LECTURE 7: Reaching Agreements

An Introduction to MultiAgent Systems http://www.csc.liv.ac.uk/~mjw/pubs/imas

Reaching Agreements

- How do agents *reaching agreements* when they are self interested?
- In an extreme case (zero sum encounter) no agreement is possible but in most scenarios, there is potential for *mutually beneficial agreement* on matters of common interest
- The capabilities of negotiation and argumentation are central to the ability of an agent to reach such agreements

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Mechanisms, Protocols, and Strategies

- Negotiation is governed by a particular mechanism, or protocol
- The mechanism defines the "rules of encounter" between agents
- Mechanism design is designing mechanisms so that they have certain desirable properties
- Given a particular protocol, how can a particular strategy be designed that individual agents can use?

Mechanism Design

- Desirable properties of mechanisms:
 - Convergence/guaranteed success
 - Maximizing social welfare
 Pareto efficiency
 - Individual rationality

 - Stability

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- Simplicity
 Distribution
- Distribution

Auctions

- An auction takes place between an agent known as the *auctioneer* and a collection of agents known as the *bidders*
- The goal of the auction is for the auctioneer to allocate the *good* to one of the bidders
- In most settings the auctioneer desires to maximize the price; bidders desire to minimize price

Auction Parameters Goods can have private value public/common value correlated value Winner determination may be first price second price Bids may be

- Bids may be
 open cry
- sealed bid
- Bidding may be
- one shot
- ascending
- descending

English Auctions

- Most commonly known type of auction:
 - first price
 - open cry
 - ascending
- Dominant strategy is for agent to successively bid a small amount more than the current highest bid until it reaches their valuation, then withdraw
- Susceptible to:
 - winner's curse
 - 🛛 shills

Dutch Auctions

- Dutch auctions are examples of open-cry descending auctions:
 - auctioneer starts by offering good at artificially high value
 - auctioneer lowers offer price until some agent makes a bid equal to the current offer price

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 the good is then allocated to the agent that made the offer

First-Price Sealed-Bid Auctions

- First-price sealed-bid auctions are one-shot auctions:
 - $\hfill\square$ there is a single round
 - bidders submit a sealed bid for the good
 - good is allocated to agent that made highest bid
 - winner pays price of highest bid
- Best strategy is to bid less than true valuation

Vickrey Auctions

- Vickrey auctions are:
 second-price
 - sealed-bid
- Good is awarded to the agent that made the highest bid; at the price of the second highest bid
- Bidding to your true valuation is dominant strategy in Vickrey auctions
- Vickrey auctions susceptible to antisocial behavior

Lies and Collusion

- The various auction protocols are susceptible to lying on the part of the auctioneer, and collusion among bidders, to varying degrees
- All four auctions (English, Dutch, First-Price Sealed Bid, Vickrey) can be manipulated by bidder collusion
- A dishonest auctioneer can exploit the Vickrey auction by lying about the 2nd-highest bid

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 Shills can be introduced to inflate bidding prices in English auctions

Negotiation

- Auctions are only concerned with the allocation of goods: richer techniques for reaching agreements are required
- Negotiation is the process of reaching agreements on matters of common interest
- Any negotiation setting will have four components:
- A negotiation set: possible proposals that agents can make
 A protocol
- Strategies, one for each agent, which are private
- A rule that determines when a deal has been struck and what the agreement deal is
- Negotiation usually proceeds in a series of rounds, with every agent making a proposal at every round

Negotiation in Task-Oriented Domains Imagine that you have three children, each of whom needs to be delivered to a different school each morning. Your neighbor has four children, and also needs to take them to school. Delivery of each child can be modeled as an indivisible task. You and your neighbor can discuss the situation, and come to an agreement that it is better for both of you (for example, by carrying the other's child to a barred destination, saving him the trip). There is no concern about being able to achieve your task by yourself. The worst that can happen is that you and your neighbor won't come to an agreement about setting up a car pool, in which case you are no worse off than if you were alone. You can only benefit (or do no worse) from your neighbor's tasks. Assume, though, that one of my children and one of my neighbors' children both go to the same school (that is, the cost of carrying out one of them). It obviously makes sense for both children to be taken together, and only my neighbor or I will need to make the trip to carry out both tasks.

--- Rules of Encounter, Rosenschein and Zlotkin, 1994 7.13

Machines Controlling and Sharing Resources

- Electrical grids (load balancing)
- Telecommunications networks (routing)
- PDA's (schedulers)
- Shared databases (intelligent access)

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Traffic control (coordination)

Heterogeneous, Self-motivated Agents

The systems:

- are not centrally designed
- do not have a notion of global utility
- are dynamic (e.g., new types of agents)
- will not act "benevolently" unless it is in their interest to do so

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The Aim of the Research

 Social engineering for communities of machines

The creation of interaction environments that foster certain kinds of social behavior

The exploitation of game theory tools for high-level protocol design

Broad Working Assumption

- Designers (from different companies, countries, etc.) come together to agree on standards for how their automated agents will interact (in a given domain)
- Discuss various possibilities and their tradeoffs, and agree on protocols, strategies, and social laws to be implemented in their machines































Deals in TODs

- Given encounter $< T_1, T_2 >$, a *deal* is an allocation of the tasks $T_1 \cup T_2$ to the agents 1 and 2
- The cost to *i* of deal δ = <D₁, D₂> is c(D_i), and will be denoted cost_i(δ)
- The *utility* of deal δ to agent *i* is: $utility_i(\delta) = c(T_i) - cost_i(\delta)$
- The conflict deal, Θ, is the deal <*T*₁, *T*₂> consisting of the tasks originally allocated. Note that *utility_i*(Θ) = 0 for all *i* ∈ *Ag*
- Deal
 δ is individual rational if it weakly dominates the conflict deal



- The set of deals over which agents negotiate are those that are:
 individual rational

pareto efficient

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The Monotonic Concession Protocol

- Rules of this protocol are as follows...
- Negotiation proceeds in rounds
- On round 1, agents simultaneously propose a deal from the negotiation set
- Agreement is reached if one agent finds that the deal proposed by the other is at least as good or better than its proposal
- If no agreement is reached, then negotiation proceeds to another round of simultaneous proposals
- In round u + 1, no agent is allowed to make a proposal that is less preferred by the other agent than the deal it proposed at time u
- If neither agent makes a concession in some round *u* > 0, then negotiation terminates, with the conflict deal

The Zeuthen Strategy

Three problems:

- What should an agent's first proposal be? Its most preferred deal
- On any given round, who should concede? The agent least willing to risk conflict
- If an agent concedes, then *how much* should it concede?

Just enough to change the balance of risk

Willingness to Risk Conflict

- Suppose you have conceded a *lot*. Then:
 - Your proposal is now near the conflict deal
 In case conflict occurs, you are not much worse off
 - □ You are more willing to risk confict
- An agent will be more willing to risk conflict if the difference in utility between its current proposal and the conflict deal is *low*

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Nash Equilibrium Again...

- The Zeuthen strategy is in Nash equilibrium: under the assumption that one agent is using the strategy the other can do no better than use it himself...
- This is of particular interest to the designer of automated agents. It does away with any need for secrecy on the part of the programmer. An agent's strategy can be publicly known, and no other agent designer can exploit the information by choosing a different strategy. In fact, it is desirable that the strategy be known, to avoid inadvertent conflicts.

Building Blocks Domain A precise definition of what a goal is Agent operations Negotiation Protocol A definition of a deal A definition of the conflict deal Negotiation Strategy In Equilibrium Incentive-compatible



























Incentive Compatible Mechanisms

	Hidden	Phantom
ure	L	L
۸/N	Т	T/P ↑
Nix	L	T/P

 Explanation of the up-arrow: If it is never beneficial in a *mixed* deal encounter to use a phantom lie (with penalties), then it is certainly never beneficial to do so in an all-or-nothing mixed deal encounter (which is just a subset of the mixed deal encounters)

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Related Work

- Similar analysis made of State Oriented Domains, where situation is more complicated
- Coalitions (more than two agents, Kraus, Shechory)
- Mechanism design (Sandholm, Nisan, Tennenholtz, Ephrati, Kraus)
- Other models of negotiation (Kraus, Sycara, Durfee, Lesser, Gasser, Gmytrasiewicz)
- Consensus mechanisms, voting techniques, economic models (Wellman, Ephrati)

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Argumentation

- Argumentation is the process of attempting to convince others of something
- Gilbert (1994) identified 4 modes of argument:
 Logical mode
 - "If you accept that A and that A implies B, then you must accept that B"
- Emotional mode
 "How would you feel if it happened to you?"
- 3. Visceral mode
- "Cretin!"
- 4. Kisceral mode
- "This is against Christian teaching!"



Attack and Defeat

- Let (φ₁, Γ₁) and (φ₂, Γ₂) be arguments from some database Δ... Then (φ₂, Γ₂) can be defeated (attacked) in one of two ways:
- (ϕ_1, Γ_1) rebuts (ϕ_2, Γ_2) if $\phi_1 \equiv \neg \phi_2$
- (ϕ_1, Γ_1) undercuts (ϕ_2, Γ_2) if $\phi_1 \equiv \neg \psi_2$ for some $\psi \in \Gamma_2$

A rebuttal or undercut is known as an attack

Abstract Argumentation

- Concerned with the overall structure of the argument (rather than internals of arguments)
- Write $x \to y$

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- "argument x attacks argument y"
- "x is a counterexample of y"
- "x is an attacker of y"

where we are not actually concerned as to what *x*, *y* are

- An *abstract argument system* is a collection or arguments together with a relation "→" saying what attacks what
- An argument is *out* if it has an undefeated attacker, and *in* if all its attackers are defeated

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