EPICENTER Summer Course on Epistemic Game Theory

Incomplete Information, Unawareness and Psychological Games

Day 2: Common Belief in Rationality in Standard Games

Andrés Perea



Maastricht University

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Introduction

- In a game, the outcome depends on the choices of your opponents.
- States: choice-combinations by your opponents.
- Every player faces his own decision problem.
- To make a good decision, you must reason about decision problems of others.
- Central reasoning concept: Common belief in rationality.
- How to formalize common belief in rationality?
- How to characterize choices that are possible under common belief in rationality?
- Is common belief in rationality always possible?

- Games as decision problems
- Belief hierarchies, beliefs diagrams and types
- Common belief in rationality
- Recursive elimination procedure
- Possibility of common belief in rationality

Games as Decision Problems

Example: Going to a Party

You	blue	green	red	yellow	Barbara	blue	green	red	yellow
blue	0	4	4	4	blue	0	2	2	2
green	3	0	3	3	green	1	0	1	1
red	2	2	0	2	red	4	4	0	4
yellow	1	1	1	0	yellow	3	3	3	0

Story

- This evening, you are going to a party together with your friend Barbara.
- You must both decide which color to wear: *blue, green, red* or *yellow.*
- You dislike wearing the same color as Barbara, and the same holds for Barbara.

Games as Decision Problems

Example: Going to a Party

You	blue	green	red	yellow	Barbara	blue	green	red	yellow
blue	0	4	4	4	blue	0	2	2	2
green	3	0	3	3	green	1	0	1	1
red	2	2	0	2	red	4	4	0	4
yellow	1	1	1	0	yellow	3	3	3	0

Your choice *yellow* is irrational: It is strictly dominated by (0.5). *blue* + (0.5). *green*.

- Similarly, Barbara's choice green is irrational.
- If you believe in Barbara's rationality, you must assign probability 0 to her choice *green*.
- Eliminate state green from your decision problem.
- Then, your choice *red* becomes irrational.

Definition (Standard game)

- A standard game specifies
- (a) a finite set of players *I*,
- (b) for every player *i* a finite set of choices C_i ,

(c) for every player *i* a decision problem (C_i, C_{-i}, \succeq_i) .

- We assume: conditional preference relation \succeq_i has an expected utility representation u_i .
- It is important to reason about the decision problems of others.

Belief Hierarchies, Beliefs Diagrams and Types Belief Hierarchies

• Idea of common belief in rationality:

you believe that your opponents choose rationally,

you believe that your opponents believe that the other players choose rationally,

and so on.

It puts restrictions on

your belief about the opponents' choices

(first-order belief),

your belief about the opponents' first-order beliefs (second-order belief),

your belief about the opponents' second-order beliefs (third-order belief),

and so on.

Belief Hierarchies, Beliefs Diagrams and Types Belief Hierarchies

Definition (Belief hierarchy)

- A belief hierarchy for player *i* specifies
- a first-order belief: a belief about the opponents' choice combinations,
- a second-order belief: a belief about the opponents' first-order beliefs,
- a third-order belief: a belief about the opponents' second-order beliefs,

and so on, ad infinitum.

- Problem: Belief hierarchy is an infinite object.
- We will see: It has finite representation in terms of

beliefs diagram and

epistemic model with types.

Belief Hierarchies, Beliefs Diagrams and Types

Beliefs Diagrams

You	blue	green	red	yellow	Barbara	blue	green	red	yellow
blue	0	4	4	4	blue	0	2	2	2
green	3	0	3	3	green	1	0	1	1
red	2	2	0	2	red	4	4	0	4
yellow	1	1	1	0	yellow	3	3	3	0

You







Belief Hierarchies, Beliefs Diagrams and Types Types

- A beliefs diagram can be used to visualize belief hierarchies.
- Epistemic models with types provide a finite mathematical encoding of belief hierarchies.
- Recall: a belief hierarchy specifies
 - a first-order belief: a belief about the opponents' choice combinations,
 - a second-order belief: a belief about the opponents' first-order beliefs,

a third-order belief: a belief about the opponents' second-order beliefs,

and so on, ad infinitum.

• Hence, a belief hierarchy specifies a belief about the opponents' choices, and

the opponents' belief hierarchies.

• Following Harsanyi (1967-1968), we call a belief hierarchy a type.

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Definition (Epistemic model)

An epistemic model specifies for every player *i*

a finite set T_i of possible types, and

for every type $t_i \in T_i$ a belief $b_i(t_i) \in \Delta(C_{-i} \times T_{-i})$ about the opponents' choice-type combinations.

- Based on Harsanyi (1967-1968).
- For every type we can derive a full belief hierarchy.
- It thus provides a finite mathematical encoding of belief hierarchies.

Belief Hierarchies, Beliefs Diagrams and Types Types

Types	$ \begin{array}{l} \mathcal{T}_1 = \{t_1^{blue}, t_1^{green}, t_1^{red}, t_1^{yellow}\} \\ \mathcal{T}_2 = \{t_2^{blue}, t_2^{green}, t_2^{red}, t_2^{yellow}\} \end{array} $
Beliefs for player 1	$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$
Beliefs for player 2	$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$



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Other Encodings of Belief Hierarchies

Definition (Epistemic model)

An epistemic model specifies for every player *i*

a finite set T_i of possible types, and

for every type $t_i \in T_i$ a belief $b_i(t_i) \in \Delta(C_{-i} \times T_{-i})$ about the opponents' choice-type combinations.

- Belief hierarchies can also be encoded by Kripke-structures (Kripke, 1963) and Aumann-structures (Aumann, 1974, 1976).
- In Bach and Perea (2023) it is shown how to go from epistemic models with types to Aumann-structures, and *vice versa*, while preserving the belief hierarchy.

- Consider a type t_i , and its first-order belief $b_i^1(t_i)$ about the opponents' choices.
- Choice c_i is optimal for type t_i if

 $u_i(c_i, b_i^1(t_i)) \ge u_i(c_i', b_i^1(t_i))$ for all choices $c_i' \in C_i$.

Definition (Belief in opponents' rationality)

Type t_i believes in the opponents' rationality if

 $b_i(t_i)$ only assigns positive probability to pairs (c_j, t_j) where

 c_j is optimal for t_j .

Definition (Common belief in rationality)

Type t_i expresses 1-fold belief in rationality if t_i believes in the opponents' rationality.

Type t_i expresses 2-fold belief in rationality if t_i only assigns positive probability to opponents' types that express 1-fold belief in rationality.

Type t_i expresses 3-fold belief in rationality if t_i only assigns positive probability to opponents' types that express 2-fold belief in rationality.

And so on.

Type t_i expresses common belief in rationality if t_i expresses k-fold belief in rationality for all k.

• Based on Tan and Werlang (1988).

Common Belief in Rationality Related Concepts

- In the literature, this concept is also known as correlated rationalizability (Brandenburger and Dekel (1987)).
- Rationalizability (Bernheim (1984), Pearce (1984)) is obtained if in games with three players or more we impose the following additional condition:
- Player *i*'s belief about opponent *j*'s choice must be independent from his belief about opponent *k*'s choice.
- Verbal formulations appear in Friedell (1969) and Spohn (1982).
- Aumann (1987) uses structural rationality within an Aumann-model: at every state, all players choose optimally given their beliefs.
- It implies common belief in rationality.



- Types t_1^{red} and t_2^{blue} do not express 1-fold belief in rationality.
- Types t_1^{green} and t_2^{yellow} do not express 2-fold belief in rationality.
- Types t_1^{yellow} and type t_2^{green} do not express 3-fold belief in rationality.
- Types t_1^{blue} and type t_2^{red} express common belief in rationality.

Sufficient condition

Theorem (Sufficient condition for common belief in rationality)

Consider an epistemic model in which all types believe in the opponents' rationality.

Then, all types in the epistemic model express common belief in rationality.

- Proof: Show that every type expresses *k*-fold belief in rationality, for all *k*.
- Every type expresses 1-fold belief in rationality.
- Since a type can only assign positive probability to other types in the same model, every type expresses 2-fold belief in rationality.
- But then, every type also expresses 3-fold belief in rationality.
- And so on.
- Hence, all types express common belief in rationality.

Choices Possible under Common Belief in Rationality

Definition

Player *i* can rationally make choice c_i under common belief in rationality if there is some epistemic model, and some type t_i within it, such that

type t_i expresses common belief in rationality, and

choice c_i is optimal for type t_i .

• Find a recursive elimination procedure that yields precisely those choices that can rationally be made under common belief in rationality.

- Which choices for player *i* are optimal for some belief?
- By strict dominance theorem from Day 1, these are exactly the choices that are

not strictly dominated.

• Eliminate, for every player *i*, those choices in his decision problem that

are strictly dominated.

• 1-fold reduced decision problem.

Round 2

- Which choices are optimal for player *i* if he expresses 1-fold belief in rationality?
- Player *i* assigns probability zero to opponents' choices that did not survive round 1.
- Eliminate states in *i*'s decision problem that involve opponents' choices which did not survive round 1.
- Reduced decision problem.
- Within reduced decision problem,

the choices that are optimal for some belief are

the choices that are not strictly dominated.

- From reduced decision problem, eliminate all strictly dominated choices.
- 2-fold reduced decision problem.

Round 3

- Which choices are optimal for player *i* if he expresses up to 2-fold belief in rationality?
- Player *i* assigns probability zero to opponents' choices that did not survive round 2.
- Eliminate states in *i*'s decision problem that involve opponents' choices which did not survive round 2.
- Reduced decision problem.
- Within reduced decision problem,

the choices that are optimal for some belief are

the choices that are not strictly dominated.

- From reduced decision problem, eliminate all strictly dominated choices.
- 3-fold reduced decision problem.

Definition

Definition (Iterated elimination of strictly dominated choices)

Set up decision problems for all players.

Round 1. From every decision problem, eliminate strictly dominated choices.

1-fold reduced decision problems

Round 2. From every 1-fold reduced decision problem, eliminate states that involve opponents' choices that did not survive round 1.

Within reduced decision problem so obtained, eliminate all strictly dominated choices.

2-fold reduced decision problems

Continue until no further states and choices can be eliminated.

• For every player there is at least one choice that survives procedure.

Theorem (Characterization)

(a) The choices that are optimal for a type that expresses up to k-fold belief in rationality

are exactly those choices that survive (k + 1)-fold elimination of strictly dominated choices.

(b) The choices that can rationally be made under common belief in rationality

are exactly those choices that survive *iterated elimination* of strictly dominated choices.

- Based on Tan and Werlang (1988).
- Adam Brandenburger (2014) calls it the Fundamental Theorem of Epistemic Game Theory.
- For every player there is at least one type that expresses common belief in rationality.

Example: Going to a Party

You	blue	green	red	yellow	Barbara	blue	green	red	yellow
blue	0	4	4	4	blue	0	2	2	2
green	3	0	3	3	green	1	0	1	1
red	2	2	0	2	red	4	4	0	4
yellow	1	1	1	0	yellow	3	3	3	0

Round 1: For you, *yellow* is strictly dominated by $(0.5) \cdot blue + (0.5) \cdot green$

For Barbara, green is strictly dominated by $(0.5) \cdot red + (0.5) \cdot yellow$

Example: Going to a Party

You	blue	green	red	yellow	Barbara	blue	green	red	yellow
blue	0	4	4	4	blue	0	2	2	2
green	3	0	3	3	green	1	0	1	- 1
red	2	2	0	2	red	4	4	0	4
yellow	-1	1	1	0	yellow	3	3	3	0

Round 1: For you, *yellow* is strictly dominated by $(0.5) \cdot blue + (0.5) \cdot green$

For Barbara, green is strictly dominated by $(0.5) \cdot red + (0.5) \cdot yellow$

Example: Going to a Party

blue 0 4 4 blue 0 2 2 2 green 3 0 3 3 green 1 0 1		You	blue	gre	en	red	yellow	Barbara	blue	green	red	yel	ow
green 3 0 3 3 green 1 0 1 1 red 2 2 0 2 red 4 4 0 4 vellow 1 2 1 0 vellow 3 3 3 0		blue	0	4	ŀ	4	4	blue	0	2	2	2	-
red 2 2 0 2 red 4 4 0 4	ç	green	3	()	3	3	green	1	0	1		
vellow 1 1 0 vellow 3 3 3		red	2		2	0	2	red	4	4	0	4	
	y	ellow	-1			1	0	yellow	3	3	3	0)

Round 2: For you, red is strictly dominated by green

For Barbara, blue is strictly dominated by yellow

Example: Going to a Party

You	blue	gre	en	red	yellow	Barbara	blue	green	red	yelow
blue	0	4	ŀ	4	4	blue	0	2	2	-
green	3	()	3	3	green	1	0		
red	2			0	2	red	4	4	0	4
ellow	-1			-1	0	vellow	3	3	3	
	-			-	•) 6.1011	0	U	0	1

Round 2: For you, red is strictly dominated by green

For Barbara, blue is strictly dominated by yellow

Example: Going to a Party



Round 3: For you, green is strictly dominated by blue

For Barbara, yellow is strictly dominated by red

Example: Going to a Party



Round 3: For you, green is strictly dominated by blue

For Barbara, yellow is strictly dominated by red

Under common belief in rationality,

you can only rationally wear blue, and

Barbara can only rationally wear red.

Example: When Chris Joins the Party

Story

- It is now one year later. Chris has heard some good stories about the party last year, and would like to join.
- You have become tired of wearing blue all the time, and have given all blue clothes to charity.
- Due to the latest fashion developments, Barbara's preferences over colors have changed.
- Chris only has blue and yellow clothes in his wardrobe.
- As before, you all dislike it when a friend wears the same color.
- Which colors could you rationally wear under common belief in rationality?

Example: When Chris Joins the Party

You	(b , b)	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y , b)	(b , y)	(g , y)	(r , y)	(y , y)
green	3	0	3	3	3	0	3	3
red	2	2	0	2	2	2	0	2
yellow	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0

Barb	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y , b)	(g , y)	(r , y)	(y , y)
blue	0	0	0	3	3	3
green	0	4	4	0	4	4
red	1	0	1	1	0	1
yellow	2	2	0	0	0	0

Chris	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y , b)	(g , g)	(r , g)	(y , g)	(<i>g</i> , <i>r</i>)	(r , r)	(<i>y</i> , <i>r</i>)	(g , y)	(<i>r</i> , <i>y</i>)	(y , y)
blue	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
yellow	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0

Example: When Chris Joins the Party

green 3 0 3 3 3 0 3 3 red 2 2 0 2 2 0 2 vellaw 1 1 0 0 0 0 0	blue
red 2 2 0 2 2 0 2 vellow 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0	
vellow 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0	green
	red
	yellow

Barb	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y , b)	(g , y)	(r , y)	(y , y)
blue	0	0	0	3	3	3
green	0	4	4	0	4	4
red	1	0	1	1	0	1
yellow	2	2	0	0	0	0

Chris	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y , b)	(g , g)	(r , g)	(y , g)	(<i>g</i> , <i>r</i>)	(r , r)	(<i>y</i> , <i>r</i>)	(g , y)	(r , y)	(y , y)
blue	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
yellow	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0

Round 1: For you, *yellow* is strictly dominated by $(0.4) \cdot green + (0.6) \cdot red$.

Example: When Chris Joins the Party

	You	(b , b)	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y , b)	(b , y)	(g , y)	(r , y)	(y , y)		Barb	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y , b)	(g , y)	(r , y)	(y , y)
	green	3	0	3	3	3	0	3	3		blue	0	0	0	3	3	3
	red	2	2	0	2	2	2	0	2		green	0	4	4	0	4	4
+	yellow	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	-	rea	1	0	1	1	0	1
											yellow	2	2	0	0	0	0
	Chris	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y , b)	(g , g)	(r , g)	(y , g)	(<i>g</i> , <i>r</i>)	(r , r)	(y , r) ((g , y)	(r , y) (y , y)			
	blue	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	2		2	2	2	2			
	yellow	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1		0	0	0	0			

Round 1: For you, *yellow* is strictly dominated by $(0.4) \cdot green + (0.6) \cdot red$.

Example: When Chris Joins the Party

																			_	
	You	(b , b)	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y , b)	(b , y)	(g , y)	(r , y)	(y , y)		Ba	arb	(g, b)	(r , b)	(y,	b)	(g , y)	(r , y)	(y,	y)
	green	3	0	3	3	3	0	3	3		b	lue	0	0	()	3	3		3
	red	2	2	0	2	2	2	0	2		gre	en	0	4		ŀ	0	4		1
	yellow	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	-	1	red	1	0	:		1	0		
											yell	ow	2	2	()	0	0	()
											1									
	Chris	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y , b)	(g , g)	(r , g)	(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{g})	(<i>g</i> , <i>r</i>)	(<i>r</i> , <i>r</i>)	0	y,r)	(, y) ((r, y) (y, y)				
I	blue	0	0	þ	2	2	2	2	2		1		2	2	2					
	yellow	1	1	þ	1	1	0	1	1		0		0	0	0					

Round 2:

Example: When Chris Joins the Party

												_						_	
	You	(b , b)	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y , b)	(b , y)	(g , y)	(r , y)	(y , y)		Bar	b (g, b) (r , b)	(y,	b)	(g , y)	(r , y)	(y,	y)
	green	3	0	3	3	3	0	3	3		blu	e 0	0		ø	3	3	3	
	red	2	2	0	2	2	2	0	2		gree	n 0	4		4	0	4	4	
+	yellow	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	-	re	d 1	0		ł	1	0	-	
											yellow	v 2	2		ø	0	0	0	
											1			1	<u> </u>				
	Chris	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y , b)	(g , g)	(r , g)	(y , g)	(<i>g</i> , <i>r</i>)	(<i>r</i> , <i>r</i>)	0	,r)	(g , y)	(r , y)	(y, y)				
	blue	0	0	þ	2	2	1	2	2		1	2	2	2					
	yellow	1	1	þ	1	1	0	1	1		0	0	0	0					

Round 2: For Barbara, *red* is strictly dominated by $(0.4) \cdot blue + (0.6) \cdot yellow$.

Example: When Chris Joins the Party



Round 2: For Barbara, *red* is strictly dominated by $(0.4) \cdot blue + (0.6) \cdot yellow$.

Example: When Chris Joins the Party

	You	(b , b)	(g , b)	(r ,	b)	(y , b)	(b , y)	(g , y)	(r ,	y)	(y , y)		Barb	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y,	b)	(g , y)	(r , y)	(y,	y)
I	green	3	0			3	3	0			3			blue	0	0	()	3	3		3
	red	2	2	C		2	2	2	()	2			green	0	4		ł	0	4		
4	vellow	1	1	_		0	0	0			0		4	red	1	0			1	0		
j														yellow	2	2	()	0	0	(þ
	Chris	(g , b)	(r , b)	(y,	<mark>b</mark>)	(g , g)	(r , g)	(y , g)	(g	, r)	(r,	r)	(y	r) ((g , y)	$(\boldsymbol{r},\boldsymbol{y})$ (y, y))				
	blue	0	0)	2	2	2		2	2		1	2	2	2	1					
	yellow	1	1		D	1	1	0		1	-			0	0	0	0					

Round 3:

Example: When Chris Joins the Party



Round 3: No choice is strictly dominated.

Procedure terminates.

Example: When Chris Joins the Party



Example: When Chris Joins the Party



Order Independence

• In the iterated elimination of strictly dominated choices we must eliminate, at every round, and for every player,

all states that involve opponents' choices that have been eliminated in the previous round, and subsequently,

all choices for the player that become strictly dominated.

- Suppose we forget to do some of these eliminations at some of the rounds.
- Will it matter for the eventual output?
- No, as long as we do not forget any elimination forever.
- Order independence.

Order Independence: Example

You	blue	green	red	yellow	Barbara	blue	green	red	yellow
blue	0	4	4	4	blue	0	2	2	2
green	3	0	3	3	green	1	0	1	1
red	2	2	0	2	red	4	4	0	4
yellow	1	1	1	0	yellow	3	3	3	0

Round 1: For you, *yellow* is strictly dominated by $(0.5) \cdot blue + (0.5) \cdot green$

For Barbara, green is strictly dominated by $(0.5) \cdot red + (0.5) \cdot yellow$

Order Independence: Example

Y	′ou	blue	green	red	yellow	Barbara	blue	green	red	yellow
b	lue	0	4	4	4	blue	0	2	2	2
gre	en	3	0	3	3	green	1	0	1	1
	red	2	2	0	2	red	4	4	0	4
yell	011	-1	1	1	0	yellow	3	3	3	0

Round 1: For you, *yellow* is strictly dominated by $(0.5) \cdot blue + (0.5) \cdot green$

For Barbara, green is strictly dominated by $(0.5) \cdot red + (0.5) \cdot yellow$

Order Independence: Example

You	blue	green	red	yellow	Barbara	blue	green	red	yelow
blue	0	4	4	4	blue	0	2	2	2
green	3	0	3	3	green	1	0	1	1
red	2	2	0	2	red	4	4	0	4
yellow	1	1	1	0	yellow	3	3	3	•

Round 2: Eliminate state *yellow* in Barbara's decision problem.

Order Independence: Example

	You	blue	green	red	yellow	Barbara	blue	green	red	yelow
	blue	0	4	4	4	blue	Û	2	2	-
g	reen	3	0	3	3	green	1	0	1	
	red	2	2	0	2	red	4	4	0	4
ye	llow	1	1	1	0	yellow	3	3	3	0

Round 2: Eliminate choices *blue* and *green* in Barbara's decision problem.

Order Independence: Example



Round 3: Eliminate states *blue* and *green* in your decision problem.

Order Independence: Example



Round 3: Eliminate choices *green* and *red* in your decision problem.

Order Independence: Example



Round 4: Eliminate states green and red in Barbara's decision problem.

Order Independence: Example



Round 4: Eliminate choice *yellow* in Barbara's decision problem.

Same output as with original order of elimination.

Takes one round more.

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