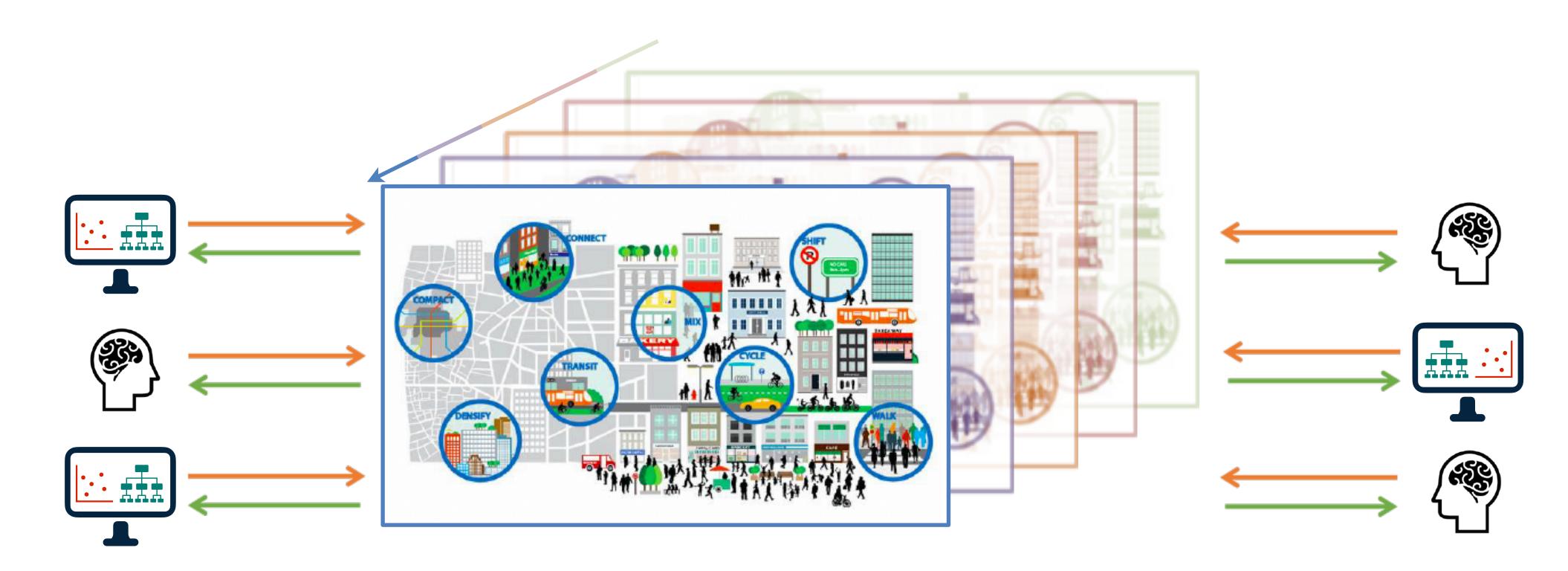
Caltech

Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning Theory, Algorithms, and Future Directions Part II.

Eric Mazumdar

Computing + Mathematical Sciences and Economics

Challenges: Strategic interactions vastly complicate the task of learning



Opportunities: Require a careful rethinking of algorithm design.

Challenges: Strategic interactions vastly complicate the task of learning

As we will see, strategic interactions can break our intuition on the behavior of learning algorithms and give rise to new challenges for algorithm design.

Opportunities: Require a careful rethinking of algorithm design.

Though it is less well understood, we can build on foundations from game theory and reinforcement learning to explore and design new algorithmic principles.

Main Question:

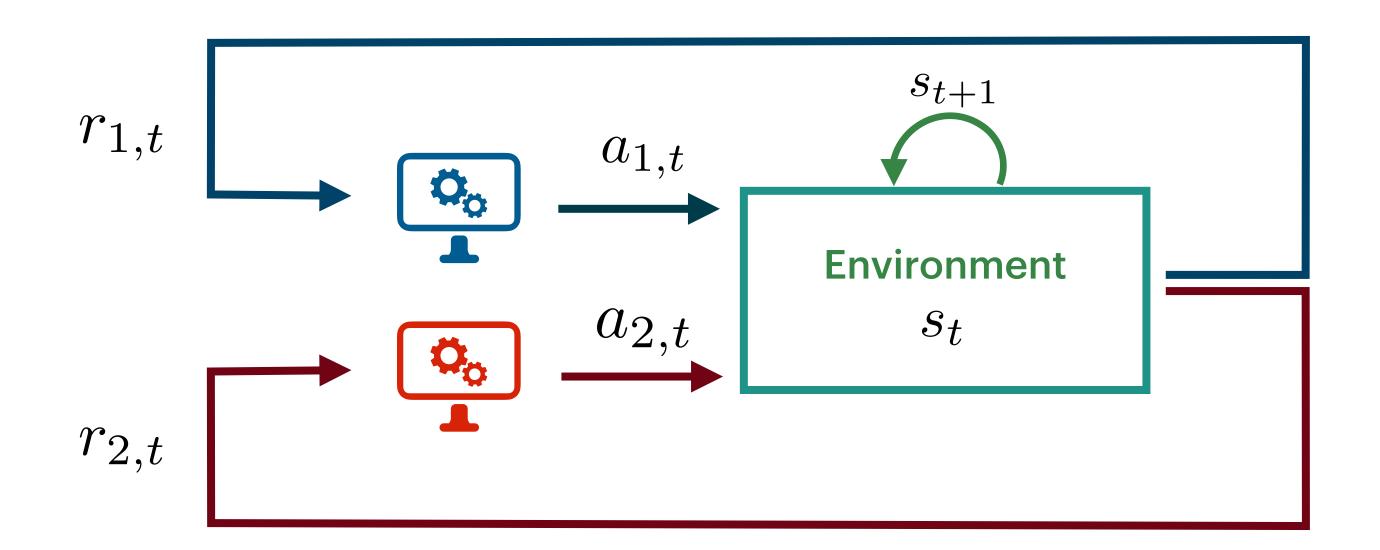
How do we design principled algorithms for multi-agent problems?

We will focus on theoretical foundations.

Markov Games

Generalization of a Markov Decision Process introduced by Shapley (1953)

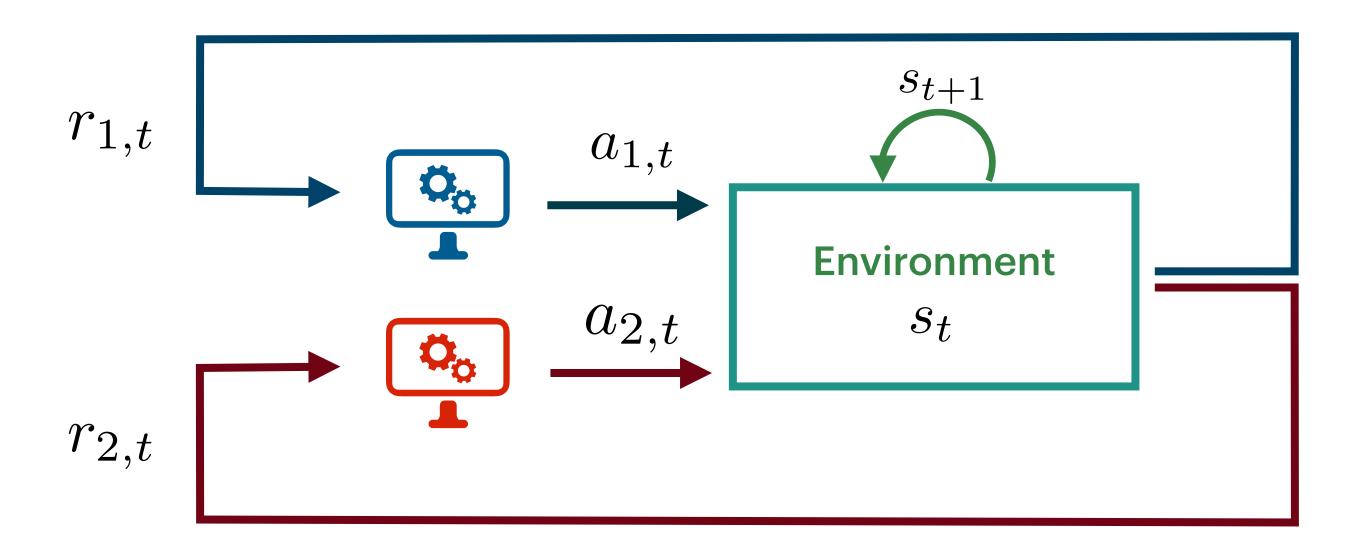
- ▶ Action Spaces: $\mathcal{A}_1,...,\mathcal{A}_n, \quad \mathcal{A} = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathcal{A}_i$ ▶ State Spaces: \mathcal{S}
- \blacktriangleright Dynamics: $P(s' | s, a_1, ..., a_n)$
- Reward functions: $R_i: \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}$
- \blacktriangleright Horizon: H or ∞
- Initial state distribution: ρ_0



Markov Games

Interaction Protocol:

- Environment samples initial state: $s_0 \sim \rho_0$
- ▶ For step t=0,1,2,...
 - ullet Each agent plays an action $a_{i,t}$ simultaneously $a_t = (a_{1,t},...a_{n,t})$
 - lacktriangleright Agents receive their immediate reward: $r_{i,t}=R_i(s_t,a_t)$
 - Environment transitions to the next state: $s_{t+1} \sim P(\cdot | s_t, a_t)$

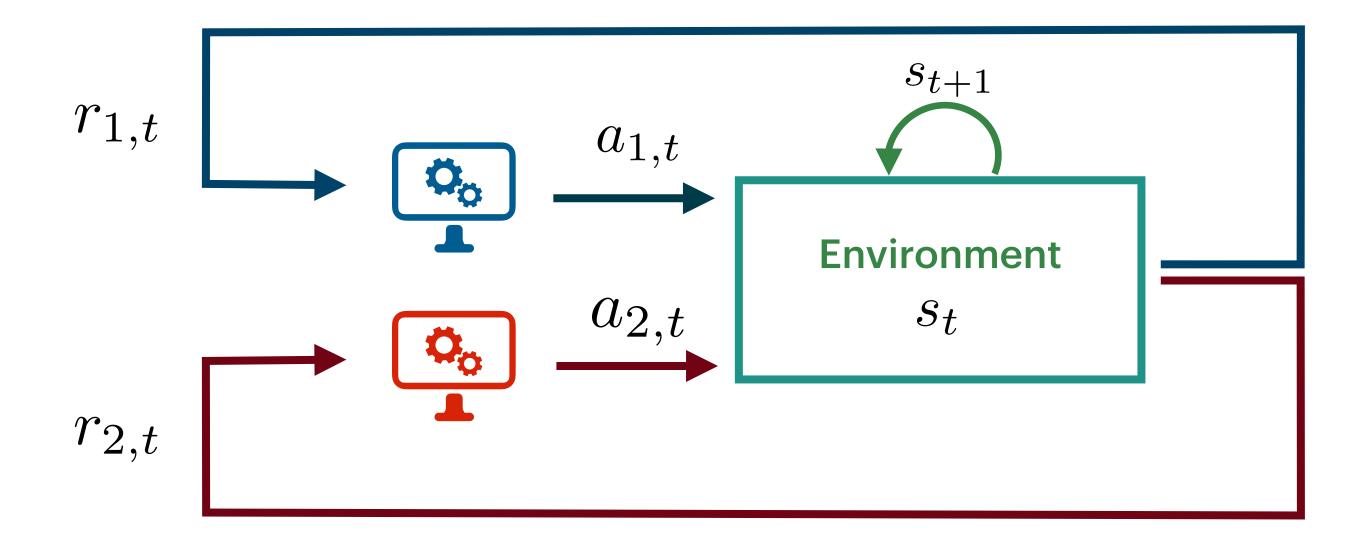


Markov Games

In this overview we will focus mainly on fully observable, tabular Markov Games

Fully observable: joint actions and states observed by all agents

Tabular: Finite State and Action Spaces



Policies

Players strategy spaces are spaces of policies (distributions over actions):

General Policy: Depends on the entire history of play:

$$\Pi_i = \{ \pi_i : (\mathcal{S}, \times \mathcal{A})^{t-1} \times \mathcal{S} \to \Delta_{\mathcal{A}_i} \}$$

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Stationary Markov Policy: Depends only on the current state

$$\Pi_i = \{\pi_i : \mathcal{S} \to \Delta_{\mathcal{A}_i}\}$$

Utilities

To evaluate the quality of their strategies, we assume that players seek to maximize their cumulative reward:

Finite Horizon:

$$U_i(\pi_i,\pi_{-i})=\mathbb{E}_{\pi,P,\rho_0}\left[\sum_{t=0}^H r_{i,t}
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 Utility of agent i depends on the policy of agent i as well as the policies of all other agents π_{-i}

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Infinite Horizon:

$$U_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi, P, \rho_0} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_{i,t} \right]$$

Utility is discounted cumulative reward (each player with their own discount factor).

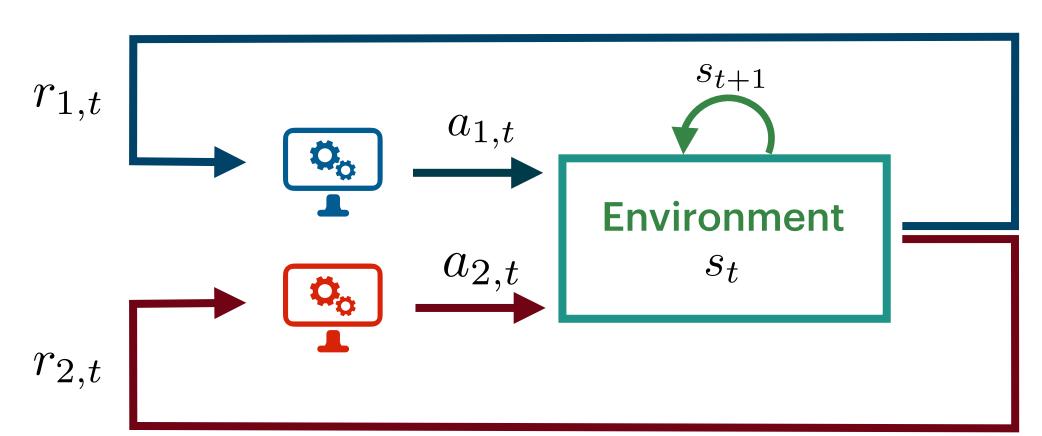
Recap: Markov Games Setup

- Action Spaces: $A_1,...,A_n, \quad A = \prod_{i=1}^n A_i$
- ▶ State Spaces: *S*
- \blacktriangleright Dynamics: $P(s' | s, a_1, ..., a_n)$
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Special Cases:

- Single-agent RL
- ► Two-player Zero-sum $(R_1 = -R_2)$
- Cooperative $(R_i = R_j \ \forall i, j)$

$$U_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi, P, \rho_0} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_{i, t} \right]$$



Nash Equilibrium

What are good outcomes for Markov Games?

Nash Eq: Natural solution concept for individually rational agents.

$$\pi^*$$
 is Nash if for each player i: $U_i(\pi_i^*, \pi_{-i}^*) \geq U_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}^*) \quad \forall \pi_i \in \Pi_i$

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- Each player is at a best-response -> no incentive to unilaterally deviate.
- Always guaranteed to exist in Markov policies in Markov games.
 - In non-stationary Markov policies for *finite horizon* games.
 - In stationary Markov policies for infinite horizon games.

1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games

2. Algorithmic structures in Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning

- i. Policy-gradient algorithms in games
- ii. Value-based algorithms
- iii. The role of function approximation

- i. Scalable algorithms for zero-sum games
- ii. New equilibrium concepts

1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games

Takeaway: Equilibrium computation (even in normal-form games) is hard.

- Coupling between agents gives rise to non-stationarity and complex dynamics.
- No-regret learning and variational inequality perspectives can help for algorithm design with convergence to game theoretically meaningful solutions e.g., CCE.

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1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games

2. Algorithmic structures in Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning

- i. Policy-gradient algorithms in games
 - No convergence guarantees or no-regret algorithms in general!
 - Zero-sum games (and similar) allow for some positive results.
- ii. Value-based algorithms
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We've seen that no-regret and policy gradient methods don't generally allow us to develop principled algorithms for learning in Markov Games.

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- They are agnostic to the underlying structure of the problem.
- RL (and thus MARL) is fundamentally an optimal control problem
 - * Are there dynamic programming (value-based) approaches to MARL?
 - Let's start in *infinite horizon* Markov Games

$$U(\pi) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi, P, \rho_0} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_t \right]$$

State-Action Value Function (Q-function) in Single-Agent RL

Cumulative reward starting from state s and action a, and applying policy π hereafter

$$Q^{\pi}(s, a) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi, P} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} R_{i}(s_{t}, a_{t}) \middle| s_{0} = s, a_{0} = a \right]$$

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Equivalent formulation of infinitehorizon problem:

$$U(\pi) = \mathbb{E}_{s \sim d^{\pi}, a \sim \pi(s)}[Q^{\pi}(s, a)]; \quad d^{\pi} = (1 - \gamma_i) \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma_i^t Pr(s_t = s | \pi)$$

Discounted state visitation frequency under π

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Bellman's Principle of Optimality says that optimal policy must satisfy:

$$Q^*(s,a) = R(s,a) + \gamma \mathbb{E}_{s'|s,a} \left[\max_{a'} Q^*(s',a') \right]$$

Policy can be recovered as $\pi^*(s) = \arg\max_a Q^*(s,a)$

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Q-learning in Single-Agent RL

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Observe that Q^st is the fixed point of this mapping :

$$T: \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}} \to \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}}$$

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Which immediately suggests a **Q-learning** algorithm (Watkins 1989):

$$\forall (s, a) \text{ do: } Q_{t+1}(s, a) = (1 - \alpha)Q_t(s, a) + \alpha TQ(s, a)$$

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Can perform **stochastic approximation** of theses dynamics when using a stochastic estimator of **T**

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Classic Q-Learning

$$Q^*(s, a) = E_{s, a} \left[R(s, a) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q^*(s', a') \right]$$

$$Q^*(s,a) = E_{s,a} \left[R(s,a) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q^*(s',a') \right] \qquad Q^*(s,a_1,a_2) = R(s,a_1,a_2) + \gamma E_{s'|s,a_1,a_2} \left[\min_{\pi_1} \max_{\pi_2} \ \pi_1^T Q^*(s') \pi_2 \right]$$
Introduced by Littman (1994)

Building off of work by Shapley (1959) who showed the existence of Nash eq. In such games by using a contraction mapping on a state-value function.

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Classic Q-Learning

Minimax Q-Learning

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$$\pi^*(s) = \operatorname{Nash}(Q(s), -Q(s))$$

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Value-Base Methods in Zero-Sum Games

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Like single-agent RL, we can see this as the fixed point of a map ${\cal H}$

$$\mathcal{H}Q(s,a_1,a_2) = R(s,a_1,a_2) + \gamma E_{s'|s,a_1,a_2} \left[\min_{\pi_1} \max_{\pi_2} \ \pi_1^T Q(s') \pi_2 \right]$$
Observe: $Q^* = \mathcal{H}(Q^*)$

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Which suggests the following minimax Q-learning algorithm:

$$\forall (s,a) \;\; \mathrm{do} \colon \, Q_{t+1}(s,a) = (1-\alpha)Q_t(s,a) + \alpha \mathcal{H}Q(s,a)$$
 Requires solving a matrix game at every step!

Unifying idea: Timescale separation

- Solve per-state Matrix Games on a fast timescale (using e.g., no-regret learning, extra gradient, proximal methods)
- ▶ Use solutions in minimax Q-learning on a *slow timescale*

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Centralized computation of Nash in Zero-Sum Markov Games

- Initializes $Q_0, \pi_{1,0}, \pi_{2,0}$
- ► For step t=0,1,2,...
 - For each state s:
 - ▶ Update policy using no-regret learning on matrix game:

$$\max_{\pi_1(s)} \min_{\pi_2(s)} \pi_1(s)^T Q_t(s) \pi_2(s)$$

$$\pi_{1,t+1}(s) = \mathcal{P}_{\Delta_1} \left(\pi_{1,t} + \alpha Q_t(s) \pi_{2,t}(s) \right)$$

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-Fast timescale $\alpha >> \beta$ Converges quickly to minimax value

Slow timescale
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Suppose the fast timescale has converged: this is exactly minimax-Q

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Many papers use this algorithmic structure:

E.g., Use no-regret learning subroutines & analyze full-information algorithms:

[Zhang et al. 2022] [Cen et al. 2022] [Cen et al. 2023] E.g., Use no-regret learning subroutines & analyze sample based algorithms:

[Cai et al. 2023]

[Chen et al. 2023]

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- ▶ Use solutions in minimax Q-learning on a *slow timescale*

Many papers use this algorithmic structure:

E.g., Use no-regret learning subroutines & analyze full-information algorithms:

[Zhang et al. 2022] [Cen et al. 2022] [Cen et al. 2023] E.g., Use no-regret learning subroutines & analyze sample based algorithms:

[Cai et al. 2023]

[Chen et al. 2023]

Still an ongoing area of research!

Do these ideas extend beyond zero-sum games in infinite horizon Markov Games?

Minimax Q-Learning

$$Q^*(s, a_1, a_2) = R(s, a_1, a_2) + \gamma E_{s'|s, a_1, a_2} \left[\min_{\pi_1} \max_{\pi_2} \pi_1^T Q^*(s') \pi_2 \right]$$

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Nash Q-Learning [Hu & Wellman 2003]

$$Q_i^*(s, a_1, ..., a_n) = E_{s,a} \left[R_i(s, a_1, ..., a_n) + \gamma_i \operatorname{Nash}_i(Q_1^*(s'), ..., Q_n^*(s')) \right]$$



Each agent keeps track of their Q-function



This is the value at Nash given the state-dependent matrix game:

$$\mathbb{E}_{a \sim \pi^*}[Q_i(s, a)]$$
 where $\pi^* = \text{Nash Eq}$

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Reduces to minimax Q learning in zero-sum games

Difficulties in general: e.g., equilibrium selection (if there are multiple Nash which to choose?)

Do these ideas extend beyond zero-sum games in infinite horizon Markov Games?

Minimax Q-Learning

$$Q^*(s, a_1, a_2) = R(s, a_1, a_2) + \gamma E_{s'|s, a_1, a_2} \left[\min_{\pi_1} \max_{\pi_2} \pi_1^T Q^*(s') \pi_2 \right]$$

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Unfortunately this is **not a contraction mapping** in general



Recap:

Value-Based Approaches for *Infinite-Horizon* Markov Games

- In general, we have no algorithms for infinite horizon Markov games beyond highly structured cases
 - e.g., zero-sum games, cooperative games
- In infinite horizon, zero-sum Markov games we can develop algorithms based on top of the framework of minimax Q-learning.
 - Main Idea: Timescale separation
 - Solve matrix games in each state on fast timescales, do Q-learning on a slow timescale.

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This should not be surprising given the hardness results we saw yesterday!

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Value-Based Approaches for *Infinite-Horizon* Markov Games

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 - Solve matrix games in each state on fast timescales, do Q-learning on a slow timescale.

This should not be surprising given the hardness results we saw yesterday!

Fortunately, in finite-horizon games, there is more to say

In finite-horizon single-agent problems, the optimal policy can be found via dynamic programming:

Dynamic Programming In Reinforcement Learning

- Initialize $Q_{H+1} = 0$
- For step t = H, H 1, H 2, ..., 1, 0
 - For each state **s,a**:

$$Q_t(s, a) \leftarrow r(s, a) + \gamma \mathbb{E}_{s'|s, a} \left[\max_a Q_{t+1}(s', a) \right]$$

Computes the optimal (time-dependent!) Q-functions which we can use to infer optimal policy:

$$\pi^*(s,t) = \arg\max_a Q_t(s,a)$$

In finite-horizon single-agent problems, the optimal policy can be found via dynamic programming:

Dynamic Programming In Reinforcement Learning

- Initialize $Q_{H+1} = 0$
- For step t = H, H 1, H 2, ..., 1, 0 Proceed backwards
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$$\pi^*(s,t) = \arg\max_{a} Q_t(s,a)$$

No contraction mapping argument needed!

In finite-horizon Markov games the Nash policy can be found via dynamic programming:

Nash Value Iteration

- \blacktriangleright Initialize, for all agents i: $Q_{i,H+1}(s,a_i,a_{-i})=0, V_{i,H+1}=0$
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$$Q_{i,t}(s, a_i, a_{-i}) \leftarrow R_i(s, a_i, a_{-i}) + \mathbb{E}_{s'|s,a} [V_{i,t+1}(s')]$$

For each agent i and all s:

$$(\pi_{1,t}^*, ..., \pi_{n,t}^*) \leftarrow \text{Nash}(Q_{1,t}(s), ..., Q_{n,t}(s))$$

$$V_{i,t}(s) \leftarrow \mathbb{E}_{\pi_t^*}[Q_{i,t}(s)]$$

Solve a matrix game at each state and time at horizon

Keep track of state value function

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Computes a Nash of a finitehorizon Markov Game (by definition)

In *poly(H,S,A,B)* steps given a Nash oracle

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Computes a Nash of a finitehorizon Markov Game (by definition)

In *poly(H,S,A,B)* steps given a Nash oracle

Unfortunately this step is hard in general!

In finite-horizon Markov games a non stationary CCE can be found via dynamic programming:

CCE Value Iteration

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For each agent i and all s:

$$(\pi_{1,t}^*, ..., \pi_{n,t}^*) \leftarrow \text{CCE}(Q_{1,t}(s), ..., Q_{n,t}(s))$$

$$V_{i,t}(s) \leftarrow \mathbb{E}_{\pi_t^*}[Q_{i,t}(s)]$$

Can be solved via linear programming or no-regret learning

In finite-horizon Markov games a non stationary CCE can be found via dynamic programming:

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Computes a **CCE** of a finite-horizon Markov Game (by definition)

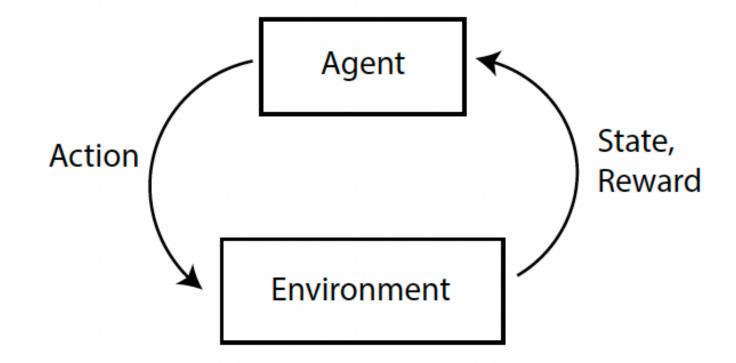
In poly(H,S,A,B) steps

From full information to learning

So far we have assumed that you know the Markov Game perfectly and only looked at **computation**

In RL you need to explore to *learn*:

- 1. The dynamics of the environment
- 2. The reward function

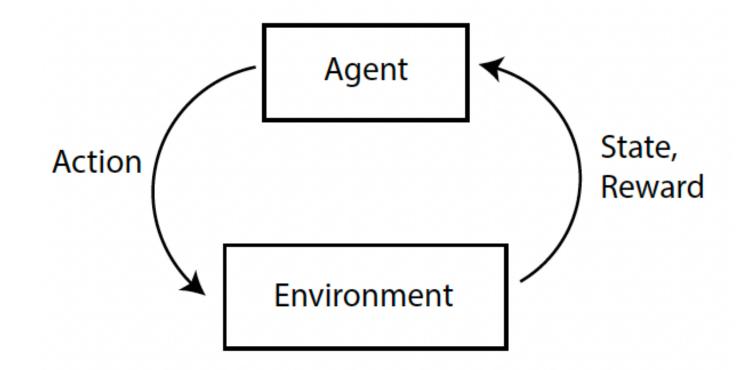


Trade-off exploration (of the environment and reward function) with exploitation to accumulate reward

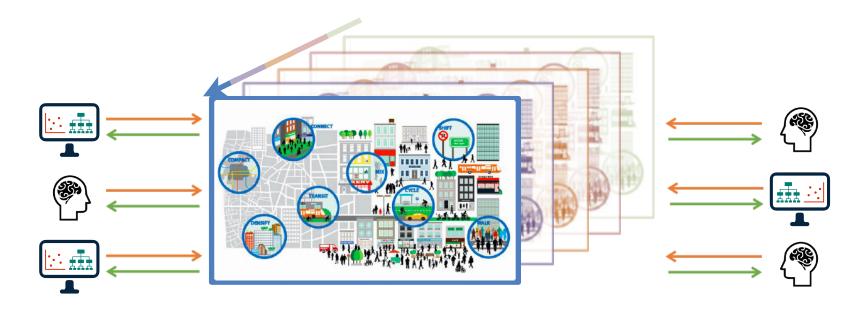
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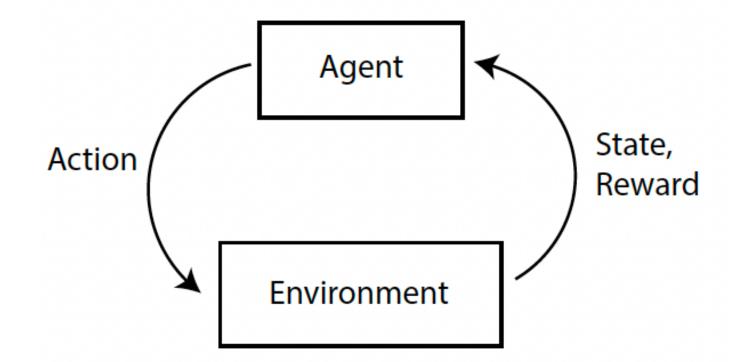
- In MARL you need to explore to *learn*:
 - 1. The dynamics of the environment
 - 2. The reward function
 - 3. How to compete



Exploration in MDPs and Markov Games

In reinforcement learning there has been a lot of recent progress on how to **explore** MDPS

Naive exploration: ϵ -greedy: take $\begin{cases} \text{random action,} & \text{with probability } \epsilon \\ \text{greedy action,} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

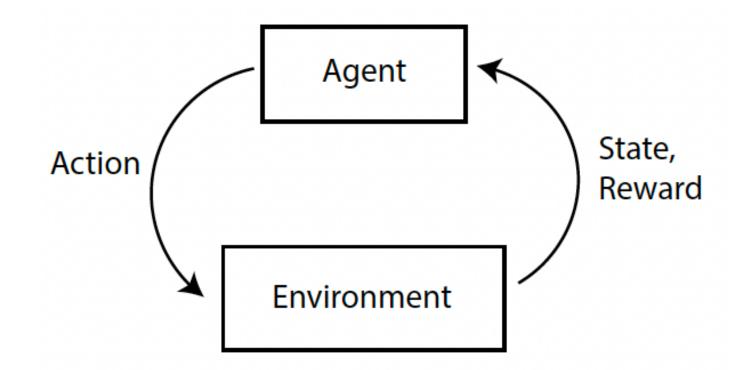


Can be shown that in the worst case, this can take an exponential in the number of samples to learn an optimal policy!

Exploration in MDPs and Markov Games

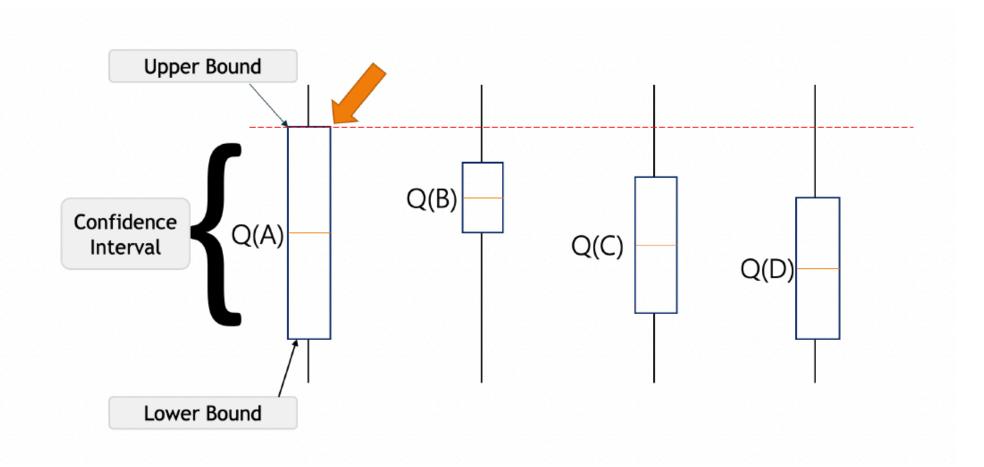
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▶ Optimistic exploration: be optimistic pick action with the largest Upper confidence bound

Strategy yields a statistically optimal way of exploring bandits and MDPs



Optimistic CCE Value Iteration

- ▶ Initialize, for all agents i: $Q_{i,H+1}(s,a_i,a_{-i})=0$, $V_{i,H+1}=0$, policies $\{\pi_{i,t}\}_{t=0}^H$
- For step k = 1, 2, ...
 - ullet Execute policies, collect rollouts, estimate transition matrix \hat{P}

$$\hat{P}(s'|s,a) = \frac{N(s',s,a)}{N(s,a)}$$

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For each agent i and all s:

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Optimistic estimator of Q
High probability over-estimate
given properly chosen UCB
term

Normally chosen via concentration inequalities

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Optimistic estimator of Q
High probability over-estimate
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Gives exploration of Markov Game

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Using CCE oracle

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This algorithm can be seen as a multi-agent extension of UCB-VI (Azar et al. 2017) from single-agent reinforcement learning

Thm: Finite Horizon Zero-Sum Markov Games [Liu et al. 2020]

With high probability, optimistic Value-iteration finds an ϵ -approximate Nash equilibrium in:

$$\tilde{O}\left(\frac{H^3S|A_1||A_2|}{\epsilon^2}\right)$$
 episodes.

Polynomial-time and polynomial number of samples required

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 episodes.

They also show an information theoretic lower bound that learning Nash requires at least:

$$\tilde{O}\left(\frac{H^3S \max\{|A_1|,|A_2|\}}{\epsilon^2}\right)$$
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Optimistic Value Iteration in Markov Games

Can Extend the Results to CCE in general-sum Markov games!

Thm: Finite Horizon General-Sum Markov Games [Liu et al. 2020]

With high probability, optimistic Value-iteration finds an ϵ -approximate CCE equilibrium in:

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 episodes

Note that optimistic Value-iteration is not no-regret, but we can still find a non-stationary CCE

Optimistic Value Iteration in Markov Games

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Curse-of Multi-Agency

Consider the gap:

Lower bound:
$$\tilde{O}\left(\frac{H^3S \max_i |A_i|}{\epsilon^2}\right)$$
. vs. $\tilde{O}\left(\frac{H^4S\prod_i |A_i|}{\epsilon^2}\right)$

Lower bound suggests that we should pay only for the *largest* action space

$$\tilde{O}\left(rac{H^4S\prod_i|A_i|}{\epsilon^2}
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Curse-of Multi-Agency

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Optimistic VI pays for the **product**

Worst case:
$$\prod_{i} |A_i| = |A|^n$$

Exponential dependence on number of agents

"Curse of multi-agency"

(Analog to curse of dimensionality)

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Exponential dependence on number of agents

"Curse of multi-agency"

(Analog to curse of dimensionality)

Can we overcome this?

Problem:

The size of the Q-function itself is
$$S \times \prod_i A_i$$

Any algorithm based on **Q** functions has to pay this.

Problem:

The size of the Q-function itself is $S \times \prod_i A_i$

Idea:

We only need to estimate the *Value* at a CCE/Nash.

Use \Longrightarrow timescale separation.

Fast timescale: compute optimistic value using e.g., no-regret learning

Slow timescale: update values using dynamic programming

Problem:

The size of the Q-function itself is $S \times \prod_{i} A_{i}$

Idea:

We only need to estimate the Value at a CCE/Nash.

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Fast timescale: compute optimistic value using e.g., no-regret learning

Slow timescale: update values using dynamic programming

Crux of idea:

Sample complexity of no-regret learning in games scales with $\max_{i} |A_i|$

Use timescale separation.

Fast timescale: compute optimistic value using e.g., no-regret learning

Slow timescale: update values using dynamic programming

Crux of idea:

Sample complexity of no-regret learning in games scales with $\max_{i} |A_{i}|$

Use payoff-based (bandit feedback) no-regret learning:

(e.g., Exp3 algorithm, stochastic mirror descent)

$$\max_{\pi} \sum_{t=0}^{T} \langle \pi, \ell_t \rangle - \langle \pi_t, \ell_t \rangle \le o(T)$$

Against arbitrary sequences of rewards $\{r_t \in \mathbb{R}^{|A|}\}_{t=0}^T$ while only playing actions $a_t \sim \pi_t$ at each round and observing $r_t(a_t)$

V-learning (PoV of agent i)

- lacktriangleright Initialize policies $oldsymbol{\pi}_{i,t}^0$
- For episode k = 1,2,...
 - Receive initial state s_0
 - For t = 0,1,2,...,H Proceed forwards in time
 - Sample action $a_{i,t} \sim \pi_{i,t}^k(s_t)$, observe reward $r_t = R_i(s_t, a_t)$, next state s_{t+1}
 - ▶ Keep track of number of times each state has been visited:

$$N(s_{t+1}) \leftarrow N(s_{t+1}) + 1$$

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▶ Update optimistic value estimate

$$V_{i,t}(s_t) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha_k)V_{i,t}(s_t) + \alpha_k(r_t + V_{i,t}(s_{t+1}) + UCB(N(s_{t+1})))$$

▶ Update policy using no-regret learning:

$$\pi_{i,t}^{k+1}(s_t) \leftarrow \text{No Regret Step}(a_{i,t}, r_t + V_{i,t}(s_{t+1}) + UCB(N(s_{t+1}), \beta_k))$$

Optimistic estimate of V (In high probability with carefully chosen UCB)

V-learning (PoV of agent i)

- lacksquare Initialize policies $\pi^0_{i,t}$
- For episode k = 1,2,...
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Adversarial bandit step on fast timescale

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- For episode k = 1,2,...
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 - For t = 0, 1, 2, ..., H

To see why this works, suppose the fast timescale has converged

- Sample action $a_{i,t} \sim \pi_{i,t}^k(s_t)$, observe reward $r_t = R_i(s_t, a_t)$, next state s_{t+1}
- ▶ Keep track of number of times each state has been visited:

$$N(s_{t+1}) \leftarrow N(s_{t+1}) + 1$$

▶ Update optimistic value estimate

$$V_{i,t}(s_t) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha_k)V_{i,t}(s_t) + \alpha_k \text{CCE Value}_i(\bar{Q}_{1,t}(s_{t+1}), ..., \bar{Q}_{n,t}(s_{t+1}))$$

This is just stochastic approximations of the dynamic programming algorithm

V-learning (PoV of agent i)

- lacksquare Initialize policies $\pi^0_{i,t}$
- For episode k = 1,2,...
 - Receive initial state s_0
 - For t = 0, 1, 2, ..., H

To see why this works, suppose the fast timescale has converged

- Sample action $a_{i,t} \sim \pi_{i,t}^k(s_t)$, observe reward $r_t = R_i(s_t, a_t)$, next state s_{t+1}
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Note that this algorithm is independent! Players can do this separately. (Under the same caveat that the step sizes are synced)

Thm: Finite Horizon General-Sum Markov Games [Jin et al. 2021]

With high probability, optimistic Value-iteration with **Follow-the-Regularized-Leader** (**FTRL**) as the no-regret learning algorithm finds an ϵ -approximate **CCE** equilibrium in:

$$\tilde{O}\left(\frac{H^5S \max_i |A_i|}{\epsilon^2}\right)$$
 episodes.

Which overcame the curse of multi-agents (albeit with a worse dependence on horizon)

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 episodes.

Similar result with a slightly worse rate was derived around the same time by Mao & Basar, 2021 using online mirror descent instead of FTRL

Thm: Finite Horizon General-Sum Markov Games [Jin et al. 2021]

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ight)$$
 episodes.

Extended to approximate correlated eq. by Song et al. 2021 by using a no-swap regret algorithm

Thm: Finite Horizon General-Sum Markov Games [Jin et al. 2021]

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 episodes.

Still an ongoing area of research!

Faster convergence rates, specific structures (e.g., extensive form games, cooperative games, zero-sum games), equilibrium selection, multi-objective optimization

1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games

2. Algorithmic structures in Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning

- i. Policy-gradient algorithms in games
- ii. Value-based algorithms

- i. The role of function approximation
- ii. Scalable algorithms for zero-sum games
- iii. New equilibrium concepts

1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games

2. Algorithmic structures in Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning

- i. Policy-gradient algorithms in games
- ii. Value-based algorithms
 - Takeaways:
 - Q-learning algorithms for *infinite horizon zero-sum* Markov games, not in general.

- i. The role of function approximation
- ii. Scalable algorithms for zero-sum games
- iii. New equilibrium concepts

1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games

2. Algorithmic structures in Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning

- i. Policy-gradient algorithms in games
- ii. Value-based algorithms
 - Takeaways:
 - In finite-horizon Markov games, can efficiently learn Nash though you have to be careful about the curse of multi-agency.

- i. The role of function approximation
- ii. Scalable algorithms for zero-sum games
- iii. New equilibrium concepts

1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games

2. Algorithmic structures in Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning

- i. Policy-gradient algorithms in games
- ii. Value-based algorithms
 - Takeaways:

In both of these cases *timescale separation* is key to simplify the problem.

- i. The role of function approximation
- ii. Scalable algorithms for zero-sum games
- iii. New equilibrium concepts

- 1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games
- 2. Algorithmic structures in Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning
 - i. Policy-gradient algorithms in games
 - ii. Value-based algorithms
- 3. Further directions (Work from my group)
 - i. The role of function approximation
 - ii. Scalable algorithms for zero-sum games
 - iii. New equilibrium concepts

Sample efficiency is crucial

So far we have seen that we have algorithms for **efficiently** learning in tabular finite-horizon Markov Games

Meaning it achieves good sample complexities





>10⁷ games of Go >1 month of training time on dedicated servers

200 years of real-time StarCraft games >1 month of training time on dedicated servers

DeepMind Can Now Beat Us at Multiplayer Games, Too

Chess and Go were child's play. Now A.I. is winning at capture the flag. Will such skills translate to the real world?

GAMING ENTERTAINMENT TECH

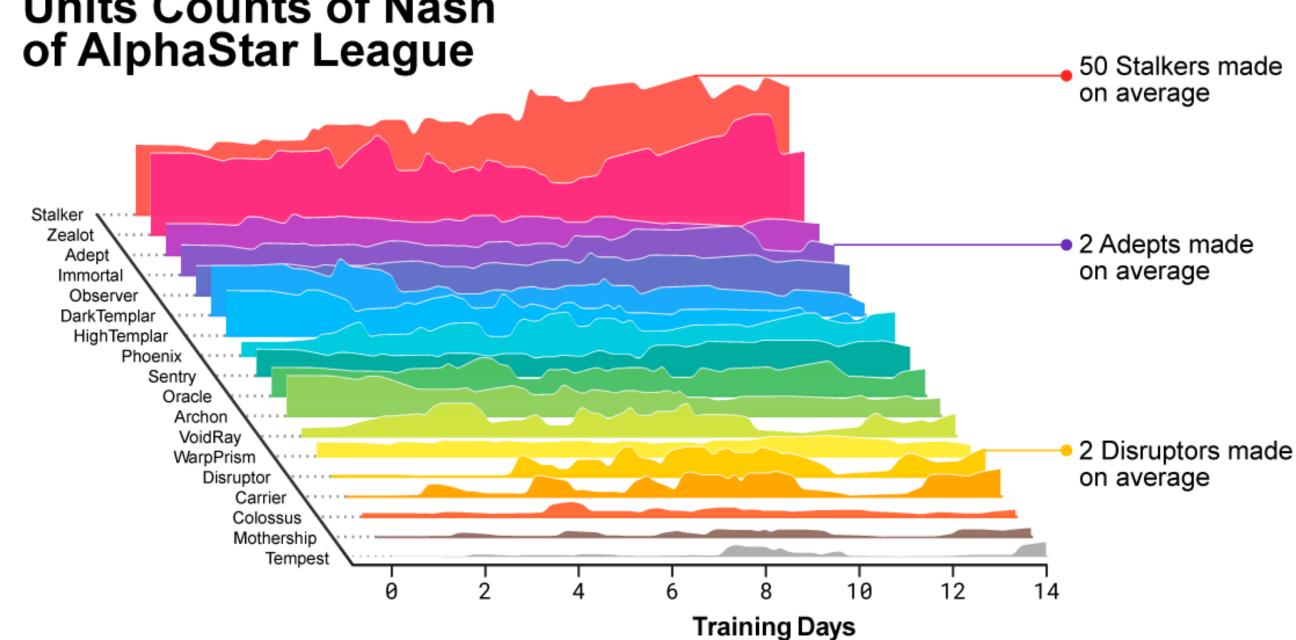
Feeble humans prove no match for OpenAl's Dota 2 gods

JUNE 8, 2017 • 5 MINUTE READ

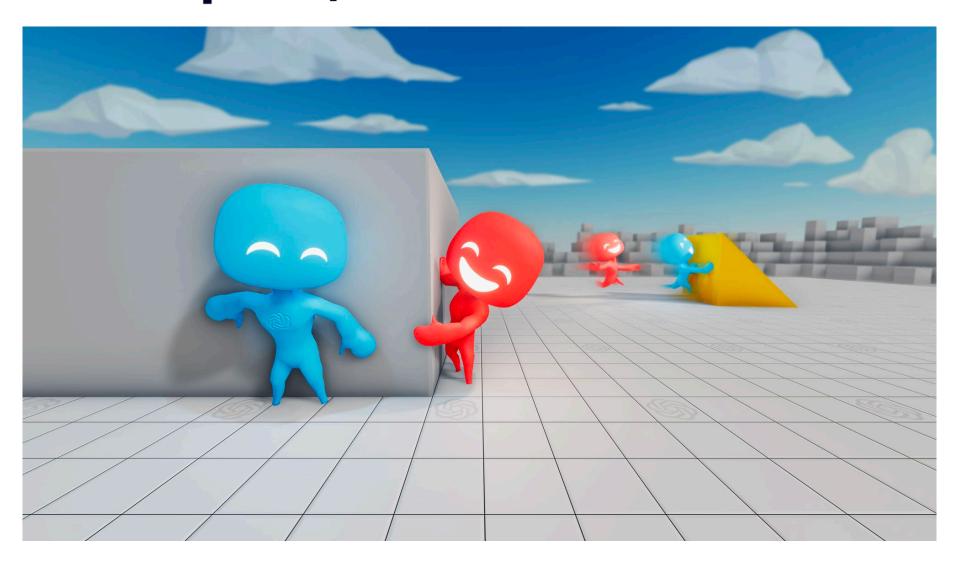
The AI won 7,215 matches against humans, losing only 42 in the process







Learning to Cooperate, Compete, and Communicate



GAMING \ ENTERTAINMENT \ TECH DeepMind Can Now Beat Us Feeble humans at Multiplayer Games, Too gods Chess and Go were child's play. Now A.I. is winning at The AI won 7,215 matches against By Vlad Savov | @vladsavov | Apr 23, 2019, 9:25am EDT Multi-agent Actor-Critic **Units Counts of Nash** of AlphaStar League 50 Stalkers made on average Zealot 2 Adepts made Adept Multi-agent Actor-Critic on average Immortal Observer DarkTemplar HighTemplar Phoenix 2 Disruptors made on average Carrier Colossus Mothership

Training Days

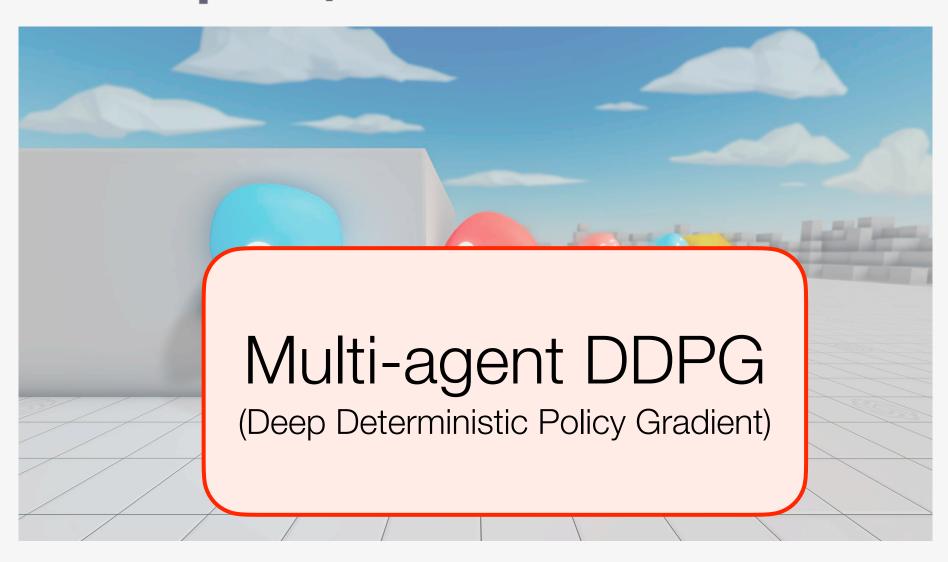
Tempes

Multi-agent PPO (Proximal Policy Optimization)

JUNE 8, 2017 • 5 MINUTE READ

penAl's Dota 2

Learning to Cooperate, Compete, and Communicate

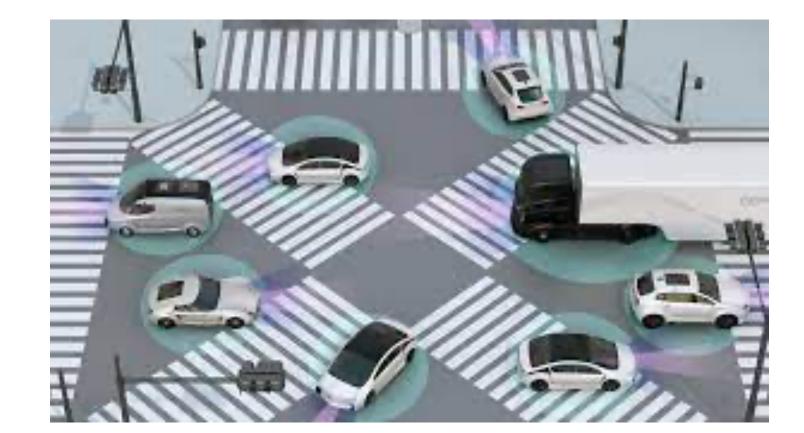


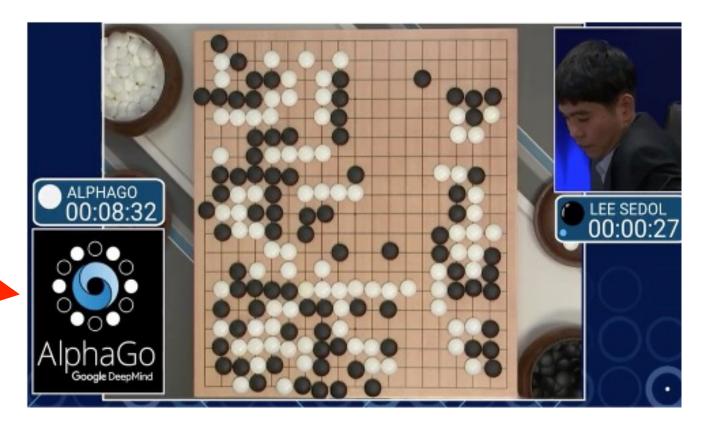
We need scalable algorithms as well:

What makes good learning algorithms in games?

- Convergent
 last-iterate, ergodic, best iterate convergence to Nash
- Independent learning agents should not know anything about their opponents utility
- No-regret agents should be "rational" (e.g., take advantage of naive opponents)
- Scalable

 Many real world applications have large state-spaces!







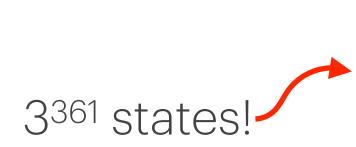
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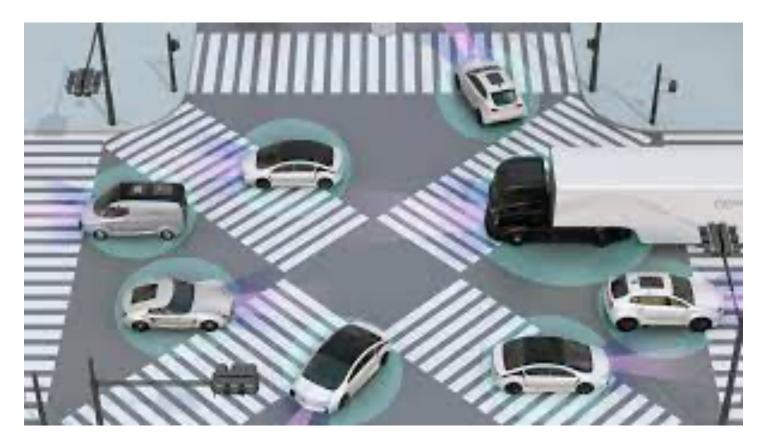
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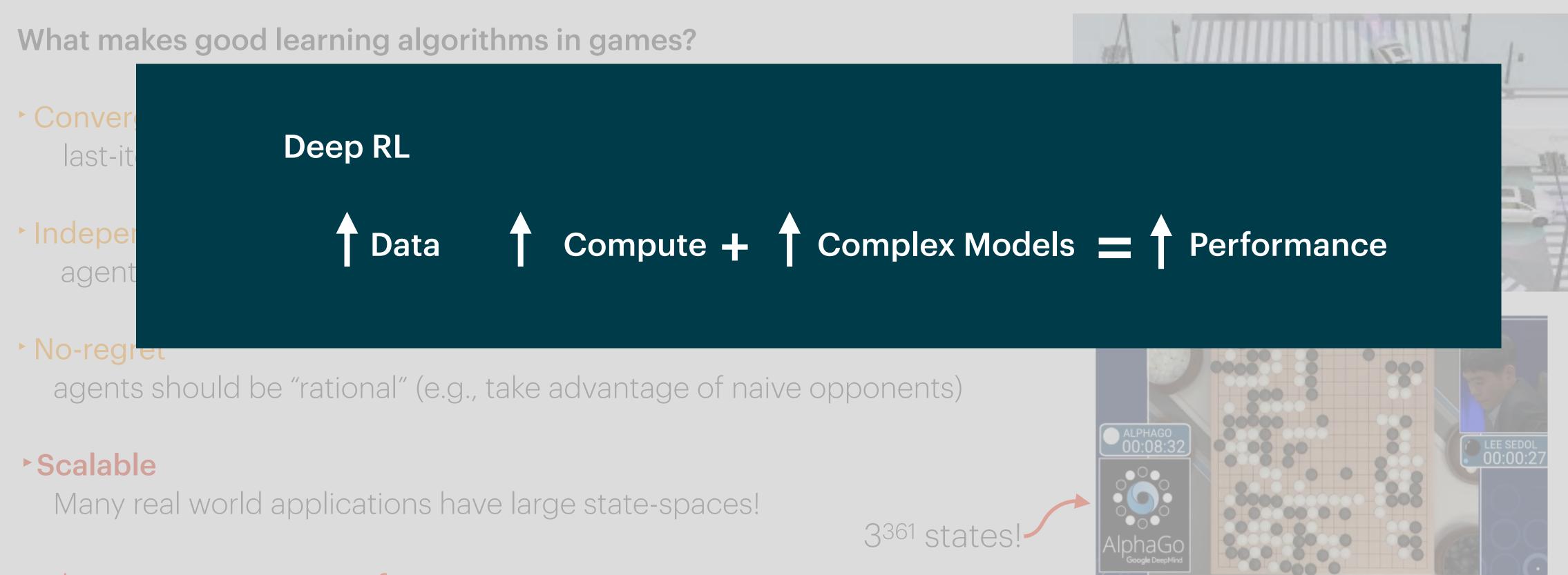
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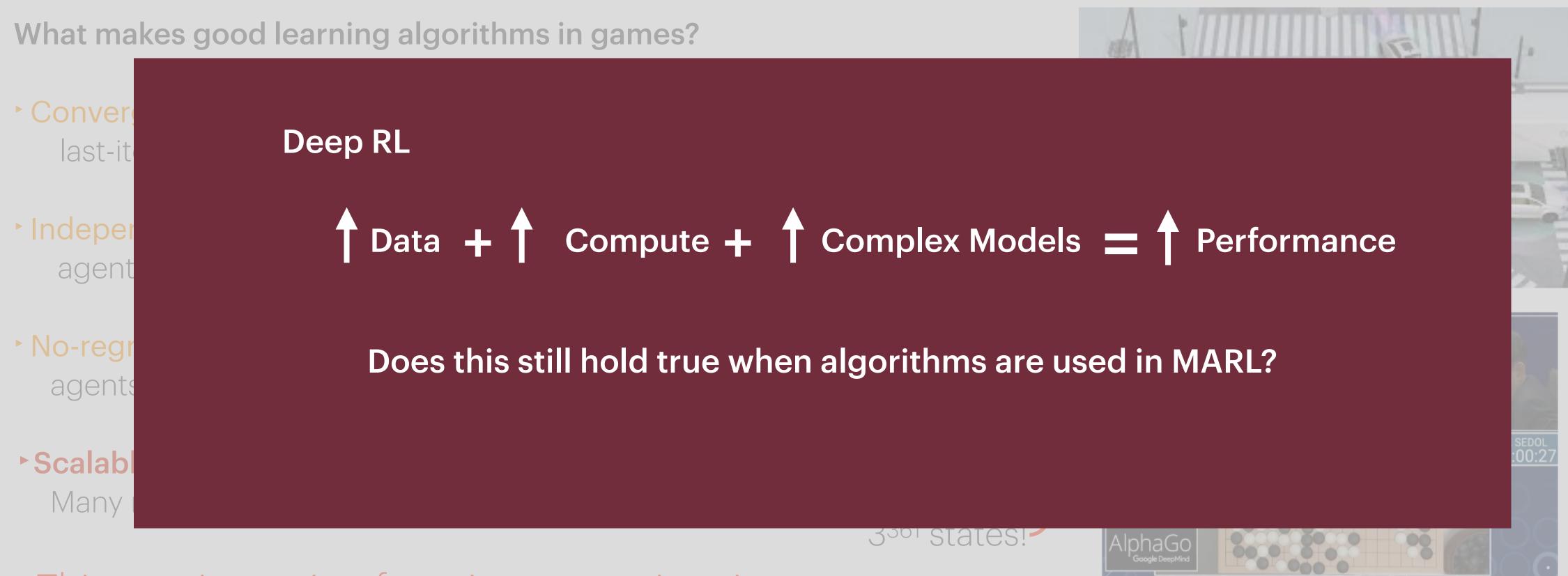




We need scalable algorithms as well:



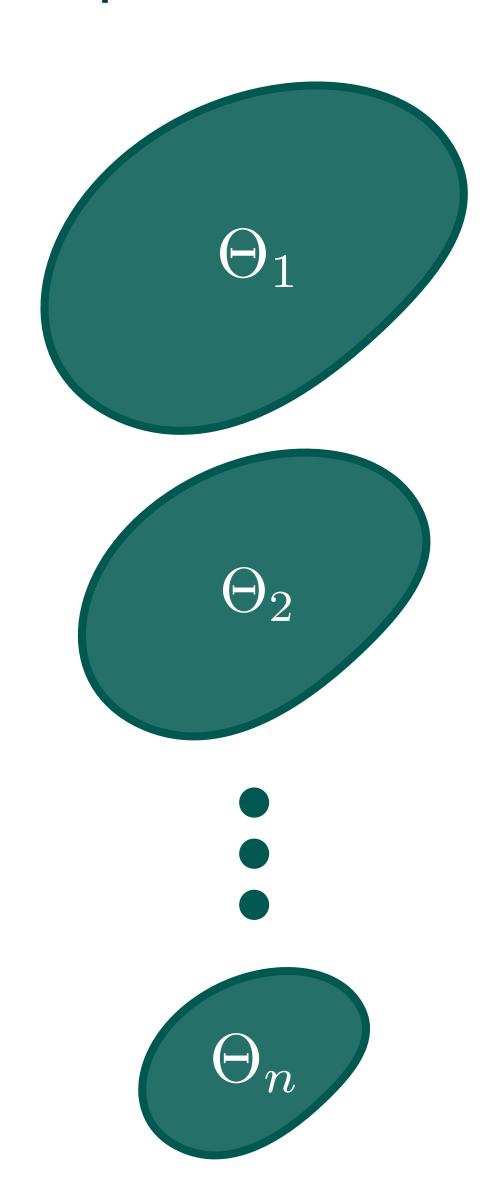
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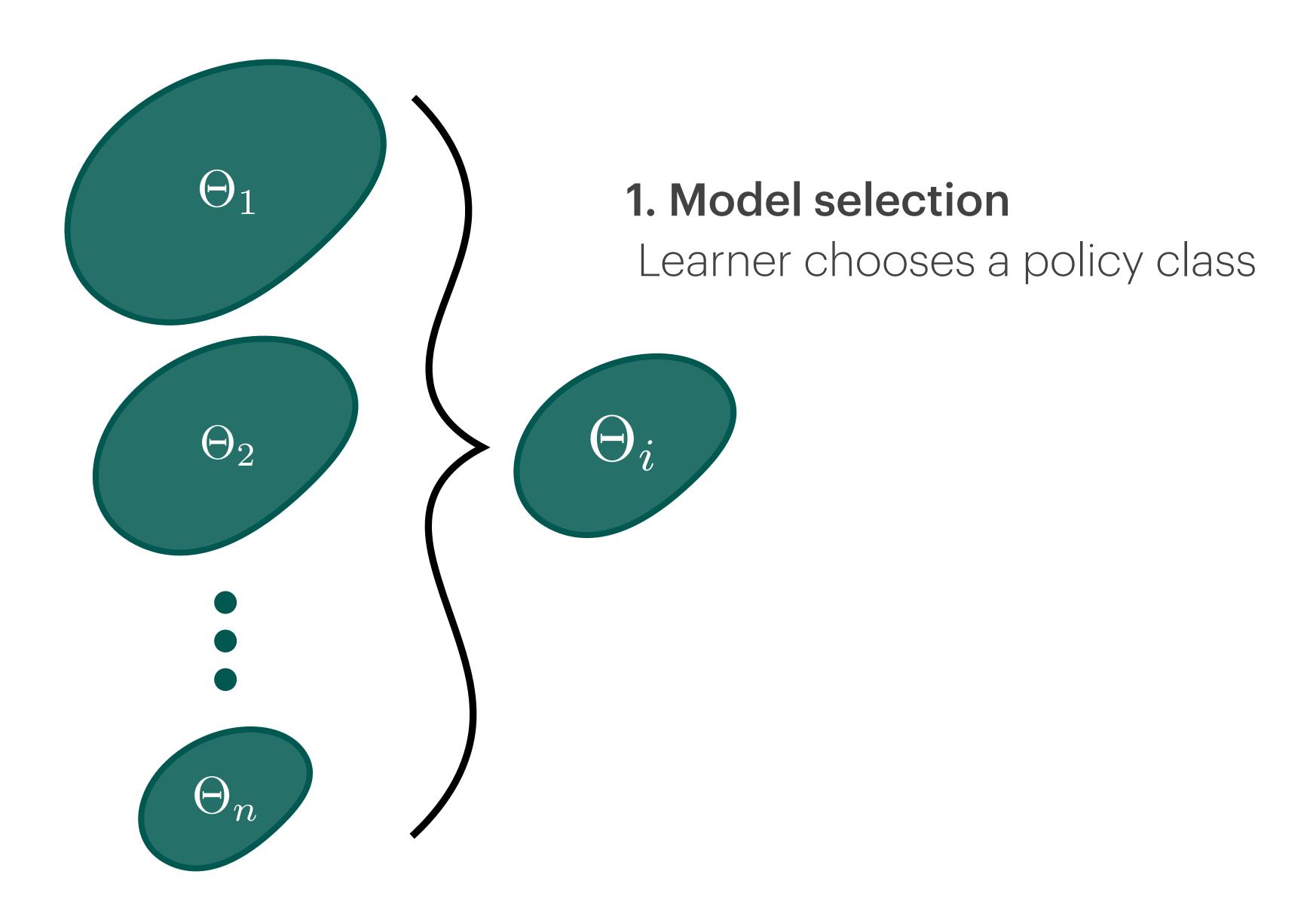
Deep MARL Pipeline



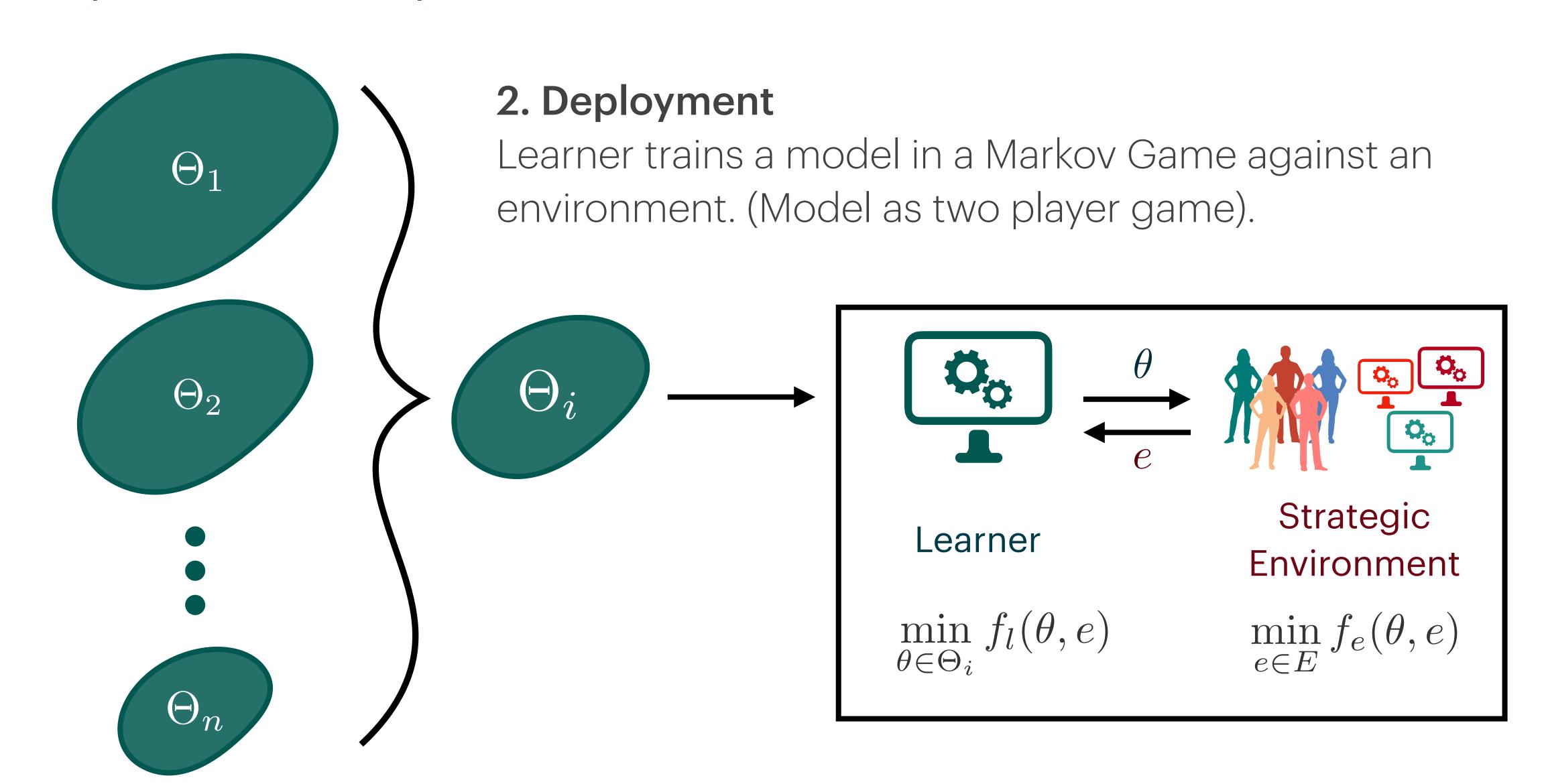
Learner has a menu of policy classes of decreasing expressivity

$$\Theta_1 \supset \Theta_2 \supset ... \supset \Theta_n$$

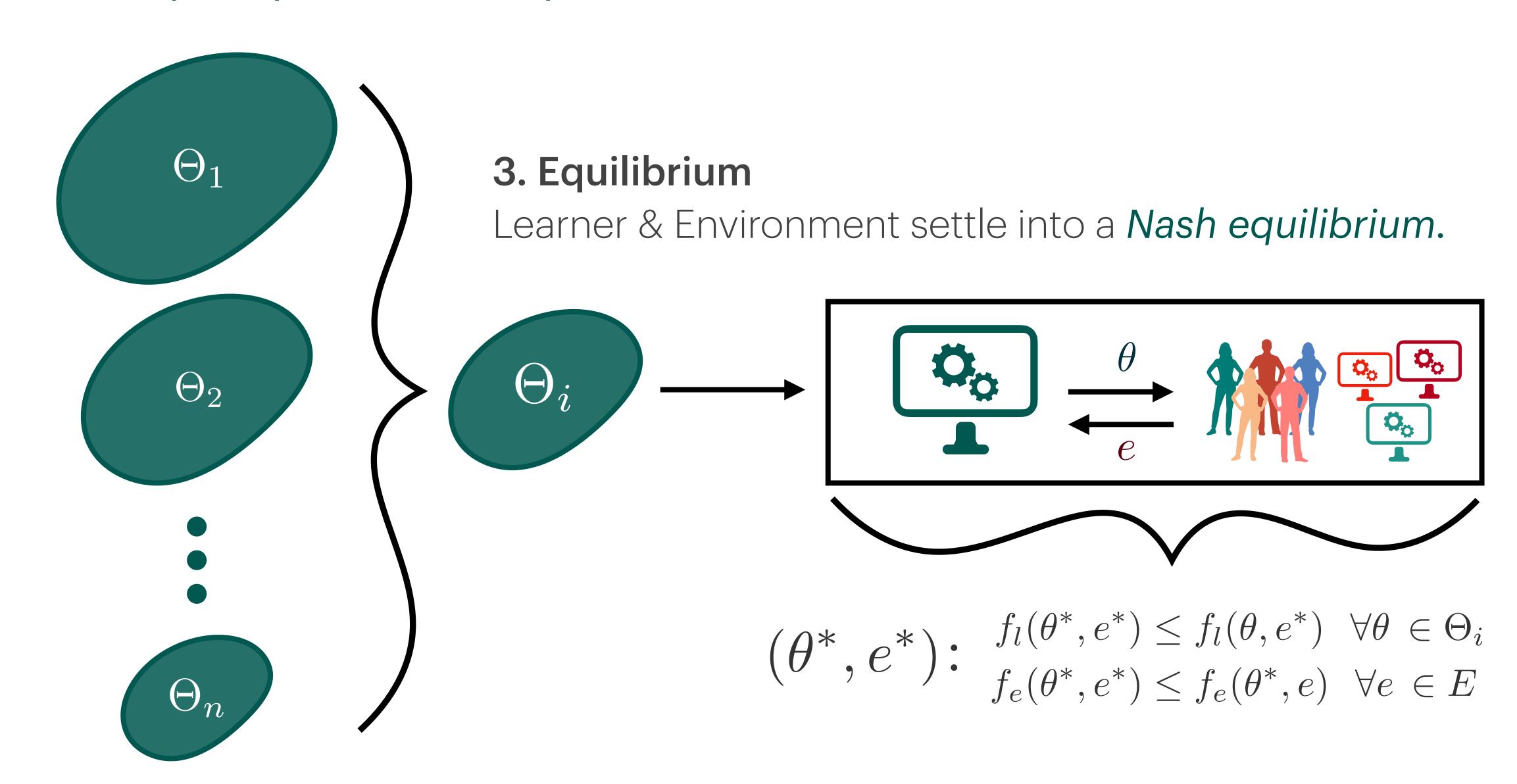
Deep MARL Pipeline



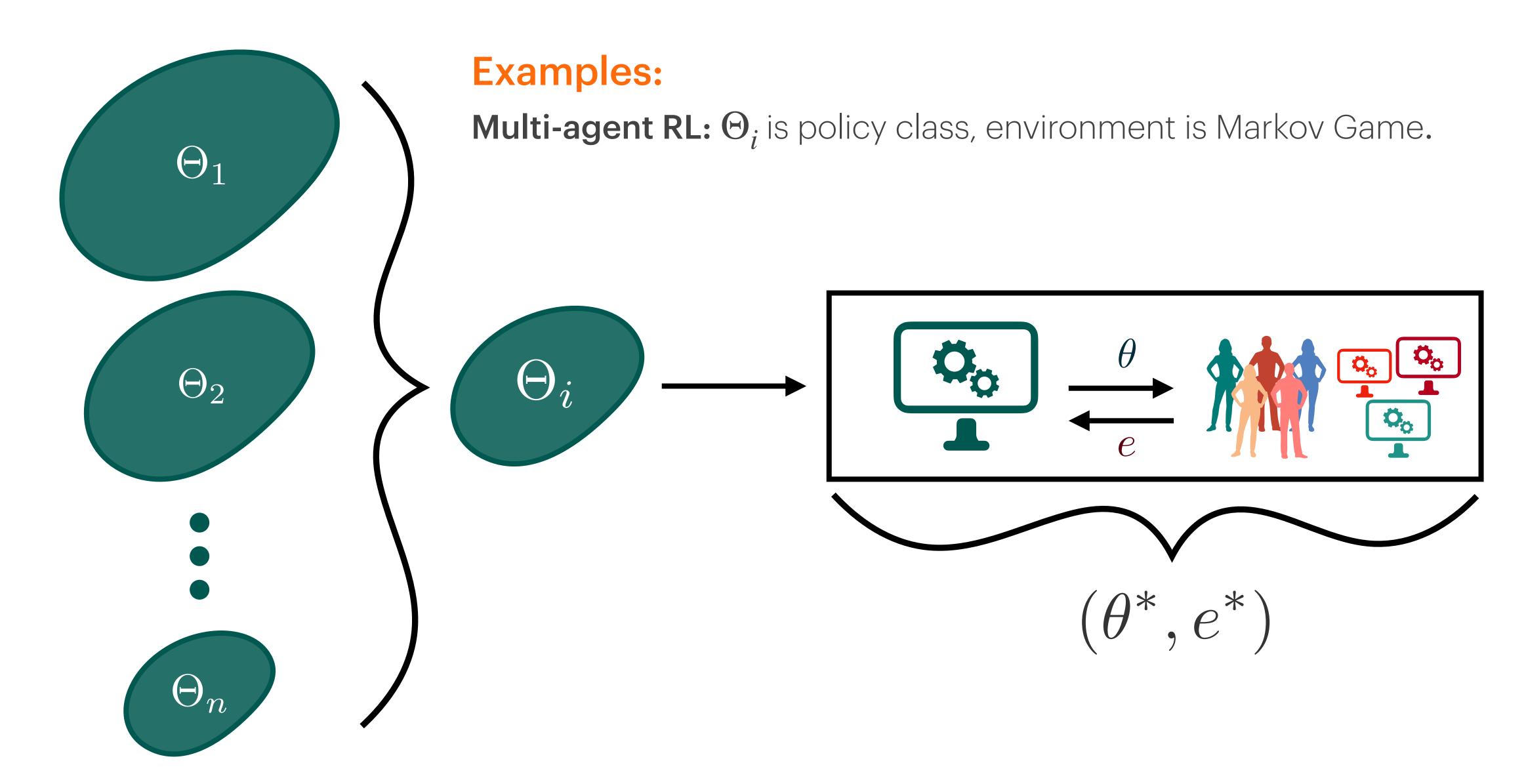
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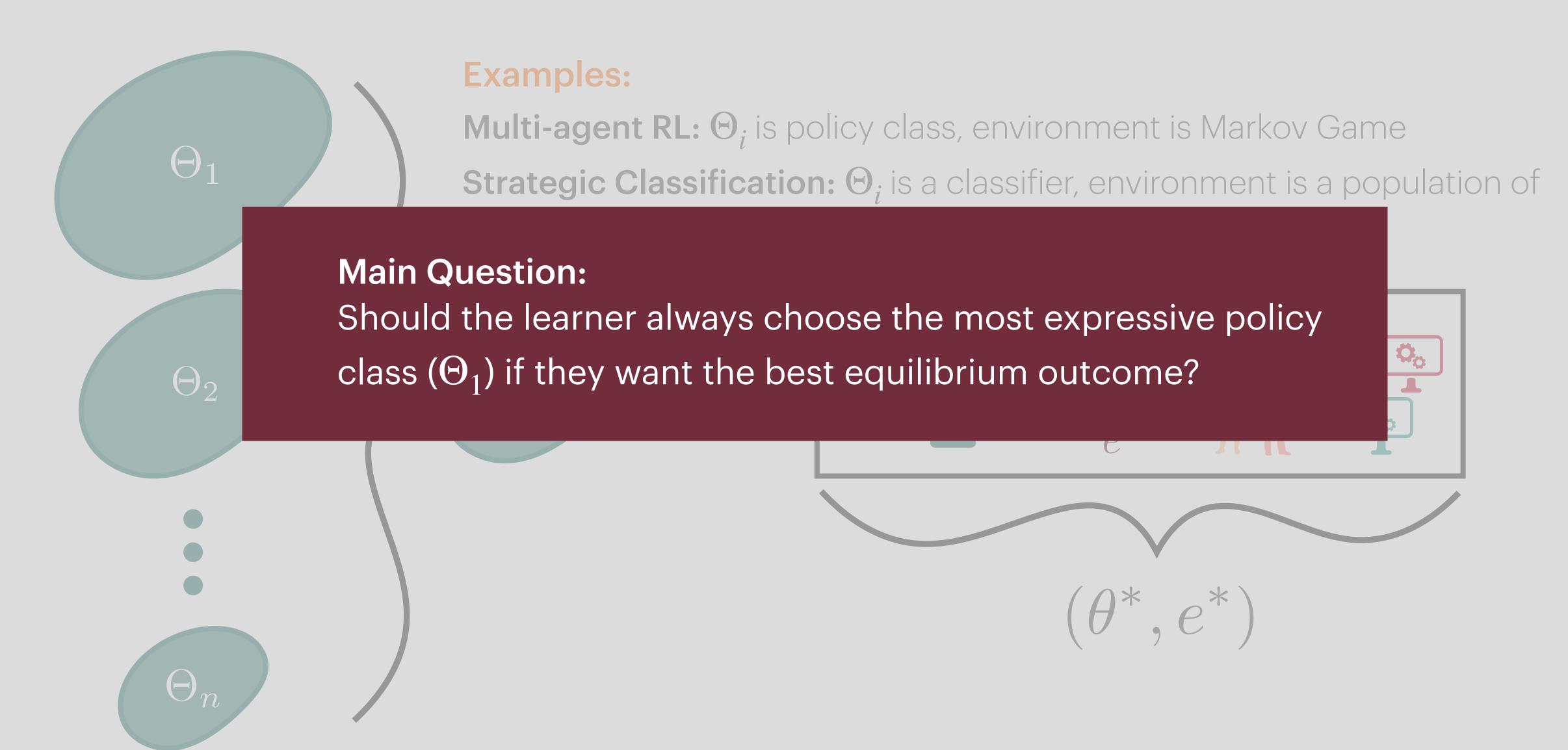
ML Deployment Pipeline



ML Deployment Pipeline



ML Deployment Pipeline



Should the learner always choose Θ_1 if they want the best equilibrium outcome?

1. If the environment is static $(E = \{e\})$ — i.e., single-agent RL: yes

$$\min_{\theta \in \Theta_1} f_l(\theta, e) \le \min_{\theta \in \Theta_i} f_l(\theta, e) \quad \text{if} \quad \Theta_i \subset \Theta_1$$

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3. The answer is no even in "well-behaved" general-sum games.

Should the learner always choose Θ_1 if they want the best equilibrium outcome?

Theorem.

If the game is **strongly monotone** but the Nash equilibrium $(\theta^*, e^*) \in \Theta_1 \times E$ is **not Pareto optimal**:

Highly structured games with a unique Nash equilibrium

There exists a coordinated change that improves upon both players outcomes (Not true in zero-sum games by definition)

Should the learner always choose Θ_1 if they want the best equilibrium outcome?

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If the game is **strongly monotone** but the Nash equilibrium $(\theta^*, e^*) \in \Theta_1 \times E$ is **not Pareto optimal**:

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Proof Idea:

Choosing a model class to optimize over is a form of **commitment**, which gives you a first mover advantage

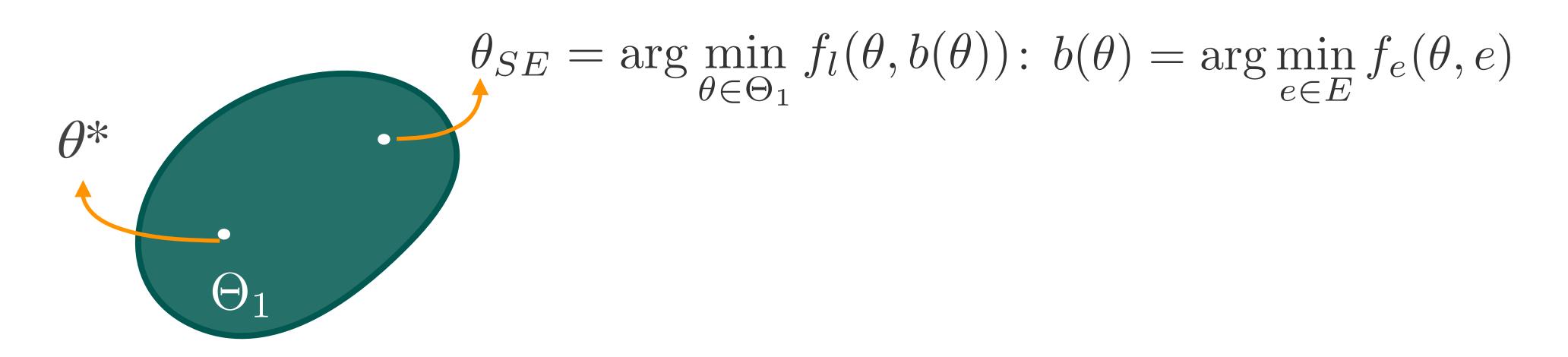
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Proof Sketch:

Choosing a model class to optimize over is a form of **commitment**



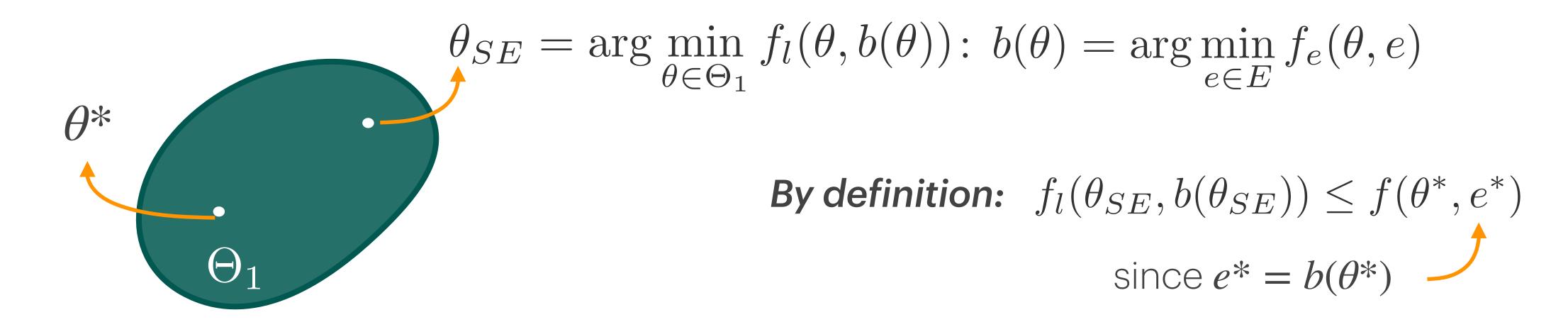
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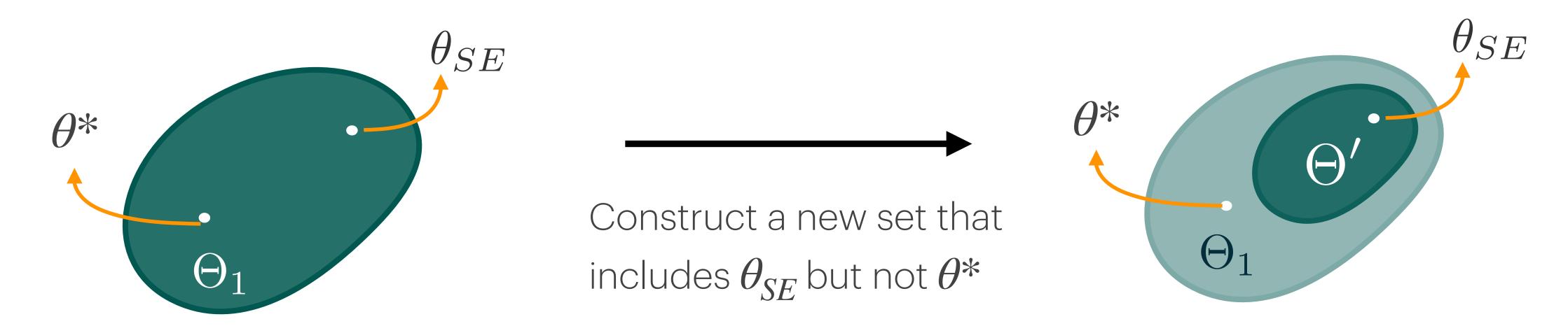
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Proof Sketch:

Choosing a model class to optimize over is a form of **commitment**



Should the learner always choose Θ_1 if they want the best equilibrium outcome?

- 1. If the environment is static $(E = \{e\})$: yes
- 2. If the environment is adversarial $(f_e(\theta, e) = -f_l(\theta, e))$: yes
- 3. The answer is no even in "well-behaved" general-sum games.

Even with *infinite data and infinite compute*, less expressive model classes can give better equilibrium outcomes.

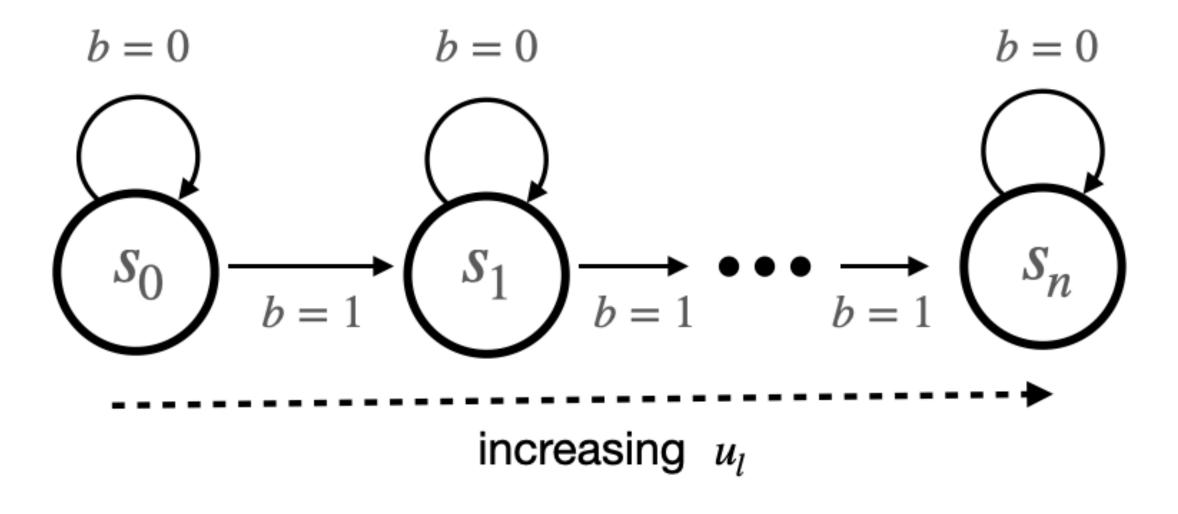
Should not be too surprising: game theory is full of such examples! e.g., Braess' Paradox, LQG control, comparative statics...

Should the learner always choose Θ_1 if they want the best equilibrium outcome?

- 1. If the environment is static $(E = \{e\})$: yes
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Even with *infinite data and infinite compute*, less expressive model classes can give better equilibrium outcomes.

2 players, n states, 2 actions for each player {0,1}



- ► Player 2 controls the state transitions
- Player 1 has increasing payoff in larger states

Player 1's menu of policy classes:

(for ease of visualization consider the 3-simplex)

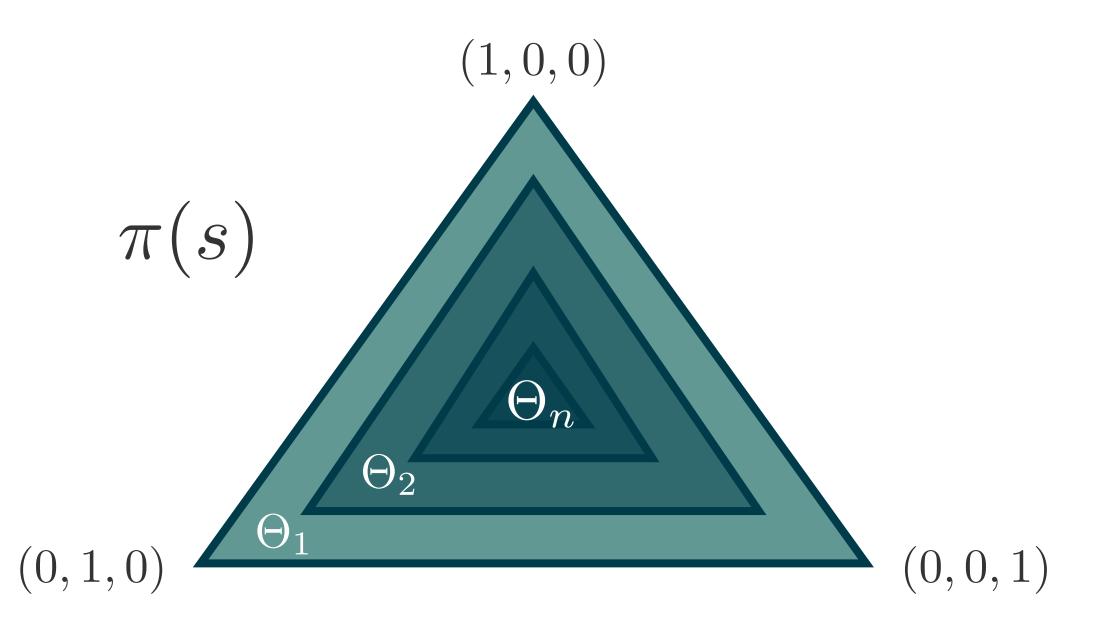
$$\Theta_1: 1 - \bar{p}_1 \le \pi(s) \le \bar{p}_1$$

$$\Theta_2: 1 - \bar{p}_2 \le \pi(s) \le \bar{p}_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\Theta_n: 1 - \bar{p}_n \le \pi(s) \le \bar{p}_n$$

$$0.5 \le \bar{p}_i \le 1$$



Player 1's menu of policy classes:

(for ease of visualization consider the 3-simplex)

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\vdots
\Theta_{n}: 1 - \bar{p}_{n} \leq \pi_{(s)} \leq \bar{p}_{n}
0.5 \leq \bar{p}_{i} \leq 1$$

$$\pi(s)$$

$$\Theta_{n}$$

$$(0, 1, 0)$$

$$(0, 0, 1)$$

▶ Player 1 has a *dominant strategy* in every state (a=0).

Player 1's menu of policy classes:

(for ease of visualization consider the 3-simplex)

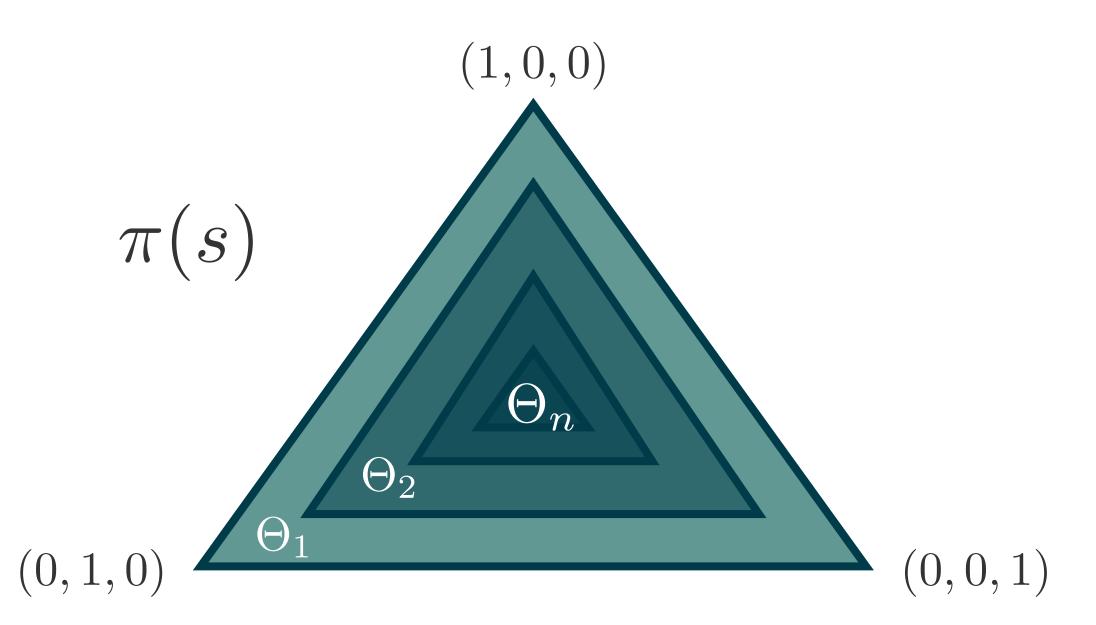
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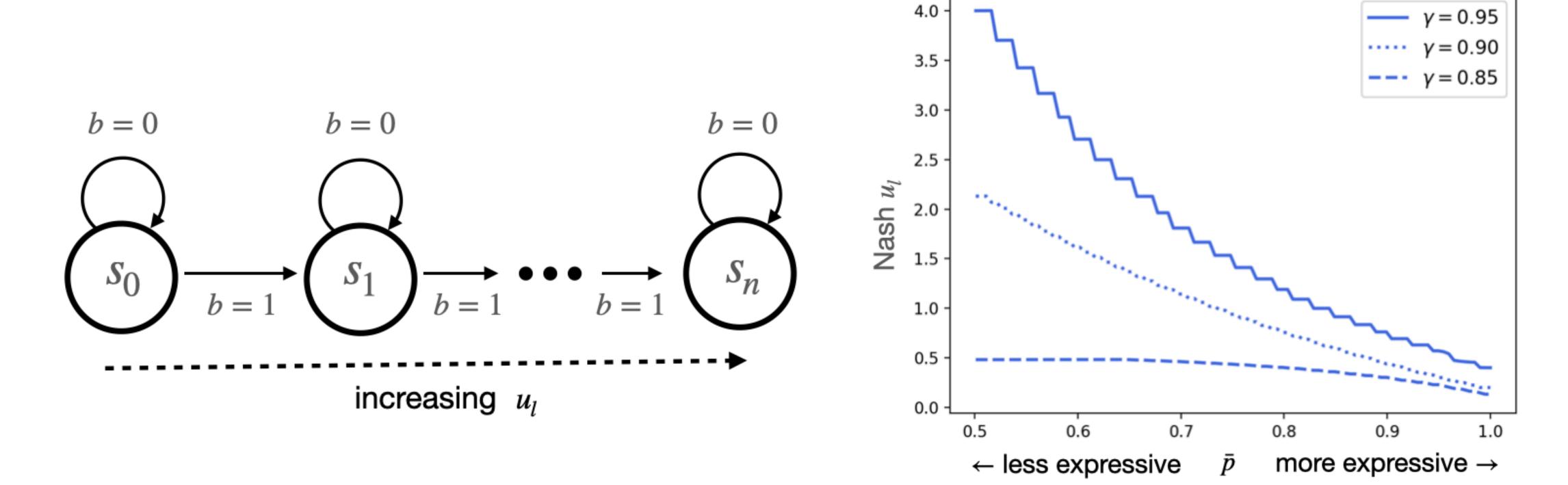
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- ▶ Player 1 has a *dominant strategy* in every state (a=0).
- lacktriangle Their **Nash eq strategy** in each state for a policy class Θ_i is: $\pi_1^*(s) = (\bar{p}_i, 1 \bar{p}_i)$

We construct the payoffs for player 2 such that the following scaling law holds for this game



- 1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games
- 2. Algorithmic structures in Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning
 - i. Policy-gradient algorithms in games
 - ii. Value-based algorithms

- i. The role of function approximation
- ii. Scalable algorithms for zero-sum games
- iii. New equilibrium concepts

- 1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games
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- i. The role of function approximation
 - Takeaway:
 - Choosing good function approximations in general-sum Markov games is non-trivial.
 - ▶ Could hurt equilibrium performance by choosing a more expressive class (even in a full-information regime).
- ii. Scalable algorithms for zero-sum games
- iii. New equilibrium concepts

- 1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games
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- i. The role of function approximation
 - Takeaway:
 - Choosing good function approximations in zero-sum Markov games is similar to RL.
 - ▶ More expressive models will always help!
- ii. Scalable algorithms for zero-sum games
- iii. New equilibrium concepts

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Function Approximation in Zero-Sum Markov Games

3³⁶¹ states!

Can we design principled algorithms that *use function approximation* in zerosum Markov Games?

What makes good learning algorithms in games?

- Convergent
 last-iterate, ergodic, best iterate convergence to Nash
- Independent learning agents should not know anything about their opponents utility
- No-regret
 agents should be "rational" (e.g., take advantage of naive opponents)
- Scalable

 Many real world applications have large state-spaces!





But, there's no need to reinvent the wheel!

Classical algorithms for learning in games in Economics for independent learning have strong convergence guarantees:

Smooth Fictitious-Play [Fudenberg & Kreps 1993]

Independent, last-iterate convergent in finiteaction zero-sum games, no-regret¹

- ► Trembling hand version of Fictitious-Play [Brown 1949]
- ► Well analyzed (asymptotically) via stochastic approximations [Hofbauer et al. 2002, Benaim & Hirsch 1999]

Today:

We develop a payoff-based version of smoothed Fictitious-Play that is:

- 1. Rational can take advantage of stationary opponents
- 2. Independent requires no knowledge of the opponents's policy
- 3. Convergent in the last iterate sense in two-player zero-sum games not on average
- **4. Can be adjusted to work with function approximation retains convergence guarantees with** linear function approximation

Key Idea: two-timescale analyses of smoothed fictitious-play

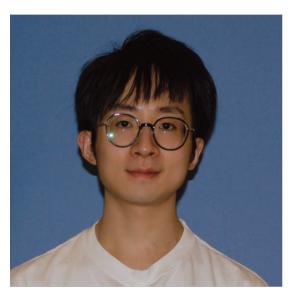
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Zaiwei Chen (Caltech)



Kaiqing Zhang (UMD)



Asu Ozdaglar (MIT)



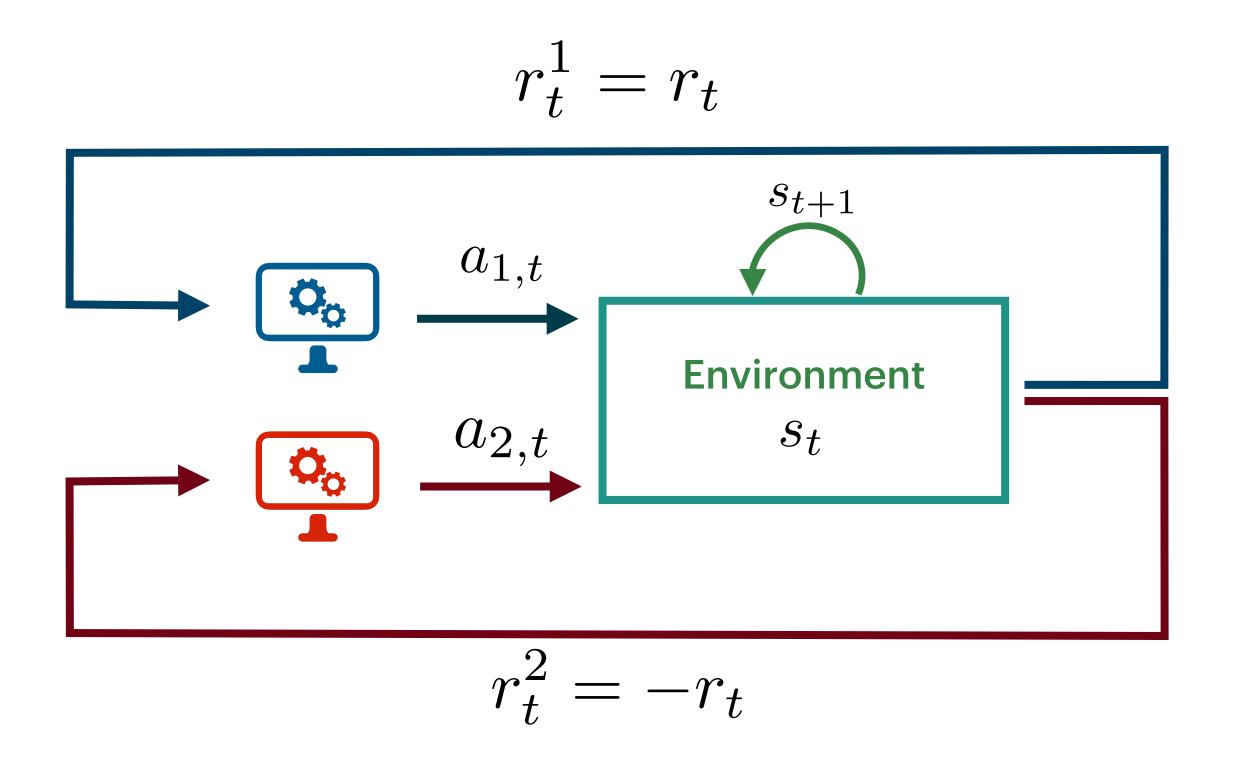
Adam Wierman (Caltech)

Zero-Sum Markov Games

- Finite Action Spaces: $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2$
- ▶ Finite (but large) State Spaces: S
- ▶ Players only observe rewards and states

$$U_1(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_1, \pi_2, P} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_t \right]$$

$$U_2(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_1, \pi_2, P} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} -\gamma^t r_t \right]$$



A brief look at prior work on infinite horizon zero-sum Markov Games

Fictitious-Play, Best-Response Dynamics
[Brown 1951]
Fudenberg & Kreps 1993] [Shamma & Arslan 2004]

Other learning dynamics (e.g., gradient-based, policy iteration)

[Zhang et al. 2019,2023],

[Jin et al., 2021], [Cen et al., 2022],

[Winnicki and Srikant, 2023], ...

Individual Q Learning
[Leslie & Collins 2003, 2005]
[Sayin et al. 2021]

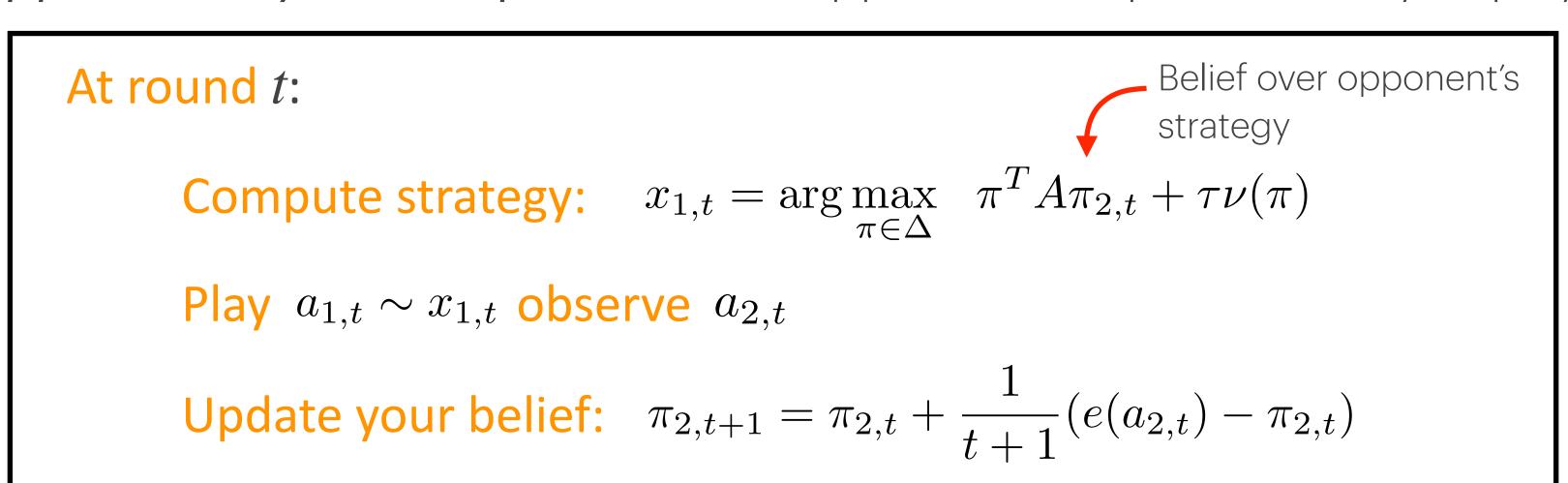
All are missing at least one of the following

- Convergence in Markov Games
- Payoff-Based Independent Learning
- Function Approximation
- Last-Iterate Convergence Guarantees

Warm-Up: Smooth Fictitious-Play in Matrix Games

Smoothed fictitious-play (SFP). [Fudenberg & Kreps 1993]

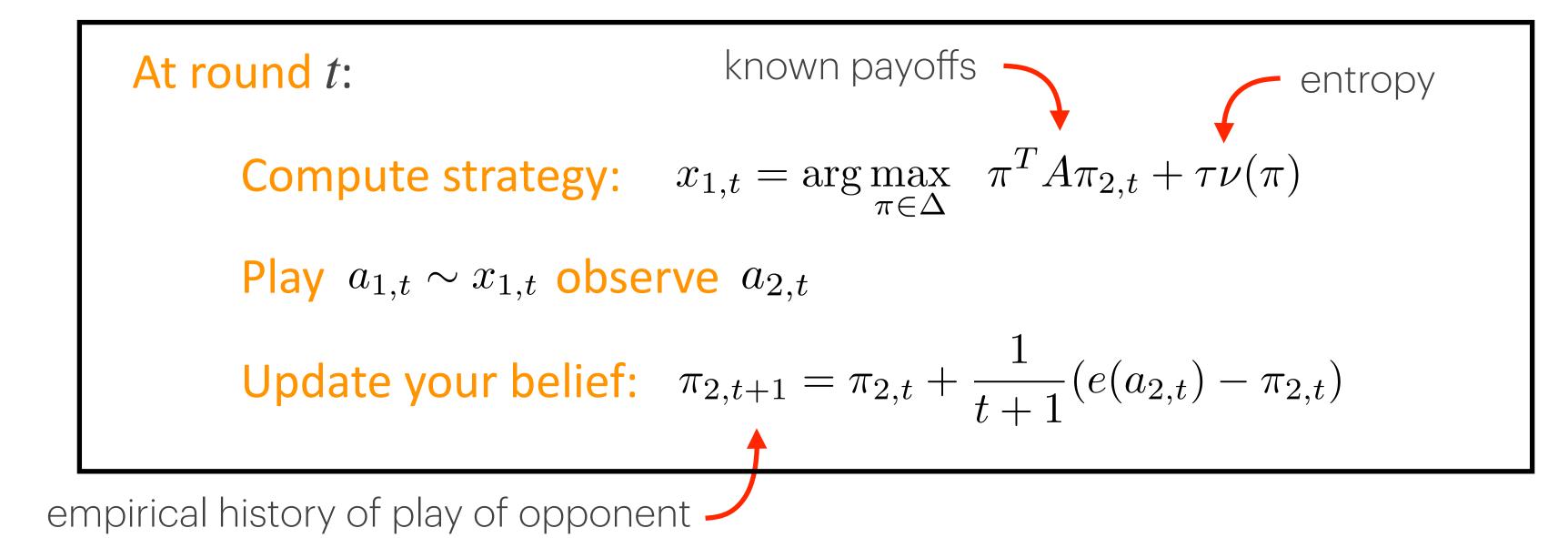
Player's approximately best-respond to their opponents empirical history of play



Warm-Up: Smooth Fictitious-Play in Matrix Games

Smoothed fictitious-play (SFP). [Fudenberg & Kreps 1993]

Player's approximately best-respond to their opponents empirical history of play



Requires observation of opponents' actions!

This is a case with neither bandit or full information feedback but somewhere in between

Smoothed Fictitious-Play and Bandit Feedback

Implementing SFP requires observation of your opponent's actions

At round *t*:

Compute strategy: $x_{1,t} = \arg\max_{\pi \in \Delta} \pi^T A \pi_{2,t} + \tau \nu(\pi)$

Play $a_{1,t} \sim x_{1,t}$ observe $a_{2,t}$

Update your belief: $\pi_{2,t+1} = \pi_{2,t} + \frac{1}{t+1}(e(a_{2,t}) - \pi_{2,t})$

Suppose you do not know A and cannot observe $a_{2,t}$

How should a player learn an estimate of $A\pi_2$ using only their own payoffs?

Smoothed Fictitious-Play and Bandit Feedback

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Suppose you do not know A and cannot observe $a_{2,t}$

How should a player learn an estimate of $A\pi_2$ using only their own payoffs?

Use Stochastic Approximation (TD-Learning) on $A\pi_2 - q = 0$

Doubly-Smoothed Best-Response Dynamics

At round *t*:

Play $a_{1,t} \sim \pi_{1,t}$ observe r_t

Update your belief: $q_{t+1}(a) = q_t(a) + \alpha_t \mathbb{I}_{a=a_{1,t}}(r_t - q_t(a))$

Compute smooth best-response: $x_{1,t} = \arg\max_{\pi \in \Delta} \pi^T q_t + \tau \nu(\pi)$

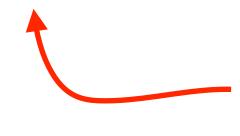
Update strategy: $\pi_{1,t+1} = \pi_{1,t} - \beta_t(\pi_{1,t} - x_{1,t})$

Bandit feedback: $\mathbb{E}[r_t] = [A]_{a_{1,t},a_{2,t}}$

TD Learning on fast time-scale

Update policy on slow time-scale

Main Idea: If $q_t \to A\pi_{2,t}$ on a fast timescale this algorithm mimics best-response dynamics on the slow timescale.



Not a new idea... using multiple timescales to stabilize Q learning was proposed in [Leslie & Collins 2003]!

Doubly-Smoothed Best-Response Dynamics

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TD Learning on fast time-scale

Update policy on slow time-scale

Main Idea: If $q_t \to A\pi_{2,t}$ on a fast timescale this algorithm mimics best-response dynamics on the slow timescale.

We show that this is achievable using a single timescale: $\alpha_t = C\beta_t$

Doubly-Smoothed Best-Response Dynamics

At round *t*:

Play $a_{1,t} \sim \pi_{1,t}$ observe r_t

Update your belief: $q_{t+1}(a) = q_t(a) + \alpha_t \mathbb{I}_{a=a_{1,t}}(r_t - q_t(a))$

Compute smooth best-response: $x_{1,t} = \arg\max_{\pi \in \Delta} \ \pi^T q_t + \tau \nu(\pi)$

Update strategy: $\pi_{1,t+1} = \pi_{1,t} - \beta_t(\pi_{1,t} - x_{1,t})$

This algorithm is:

- Independent
- ▶ Payoff-Based
- No Markov Games
- ▶ No Function Approximation

Last-Iterate Convergence of Doubly Smoothed BRD

For a matrix game, define the regularized Nash Gap as:

$$V_{\tau}(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \max_{\bar{\pi}_2 \in \Delta} \pi_1^T A \bar{\pi}_2 - \tau \nu(\bar{\pi}_2) - \left(\min_{\bar{\pi}_1 \in \Delta} \bar{\pi}_1^T A \pi_2 + \tau \nu(\bar{\pi}_1)\right)$$
Entropy

Last-Iterate Convergence of Doubly Smoothed BRD

For a matrix game, define the regularized Nash Gap as:

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Theorem. Doubly Smoothed BRD with $\alpha_t = O\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)$ and $\beta_t = C\alpha_t$ and $\tau > 0$ satisfies:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[V_{\tau}(\pi_{1,T}, \pi_{2,T})\right] = O\left(\frac{1}{T}\right)$$

Finite-time last iterate convergence with only Bandit Feedback

Last iterate convergence to Nash in space of policies achievable with τ -softmax policies (Nash distribution).

Last-Iterate Convergence of Doubly Smoothed BRD

For a matrix game, define the regularized Nash Gap as:

$$V_{\tau}(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \max_{\bar{\pi}_2 \in \Delta} \pi_1^T A \bar{\pi}_2 - \tau \nu(\bar{\pi}_2) - \left(\min_{\bar{\pi}_1 \in \Delta} \bar{\pi}_1^T A \pi_2 + \tau \nu(\bar{\pi}_1) \right)$$

Theorem. Doubly Smoothed BRD with $\alpha_t = O\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)$ and $\beta_t = C\alpha_t$ and $\tau > 0$ satisfies:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[V_{\tau}(\pi_{1,T}, \pi_{2,T})\right] = O\left(\frac{1}{T}\right)$$

Proof sketch:

- 1. View the fast timescale as constructing a variance-reduced estimator of the player's marginalized payoffs for use in smoothed Fictitious-Play.
- 2. Show that smoothed Fictitious-play has last-iterate convergence in the regularized Nash gap.

Last-Iterate Convergence of Doubly Smoothed BRD

For a matrix game, define the regularized Nash Gap as:

$$V_{\tau}(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \max_{\bar{\pi}_2 \in \Delta} \pi_1^T A \bar{\pi}_2 - \tau \nu(\bar{\pi}_2) - \left(\min_{\bar{\pi}_1 \in \Delta} \bar{\pi}_1^T A \pi_2 + \tau \nu(\bar{\pi}_1) \right)$$

Theorem. Doubly Smoothed BRD with $\alpha_t = O\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)$ and $\beta_t = C\alpha_t$ and τ appropriately chosen satisfies:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[V_0(\pi_{1,T}, \pi_{2,T})\right] = O\left(\frac{1}{T^{1/8}}\right)$$

The convergence to the true Nash is much slower due to trade offs in stepsize selection (but still converges at the fastest known rate for last-iterate convergence with bandit feedback)

Last-Iterate Convergence of Doubly Smoothed BRD

For a matrix game, define the regularized Nash Gap as:

$$V_{\tau}(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \max_{\bar{\pi}_2 \in \Delta} \pi_1^T A \bar{\pi}_2 - \tau \nu(\bar{\pi}_2) - \left(\min_{\bar{\pi}_1 \in \Delta} \bar{\pi}_1^T A \pi_2 + \tau \nu(\bar{\pi}_1) \right)$$



The convergence to the true Nash is much slower due to trade offs in stepwise selection (but still converges at the fastest known rate for last-iterate convergence with bandit feedback)

From Matrix to Markov Games

Classic Q-Learning

$$Q^*(s, a) = E_{s, a} \left[R(s, a) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q^*(s', a') \right]$$

Minimax Q-Learning

$$Q^*(s, a_1, a_2) = R(s, a_1, a_2) + \gamma E_{s'|s, a_1, a_2} \left[\min_{\pi_1} \max_{\pi_2} \ \pi_1^T Q^*(s') \pi_2 \right]$$

Requires solving a — zero-sum game

Like in the single-agent setting, the optimal Q-function is a fixed point of a contraction mapping in the ℓ_{∞} norm

$$Q_1^* = \mathcal{H}(Q_1^*)$$

Main Idea:

Use SBRD to solve—online— a matrix game in each state but adjust payoffs with slowly updated estimates of future discounted rewards.

At round *t*:

Play $a_{1,t} \sim \pi_{1,t}(\cdot|s_t)$ observe r_t move to new state s_{t+1}

Update your belief: $q_{t+1}(s, a) = q_t(s, a) + \alpha_t \mathbb{I}_{s=s_t, a=a_{1,t}}(r_t - q_t(s, a) + \gamma v_t(s_{t+1})) \quad \forall (s, a) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}$

Compute smooth best-response: $x_{1,t} = \arg\max_{\pi \in \Delta} \ \pi^T q_t + \tau \nu(\pi)$

future payoffs

Update strategy: $\pi_{1,t+1} = \pi_{1,t} - \beta_t(\pi_{1,t+1} - x_{1,t})$

Every K steps update value estimate: $v_{t+1} = \begin{cases} \pi_{1,t+1}(\cdot|s)^T q_{t+1}(s,\cdot) \ \forall s \in \mathcal{S} \ ; \ (t+1) \bmod K = 0 \\ v_t \ \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

min-max value iteration on a slower timescale.

At round *t*:

Play $a_{1,t} \sim \pi_{1,t}(\cdot|s_t)$ observe r_t move to new state s_{t+1}

Update your belief: $q_{t+1}(s,a) = q_t(s,a) + \alpha_t \mathbb{I}_{s=s_t,a=a_{1,t}}(r_t - q_t(s,a) + \gamma v_t(s_{t+1}))$ $\forall (s,a) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}$ Compute smooth best-response: $x_{1,t} = \arg\max_{\pi \in \Delta} \ \pi^T q_t + \tau \nu(\pi)$ future payoffs Compute smooth best-response: $x_{1,t} = \arg\max_{\pi \in \Delta} \pi^T q_t + \tau \nu(\pi)$

Update strategy: $\pi_{1,t+1} = \pi_{1,t} - \beta_t(\pi_{1,t+1} - x_{1,t})$

Every K steps update value estimate: $v_{t+1} = \begin{cases} \pi_{1,t+1}(\cdot|s)^T q_{t+1}(s,\cdot) \ \forall s \in \mathcal{S} \ ; \ (t+1) \bmod K = 0 \\ v_t \ \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Algorithm is independent and payoff-based

Consider the Nash-Gap:

$$NG(\pi_1,\pi_2)=\max_{\bar{\pi}_1}\ U(\bar{\pi}_1,\pi_2)-\min_{\bar{\pi}_2}\ U(\pi_1,\bar{\pi}_2)$$
 Captures the distance from "Nash"

Consider the Nash-Gap:

$$NG(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \max_{\bar{\pi}_1} U(\bar{\pi}_1, \pi_2) - \min_{\bar{\pi}_2} U(\pi_1, \bar{\pi}_2)$$

Theorem. Suppose there exists a pair of policies (π_1, π_2) such that the induced Markov Chain is irreducible and ergodic, then Doubly Smoothed BRD satisfies:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[NG(\pi_{1,T},\pi_{2,T})\right] \le O\left(\frac{1}{T^{1/8}}\right)$$

Last iterate convergence

No slower than the matrix case.

Due to geometric convergence of value iteration

Consider the Nash-Gap:

$$NG(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \max_{\bar{\pi}_1} U(\bar{\pi}_1, \pi_2) - \min_{\bar{\pi}_2} U(\pi_1, \bar{\pi}_2)$$

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Payoff-based (i.e. bandit feedback), independent algorithm with *finite-time iterate-convergence* to Nash equilibrium in zero-sum Markov Games.

Theorem. Suppose there exists a pair of policies (π_1, π_2) such that the induced Markov Chain is irreducible and ergodic, then Doubly Smoothed BRD satisfies:

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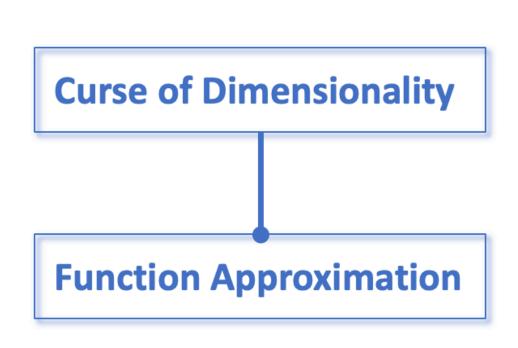
Proof sketch:

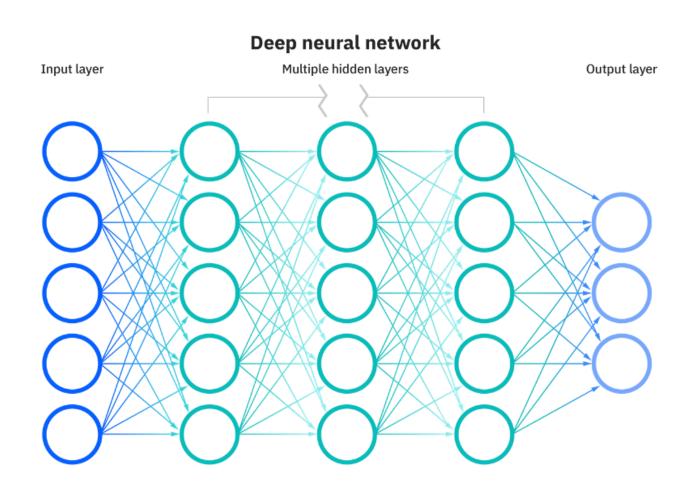
- 1. Solve matrix game on a fast timescale using the Matrix-game version of the algorithm. Becomes highly nontrivial due to time inhomogeneous Markovian Noise, and the loss of zero-sum structure since agents may have different beliefs over future payoffs.
- 2. Use regularized Nash gap as Lyapunov function for the slow timescale.
- 3. timescale of value iteration to help stabilize the learning at the fast timescale.

How to incorporate function approximation?

Scalability: algorithms for deep reinforcement learning

Deep Q-Networks [Mnih et al. 2015]





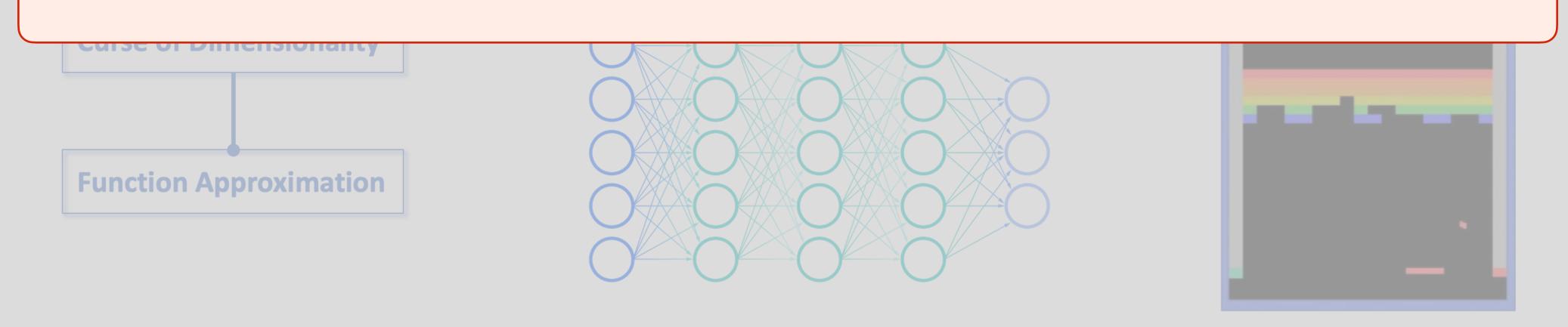


How to incorporate function approximation?

Scalability: algorithms for deep reinforcement learning

Deep Q-Networks [Mnih et al. 2015]

Key Idea: DQN* can be viewed as smoothed fictitious-play under a basis transform



Incorporating Function Approximation

Suppose we have a respecified functions class parametrized by weights $w: \{Q_w \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A}\}$

At round *t*:

Play $a_{1,t} \sim \pi_{1,t}(\cdot|s_t)$ observe r_t move to new state s_{t+1}

target network

Update your belief: update weights via SGD: $w_{t+1} = \mathcal{P}\left(w_t - \alpha_t \nabla_w \|\mathcal{H}_{\bar{\pi}}(Q_{\bar{w}}) - Q_{w_t}\|^2\right)$

Update strategy:

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \beta_t (w_{t+1} - \theta_t)$$
 $\pi_{t+1} = \arg \max_{\pi \in \Delta} \ \pi^T Q_{\theta_{t+1}} + \tau \nu(\pi)$

Every K steps synchronize policy, weights: $\bar{\pi}=\pi_t$ $\bar{w}=w_t$

Note: $\beta_t << \alpha_t$

If $\beta = 1$ then we recover vanilla DQN

Relationship with Smoothed Fictitious-Play

Suppose we are in a state-less regime and the fast timescales have converged:

$$\gamma = 0$$
 $w_t = \arg\min_{w} \|\mathcal{H}_{\bar{\pi}}(Q_{\bar{w}}) - Q_w\|^2$

$$x_{t} = \arg \max_{\pi \in \Delta} \pi^{T} Q_{t}^{2} + \tau \nu(\pi)$$

$$x_{t} = \arg \max_{\pi \in \Delta} \pi^{T} R \pi_{t}^{2} + \tau \nu(\pi)$$

$$Q_{w_{t+1}}^{1} = Q_{w_{t}}^{1} + \beta_{t} (R x_{t} - Q_{\theta_{t}}^{1})$$

$$\pi_{t+1}^{1} = \pi_{t}^{1} + \beta_{t} (x_{t} - \pi_{t})$$

DQN

Smoothed Best-Reponse Dynamics

Relationship with Smoothed Fictitious-Play

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$$\gamma = 0$$
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Perform a change of basis: $u_i = R^{-1}Q_i$

$$x_{t} = \arg\max_{\pi \in \Delta} \pi^{T} R R^{-1} Q_{t}^{2} + \tau \nu(\pi)$$

$$R^{-1} Q_{w_{t+1}}^{1} = R^{-1} Q_{w_{t}}^{1} + \beta_{t} (x_{t} - R^{-1} Q_{\theta_{t}}^{1})$$

$$x_{t} = \arg \max_{\pi \in \Delta} \pi^{T} R \pi_{t}^{2} + \tau \nu(\pi)$$
$$\pi_{t+1}^{1} = \pi_{t}^{1} + \beta_{t}(x_{t} - \pi_{t})$$

DQN

Smoothed Best-Reponse Dynamics

Relationship with Smoothed Fictitious-Play

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$$u_{t+1}^{1} = u_{t}^{1} + \beta_{t}(x_{t} - u_{t}^{1})$$

DQN

$$x_{t} = \arg \max_{\pi \in \Delta} \pi^{T} R \pi_{t}^{2} + \tau \nu(\pi)$$
$$\pi_{t+1}^{1} = \pi_{t}^{1} + \beta_{t}(x_{t} - \pi_{t})$$

Smoothed Best-Reponse Dynamics

Under a change of basis the two algorithms have the same limiting dynamics

Finite-Time Last Iterate Convergence

Consider the Nash-Gap:

$$NG(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \max_{\bar{\pi}_1} U(\bar{\pi}_1, \pi_2) - \min_{\bar{\pi}_2} U(\pi_1, \bar{\pi}_2)$$

Finite-Time Last Iterate Convergence

Consider the Nash-Gap:

$$NG(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \max_{\bar{\pi}_1} U(\bar{\pi}_1, \pi_2) - \min_{\bar{\pi}_2} U(\pi_1, \bar{\pi}_2)$$

Theorem. Suppose there exists a pair of policies (π_1, π_2) such that the induced Markov Chain is irreducible and ergodic, and both agents use DQN* with *linear* function approximation then DQN* satisfies:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[NG(\pi_{1,T}, \pi_{2,T})\right] \le O\left(\frac{\gamma^T}{c_1(\tau)}\right) + O\left(\frac{1}{c_2(\tau)K}\right) + O(\tau) + \epsilon_{\text{approx}}$$

Convergence of min-max value iteration

Convergence of inner loop

Error due to softmax policies

Function approximation error

Finite-Time Last Iterate Convergence

Consider the Nash-Gap:

$$NG(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \max_{\bar{\pi}_1} U(\bar{\pi}_1, \pi_2) - \min_{\bar{\pi}_2} U(\pi_1, \bar{\pi}_2)$$

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Independent, payoff-based, algorithm that provably incorporates function approximation in zero-sum Markov Games while having last-iterate convergence

A Road Map

- 1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games
- 2. Algorithmic structures in Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning
 - i. Policy-gradient algorithms in games
 - ii. Value-based algorithms

3. Further directions

- i. The role of function approximation
- ii. Scalable algorithms for zero-sum games
- iii. New equilibrium concepts

A Road Map

- 1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games
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- i. The role of function approximation
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 - Takeaway: Small tweaks to the **DQN algorithm** allow it to have strong convergence guarantees in zero-sum games under **linear function** approximation.

iii. New equilibrium concepts

A Road Map

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Learning in Games

How should agents learn in *dynamic* game theoretic settings?

Convergent

Independent learning

Is this too much to ask for in general-sum multi-agent RL?

Individually Rationalizable

Learning in Games

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Computational hardness of Nash eq. in finite games

[Daskalakis & Papadimitriou '09]

Computational hardness of stationaryCCE

[Daskalakis et al. 22, Jin et al. '22]

Non-trivial dynamics from no-regret algorithms

Curse of multi-agency

[Palaiopanos et al 2017]

[Bai et al. '20]

Strong conditions for dynamic programming to work in infinite-horizon MARL [Hu & Wellman '03]

Learning in Games

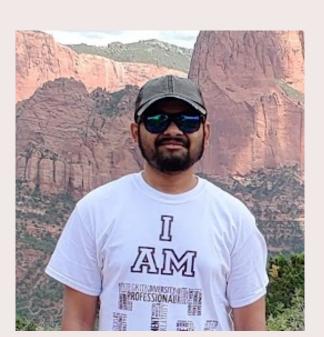
How should agents learn in dynamic game theoretic settings?

Convergent

Independent learning

Individually Rationalizable

Today: Tractable MARL through behavioral economics.



Kishan Panaganti (Caltech)



Laixi Shi (Caltech)

Today:

We define a **computationally tractable* class** of equilibria for all normal form (and finite-horizon stochastic games) that is

- (1). independent of the underlying game structure
- (2). can recreate human-play in experimental data.

*The equilibria can be computed through no-regret learning on a related convex game.

Today:

We define a **computationally tractable* class** of equilibria for all normal form (and finite-horizon stochastic games) that is

- (1). independent of the underlying game structure
- (2). can recreate human-play in experimental data.

This arises from assuming:

- 1. Risk Aversion: Agents are risk-averse to the randomness introduced by their opponents and the environment.
- 2. Bounded Rationality: Agents have a systematic failure to perfectly optimize. (i.e., they optimize over quantal responses)

- N players
- Finite Action Spaces: $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, ..., \mathcal{A}_N$
- ▶ Each player seeks to maximize their expected payoff over mixed strategies $\pi_i \in \Delta(\mathcal{A}_1)$:

$$U_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \mathbb{E}_{a \sim \pi}[R_i(a)]$$

Nash Eq: Natural solution concept for individually rational agents.

$$\pi^*$$
 is Nash if for each player i: $U_i(\pi_i^*, \pi_{-i}^*) \geq U_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}^*) \quad \forall \pi_i \in \Delta_i$

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Intractable to compute outside of highly structured games (e.g., zero-sum).

[Daskalakis & Papadimitriou 2008]

▶ Led to focus on: correlated eq [Moulin & Vial 1978], coarse correlated eq. [Aumann 1974], ..., smoothed Nash [Daskalakis et al. 2023]

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Led to focus on: correlated eq [Moulin & Vial 1978], coarse correlated eq. [Aumann 1974], ..., smoothed Nash [Daskalakis et al. 2023]

Computationally tractable but still have drawbacks (e.g., eq. selection, support on dominated strategies)

Nash Eq: Natural solution concept for individually rational agents.

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Intractable to compute outside of highly structured games (e.g., zero-sum).

[Daskalakis & Papadimitriou 2008]

Not predictive of human play in games

[Selten 1975], [Myerson 1978],[Mckelvey & Palfrey 1995],[Burchardi & Pencyniski 2012], [Wright & Leighton-Brown 2013]....

More predictive eq. concepts based around ideas that people fail to perfectly optimize (but often not computationally tractable in general-sum games)

Beyond Nash Eq.

A computationally tractable equilibrium concept that arises when agents have natural features of human decision-making:

1. Risk Aversion

2. Bounded Rationality

Beyond Nash Eq.

A computationally tractable equilibrium concept that arises when agents have natural features of human decision-making:

1. Risk Aversion

2. Bounded Rationality

GAMES and Economic Behavior

Risk averse behavior in generalized matching pennies games

Jacob K. Goeree,^a Charles A. Holt,^b and Thomas R. Palfrey ^{c,*}

^a CREED, University of Amsterdam, Roetersstraat 11, 1018 WB Amsterdam, The Netherlands
 ^b Department of Economics, University of Virginia, 114 Rouss Hall, Charlottesville, VA 22901, USA
 ^c Humanities and Social Sciences, California Institute of Technology, 228-77, Pasadena, CA 91125, USA
 Received 15 November 2000

Quantal response alone is not enough to recreate human-play in matching pennies.

Risk-aversion is a crucial feature of human decision-making.



Classic finding in behavioral economics (e.g., [Kahneman & Tversky 1979])

Risk-adjusted Matrix Games

▶ To introduce risk-aversion into games we make use of a general class of convex risk metrics.

Convex Risk Metric:

Generalization of the expectation ρ such that satisfies:

Sign difference because risk is *minimized*

- 1. Monotonicity: If $X \leq Y$ almost surely, then $\rho(X) \geq \rho(Y)$.
- 2. Translation Invariance: If $m \in \mathbb{R}$ then $\rho(X + m) = \rho(X) m$.
- 3. Convexity: For all $\lambda \in (0,1)$, $\rho(\lambda X + (1-\lambda)Y) \leq \lambda \rho(X) + (1-\lambda)\rho(Y)$.

E.g., entropic risk, CVAR, ϕ -divergence based risk metrics, shortfall risks,...

Risk-adjusted Matrix Games

Assume that players are risk-averse to their opponent's randomness in some convex risk-metric.

Maximize payoff
$$\max_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} \ U_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \max_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} \mathbb{E}_{a \sim \pi}[R_i(a)]$$

Assume that players are risk-averse to their opponent's randomness in some convex risk-metric.

Maximize payoff

$$\max_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} U_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \max_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} \mathbb{E}_{a \sim \pi}[R_i(a)]$$

1. Evaluate risk associated with each pure strategy

$$\rho_{\pi_{-i}}(R_i(a_i, a_{-i}))$$



Risk level associated with playing pure strategy a_i for agent i

Assume that players are risk-averse to their opponent's randomness in some convex risk-metric.

Maximize payoff

$$\max_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} U_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \max_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} \mathbb{E}_{a \sim \pi}[R_i(a)]$$

1. Evaluate risk associated with each pure strategy

$$\rho_{\pi_{-i}}(R_i(a_i, a_{-i}))$$

2. Minimize risk

$$\min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} f_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_i} \left[\rho_{\pi_{-i}}(R_i(a)) \right]$$



Indifferent amongst pure strategies that yield the same risk level.

Assume that players are risk-averse to their opponent's randomness in some convex risk-metric.

Maximize payoff

$$\max_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} U_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \max_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} \mathbb{E}_{a \sim \pi}[R_i(a)]$$

1. Evaluate risk associated with each pure strategy

$$\rho_{\pi_{-i}}(R_i(a_i, a_{-i}))$$

2. Minimize risk

$$\min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} f_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_i} \left[\rho_{\pi_{-i}}(R_i(a)) \right]$$



Reduces to well studied risk-averse control and risk averse RL paradigms in single-agent settings

Assume that players are risk-averse to their opponent's randomness in some convex risk-metric.

Maximize payoff
$$\max_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} U_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \max_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} \mathbb{E}_{a \sim \pi}[R_i(a)]$$

More conservative: Minimize Aggregate Risk

$$\min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} f_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} \rho_{\pi_{-i}} \left(\mathbb{E}_{\pi_i} [R_i(a)] \right)$$

Minimize Action-dependent Risk

$$\min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} f_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_i} \left[\rho_{\pi_{-i}}(R_i(a)) \right]$$

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Risk-averse Nash Eq: Natural solution concept for individually rational and risk-averse agents.

 π^* is RNE if for each player i: $f_i(\pi_i^*, \pi_{-i}^*) \leq f_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}^*) \quad \forall \pi_i \in \Delta_i$

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Do these always exist and are they computationally tractable to compute?

$$\min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} f_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} \rho_{\pi_{-i}} \left(\mathbb{E}_{\pi_i} [R_i(a)] \right)$$

Theorem: Existence of risk-averse Nash eq.

If agents' risk aversion can be captured by convex risk metrics then a risk-averse Nash equilibrium exists.

Agents can only be risk averse to their opponents and the environments

(if they are risk averse to their own randomness then this result does not hold [Fiat & Papadimitriou 2010])

$$\min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} f_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} \rho_{\pi_{-i}} \left(\mathbb{E}_{\pi_i} [R_i(a)] \right)$$

Theorem: Existence of risk-averse Nash eq.

If agents' risk aversion can be captured by convex risk metrics then a risk-averse Nash equilibrium exists.

Risk aversion isn't enough to ensure

- 1. Computational tractability.
- 2. The equilibrium is predictive of human-play [Goeree, Holt, Palfrey. 2002], [Goeree, Holt, Palfrey 2003].

▶ To have computational tractability we optimize over quantal responses.

Quantal Response Function: a quantal response function is a continuous function $\sigma: \mathbb{R}^n \to \Delta_n$ such that if x>y, $\sigma(y) > \sigma(x)$

Canonical example is space of softmax policies:
$$\sigma_{\epsilon}(x) = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} e^{-\epsilon x_i}} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-\epsilon x_i} \\ \vdots \\ e^{-\epsilon x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Quantal Response Function: a quantal response function is a continuous function $\sigma: \mathbb{R}^n \to \Delta_n$ such that if x>y, $\sigma(y) > \sigma(x)$

$$\min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} f_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) \longrightarrow \min_{\pi_i \in \sigma_i(\Delta_i)} f(\pi_i, \pi_{-i})$$

Optimize over space of quantal best responses.

▶ To have computational tractability we optimize over quantal responses.

Quantal Response Function: a quantal response function is a continuous function $\sigma: \mathbb{R}^n \to \Delta_n$ such that if x>y, $\sigma(y) > \sigma(x)$

$$\min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} f_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) \longrightarrow \min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} f_i^{\epsilon}(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \rho_{\pi_{-i}} \left(\mathbb{E}_{\pi_i} [R_i(a)] \right) + \epsilon_i \nu_i(\pi_i)$$

Can be captured with a strictly convex regularizer ϵ_i captures an agents' degree of bounded rationality.

$$\min_{\pi_i \in \sigma_i(\Delta_i)} f_i^{\epsilon}(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}) = \min_{\pi_i \in \Delta_i} \rho_{\pi_{-i}} \left(\mathbb{E}_{\pi_i}[R_i(a)] \right) + \epsilon_i \nu_i(\pi_i)$$

Risk-averse Quantal Response Eq (RQE): Natural solution concept for risk averse and individually boundedly rational agents.

$$\pi^*$$
 is RQE if for each player i: $f(\pi_i^*, \pi_{-i}^*) \leq f(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}^*) \quad \forall \pi_i \in \sigma_i(\Delta_i)$

Given these definitions, we can show that a class of RQE is computationally tractable in all games.

Will focus on 2-player for today paper has n-player results

▶ Using a dual representation theorem, we can write any convex risk metric in a variational form [Follmer & Shied 2002]

$$\min_{\pi_{i} \in \Delta_{i}} \rho_{\pi_{-i}} \left(\mathbb{E}_{\pi_{i}} [R_{i}(a)] \right) + \epsilon_{i} \nu_{i}(\pi_{i}) = \min_{\pi_{i} \in \Delta_{i}} \max_{p_{i} \in \Delta_{-i}} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{i}, p_{i}} \left[R_{i}(a) \right] - \frac{1}{\tau_{i}} D(p_{i}, \pi_{-i}) + \epsilon_{i} \nu_{i}(\pi_{i})$$

Risk metric can be fully defined by a penalty function D that is convex in its first argument.

e.g., when D is the KL divergence we recover the entropic risk

 au_i captures agent i's degree of risk aversion.

 $au_i
ightarrow 0$ yields risk-neural game $au_i
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ightarrow \infty$ yields security strategy

Interpretation: Introduce an adversary for each player that is fully adversarial but is penalized from deviations from the opponents strategy

Theorem: Computational Tractability of RQE (2-player)

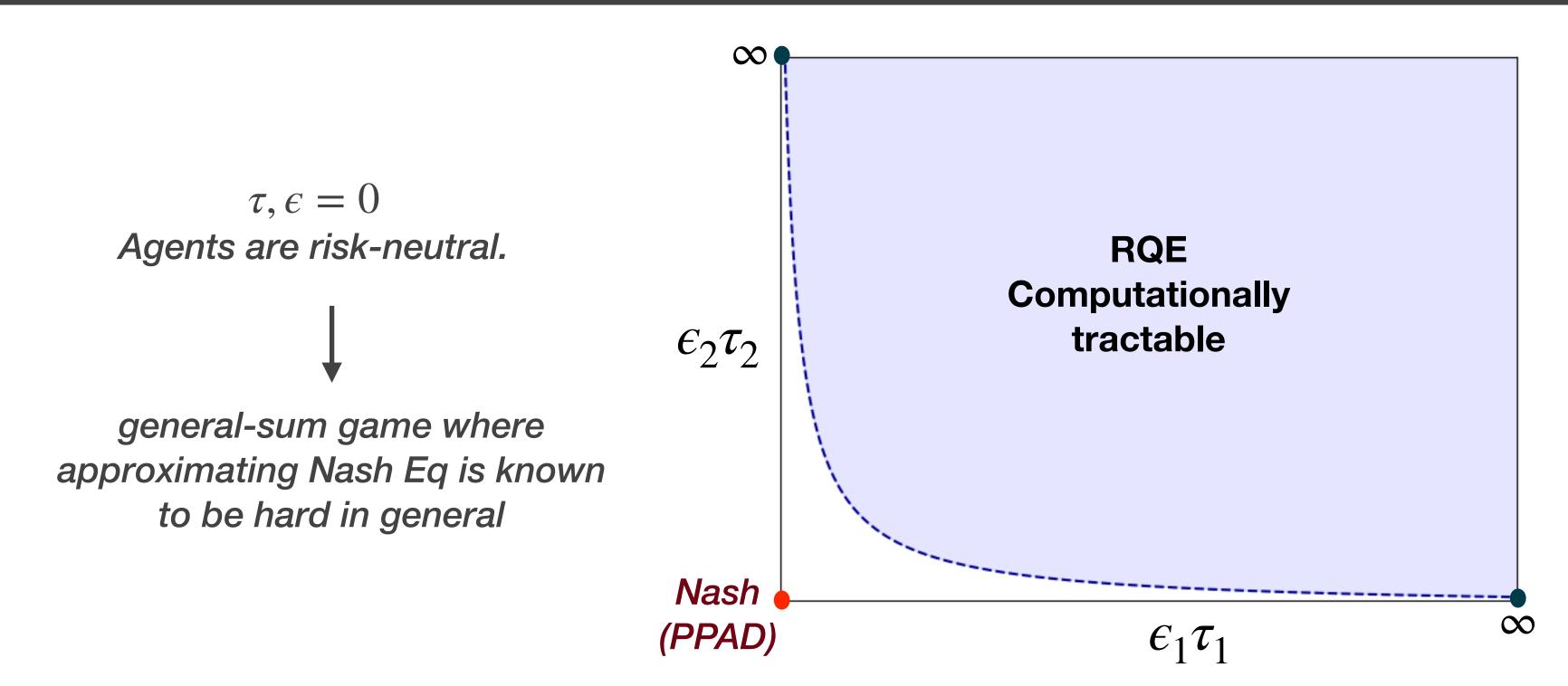
Suppose. $\epsilon_1 \tau_1 \ge 1/\epsilon_2 \tau_2$ then resulting RQE can be computed using no-regret learning on a related 4-player convex game.

This result doesn't depend on the structure of the underlying game! Only on players' relative degrees of risk-aversion/bounded rationality

e.g., policy gradients, multiplicative weights

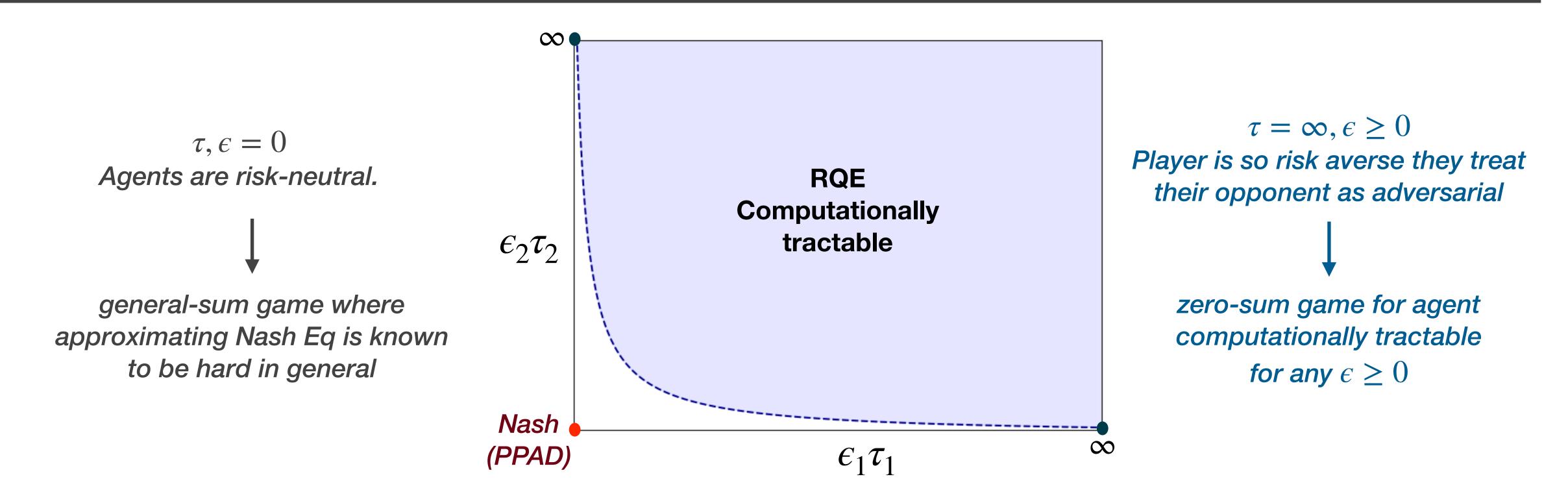
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Proof sketch:

Start with 2 player game

$$\min_{\pi_1 \in \sigma_1(\Delta_1)} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_1} [\rho_{\pi_2} (R_1(a))]$$

$$\min_{\pi_2 \in \sigma_2(\Delta_2)} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_2} [\rho_{\pi_1} (R_2(a))]$$

Proof sketch:

Start with 2 player game

$$\min_{\pi_1 \in \Delta_1} \max_{p_1 \in \Delta_2} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_1, p_1}[R_1(a)] - \frac{1}{\tau_1} D(p_1, \pi_2) + \epsilon_1 \nu(\pi_1)$$

$$\min_{\pi_2 \in \Delta_2} \max_{p_2 \in \Delta_1} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_2, p_2}[R_2(a)] - \frac{1}{\tau_2} D(p_2, \pi_1) + \epsilon_2 \nu(\pi_2)$$

Proof sketch:

Lift the game to a 4-player game by introducing adversaries for each player (who are penalized from deviations from opponents).

$$\min_{\pi_1 \in \Delta_1} \max_{p_1 \in \Delta_2} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_1, p_1}[R_1(a)] - \frac{1}{\tau_1} D(p_1, \pi_2) + \epsilon_1 \nu(\pi_1)$$

$$\min_{\pi_1 \in \Delta_1} \max_{p_1 \in \Delta_2} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_1, p_1}[R_1(a)] - \frac{1}{\tau_1} D(p_1, \pi_2) + \epsilon_1 \nu(\pi_1)$$

$$\min_{p_1 \in \Delta_2} \max_{p_2 \in \Delta_1} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_1, p_1}[R_1(a)] + \frac{1}{\tau_1} D(p_1, \pi_2) - \epsilon_2 \nu(\pi_2)$$

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Proof sketch:

This four player game is convex and nonlinear but zero-sum.

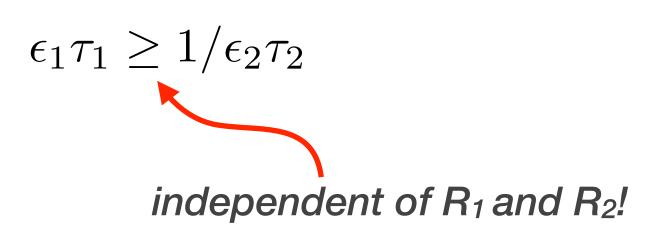
$$\min_{\pi_1 \in \Delta_1} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_1, p_1}[R_1(a)] - \frac{1}{\tau_1} D(p_1, \pi_2) + \epsilon_1 \nu(\pi_1)$$

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$$\min_{\pi_2 \in \Delta_2} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_2, p_2}[R_2(a)] - \frac{1}{\tau_2} D(p_2, \pi_1) + \epsilon_2 \nu(\pi_2)$$

Using convexity and concavity in opponents' strategies one can show that CCE coincide with Nash for all parameters in the range



Theorem: Computational Tractability of RQE (2-player)

Suppose. $\epsilon_1 \tau_1 \ge 1/\epsilon_2 \tau_2$ then a resulting RQE can be computed using no-regret learning on a related 4-player convex game.

- ▶ Class is independent of reward structure (i.e., applies to all games)
- Arises due to the *combination* of risk aversion and bounded rationality.

Similar results hold for n-player games and via dynamic programming in finite-horizon Markov games.

Theorem: Computational Tractability of RQE (2-player)

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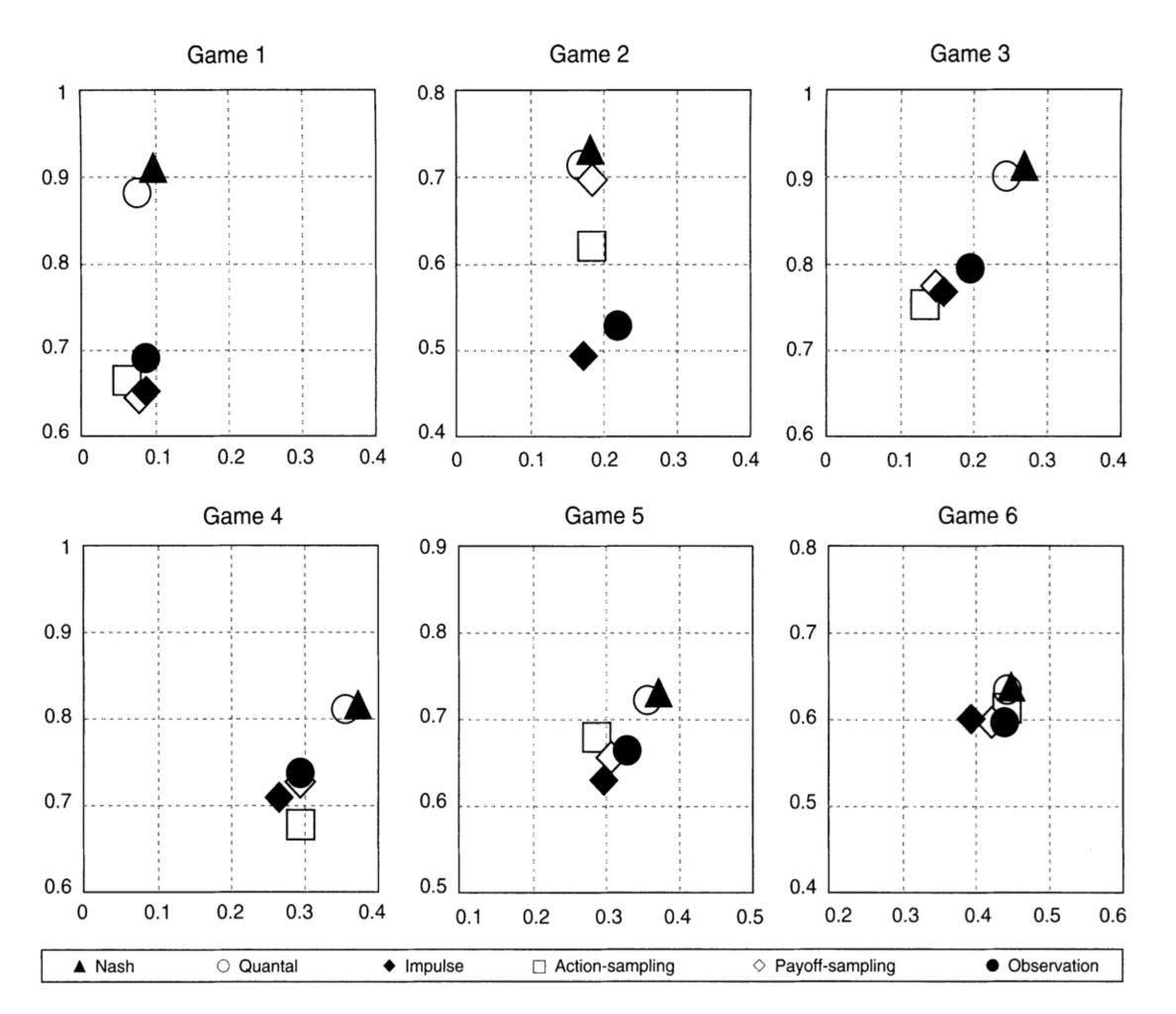
Does this class of RQE capture meaningful solutions?

Or is this too restrictive an assumption?

Expressivity of Computationally Tractable RQE

▶ We look at experimental data on human-play in 13 games from [1] and [2].

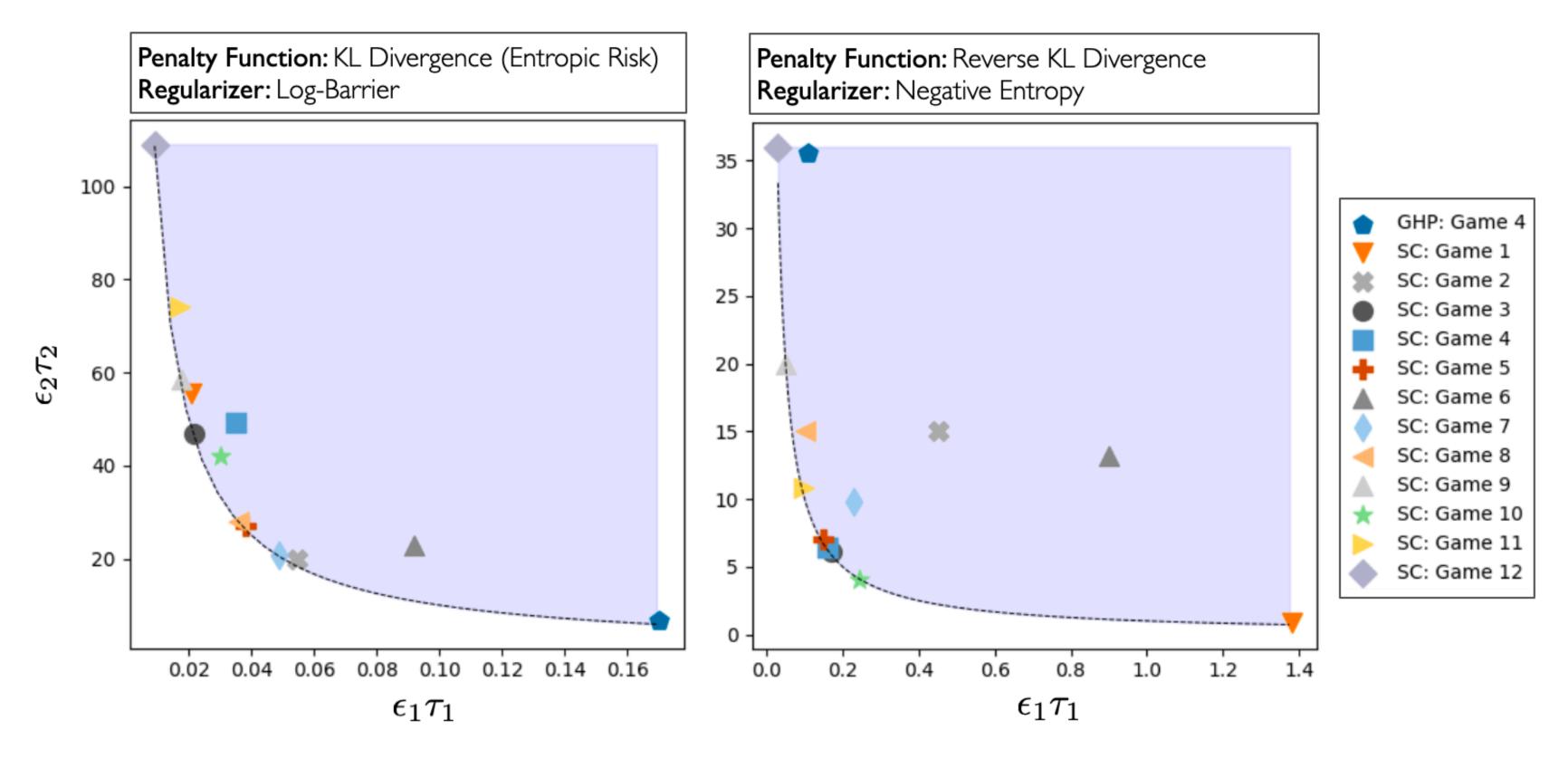
Table B.1 Experimental design and summary data Location Aggregate data **Treatment Payoffs** Session matching (No. subjects) in pennies Game 4 $0.36\ U,\ 0.68\ L$ UVA (10) \boldsymbol{R} 1 Random 0.52~U,~0.72~LSafe/Risky (200, 160)(160, 10)2 Random UVA (12) $0.56\ U,\ 0.56\ L$ UVA (10) (370, 200)(10, 370)3 Random CIT (12) 0.53~U,~0.72~L4 Random PCC (12) 5 Random 0.42~U,~0.52~LPCC (12) 6 Random 0.43~U,~0.68~LMPW Game A^a 1a Random CIT (12) $0.68\ U,\ 0.32\ L$ R 2b Random CIT (12) 0.62 U, 0.24 L (0, 10)(90, 0)(0, 10)CIT (12) 0.62 U, 0.11 L (10, 0)5a Random 6b Random CIT (12) 0.61~U,~0.22~L7a Random CIT (12) 0.64~U,~0.23~L8a Random CIT (12) 0.68 U, 0.24 L MPW Game B^a CIT (12) 0.57~U,~0.20~L1b Random R CIT (12) 0.65 *U*, 0.24 *L* (90, 0)(0, 40)2a Random 3a Random CIT (12) (0,40)(10, 0)0.61 *U*, 0.36 *L* 4b Random CIT (12) 0.69 *U*, 0.18 *L* MPW Game Ca 3b Random CIT (12) 0.57~U,~0.39~LR $0.62\ U,\ 0.16\ L$ (360, 0)(0, 40)CIT (12) 4a Random CIT (12) 0.59~U,~0.20~L(0, 40)(40, 0)5b Random CIT (12) 0.59~U,~0.27~L6a Random



^[1] Risk averse behavior in generalized matching pennies games Goeree, Holt, Palfrey, Games and Economic Behavior, 2003

^[2] Stationary concepts for experimental 2x2-games, Selten & Chmura, American Economic Review, 2008

Expressivity of Computationally Tractable RQE



For each game, we show that there exists an RQE can recreate the peoples' aggregate play (to within 3 decimal places).

Finite-Horizon Risk-Averse Markov Games

- Finite Action Spaces: $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2$
- ightharpoonup Finite State Spaces: ${\cal S}$
- Finite Horizon: **H**
- \blacktriangleright Dynamics: $P\left(s \mid s, a_1, a_2\right)$
- ▶ Players are also risk averse to the stochastic transitions (i.e., environmental uncertainties)

$$U_1(\pi_1,\pi_2) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_1,\pi_2,P} \left[\sum_{t=0}^H R_{1,t} \right]$$

$$U_2(\pi_1,\pi_2) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_1,\pi_2,P} \left[\sum_{t=0}^H R_{2,t} \right]$$

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Assume access to a **generative model**

(i.e., can collect collect i.i.d samples of transitions and rewards to estimate Ri and P)

Approximating RQE in Finite-Horizon Markov Games

Theorem: Approximating (non-stationary) Markov RQE in Markov Games

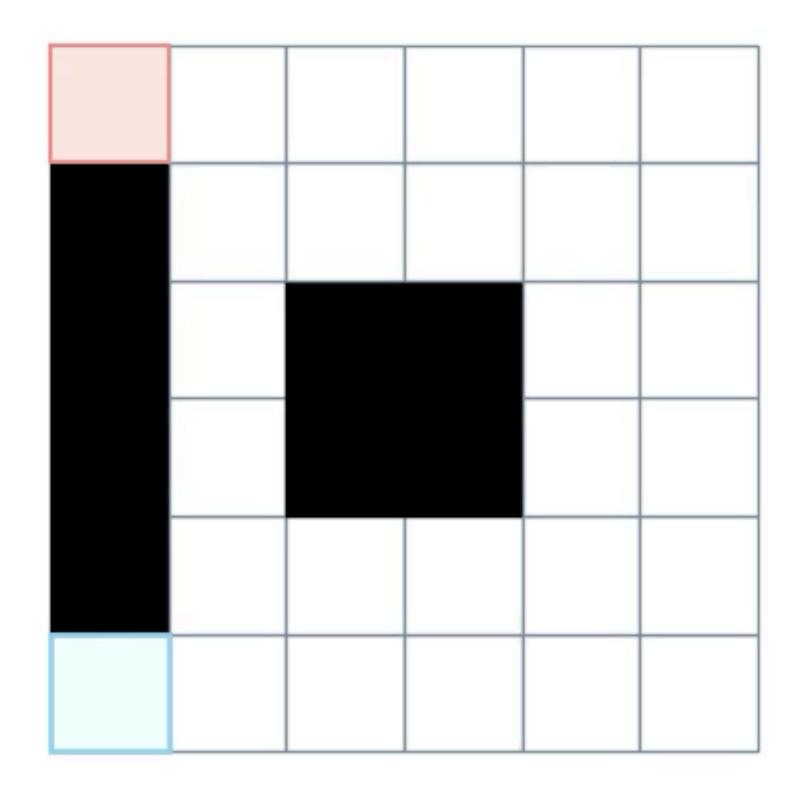
Suppose
$$\epsilon_i \geq \sum_{j \neq i} 1/\tau_{j,i}^*$$
 then a δ -RQE can be computed in $poly(S, H, \delta^{-1}) \prod A_i$

Our algorithm suffers from the curse of multi-agency!

Open Question: Can we overcome this?

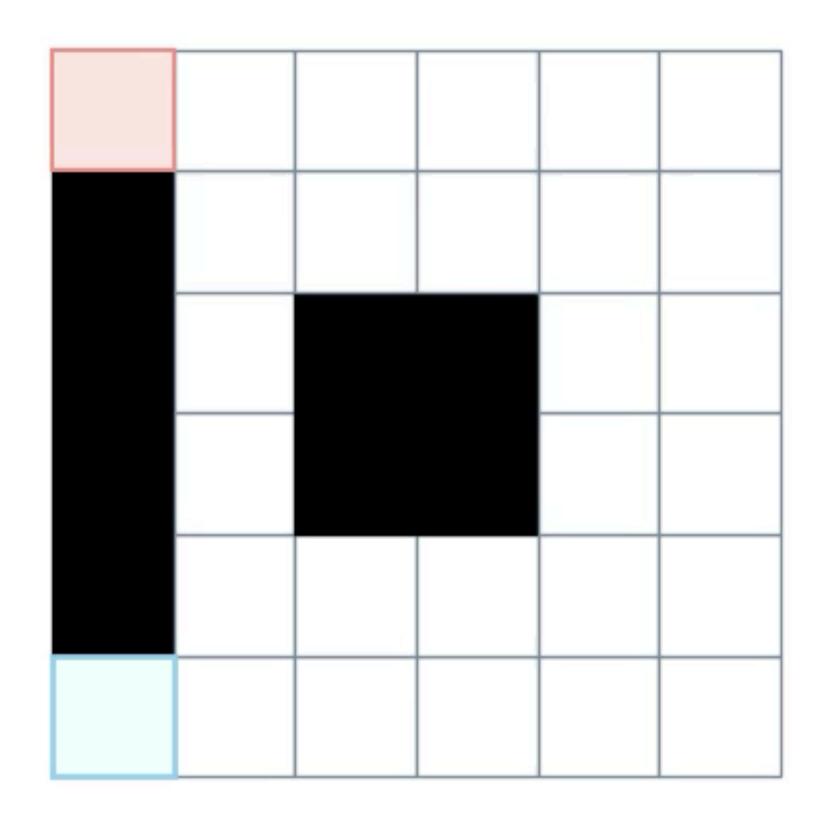
May be hard since the intermediate adversaries action spaces are essentially the size of the joint action space, which is A_i .

Extensions to Finite-Horizon MARL



Red is risk-averse: $\tau_1 = 0.01$

Blue is more risk-averse: $\tau_2 = 0.02$



Red is risk-averse: $\tau_1 = 0.01$

Blue is less risk-averse: $\tau_2 = 0.005$

A Road Map

- 1. Normal-form & concave games: equilibrium computation and learning in games
- 2. Algorithmic structures in Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning
 - i. Policy-gradient algorithms in games
 - ii. Value-based algorithms

3. Further directions

- i. The role of function approximation
- ii. Scalable algorithms for zero-sum games
- iii. New equilibrium concepts

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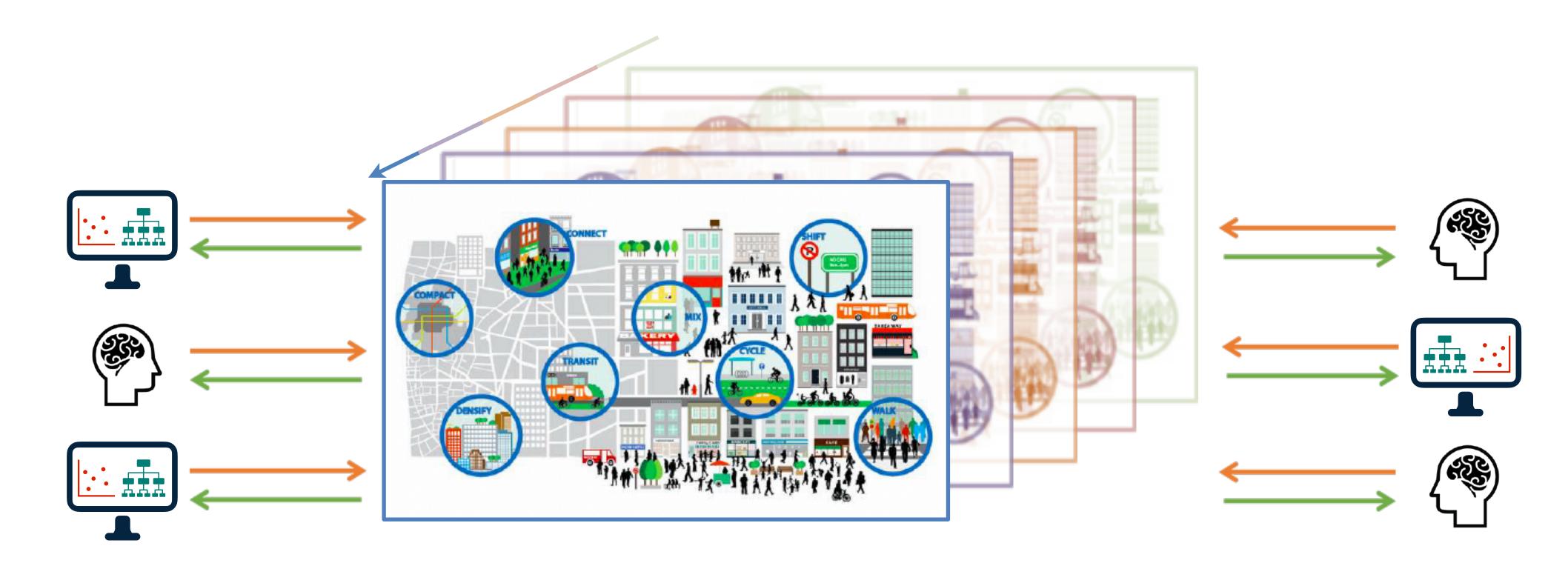
- i. The role of function approximation
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 - Takeaway:
 - Equilibria rooted in behavioral economics may be more amenable to learning than Nash and have more desirable properties than CCE.

A Road Map

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3. Further directions

- i. The role of function approximation
- ii. Scalable algorithms for zero-sum games
- iii. New equilibrium concepts
 - Takeaway:
 - Current Work: Showing it gives rise to a computationally feasible eq. In infinite-horizon Markov Games (CDC 2025), and a set of MARL learning algorithms.



Opportunities: Require a careful rethinking of algorithm design.

As we will see, strategic interactions can break our intuition on the behavior of learning algorithms and give rise to new challenges for algorithm design.

Reinforcement Learning

Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning

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Reinforcement Learning

Structured non-convex optimization

Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning

Structured (?) equilibrium computation

This is fundamentally hard in general, but notions like non stationary CCE are feasible to learn

As we will see, strategic interactions can break our intuition on the behavior of learning algorithms and give rise to new challenges for algorithm design.

Reinforcement Learning

Structured non-convex optimization

Stationary environment

Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning

Structured (?) equilibrium computation

Coupling between agents introduce *non-stationarities* in learning



Makes proving convergence of algorithms particularly difficult, though *timescale separation* is a useful principle in MARL.

As we will see, strategic interactions can break our intuition on the behavior of learning algorithms and give rise to new challenges for algorithm design.

Reinforcement Learning

Structured non-convex optimization

Stationary environment

Role of function approximation is clear



Larger, more expressive function classes have the potential to yield better performance (Modulo optimization/data)

Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning

Structured (?) equilibrium computation

Coupling between agents introduce *non-stationarities* in learning

Choosing a function class is *non-trivial*



Larger, more expressive function classes can yield worse solutions!

As we will see, strategic interactions can break our intuition on the behavior of learning algorithms and give rise to new challenges for algorithm design.

Opportunities: Require a careful rethinking of algorithm design.

Though it is less well understood, we can build on foundations from game theory and reinforcement learning to explore and design new algorithmic principles.

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Opportunities: Require a careful rethinking of algorithm design.

Though it is less well understood, we can build on foundations from game theory and reinforcement learning to explore and design new algorithmic principles.

- ▶ Convergence of algorithms
 - ▶ e.g., stochastic approximation ideas [Sayin et al. 2023], [Chen et al 2024], no -regret learning [Farina et al. 2024], [Cai et al. 2024],...
- New equilibrium concepts
 - ▶ e.g., behavioral Econ ideas [Mazumdar et al 2024], robust Eq. [Lanzetti et al. 2025], smoothed analysis [Daskalakis, et al 2023],...
- New formulations of Markov games
 - ▶ e.g., Convex Markov games [Gemp et al. 2024, 2025], Stackelberg Markov Games [Gerstgrasser et al. 2022],...
- ▶ Better algorithms with function approximation for zero-sum games.
 - e.g., surveys [Wong el at. 2022], [Gemp et al. 2022], stabilizing actor critic algorithms [Foerester et al. 2017, 2018], PPO in games [Yu et al. 2022],...

As we will see, strategic interactions can break our intuition on the behavior of learning algorithms and give rise to new challenges for algorithm design.

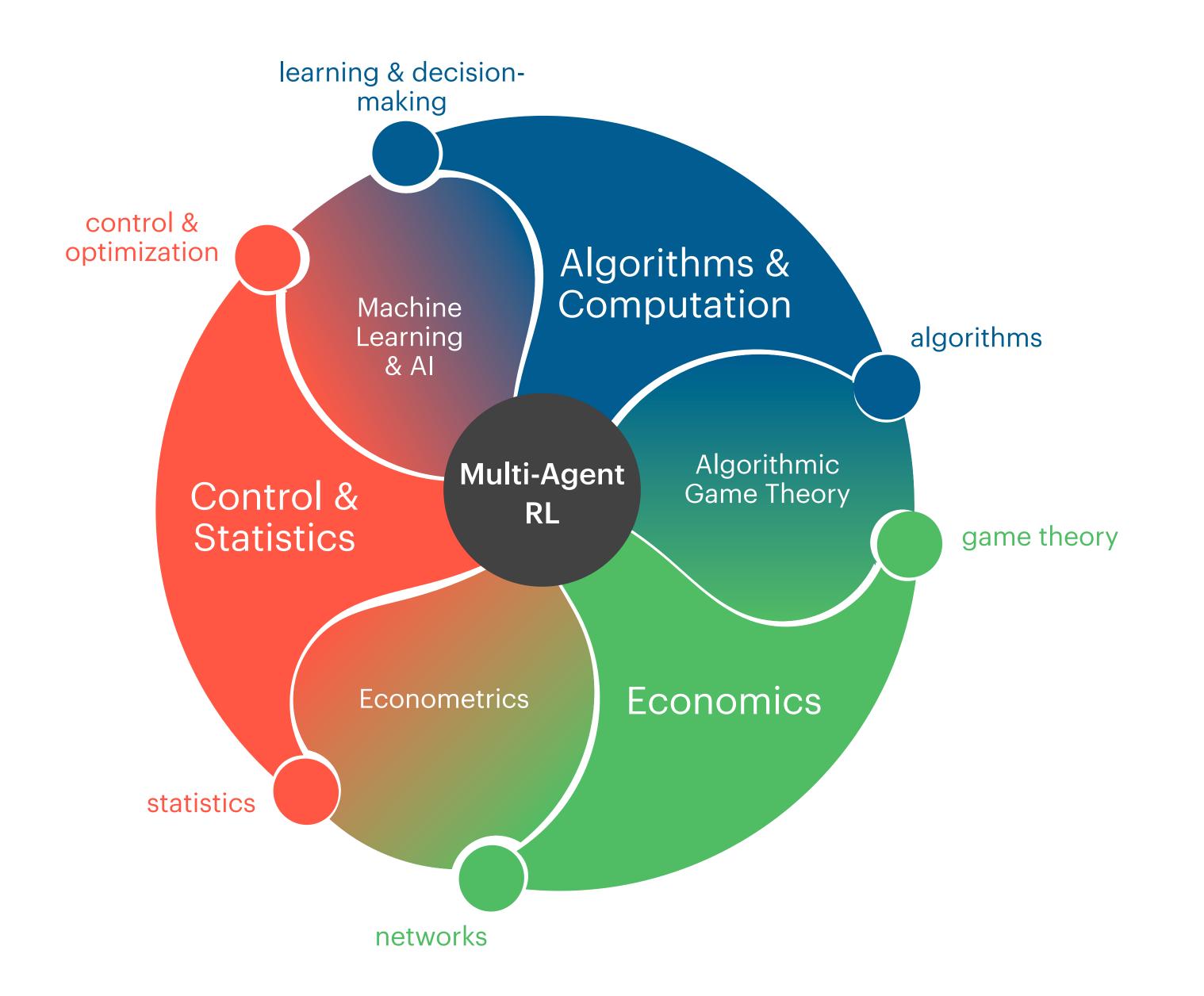
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Though it is less well understood, we can build on foundations from game theory and reinforcement learning to explore and design new algorithmic principles.

Many other directions:

- robustness in Markov games
- ▶ sim-to-real gaps
- ▶ incomplete information games (e.g., partially observed Markov games)
- ▶ continuous action/state spaces
- empirical evaluation of algorithms
- ▶ training LLM agents for multi-agent problems
- ▶ exploring other game theoretic strategies

....



Other Useful Resources:

Simons Institute Bootcamps on Learning in games

Great talks like Chi Jin (Princeton) overview of MARL, Costis Daskalakis (MIT) overview of Eq. Computation,... https://simons.berkeley.edu/workshops/learning-games-boot-camp

Multi-agent reinforcement learning: A selective overview of theories and algorithms

Kaiqing Zhang, Zhuoran Yang, Tamer Başar https://arxiv.org/pdf/1911.10635

Predictions, Learning, & Games

Nicolò Cesa-Bianchi & Gabor Lugosi Book on learning in games