# Economics 209A Theory and Application of Non-Cooperative Games (Fall 2013)

Leftovers

## Bayesian equilibrium

A Bayesian game consists of a finite set N of players, a finite set  $\Omega$  of decision-relevant states (characteristics of players), and for each player  $i \in N$ 

- a set  $A_i$  of actions
- a finite set  $T_i$  of types and a signal function  $\tau_i: \Omega \to T_i$
- a probability measure  $p_i$  on  $\Omega$  (prior belief) for which  $p_i(\tau_i^{-1}(t_i)) > 0$ for all  $t_i \in T_i$ .
- a preference relation  $\gtrsim_i$  on the set of probability measure over  $A \times \Omega$ .

 $a^* \in \times_{(i,t_i)} A_i$  is a Bayes-Nash equilibrium of a Bayesian game  $\langle N, \Omega, (A_i), (T_i), (\tau_i), (p_i), (\gtrsim_i) \rangle$ 

if it is a NE in which the set of players is the set of all pairs  $(i, t_i)$  for all  $i \in N$  and  $t_i \in T_i$ , and for each player  $(i, t_i)$ 

$$a^* \gtrsim_{(i,t_i)} b^* \Leftrightarrow L_i(a^*,t_i) \gtrsim_i L_i(b^*,t_i)$$

where  $L_i(a^*, t_i)$  is a *lottery* over  $A \times \Omega$  that assigns a probability  $\frac{p_i(\omega)}{p_i(\tau_i^{-1}(t_i))}$  to

$$(a^*(j,\tau_j(\omega)))_{j\in N,\omega}$$
 if  $\omega \in p_i(\tau_i^{-1}(t_i))$ 

and zero otherwise.

Example: BoS with one-side imperfect information



Then, the expected payoffs of player 1 are given by

	(B,B)	(B,S)	(S,B)	(S,S)
B	2	<b>2</b> <i>p</i>	2(1-p)	0
S	0	p	1-p	1

For any belief  $p \in (0, 1)$ , (B, (B, S)) is an equilibrium (B is optimal for player 1 given the actions of the two types of player 2 and his beliefs).

## Harsanyi (1973)

Consider a game  $G = \langle N, (A_i), (u_i) \rangle$  and let  $(\epsilon_i(a))_{i \in N, a \in A}$  be a collection of random variables with support [-1, 1] where

- $\epsilon_i = (\epsilon_i(a))_{a \in A}$  is private information and has well-behaved distribution function, and  $\epsilon = (\epsilon_i)_{i \in N}$  are independent.
- The payoff of each player i at the outcome a and state  $\epsilon$  is  $u_i(a) + \epsilon_i(a)$ . This defines a Bayesian game  $G(\epsilon)$ .

For <u>almost</u> any game G and <u>any</u> collection  $\epsilon^*$ , <u>almost</u> any  $\alpha \in NE(G)$  is approachable – associated with the limit as  $\gamma \to 0$  of a sequence of pure strategy equilibria of the Bayesian game  $G(\gamma \epsilon^*)$  (and visa versa).

## A model of knowledge (OR 5.1-5.2)

Knowledge is formalized such that a player cannot know something that is false (by contrast to beliefs).

An event is common knowledge if

- all players know it,
- all players know that all players know it,
- and so on ad infinitum.

### Setup

- $\Omega$  a finite set of states of the world.
- $E \subseteq \Omega$  an event.
- ${\cal P}$  information function.

A partition of  $\Omega$ , i.e., a collection of non-empty disjoint subsets of  $\Omega$  whose union is  $\Omega$ . The information that a player is assumed to have about the true state.

# Example

$$\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$$

The information of players a and b are given by

$$\mathcal{P}^a = \{\{1, 2, 3\}, \{4, 5\}, \{6, 7, 8\}, \{9\}\}$$

 $\quad \text{and} \quad$ 

$$\mathcal{P}^b = \{\{1,2\},\{3,4,5\},\{6\},\{7,8,9\}\}.$$

Suppose that  $\omega = 2$  and consider the event

$$E = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

- Does a know E?
- Does b know E?
- Does a know that b knows E?
- Does b know that a knows E?

Given  $\mathcal{P}^a$  and  $\mathcal{P}^b$ , when  $\omega = 2$  the event

$$G = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

is common knowledge.

- -a knows G,
- b knows G,
- a knows b knows G,
- b knows a knows G, and so on indefinitely.

#### Some definitions

- A partition  $\mathcal{P}^i$  refines another partition  $\mathcal{P}^j$  if every member of  $\mathcal{P}^i$  is a subset of a member  $\mathcal{P}^j$ .
- The meet of two partitions  $\mathcal{P}^i$  and  $\mathcal{P}^j$ , denoted by  $\mathcal{P}^i \wedge \mathcal{P}^j$ , is a partition of  $\Omega$  such that  $\mathcal{P}^i$  and  $\mathcal{P}^j$  are (the only) refinements of  $\mathcal{P}^i \wedge \mathcal{P}^j$ .

# Example (continue)

- Given 
$$\mathcal{P}^a$$
 and  $\mathcal{P}^b$  above, the meet  $\mathcal{P}^a \wedge \mathcal{P}^b$  is the partition  
 $\mathcal{P}^a \wedge \mathcal{P}^b = \{\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, \{6, 7, 8, 9\}\}$ 

## - This is the unique partition that satisfies the conditions above.

#### Aumann's common knowledge

Let  $\omega \in \Omega$  be the true state and fix some event  $E \subseteq \Omega$ . Then E is common knowledge (given  $\omega$ ) if and only if

$$(\mathcal{P}^a \wedge \mathcal{P}^b)(\omega) \subseteq E$$

(*E* is common knowledge if it contains the member of  $\mathcal{P}^a \wedge \mathcal{P}^b$  that contains  $\omega$ ).

In the above example,

$$(\mathcal{P}^a \wedge \mathcal{P}^b)(\omega) = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} \subseteq G = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

which implies that event G is common knowledge at  $\omega = 2$ . The idea of the proof can be seen in Figure 1 and Figure 2.

### Aumann's agreement theorem (OR 5.3)

Suppose a and b have a common (prior) probability measure p on the set of states  $\Omega$  (the common prior assumption).

The posterior probabilities of event  $E \subseteq \Omega$  when the state is  $\omega \in \Omega$  for i = a, b is given by

$$p[E|\mathcal{P}^{i}(\omega)] = \frac{p[E \cap \mathcal{P}^{i}(\omega)]}{p[\mathcal{P}^{i}(\omega)]}$$

Aumann's theorem: Fix some event  $E \subseteq \Omega$  and a state  $\omega \in \Omega$ . If  $p[E|\mathcal{P}^a(\omega)]$  and  $p[E|\mathcal{P}^b(\omega)]$  are common knowledge, then they must be equal. Hence, players cannot agree to disagree!

#### <u>Proof</u>

- Let  $(\mathcal{P}^a \wedge \mathcal{P}^b)(\omega)$  be member of the meet of  $\mathcal{P}^a$  and  $\mathcal{P}^b$  that contains  $\omega$ . Since a's posterior is common knowledge, there is a q such that

$$p(E|\pi) = q$$

for any  $\pi \in \mathcal{P}^a \subseteq (\mathcal{P}^a \wedge \mathcal{P}^b)(\omega).$ 

# Proof (continue)

– Since  $a\space{-}$  s posterior is common knowledge, there is a r such that

$$p(E|
ho)=r$$
 for any  $ho\in\mathcal{P}^b\subseteq(\mathcal{P}^a\wedge\mathcal{P}^b)(\omega).$ 

- Hence,

$$p[E|(\mathcal{P}^a \wedge \mathcal{P}^b)(\omega)] = q \text{ and } p[E|(\mathcal{P}^a \wedge \mathcal{P}^b)(\omega)] = r$$

which completes the proof.

#### A knowledge function

The event that a player knows an event  $E \subseteq \Omega$  is given by  $KE = \{ \omega \in \Omega : \mathcal{P}(\omega) \subseteq E \}.$ where  $K : 2^{\Omega} \to 2^{\Omega}$  (the set of all subsets of  $\Omega$  to itself).

Properties of KE

*i* For any  $E \subseteq \Omega$ ,  $KE \subseteq E$ .

*ii* For any  $E, F \subseteq \Omega$ , if  $E \subseteq F$ , then  $KE \subseteq KF$ .

*iii* For any  $E \subseteq \Omega$ ,  $(KE)^c \subseteq K(KE)^c$ .

#### Why?

- *i* If  $\omega \in KE$ , then  $\mathcal{P}(\omega) \subseteq E$ . But  $\omega \in \mathcal{P}(\omega)$ , so  $\omega \in E$ .
- *ii* If  $\omega \in KE$ , then  $\mathcal{P}(\omega) \subseteq E$ . But then  $\mathcal{P}(\omega) \subseteq F$  so  $\omega \in KF$ .

*iii* If 
$$\omega \in (KE)^c$$
, then  $\mathcal{P}(\omega) \nsubseteq E$ .

Suppose there exists some  $\omega' \in \mathcal{P}(\omega) \cap KE$ . Then,  $\omega' \in \mathcal{P}(\omega)$ implies  $\mathcal{P}(\omega') = \mathcal{P}(\omega) \nsubseteq E$ , contradicting  $\omega' \in KE$ . Thus,  $\mathcal{P}(\omega) \cap KE = \emptyset$ , which says that  $\mathcal{P}(\omega) \subseteq (KE)^c$ , or  $\omega \in K(KE)^c$ . If a (knowledge) function  $K : 2^{\Omega} \to 2^{\Omega}$  satisfies (*i*)-(*iii*) then there is a partition  $\mathcal{P}$  of  $\Omega$  such that

$$KE = \left\{ \omega \in \mathbf{\Omega} : \mathcal{P}\left( \omega 
ight) \subseteq E 
ight\}.$$

proof (sketch)

- The following properties of K must be shown:

 $K\Omega = \Omega$ ,  $KE \subseteq KKE$ , and  $K(E \cap F) = KE \cap KF$ .

- Then, the following must be shown:

 $\omega \in KE$  if and only if  $\mathcal{P}(\omega) \subseteq E$ , and if  $\omega \in \mathcal{P}(\omega)$  and  $\omega' \in \mathcal{P}(\omega)$ , then  $\mathcal{P}(\omega') = \mathcal{P}(\omega)$ .

### Knowledge and equilibrium (an example)

#### <u>States</u>

-  $\Omega = \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2$  where  $\Omega_i = [a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , and the generic element is  $\omega = (\omega_1, \omega_2)$ .

#### Signals

-  $\sigma_i(\omega) = \omega_i$ ,  $\forall \omega \in \Omega$ , i = 1, 2 and  $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P}_1 \times \mathbf{P}_2$  and  $\mathbf{P}_i$  has no atoms.

Actions and payoffs

$$u(a,\omega) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } a = 0 \\ U(\omega_1,\omega_2) & \text{if } a = 1 \end{cases}$$

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- where  $U(\omega)$  is a continuous and increasing function and actions are not weakly dominated.

## Social beliefs

- An event  $\{\omega_i\} \times B_{jt}$ , where  $\omega_j \in B_{jt} \subseteq \Omega_j$ . It is common knowledge at date t that

$$\omega \in B_t(\omega) = B_{1t}(\omega) \times B_{2t}(\omega).$$

#### The optimal decision

– Agent i's expected payoff to action 1

$$\varphi_i(\omega_i, B_{jt}) = E[U(\omega_1, \omega_2) | \{\omega_i\} \times B_{jt}\}$$

is increasing in  $\omega_i$ . The optimal strategy is the cutoff strategy

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_i &> \omega_i^*(B_{jt}) \Longrightarrow \varphi_i(\omega_i, B_{jt}) > 0, \\ \omega_i &< \omega_i^*(B_{jt}) \Longrightarrow \varphi_i(\omega_i, B_{jt}) < 0. \end{aligned}$$

where  $\omega_i^*$  is the history-contingent cutoff.

- The cutoff rule implies that the set  $B_{jt}$  is an interval and that  $B_{jt+1}(\omega) \subseteq B_{jt}(\omega) \subseteq [a, b]$  <u>Claim</u>: Agents must eventually choose the same action.

- By contradiction.

Suppose that for some B and every  $\omega$  such that  $B(\omega) = B$ 

$$E[U(\omega_1,\omega_2)|\{\omega_1\}\times B_2]>0$$

 $\mathsf{and}$ 

$$E[U(\omega_1,\omega_2)|B_1\times\{\omega_2\}]<0.$$

The same action must be optimal for every element in the information set

$$E[U(\underline{\omega_1}, \omega_2)|\{\underline{\omega_1}\} \times B_2] \ge 0$$

and

$$E[U(\omega_1,\overline{\omega}_2)|B_1\times\{\overline{\omega}_2\}]\leq 0,$$

where  $\underline{\omega}_1 = \inf B_1(\omega)$  and  $\overline{\omega}_2 = \sup B_2(\omega)$ .

Then

$$U(\underline{\omega}_1, \overline{\omega}_2) \geq 0$$
 and  $U(\underline{\omega}_1, \overline{\omega}_2) \leq 0$ .

If  $B_i$  for i = 1, 2 is not a singleton, a contradiction. B is a singleton and  $U(\omega) = 0$  if  $\omega \in B$  but the set  $\{\omega : U(\omega) = 0\}$  has probability zero.

## An illustration

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$$\sigma_i(\omega) = \omega_i$$
,  $\omega_i ~U[-1,1]$ , and  $U(1,\omega) = \omega_1 + \omega_2$ .  
- If  
 $-\frac{t-1}{t} > \omega_1 > -\frac{t-2}{t}$   
and

$$\omega_2 > \frac{t-1}{t}$$

then  $x_{1s} = 0$  and  $x_{2s} = 1$  for s < t, and  $x_{1s} = x_{2s} = 1$  for  $s \ge t$ .

# Figure 1



# Figure 2a



#### Figure 2b



Does *a* know that *b* knows that *a* knows *E*? Here the answer is no!