

Rationalizable Partition-Confirmed Equilibrium with Heterogeneous Beliefs

Drew Fudenberg and Yuichiro Kamada*

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Abstract

Many models of learning in games implicitly or explicitly assume there are many agents in the role of each player. In principle this allows different agents in the same player role to have different beliefs and play differently, and this is known to occur in laboratory experiments. To explore the impact of this heterogeneity, along with the idea that subjects use their information about other players' payoffs, we define rationalizable partition-confirmed equilibrium (RPCE). We provide several examples to highlight the impact of heterogeneous beliefs, and show how mixed strategies can correspond to heterogeneous play in a large population. We also show any heterogeneous-belief RPCE can be approximated by a RPCE in a model where every agent in a large pool is a separate player.

Keywords: Rationalizability, extensive-form games, self-confirming equilibrium, heterogeneous beliefs, purification, random matching

*Fudenberg: Department of Economics, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, e-mail: drew.fudenberg@gmail.com Kamada: Haas School of Business, University of California, Berkeley, e-mail: y.cam.24@gmail.com We are grateful to Masaki Aoyagi, Pierpaolo Battigalli, Eddie Dekel, Ignacio Esponda, Yuhta Ishii, David K. Levine, Stephen Morris, Yusuke Narita, Jérôme Renault, Tomasz Strzalecki, and seminar participants at Harvard University, Princeton University, Tel Aviv University, Toulouse School of Economics, University of California, Berkeley, and University of Tokyo for helpful comments. Jonathan Libgober provided excellent research assistance. NSF grants SES-0646816, SES-0951462, and SES-1258665 provided financial assistance.

1 Introduction

Learning from repeated observations can lead play in a game to approximate a form of self-confirming equilibrium (Fudenberg and Levine, (1993a,b) and Fudenberg and Kreps (1995)), in which the strategies used are best responses to possibly incorrect beliefs about play that are not disconfirmed by the players' observations. Of course, the set of such beliefs depends on what players observe when the game is played, and in some cases of interest players do not observe the exact terminal node, but only a coarser partition of them, such as when bidders in an auction do not observe the losing bids. Moreover, both in the lab and in the field, there are often many agents in each player role, so that different agents in a given player role can have different beliefs and play differently, and experimental data frequently suggests that subjects' beliefs and play are indeed heterogeneous. For example, Fudenberg and Levine (1997) provide experimental results and relate them to heterogeneous beliefs in the context of the best-shot, centipede, and ultimatum games. Finally, the data shows that subjects play differently when they are informed of opponents' payoff functions than when they are not.¹ To model these facts, we develop and analyze *heterogeneous rationalizable partition-confirmed equilibrium* (heterogeneous RPCE).

We do not develop an explicit learning theory here, but the model we develop is motivated by the idea that there is a large number of ex-ante identical agents in each player role, who are rematched each period to play an extensive form game and interact anonymously, so that they are strategically myopic and do not try to influence play in future periods. Such random matching is implicit in many learning models, and explicitly modeled in the Bayesian learning models of Fudenberg and Levine (1993b), Fudenberg and Levine (2006), and Fudenberg and He (2016).

The long-run implications of learning with random matching depend on what information is revealed at the end of each round of play. In the *information-sharing model*, all agents in the same player role pool their information about

¹See for example Prasnikar and Roth (1992).

what they observe after each round of play, which leads to rationalizable partition-confirmed equilibrium with unitary beliefs, which we studied in Fudenberg and Kamada (2015) (hereafter “FK”).² In the *personal-information model*, each agent observes and learns only the play in her own match, and no information sharing takes place. This is the treatment most frequently used in game theory experiments. It allows different agents in the same player role to maintain different beliefs, even after many iterations of the game, and even when the agents are identical ex ante. The large-population learning models described above assume personal information, and so their steady states can have heterogeneous beliefs. This is why Fudenberg and Levine (1993a) defined and analyzed heterogeneous self-confirming equilibrium. Dekel et al. (2004) argue that in Bayesian games it may be appropriate to allow different types of the same player to have different beliefs, and Battigalli et al. (2015) allow heterogeneous beliefs in their extension of self-confirming equilibrium to cases of “model uncertainty.”

To see how heterogeneity in beliefs can matter, consider the three-player game in Figure 1.

²This paper extends an earlier literature on equilibrium concepts that combine restrictions based on the agents’ observations with restrictions based in their knowledge of opponents’ payoffs, including (Rubinstein and Wolinsky (1994), Battigalli and Guaitoli (1997), Dekel et al. (1999), and Esponda (2013)). For a description of what these papers did see FK. Note that the meaning of “unitary” in RPCE, where players reason about other players’ actions, is somewhat different than in self-confirming equilibrium with unitary beliefs (Fudenberg and Levine (1993a)).

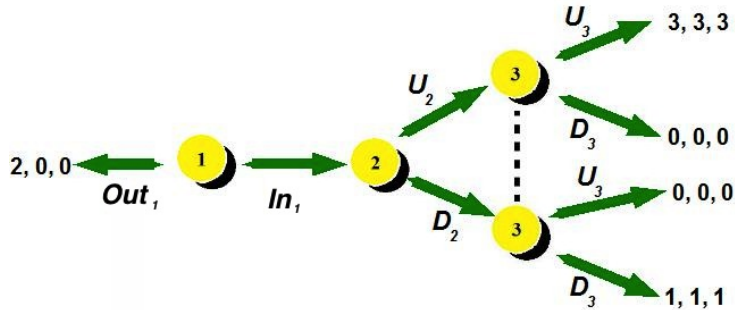


Figure 1: The agent, seller, and buyer are denoted players 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

Here there are potential agents who facilitate trades between sellers and buyers. Each potential agent decides whether she enters the market or stays out; if she stays out, the game ends with no trade. If the agent enters, the involved seller and buyer play a coordination game, where the efficient and inefficient outcomes correspond to the possible outcomes of an unmodeled process of negotiation. The personal-information model has a steady state in which some potential agents stay out of the market and the others enter, while all of sellers and buyers play efficient negotiations. Although staying out is not a best response, the agents can choose it if they believe the negotiations would be inefficient, and this belief will not be falsified by their observations. This is a heterogeneous self-confirming equilibrium, but it is not the outcome of a self-confirming equilibrium with unitary beliefs. This is because the aggregate play of the agents corresponds to a mixed distribution, yet if the agents pooled their information they would not be indifferent between the actions in the distribution's support.

In this example player 1's aggregate play corresponds to a mixed distribution. This is not the only way that heterogeneity of beliefs can make a difference. Consider the following situation: Investors decide whether to attend a business event, and entrepreneurs simultaneously decide whether to prepare materials to solicit investments. This preparation must be done before the meeting, and any entrepreneur who does prepare will then make a solicitation. Each investor derives a positive benefit from coming to the event, but this is outweighed by the cost if she is approached by an entrepreneur who solicits money, while entrepreneurs only want to attend if it is sufficiently likely they can talk with an investor. Specifically, entrepreneurs who do not solicit get 0; those who do solicit get 1 if the investor attends, and -1 if the investor stays *Out*. Similarly, entrepreneurs who don't attend get 0; those who attend get -1 if the entrepreneur solicits and 1 if it does not.

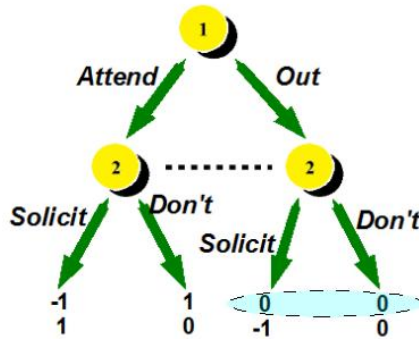


Figure 2: The investor and the entrepreneur are denoted players 1 and 2, respectively.

Note that the unique Nash equilibrium here is for both players to randomize $(1/2, 1/2)$. The dotted line indicates a *terminal node partition*; it shows that an investor who stays *Out* does not observe if the entrepreneur solicits, even though the entrepreneur's action is then on the path of play. Here, the profile $(Out, Don't)$ cannot be supported with unitary beliefs, as for the investor to stay out she has to expect a positive probability that the entrepreneur solicits, but this is not a best response to *Out* for the entrepreneur, which contradicts the assumption that the investor knows the entrepreneur is rational. With heterogeneous beliefs, on the other hand, it is not obvious why the outcome $(Out, Don't)$ should be rejected. To see why, note that if all agents in the role of investors think that the overall distribution of play corresponds to the Nash equilibrium of the game, these agents will be indifferent, and absent any information to the contrary all of the entrepreneurs could stay home even though none of the investors solicit.

The effect of heterogeneous beliefs is even starker in the game in Figure 3.

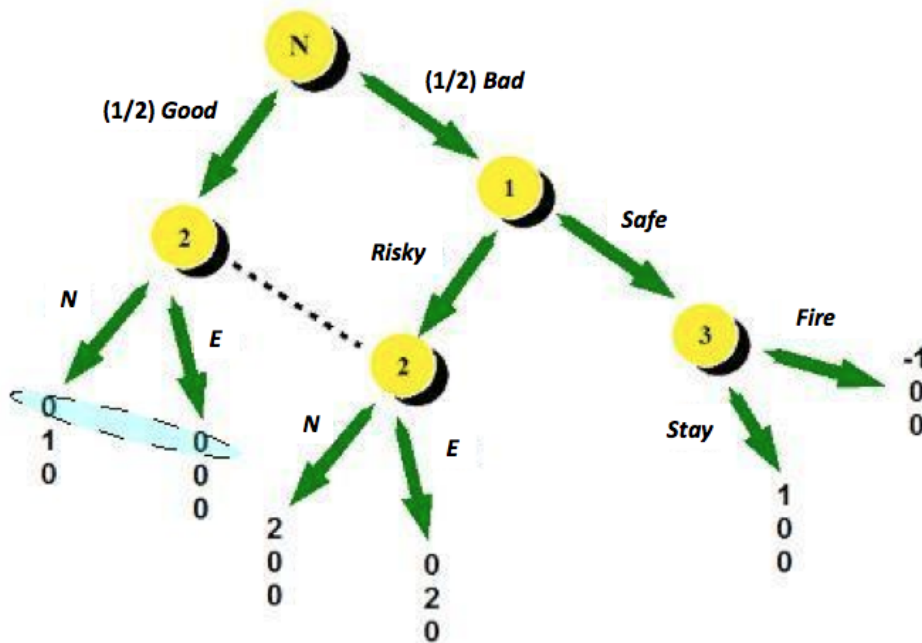


Figure 3: The tax attorney, IRS agent, and tax evader are denoted

players 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

Here, Nature first chooses Good or Bad. If it chooses Bad, then a tax attorney (player 1) prepares a tax return, which can be either *Safe* or *Risky*. *Risky* results in auditing by an IRS agent (player 2), and depending on the agent's effort level, the attorney is either rewarded by the tax evader (player 3) or punished. If the attorney chooses *Safe*, the return will not be audited, and then the tax evader has a choice of staying with the attorney (*Stay*) or firing him (*Fire*). Nature's choice of Good represents the situation in which the person who is audited has filed her tax return sincerely. The IRS agent, who does not know if the return is good or bad, would like to exert effort (*E*) in auditing if and only if it faces the evader, and otherwise prefers to not exert effort (*N*). If the file is good, then the attorney does not observe what the IRS agent has chosen, as irrespective of the agent's effort, the auditing would not result in punishment.

With unitary beliefs, it is not possible for the attorney to play *Safe* with probability 1. To see this, note that if she played *Safe* with probability 1 then she would know that whenever the IRS agent moves the IRS agent would know that Nature gave him the move, but then the agent should play *N*. Thus the attorney should expect the payoff of 2 from playing *Risky*, which dominates *Safe*.

However, with heterogeneous beliefs the attorney can play *Safe* with probability 1. Roughly, if each attorney thinks that all other attorneys play *Risky*, she has to infer each IRS agent assigns probability about .5 to each node, and this implies that the IRS agent must play *E*. But then if the evaders *Stay*, playing *Safe* is a best response. And an attorney can believe that other attorneys think *Risky* is a best response by supposing these other agents believe all the evaders play *Fire*.

We first lay out our model, then use it to analyze these and other examples with more rigor. We then show how heterogeneous play by a continuum of agents permits the "purification" of mixed strategy equilibria. That is, any outcome of a heterogeneous RPCE is the outcome of a heterogeneous RPCE in which all agents use pure strategies and believe that all other agents use

pure strategies as well. Finally, we relate the heterogenous RPCE of a given game to the unitary RPCE of a larger “*anonymous-matching game*” in which each of the agents in a given player role is viewed as a distinct player. Because we assume that this larger game has a finite number of agents in each role, the result here is not quite an equivalence, but involves some approximations which vanish as the number of agents grows large.

2 Model and Notation

The game tree consists of a finite set X , with terminal nodes denoted by $z \in Z \subseteq X$. The initial node corresponds to Nature’s move, if any. The set of Nature’s actions is A_N . The distribution over Nature’s actions is known to all players. The set of players is $I = \{1, \dots, |I|\}$. H_i is the collection of player i ’s information sets, with $H = \bigcup_{i \in I} H_i$ and $H_{-i} = H \setminus H_i$. Let $A(h)$ be the set of available actions at $h \in H$.

For each $z \in Z$, player i ’s payoff is $u_i(z)$. The information each player i observes at the end of each round of play is captured by a terminal node partition \mathbf{P}_i that is a partition of Z , where we require that $u_i(z) = u_i(z')$ if terminal nodes z and z' are in the same cell of \mathbf{P}_i . We let $\mathbf{P} = (\mathbf{P}_i)_{i \in I}$ denote the collection of the partitions.

Player i ’s behavioral strategy π_i is a map from H_i to probability distributions over actions, satisfying $\pi_i(h) \in \Delta(A(h))$ for each $h \in H_i$. The set of all behavioral strategies for i is Π_i , and the set of behavioral strategy profiles is $\Pi = \times_{i \in I} \Pi_i$. Let $\Pi_{-i} = \times_{j \neq i} \Pi_j$ with typical element π_{-i} . For $\pi \in \Pi$ and $\pi_i \in \Pi_i$, $H(\pi)$ and $H(\pi_i)$ denote the information sets reached with positive probability given π and (π_i, π'_{-i}) , respectively, where π'_{-i} is any completely mixed behavioral strategy.

Let $d(\pi)(z)$ be the probability of reaching $z \in Z$ given π , and let $D_i(\pi)(P_i^l) = \sum_{z \in P_i^l} d(\pi)(z)$ for each cell P_i^l of player i ’s partition. We assume that the extensive form has perfect recall in the usual sense, and extend perfect recall to terminal node partitions by requiring that two terminal nodes must be in different cells of P_i if they correspond to different actions by player i . If every

terminal node is in a different cell of \mathbf{P}_i , the partition \mathbf{P}_i is said to be discrete. If \mathbf{P}_i depends only on i 's actions, the partition is called trivial.

For most of the paper we restrict attention to “generalized one-move games,” in which for any path of pure actions each player moves at most once, and for each i , there is no tuple $(a, a', \tilde{\pi}_{-i}, \hat{\pi}_{-i}, h)$, with $a, a' \in A_N$, $a \neq a'$, $\tilde{\pi}_{-i}, \hat{\pi}_{-i} \in \Pi_{-i}$ and $h \in H_i$, such that h is reached with positive probability under both $(a, \tilde{\pi}_{-i})$ and $(a', \tilde{\pi}_{-i})$, while h is reached with probability zero under $\hat{\pi}_{-i}$. This restriction lets us neglect conceptual complications that would arise in specifying assessments at off-path information sets.³ We use a slightly more general class of games to relate the heterogeneous and unitary solution concepts, as in those games Nature’s move determines which agents are selected to play.

2.1 Heterogeneous Rationalizable Partition-Confirmed Equilibrium

Player i 's *belief* is denoted $\gamma_i \in [\times_{h \in H_i} \Delta(h)] \times \Pi$, which includes her assessment over nodes at her information sets as well as her belief about the overall distribution of strategies. We denote the second element of γ_i by $\pi(\gamma_i)$, and let $\pi_{-i}(\gamma_i)$ denote the corresponding strategies of players other than i . Note that we suppose that the belief about strategies is a point mass on a single behavior strategy profile, as opposed to a probability distribution over strategy profiles, which implicitly requires that the agents in the role of player i all believe that the play of players j and k is independent.⁴

To model the idea that players are reasoning about the beliefs and play of others, we follow Dekel et al. (1999) and FK and use *versions* of player i .⁵ use *versions* v_i of player i . We index these versions by integers k , and let V_i denote

³This is a generalization of the “one-move games” defined in FK. It reduces to FK’s definition of one-move games if Nature does not exist.

⁴We allowed for beliefs to be possibly correlated distributions on Π in FK. Here we restrict to independence for expositional simplicity to focus on the new issues that arise with heterogeneity.

⁵Note that versions are not used in the definition of self-confirming equilibrium, because that concept does not model reasoning about the beliefs of other players.

the set of versions of player i ; for simplicity we assume that each V_i is finite. Each version v_i^k of player i consists of a strategy $\pi_i^k \in \Pi_i$ and a *conjecture* $q_i^k \in \times_{j \in I} \Delta(V_j)$ about the distribution of versions in the population.

Not all of these versions need actually be present in the population. We track the shares of the versions that are objectively present with the *share function* $\phi = (\phi_i)_{i \in I}$, where each $\phi_i \in \Delta(V_i)$ specifies the fractions of the population of player i that are each v_i^k ; version v_i^k is called an “actual version” if $\phi_i(v_i^k) > 0$, and a “hypothetical version” otherwise. Hypothetical versions are the ones that some players think might be present but are not. Let $V := (V_1, \dots, V_n)$. We call (V, ϕ) a *belief model*.

Next, we show how a belief model induces a behavior strategy profile π that describes the aggregate play of the actual versions, and also induces, for each version v_i^k , the strategy profile that the version thinks describes actual play.

For each player j , define $\psi_j(\phi_j)$ for each ϕ_j by $\psi_j(\phi_j)(\hat{\pi}_j) = \sum_{\pi_j^k = \hat{\pi}_j} \phi_j(v_j^k)$ for each $\hat{\pi}_j$; this is the share of agents who play $\hat{\pi}_j$ under the belief model (V, ϕ) .

Definition H1 A belief model (V, ϕ) **induces** actual play $\hat{\pi}_j$ if for all $h_j \in H_j$ and $a \in A(h_j)$,

$$\hat{\pi}_j(h_j)(a) = \sum_{\pi_j^k \in \text{supp}(\psi_j(\phi_j))} \psi_j(\phi_j)(\pi_j^k) \cdot \pi_j^k(h_j)(a).$$

We say that (V, ϕ) induces $\hat{\pi}_j$ for version $v_i^k \in V_i$ if $\hat{\pi}_j$ is constructed by replacing ϕ_j above by the marginal of q_i^k on player j 's versions.

Definition H2 Given a belief model (V, ϕ) , we say v_i^k is **self-confirming with respect to** π^* if there exists $\tilde{\pi}_{-i} \in \Pi_{-i}$ such that (i) for each $j \neq i$, (V, ϕ) induces $\tilde{\pi}_j$ for version v_i^k and (ii) $D_i(\pi_i^k, \tilde{\pi}_{-i}) = D_i(\pi_i^k, \pi_{-i}^*)$.

Note that π_i^k can be different from π_i^* . This is because an agent in player role i does not get to observe what other agents in the same role play.

Definition H3 Given a belief model (V, ϕ) , v_i^k is **observationally consistent** if $q_i^k(\tilde{v}_j) > 0$ implies that there exists $\hat{\pi}_{-j} \in \Pi_{-j}$ such that (i) for each $l \neq j$, (V, ϕ) induces $\hat{\pi}_l$ for v_i^k and (ii) \tilde{v}_j is self-confirming with respect to $(\pi_j(\tilde{v}_j), \hat{\pi}_{-j})$.

Intuitively, the self-confirming condition requires that the agent's belief is not rejected by her observations. Observational consistency requires that, if agent A thinks agent B exists, then A should expect B 's belief not to be rejected by B 's observations.

It is important here to note that the observational consistency condition defined above restricts v_i^k 's belief about i 's strategies as well as her beliefs about the strategies of the other players. This is needed because other agents in the same player role may play differently from v_i^k .

We say that $\pi_i \in \Pi_i$ is a **best response to** γ_i at $h \in H_i$ if the restriction of π_i to the subtree starting at h maximizes player i 's expected payoff given the assessment at h given by γ_i and the continuation strategy of the opponents given by $\pi_{-i}(\gamma_i)$ in that subtree.

Definition H4 π^* is a **heterogeneous rationalizable partition-confirmed equilibrium**, or a **heterogeneous RPCE**, if there exists a heterogeneous belief model (V, ϕ) such that the following four conditions hold for each i :

1. (V, ϕ) induces actual play π_i^* ;
2. For all v_i^k , there exists γ_i such that (i) (V, ϕ) induces $\pi_j(\gamma_i)$ for v_i^k for each $j \neq i$ and (ii) π_i^k is a best response to γ_i at all $h \in H_i$;
3. For all v_i^k , $\phi_i(v_i^k) > 0$ implies v_i^k is self-confirming with respect to π^* ;
4. Each $v_i^k \in V_i$ is observationally consistent.

One significant change from the definition of unitary RPCE is in the self-confirming condition: In the unitary case, the self-confirming condition is imposed for those versions who have share 1 according to ϕ . In our current context, multiple versions may exist with strictly positive shares, and in such a case we require that all such versions are self-confirming.

2.2 Brief Review of Unitary RPCE

Here we briefly review the definition of unitary RPCE. In this solution concept, a belief is $\mu_i \in [\times_{h \in H_i} \Delta(\Delta(h) \times \Pi_{-i})] \times \Pi_{-i}$. The coordinate for information set h is denoted $(\mu_i)_h$. The second coordinate $\pi_{-i} \in \Pi_{-i}$ describes the strategy distribution the opponent believes she is facing and is denoted $b(\mu_i)$. Each μ_i is required to satisfy accordance, meaning the following:

Definition U0 A belief μ_i satisfies **accordance** if (i) $(\mu_i)_h$ is derived by Bayes rule if there exists π_{-i} in the support of $b(\mu_i)$ such that h is reachable under π_{-i} and (ii) for all $h \in H_i$, if $(\mu_i)_h$ assigns positive probability to $\hat{\pi}_{-i}$, then there exists $\tilde{\pi}_{-i} \in \text{supp}(b(\mu_i))$ such that $\hat{\pi}_{-i}(h') = \tilde{\pi}_{-i}(h')$ for each h' after h .⁶

We say that $\pi_i \in \Pi_i$ is a best response to μ_i at $h \in H_i$ if the restriction of π_i to the subtree starting at h is optimal against the probability distribution over assessments and continuation strategies given by μ_i .⁷

A belief model $U := (U_j)_{j \in I}$ is a profile of finite sets, where $U_j = \{u_j^1, \dots, u_j^{K_j}\}$ with K_j being the number of elements in U_j . Each element in U_j is called a version. For each $j \in I$ and $k \in \{1, \dots, K_j\}$ associate to u_j^k a pair (π_j^k, p_j^k) , where $\pi_j^k \in \Pi_j$ and $p_j^k \in \Delta(\times_{j' \neq j} U_{j'})$, and write $u_j^k = (\pi_j^k, p_j^k)$. When there is no room for confusion, we omit superscripts that distinguish different versions in the same player role.

There are two main differences in the definitions of versions in the unitary and heterogeneous belief models. First, in unitary belief models, conjectures do not specify a probability measure over the player's own versions. Second, in the unitary model players are sure that only one actual version exists for each player role, but unsure which one is actual. In the heterogeneous model they assign probability one to a single version distribution for each player role. Thus, in the heterogenous model, a conjecture of $(\frac{1}{2}v_2^k + \frac{1}{2}v_2^l, \frac{1}{2}v_3^k + \frac{1}{2}v_3^l)$ means

⁶Claim 1 in Appendix A shows that accordance is implied by independent beliefs adapted to the unitary model where we assume that only a single strategy profile is in the support of both $b(\mu_i)$ and $(\mu_i)_h$ for every information set h of player i .

⁷This is essentially the same definition as above, the only difference is that the domain of the best responses has been changed.

that 1/2 of the player 2's are v_2^k and not that there is probability 1/2 that all of them are v_2^k , which is allowed in the unitary model.⁸

Definition U1 (a) Given a belief model U , π^* is **generated** by a version profile $(\pi_i, p_i)_{i \in I} \in \times_{j \in I} U_j$ if for each i , $\pi_i = \pi_i^*$.

(b) A belief μ_i is **coherent** with a conjecture p_i if $b(\mu_i)$ assigns probability $\sum_{\pi_{-i}(u_{-i}) = \tilde{\pi}_{-i}} p_i(u_{-i})$ to each $\tilde{\pi}_{-i} \in \Pi_{-i}$.

Definition U2 Given a belief model U , version $u_i = (\pi_i, p_i)$ is **self-confirming** with respect to π^* if $D_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}(u_{-i})) = D_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}^*)$ for all u_{-i} in the support of p_i .

Definition U3 Given a belief model U , version $u_i = (\pi_i, p_i)$ is **observationally consistent** if $p_i(\tilde{u}_{-i}) > 0$ implies, for each $j \neq i$, \tilde{u}_j is self-confirming with respect to $\pi(u_i, \tilde{u}_{-i})$.

Using these notions, we define unitary rationalizable partition-confirmed equilibrium as follows:

Definition U4 π^* is a **unitary rationalizable partition-confirmed equilibrium** if there exist a belief model U and an actual version profile u^* such that the following conditions hold:

1. π^* is generated by u^* .
2. For each i and $u_i = (\pi_i, p_i)$, there exists μ_i such that (i) μ_i is coherent with p_i and (ii) π_i is a best response to μ_i at all $h \in H_i$.
3. For all i , u_i^* is self-confirming with respect to π^* .
4. For all i and u_i , u_i is observationally consistent.

⁸Similarly, 1/2 of the player 3's are v_3^k .

3 Examples

In this section we illustrate heterogeneous RPCE with several examples. We first revisit Examples 1-3 to formalize the arguments provided there.

Example 1 (Mixed Equilibrium and Heterogeneous Beliefs)

We revisit the game of Figure 1 to explain why $((\frac{1}{2}In_1, \frac{1}{2}Out_1), U_2, U_3)$ is not a unitary RPCE but is a heterogeneous RPCE.

To see that it is not a unitary RPCE, note that if it were, then by the self-confirming condition the actual version of player 1 must believe that player 2 and player 3 play (U_2, U_3) with probability one. But given this belief the only best response is to play action In_1 with probability one, so 1's strategy contradicts the best response condition.

However the profile is a heterogeneous RPCE. To see this, consider the following belief model:

$$V_1 = \{v_1^1, v_1^2\} \quad \text{with } v_1^1 = (Out_1, (v_1^1, v_2^2, v_3^2)), \quad v_1^2 = (In_1, (\frac{1}{2}v_1^1 + \frac{1}{2}v_1^2, v_2^1, v_3^1));$$

$$V_2 = \{v_2^1, v_2^2\} \quad \text{with } v_2^1 = (U_2, (\frac{1}{2}v_1^1 + \frac{1}{2}v_1^2, v_2^1, v_3^1)), \quad v_2^2 = (D_2, (v_1^1, v_2^2, v_3^2));$$

$$V_3 = \{v_3^1, v_3^2\} \quad \text{with } v_3^1 = (U_3, (\frac{1}{2}v_1^1 + \frac{1}{2}v_1^2, v_2^1, v_3^1)), \quad v_3^2 = (D_3, (v_1^1, v_2^2, v_3^2));$$

$$\phi_1(v_1^1) = \phi_1(v_1^2) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \phi_2(v_2^1) = 1, \quad \phi_3(v_3^1) = 1.$$

It is easy to check that the RPCE conditions hold (note that v_2^2 and v_3^2 must believe that all player 1's play Out_1 , because otherwise v_1^1 's observational consistency would be violated).

Example 2 (Investor-Entrepreneur)

Here we revisit the investor-entrepreneur game of Figure 2. We first show that $(Out, Don't)$ cannot be a unitary RPCE. To see this, suppose the contrary.

Note that the best response condition implies that the actual version of player 1 has to assign a strictly positive probability to a version v'_2 of player 2 that plays *Solicit* with strictly positive probability. But then observational consistency applied to the actual version of player 1 implies that the belief of v'_2 assigns probability 1 to *Out*, which would make *Solicit* strictly suboptimal.

To show that $(Out, Don't)$ is a heterogeneous RPCE, consider the following belief model:

$$\begin{aligned}
V_1 &= \{v_1^1, v_1^2\} \quad \text{with } v_1^1 = (Out, (\frac{1}{2}v_1^1 + \frac{1}{2}v_1^2, \frac{1}{2}v_2^2 + \frac{1}{2}v_2^3)), \\
v_1^2 &= (Attend, (\frac{1}{2}v_1^1 + \frac{1}{2}v_1^2, \frac{1}{2}v_2^2 + \frac{1}{2}v_2^3)); \\
V_2 &= \{v_2^1, v_2^2, v_2^3\} \quad \text{with } v_2^1 = (Don't, (v_1^1, v_2^1)) \\
v_2^2 &= (Don't, (\frac{1}{2}v_1^1 + \frac{1}{2}v_1^2, \frac{1}{2}v_2^2 + \frac{1}{2}v_2^3)), \quad v_2^3 = (Solicit, (\frac{1}{2}v_1^1 + \frac{1}{2}v_1^2, \frac{1}{2}v_2^2 + \frac{1}{2}v_2^3)); \\
\phi_1(v_1^1) &= 1, \quad \phi_2(v_2^1) = 1.
\end{aligned}$$

Fudenberg and Levine (1993a) show by example that there are heterogeneous self-confirming equilibria that are not unitary self-confirming equilibrium. The profile they construct uses mixed strategies, and the mixing is necessary: If a strategy profile is a heterogeneous self-confirming equilibrium but is not a unitary self-confirming equilibrium, then it uses mixed strategies.

In contrast, in this example there is a heterogeneous RPCE in which the distribution of strategies generated by ϕ is pure, yet the observed play cannot be the outcome of a unitary RPCE.⁹

Example 3 (Heterogeneous RPCE with Pure Strategies)

Here we revisit the tax evasion example of Figure 3. To see that the profile $(Safe, N, Stay)$ cannot be a unitary RPCE, suppose the contrary. Then the actual version of the attorney (player 1) must play *Safe*, so by observational

⁹Note that in a simultaneous-move game with a discrete terminal node partition, each agent's belief must be correct, so every heterogeneous RPCE is a Nash equilibrium.

consistency her conjecture assigns probability 1 to versions of the IRS agent (player 2) whose assessment assigns probability 1 to the left node in 2's information set. By the best response condition these versions must play N . Then the coherent belief condition implies that the actual version of player 1 believes that 2 plays N , and by the best response condition she has to play *Risky* instead of *Safe* irrespective of her belief about the play by the tax evader (player 3).

To see that the profile is a heterogeneous RPCE, consider the following belief model:

$$\begin{aligned}
V_1 &= \{v_1^1, v_1^2\} \quad \text{with } v_1^1 = (\textit{Safe}, (v_2^1, v_2^2, v_3^2)), v_1^2 = (\textit{Risky}, (v_2^1, v_2^2, v_3^3)); \\
V_2 &= \{v_2^1, v_2^2\} \quad \text{with } v_2^1 = (N, (v_1^1, v_1^2, v_3^1)), v_2^2 = (E, (v_1^2, v_1^3, v_3^3)); \\
V_3 &= \{v_3^1, v_3^2, v_3^3\} \quad \text{with } v_3^1 = (\textit{Stay}, (v_1^1, v_1^2, v_3^1)), \\
v_3^2 &= (\textit{Stay}, (v_1^2, v_1^3, v_3^2)), \quad v_3^3 = (\textit{Fire}, (v_1^2, v_1^3, v_3^3)); \\
\phi_1(v_1^1) &= 1, \quad \phi_2(v_2^1) = 1, \quad \phi_3(v_3^1) = 1.
\end{aligned}$$

Notice that in this belief model, version v_1^2 has share 0, but each agent of version v_1^1 thinks that all other agents in his player role are version v_1^2 .¹⁰ This is possible, because if version v_1^2 was an actual version, he could not observe 3's play, so his belief about 3's play can be arbitrary. Given that all other agents are playing *Risky*, v_1^1 infers 2 should be playing E , and such a belief is "self-confirming" because v_1^1 does not observe 2's choice due to the terminal node partition.¹¹

Note that players 1 and 2 have strict incentives to play the equilibrium actions, unlike in the heterogeneous RPCE in Example 2. Player 3 is indifferent,

¹⁰Hence each agent in v_1^1 thinks that he has measure zero. This is not necessary here: the same conclusion applies if v_1^1 believes the share of v_1^1 's is strictly less than 1/2. In Example 5, which has a weakly dominated strategy, it does matter that a version can think it has share 0.

¹¹Player 3 has three versions although she has two actions because we need two versions who play *Stay*: the actual version who observes *Safe*, and a hypothetical version who observes *Risky*, which is needed so that v_1^1 is observationally consistent.

but one can replace his move with a simultaneous-move game by two players to avoid ties.

Note also that the construction here is different from that of Example 1, where each agent thinks that all other agents in the same role are playing in the same way as she does, while here each agent thinks that other agents in the same player role behave differently than herself. Example 7 in the Online Supplementary Appendix extends this idea to show that a heterogeneous RPCE can be different from a unitary RPCE because an actual version of one player role can conjecture that different versions in *another* player role play differently.

Example 4 (Inferring the Play of Other Agents in the Same Role)

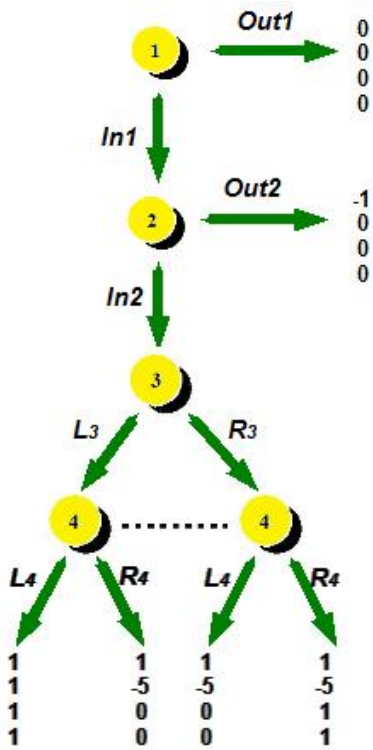


Figure 4

Here we show how knowledge of the payoff functions and the observation structure can rule out heterogeneous beliefs when neither of these forces would do so on its own, as agents in a given player role may be able to use their observations to make inferences about the play of other agents in their own role. In the game in Figure 4, the terminal node partitions are discrete. One might conjecture that some player 2's can play Out_2 while some play In_2 and some player 1's play In_1 , as Out_2 prevents player 2 from observing 3 and 4's play. However, we claim that whenever a heterogeneous RPCE assigns strictly positive probability to In_1 , player 2 plays In_2 with probability 1.

To see this, consider a heterogeneous RPCE such that 1 plays In_1 with a strictly positive probability. Fix a belief model that rationalizes this heterogeneous RPCE and fix an actual version v_2 of player 2. We show that v_2 must play In_2 with probability 1 in this heterogeneous RPCE.

First, by the self-confirming condition, v_2 's conjecture assigns positive probability to a version \bar{v}_1 of player 1 that plays In_1 with positive probability. Suppose that v_2 's conjecture assigns probability zero to versions of player 2 that play In_2 with positive probability. Then, by observational consistency applied to v_2 , \bar{v}_1 believes 2 plays Out_2 with probability 1. But this contradicts the best response condition for \bar{v}_1 . Hence v_2 's conjecture must assign a positive probability to versions who play In_2 with positive probability. Pick one such version who plays In_2 , and call it \bar{v}_2 .

Since \bar{v}_2 must satisfy the best response condition, he must assign probability at least $\frac{5}{6}$ to (L_3, L_4) . Since \bar{v}_2 observes play by players 3 and 4, by observational consistency applied to v_2 , this means that v_2 's belief assigns probability at least $\frac{5}{6}$ to (L_3, L_4) as well. This in particular implies that v_2 's belief assigns probability at least $\frac{5}{6}$ to L_3 . But L_4 is the unique best response to a strategy that plays L_3 with probability at least $\frac{5}{6}$ (given that player 4 is on the path), so observational consistency applied to v_2 and the best response condition for player 4 imply that v_2 's belief assigns probability 1 to L_4 , and similarly, it assigns probability 1 to L_3 . But then the best response condition for v_2 implies that she must play In_2 with probability 1.

Note that extensive-form rationalizability alone does not preclude heterogeneity, as all actions of all players are extensive-form rationalizable. As we show in the Online Supplementary Appendix, common knowledge of observation structure alone does not rule out heterogeneity either.

Example 5 (Heterogeneous RPCE with Dominated Strategies)

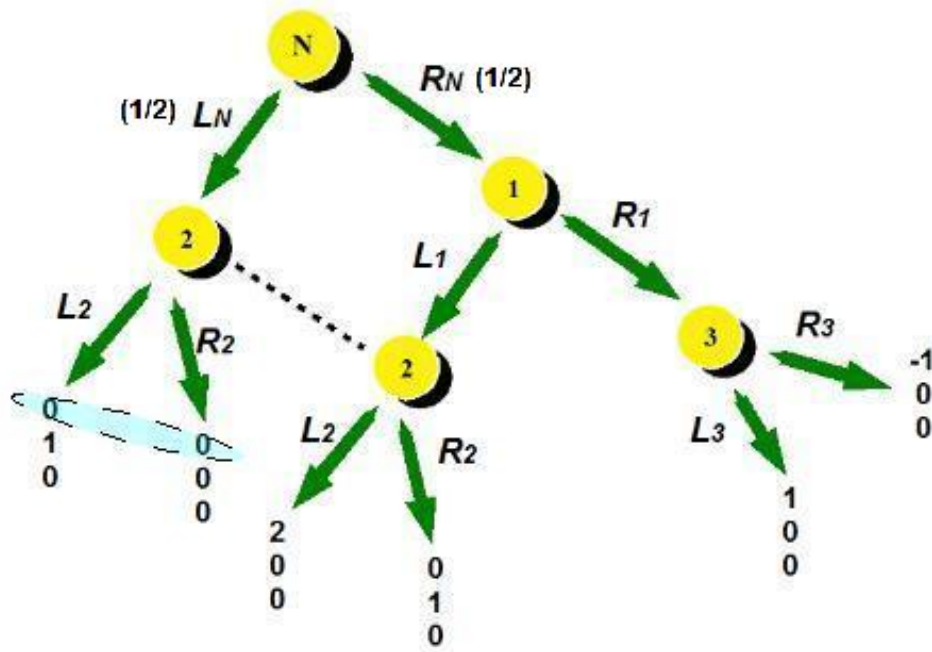


Figure 5

Our definition allows each version to believe that the aggregate play of her player role does not assign positive mass to her own strategy. For example, even if v_i^k plays L_i , her belief may assign probability 1 to R_i . This reflects the premise that there is a continuum of agents in each player role and no one agent can change the aggregate distribution of play. This continuum model is meant to be an approximation of a large but finite population model. In Section 5, we formalize this idea of approximation by using ϵ -self-confirming and ϵ -observational consistency conditions, as opposed to the exact self-confirming

and the observational consistency conditions. This example shows why some sort of approximate equilibrium notion is needed.

The game in Figure 5 has the same extensive form as in the game in Example 3, with a different payoff function for player 2. Notice that R_2 is weakly dominated.

We first show that 1 can play R_1 in a heterogeneous RPCE. To see this, consider the following belief model:

$$V_1 = \{v_1^1, v_1^2\} \quad \text{with } v_1^1 = (R_1, (v_1^2, v_2^2, v_3^2)), v_1^2 = (L_1, (v_1^2, v_2^2, v_3^2));$$

$$V_2 = \{v_2^1, v_2^2\} \quad \text{with } v_2^1 = (L_2, (v_1^1, v_2^1, v_3^1)), v_2^2 = (R_2, (v_1^2, v_2^2, v_3^2));$$

$$V_3 = \{v_3^1, v_3^2\} \quad \text{with } v_3^1 = (L_3, (v_1^1, v_2^1, v_3^1)),$$

$$v_3^2 = (L_3, (v_1^2, v_2^2, v_3^2)), v_3^3 = (R_3, (v_1^2, v_2^2, v_3^2));$$

$$\phi_1(v_1^1) = 1, \phi_2(v_2^1) = 1, \phi_3(v_3^1) = 1.$$

Notice that in this belief model, the actual version v_1^1 of player 1 conjectures that version v_1^2 has share 1, which justifies his belief that player 2 is indifferent between two actions so can play a weakly dominated action R_2 . One can check by inspection that all conditions in the definition of heterogeneous RPCE are met.

However, player 1 cannot play R_1 if we require that each version's belief has to assign a positive weight to her own strategy. To see this, notice that if this condition were imposed, observational consistency and Bayes rule would imply that each version v_1^k of player 1 assigns probability 1 to versions of player 2 whose assessments assign probability strictly less than $\frac{1}{2}$ to the node that follows L_1 . By the best response condition, these versions must play L_2 . But then from condition 2(i) of Definition H4 v_1^k would need to believe that 2 will play L_2 with probability 1, so that R_1 would give her a strictly smaller payoff than the maximal possible payoff from L_1 , which contradicts the best response condition.

The point is that in a finite population model an agent's own actions can

give her information about an opponent's belief and hence about their strategy, but such an inference is not captured by heterogeneous RPCE.

4 A “Purification” Result

In the heterogeneous model, the aggregate play of agents in each player role can correspond to a mixed (behavior) strategy. One standard interpretation of mixed strategies in equilibrium is that the mixing describes the aggregate play of a large population, with different agents in the same player role using different pure strategies. Here we show that this interpretation of mixed-strategy equilibrium also applies to heterogeneous RPCE with a continuum of agents in each player role, so that the shares ϕ_i describe the mass of each population i whose play and conjectures correspond to the various versions. The continuum of agents allows ϕ_i to take on any value between 0 and 1. In the next section we relate this continuum model to one with a large but finite population.

Theorem 1 *Any heterogeneous RPCE can be rationalized with a belief model in which all versions use pure strategies.*

Proof. Fix a heterogeneous RPCE π^* and a belief model (V, ϕ) that rationalizes it. Pick any version $v_i^k = (\pi_i^k, q_i^k)$ in V , let σ_i^k be a mixed strategy that induces π_i^k ,¹² and suppose that σ_i^k assigns positive probability to K distinct pure strategies. We construct copies of version v_i^k , each playing a distinct pure strategy in the support of σ_i^k . The copy corresponding to pure strategy s_i , denoted $v_i^k(s_i)$, plays s_i and has the same belief as v_i^k .

To construct the conjectures in the new belief model from the conjectures in the old one, we suppose that all of the copies corresponding to v_i^k have the same conjecture \bar{q}_i^k , where $\bar{q}_i^k(v_j^l(s_j)) = q_i^k(v_j^l) \cdot \sigma_j^l(s_j)$ for all $v_j^l \in V_j$ and all $s_j \in \text{supp}(\sigma_j^l)$.¹³ Finally, denoting the share function in the new belief model by $\bar{\phi}$, we let $\bar{\phi}_i(v_i^k(s_i)) = \phi(v_i^k) \cdot \sigma_i^k(s_i)$ for each $s_i \in \text{supp}(\sigma_i^k)$.

¹²This mixed strategy exists from Kuhn's theorem; see for example the proof of Theorem 4 in Fudenberg and Levine (1993a).

¹³With a slight abuse of notation, we denote by $q_i^k(v_j^l)$ the marginal of q_i^k on v_j^l .

It is straightforward to check that with this construction the new belief model rationalizes the original heterogeneous RPCE. ■

5 Anonymous-Matching Games in Large Finite Populations

The interpretation of heterogeneous beliefs and play is that there are many agents in each player role. An alternative way of thinking of such situations is that every agent is a “player,” but each period only a subset of the agents get to actually play; the agents who are not playing do not receive any feedback on what happened that period. In this way, we can identify an *anonymous-matching game* with any given extensive form. To do this, we view each of the agent k ’s in the role of player i as distinct players, so the anonymous-matching game has as many players as the original model has agents. Each period Nature picks $|I|$ players to anonymously participate in the game, where $|I|$ is the number of player roles in the original extensive form, and only one player is picked from each of the respective groups.

We will show that each heterogeneous RPCE of a small extensive-form game is an “approximate” unitary RPCE in an anonymous-matching game, where the approximation becomes arbitrarily close as the population of the anonymous-matching game becomes large.

5.1 Anonymous-Matching Games

Formally, given an extensive-form game Γ with a set of players $I = \{1, \dots, |I|\}$ and the terminal node partitions $\mathbf{P} = (\mathbf{P}_1, \dots, \mathbf{P}_{|I|})$, we define an **anonymous-matching game of Γ** parameterized by a positive integer T defined below, denoted $Y(\Gamma, T)$, as follows¹⁴:

1. The set of players is $J := \bigcup_{i \in I} J_i$, with $J_i := \{(i, 1), \dots, (i, T)\}$, where T is a positive integer.

¹⁴We assume there is the same number of players in each player role; none of our results hinges on this assumption.

2. Nature N moves at the initial node, choosing $|I|$ players who will move at subsequent nodes. For each $i \in I$, a unique player is chosen from J_i independently, according to the uniform distribution over J_i . Let the chosen player for each $i \in I$ be (i, r_i) .
3. The chosen players, $((1, r_1), (2, r_2), \dots, (n, r_n))$, play Γ , without knowing the identity of the opponents. Unchosen players receive the constant payoffs of 0. Formally,
 - (a) Each node of $Y(\Gamma, T)$ is denoted $(x, (i, w_i)_{i \in I})$, where x is an element of X of Γ and w_i is the index of the agent in player role i who “plays” in the game that contains the node.
 - (b) For each player $(i, w_i) \in J_i$, nodes $(x, (j, w_j)_{j \in I})$ and $(x', ((i, w_i), (j, w'_j)_{j \neq i}))$ are in the same information set if and only if x and x' are in the same information set of player i in Γ (This formalizes the idea that the identity of the matched agents cannot be observed).
 - (c) For any $(i, w_i)_{i \in I}$, actions available at an information set that includes $(x, (i, w_i)_{i \in I})$ is the same as the actions available at an information set that includes x in Γ .
 - (d) The payoff function is such that if a player in J_i is chosen and an action profile a of the chosen players (which lies in A) is realized, she receives a payoff identical to $u_i(z)$ where the sequence of actions a leads to the terminal node z in Γ . If a player is not chosen, she receives the payoff of 0.
 - (e) The terminal node partition is such that if a player is not chosen then she does not observe anything (except the fact that she was not chosen). If a player $(i, r_i) \in J_i$ is chosen and a terminal node $(z, (j, r_j)_{j \in I})$ is reached, all she knows is that some node $(z', (r_i, w'_{-i}))$ for some z' and $w'_{-i} \in \times_{j \neq i} J_j$ is reached, where z' and z are in the same partition cell of \mathbf{P}_i in Γ (In particular, she does not know the identity of the opponents).

5.2 Unitary ϵ -RPCE

Hereafter, we assume that μ_i satisfies the following condition:

Definition U5 A belief μ_i satisfies **convex structurally-consistent accordance** if it satisfies the following three conditions:

1. μ_i satisfies accordance.
2. For each $h \in H_i$ and each $(a_i, \pi_{-i}) \in \text{supp}((\mu_i)_h)$, there exists a probability distribution $\gamma \in \Delta(\Pi_{-i})$ such that (i) there exists $\hat{\pi}_{-i} \in \text{supp}(\gamma)$ such that h is reachable under $\hat{\pi}_{-i}$, and (ii) the assessment a_i at h is derived by Bayes rule under γ .

In anonymous-matching games, Nature's move determines which agents get to play. The second condition in the definition imposes a restriction on the probability distribution over the agents chosen by Nature at each off-path information set h : we require that this probability distribution does not change even after a deviation that leads to h (note that the deviator does not move at h because we still assume that each player moves only once at each path of the extensive form). The reason we allow for a distribution γ of strategies here is analogous to the argument for convex structural consistency in Kreps and Ramey (1987): the stronger condition that one single profile generates the beliefs is not compatible with Kreps-Wilson's (1982) consistency.

To motivate the next definitions, suppose that in the original heterogeneous belief model version v_1^k assigns probability $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \approx .707$ to action A of player 2 and the remaining probability to action B , and that this makes v_1^k indifferent between her actions U and D . Suppose also that mixing between actions A and B cannot be a best response for player 2, so v_1^k 's conjecture must assign positive probability only to versions of player 2 who use pure strategies.¹⁵ In this case there are no share functions generated by a finite number

¹⁵Such a situation is possible in a RPCE for example when players 3 and 4 play a coordination game after 2 moves, 2's terminal node partition lets him observe the outcome of the coordination game only when he plays A , and player 2 has a strict incentive to play one of actions A and B given each Nash equilibrium of the coordination game.

of agents that make her believe in the probability distribution $(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$, as no version that is assigned positive probability by a share function can play a mixed strategy. To allow an approximation of this situation in a model with a finite number of agents, we relax the definitions of self-confirming and observationally consistent.

Let $\|\cdot\|$ denote the supremum norm. We say that π_i represents $(\pi_{(i,1)}, \dots, \pi_{(i,T)})$ if, for each $h_i \in H_i$ and $a \in A(h_i)$, $\pi(h_i)(a) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{j=1}^T \pi_{(i,j)}(h_i)(a)$. We say that π_i **ϵ -represents** $(\pi_{(i,1)}, \dots, \pi_{(i,T)})$ if there is π'_i such that π'_i represents $(\pi_{(i,1)}, \dots, \pi_{(i,T)})$ and $\|\pi_i - \pi'_i\| < \epsilon$.

Definition U2(ϵ) Given a belief model U , version $u_i = (\pi_i, p_i)$ is **ϵ -self-confirming** with respect to π^* if $\|D_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}(u_{-i})) - D_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}^*)\| < \epsilon$ for all u_{-i} in the support of p_i .

Definition U3(ϵ) Given a belief model U , version $u_i = (\pi_i, p_i)$ is **ϵ -observationally consistent** if $p_i(\tilde{u}_{-i}) > 0$ implies, for each $j \neq i$, \tilde{u}_j is ϵ -self-confirming with respect to $\pi(u_i, \tilde{u}_{-i})$.

Using these notions, we define unitary ϵ -rationalizable partition-confirmed equilibrium.

Definition U4(ϵ) π^* is a **unitary ϵ -rationalizable partition-confirmed equilibrium (unitary ϵ -RPCE)** if there exist a belief model U and an actual version profile u^* such that the following conditions hold:

1. π^* is generated by u^* .
2. For each i and $u_i = (\pi_i, p_i)$, there exists μ_i such that (i) μ_i is coherent with p_i and (ii) π_i is a best response to μ_i at all $h \in H_i$.
3. For all i , u_i^* is ϵ -self-confirming with respect to π^* .
4. For all i and u_i , u_i is ϵ -observationally consistent.

5.3 The Equivalence Theorem

Theorem 2 *For any $\epsilon > 0$, Γ , and a heterogeneous RPCE π^* of Γ , there exist T and a pure unitary ϵ -RPCE π^{**} of $Y(\Gamma, T)$ such that for each $i \in I$, π_i^* ϵ -represents $(\pi_{(i,1)}^{**}, \dots, \pi_{(i,T)}^{**})$.*

The proof is provided in the appendix. In outline, the way the proof handles heterogeneous RPCE with irrational probabilities is as follows. Let $\tilde{v}_{(1,j)}^k$ be the version in the constructed unitary belief model who corresponds to v_1^k in the original heterogeneous belief model. We construct a conjecture such that $\tilde{v}_{(1,j)}^k$ is not certain about what the share functions are. For example, if $T = 100$ then we let $\tilde{v}_{(1,j)}^k$'s conjecture assign probability 1 to the event that 70 agents are the versions who play A and 29 agents are the versions who play B , assign probability $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{70}{100}$ to the event that the remaining one agent is the version who plays A , and assign the remaining probability to the event that the remaining one agent is the version who plays B . We construct the belief so that coherency holds. With this construction any point in the belief of $\tilde{v}_{j_1}^k$ has a belief such that all points in the support is close to the corresponding point in the support of v_1^k (because 99 agents play deterministically) and the belief is essentially unchanged so the mixing between U and D is still a best response (because we allow the remaining one agent to be either one of the two possible versions with the probability computed from the original mixing probability of player 2). There is more subtlety in making sure the best-response condition holds also at zero-probability information sets, which we will detail in the proof.

Theorem 2 relaxes the self-confirming and observational consistency conditions to approximate heterogeneous RPCE with unitary RPCE played by a finite number of agents. The conclusion of the theorem holds with the exact (e.g. $\epsilon=0$) versions of self-confirming and observational consistency if we allow the probability distribution over agents in the anonymous-matching game to depend on the unitary RPCE that is being replicated. We do not state this version of the result formally, as we do not find it satisfactory to vary the probability distribution over agents to match the target equilibrium.

In the Online Appendix, we discuss our choice of approximation criterion used in defining ϵ -observational consistency, and explain the implications of an alternative.

6 Conclusion

This paper has developed an extension of RPCE to allow for heterogeneous beliefs, both on the part of the agents who are objectively present, and also in the “versions” that represent mental states agents think other agents can have. This extension allows the model to fit the heterogeneity that naturally arises when there are many agents in the role of each player, as implicitly assumed by most learning theories and implemented in the random-matching protocols of most game theory experiments. It also permits RPCE to be restricted to pure strategies without loss of generality. The paper explored the impact of heterogeneous beliefs in various examples. It also showed how heterogeneous RPCE relates to the unitary RPCE of a larger anonymous-matching game with many agents in each player role.

This paper is only the first look at the new issues posed by heterogeneous beliefs. It would be interesting to explore some of the complications that we have avoided here, such as the possibility of a player’s beliefs being a correlated distribution over the opponents’ strategies, defining heterogeneous RPCE for a class of games larger than generalized one-move games, and a full dynamic model of learning. It would also be interesting to know more about the relationship between unitary and heterogeneous RPCE. The examples that we provided in this paper are only a first step in this direction.

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A Independence and Accordance

Recall that unitary RPCE is only defined for 1-move games. In that solution concept, a belief μ_i belongs to the space $[\times_{h \in H_i} \Delta(\Delta(h) \times \Pi_{-i})] \times \Delta(\Pi_{-i})$. We denote $(\mu_i)_h$ the coordinate of μ_i that corresponds to h , and $b(\mu_i)$ the last coordinate that does not correspond to any particular information sets.

Although we do not use it in the next claim, keep in mind that the space of the beliefs in the heterogeneous model is $[\times_{h \in H_i} \Delta(h)] \times \Delta(\Pi)$.

Claim 1 *Suppose that under a belief μ_i , $b(\mu_i)$ assigns probability one to a single strategy profile for i 's opponents, π_{-i}^* . Suppose also that for every $h \in H_i$, $(\mu_i)_h$ assigns probability one to a single assessment-strategy profile pair such that the strategy profile to which probability one is assigned is π_{-i}^* . Then, accordance holds.*

Proof. Accordance requires two conditions. We check them one by one.

The first condition of accordance requires that $(\mu_i)_h$ is derived by Bayes rule if there exists π_{-i} in the support of $b(\mu_i)$ such that h is reachable under π_{-i} . Since $b(\mu_i)$ and $(\mu_i)_h$ for each h assigns probability 1 to the same strategy profile for $-i$, this part is holds.

The second condition requires that for each $h \in H_i$, if $(\mu_i)_h$ assigns positive probability to $\hat{\pi}_{-i}$, then there exists $\tilde{\pi}_{-i} \in \text{supp}(b(\mu_i))$ such that $\hat{\pi}_{-i}(h') = \tilde{\pi}_{-i}(h')$ for all h' after h .

Now, $(\mu_i)_h$ assigns positive probability only to π_{-i}^* . Also, π_{-i}^* is in the support of $b(\mu_i)$. Thus we can always take $\tilde{\pi}_{-i} = \pi_{-i}^*$ to satisfy the equality.

■

B Proof of Theorem 2

Proof.

Fix $\epsilon > 0$ and a heterogeneous RPCE of Γ , π^* . By Theorem 1 there exists a belief model (V, ϕ) that rationalizes π^* such that all versions in the belief model use pure strategies. Fix one such belief model. For each i and k , let $\gamma_i^k = (a_i^{[i,k]}, \pi^{[i,k]})$ be the belief of v_i^k used in condition 2 of the definition of heterogeneous RPCE. Pick an integer T such that $T > \max\left\{\frac{2(\max_{i \in I} |V_i|)(\#A)^2}{\epsilon}, \frac{1}{\underline{G}}\right\}$, where

$$\underline{G} = \min_{i \in I} \left(\min_{k \in \{1, \dots, |V_i|\}} \left(\max_{\pi_i \in \Pi_i} \min_{z \in Z(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}^{[i,k]})} p(\pi_i, \pi_{-i}^{[i,k]})(z) \right) \right),$$

$p(\pi)(z)$ is the probability that $z \in Z$ is reached under π , and $Z(\pi)$ is the set of terminal nodes z such that $p(\pi)(z) > 0$. To prove the claim we need to construct a belief model U and an actual version profile u^* for the game $Y(\Gamma, T)$ such that there is a pure unitary ϵ -RPCE π^{**} of $Y(\Gamma, T)$ where for each $i \in I$, π_i^* ϵ -represents $(\pi_{(i,1)}^{**}, \dots, \pi_{(i,T)}^{**})$.

a) Constructing the belief model

For each $i \in I$ and each $(i, j) \in J_i$, define $U_{(i,j)} = \{\tilde{u}_{(i,j)}(v_i^k) | v_i^k \in V_i\}$, where $\tilde{u}_{(i,j)}(v_i^k) = (\tilde{\pi}_{(i,j)}^k, \tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k)$ and we define $\tilde{\pi}_{(i,j)}^k$ and $\tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k$ in what follows. Below we simply denote $\tilde{u}_{(i,j)}(v_i^k)$ by $u_{(i,j)}^k$.

First, $\tilde{\pi}_{(i,j)}^k = \pi_i^k$,¹⁶ note this is a pure strategy.

Second, we let $\tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k$ be independent, and abuse notation to denote by $\tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k(u_{(n,m)})$ the probability assigned to $u_{(n,m)}$ by the conjecture of $v_{(i,j)}^k$. That is, $\tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k((\bar{u}_{(n,m)})_{(n,m) \neq (i,j)}) = \prod_{(n,m) \neq (i,j)} \tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k(\bar{u}_{(n,m)})$ for each $(\bar{u}_{(n,m)})_{(n,m) \neq (i,j)} \in$

¹⁶Recall that each player j_i in $Y(\Gamma, T)$ has the same number of information sets as player i in Γ ; here we abuse notation to use the same notation for an information set h in Γ and the information set in $Y(\Gamma, T)$ of player j_i that includes the nodes corresponding to the nodes included in h .

$U_{-(i,j)}$. Similarly, we abuse notation to write $q_i^k(v_n^m)$ (recall that q_i^k is necessarily independent by definition).

Below we specify $\tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k$ in the way we described in the example of 100 agents before this proof. In that method, there are 29 agents for whom $\tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k$ assigns probability one to a version who plays action A , 70 agents for whom it assigns probability zero to such a version, and 1 agent for whom the probability is in $(0, 1)$. The cases (i), (ii), and (iii) below correspond to these three cases, respectively. The way we specify probabilities for case (iii) is clarified in (iii)-(a), (iii)-(b), and (iii)-(c).

For all $(n, m) \in (\bigcup_{n' \in I} J_{n'}) \setminus \{(i, j)\}$ and all $l \in \{1, \dots, |V_n|\}$, we set

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{(i)} \quad & \tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k(u_{(n,m)}^l) = 1 \text{ if } \sum_{v' \in \mathbb{N}, v' < l} \left\lfloor T \cdot q_i^k(v'_n) \right\rfloor < m \leq \sum_{v' \in \mathbb{N}, v' \leq l} \left\lfloor T \cdot q_i^k(v'_n) \right\rfloor, \\
\text{(ii)} \quad & \tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k(u_{(n,m)}^l) = 0 \text{ if } m \leq \sum_{v' \in \mathbb{N}, v' < l} \left\lfloor T \cdot q_i^k(v'_n) \right\rfloor \\
& \text{or } \sum_{v' \in \mathbb{N}, v' < l} \left\lfloor T \cdot q_i^k(v'_n) \right\rfloor < m \leq \sum_{v' \in \mathbb{N}, v' \leq |V_n|} \left\lfloor T \cdot q_i^k(v'_n) \right\rfloor, \\
\text{(iii)} \quad & \tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k(u_{(n,m)}^l) \in [0, 1] \text{ if } \sum_{v' \in \mathbb{N}, v' \leq |V_n|} \left\lfloor T \cdot q_i^k(v'_n) \right\rfloor < m \leq T.
\end{aligned}$$

To define $\tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k$ for case (iii) concretely, for each $n \in I$ and $l' \in \{1, \dots, |V_n|\}$, let

$$f(l'; n, q_i^k) = T \cdot q_i^k(v'_n) - \left\lfloor T \cdot q_i^k(v'_n) \right\rfloor.$$

That is, $f(l'; n, q_i^k)$ is the error that the approximation in (i) and (ii) above miss out. More specifically, (i) and (ii) assign too small a weight for each possible version in the support of the conjecture, and $f(l'; n, q_i^k)$ is the probability that needs to be added to make the conjecture exactly in line with the original conjecture q_i^k . Now we allocate these probabilities to remaining agents considered in (iii). To do this, we define $l(w; n, q_i^k)$ for each $w \in \mathbb{N}$ with $w \leq \sum_{v' \in \mathbb{N}, v' \leq |V_n|} f(l'; n, q_i^k)$ as follows:

$$\sum_{v' \in \mathbb{N}, v' < l(w; n, q_i^k)} f(l'; n, q_i^k) < w \leq \sum_{v' \in \mathbb{N}, v' \leq l(w; n, q_i^k)} f(l'; n, q_i^k).$$

That is, $l(w; n, q_i^k)$ is the maximum number of versions such that the sum of the error probabilities can be no more than w , when we add these errors in the order of the indices of the versions.

Then we define

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{(iii)-(a)} \quad \tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k(u_{(n,m)}^l) &= \left(\sum_{l' \in \mathbb{N}, l' \leq l} f(l'; n, q_i^k) \right) - (w - 1) \\
&\quad \text{if } m = \sum_{l' \in \mathbb{N}, l' \leq |V_n|} \left\lfloor T \cdot q_i^k(v_n^{l'}) \right\rfloor + w \text{ and } l = l(w - 1; n, q_i^k), \\
\text{(iii)-(b)} \quad \tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k(u_{(n,m)}^l) &= f(l; n, q_i^k) \\
&\quad \text{if } m = \sum_{l' \in \mathbb{N}, l' \leq |V_n|} \left\lfloor T \cdot q_i^k(v_n^{l'}) \right\rfloor + w \text{ and } l(w - 1; n, q_i^k) < l < l(w; n, q_i^k), \\
\text{(iii)-(c)} \quad \tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k(u_{(n,m)}^l) &= w - \left(\sum_{l' \in \mathbb{N}, l' < l} f(l'; n, q_i^k) \right) \\
&\quad \text{if } m = \sum_{l' \in \mathbb{N}, l' \leq |V_n|} \left\lfloor T \cdot q_i^k(v_n^{l'}) \right\rfloor + w \text{ and } l = l(w; n, q_i^k).
\end{aligned}$$

Note that (i, j) has only $T - 1$ opponents in player role i , so the above specification of the belief may not give rise to the conjecture that exactly corresponds to the one in the heterogenous model. However it will not lead to violation of best response condition, as beliefs about the strategy of agents of player i do not affect the expected payoff of an agent in player role i .

Last, we construct a belief of $u_{(i,j)}^k$, denoted $\tilde{\mu}_{(i,j)}^k$, that is used to satisfy the best response condition. We let $\tilde{\mu}_{(i,j)}^k$ to be defined by the following rule. First,

$$b_{(i,j)}(\tilde{\mu}_{(i,j)}^k)(\pi_{-(i,j)}) = \sum_{\pi_{-(i,j)} = \pi_{-(i,j)}(u_{-(i,j)})} \tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k(u_{-(i,j)}).$$

Second, $\left(\tilde{\mu}_{(i,j)}^k \right)_h$ is computed by Bayes rule under $b_{(i,j)}(\tilde{\mu}_{(i,j)}^k)$ if $h \in H(\hat{\pi}_{-i})$ (note that Bayes rule induces a well-defined probability distribution at such h under $b_{(i,j)}$ because $T > \frac{1}{Q}$). For $h \notin H(\hat{\pi}_{-i})$, we set

$$\left(\tilde{\mu}_{(i,j)}^k \right)_h \left(\hat{\alpha}_i(h), (\hat{\pi}_{(n,m)})_{(n,m) \in \bigcup_{w \neq i} J_w} \right) = 1$$

where $\hat{\pi}_{(n,m)}(h') = \hat{\pi}_n(h')$ holds for all $h' \in H_n$ for all $n \in I$ and

$$\hat{a}_i(h)(x, ((i, j), (n, r_n)_{n \neq i})) = \frac{1}{T^{|I|-1}} \hat{a}_i(h)(x)$$

for each $(n, r_n)_{n \neq i} \in \times_{n \neq i} J_n$ and $(x, ((i, j), (n, r_n)_{n \neq i})) \in h$.

b) Constructing the actual versions

We specify the actual versions u^* as follows: For each $i \in I$ and each (i, j) , we set

$$u_{(i,j)}^* = u_{(i,j)}^k \text{ if } \sum_{k' \in \mathbb{N}, k' < k} \left[T \cdot \phi_i(v_i^{k'}) \right] < m \leq \sum_{k' \in \mathbb{N}, k' \leq k} \left[T \cdot \phi_i(v_i^{k'}) \right],$$

$$u_{(i,j)}^* = u_{(i,j)}^l \text{ if } \sum_{k' \in \mathbb{N}, k' \leq |V_i|} \left[T \cdot \phi_i(v_i^{k'}) \right] < m \leq T, \quad \phi_i(v_i^l) > 0 \text{ and } \phi_i(v_i^{l'}) = 0 \text{ for all } l' < l.$$

Let $\pi^{**} = \pi(u^*)$.

c) Checking that the conditions of unitary ϵ -RPCE hold

Since $\frac{T - \sum_{k' \in \mathbb{N}, k' \leq |V_i|} \left[T \cdot \phi_i(v_i^{k'}) \right]}{T} \leq \frac{|V_i|}{T} < \epsilon$, it is straightforward that $\pi_i^* \frac{1}{T}$ -represents $(\pi_{(i,1)}^{**}, \dots, \pi_{(i,T)}^{**})$ for each i . Also, by definition π^{**} is generated by u^* . Coherency holds for each $i \in I$, each $(i, j) \in J_i$ and each $k \in \{1, \dots, |V_i|\}$ by the construction of $\tilde{\mu}_{(i,j)}^k$. Accordance holds by construction. Moreover, the best response condition holds by construction (recall that randomization is conducted independently across players in the construction of $\tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k$). Thus it remains to check the self-confirming condition and the observational consistency condition. To this end, we first note that, for any Γ and T , $D_{(i,j)}$ in the model $Y(\Gamma, T)$ can be seen as an element in the same space as D_i in the model Γ by the construction of the terminal node partitions in $Y(\Gamma, T)$. Henceforth, we abuse notation to write $D_i = D_{(i,j)}$.

The self-confirming condition is satisfied in the original heterogeneous RPCE, so for each v_i^k in the support of ϕ_i , there exists $\tilde{\pi}_{-i} \in \Pi_{-i}$ such that (i) (V, ϕ)

induces $\tilde{\pi}_j$ for version v_i^k for each $j \neq i$ and (ii) $D_i(\pi_i^k, \tilde{\pi}_{-i}) = D_i(\pi_i^k, \pi_{-i}^*)$.

First, by the construction of $\tilde{\pi}_{(i,j)}^k$ and $\tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k$ and Claim 2 that we present below (i) implies:

$$\|D_i(\tilde{\pi}_{(i,j)}^k, \pi_{-(i,j)}(u_{-(i,j)})) - D_i(\pi_i^k, \tilde{\pi}_{-i})\| \leq (\#A)^2 \|(\tilde{\pi}_{(i,j)}^k, \hat{\pi}_{-i}) - (\pi_i^k, \tilde{\pi}_{-i})\| \leq (\#A)^2 \frac{\max_{n \neq i} |V_n|}{T} < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

for each $u_{-(i,j)}$ in the support of $\tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k$, where $\hat{\pi}_n$ represents $(\pi_{-(i,j)}(u_{-(i,j)}))_{(n,m) \in J_n}$ for each $n \neq i$, where $A = \times_{i \in I} \bigcup_{h \in H_i} A(h)$.

Second, by the construction of the actual versions u^* and Claim 2, we have that

$$\|D_i(\pi_i^k, \pi_{-i}^*) - D_i(\pi_{(i,j)}^k, \pi_{-(i,j)}^{**})\| \leq (\#A)^2 \|(\pi_i^k, \pi_{-i}^*) - (\pi_{(i,j)}^k, \hat{\pi}_{-i})\| \leq (\#A)^2 \frac{\max_{n \neq i} |V_n|}{T} < \frac{\epsilon}{2},$$

where $\hat{\pi}_n$ represents $(\pi_{-(i,j)}^*)_{(n,m) \in J_n}$ for each $n \neq i$.

Thus, by the triangle inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} & \|D_i(\pi_{(i,j)}^k, \pi_{-(i,j)}(u_{-(i,j)})) - D_i(\pi_{(i,j)}^k, \pi_{-(i,j)}^{**})\| \leq \\ & \|D_i(\pi_{(i,j)}^k, \pi_{-(i,j)}(u_{-(i,j)})) - D_i(\pi_i^k, \tilde{\pi}_{-i})\| + \|D_i(\pi_i^k, \tilde{\pi}_{-i}) - D_i(\pi_i^k, \pi_{-i}^*)\| + \|D_i(\pi_i^k, \pi_{-i}^*) - D_i(\pi_{(i,j)}^k, \pi_{-(i,j)}^{**})\| \\ & < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + 0 + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

for each $u_{-(i,j)}$ in the support of $\tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k$.

Thus, $v_i = (\pi_i, p_i)$ is ϵ -self-confirming with respect to π^* .

The observational consistency condition is satisfied in the original heterogeneous RPCE, so for each $v_i^k, q_i^k(v_n^l) > 0$ implies that there exists $\hat{\pi}_{-n} \in \Pi_{-n}$ such that (i') (V, ϕ) induces $\hat{\pi}_w$ for v_i^k for each $w \neq n$ and (ii') there exists $\check{\pi}_{-n} \in \Pi_{-n}$ such that (ii')-(i) (V, ϕ) induces $\check{\pi}_w$ for version v_n^l for each $w \neq n$ and (ii)-(ii) $D_n(\pi_n(v_n^l), \check{\pi}_{-n}) = D_n(\pi_n(v_n^l), \hat{\pi}_{-n})$.

First, by the construction of $\tilde{\pi}_{(n,m)}^l$ and $\tilde{p}_{(n,m)}^l$ and Claim 2, we have that (ii')-(i) implies:

$$\|D_n(\pi_{(n,m)}(u_{(n,m)}^l), \pi_{-(n,m)}(u_{-(n,m)})) - D_n(\pi_n(v_n^l), \check{\pi}_{-n})\| \leq$$

$$(\#A)^2 \|(\pi_{(n,m)}(u_{(n,m)}^l), \dot{\pi}_{-n}) - (\pi_n(v_n^l), \dot{\pi}_{-n})\| \leq (\#A)^2 \frac{\max_{w \neq n} |V_w|}{T} < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

for each $u_{-(n,m)}$ in the support of $\tilde{p}_{(n,m)}^l$, where $\dot{\pi}_w$ represents $(\pi_{-(n,m)}(u_{-(n,m)}))_{(w,r) \in J_w}$ for each $w \neq n$.

Second, by the construction of $\tilde{p}_{j_i}^k$ and Claim 2, we have that (i') implies:

$$\|D_n(\pi_n(v_n^l), \hat{\pi}_{-n}) - D_n(\pi_{(n,m)}(u_{(n,m)}^l), (\pi(v_{(i,j)}, \tilde{v}_{-(i,j)}))_{-(n,m)})\| \leq$$

$$(\#A)^2 \|(\pi_n(v_n^l), \hat{\pi}_{-n}) - (\pi_{(n,m)}(u_{(n,m)}^l), \dot{\pi}_{-n})\| \leq (\#A)^2 \frac{\max_{w \neq n} |V_w|}{T} < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

where $\dot{\pi}_w$ represents $(\pi(u_{(i,j)}, \tilde{u}_{-(i,j)}))_{(w,r) \in J_w}$ for each $w \neq n$.

Thus, by the triangle inequality, for all $\tilde{u}_{(n,m)}$ in the support of $\tilde{p}_{(i,j)}^k$, it must be the case that for all $u_{-(n,m)}$ in the support of the conjecture of $\tilde{u}_{(n,m)}$,

$$\|D_n(\pi_{(n,m)}(\tilde{u}_{(n,m)}), \pi_{-(n,m)}(u_{-(n,m)})) - D_n(\pi_{(n,m)}(\tilde{u}_{(n,m)}), (\pi(u_{(i,j)}, \tilde{u}_{-(i,j)}))_{-(n,m)})\| \leq$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \|D_n(\pi_{(n,m)}(\tilde{u}_{(n,m)}), \pi_{-(n,m)}(u_{-(n,m)})) - D_n(\pi_n(v_n^l), \dot{\pi}_{-n})\| + \|D_n(\pi_n(v_n^l), \dot{\pi}_{-n}) - D_n(\pi_n(v_n^l), \hat{\pi}_{-n})\| \\ & + \|D_n(\pi_n(v_n^l), \hat{\pi}_{-n}) - D_n(\pi_{(n,m)}(\tilde{u}_{(n,m)}), (\pi(u_{(i,j)}, \tilde{u}_{-(i,j)}))_{-(n,m)})\| \\ & < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + 0 + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, u_{j_i} is ϵ -observationally consistent. ■

Finally, we provide the statement and the proof of the claim in the above proof.

Claim 2 For all $\pi, \pi' \in \Pi$ and $i \in I$, $\|D_i(\pi) - D_i(\pi')\| \leq (\#A)^2 \cdot \|\pi - \pi'\|$ holds.

Proof. First we show that $\|d(\pi) - d(\pi')\| \leq |A| \cdot \|\pi - \pi'\|$ for any $\pi, \pi' \in \Pi$. To see this, fix π and π' , and let $\|\pi - \pi'\| = \epsilon$. Let $\tilde{A}(z)$ be the set of actions that are taken to reach $z \in Z$, $h(a)$ be the information set such that action a can be taken, and $j(a)$ be the player such that $h(a) \in H_{j(a)}$. For any $z \in Z$,

$$\begin{aligned}
|d(\pi)(z) - d(\pi')(z)| &= \left| \prod_{a \in \tilde{A}(z)} \pi_{j(a)}(h(a))(a) - \prod_{a \in \tilde{A}(z)} \pi'_{j(a)}(h(a))(a) \right| \\
&\leq \left| \prod_{a \in \tilde{A}(z)} \max\{\pi_{j(a)}(h(a))(a), \pi'_{j(a)}(h(a))(a)\} - \prod_{a \in \tilde{A}(z)} \min\{\pi_{j(a)}(h(a))(a), \pi'_{j(a)}(h(a))(a)\} \right| \\
&\leq \left| \prod_{a \in \tilde{A}(z)} \max\{\pi_{j(a)}(h(a))(a), \pi'_{j(a)}(h(a))(a)\} - \prod_{a \in \tilde{A}(z)} (\max\{\pi_{j(a)}(h(a))(a), \pi'_{j(a)}(h(a))(a)\} - \varepsilon) \right| \\
&\leq 1 - (1 - \varepsilon)^{\#A} \leq \#A \cdot \varepsilon = \#A \|\pi - \pi'\|.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\|d(\pi) - d(\pi')\| \leq \#A \cdot \|\pi - \pi'\|. \quad (1)$$

Next, for any $i \in I$,

$$\begin{aligned}
\|D_i(\pi) - D_i(\pi')\| &= \max_{P_i^l \in \mathbf{P}_i} |D_i(\pi)(P_i^l) - D_i(\pi')(P_i^l)| = \max_{P_i^l \in \mathbf{P}_i} \left| \sum_{z \in P_i^l} (d(\pi)(z) - d(\pi')(z)) \right| \\
&\leq \max_{P_i^l \in \mathbf{P}_i} \sum_{z \in P_i^l} |d(\pi)(z) - d(\pi')(z)| \leq \sum_{z \in Z} |d(\pi)(z) - d(\pi')(z)| \\
&\leq \#Z \cdot \max_{z \in Z} |d(\pi)(z) - d(\pi')(z)| \leq \#A \cdot \|d(\pi) - d(\pi')\|. \quad (2)
\end{aligned}$$

Combining equations (1) and (2), we have that $\|D_i(\pi) - D_i(\pi')\| \leq (\#A)^2 \cdot \|\pi - \pi'\|$. ■