



# Lecture 11 Dynamic games

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## Dynamic games



- A **dynamic game** involves some players moving first, others moving later
- We still consider dynamic games of complete information: strategies and payoffs are common knowledge
- However, we make a further distinction:
  - perfect information: every player can make decision with full awareness
  - imperfect information; some decisions are "simultaneous" or Nature moves

## Battle of the Sexes (original)



Now it becomes a dynamic game of perfect information

- A and B agreed to go to either rock concert (R) or science night (S)
  - Let us denote B's options in lower case for clarity

		В	
		r	S
⋖	R	2, 1	0, 0
	S	0, 0	1, 2

- To frame this as a normal game, the two players must act unbeknownst of each other
- Not very realistic nowadays

## Battle of the Sexes (revisited)



- Let us add a more sensible time sequence
- Assume A decides (before B) which event to join, and texts B to let him know
  - Which event should she choose? R or S?
  - A knows (due to complete information) that whatever his/her choice, B's best response is to play along and choose the same thing
  - Since A prefers R over S, his/her best option is to choose R (no uncertainty on this outcome, we will see why)

#### Extensive form



- To unfold the time dimension, we may want more than just the bi-matrix and payoffs
- We need to link possible choices to the knowledge of previous events
  - e.g., we need to model the fact that B acts after receiving A's text (B knows that A is playing R)
- This can be expressed using the so-called **extensive form** of the game
  - Graphically, this can be represented as a decision tree

### Extensive form: ingredients



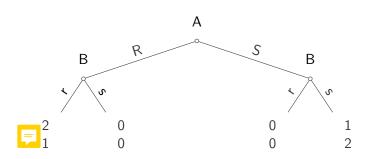
- Set of players
- 2 Their utility functions
- 3 Order of their move turns
- 4 Actions allowed to players when they can move



- 5 Information they have when they can move
- 6 Probability of external events (lotteries)
- 7 All of this: common knowledge

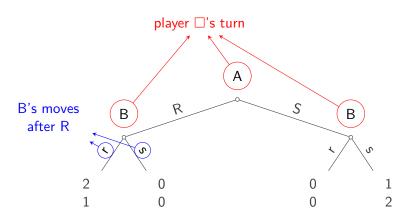
## Extensive form representation



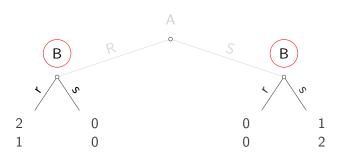


## Extensive form representation







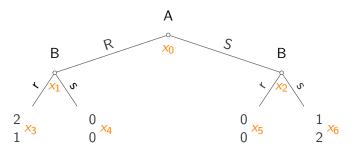


- From these two points on, B's options are the same, but the payoffs are different. Why?
- Because B knows A's choice
- Information is captured by different nodes



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\* priority on the left

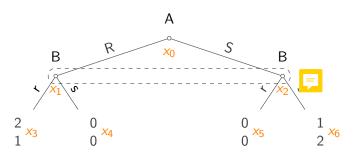


- We can label the nodes of the tree starting from the root  $x_0$  and proceeding until the leaves  $x_3 \dots, x_6$
- Here, in each node, players have different information



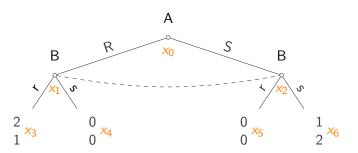
- Nodes go beyond denoting the game stage
- They also describe the **information set**  $h_i$  available to player i who is moving
- If the information set is a <u>singleton</u>  $h_i = \{x_j\}$ , then the node is fully aware of previous moves
- What if a player does not know?
  - In the original "battle of the sexes", B does not know A's choice
  - This means that B does not know if he/she is in  $x_1$  or  $x_2$





■ We circle two nodes with a dashed line to show that a player is not able to distinguish between them (i.e., they belong to the same information set)





Alternative notation: just use a dashed line connecting  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  to show that  $h_B = \{x_1, x_2\}$ 

## Perfect/imperfect information



- In dynamic games with **perfect information** 
  - 1 all information sets are singletons, and
  - 2 there is no choice of Nature
- Instead we have imperfect information in the following cases:
  - endogenous uncertainty: information sets contain multiple nodes (simultaneous moves)
  - exogenous uncertainty: there is a choice of Nature (lotteries)
- When we have imperfect information, players need to form beliefs



- In static games of complete information, we have that
  - pure strategy = action
  - mixed strategy = probability distribution of actions
- In dynamic games, we need to account for the **history of play** (through the information sets)
- A player's pure strategy specifies an action according to what happened in the game
- Think of it as an algorithm: you decide of a countermove for any possible case
  - e.g. "If A plays R I play r; if A plays S I play s"



- In the battle of Sexes, A is moving first and both players choose a move in the set of actions  $A_1 = A_2 = \{R, S\}$
- B has 2 actions, but more strategies
- $\blacksquare$  A **strategy**  $s_B$  for B is a pair of elements of A

$$\underbrace{\left(a_{R}\right.}_{\text{what to do if A plays R what to do if A plays S}}, \underbrace{a_{S})}_{\text{what to do if A plays S}}$$

- $\bullet$   $s_B = (s,s)$  means "I go to S no matter what"
- $s_B = (r,s)$  means "I do what A does"
- $\bullet$   $s_B = (s,r)$  means "I do the opposite of what A does"



- If A and B repeat the original (static) battle for two consecutive nights
- A strategy for both prayers is now a quintuple of moves

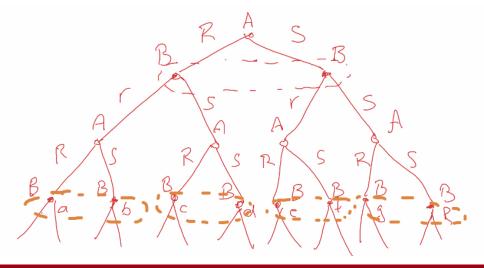
$$(a_1)$$
,  $a_{2Rr}$ ,  $a_{2Rs}$ ,  $a_{2Sr}$ ,  $a_{2Ss}$ )

first move answer to Rr answer to Rs answer to Sr answer to Ss

- $s_i = (r,r,r,r,r)$  "Always go to R both nights"
- $s_i = (r, s, r, r, r)$  "Go to R on the first night. If the outcome of the first night is Rr, go to S on the second night; otherwise, go to R again."



#### Prof example:





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- In principle, we may describe an "algorithm" for all possible strategies
- Yet, even a simple game with two sequential moves and  $|A_1| = |A_2| = 3$  has 27 possible joint (pure) strategies:
  - 3 strategies by player 1
  - 9 strategies by player 2
- Therefore, we will often rely on some implicit description, except for very simple cases

## Sorry, gotta bounce! Send me questions via e-mail