

# 17.810/17.811 – Game Theory

## Lecture 3: Mixed Strategy Nash Equilibrium

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## Where We Are

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- In the last lecture, we learned about **Nash equilibrium**: what it means and how to solve for it
- We focused on equilibrium in **pure strategies**, meaning actions were mapped to **certain** outcomes
- We will now consider **mixed strategies**: probabilistic play
- But first, we have to develop a notion of preferences over **uncertain** outcomes: expected utility theory

These slides will focus on the following readings:

- Choice Under Uncertainty
  - These slides should contain all the information you need to know. However, if you wish for more technical detail, see McCarty and Meierowitz, Chapter 3.1.
- Mixed Strategy Nash Equilibrium
  - Gibbons, 1.3A

## Choice Under Uncertainty

Lotteries

Expected Utility

## Mixed Strategy Nash Equilibrium

Definitions

Example 1: Public Goods Provision

Example 2: Defense against Terrorism

## Choice Under Uncertainty

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So far we have been talking about preferences over **certain** alternatives.

Let's think about preferences over what might be called "risky" alternatives.

It is not difficult to imagine a world where decisionmakers make choices that lead to **chances** of different outcomes.

## Choice Under Uncertainty

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- Agents understand that outcomes are generated probabilistically from their choices: different actions increase or decrease the likelihood of particular outcomes.
- Recall the earlier example:

$$A = \{\text{send in troops, try negotiations, do nothing}\}$$

$$X = \{\text{win large concessions, win small concessions, status quo}\}$$

- The agents might believe that large concessions are more likely when the troops are deployed than when negotiations are initiated.

# Choice Under Uncertainty

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There are two key elements of this decision problem:

- 1 **Beliefs** that we model as probability distributions or “lotteries” over outcomes associated with each action.
- 2 **Payoffs** associated with each outcome.

## Choice Under Uncertainty

### Lotteries

### Expected Utility

## Mixed Strategy Nash Equilibrium

### Definitions

### Example 1: Public Goods Provision

### Example 2: Defense against Terrorism



## Simple Lotteries

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- Let  $X$  be a set of outcomes with elements  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ .
- Throughout this section, we will assume **common knowledge** of the probabilities of outcomes associated with each action.
- This knowledge could come from repeated observation, e.g., “Over the many times I’ve flipped a quarter in my life, it has come up heads roughly half of the time.”

## Simple Lotteries

The basic building block of expected utility is the **lottery**.

### Definition

A **simple lottery**  $L$  is a list  $L = (p_1, \dots, p_n)$  with  $0 \leq p_k \leq 1$  and  $p_1 + p_2 + p_3 + \dots + p_n = 1$ .

(Compact notation:  $\sum_{k=1}^n p_k = 1$ .)

## Example of a Simple Lottery

Simple lotteries come in many forms: lotteries that assign positive probabilities to all outcomes, lotteries that assign positive probability to only some outcomes, and degenerate lotteries.

### Example

Let  $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ .

- All positive probabilities: a fair six-sided die  
 $L = (\frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6})$
- Some positive probabilities: a die with only even numbers  
 $L = (0, \frac{1}{3}, 0, \frac{1}{3}, 0, \frac{1}{3})$
- Degenerate lottery: a loaded die that always comes up 6  
 $L = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1)$

## Compound Lotteries

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- In a simple lottery, the outcomes that result are certain.
- This need not be the case generally.
- In fact, we may think about **compound lotteries** where the lottery outcome is another lottery.

### Example (War)

- Lottery over winning and losing.
- If lose, lose. If win, a lottery over winning and losing the peace.

## Formalizing the Idea of Compound Lotteries

### Definition

Given  $M$  simple lotteries  $L_m = (p_1^m, \dots, p_n^m)$ ,  $m = 1, \dots, M$  and  $0 \leq \alpha_m \leq 1$  with  $\sum_{i=1}^M \alpha_m = 1$ , the **compound lottery**  $\mathbf{L} = (L_1, \dots, L_M; \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m)$  is the risky alternative that yields the simple lottery  $L_m$  with probability  $\alpha_m$ .

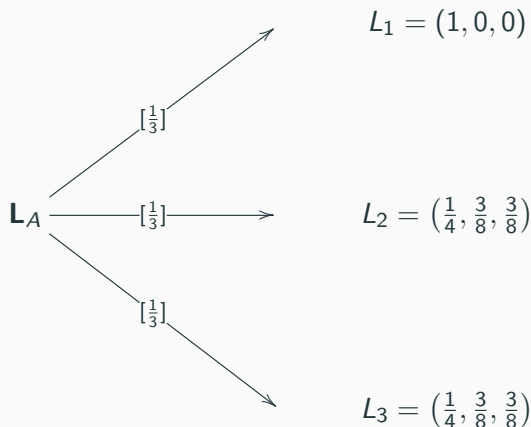
## Compound Lotteries

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- In fact, you might think that there is an infinite hierarchy of such compound lotteries, making life very difficult for us when thinking about preferences with uncertainty.
- However, for every compound lottery, we can calculate a corresponding **reduced lottery** that is a simple lottery.

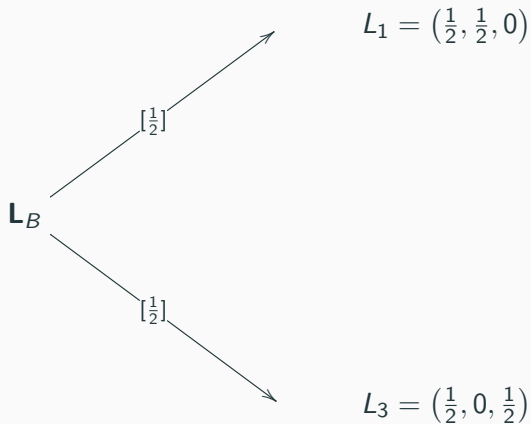
## Reducing Compound Lotteries

Suppose there are three possible outcomes:  $X = \{win, lose, draw\}$



**Reduced lottery** =  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$

## Reducing Compound Lotteries



**Reduced lottery** =  $\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}\right)$



## Reducing Compound Lotteries

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Since we care about preferences over **outcomes**, we treat these two lotteries ( $\mathbf{L}_A$  and  $\mathbf{L}_B$ ) as having equal value.

## Choice Under Uncertainty

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## Utility Representations of Lotteries

As before, we seek a simple numeric representation of preferences over lotteries. We call this **expected utility**.

### Definition (von Neumann–Morgenstern Utility Function)

The **expected utility** of a lottery  $L$  is given by:

$$EU(L) = p_1 u(x_1) + p_2 u(x_2) + \dots + p_n u(x_n) = \sum_{k=1}^n p_k u(x_k)$$

## Axioms of Expected Utility

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Under what conditions can preferences over lotteries be represented by expected utility functions?

We need four axioms:

- 1 Reduction of compound lotteries
- 2 Our old friends the **rationality** axioms (**completeness** and **transitivity**)
- 3 Continuity
- 4 Independence

Let's go through these one by one.

## Axiom 1: Reduction of Compound Lotteries

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### **Axiom**

*All that matters for preferences is the reduced lottery.*

We do not care about the paths traveled to get there.

## Axiom 2: Transitivity and Completeness

Let's consider the set of simple lotteries  $\mathcal{L}$  over certain outcomes in some set  $X$ . We can impose our old weak preference relation  $R$  on  $\mathcal{L}$ , and further demand:

### **Axiom**

*Individuals have complete and transitive preferences over  $\mathcal{L}$ .*

## Axiom 3: Continuity

### Axiom

*The preference relation  $R$  on  $\mathcal{L}$  is continuous.*

Intuition for continuous preferences:

- If  $pRq$ , then there are neighborhoods  $B(p)$  and  $B(q)$  such that for all  $p' \in B(p)$  and  $q' \in B(q)$ ,  $p'Rq'$
- Stable preference orderings with very small perturbations

For example, if a trip to Hawaii is preferred to staying home for vacation, then a lottery between having a great trip to Hawaii and an arbitrarily small probability of a plane crash is still better than staying home.

## Axiom 4: Independence

### Axiom

The preference relation  $R$  on  $\mathcal{L}$  satisfies the independence axiom.

### Definition

The preference relation  $R$  on  $\mathcal{L}$  satisfies the **independence axiom** if and only if for all  $L, L', L'' \in \mathcal{L}$  and  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ , we have

$$L \succeq L' \text{ if and only if } \alpha L + (1 - \alpha)L'' \succeq \alpha L' + (1 - \alpha)L''.$$

In words, if we mix each of two lotteries with a third one, then the preference ordering of the two resulting mixtures is independent of the particular third lottery used.



## Axiom 4: Independence

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### Uncontroversial Example:

- I weakly prefer an entire apple pie to a dozen chocolate chip cookies
- Therefore I must weakly prefer a slice of pie (equal to  $1/12$  of the pie) with a glass of milk to one cookie with a glass of milk

### Controversial Example:

- I weakly prefer salami to peanut butter
- Therefore I must weakly prefer a salami and jelly sandwich to a peanut butter and jelly sandwich

(This axiom gets violated by **interactions** between objects.)

## Theorem: von Neumann–Morgenstern

### Theorem (von Neumann–Morgenstern)

If Axioms 1-4 hold, then there exists a function  $u(x)$  such that:

①

$$EU(L_i) = \sum_{k=1}^n p_{ik} u(x_k)$$

where  $L_i$  is the lottery over outcomes induced by action  $i$

②  $L_i RL_j$  if and only if  $EU(L_i) \geq EU(L_j)$ .

## Example

- Suppose there are 3 possible outcomes: receiving 0, 1, or 5 dollars.
- Let's assume you prefer more money to less.
- Say prefer the lottery  $(\frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{2})$  to  $(0, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$ .
- What utility function can represent these preferences?
- Here's one that will do:  $u(0) = 0$ ,  $u(1) = 1$ , and  $u(5) = 4$

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot 0 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4 \geq \frac{3}{4} \cdot 1 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot 4$$

- $u(x) = x$  will also do just fine.

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## A Pure Strategy Nash Equilibrium Does Not Always Exist

In the “Matching Pennies” game, Alice and Bob choose which side of their coin to display,  $H$  or  $T$ . If they match, Alice wins; if they don't match, Bob wins.

### Example

		Bob	
		H	T
Alice	H	1,-1	-1,1
	T	-1,1	1,-1

- If pennies match, Bob wants to deviate
- If pennies don't match, Alice wants to deviate

## “Random” Strategies

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- Let's think about stochastic equilibria where players **mix** probabilistically over their pure strategies.
- To give some intuition for mixed strategies, think about Rock, Paper, Scissors. What is the best way to play this game?

## Mixed Strategies

We will call these probabilistic or “random” strategies **mixed strategies**.

### Definition

In the normal form game  $G = \{S_1, \dots, S_n; u_1, \dots, u_n\}$ , suppose  $S_i = \{s_{i1}, \dots, s_{iK}\}$ . Then a **mixed strategy** for player  $i$  is a probability distribution  $p_i = (p_{i1}, \dots, p_{iK})$ , where  $0 \leq p_{ik} \leq 1$  for  $k = 1, \dots, K$  and  $p_{i1} + \dots + p_{iK} = 1$ .



## Nash Equilibrium in Mixed Strategies

We now define the concept of Nash equilibrium in mixed strategies:

### Definition

In the normal form game  $G = \{S_1, \dots, S_n; u_1, \dots, u_n\}$ , the mixed strategies  $\{p_1^*, \dots, p_n^*\}$  are a **Nash equilibrium** if and only if each player's mixed strategy is a best response to the other players' mixed strategies, that is, given  $p_{-i}^*$ :

$$EU(p_i^*, p_{-i}^*) \geq EU(\hat{p}_i, p_{-i}^*)$$

for all  $i$ , where  $\hat{p}_i$  is any other possible mixed strategy for player  $i$ .

## Back to Matching Pennies

Now we will show that matching pennies has a MSNE where each player randomizes  $1/2$ ,  $1/2$  over heads and tails.

1. Suppose Bob mixes and plays heads with probability  $1/2$  and tails with probability  $1/2$ .
2. We have to show that doing the same is a best response for Alice (the reverse will follow by symmetry).
3. Let's write down Alice's utility function for a mixed strategy where she plays heads with probability  $p$  and tails with probability  $1 - p$ :

$$\begin{aligned}EU_A &= Pr(H, H)u_A(H, H) + Pr(H, T)u_A(H, T) + \\ &\quad Pr(T, H)u_A(T, H) + Pr(T, T)u_A(T, T) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) p(1) + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) p(-1) + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) (1 - p)(-1) + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) (1 - p)(1)\end{aligned}$$

## Back to Matching Pennies

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4. What  $p$  maximizes this utility function? **Any  $p$  at all, including  $\frac{1}{2}$ .**
5. We have shown that Bob playing  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  makes Alice indifferent between any choice of  $p$ . By the symmetry of the game, the same is true for Bob: Alice playing  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  makes Bob indifferent between any mixed strategy.
6. The intersection of their best responses is where Bob plays  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  and Alice plays  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ . **This is the MSNE.**

Let's see this graphically.

## Back to Matching Pennies: Best Response

Alice plays heads with probability  $p$  and Bob plays heads with probability  $q$ .

$$Eu_A(H) = q(1) + (1 - q)(-1)$$

$$Eu_A(T) = q(-1) + (1 - q)(1)$$

$$Eu_A(H) \leq Eu_A(T) \text{ if } q \leq \frac{1}{2}$$

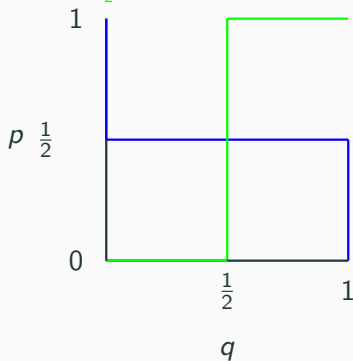
$$Eu_A(H) \geq Eu_A(T) \text{ if } q \geq \frac{1}{2}$$

$$Eu_B(H) = p(-1) + (1 - p)(1)$$

$$Eu_B(T) = p(1) + (1 - p)(-1)$$

$$Eu_B(H) \leq Eu_B(T) \text{ if } p \geq \frac{1}{2}$$

$$Eu_B(H) \geq Eu_B(T) \text{ if } p \leq \frac{1}{2}$$



## Best Responses and the Linearity of Expected Payoffs

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Recall that:

### Definition

A best response is the set of strategies that player  $i$  can play to maximize her payoff, **given** the strategy of the other players in the game  $(-i)$ .

Like in PSNE, in MSNE players are always playing a best response.

## Best Responses and the Linearity of Expected Payoffs

### Example (Outcome Probabilities in Matching Pennies)

		Bob	
		H(q)	T(1-q)
Alice	H(p)	pq	p(1-q)
	T(1-p)	(1-p)q	(1-p)(1-q)

Alice's expected utility from a mixed strategy profile  $p$  is:

$$pqu_A(H, H) + p(1-q)u_A(H, T) + (1-p)qu_A(T, H) + (1-p)(1-q)u_A(T, T)$$

which can be written:

$$p[qu_A(H, H) + (1-q)u_A(H, T)] + (1-p)[qu_A(T, H) + (1-q)u_A(T, T)].$$

## Best Responses and the Linearity of Expected Payoffs

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$$p[qu_A(H, H) + (1 - q)u_A(H, T)] + (1 - p)[qu_A(T, H) + (1 - q)u_A(T, T)]$$

Notice that the term in the first bracket is Alice's expected payoff when she uses the pure strategy  $H$  and the term in the second bracket is her expected payoff when she uses the pure strategy  $T$ .

- That is, Alice's expected payoff to a mixed strategy profile is a **weighted average of her pure strategy payoffs**, given  $s_{-i}$ .

EXPECTED UTILITY IS LINEAR IN  $p$ .

- Linearity implies either a pure strategy or any mixture.
- Equilibrium in mixed strategies requires both players to be indifferent between the pure strategies that they mix over.

## Back to “Bach or Stravinsky”

There may be MSNE in games where PSNE also exist.

### Example

		Bob	
		Mountain	Lake
Alice	Mountain	2,1	0,0
	Lake	0,0	1,2

What are the pure strategy Nash equilibria?

- (Mountain, Mountain)
- (Lake, Lake)



## Back to “Bach or Stravinsky”

There is an additional equilibrium here. To see it, first construct Alice's best response function.

- Let Bob play Mountain with probability  $q$ .
- Remembering that we need to find Alice's best response, we must write down the expected utility of each pure strategy:

$$EU_A(M) = 2 \cdot q + 0 \cdot (1 - q) = 2q$$

$$EU_A(L) = 0 \cdot q + (1 - q) \cdot 1 = 1 - q$$

## Back to “Bach or Stravinsky”

- So if  $2q > 1 - q$ , Alice’s best response is Mountain, while if  $2q < 1 - q$ , then her best response is Lake.
- If  $2q = 1 - q$  then both Mountain and Lake (and any mixture of the two) are best responses.

Thus we have for Alice:

$$B_A(q) = \begin{cases} \{0\} & \text{if } q < \frac{1}{3} \\ \{p : 0 \leq p \leq 1\} & \text{if } q = \frac{1}{3} \\ \{1\} & \text{if } q > \frac{1}{3}. \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

## Back to “Bach or Stravinsky”

Now consider Bob. Suppose that Alice plays Mountain with probability  $p$ . Like for Alice, Bob's best response will depend on Alice's choice of  $p$ . Thus we need Bob's expected utilities:

$$EU_B(M) = 1 \cdot p + 0 \cdot (1 - p) = p$$

$$EU_B(L) = 0 \cdot p + (1 - p) \cdot 2 = 2 - 2p$$

Thus we have for Bob:

$$B_B(p) = \begin{cases} \{0\} & \text{if } p < \frac{2}{3} \\ \{q : 0 \leq q \leq 1\} & \text{if } p = \frac{2}{3} \\ \{1\} & \text{if } p > \frac{2}{3}. \end{cases}$$

## Back to “Bach or Stravinsky”

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These best response functions overlap at  $p = \frac{2}{3}$  and  $q = \frac{1}{3}$ .

We write this MSNE as (Alice: Mountain, Lake; Bob: Mountain, Lake)

Thus, BoS has three equilibria:

$(Mountain, Mountain)$ ;  $(Lake, Lake)$ ;  $(\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3}; \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3})$ .

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# What Is a Public Good?

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- What is a public good?
  - A public good is a good that, once provided, everyone can consume
  - **Non-rival** and **non-excludable**
  - Why does it seem so hard personally and politically to get public goods provided? **Free riding.**
- Examples: Clean public space, institutions, lighthouses, the search engine

## The Reporting of Crime Game

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- A crime is observed by a group of  $n$  people.
- Each person would like to see the crime reported and values the reporting at some utility  $v$ .
- Reporting is costly, but the cost  $c$  is smaller than the reporting value:  $v > c > 0$ .
- Each player can choose to call or not call.
- If the crime is reported and they don't call they get a payoff  $v$ .
- If it is not reported they get a payoff 0, and if they report the crime, they get a payoff  $v - c$ .

## Pure Strategy Nash Equilibria

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- There are many ( $n$ ) pure strategy Nash equilibria to this game (what are they?)
- All are asymmetric, where one person calls and all the others don't.
- One might then ask, how do the players coordinate on such an equilibrium?
- Since there is nothing about our game that makes coordination natural, maybe we don't like these asymmetric equilibria.

Therefore we might wonder: are there any symmetric mixed strategy Nash equilibria?



## Finding a Symmetric Mixed Strategy Nash Equilibrium

For each person, the payoff to **calling** is fixed at  $v - c > 0$ .

The expected utility of **not calling** equals:

$$0 \cdot Pr(\text{no one calls}) + v \cdot Pr(\text{at least one person calls})$$

Setting these two equal to each other, where  $p$  is the probability that some person calls, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} v - c &= v \cdot (1 - (1 - p)^{n-1}) \\ \iff \frac{c}{v} &= (1 - p)^{n-1} \\ \iff p &= 1 - \left(\frac{c}{v}\right)^{1/(n-1)} \end{aligned}$$

## Mixed Strategy Nash Equilibrium

- So there is a symmetric NE to this game where each person calls with probability  $p = 1 - (\frac{c}{v})^{1/(n-1)}$ .
- What happens as  $n$  increases? The police are less likely to be notified.

$$\Pr(\text{no one calls}) = \Pr(i \text{ doesn't call}) \cdot \Pr(\text{No one else calls either})$$

The probability any given person calls decreases in  $n$  and the probability no one else calls is just  $(1 - p)^{n-1} = c/v$  (see previous slide), which doesn't depend on  $n$ .

Public goods provision becomes harder as  $n$  increases (free riding).  
([https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Murder\\_of\\_Kitty\\_Genovese](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Murder_of_Kitty_Genovese))

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## Defense against Terrorism

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- Antiterrorism is fundamentally a problem of too many potential targets and not enough guards.
- Let's think about two players, **Terrorist** and **Government**.
- There are two targets, and each player has two resource units to allocate.
- If the terrorist allocates more resources to attacking a target than the government allocated to defending it, the terrorist has a successful attack.
- Otherwise, the attack is defeated.
- The terrorist hopes to successfully attack at least one target.
- The government successfully defends the country only if no attack is successful.

## Matrix Game

Each player has 3 strategies: one resource to each target, two resources on target A, and two resources on target B.

### Example

		Government		
		1:1	2:0	0:2
Terrorist	1:1	0,1	1,0	1,0
	2:0	1,0	0,1	1,0
	0:2	1,0	1,0	0,1

No pure strategy Nash equilibrium.

## Matrix Game: Government's Expected Utility

### Example

		Government		
		1:1	2:0	0:2
		$(q_1)$	$(q_2)$	$(1 - q_1 - q_2)$
Terrorist	1:1 ( $p_1$ )	0,1	1,0	1,0
	2:0 ( $p_2$ )	1,0	0,1	1,0
	0:2 ( $1 - p_1 - p_2$ )	1,0	1,0	0,1

For a mixture  $(p_1, p_2, 1 - p_1 - p_2)$ , MSNE implies:

$$\begin{aligned}E[u_G(1 : 1)] &= (p_1 * 1) + (p_2 * 0) + ((1 - p_1 - p_2) * 0) = p_1 \\&= E[u_G(2 : 0)] = p_2 \\&= E[u_G(0 : 2)] = 1 - p_1 - p_2\end{aligned}$$

## Matrix Game: Terrorist's Expected Utility

### Example

		Government		
		1:1	2:0	0:2
		$(q_1)$	$(q_2)$	$(1 - q_1 - q_2)$
Terrorist	1:1 ( $p_1$ )	0,1	1,0	1,0
	2:0 ( $p_2$ )	1,0	0,1	1,0
	0:2 ( $1 - p_1 - p_2$ )	1,0	1,0	0,1

For a mixture  $(q_1, q_2, 1 - q_1 - q_2)$ , MSNE implies:

$$\begin{aligned}E[u_T(1 : 1)] &= (q_1 * 0) + (q_2 * 1) + (1 - q_1 - q_2 * 1) = 1 - q_1 \\&= E[u_T(2 : 0)] = q_1 + (1 - q_1 - q_2) = 1 - q_2 \\&= E[u_T(0 : 2)] = q_1 + q_2\end{aligned}$$

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