

Segment:
Computational game theory

Lecture 1b: Complexity

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Complexity of equilibrium concepts from (noncooperative) game theory

- Solutions are less useful if they cannot be determined
 - So, their **computational complexity** is important
- Early research studied complexity of board games
 - E.g. chess, Go
 - Complexity results here usually depend on structure of game (allowing for concise representation)
 - Hardness result => *exponential in the size of the representation*
 - Usually zero-sum, alternating move
- Real-world strategic settings are much richer
 - Concise representation for all games is impossible
 - Not necessarily zero-sum/alternating move
 - Sophisticated agents need to be able to deal with such games...

Why study computational complexity of solving games?

- Determine whether game theory can be used to model real-world settings in all detail (\Rightarrow large games) rather than studying simplified abstractions
 - Solving requires the use of computers
- Program strategic software agents
- Analyze whether a solution concept is realistic
 - If solution is too hard to find, it will not occur
- Complexity of solving gives a lower bound on complexity (reasoning+interaction) of learning to play equilibrium
- In mechanism design
 - Agents might not find the optimal way the designer motivated them to play
 - To identify where the opportunities are for doing better than revelation principle would suggest
 - Hardness can be used as a barrier for playing optimally for oneself [Conitzer & Sandholm LOFT-04, Othman & Sandholm COMSOC-08, ...]

Nash equilibrium: example

	50%	50%	0%
50%	1,2	2,1	6,0
50%	2,1	1,2	7,0
0%	0,6	0,7	5,5

Nash equilibrium: example

Tuomas		Audience	
		100% 0% 10%	0% 100% 90%
		<i>Pay attention</i>	<i>Don't pay attention</i>
100% 0% 80%	<i>Put effort into presentation</i>	4,4	-2,0
0% 100% 20%	<i>Don't put effort into presentation</i>	-14,-16	0,0

Complexity of finding a mixed-strategy Nash equilibrium in a normal-form game

- PPAD-complete even with just 2 players [Cheng & Deng FOCS-06]
- ...even if all payoffs are in $\{0,1\}$ [Abbott, Kane & Valiant 2005]

Rest of this slide pack is about [Conitzer&Sandholm IJCAI-03, GEB-08]

- Solved several questions related to Nash equilibrium
 - Is the question easier for *symmetric* games?
 - Hardness of finding *certain types* of equilibrium
 - Hardness of finding equilibria *in more general game representations*: Bayesian games, Markov games
- All of our results are for standard matrix representations
 - None of the hardness derives from compact representations, such as graphical games, Go
 - Any fancier representation must address at least these hardness results, as long as the fancy representation is general

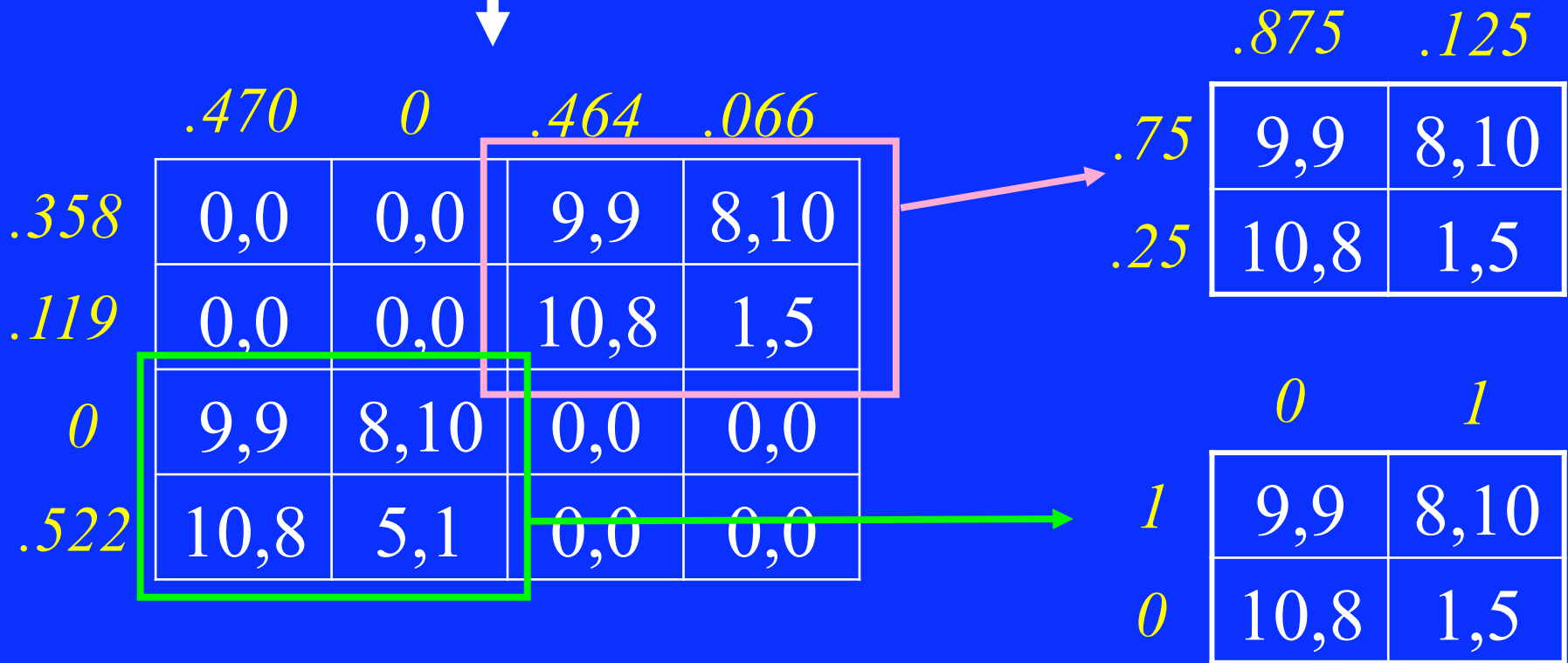
Does symmetry make equilibrium finding easier?

- No: just as hard as the general question
 - Let G be any game (not necessarily symmetric) whose equilibrium we want to find
 - WLOG, suppose all payoffs > 0
 - Given an algorithm for solving symmetric games...
 - We can feed it the following game:
 - G' is G with the players switched
- | | | |
|-----|------|-----|
| | r | c |
| r | 0 | G |
| c | G' | 0 |
- G or G' (or both) must be played with nonzero probability in equilibrium. WLOG, by symmetry, say at least G
 - Given that Row is playing in r , it must be a best response to Column's strategy *given* that Column is playing in c , and vice versa
 - So we can normalize Row's distribution on r given that Row plays r , and Column's distribution on c given that Column plays c , to get a NE for G !

Example: asymmetric “chicken”

	<i>dodge</i>	<i>straight</i>
<i>dodge</i>	9,9	8,10
<i>straight</i>	10,8	1,5

(Column player has an SUV...)



Review of computational complexity

- Algorithm's running time is a fn of length n of the input
- Complexity of *problem* is fastest algorithm's running time
- Classes of problems, from narrower to broader
 - **P**: If there is an algorithm for a problem that is $O(p(n))$ for some polynomial $p(n)$, then the problem is **in P**
 - Necessary & sufficient to be considered “efficiently computable”
 - **NP**: A problem is **in NP** if its answer can be *verified* in polynomial time
 - if the answer is positive
 - **#P** = problems of counting the number of solutions to problems in NP
 - **PSPACE** = set of problems solvable using polynomial memory
- Problem is “**C-hard**” if it is at least as hard as every problem in C
 - Highly unlikely that NP-hard problems are in P
- Problem is “**C-complete**” if it is C-hard and in C

A useful reduction (SAT \rightarrow game)

- Theorem.** SAT-solutions correspond to mixed-strategy equilibria of the following game (each agent randomizes uniformly on support)

SAT Formula: $(x_1 \text{ or } -x_2) \text{ and } (-x_1 \text{ or } x_2)$

Solutions: $x_1=\text{true}, x_2=\text{true}$
 $x_1=\text{false}, x_2=\text{false}$

Different from IJCAI-03 reduction

Game:

	x_1	x_2	$+x_1$	$-x_1$	$+x_2$	$-x_2$	$(x_1 \text{ or } -x_2)$	$(-x_1 \text{ or } x_2)$	default
x_1	-2,-2	-2,-2	0,-2	0,-2	2,-2	2,-2	-2,-2	-2,-2	0,1
x_2	-2,-2	-2,-2	2,-2	2,-2	0,-2	0,-2	-2,-2	-2,-2	0,1
$+x_1$	-2,0	-2,2	1,1	-2,-2	1,1	1,1	-2,0	-2,2	0,1
$-x_1$	-2,0	-2,2	-2,-2	1,1	1,1	1,1	-2,2	-2,0	0,1
$+x_2$	-2,2	-2,0	1,1	1,1	1,1	-2,-2	-2,2	-2,0	0,1
$-x_2$	-2,2	-2,0	1,1	1,1	-2,-2	1,1	-2,0	-2,2	0,1
$(x_1 \text{ or } -x_2)$	-2,-2	-2,-2	0,-2	2,-2	2,-2	0,-2	-2,-2	-2,-2	0,1
$(-x_1 \text{ or } x_2)$	-2,-2	-2,-2	2,-2	0,-2	0,-2	2,-2	-2,-2	-2,-2	0,1
default	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	ϵ, ϵ

Proof sketch:

- Playing opposite literals (with any probability) is unstable
- If you play literals (with probabilities), you should make sure that
 - for every clause, the probability of playing a literal in that clause is high enough, and
 - for every variable, the probability of playing a literal that corresponds to that variable is high enough
 - (otherwise the other player will play this clause/variable and hurt you)
- So equilibria where both randomize over literals can only occur when both randomize over same SAT solution
- These are the only equilibria (in addition to the “bad” default equilibrium)

As #vars gets large enough,
all payoffs are nonnegative

Complexity of mixed-strategy Nash equilibria with certain properties

- This reduction implies that there is an equilibrium where players get expected utility $n-1$ ($n=\#vars$) each iff the SAT formula is satisfiable
 - Any reasonable objective would prefer such equilibria to ϵ -payoff equilibrium
- **Corollary.** Deciding whether a “good” equilibrium exists is NP-complete:
 - 1. equilibrium with high social welfare
 - 2. Pareto-optimal equilibrium
 - 3. equilibrium with high utility for a given player i
 - 4. equilibrium with high minimal utility
- **Also NP-complete (from the same reduction):**
 - 5. Does more than one equilibrium exist?
 - 6. Is a given strategy ever played in any equilibrium?
 - 7. Is there an equilibrium where a given strategy is never played?
 - 8. Is there an equilibrium with >1 strategies in the players’ supports?
- (5) & weaker versions of (4), (6), (7) were known [Gilboa, Zemel GEB-89]
- All these hold even for symmetric, 2-player games

More implications: coalitional deviations

- **Def.** A Nash equilibrium is a *strong Nash equilibrium* if there is no *joint* deviation by (any subset of) the players making them all better off
- In our game, the ϵ, ϵ equilibrium is not strong: can switch to $n-1, n-1$
- But any $n-1, n-1$ equilibrium (if it exists) is strong, so...
- **Corollary.** Deciding whether a strong NE exists is NP-complete
 - Even in 2-player symmetric game

More implications: approximability

- How *approximable* are the objectives we might maximize under the constraint of Nash equilibrium?
 - E.g., social welfare
- **Corollary.** The following are inapproximable to any ratio in the space of Nash equilibria (unless $P=NP$):
 - maximum social welfare
 - maximum egalitarian social welfare (worst-off player's utility)
 - maximum player 1's utility
- **Corollary.** The following are inapproximable to ratio $o(\#strategies)$ in the space of Nash equilibria (unless $P=NP$):
 - maximum number of strategies in one player's support
 - maximum number of strategies in both players' supports

Counting the number of mixed-strategy Nash equilibria

- Why count equilibria?
 - If we cannot even count the equilibria, there is little hope of getting a good overview of the overall strategic structure of the game
- Unfortunately, our reduction implies:
 - **Corollary.** Counting Nash equilibria is #P-hard
 - Proof. #SAT is #P-hard, and the number of equilibria is $1 + \text{\#SAT}$
 - **Corollary.** Counting connected sets of equilibria is just as hard
 - Proof. In our game, each equilibrium is alone in its connected set
 - These results hold even for symmetric, 2-player games

Win-Loss Games/Zero-Sum Games

- “Win-loss” games = two-player games where the utility vector is always $(0, 1)$ or $(1, 0)$
- **Theorem.** For every m by n zero-sum (normal form) game with player 1’s payoffs in $\{0, 1, \dots, r\}$, we can construct an rm by rn win-loss game with the “same” equilibria
 - Probability on strategy i in original \sim Sum of probabilities on i th block of r strategies in new

$0, 0$	$-1, 1$	$1, -1$
$1, -1$	$0, 0$	$-1, 1$
$-1, 1$	$1, -1$	$0, 0$



w	l	l	l	w	w
l	w	l	l	w	w
w	w	w	l	l	l
w	w	l	w	l	l
l	l	w	w	w	l
l	l	w	w	l	w

- So, cannot be much easier to construct minimax strategy in win-loss game than in zero-sum game

Complexity of finding *pure-strategy* equilibria

- Pure strategy equilibria are nice
 - Avoids randomization over strategies between which players are indifferent
- In a matrix game, it is easy to find pure strategy equilibria
 - Can simply look at every entry and see if it is a Nash equilibrium
- Are pure-strategy equilibria easy to find in more general game structures?
- Games with **private information**
- In such games, often the space of all possible strategies is no longer polynomial

Bayesian games

- In Bayesian games, players have *private information* about their preferences (utility function) about outcomes
 - This information is called a *type*
 - In a more general variant, may also have information about others' payoffs
 - Our hardness result generalizes to this setting
- There is a commonly known *prior* over types
- Each players can condition his strategy on his type
 - With 2 actions there are $2^{\#types}$ pure strategy combinations
- In a *Bayes-Nash equilibrium*, each player's strategy (for every type) is a best response to other players' strategies
 - *In expectation* with respect to the prior

Bayesian games: Example

Player 1, type 1

Probability .6

2,*	2,*
1,*	3,*

Player 1, type 2

Probability .4

10,*	5,*
5,*	10,*

Player 2, type 1

Probability .7

*,1	*,2
*,2	*,1

Player 2, type 2

Probability .3

*,1	*,2
*,10	*,1

Complexity of *Bayes-Nash* equilibria

- **Theorem.** Deciding whether a pure-strategy Bayes-Nash equilibrium exists is NP-complete
 - **Proof sketch.** (easy to make the game symmetric)
 - Each of player 1's strategies, even if played with low probability, makes some of player 2's strategies unappealing to player 2
 - With these, player 1 wants to “cover” all of player 2's strategies that are bad for player 1. But player 1 can only play so many strategies (one for each type)
 - This is SET-COVER

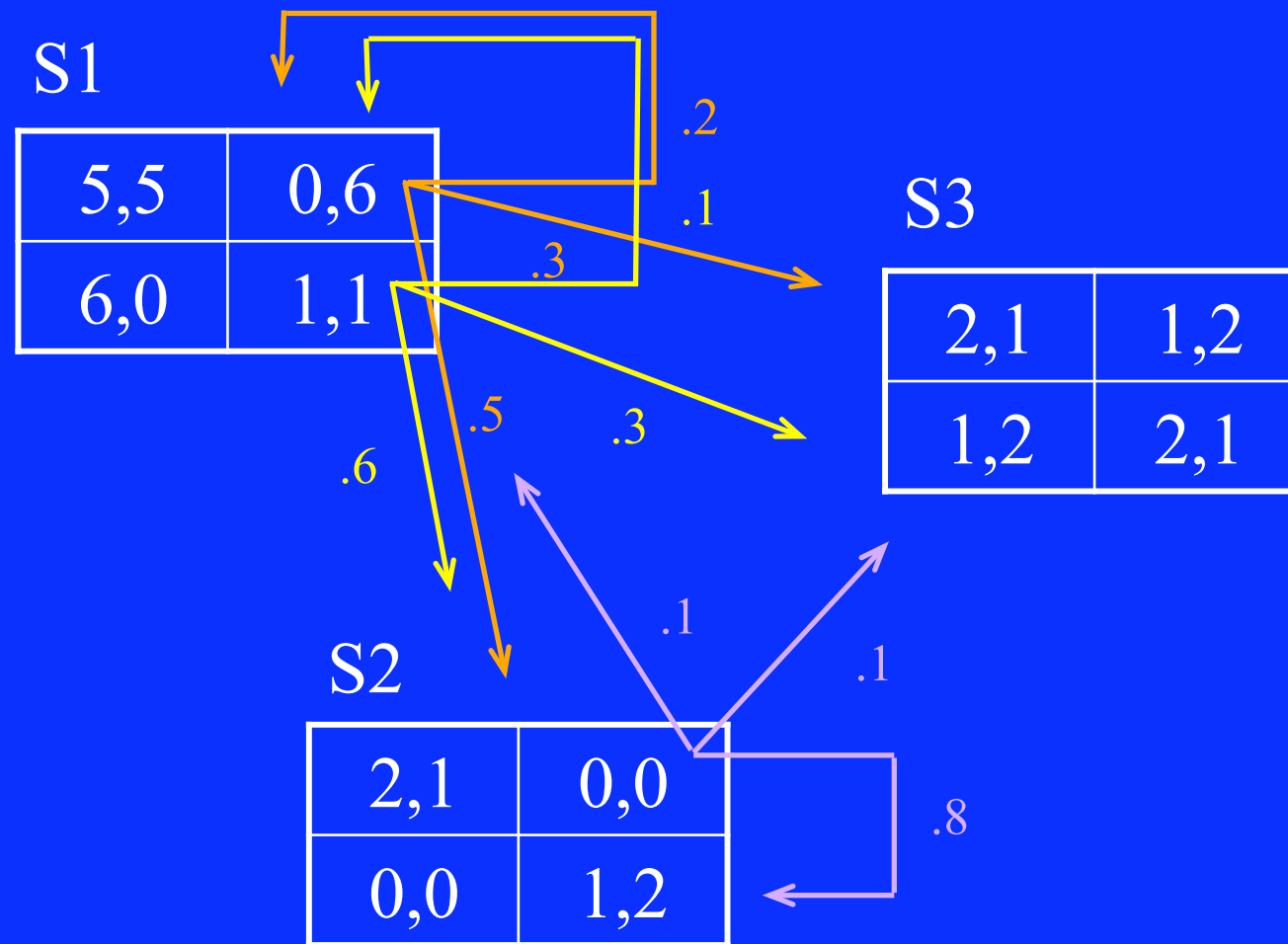
Complexity of Nash equilibria in stochastic (Markov) games

- We now shift attention to games with multiple stages
- Some NP-hardness results have already been shown here
- Ours is the first PSPACE-hardness result (to our knowledge)
- PSPACE-hardness results from e.g. Go do not carry over
 - Go has an exponential number of states
 - For general representation, we need to specify states explicitly
- We focus on *Markov games*

Stochastic (Markov) game: Definition

- At each stage, the game is in a given *state*
 - Each state has its own matrix game associated with it
- For every state, for every combination of pure strategies, there are *transition probabilities* to the other states
 - The next stage's state will be chosen according to these probabilities
- There is a *discount factor* $\delta < 1$
- Player j 's total utility = $\sum_i \delta^i u_{ij}$ where u_{ij} is player j 's utility in stage i
- A number N of stages (possibly infinite)
- The following may, or may not, or may partially be, known to the players:
 - Current and past states
 - Others' past actions
 - Past payoffs

Markov Games: example



Complexity of Nash equilibria in stochastic (Markov) games...

- Strategy spaces here are rich (agents can condition on past events)
 - So maybe high-complexity results are not surprising, but ...
- High complexity even when players *cannot* condition on anything!
 - No feedback from the game: the players are playing “blindly”
- **Theorem.** Even under this restriction, deciding whether a pure-strategy Nash equilibrium exists is PSPACE-hard
 - even if game is 2-player, symmetric, and transition process is deterministic
 - **Proof sketch.** Reduction is from PERIODIC-SAT, where an infinitely repeating formula must be satisfied [Orlin, 81]
- **Theorem.** Even under this restriction, deciding whether a pure-strategy Nash equilibrium exists is NP-hard *even if game has a finite number of stages*

Conclusions

- Finding a NE in a symmetric game is as hard as in a general 2-person matrix game
- General reduction (SAT \rightarrow 2-person symmetric matrix game) \Rightarrow
 - Finding a “good” NE is NP-complete
 - Approximating “good” to any ratio is NP-hard
 - Does more than one NE exist? ...NP-complete
 - Is a given strategy ever played in any NE? ...NP-complete
 - Is there a NE where a given strategy is never played? ...NP-complete
 - Approximating large-support NE is hard to $o(\#\text{strategies})$
 - Counting NEs is #P-hard
 - Determining existence of strong NE is NP-complete
- Deciding whether pure-strategy BNE exists is NP-complete
- Deciding whether pure-strategy NE in a (even blind) Markov game exists is PSPACE-hard
 - Remains NP-hard even if the number of stages is finite

Complexity results about iterated elimination

1. NP-complete to determine whether a particular strategy can be eliminated using iterated weak dominance
2. NP-complete to determine whether we can arrive at a unique solution (one strategy for each player) using iterated weak dominance
 - Both hold even with 2 players, even when all payoffs are $\{0, 1\}$, whether or not dominance by mixed strategies is allowed
 - [Gilboa, Kalai, Zemel 93] show (2) for dominance by pure strategies only, when payoffs in $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$
 - In contrast, these questions are easy for iterated *strict* dominance because of order independence (using LP to check for mixed dominance)

New definition of eliminability

- Incorporates some level of equilibrium reasoning into eliminability
 - Spans a spectrum of strength from **strict dominance** to **Nash equilibrium**
 - Can solve games that iterated elimination cannot
 - Can provide a stronger justification than Nash
 - Operationalizable using MIP
 - Can be used in other algorithms (e.g., for Nash finding) to prune pure strategies along the way

Motivating example

	c_1	c_2	c_3	c_4
r_1	?, ?	?, 2	?, 0	?, 0
r_2	2, ?	2, 2	2, 0	2, 0
r_3	0, ?	0, 2	3, 0	0, 3
r_4	0, ?	0, 2	0, 3	3, 0

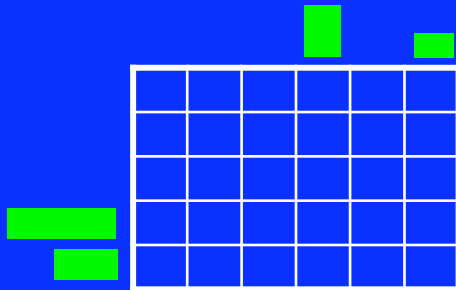
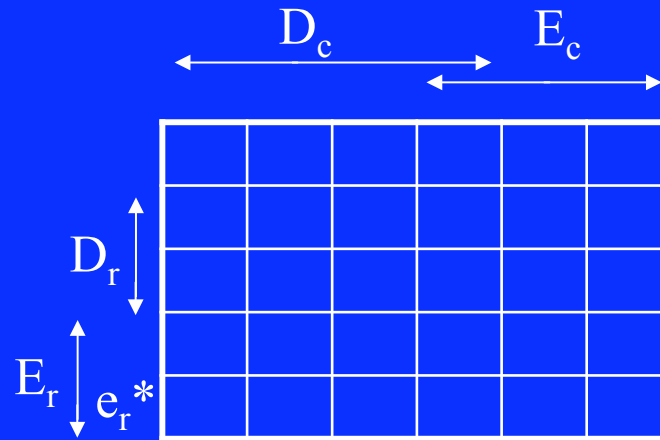
- r_2 almost dominates r_3 and r_4 ; c_2 almost dominates c_3 and c_4
- R should not play r_3 unless C plays c_3 at least $2/3$ of time
- C should not play c_3 unless R plays r_4 at least $2/3$ of time
- R should not play r_4 unless C plays c_4 at least $2/3$ of time
- But C cannot play 2 strategies with probability $2/3$ each!
- So: r_3 should not be played

Definition

- Let D_r, E_r be subsets of row player's pure strategies
- Let D_c, E_c be subsets of column player's pure strategies
- Let $e_r^* \in E_r$ be the strategy to eliminate
- e_r^* is **not eliminable relative to D_r, E_r, D_c, E_c** if there exist $p_r: E_r \rightarrow [0, 1]$ and $p_c: E_c \rightarrow [0, 1]$ with $\sum p_r(e_r) = 1$, $\sum p_c(e_c) = 1$, and $p_r(e_r^*) > 0$, such that:
 1. For any $e_r \in E_r$ with $p_r(e_r) > 0$,
for any mixed strategy d_r that uses only strategies in D_r ,
there is some $s_c \in E_c$ such that
if the column player places its remaining
probability on s_c ,
 e_r is at least as good as d_r
 - (If there is no probability remaining ($\sum p_c(e_c) = 1$), e_r should simply be at least as good as d_r)
 2. Same for the column player

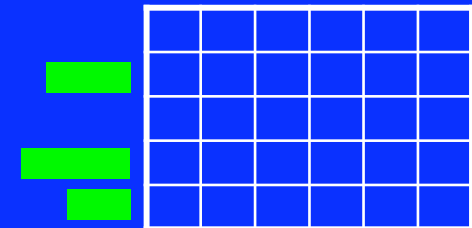
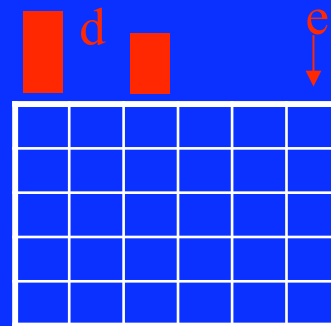
Definition of new concept (as argument between defender & attacker)

Given: subsets
 D_r, D_c, E_r, E_c
 and e_r^*




Defender of e_r^* specifies a justification, i.e., probabilities on E sets (must give nonzero to e_r^*)

Attacker picks a pure strategy e (of positive probability) from one of the E sets to attack, and attacking mixed strategy d from same player's D



Defender completes probability distribution. Defender wins (strategy is not eliminated) iff d does not do better than e

Spectrum of strength

- **Thrm.** If there is a Nash equilibrium with probability on s_r , then s_r is not eliminable relative to any D_r, E_r, D_c, E_c
- **Thrm.** Suppose we make D_r, E_r, D_c, E_c as large as possible (each contains all strategies of the appropriate player). Then s_r is eliminable iff no Nash equilibrium puts probability on s_r
 - **Corollary:** checking eliminability in this case is coNP-complete (because checking whether any Nash eq puts probability on a given strategy is NP-complete [Gilboa & Zemel 89, Conitzer & Sandholm 03])
- **Thrm.** If s_r is strictly dominated by d_r then s_r is eliminable relative to any D_r, E_r, D_c, E_c
 - (as long as s_r  E_r and d_r only uses strategies in D_r)
- **Thrm.** If $E_c = \{\}$ and $E_r = \{s_r\}$, then s_r is eliminable iff it is strictly dominated by some d_r (that only uses strategies in D_r)

What is it good for?

- Suppose we can eliminate a strategy using the Nash equilibrium concept, but not using (iterated) dominance
- Then, using this definition, we may be able to make a **stronger argument** than Nash equilibrium for eliminating the strategy
- The smaller the sets relative to which we are eliminating, the more “local” the reasoning, and the closer we are to dominance

Thank you for your attention!