}^k$ .



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Assume that the claim is true for some  $k$  and that  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{Rat}^{k+1}$ . Let  $s'_i$  be a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{Rat}^k$ .

Then  $s'_i \in G_{Rat}^{k+1}$  since  $s'_i$  is *not* eliminated from  $G_{Rat}^k$ .

However, since  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{Rat}^{k+1}$ , we get  $u_i(s_i, s_{-i}) \geq u_i(s'_i, s_{-i})$ .

Thus  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{Rat}^k$ .

By induction hypothesis,  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G$  and the claim has been proved.

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**Keep in mind:** If  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{Rat}^k$ , then  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G$ .

Now we prove  $R_i^k \subseteq D_i^k$  for all players  $i$  by induction on  $k$ .

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For  $k = 0$  we have that  $R_i^0 = S_i = D_i^0$  by definition.

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For  $k = 0$  we have that  $R_i^0 = S_i = D_i^0$  by definition.

Assume that  $R_i^k \subseteq D_i^k$  for some  $k \geq 0$  and prove that  $R_i^{k+1} \subseteq D_i^{k+1}$ .

# Proof of Theorem 14

**Keep in mind:** If  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{Rat}^k$ , then  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G$ .

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Assume that  $R_i^k \subseteq D_i^k$  for some  $k \geq 0$  and prove that  $R_i^{k+1} \subseteq D_i^{k+1}$ .

Let  $s_i \in R_i^{k+1}$ . Then there must be  $s_{-i} \in R_{-i}^k$  such that

$s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{Rat}^k$

(This follows from the fact that  $s_i$  has not been eliminated in  $G_{Rat}^k$ .)

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(This follows from the fact that  $s_i$  has not been eliminated in  $G_{Rat}^k$ .)

By the claim,  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G$  as well!

By induction hypothesis,  $s_i \in R_i^{k+1} \subseteq R_i^k \subseteq D_i^k$  and  $s_{-i} \in R_{-i}^k \subseteq D_{-i}^k$ .

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**Keep in mind:** If  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{Rat}^k$ , then  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G$ .

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For  $k = 0$  we have that  $R_i^0 = S_i = D_i^0$  by definition.

Assume that  $R_i^k \subseteq D_i^k$  for some  $k \geq 0$  and prove that  $R_i^{k+1} \subseteq D_i^{k+1}$ .

Let  $s_i \in R_i^{k+1}$ . Then there must be  $s_{-i} \in R_{-i}^k$  such that

$s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{Rat}^k$

(This follows from the fact that  $s_i$  has not been eliminated in  $G_{Rat}^k$ .)

By the claim,  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G$  as well!

By induction hypothesis,  $s_i \in R_i^{k+1} \subseteq R_i^k \subseteq D_i^k$  and  $s_{-i} \in R_{-i}^k \subseteq D_{-i}^k$ .

However, then  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{DS}^k$ .

(This follows from the fact that the “best response” relationship of  $s_i$  and  $s_{-i}$  is preserved by removing arbitrarily many other strategies.)

# Proof of Theorem 14

**Keep in mind:** If  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G_{Rat}^k$ , then  $s_i$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}$  in  $G$ .

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Thus  $s_i$  is not strictly dominated in  $G_{DS}^k$  and  $s_i \in D_i^{k+1}$ . □



# Pinning Down Beliefs – Nash Equilibria

Criticism of previous approaches:

- ▶ Strictly dominant strategy equilibria often do not exist
- ▶ IESDS and rationalizability may not remove any strategies

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But are all strategy profiles really equally reasonable?

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$(O, O)$  can be obtained as a profile where each player plays the best response to his belief and the **beliefs are correct.**



# Nash Equilibrium

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A usual definition is following:

## Definition 15

A pure-strategy profile  $s^* = (s_1^*, \dots, s_n^*) \in S$  is a (pure) Nash equilibrium if  $s_i^*$  is a best response to  $s_{-i}^*$  for each  $i \in N$ , that is

$$u_i(s_i^*, s_{-i}^*) \geq u_i(s_i, s_{-i}^*) \quad \text{for all } s_i \in S_i \text{ and all } i \in N$$

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Note that this definition is equivalent to the previous one in the sense that  $s_{-i}^*$  may be considered as the (consistent) belief of player  $i$  to which he plays a best response  $s_i^*$

# Nash Equilibria Examples

In the Prisoner's dilemma:

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<i>C</i>	-5, -5	0, -20
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In Cournot Duopoly,  $(\theta/3, \theta/3)$  is the only Nash equilibrium.

(Best response relations:  $q_1 = (\theta - q_2)/2$  and  $q_2 = (\theta - q_1)/2$  are both satisfied only by  $q_1 = q_2 = \theta/3$ )



# Example: Stag Hunt

Story:

- ▶ Two (in some versions more than two) hunters, players 1 and 2, can each choose to hunt
  - ▶ stag (S) = a large tasty meal
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This is supposed to explain that in real world there are societies that have similar endowments, access to technology and physical environment but have very different achievements, all because of self-fulfilling beliefs (or *norms* of behavior).

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So it seems to be rational to expect  $(H, H)$  (?)

# Nash Equilibria vs Previous Concepts

## Theorem 16

1. *If  $s^*$  is a strictly dominant strategy equilibrium, then it is the unique Nash equilibrium.*
2. *Each Nash equilibrium is rationalizable and survives IESDS.*
3. *If  $S$  is finite, neither rationalizability, nor IESDS creates new Nash equilibria.*

Proof: Homework!

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Proof: Homework!

## Corollary 17

*Assume that  $S$  is finite. If rationalizability or IESDS result in a unique strategy profile, then this profile is a Nash equilibrium.*

## Interpretations of Nash Equilibria

Except the two definitions, usual interpretations are following:

- ▶ When the goal is to give advice to all of the players in a game (i.e., to advise each player what strategy to choose), any advice that was not an equilibrium would have the unsettling property that there would always be some player for whom the advice was bad, in the sense that, if all other players followed the parts of the advice directed to them, it would be better for some player to do differently than he was advised. If the advice is an equilibrium, however, this will not be the case, because the advice to each player is the best response to the advice given to the other players.

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- ▶ When the goal is prediction rather than prescription, a Nash equilibrium can also be interpreted as a potential stable point of a dynamic adjustment process in which individuals adjust their behavior to that of the other players in the game, searching for strategy choices that will give them better results.