# Algorithmic Game Theory and Applications

Lecture 10:
Games in Extensive Form

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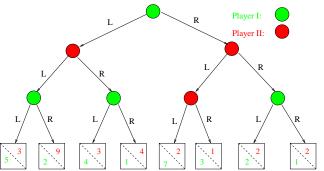
#### the setting and motivation

Do Most games in "real life" are not in "strategic form": players don't pick their entire strategies independently ("simultaneously"). Instead, the game transpires over time, with players making "moves" to which other players react with "moves", etc. Examples: chess, poker, bargaining, dating, . . .

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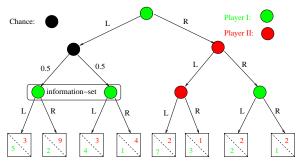
 $\triangleright$  A "game tree" looks something like this:



□ But we may also need some other "features"

#### chance, information, etc.

Some tree nodes may be <u>chance</u> (probabilistic) nodes, controlled by no player (by "<u>nature</u>"). (Poker, Backgammon.) Also, a player may not be able to distinguish between several of its "positions" or "nodes", because not all <u>information</u> is available to it. (Think Poker, with opponent's cards hidden.) Whatever move a player employs at a node must be employed at all nodes in the same "<u>information set</u>".



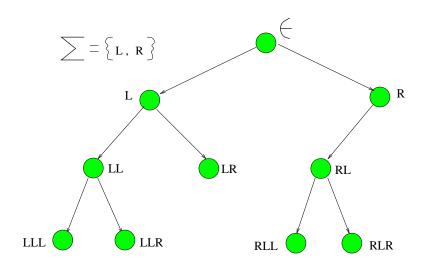
To define extensive form games, we have to formalize all these.



#### Trees: a formal definition

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\triangleright Let \Sigma = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k\} be an alphabet. A <u>tree</u> over \Sigma is a
set T \subseteq \Sigma^*, of <u>nodes</u> w \in \Sigma^* such that: if w = w'a \in T,
then w' \in T. (I.e., it is a prefix-closed subset of \Sigma^*.)
\triangleright For a node w \in T, the children of w are
ch(w) = \{ w' \in T \mid w' = wa , \text{ for some } a \in \Sigma \}. \text{ For } w \in T,
let Act(w) = \{a \in \Sigma \mid wa \in T\} be "actions" available at w.
\triangleright A leaf (or terminal) node w \in T is one where ch(w) = \emptyset.
Let L_T = \{ w \in T \mid w \text{ a leaf} \}.
\triangleright A (finite or infinite) path \pi in T is a sequence
\pi = w_0, w_1, w_2, \ldots of nodes w_i \in T, where if w_{i+1} \in T then
w_{i+1} = w_i a, for some a \in \Sigma. It is a complete path (or play) if
w_0 = \epsilon and every non-leaf node in \pi has a child in \pi.
Let \Psi_T denote the set of plays of T.
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#### Tree example



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- 4. For each "nature" node,  $w \in Pl_0$ , a probability distribution  $q_w: Act(w) \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  over its actions:  $q_w(a) \geq 0$ , &  $\sum_{a \in ACt(w)} q_w(a) = 1.$

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- 5. For each player i > 1, a partition of  $Pl_i$  into disjoint non-empty information sets  $Info_{i,1}, \ldots, Info_{i,r_i}$ , such that  $PI_i = \bigcup_{i=0}^{r_i} Info_{i,j}$ . Moreover, for any i, j, & all nodes  $w, w' \in Info_{i,i}, Act(w) = Act(w')$ . (I.e., the set of possible "actions" from all nodes in one information set is the same.)

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- 6. For each player i, a function  $u_i: \Psi_T \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ , from (complete) plays to the payoff for player i. 4D > 4B > 4B > 4B > 900

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 $\triangleright$  Later, we will focus on the following class of games: **Definition** An extensive form game  $\mathcal{G}$  is called a game of **perfect information**, if every information set  $\mathit{Info}_{i,j}$  contains only 1 node.

#### pure strategies

ightharpoonup A pure strategy  $s_i$  for player i in an extensive game  $\mathcal G$  is a function  $s_i: Pl_i \mapsto \Sigma$  that assigns actions to each of player i's nodes, such that  $s_i(w) \in Act(w)$ , & such that if  $w, w' \in Info_{i,j}$ , then  $s_i(w) = s_i(w')$ . Let  $S_i$  be the set of pure strategies for player i.  $ightharpoonup Given pure profile <math>s = (s_1, \ldots, s_n) \in S_1 \times \ldots \times S_n$ , if there are no chance nodes (i.e.,  $Pl_0 = \emptyset$ ) then s uniquely determines a play  $\pi_s$  of the game: players move according their strategies:

- ▶ Initialize j := 0, and  $w_0 := \epsilon$ ;
- While  $(w_j \text{ is not at a terminal node})$ If  $w_j \in Pl_i$ , then  $w_{j+1} := w_j s_i(w_j)$ ; j := j + 1;
- $\pi_s = w_0, w_1, \dots$
- What if there are chance nodes?



#### pure strategies and chance

If there are chance nodes, then  $s \in S$  determines a probability distribution over plays  $\pi$  of the game.

For finite extensive games, where T is finite, we can calculate the probability  $p_s(\pi)$  of play  $\pi$ , using probabilities  $q_w(a)$ : Suppose  $\pi = w_0, \ldots, w_m$ , is a play of T. Suppose further that for each i < m if  $w_i \in Pl_i$ , then  $w_{i+1} = w_i$ ,  $s_i(w_i)$ . Otherwise

for each j < m, if  $w_j \in PI_i$ , then  $w_{j+1} = w_j s_i(w_j)$ . Otherwise, let  $p_s(\pi) = 0$ .

Let  $w_{j_1}, \ldots, w_{j_r}$  be the chance nodes in  $\pi$ , and suppose, for each  $k=1,\ldots,r$ ,  $w_{j_k+1}=w_{j_k}a_{j_k}$ , i.e., the required action to get from node  $w_{j_k}$  to node  $w_{j_k+1}$  is  $a_{j_k}$ . Then

$$p_s(\pi) := \prod_{k=1}^r q_{w_{j_k}}(a_{j_k})$$

For infinite extensive games, defining these distributions in general requires <u>much more elaborate</u> definitions (proper "measure theoretic" probability). We will avoid the heavy stuff.



#### chance and expected payoffs

For a finite extensive game, given pure profile  $s = (s_1, \ldots, s_n) \in S_1 \times \ldots \times S_n$ , we can, define the "expected payoff" for player i under s as:

$$h_i(s) := \sum_{\pi \in \Psi_t} p_s(\pi) * u_i(\pi)$$

Again, for infinite games, much more elaborate definitions of "expected payoffs" would be required.

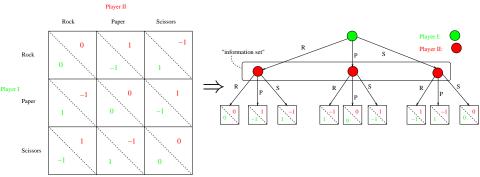
<u>Note:</u> This "expected payoff" does not arise because any player is mixing its strategies. It arises because the game itself contains randomness.

We can also combine both: players may also randomize amongst their strategies, and we could then define the overall expected payoff.



#### from strategic to extensive games

Every finite strategic game  $\Gamma$  can be encoded easily and concisely as an extensive game  $\mathcal{G}_{\Gamma}$ . We illustrate this via the Rock-Paper-Scissor 2-player game (the *n*-player case is an easy generalization):



#### from extensive to strategic games

Every extensive game G can be viewed as a strategic game  $\Gamma_{G}$ : D In  $\Gamma_{G}$ , the strategies for player i are the mappings  $s_{i} \in S_{i}$ .

 $\triangleright$  In  $\Gamma_{\mathcal{G}}$ , we define payoff  $u_i(s) := h_i(s)$ , for all pure profiles s.

If the extensive game  $\mathcal G$  is <u>finite</u>, i.e., tree T is finite, then the strategic game  $\Gamma_{\mathcal G}$  is also finite.

Thus, all the theory we developed for finite strategic games also applies to finite extensive games.

Unfortunately, the strategic game  $\Gamma_{\mathcal{G}}$  is generally exponentially bigger than  $\mathcal{G}$ . Note that the number of pure strategies for a player i with  $|PI_i|=m$  nodes in the tree, is in the worst case  $|\Sigma|^m$ .

So it is often unwise to naively translate a game from extensive to strategic form in order to "solve" it. If we can find a way to avoid this blow-up, we should.

### imperfect information & "perfect recall"

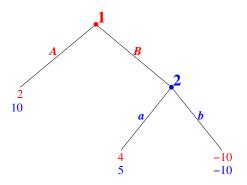
 $\triangleright$  An extensive form game (EFG) is a game of **imperfect information** if it has non-trivial (size > 1) information sets. Players don't have full knowledge of the current "state" (current node of the game tree).

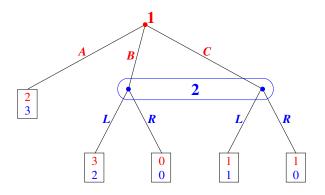
 $\triangleright$  Informally, an imperfect information EFG has **perfect recall** if each player i never "forgets" its own sequence of prior actions and information sets. I.e., a EFG has perfect recall if whenever  $w,w'\in Info_{i,j}$  belong to the same information set, then the "visible history" for player i (sequence of information sets and actions of player i during the play) prior to hitting node w and w' must be exactly the same.

▷ [Kuhn'53]: with perfect recall it suffices to restrict players' strategies to **behavior strategies**: strategies that only randomize (independently) on actions at each information set.
 ▷ Perfect recall is often assumed as a "sanity condition" for EFGs (most games we encounter do have perfect recall).

#### subgames and (subgame) perfection

- ▷ A **subgame** of an extensive form game is any subtree of the game tree which has *self-contained information sets*. (I.e., every node in that subtree must be contained in an information set that is itself entirely contained in that subtree.)
- $\triangleright$  For an extensive form game G, a profile of behavior strategies  $b=(b_1,\ldots,b_n)$  for the players is called a **subgame perfect equilibrium** (SGPE) if it defines a Nash equilibrium for *every* subgame of G.
- ▷ [Selten'75]: Nash equilibrium (NE) (and even SPGE) is inadequately refined as a solution concept for extensive form games. In particular, such equilibria can involve
- "Non-credible threats":





Addressing this general inadequecy of NE and SGPE requires a more refined notion of equilibrium called **trembling-hand perfect equilibrium** [Selten'73].



#### solving games of imperfect info.

For EFGs with perfect recall there are ways to avoid the exponential blow-up of converting to normal form. We only briefly mention algorithms for imp-inf games. (See, e.g., [Koller-Megiddo-von Stengel'94].)

⊳ In strategic form 2-player zero-sum games we can find minimax solutions efficiently (P-time) via LP. For 2-player zero-sum extensive imp-info games (without perfect recall), finding a minimax solution is **NP-hard**. NE's of 2-player EFGs can be found in exponential time.

Description > The situation is better with perfect recall: 2-player zero-sum imp-info games of perfect recall can be solved in P-time, via LP, and 2-player NE's for arbitrary perfect recall games can be found in exponential time using a Lemke-type algorithm.

 $\triangleright$  [Etessami'2014]: For EFGs with  $\ge$  3 players with perfect recall, computing refinements of Nash equilibrium (including "trembling-hand perfect" and "quasi-perfect") can be reduced to computing a NE for a 3-player normal form game.

Our main focus will be games of  $\underline{\text{perfect}}$  information. There the situation is much easier.

#### games of perfect information

A game of perfect information has only 1 node per information set. So, for these we can forget about information sets.

Examples: Chess, Backgammon, . . . counter-Examples: Poker, Bridge, . . .

**Theorem**([Kuhn'53]) Every finite extensive game of perfect information,  $\mathcal{G}$ , has a NE (in fact a SGPE) in pure strategies. In other words, there is a pure profile  $(s_1, \ldots, s_n) \in S$  that is a Nash Equilibrium (and a subgame perfect equilibrium).

Our proof provides an efficient algorithm to compute such a pure profile, given  $\mathcal{G}$ , using "backward induction".

A special case of this theorem says the following:

**Proposition**([Zermelo'1912]) *In Chess, either:* 

- 1. White has a "winning strategy", or
- 2.Black has a "winning strategy", or
- 3. Both players have strategies to force a draw.

Next time, perfect information games.

