ECON322 Game Theory (Half II)

Topic 2: Common Belief in Rationality

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Introduction

Interactive Reasoning

- Since the outcome in a game for a player does not only depend on his own decision, but also on what his opponents are doing, it is crucial to model his belief about his opponents' choices.
- Due to this intuition the notion of conjecture was presented in Topic 1.
- However, a full account of interactive thinking actually require mores:
 - what a player thinks his opponents are conjecturing,
 - what he thinks his opponents are thinking their respective opponents are conjecturing,
 - etc.
- Accordingly, interactive reasoning encompasses an (infinite) sequence of iterated beliefs.

Belief hierarchies

Introduction

- More precisely, in **Epistemic Game Theory**, every player *i* is assumed to entertain a belief hierarchy:
 - a belief of i about his opponents' choice-combinations, (conjecture; also called first-order belief)
 - a belief of i about his opponents' beliefs about their respective opponents', choice-combinations, (second-order belief)
 - a belief of i about his opponents' beliefs about their respective opponents' beliefs about their respective opponents' choice-combinations.

(third-order belief)

etc.



Thinking about Rationality Interactively

- A choice is rational, if it is optimal for some conjecture (cf. Topic 1).
- The idea of rationality can be infused into interactive thinking.
- More formally speaking, belief in rationality can be iterated throughout the entire belief hierarchy of a player.
- Actually, the epistemic condition of common belief in rationality does exactly so:
 - player i believes his opponents to choose rationally,
 - player i believes his respective opponents to believe their respective opponents to choose rationally,
 - player i believes his respective opponents to believe their respective opponents to believe their respective opponents to choose rationally,
 - etc.

Story:

Introduction

- Alice and Bob are going together to a party tonight.
- Alice asks herself what colour she should wear.
- Alice prefers blue to green, green to red, and red to yellow.
- However, Alice dislikes most to wear the same colour as Bob.
- Let the utilities be given as follows:
 - blue: Alice: 4 and Bob: 2
 - green: Alice: 3 and Bob: 1
 - red: Alice: 2 and Bob: 4
 - vellow: Alice: 1 and Bob: 3
 - same colour: Alice: 0 and Bob: 0
- Question: Which colours can Alice rationally choose for tonight's party under common belief in rationality?



- Rational choices for *Alice*: blue, green, and red.
- Rational choices for *Bob*: red, vellow, and blue.
 - Red is optimal for Bob, if he believes Alice to choose any other colour than red.
 - Yellow is optimal for Bob, if he believes Alice to choose red.
 - Blue is optimal for Bob, if he believes with probability 0.6 that Alice chooses red and with probability 0.4 that Alice chooses vellow.
 - Green is never optimal; red is better for all beliefs with probability of less than 0.5 for Alice choosing red and yellow is better for all beliefs with probability of at least 0.5 for Alice choosing red.
- If Alice believes in Bob's rationality, then she assigns probability 0 to Bob's choice green.
- Thus, restrict *Alice*'s belief about *Bob*'s choice to red, yellow, and blue.
 - blue is optimal, if Alice believes Bob to choose red.
 - green is optimal, if Alice believes Bob to choose blue.
 - green yields higher expected utility than red, if Alice believes Bob to choose from {red, yellow, blue}.
- Consequently, Alice can only rationally choose blue and green, if she believes in Bob's rationality.

Epistemic Model

Introduction

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- Rational choices for *Alice* if she believes in *Bob*'s rationality: blue, and green.
- Rational choices for Bob if he believes in Alice's rationality: red, and yellow.
 - red is optimal, if Bob believes Alice to choose blue.
 - yellow is optimal, if Bob believes Alice to choose red.
 - yellow yields higher expected utility than blue, if Bob believes Alice to choose from {blue, green, red}.
- Can Alice rationally choose blue and green under common belief in rationality?

- Note that blue is optimal for Alice, if she believes Bob to choose red, and that red is optimal for Bob, if he believes Alice to choose blue.
- Consider the following belief hierarchy h_{Alice} for *Alice*.

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Alice believes Bob to choose red.

Alice believes Bob to believe her to choose blue.

Alice believes Bob to believe her to believe that he chooses red.

Alice believes Bob to believe her to believe him to believe that she chooses blue.
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- Thus, *Alice* believes *Bob* to choose rationally, and believes *Bob* to believe her to choose rationally, etc.
- In other words, h_{Alice} does not contain any belief of any order in which the rationality neither of *Alice* nor of *Bob* is questioned.
- Consequently, h_{Alice} satisfies common belief in rationality, and blue is optimal for her given the first-order belief of h_{Alice} .



- What about Alice's second most preferred colour green?
- If Alice believes in Bob's rationality, and believes that he believes in her rationality, then she assigns probability 0 to *Bob*'s choices blue and green.
- However, blue then yields higher expected utility than green for *Alice*, if she believes *Bob* to choose from {*red*, *yellow*}.
- In particular, Alice can hence not rationally choose green but only blue- under common belief in rationality.
- Analogously, it can be shown that Bob can only rationally choose red under common belief in rationality.



Story:

Introduction

- Alice and Bob both want to open a new pub on Bold Street.
- Bold Street contains 600 houses, equally spaced.
- One person per house is assumed to visit the closest pub.
- There are seven possible locations for pubs: a, b, c, d, e, f, g.
- If Alice and Bob choose the same location, then each gets 300 clients
- Question: Which locations can Alice rationally choose under common belief in rationality?



- Rational strategies for Alice: b, c, d, e, and f
- Rational strategies for Bob (by symmetry of the game): b, c, d, e, and f
- If Alice believes in Bob's rationality, then she assigns zero probability to Bob's strategies a and q.
- So, restrict Alice's belief about Bob's strategy to b, c, d, e, and f,
 - c is optimal, if Alice believes Bob to choose b.
 - d is optimal, if Alice believes Bob to choose d.
 - e is optimal, if Alice believes Bob to choose f.
 - b is strictly dominated by c, if Alice believes Bob to choose from $\{b, c, d, e, f\}$.
 - f is strictly dominated by e, if Alice believes Bob to choose from $\{b, c, d, e, f\}$.
- Consequently, Alice can only rationally choose c. d. and e. if she believes in Bob's rationality.



Introduction

- Rational strategies for *Alice*, if she believes in *Bob*'s rationality: c. d. and e.
- Rational strategies for Bob, if he believes in Alice's rationality (by symmetry of the game): c, d, and e
- If Alice believes in Bob's rationality and believes that he believes in her rationality, then she assigns zero probability to Bob's strategies a, b, f and q.
- Thus, restrict Alice's belief about Bob's strategy to c, d, and e.
 - d is optimal, if Alice believes Bob to choose d.
 - c is strictly dominated by d. if Alice believes Bob to choose from $\{c, d, e\}$.
 - e is strictly dominated by d. if Alice believes Bob to choose from {c, d, e}.
- Consequently, Alice can only rationally choose d, if she believes in Bob's rationality and believes Bob to believe in her rationality.



- Can Alice rationally choose d under common belief in rationality?
- Note that d is optimal for Alice, if she believes Bob to choose d, and that d is optimal for Bob, if he believes Alice to choose d.
- Consider the following belief hierarchy halice for Alice.
 - Alice believes Bob to choose d.
 - Alice believes Bob to believe her to choose d.
 - Alice believes Bob to believe her to believe him to choose d.
 - etc.
- Thus Alice believes Bob to choose rationally, and believes Bob to believe her to choose rationally, etc.
- In other words, halice does not contain any belief of any order in which the rationality neither of Alice nor of Bob is questioned.
- \blacksquare Consequently, h_{Alice} satisfies common belief in rationality, and d is optimal for her given the first-order belief of h_{Alice} .

Introduction

Epistemic Model

Common Belief in Rationality

Iterated Strict Dominance

Characterization of Common Belief in Rationality

Agenda

Epistemic Model

Common Belief in Rationality

Iterated Strict Dominance

Characterization of Common Belief in Rationality

Rewriting Belief Hierarchies

- A belief hierarchy involves infinitely many layers.
 - FIRST-ORDER BELIEF: i's belief about his opponents' choices.
 - SECOND-ORDER BELIEF: i's belief about his opponents' beliefs about their resepctive opponents' choices.
 - THIRD-ORDER BELIEF: i's belief about his opponents' beliefs about their respective opponents' beliefs about their respective opponents' choices.
 - FOURTH-ORDER BELIEF: i's belief about his opponents' beliefs about their respective opponents' beliefs about their respective opponents' beliefs about their respective opponents' choices.
 - etc

Introduction

- The above doxastic sequence can be rewritten as follows:
 - FIRST-ORDER BELIEF: i's belief about his opponents' choices.
 - SECOND-ORDER BELIEF: i's belief about his opponents' FIRST-ORDER BELIEFS.
 - THIRD-ORDER BELIEF: i's belief about his opponents' Second-Order Beliefs.
 - FOURTH-ORDER BELIEF: i's belief about his opponents' THIRD-ORDER BELIEFS.
 - etc.
- In a way, a belief hierarchy thus consists of a first-order belief and a belief about the opponents' belief hierarchies.

- This is a crucial insight that actually enables a compact representation of belief hierarchies.
- The infinite doxastic sequences constituting a belief hierarchy is labelled by the abstract notion of type.
- A type induces a belief about the opponents' choice-type combinations.
- Every layer of the belief hierarchy that corresponds to the type can then be inferred.
- Types can thus be viewed as implicit belief hierarchies.



Epistemic Model

Types and their beliefs are modelled in an additional mathematical structure called

epistemic model

that complements the game structure given by Γ .

Definition 1

Introduction

Let Γ_N be a normal form. An epistemic model $\mathcal{M}^{\Gamma} = (T_i, b_i)_{i \in I}$ of Γ provides for every player $i \in I$,

- a finite set T_i of types,
- and for every type $t_i \in T_i$ a probability measure

$$b_i(t_i) \in \Delta\left((C_j \times T_j)_{j \in I \setminus \{i\}}\right)$$

on the opponents' choice-type combinations.

Note that the probability measure b_i – the belief function of player i – provides for every type $t_i \in T_i$ a first-order belief as well as a belief about the opponents' types, i.e. belief hierarchies.



Illustration: An Epistemic Model for Example I

Type Sets:

$$T_{Alice} = \{t_{Alice}^1, t_{Alice}^2, t_{Alice}^3\}$$

$$T_{Bob} = \{t_{Bob}^1, t_{Bob}^2, t_{Bob}^3, t_{Bob}^4\}$$

Beliefs for Alice:

$$\begin{aligned} b_{Alice}(t_{Alice}^1) &= (green, t_{Bob}^1) \\ b_{Alice}(t_{Alice}^2) &= (blue, t_{Bob}^2) \\ b_{Alice}(t_{Alice}^3) &= 0.6 \cdot (blue, t_{Bob}^3) + 0.4 \cdot (green, t_{Bob}^4) \end{aligned}$$

Beliefs for *Bob*:

$$b_{Bob}(t_{Bob}^1) = (blue, t_{Alice}^1)$$

$$b_{Bob}(t_{Bob}^2) = (green, t_{Alice}^2)$$

$$b_{Bob}(t_{Bob}^3) = (red, t_{Alice}^3)$$

$$b_{Bob}(t_{Bob}^4) = (yellow, t_{Alice}^4)$$

Illustration: An Epistemic Model for Example I

Type Sets:

$$T_{Alice} = \{t_{Alice}^{1}, t_{Alice}^{2}, t_{Alice}^{3}\}$$

$$T_{Bob} = \{t_{Bob}^{1}, t_{Bob}^{2}, t_{Bob}^{3}, t_{Bob}^{4}\}$$

Beliefs for Alice:

Definite for Allice) =
$$(green, l_{Bob}^1)$$

 $b_{Allice}(l_{Allice}^1) = (glue, l_{Bob}^2)$
 $b_{Allice}(l_{Allice}^2) = (blue, l_{Bob}^2)$
 $b_{Allice}(l_{Allice}^3) = 0.6 \cdot (blue, l_{Bob}^3) + 0.4 \cdot (green, l_{Bob}^4)$

Beliefs for Bob.

$$\begin{array}{l} b_{Bob}(t_{Bob}^1) = (blue, t_{Alice}^1) \\ b_{Bob}(t_{Bob}^2) = (green, t_{Alice}^2) \\ b_{Bob}(t_{Bob}^3) = (red, t_{Alice}^3) \\ b_{Bob}(t_{Bob}^4) = (vellow, t_{Alice}^4) \\ \end{array}$$

Type t_{Alice}^3 induces the following belief hierarchy:

- Alice believes with probability-0.6 Bob to wear blue and with probability-0.4 Bob to wear green. (first-order belief)
- Alice believes with probability-0.6 Bob to believe her to wear red and with probability-0.4 Bob to believe her to wear vellow. (second-order belief)
- Alice believes with probability-0.6 Bob to believe her to believe with probability-0.6 him to wear blue and with probability-0.4 him to wear green as well as with probability-0.4 Bob to believe her to believe him to wear green. (third-order belief)

Optimality Defined for Types

Definition 2

Let Γ_N be a normal form, \mathcal{M}^{Γ} an epistemic model of it, $i \in I$ some player, $c_i \in C_i$ some choice of player i, and $t_i \in T_i$ some type of player i. The choice c_i is optimal for t_i , if c_i is optimal given t_i 's induced conjecture.

Note: to check whether some choice is optimal for a given type,

only the first-order belief

needs to be considered – not its higher-order beliefs.

Epistemic Models and Rationality

Definition 3

Introduction

Let Γ_N be a normal form, $i \in I$ some player, and $c_i \in C_i$ some choice of player i. The choice c_i is rational, if there exists an epistemic model \mathcal{M}^{Γ} of Γ with a type $t_i \in T_i$ of player i such that c_i is optimal t_i .

Agenda

Epistemic Model

Common Belief in Rationality

Iterated Strict Dominance

Characterization of Common Belief in Rationality

Iterating Belief in Rationality

- Intuitively, a choice is rational, if it is optimal for some conjecture.
- A player can then be said to believe in rationality, if he only assigns positive probability to choices & conjectures of his opponents such that the choices are optimal for the conjectures.
- Correspondingly, a player believes his opponents to believe in rationality, if he only assigns positive
 probability to beliefs of his opponents that believe in rationality, etc.
- In this fashion, a restriction is imposed on every layer of a player's belief hierarchy, and this gives rise to the epistemic condition of common belief in rationality.
- Intuititively, a player expressing common belief in rationality thus exhibits a state of mind, where
 - he believes in rationality,
 - he believes his opponents to believe in rationality,
 - he believes his opponents to believe that their respective opponents believe in rationality,
 - etc.
- These ideas are now formalized in epistemic models.



Belief in Rationality

Definition 4

Introduction

Let Γ_N be a normal form, \mathcal{M}^{Γ} an epistemic model of it, $i \in I$ some player, and $t_i \in T_i$ some type of player i. The type t_i believes in rationality, if t_i only assigns positive probability to choice-type combinations

$$((c_1,t_1),\ldots,(c_{i-1},t_{i-1}),(c_{i+1},t_{i+1}),\ldots(c_n,t_n))$$

such that c_i is optimal for t_i for all $j \in I \setminus \{i\}$.

Higher-order Beliefs in Rationality

Epistemic Model

Definition 5

Introduction

Let Γ_N be a normal form, \mathcal{M}^{Γ} an epistemic model of it, $i \in I$ some player, and $t_i \in T_i$ some type of player i.

- The type t_i expresses 1-fold belief in rationality, if t_i believes in rationality.
- Let k > 1. The type t_i expresses k-fold belief in rationality, if t_i only assigns positive probability to opponents' types that express (k-1)-fold belief in rationality.

Let $l \ge 1$. The type t_i expresses up to l-fold belief in rationality, if t_i expresses k-fold belief in rationality for all $k \le l$.



Characterization of CBR

Common Belief in Rationality

Definition 6

Let Γ_N be a normal form, \mathcal{M}^{Γ} an epistemic model of it, $i \in I$ some player, and $t_i \in T_i$ some type of player i. The type t_i expresses common belief in rationality, if t_i expresses k-fold belief in rationality for all k > 1.

Rational Choice under Common Belief in Rationality

Definition 7

Let Γ_N be a normal form, $i \in I$ some player, and $c_i \in C_i$ some choice of player i. The choice c_i is rational under common belief in rationality, if there exists an epistemic model \mathcal{M}^{Γ} of Γ with some type $t_i \in T_i$ of player i such that

- t_i expresses common belief in rationality,
- lacksquare c_i is optimal for t_i .

Illustration: An Epistemic Model for Example I

- Consider the following **epistemic model** of *Example I*.
 - Type Sets:

$$T_{Alice} = \{t_{Alice}\}\$$

 $T_{Bob} = \{t_{Bob}\}$

Beliefs for Alice:

$$b_{Alice}(t_{Alice}) = (red, t_{Rob})$$

Beliefs for Bob:

$$b_{Bob}(t_{Bob}) = (blue, t_{Alice})$$

- \blacksquare Observe that t_{Alice} expresses common belief in rationality.
 - Alice believes that Bob is of type t_{Bob} and chooses red, which is optimal for t_{Bob}. (1-fold belief in rationality)
 - Alice believes that Bob believes her to be of type t_{Alice} and to choose blue, which is optimal for t_{Alice}. (2-fold belief in rationality)
 - Alice believes that Bob believes her to believe him to be of type t_{Bob} and to choose red which is optimal for t_{Bob}.
 (3-fold belief in rationality)
 - etc



Introduction Epistemic Mo

Shortcut to Verifying Common Belief in Rationality

Theorem 8

Let Γ_N be a normal form and \mathcal{M}^{Γ} an epistemic model of it. If all types express belief in rationality, then all types express common belief in rationality.

Proof:

(by INDUCTION on belief order k)

- INDUCTION BASE:
 - It directly holds that every type in \mathcal{M}^{Γ} expresses 1-fold belief in rationality.
- INDUCTION STEP
 - Suppose that every type expresses k^* -fold belief in rationality for some $k^* > 1$.
 - Every type thus only assigns positive probability to opponents' types that express k^* -fold belief in rationality, and consequently expresses $(k^* + 1)$ -fold belief in rationality.
 - By induction, it then follows that every type expresses k-fold belief in rationality for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$.
 - Therefore, every type expresses common belief in rationality.



Agenda

Introduction

Epistemic Model

Common Belief in Rationality

Iterated Strict Dominance

Characterization of Common Belief in Rationality

Iterating Strict Dominance Arguments

- Formally, a solution concept (SC) in classical game theory is a set of choice profiles, i.e. $SC \subseteq \times_{i \in I} C_i$.
- The solution concept of **iterated strict dominance** repeatedly applies strict dominance to the game:
 - Step 1: within the original game, eliminate all choices that are strictly dominated.
 - **Step 2:** within the reduced game obtained after **Step 1**, eliminate all choices that are strictly dominated.
 - **Step 3:** within the reduced game obtained after **Step 2**, eliminate all choices that are strictly dominated.
 - etc.
- The solution of the game then consists of all choice profiles that can be formed by the surviving choices.



Iterated Strict Dominance

Definition 9

Let Γ_N be a normal form.

$$\blacksquare SD^0 := \times_{i \in I} C_i.$$

$$\blacksquare SD^{(n+1)} := \times_{i \in I} SD_i^{(n+1)}$$
, where

$$SD_i^{(n+1)} := SD_i^n \setminus$$

$$\{c_i \in SD_i^n : \exists r_i \in \Delta(SD_i^n) \text{ s.t. } U_i(c_i, c_{-i}) < V_i(r_i, c_{-i}) \forall c_{-i} \in SD_{-i}^n\}$$

for all $i \in I$ and for all n > 0.

The set $SD^k = \times_{i \in I} SD^k_i$ is called *k*-fold strict dominance for all k > 0, and the set $ISD := \bigcap_{k>0} SD^k$ is called iterated strict dominance.

Illustration: ISD in Example I

- Step 1: $C_{Alice} = \{blue, green, red, yellow\}$ and $C_{Bob} = \{red, yellow, blue, green\}$.
 - *Alice*: yellow is strictly dominated by 0.5blue + 0.5green.
 - *Bob*: green is strictly dominated by 0.5red + 0.5yellow.
- Step 2: $SD^1_{Alice} = \{blue, green, red\}$ and $SD^1_{Bob} = \{red, yellow, blue\}$.
 - Alice: red is strictly dominated by green.
 - Bob: blue is strictly dominated by yellow.
- Step 3: $SD_{Alice}^2 = \{blue, green\}$ and $SD_{Bob}^2 = \{red, yellow\}$.
 - Alice: green is strictly dominated by blue.
 - Bob: yellow is strictly dominated by red.
- Iterated strict dominance yields blue for *Alice* and red for *Bob*. (Formally, *ISD* = {(blue, red)}.)

Introduction

Example II: (For Self-Study) Where to Locate My Pub?

- **Step 1:** $C_{Alice} = C_{Rob} = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g\}.$
 - Alice and Bob: a is strictly dominated by b, and g is strictly dominated by f.
- Step 2: $C_{Alice}^1 = C_{Rob}^1 = \{b, c, d, e, f\}.$
 - Alice and Bob: b is strictly dominated by c, and f is strictly dominated by e.
- **Step 2:** $C_{Alice}^2 = C_{Rob}^2 = \{c, d, e\}.$
 - Alice and Bob: c is strictly dominated by d, and e is strictly dominated by d.
- **Iterated strict dominance** yields *d* for *Alice* and *d* for *Bob*.



Properties of Iterated Strict Dominance

Theorem 10 (Intelligibility)

Let Γ_N be a normal form. $ISD \neq \emptyset$.

Theorem 11 (Effectiveness)

Let Γ_N be a normal form. There exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $SD^n = SD^k$ for all n > k.

Theorem 12 (Monotonicity)

Let Γ_N be a normal form, $i \in I$ some player, and $c_i \in C_i$ some choice of player i. If $c_i \notin SD_i^k$ for some $k \geq 0$, then c_i is strictly dominated against $SD_{-i}^{k'}$ for all k' > k.



Conceptual Upshots of the Three Properties

- INTELLIGIBILITY: ISD always returns a non-empty output and can thus be applied to any game.
- EFFECTIVENESS: **ISD** always stops after fintely many rounds and thus constitutes a finite procedure.
- MONOTONICTY: a choice identified by ISD as strictly dominated in some round remains strictly dominated in all succeeding rounds, and **ISD** can thus be viewed as order-independent.

Agenda

Introduction

Epistemic Model

Common Belief in Rationality

Iterated Strict Dominance

Characterization of Common Belief in Rationality

Motivation

Introduction

- The epistemic and the classical perspectives are now related to each other.
- In the Example reasoning in line with common belief in rationality and the solution concept of ISD both lead to the same result.
- As it turns out this is not a coincidence, as common belief in rationality and ISD are equivalent.

Epistemic Characterization of Iterated Strict Dominance

Theorem 13

Let Γ_N be a normal form, $i \in I$ some player, and $c_i \in C_i$ some choice of player i. The choice c_i is rational under common belief in rationality, if and only if, $c_i \in ISD_i$.

- The epistemic characterization of ISD consists of two directions.
- Epistemic Foundation: CBR implies ISD.
- **Existence:** ISD can be supported by CBR.



Intelligibility

Corollary 14

Let Γ_N be a normal form. There exists an epistemic model \mathcal{M}^{Γ} of Γ in which all types express common belief in rationality.

- The applicability of common belief in rationality does thus not depend on any particularities of the underlying game.
- Intelligibility thus takes shape classically (Theorem 10) as well as epistemically (Theorem 14).

Required Background Reading for Topic 2

A. Perea (2012): *Epistemic Game Theory: Reasoning and Choice.* Cambridge University Press.

Chapter 3 "Common belief in rationality".

Introduction