Opponent Modelling for Reinforcement Learning in Multi-Objective Normal Form Games*

Extended Abstract

Yijie Zhang Universiteit van Amsterdam The Netherlands yijie.zhang@student.uva.nl Roxana Rădulescu Vrije Universiteit Brussel Belgium roxana.radulescu@vub.be Patrick Mannion National University of Ireland Galway Ireland patrick.mannion@nuigalway.ie

Diederik M. Roijers HU University of Applied Sciences Utrecht, The Netherlands diederik.yamamoto-roijers@hu.nl

ABSTRACT

In this paper, we investigate the effects of opponent modelling on multi-objective multi-agent interactions with non-linear utilities. Specifically, we consider multi-objective normal form games (MON-FGs) with non-linear utility functions under the scalarised expected returns optimisation criterion. We contribute a novel actor-critic formulation to allow reinforcement learning of mixed strategies in this setting, along with an extension that incorporates opponent policy reconstruction using conditional action frequencies. Our empirical results demonstrate that opponent modelling can drastically alter the learning dynamics in this setting.

KEYWORDS

Multi-agent systems; multi-objective decision making; reinforcement learning; opponent modelling; game theory; Nash equilibrium

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1 OPPONENT MODELLING IN MONFGS

In many multi-agent interactions in the real world, agents receive payoffs over multiple distinct criteria; i.e. the payoffs are multiobjective in nature. However, the same multi-objective payoff vector may lead to different utilities for each participant. Therefore, it is essential for agents to learn about the behaviour of other agents.

We present the first study of the effects of opponent modelling on multi-objective multi-agent interactions with non-linear utilities. Specifically, we consider MONFGs [3, 6, 15, 18] with non-linear utility functions under the *scalarised expected returns (SER)* optimisation criterion [8, 12]. I.e., we are interested in the utility, $p_{u,i}$, an Ann Nowé Vrije Universiteit Brussel Belgium ann.nowe@vub.be

agent *i* derives from the expected payoff over multiple episodes:

$$p_{u,i} = u_i(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{p}_i^n]), \tag{1}$$

where $\mathbf{p}_i^{\boldsymbol{\pi}}$ is the payoff agent *i* receives after executing a joint (possibly mixed) strategy $\boldsymbol{\pi}$, and u_i is the utility function of agent *i* that maps the expected payoff vector to a scalar utility.

SER stands in contrast to expected scalarised results (ESR) [10], which is more common in game theory [8]. However, we argue that there are many settings in which interaction is repeated, and it is the expected payoff vector that induces the utility, leading to the SER criterion. SER is the typically employed criterion in multi-objective planning and reinforcement learning [11].

A mixed strategy profile π^{NE} is a *Nash equilibrium (NE)* [7] in a MONFG under SER if for all $i \in \{1, ..., N\}$ and all $\pi_i \in \Pi_i$, with Π_i the set of mixed strategies for agent *i*:

$$u_i \left[\mathbb{E} \mathbf{p}_i(\pi_i^{NE}, \pi_{-i}^{NE}) \right] \ge u_i \left[\mathbb{E} \mathbf{p}_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}^{NE}) \right]$$
(2)

i.e. π^{NE} is an NE under SER if no agent can increase the *utility* of her expected payoffs by deviating unilaterally from π^{NE} . Recent work [13, 14] has demonstrated that NE need not exist in MONFGs under SER with non-linear utility functions. For this paper, we study both MONFGs with (Section 2) and without NEs [20]. As the agents do not know each other's utility functions, it becomes key to explicitly learn about the other agents to reach favourable NEs.

For such opponent modelling, we employ policy reconstruction using conditional action frequencies [1, 17], i.e., an agent *i* maintains a set of beliefs regarding the strategy of the opponents, using empirical distributions derived from observing the actions of the opponent. These are then used to represent the policy π_{-i} of her opponent and to derive the valuation of her actions (marginalising out π_{-i}).

To exploit the opponent model we developed an actor-critic algorithm [16, 19]. This algorithm has 3 steps. After taking action a chosen from the policy $\pi(a|\theta)$, the agent observes a multi-objective payoff p as well as the opponent's action a'. Then, the agent updates its own estimate of the opponent's policy π' . In the second step, the agent updates its multi-objective joint action value estimate:

$$Q\left(a_{t}, a_{t}'\right) \leftarrow Q\left(a_{t}, a_{t}'\right) + \alpha_{Q}\left[\boldsymbol{p}_{t} - Q\left(a_{t}, a_{t}'\right)\right]$$
(3)

We note that in a many MONFG settings, the payoffs observed by the agent for known joint actions are deterministic. Equation 3

^{*}An extended version of this paper is available [20].

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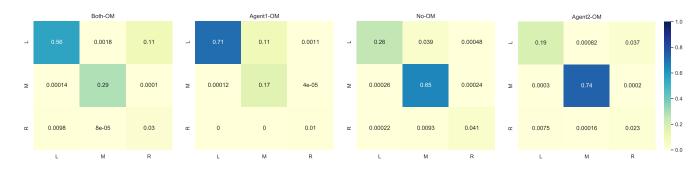


Figure 1: Results for the game in Table 1. The left column shows the estimated SER for Agent 1 (top) and Agent 2 (bottom) under the 4 experiment settings. The middle and right columns show the empirical outcome distributions.

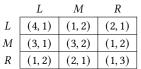


Table 1: A MONFG with pure strategy NE in (L,L), (M,M), and (R,R), for utility functions $u_1([p^1, p^2]) = p^1 \cdot p^1 + p^2 \cdot p^2$, and $u_2([p^1, p^2]) = p^1 \cdot p^2$, under SER. NB: (L,L) and (M,M) Paretodominate (R,R). (L,L) offers the highest utility for the row player, and (M,M) for the column player.

applies to both deterministic and stochastic settings. After updating the joint action values, the third step is to compute the SER objective $J(\theta)$, taking derivatives with regard to agent *i*'s strategy parameters, θ , and subsequently update θ in the direction of the gradient:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} + \alpha_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J \tag{4}$$

For a full description of this algorithm and its derivation, please refer to the extended version of this paper [20].

2 RESULTS & DISCUSSION

To evaluate the impact of opponent modelling, we use, among others, a 2-objective MONFG (Table 1). For the other games we study, please refer to [20].

We consider four different settings: (1) neither agent performs opponent modelling; (2) both agents perform opponent modelling; (3) only agent 1 performs opponent modelling: (4) only agent 2 performs opponent modelling. For each setting, agents interact for 3000 episodes, averaged over 100 trials. Furthermore, in this experiment, the gradient ∇_{θ} is computed analytically w.r.t $J(\theta)$. An agent's strategy $\pi(a|\theta)$ is represented using a simple softmax function:

$$\pi(a = a_i | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{e^{\theta_i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{|A_i|} e^{\theta_j}}$$
(5)

The actor learning rate for the presented experimental results is $\alpha_{\theta} = 0.05$, while *h*, the opponent modelling window size is 100. For the setting without opponent modelling we used a critic learning rate $\alpha_Q = 0.05$. For the Opponent Modelling Actor-Critic approach, because the agents are learning the Q-function for the join-action space in a deterministic setting, we used $\alpha_Q = 1$. We note that we carried out an extensive analysis with respect to all these parameters and we present all the results in [20].

As the results (Figure 1) show, if only one of the agents is using opponent modelling, the agent that does the opponent modelling significantly benefits from doing so, with respect to the setting in which neither agent does OM. When both agents do OM, the distribution over the possible outcomes becomes more balanced. We thus conclude that opponent modelling can significantly benefit agents in MONFGs under SER that have Nash Equilibria.

We have also tested MONFGs in which there are no NEs [20]. For such games, the benefits of opponent modelling are not as good. On the contrary, in most settings, the agent performing OM seemed to be unable to accurately capture information regarding the opponent's strategy, and thus making decisions on the basis of incorrect or outdated information. Implementing OM in these settings does not confer a significant advantage in terms of outcomes, and when the learning parameters are not tuned well, it may even hurt the performance of both agents.

In conclusion, our studies of MONFGs under SER with non-linear utility functions demonstrated that opponent modelling can significantly alter the learning dynamics in MONFGs. In cases where NE are present, opponent modelling can confer significant benefits to agents that implement it. However, when there are no NE, we observe that an agent implementing opponent modelling can experience adverse effects on its utility. These adverse effects could be (mostly) mitigated after careful hyper-parameter optimisation of the learning algorithm, but did not contribute to the utility of the agent implementing the opponent modelling. This is highly surprising, and does not occur in the single-objective setting - where there are always NE in mixed strategies. Therefore, in future work, we aim to investigate if more sophisticated schemes for opponent modelling [9], such as explicitly modelling the (properties of) the utility function of the opponent (e.g., using preference elicitation [2, 4, 5, 21]), can make opponent modelling effective in all MONFGs.

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