Extensive form games

Five pirates' game



Five pirates' game

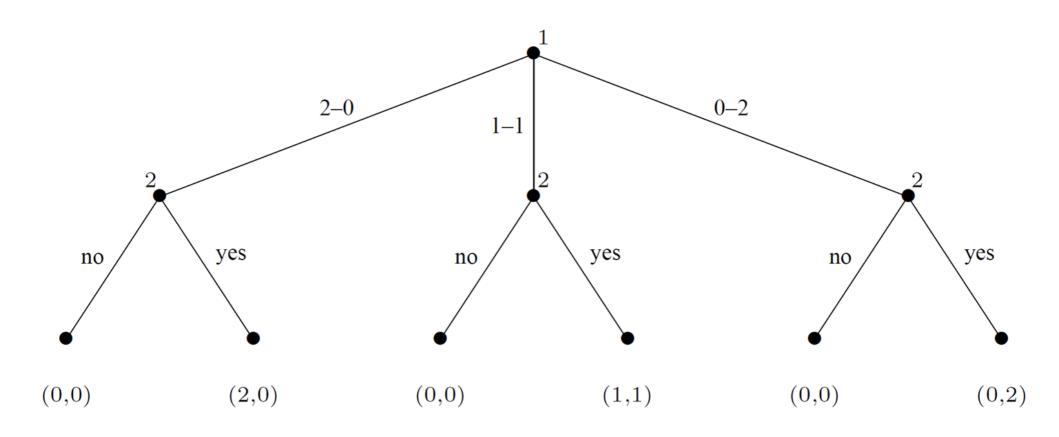
- 5 pirates found a chest containing 1000 gold coins
- Instead of dividing it uniformly, they decided to play the following game
 - Each pirate (after a raffle) will propose a way to divide the coins
 - If the proposal is accepted by the majority, it will occur
 - If not, the pirate who made the proposal will be thrown at the sea
 - Each pirate wants to maximize the amount of coins he will receive
 - All pirates are blood thirsty, i.e., they prefer a dead pirate over an alive pirate

Extensive form games

- The normal form game representation does not incorporate any notion of sequence, or time, of the actions of the players
- The extensive form is an alternative representation that makes the temporal structure explicit
- Two variants:
 - perfect information extensive-form games
 - imperfect-information extensive-form games

- A tree in the sense of graph theory
 - each node represents the choice of one of the players
 - each edge represents a possible action
 - the leaves represent final outcomes over which each player has a utility function
- In certain circles (in particular, in artificial intelligence), these are known simply as game trees

The sharing game



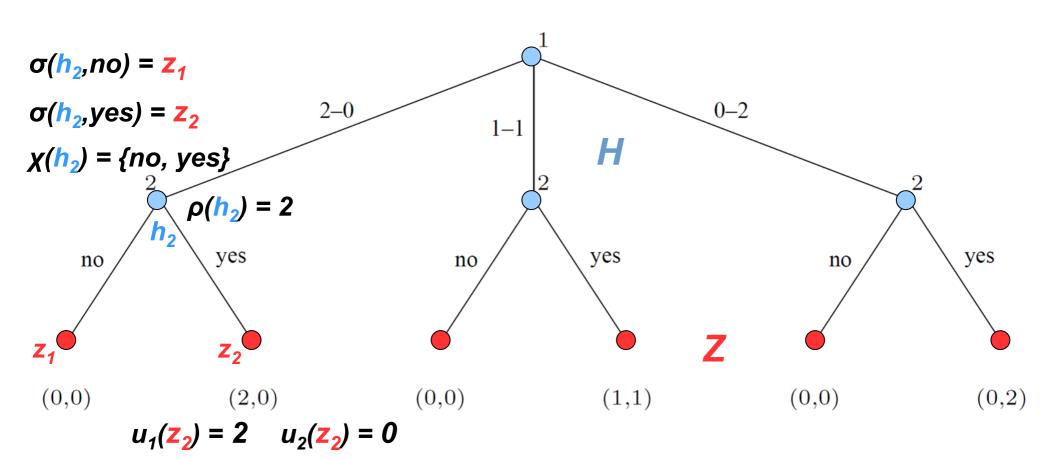
- A (finite) perfect-information game (in extensive form) is a tuple $G = (N,A,H,Z,\chi,\rho,\sigma,u)$, where:
 - N is a set of n players
 - A is a (single) set of actions
 - **H** is a set of nonterminal choice nodes
 - Z is a set of terminal nodes, disjoint from H
 - $\chi: H \to 2^A$ is the action function, which assigns to each choice node a set of possible actions

- A (finite) perfect-information game (in extensive form) is a tuple $G = (N,A,H,Z,\chi,\rho,\sigma,u)$, where:
 - N is a set of n players
 - A is a (single) set of actions
 - **H** is a set of nonterminal choice nodes
 - Z is a set of terminal nodes, disjoint from H
 - $\chi: H \to 2^A$ is the action function
 - • P: H → N is the player function, which assigns to each nonterminal node a player i ∈ N who chooses an action at that node

- A (finite) perfect-information game (in extensive form) is a tuple $G = (N,A,H,Z, \chi, \rho, \sigma, u)$, where:
 - . N is a set of n players
 - A is a (single) set of actions
 - **H** is a set of nonterminal choice nodes
 - Z is a set of terminal nodes, disjoint from H
 - $\chi: H \to 2^A$ is the action function
 - $\rho: H \rightarrow N$ is the player function
 - $\sigma: H \times A \rightarrow H \cup Z$ is the successor function, which maps a choice node and an action to a new choice node or terminal node such that for all $h_1, h_2 \in H$ and $a_1, a_2 \in A$, if $\sigma(h_1, a_1) = \sigma(h_2, a_2)$ then $h_1 = h_2$ and $a_1 = a_2$

- A (finite) perfect-information game (in extensive form) is a tuple $G = (N,A,H,Z,\chi,\rho,\sigma,u)$, where:
 - N is a set of n players
 - A is a (single) set of actions
 - **H** is a set of nonterminal choice nodes
 - Z is a set of terminal nodes, disjoint from H
 - $\chi: H \to 2^A$ is the action function
 - $\rho: H \rightarrow N$ is the player function
 - $\sigma: H \times A \rightarrow H \cup Z$ is the successor function
 - $u = (u_1, \ldots, u_n)$, where $u_i : Z \to \mathbb{R}$ is a real-valued utility function for player i on the terminal nodes Z

- . The sharing game
 - . $N = \{1,2\}, A_1 = \{2-0, 1-1, 0-2\}, A_2 = \{no, yes\}$



- Since the choice nodes form a tree, we can unambiguously identify a node with its history
- We can also define the descendants of a node
 h, namely all the choice and terminal nodes in the subtree rooted at h

- What is the set of pure strategies?
 - A complete specification of which deterministic action to take at every node belonging to that player

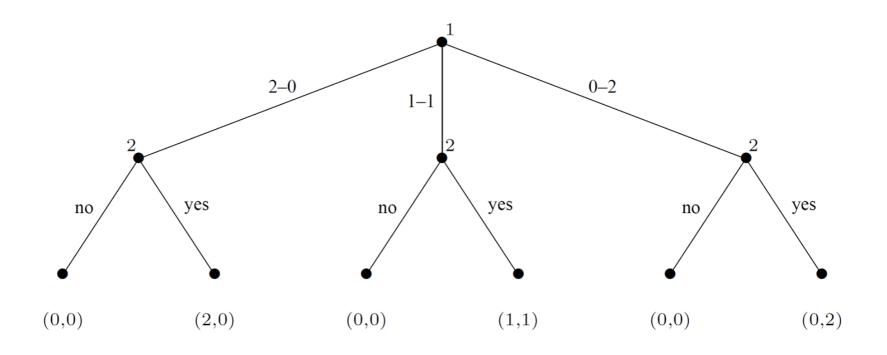
Pure strategies

- Let $G = (N,A,H,Z, \chi, \rho, \sigma, u)$ be a perfect-information extensive-form game
- Then the pure strategies of player *i* consist of the Cartesian product:

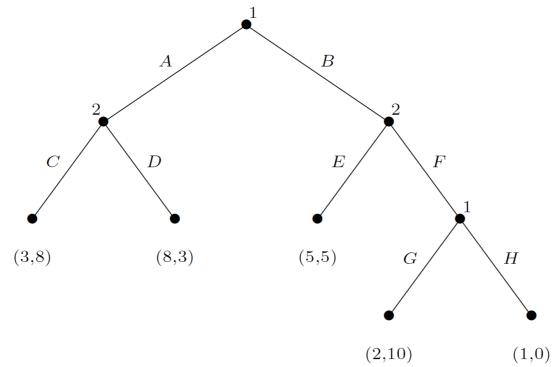
$$\prod_{h \in H, \ \rho(h)=i} \chi(h)$$

- Notice that the definition contains a subtlety
 - An agent's strategy requires a decision at each choice node, regardless of whether or not it is reacheable

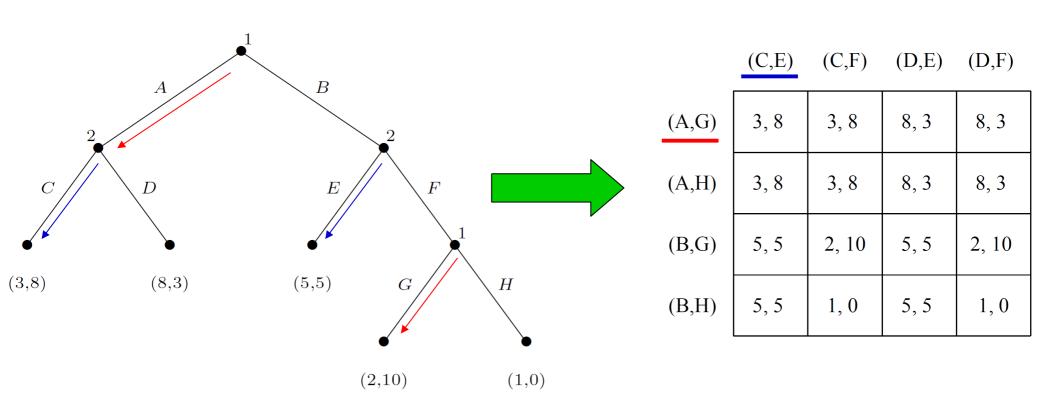
- $S_1 = \{2-0, 1-1, 0-2\}$
- S₂ = {(yes, yes, yes), (yes, yes, no), (yes, no, yes), (yes, no, no), (no, yes, yes), (no, yes, no), (no, no, yes), (no, no, no)}



- In order to define a complete strategy for this game, each of the players must choose an action at each of his two choice nodes
 - . $S_1 = \{(A,G), (A,H), (B,G), (B,H)\}$
 - . $S_2 = \{(C,E), (C, F), (D,E), (D, F)\}$

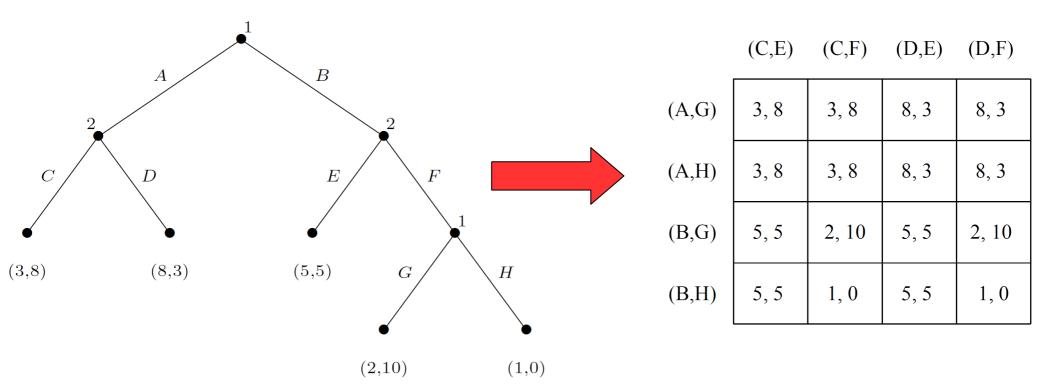


 For every perfect-information game there exists a corresponding normal-form game



- Given our new denition of pure strategy, we are able to reuse our old denitions of:
 - mixed strategies
 - best response
 - Nash equilibrium

- The temporal structure can result in a certain redundancy within the normal form
 - different # of outcomes: 5 vs. 16



General lesson

- While a transformation can always be performed, it can result in an exponential blowup of the game representation
- This is an important lesson, since the didactic examples of normal-form games are very small, wrongly suggesting that this form is more compact

- Can we transform a normal form game into a extensive form game?
 - Not always
 - e.g.: Battle of the Sexes
 - Intuitively, the problem is that perfect-information extensive form games cannot model simultaneity
 - The general characterization of the class of normalform games for which there exist corresponding perfect-information games in extensive form is somewhat complex

. Theorem

 Every (finite) perfect-information game in extensive form has a pure-strategy Nash equilibrium

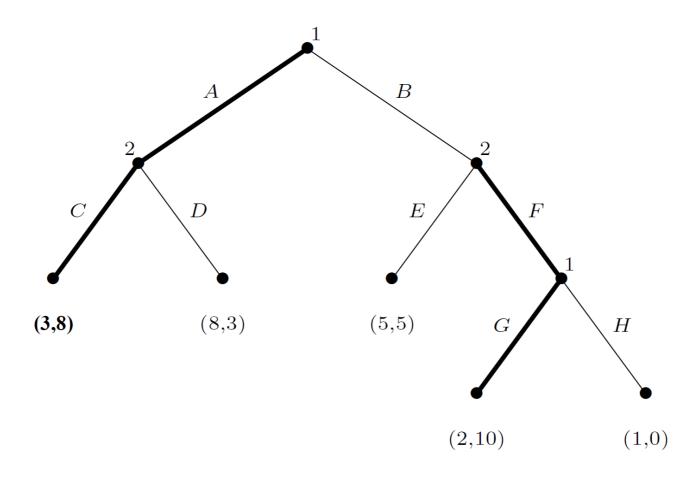
- This is perhaps the earliest result in game theory, due to Zermelo in 1913
- Intuition: since players take turns, and history is available to everyone, it is never necessary to introduce randomness into action selection in order to find an equilibrium
- Both this intuition and the theorem will cease to hold when we discuss more general classes of games such as imperfect-information games in extensive form

	(C,E)	(C,F)	(D,E)	(D,F)
(A,G)	3, 8	3, 8	8, 3	8, 3
(A,H)	3, 8	3, 8	8, 3	8, 3
(B,G)	5, 5	2, 10	5, 5	2, 10
(B,H)	5, 5	1, 0	5, 5	1, 0

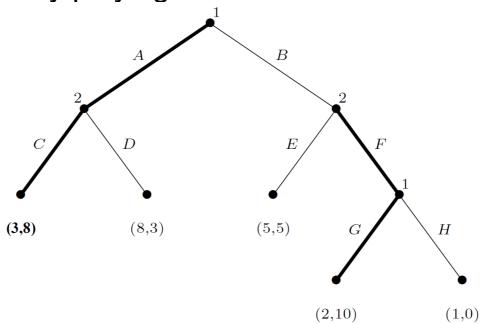
	(C, E)	(C, F)	(D, E)	(D, F)
(A, G)	3, 8	3,8	8, 3	8, 3
(A, H)	3, 8	3,8	8, 3	8, 3
(B, G)	5, 5	2, 10	5, 5	2, 10
(B, H)	5, 5	1, 0	5, 5	1, 0

	(C, E)	(C, F)	(D, E)	(D, F)
(A, G)	3, 8	3,8	8, 3	8, 3
(A, H)	3, 8	3,8	8, 3	8, 3
(B, G)	5, 5	2, 10	5, 5	2, 10
(B, H)	5, 5	1, 0	5, 5	1, 0

- What are the NE of this game?
 - {(A,G), (C,F)}

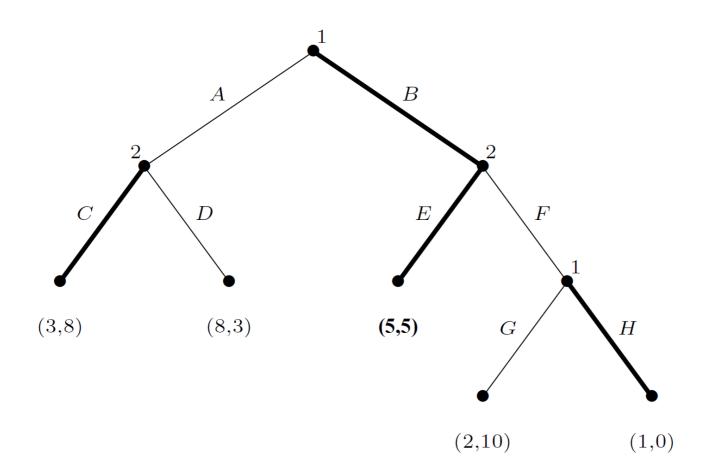


- . What are the NE of this game?
 - . {(A,G), (C,F)}
 - If player 2 played (C,E) rather than (C, F), then player 1 would prefer B
 - as it is, player 1 gets a payoff of 3 by playing A rather than a payoff of 2 by playing B

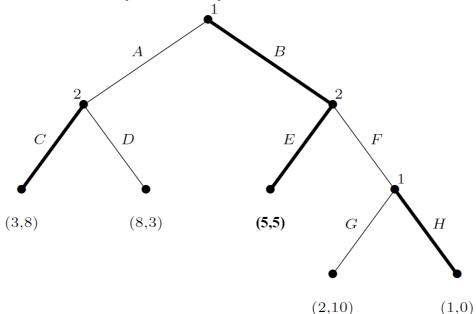


	(C, E)	(C, F)	(D, E)	(D, F)
(A, G)	3, 8	3,8	8, 3	8, 3
(A, H)	3, 8	3,8	8, 3	8, 3
(B, G)	5, 5	2, 10	5, 5	2, 10
(B, H)	5, 5	1, 0	5, 5	1, 0

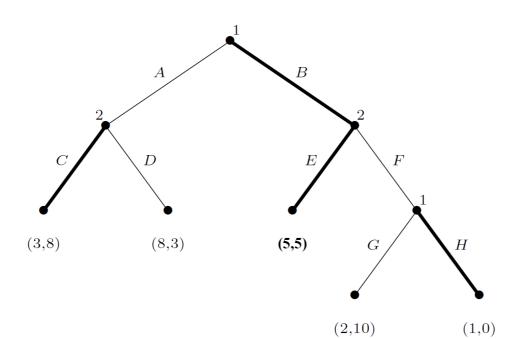
- What are the NE of this game?
 - {(B,H), (C,E)}



- What are the NE of this game?
 - {(B,H), (C,E)}
 - {(B,G), (C,E)} is not an equilibrium
 - the only reason that player 2 chooses to play the action E is that he knows that player 1 would play H at his second decision node (threat)



- What are the NE of this game?
 - {(B,H), (C,E)}
 - If player 2 played F, would player 1 really follow through on his threat and play H, or would he relent and pick G instead?



- To formally capture the reason why the {(B,H),
 (C,E)} equilibrium is unsatisfying, and
- to define an equilibrium refinement concept that does not suffer from this problem:

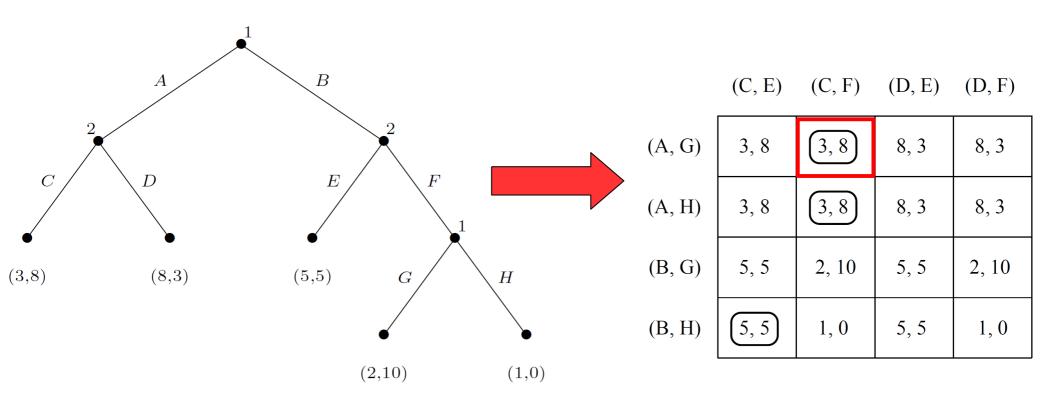
Definition

- Given a perfect-information extensive-form game G, the subgame of G rooted at node h is the restriction of G to the descendants of h
- The set of subgames of G consists of all of subgames of G rooted at some node in G

Definition

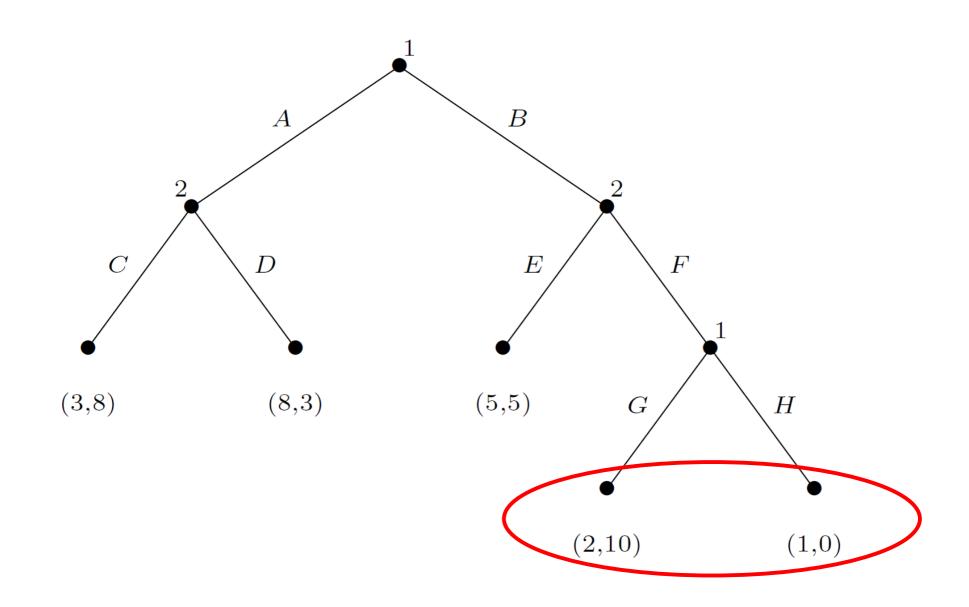
- The subgame-perfect equilibrium (SPE) of a game G
 are all strategy profiles s such that for any subgame G'
 of G, the restriction of s to G' is a Nash equilibrium of G'
- Since G is its own subgame, every SPE is also a Nash equilibrium
- SPE is a stronger concept than Nash equilibrium
 - every SPE is a NE, but not every NE is a SPE
- Every perfect-information extensive-form game has at least one SPE
- This definition rules out "noncredible threats"

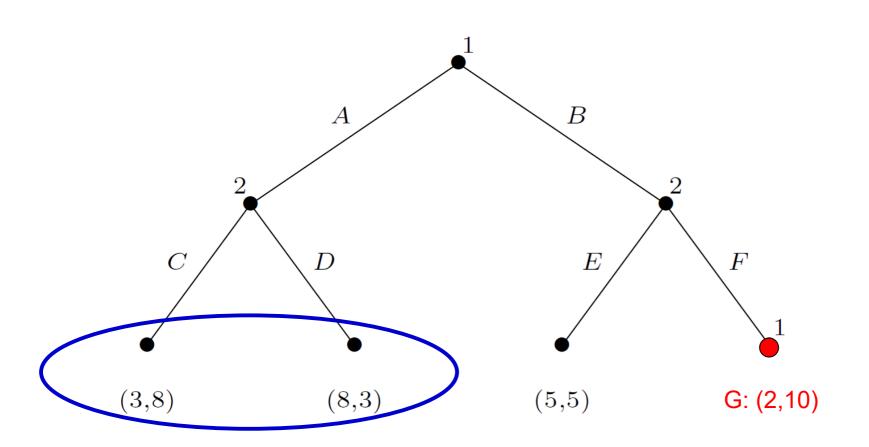
- What are the SPE?
 - It is not credible that player 1 will play H

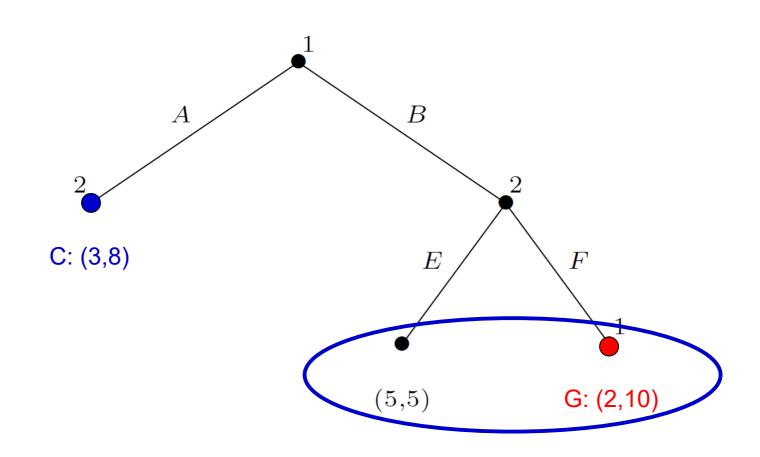


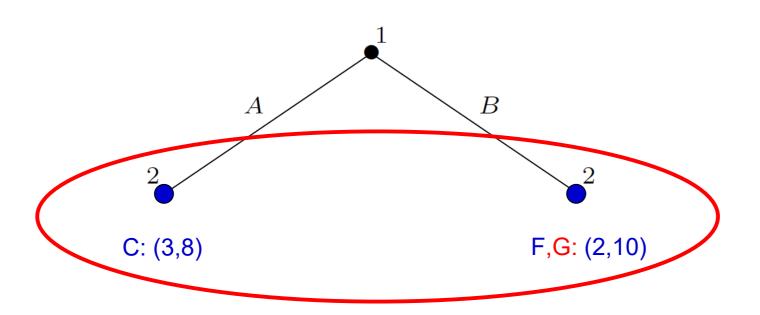
- Inherent in the concept of <u>SPE</u> is the principle of backward induction
- One identifies the equilibria in the "bottom-most" subgame trees, and assumes that those equilibria will be played as one backs up and considers increasingly larger trees
- We can use this procedure to compute a sample Nash equilibrium
- This is good news: not only are we guaranteed to find a SPE, but also this procedure is computationally simple

- It can be implemented as a <u>single depth-first</u> <u>traversal</u> of the game tree and thus requires time linear in the size of the game representation
- Recall in contrast that the best known methods for finding Nash equilibria of general games require time exponential in the size of the normal form
- The induced normal form of an extensive-form game is exponentially larger than the original representation











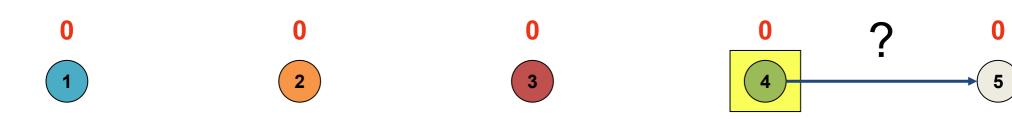
A,C: (3,8)

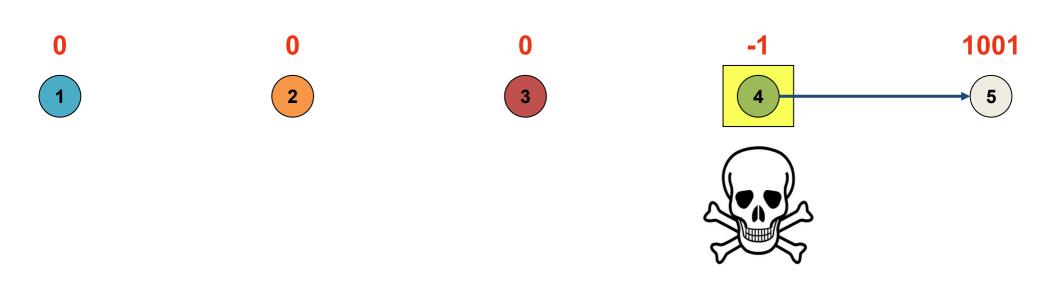
N

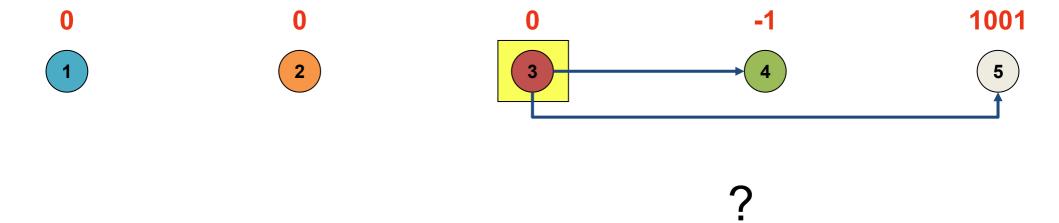
U

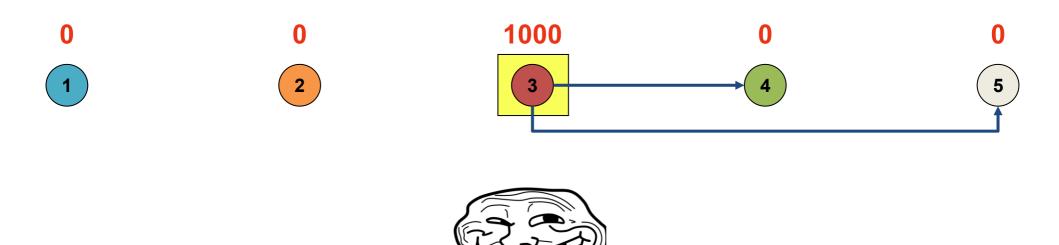


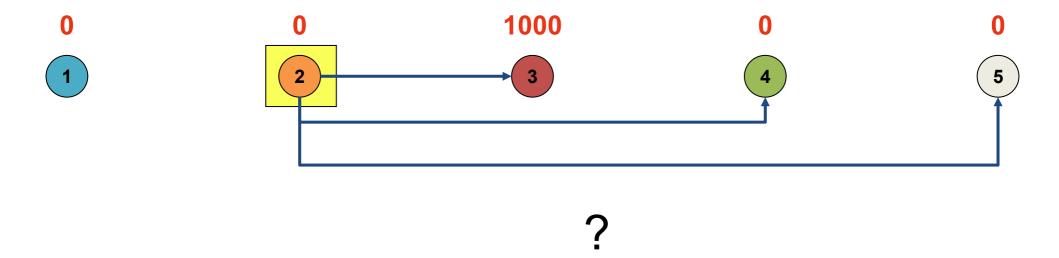


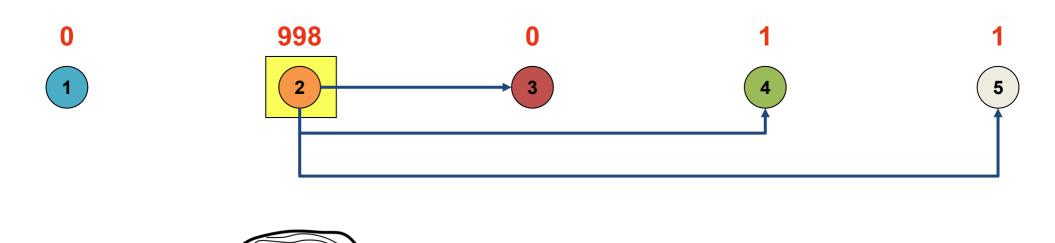


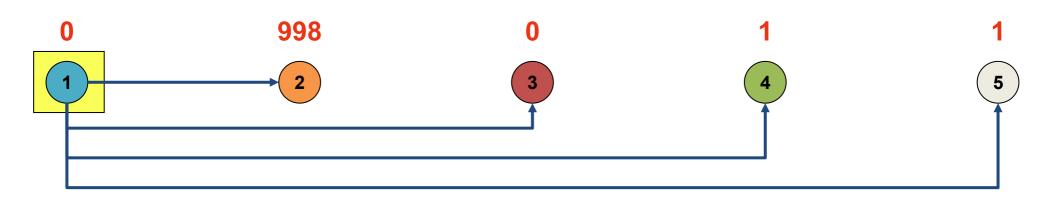


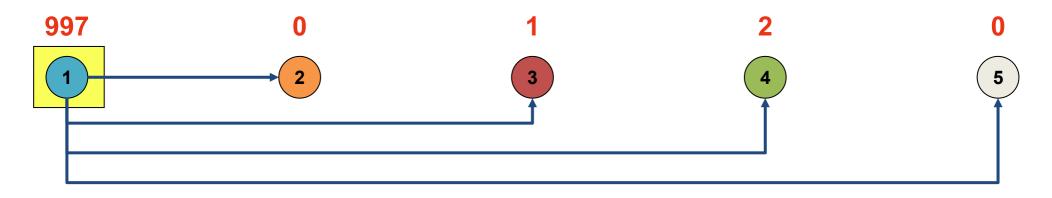














Ultimatum game

Split \$10 between you and your partner

- If your partner accepts the split, done
- If your partner rejects, both gets \$0

Oosterbeek, H., Sloof, R., & Van De Kuilen, G. (2004). Cultural differences in ultimatum game experiments: Evidence from a meta-analysis.
 Experimental economics, 7(2), 171-188.

Country	N (1)	Mean offer (2)	Mean reject (3)	IDV (4)	PDI (5)	AUTH (6)	TRUST (7)	COMP (8)	GDP pc (9)	GINI index (10)
Austria	1	39.21	16.10	55	11	-0.05	0.32	6.78	12955	23.1
Bolivia	1	37.00	0.00						1721	42.0
Chile	1	34.00	6.70	23	63	1.10	0.23	5.94	4890	56.5
Ecuador	2	34.50	7.50	8	78				2830	46.6
France	3	40.24	30.78	71	68	-0.15	0.23	5.97	13918	32.7
Germany	1	36.70	9.52	67	35	-1.30	0.38	6.75	11666	30.0
Honduras	1	45.70	23.05						1385	53.7
Indonesia	4	46.63	14.63	14	78				2102	36.5
Israel	5	41.71	17.73	54	13				9843	35.5
Japan	3	44.73	19.27	46	54	-1.58	0.42	5.52	15105	24.9
Yugoslavia	1	44.33	26.67	27	76	-0.65	0.30	7.07	4548	31.9
Kenya	1	44.00	4.00	27	64				914	57.5
Mongolia	2	35.50	5.00						1842	33.2
Netherlands	2	42.25	9.24	80	38	-0.55	0.56	5.60	13281	31.5
Papua New- Guinea	2	40.50	33.50						1606	50.9
Paraguay	1	51.00	0.00						2178	59.1
Peru	1	26.00	4.80	16	64	1.75	0.05	6.54	2092	46.2
Romania	2	36.95	23.50				0.16	7.32	2043	28.2
Slovakia	3	43.17	12.67			-0.55	0.23	6.97	4095	19.5
Spain	1	26.66	29.17	51	57	0.60	0.34	5.70	9802	38.5
Sweden	1	35.23	18.18	71	31	-1.35	0.66	6.78	13986	25.0
Tanzania	4	37.50	19.25	27	64				534	38.2
UK	2	34.33	23.38	89	35	0.10	0.44	6.19	12724	32.6
US East	22	40.54	17.15	91	40	1.11	0.50	6.70	17945	40.1
US West	6	42.64	9.41	91	40	1.11	0.50	6.70	17945	40.1
Zimbabwe	2	43.00	8.50						1162	56.8

for each available action a at non-terminal node h

recursively fetch the utility for player $\rho(h)$ at child node $\sigma(h,a)$

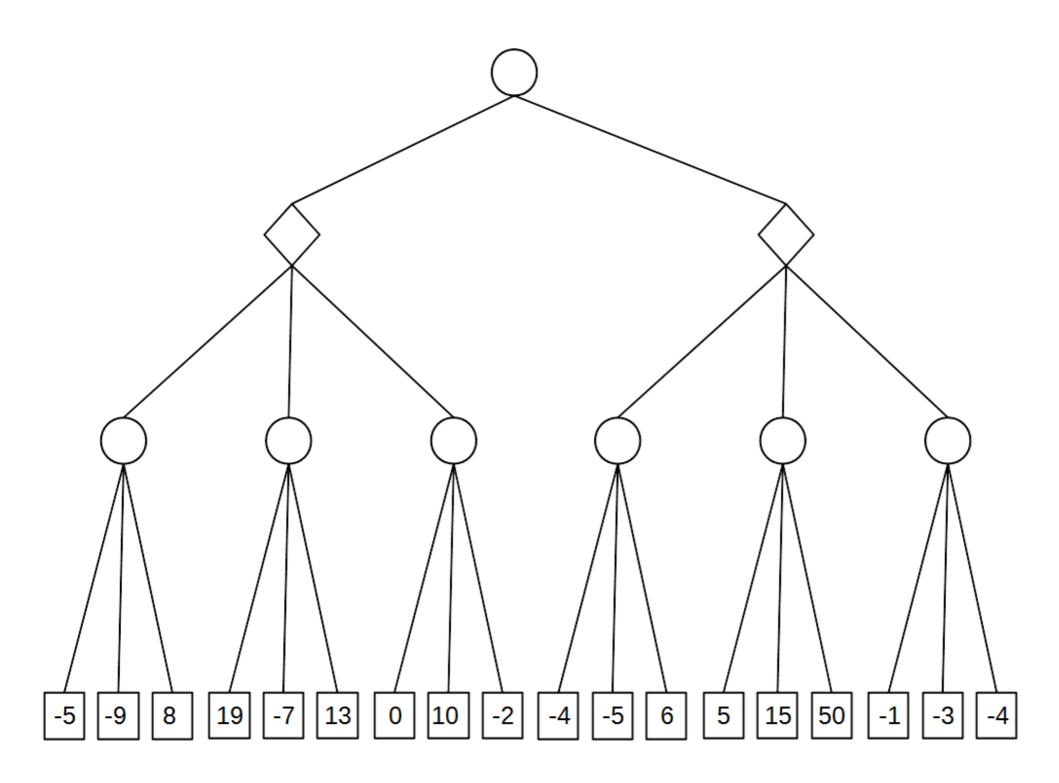
returns the highest possible utility for player $\rho(h)$ at node h

```
function BACKWARDINDUCTION (node h) returns u(h)
if h \in Z then
 return u(h)
                                                                             // h is a terminal node
best\_util \leftarrow -\infty
forall a \in \chi(h) do
    util\_at\_child \leftarrow \texttt{BackwardInduction}(\sigma(h, a))
    if util\_at\_child_{\rho(h)} > best\_util_{\rho(h)} then \_best\_util \leftarrow util\_at\_child
\mathbf{return}\;best\_util
                                                                                           B
                                                         \boldsymbol{A}
                                C
                                                                                              \boldsymbol{E}
                                                      D
                                                                                                                   F
                         (3,8)
                                                        (8,3)
                                                                                       (5,5)
                                                                                                             G
                                                                                                                                   H
                                                                                                     (2,10)
                                                                                                                                     (1,0)
```

- Demonstrates that in principle a sample SPE is effectively computable
- However, in practice many game trees are not enumerated in advance and are hence unavailable for backward induction
- For example, the extensive-form representation of chess has around 10¹⁵⁰ nodes, which is vastly too large to represent explicitly

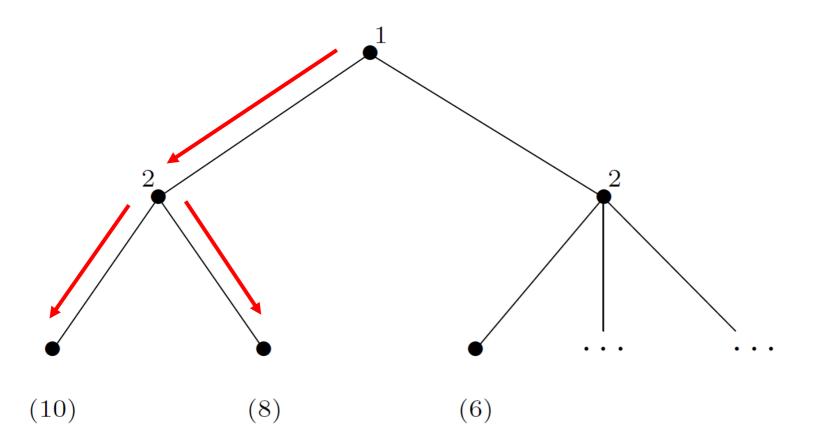
- For such games it is more common to discuss
 - the size of the game tree in terms of the average branching factor b (the average number of actions which are possible at each node)
 - a maximum depth m (the maximum number of sequential actions)
- A procedure which requires time linear in the size of the representation thus expands O(b^m) nodes
- Unfortunately, we can do no better than this on arbitrary perfect-information games

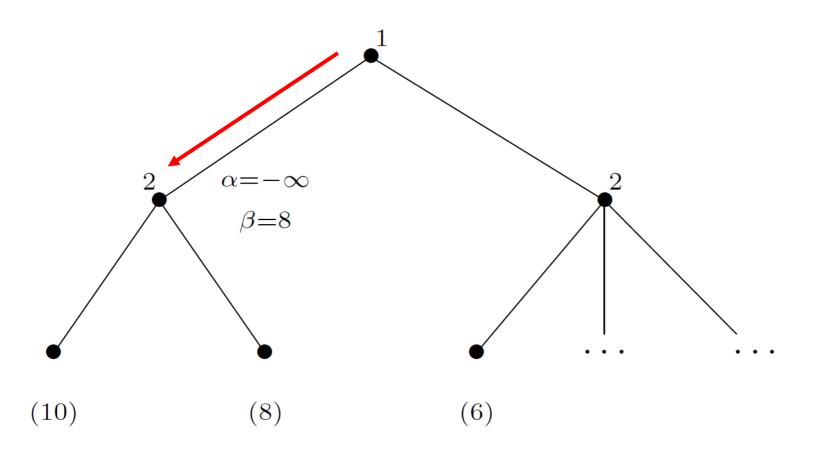
- BACKWARDINDUCTION has another name in the two-player, zero-sum context: the minimax algorithm
 - In such games, only a single payoff number is required to characterize any outcome
 - Player 1 wants to maximize this number, while player 2 wants to minimize it
 - Propagates these single payoff numbers from the leaves up to the root

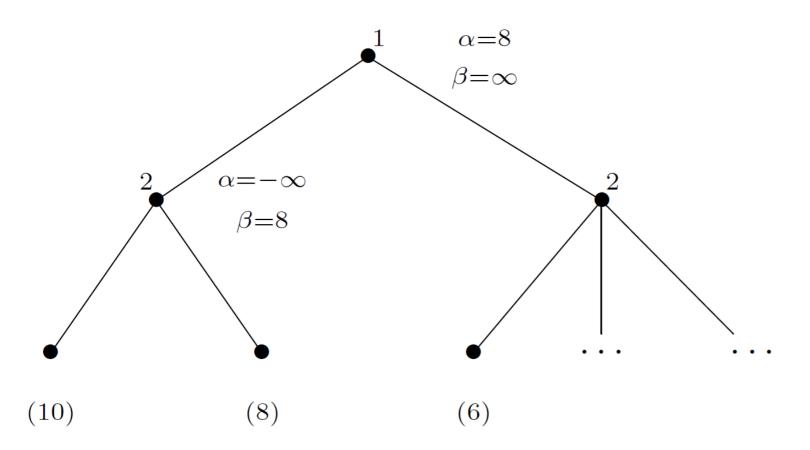


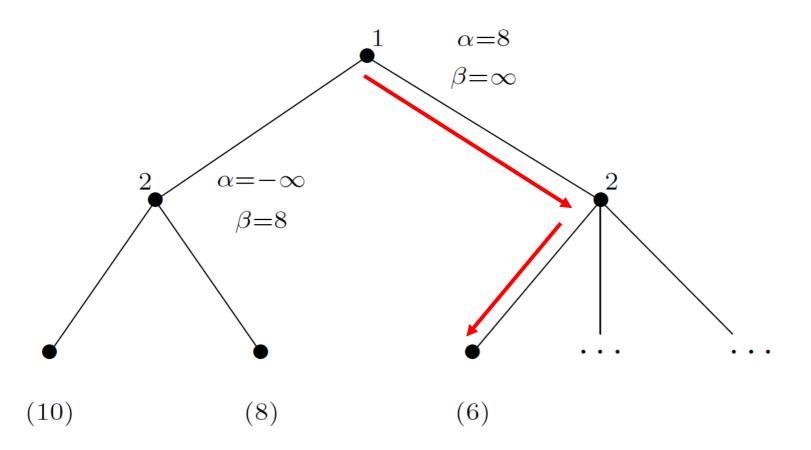
- Each decision node for player 1 is labeled with the maximum of the labels of its child nodes
- Each decision node for player 2 is labeled with the minimum of that node's children's labels
- The label on the root node is the value of the game
 - player 1's payoff in equilibrium

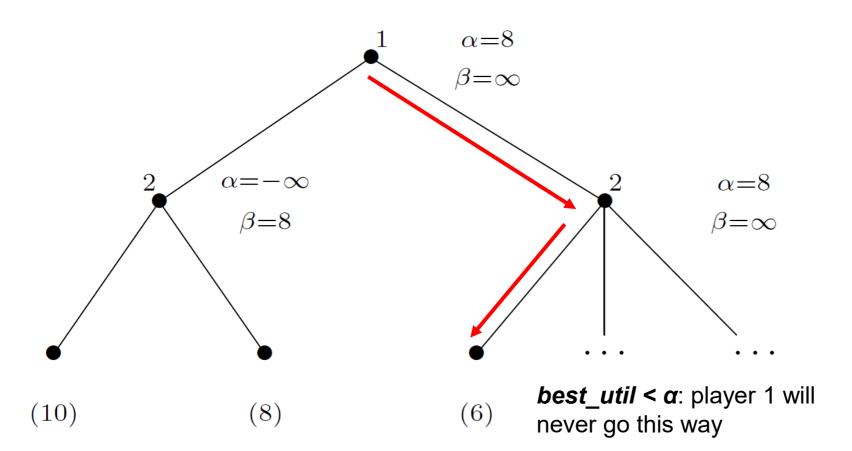
- How can we improve on the minimax algorithm?
- The fact that player 1 and player 2 always have strictly opposing interests means that we can prune away some parts of the game tree
- We can recognize that certain subtrees will never be reached in equilibrium, even without examining the nodes in these subtrees
- This leads us to a new algorithm called ALPHABETAPRUNING

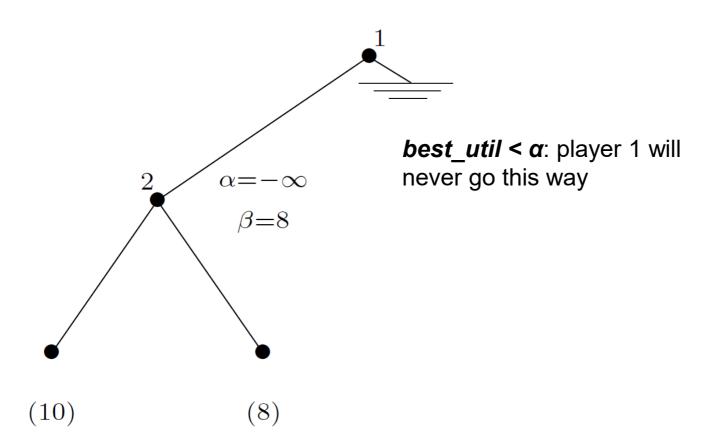










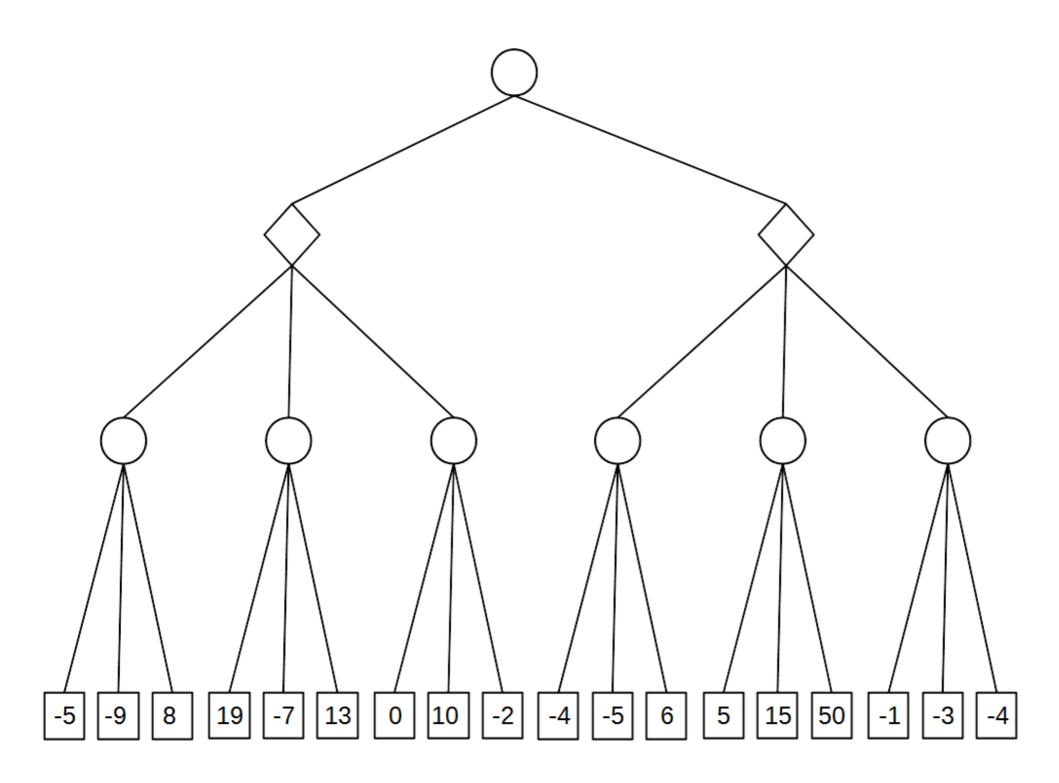


```
function ALPHABETAPRUNING (node h, real \alpha, real \beta) returns u_1(h)
if h \in Z then
| return u_1(h)
                                                                         // h is a terminal node
best\_util \leftarrow (2\rho(h) - 3) \times \infty
                                                          //-\infty for player 1; \infty for player 2
forall a \in \chi(h) do
    if \rho(h) = 1 then
    best\_util \leftarrow \min(best\_util, \texttt{AlphaBetaPruning}(\sigma(h, a), \alpha, \beta)) if best\_util \leq \alpha then 
 \bot return best\_util 
 \beta \leftarrow \min(\beta, best\_util)
return best util
```

```
\alpha = best already explored
function AlphaBetaPruning (node h, real \alpha, real \beta) returns u_1(h)
                                                                                               option along path to the root
if h \in Z then
   return u_1(h)
                                                                                              for maximizer
                                                                  // h is a terminal node
best\_util \leftarrow (2\rho(h) - 3) \times \infty
                                                                                               \beta = best already explored
                                                      //-\infty for player 1; \infty for player 2
forall a \in \chi(h) do
                                                                                               option along path to the root
    if \rho(h) = 1 then
                                                                                              for minimizer
        best util \leftarrow \max(best\ util, AlphaBetaPruning(\sigma(h, a), \alpha, \beta))
        if best\ util \geq \beta then
         ∟ return best util
        \alpha \leftarrow \max(\alpha, best\ util)
   else
        best util \leftarrow \min(best \ util, AlphaBetaPruning(\sigma(h, a), \alpha, \beta))
        if best\ util \leq \alpha then
          _ return best\_util
        \beta \leftarrow \min(\beta, best\_util)
return best util
```

 $(10) \qquad (8)$

(6)



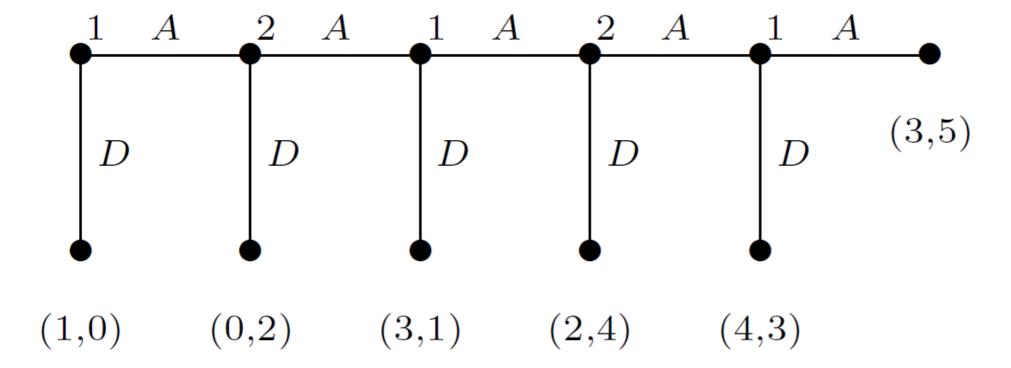
- The effectiveness depends on the order in which nodes are considered
 - If player 1 (2) considers nodes in increasing (decreasing) order of their value, then no nodes will ever be pruned
 - In the best case (where nodes are ordered in decreasing (increasing) value for player 1 (2), it has complexity of $O(b^{m/2})$
 - If nodes are examined in random order, then the analysis becomes more complicated
 - when b is fairly small, the complexity of alpha-beta pruning is $O(b^{3m/4})$, which is still an exponential improvement

- In practice, performance is between the best case and the random case
- Offers substantial practical benefit in two-player, zero-sum games for which the game tree is represented implicitly

- Commonly used to build strong computer players for two-player board games such as chess
 - The game tree in practical games can be so large that it is infeasible to search all the way down to leaf nodes
 - Instead, the search proceeds to some shallower depth
 - Where do we get the node values to propagate up using backward induction?

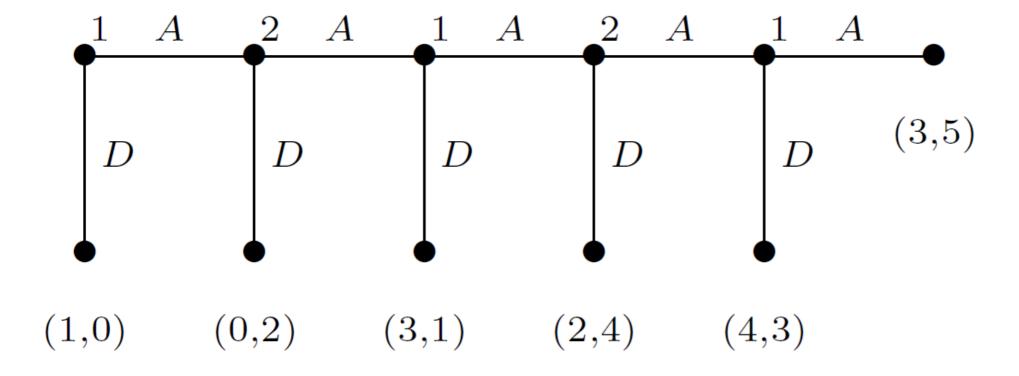
- The trick is to use an evaluation function to estimate the value of the deepest evaluation node reached
 - taking into function account game-relevant features such as board position, number of pieces for each player, who gets to move next, etc., and either built by hand or learned)

Centipede game



Centipede game

What backward induction says about this game?



Imperfect Information Games

- In many situations we may want to model agents
 - needing to act with partial or no knowledge of the actions taken by others
 - or even agents with limited memory of their own past actions



Imperfect Information Games

• Each player's choice nodes are partitioned into information sets $I_i = \{I_{i,1}, ..., I_{i,ki}\}$

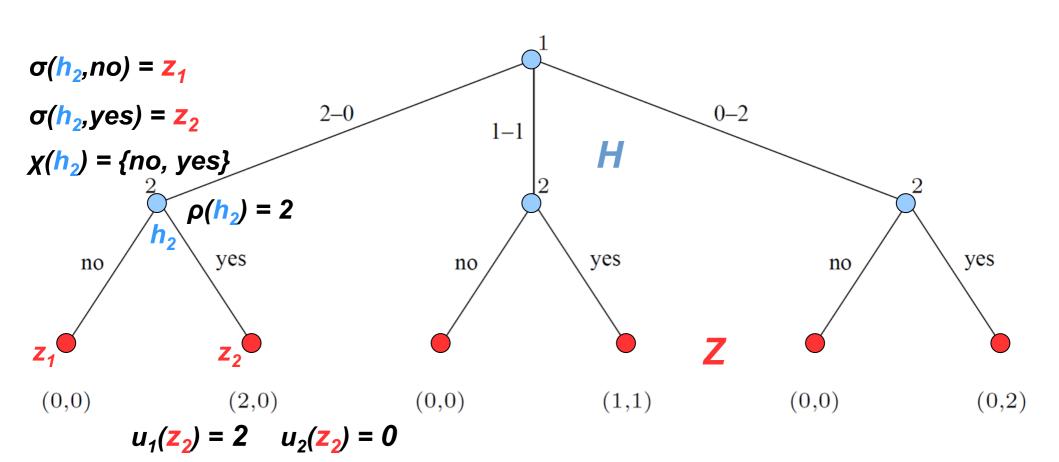
 Intuitively, if two choice nodes are in the same information set then the agent cannot distinguish between them



I have to decide without knowing which cards my opponents have

Perfect-information games in extesive form

- . The sharing game
 - . $N = \{1,2\}, A_1 = \{2-0, 1-1, 0-2\}, A_1 = \{no, yes\}$

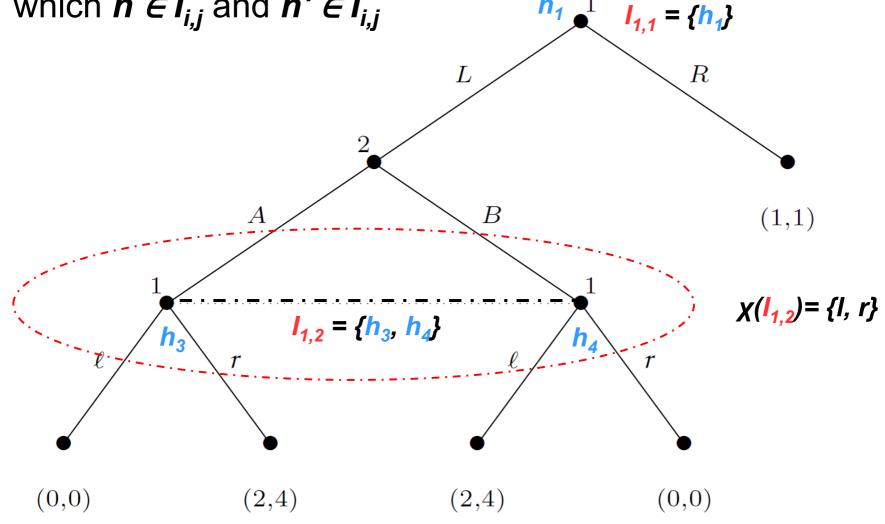


Imperfect Information Games

- An imperfect-information game (in extensive form) is a tuple (N, A, H, Z, χ, ρ, σ, u, I), where:
 - (N, A, H, Z, χ, ρ, σ, u) is a perfect-information extensive-form game; and
 - . $I=(I_1,\ldots,I_n)$, where $I_i=(I_{i,1},\ldots,I_{i,ki})$ is a set of equivalence classes on (i.e., a partition of) $\{h\in H:\rho(h)=i\}$ with the property that $\chi(h)=\chi(h')$ and $\rho(h)=\rho(h')$ whenever there exists a j for which $h\in I_{i,j}$ and $h'\in I_{i,j}$

Imperfect Information Games

• $\chi(h) = \chi(h')$ and $\rho(h) = \rho(h')$ whenever there exists a j for which $h \in I_{i,j}$ and $h' \in I_{i,j}$ $h_1 = \{h_1\}$

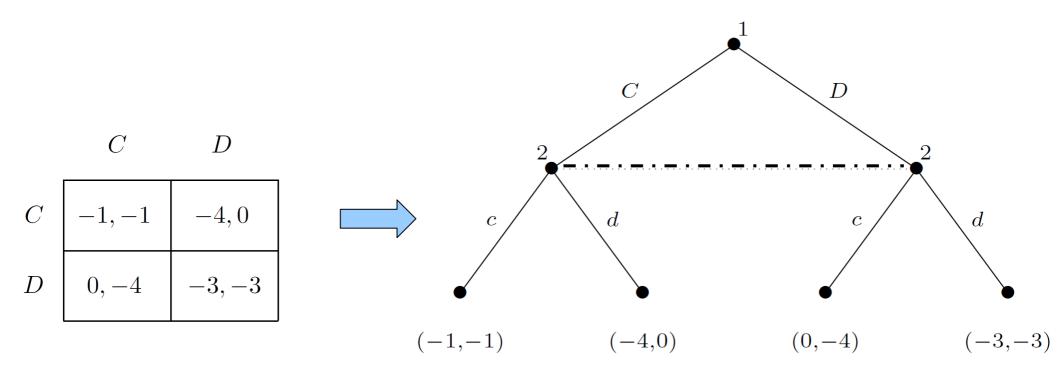


- . Let $G = (N, A, H, Z, \chi, \rho, \sigma, u, I)$ be an imperfectinformation extensive-form game
- Then the pure strategies of player i consist of the Cartesian product

$$\prod_{I_{i,j}\in I_i}\chi(I_{i,j})$$

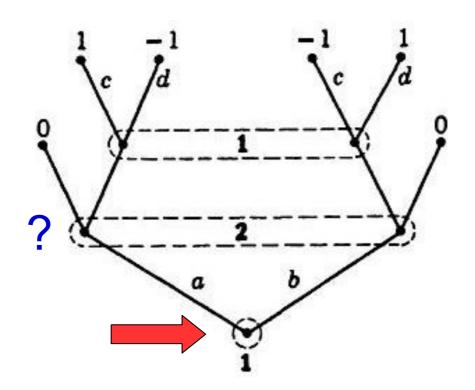
 Perfect-information games is a imperfectinformation game that every equivalence class of each partition is a singleton

Prisoner's Dilemma

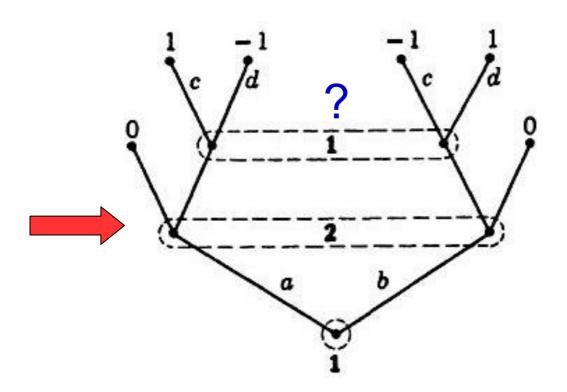


Any normal-form game can be trivially transformed into an equivalent imperfect-information game

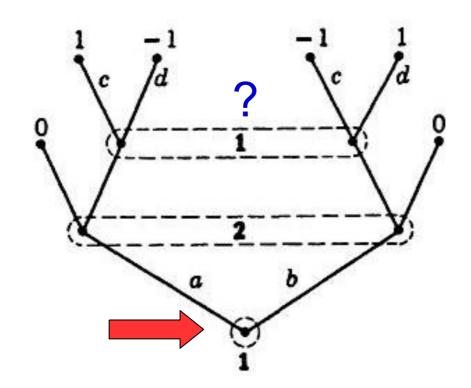
- Let's think about this game...
 - What player **2** knows about player **1** action at the root node?



- Let's think about this game...
 - What player 1 knows about player 2 action?



- Let's think about this game...
 - What player 1 knows about his previous action?



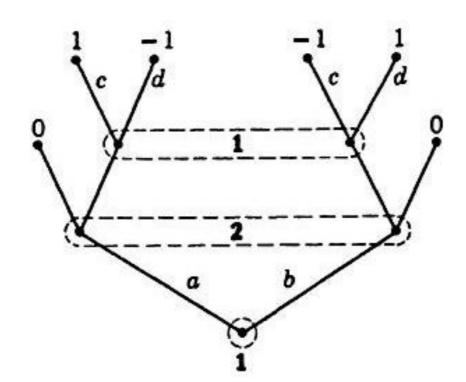
Behavioral Strategies

- Independent coin toss every time an information set is encountered
 - A vector of probability distributions over the information sets
 - in some games there are outcomes that are achieved via <u>mixed strategies</u> but not by any <u>behavioral strategies</u>, and vice-versa

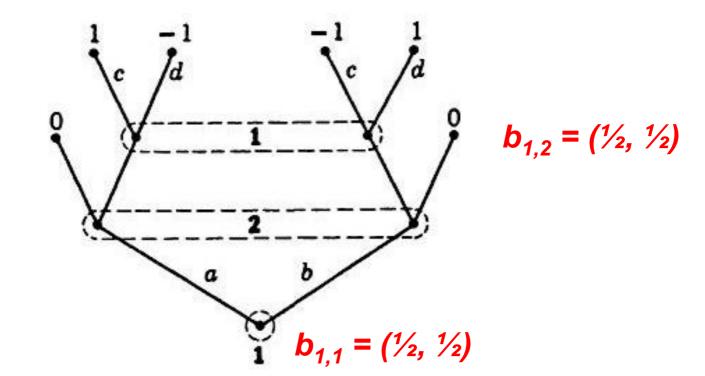
Behavioral Strategies

• A behavioral strategy of player $i \in N$ is a map b_i assigning to each information set $I_{i,j} \in I_i$ a probability distribution over the set of actions $\chi(I_{i,j})$

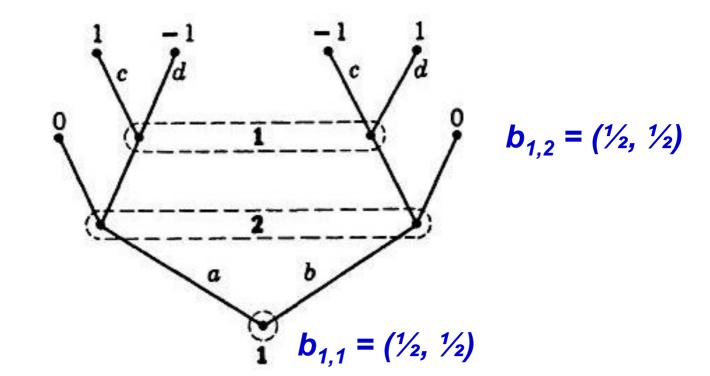
- Which mixed strategy profile gives the best payoff for player $\mathbf{1}$ for a given \mathbf{s}_2 = "always continue"
 - s_1 : $\frac{1}{4}$ (a,c), $\frac{1}{4}$ (a,d), $\frac{1}{4}$ (b,c), $\frac{1}{4}$ (b,d)
 - s_1'' : $\frac{1}{2}$ (a,c), $\frac{0}{2}$ (a,d), $\frac{0}{2}$ (b,c), $\frac{1}{2}$ (b,d)



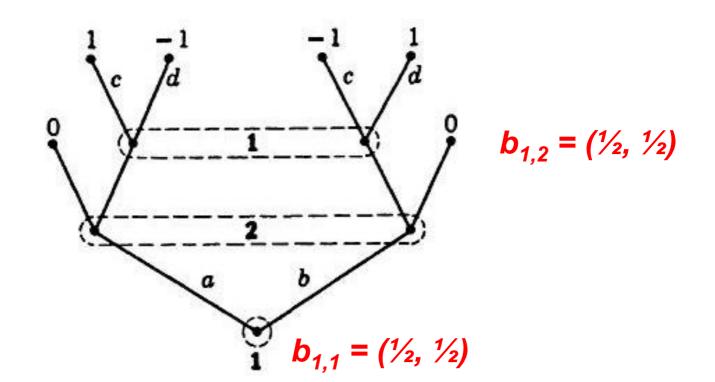
- What is the equivalent behavioral strategy for s₁'?
 - s_1 : $\frac{1}{4}$ (a,c), $\frac{1}{4}$ (a,d), $\frac{1}{4}$ (b,c), $\frac{1}{4}$ (b,d)



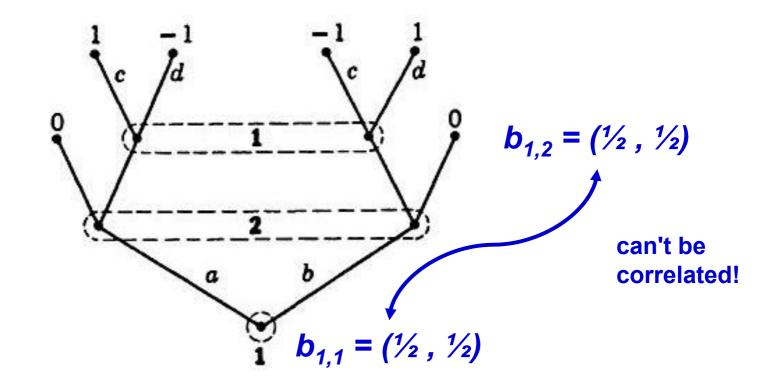
- What is the equivalent behavioral strategy for s_1 "?
 - s_1'' : $\frac{1}{2}$ (a,c), $\frac{0}{2}$ (a,d), $\frac{0}{2}$ (b,c), $\frac{1}{2}$ (b,d)



- What are the expected payoffs of these strategies?
 - s_1 : $\frac{1}{4}$ (a,c), $\frac{1}{4}$ (a,d), $\frac{1}{4}$ (b,c), $\frac{1}{4}$ (b,d)
 - . $u_1(b) = (\frac{1}{2} * \frac{1}{2} * 1) + (\frac{1}{2} * \frac{1}{2} * -1) + (\frac{1}{2} * \frac{1}{2} * -1) + (\frac{1}{2} * \frac{1}{2} * -1) = 0$
 - $u_1(s_1', s_2) = (\frac{1}{4} * 1) + (\frac{1}{4} * -1) + (\frac{1}{4} * -1) + (\frac{1}{4} * 1) = 0$



- What are the expected payoffs of these strategies?
 - s_1'' : $\frac{1}{2}$ (a,c), $\frac{0}{2}$ (a,d), $\frac{0}{2}$ (b,c), $\frac{1}{2}$ (b,d)
 - . $u_1(b) = (\frac{1}{2} * \frac{1}{2} * 1) + (\frac{1}{2} * \frac{1}{2} * -1) + (\frac{1}{2} * \frac{1}{2} * -1) + (\frac{1}{2} * \frac{1}{2} * -1) = 0$
 - $u_1(s_1'', s_2) = (\frac{1}{2} * 1) + (\frac{1}{2} * 1) = 1$



Perfect Recall

- Games in which no player forgets any information they knew about moves made so far
 - in particular, they remember precisely all their own moves

Perfect Recall #1

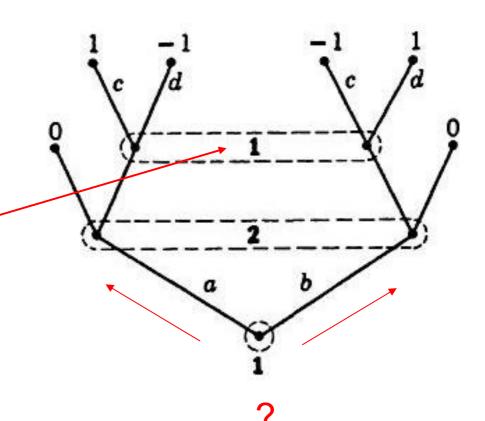
- Player i has perfect recall in an imperfect-information game G if for any two nodes h, h' that are in the same information set for player i,
- for any path h_0 , a_0 , h_1 , a_1 , . . . , h_m , a_m , h from the root of the game to h and for any path h_0 , a_0 , h_1 , a_1 , . . . , $h_{m'}$, $a_{m'}$, h' from the root to h' it must be the case that:
 - m = m'
 - for all $0 \le j \le m$, if $\rho(h_j) = i$, then h_j and h_j' are in the same equivalence class for i
 - for all $0 \le j \le m$, if $\rho(h_j) = i$, then $a_j = a_j$
- **G** is a game of perfect recall if every player has perfect recall in it

Perfect Recall #2

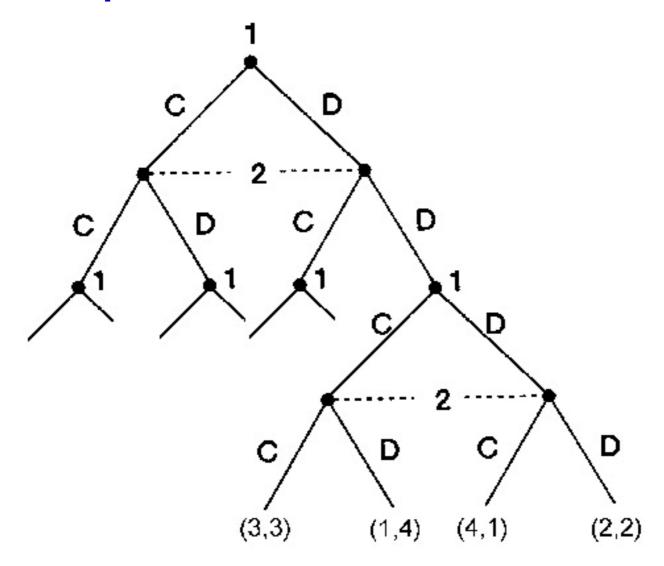
- An information set I_{i,j} with a given branch (action) r is a signaling information set if there is a later information set I_{i,k} such that:
 - There is at least one node of I_{i,k} that <u>can</u> be reached by a path starting with r
 - There is at least one node of $I_{i,k}$ that <u>cannot</u> be reached by any path starting with r
- A game is said to have perfect recall if there are no signaling information sets

Does not have perfect recall

1 cannot remember from where he came from



Does have perfect recall



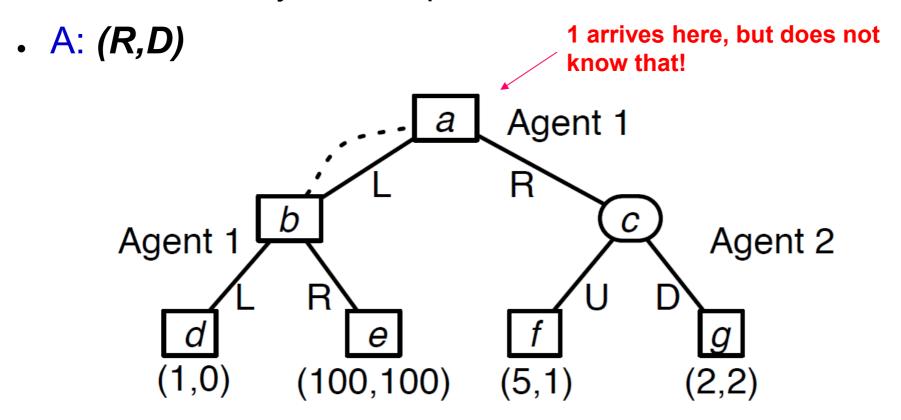
Perfect Recall

- . Theorem 5.2.4 (Kuhn, 1953)
 - In a game of perfect recall, any mixed strategy of a given agent can be replaced by an equivalent behavioral strategy, and vice-versa
 - These two strategies yield the same probabilities on the set of outcomes

Perfect Recall

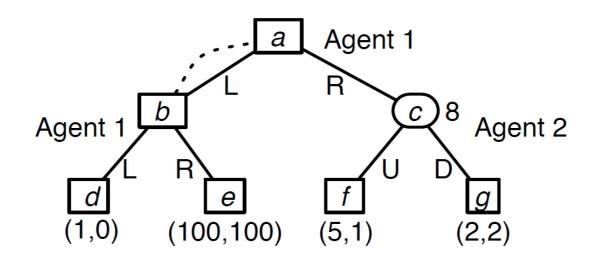
- . Theorem 5.2.4 (Kuhn, 1953)
 - Q: What does it mean?
 - A: This result means that for such games it does not matter to the players whether they take the global view of mixed strategies or the more restricted (and plausible) view of behavioral strategies

- Q: What is the equilibrium using mixed strategies?
 - D is a strictly best response for 2
 - R is a strictly best response for 1



Behavioral Strategies

- What is an equilibrium in behavioral strategies?
 - Again, D strongly dominant for 2
 - If 1 uses the behavioural strategy (p; 1 p), his expected utility is
 - . $1 * p^2 + 100 * p(1 p) + 2 * (1 p)$
 - It simplifies to $-99p^2 + 98p + 2$
 - Its maximum is at p = 98/198
 - Thus equilibrium is (98/198; 100/198); (0, 1)



Computing equilibria: the sequence form

- An obvious way to find an equilibrium of an extensive-form game is to first convert it into a normal-form game, and then find the equilibria using, for example, the Lemke–Howson algorithm
- This method is inefficient, since the number of actions in the normal-form game is exponential in the size of the extensive-form game
 - The normal-form game is created by considering all combinations of information set actions

Computing equilibria: the sequence form

- One way to avoid this problem is to operate directly on the extensive-form representation by employing behavioral strategies to express a game
 - using a description called the sequence form

- Let G be an imperfect-information game of perfect recall
- The sequence-form representation of G is a tuple (N, Σ, g, C), where
 - . N is a set of agents
 - . $\Sigma = (\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2, \dots, \Sigma_n)$, where Σ_i is the set of sequences available to agent i
 - $g = (g_1, \ldots, g_n)$, where $g_i : \Sigma \to \mathbb{R}$ is the payoff function for agent i
 - $C = (C_1, \ldots, C_n)$, where C_i is a set of linear constraints on the realization probabilities of agent i

- What is a sequence $\sigma \in \Sigma_i$?
 - Insight: while there are exponentially many pure strategies in an extensive-form game, there are only a small number of nodes in the game tree
 - Does not build a player's strategy around the idea of pure strategies
 - The sequence form builds it around paths in the tree from the root to each node

- A sequence of actions of player i ∈ N, defined by a node h ∈ H ∪ Z of the game tree, is the <u>ordered set</u> of player i's actions that lie on the path from the root to h
- Let Ø denote the sequence corresponding to the root node
- The set of sequences of player i is denoted Σ_i
- $\Sigma_1 \times \cdots \times \Sigma_n$ is the set of all sequences

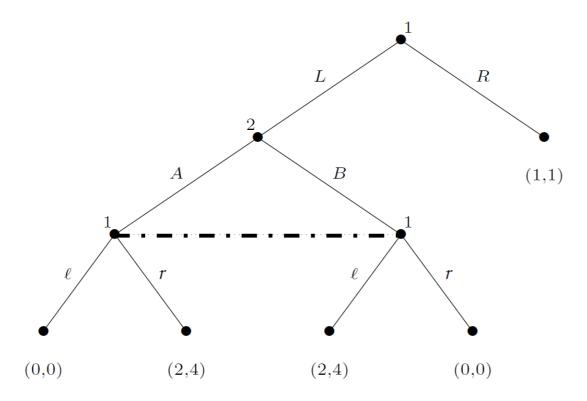
- A sequence can thus be thought of as a string listing the action choices that player i would have to take in order to get from the root to a given node h
- h may or may not be a leaf node
- The other players' actions that form part of this path are not part of the sequence

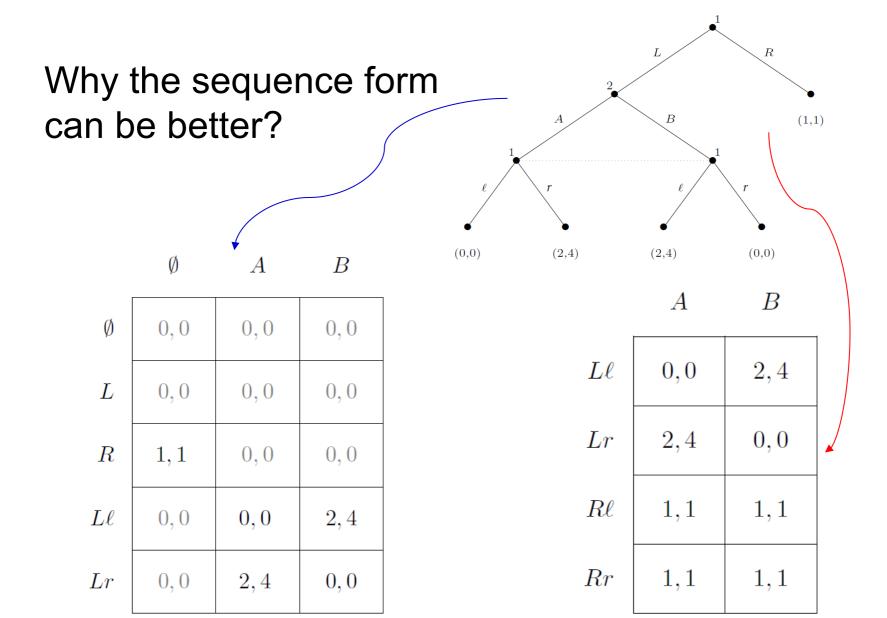
Definition

- . The payoff function $g_i: \Sigma \to \mathbb{R}$ for agent i is given by
 - $g_i(\sigma) = u_i(z)$ if a leaf node $z \in Z$ would be reached when each player played his sequence $\sigma_i \in \sigma$
 - $g_i(\sigma) = 0$ otherwise

Given the set of sequences Σ and the payoff function g, we can think of the sequence form as defining a tabular representation of an imperfect-information extensive-form game, much as the induced normal form does.

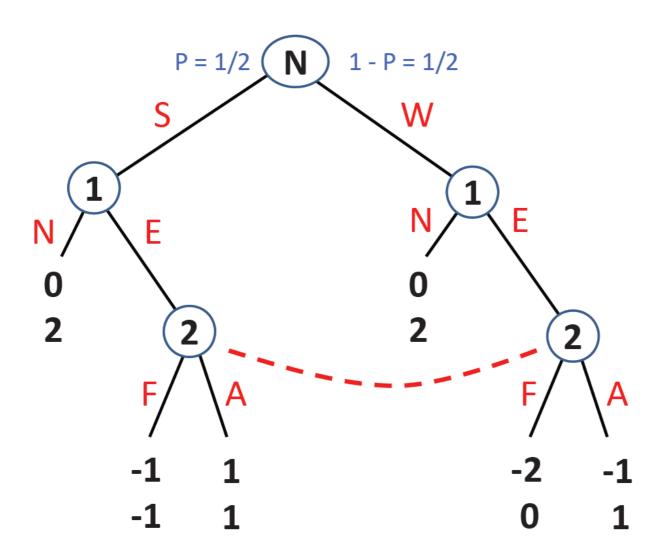
- The sets of sequences for the two players are
 - $\Sigma_1 = \{\emptyset, L, R, L\ell, Lr\}$
 - $\Sigma_2 = \{\emptyset, A, B\}$



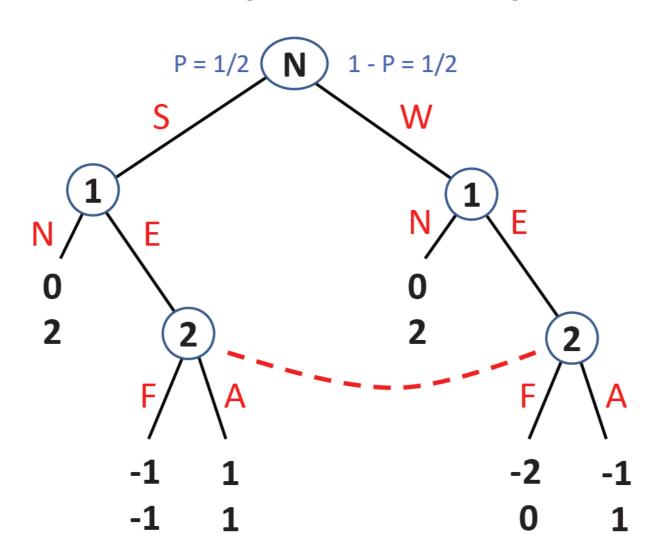


- Each payoff that is defined at a leaf in the game tree occurs exactly once in the sequence-form table
- If g was represented using a sparse encoding, only five values would have to be stored
- In induced normal form, all of the eight entries correspond to leaf nodes from the game tree

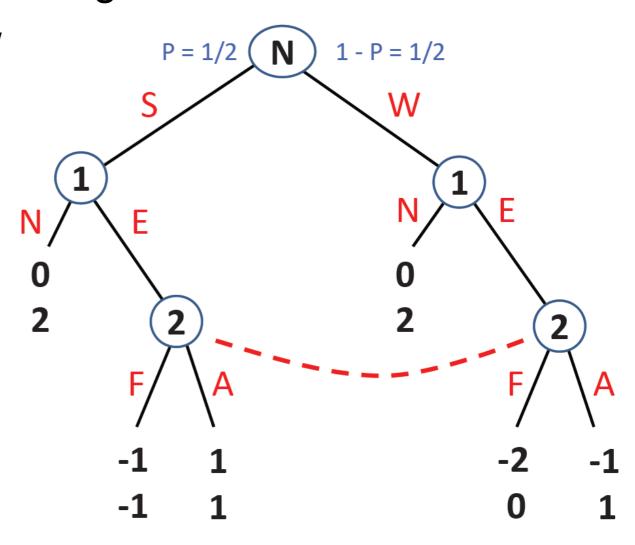
• Should firm 1 enter the market?



• What are the subgames of this game?

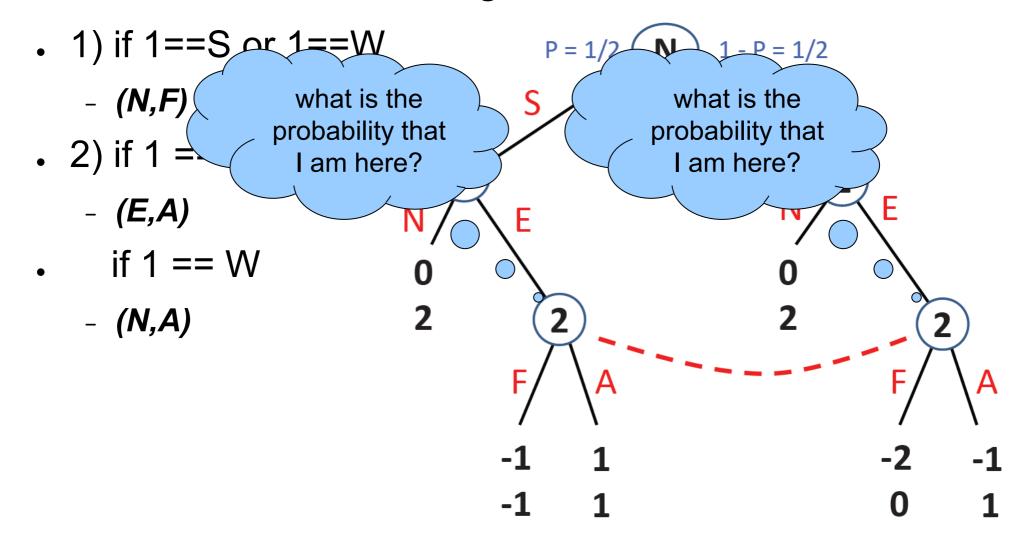


- What are the NE of this game?
 - 1) if 1==S or 1==W
 - (N,F)
 - 2) if 1 == S
 - (E,A)
 - if 1 == W
 - (N,A)



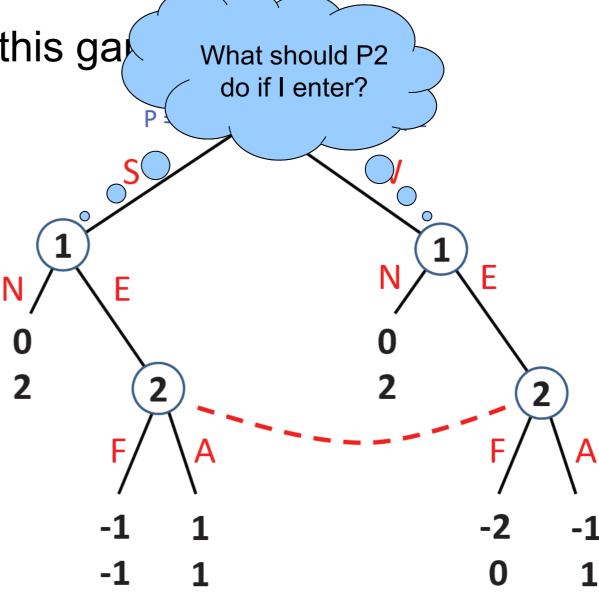
- Similar idea with SPE
- Equilibrium concept that explicitly model players' beliefs about
 - where they are in the tree for every information set (what the other players have done)
- Features:
 - Beliefs are not contradicted by the actual play of the game (on the equilibrium path)
 - Players best respond to their beliefs

• What are the NE of this game?



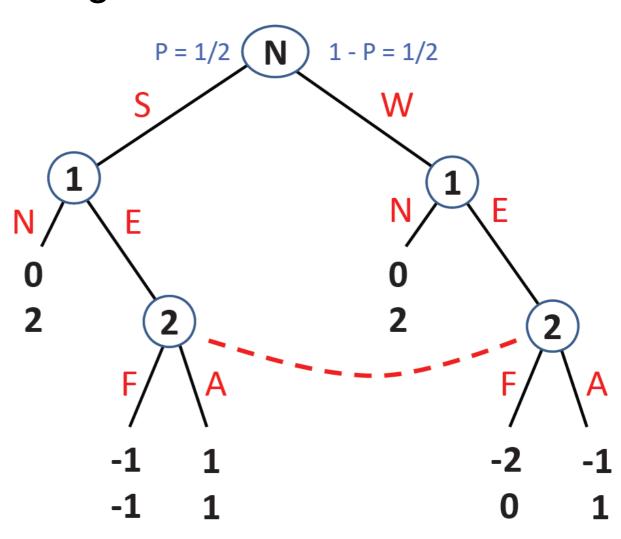
. What are the NE of this ga

- . 1) if 1==S or 1==W
 - (N,F)
- 2) if 1 == S
 - (E,A)
 - if 1 == W
 - (N,A)

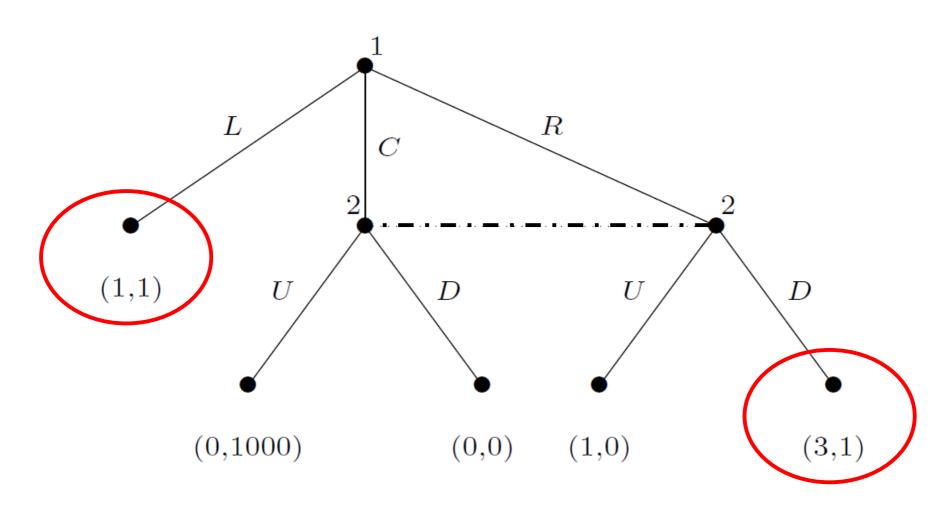


• What are the NE of this game?

- 1) if 1==S or 1==W- (N,F)
- . 2) if 1 == S
 - (E,A)
 - if 1 == W
 - (N,A)



Does player 2 know where he is?



- The best Al programs are starting to approach the level of human experts
 - Construct a statistical model of the opponent
 - What kinds of bets the opponent is likely to make under what kinds of circumstances
 - Combine with game-theoretic reasoning techniques, e.g.,

- Rather, at each info set, a "subforest" or a collection of subgames
- The best-known way for dealing with this is sequential equilibrium (SE)
 - More info in the text book
- Theorem: every finite game of perfect recall has a sequential equilibrium
- Theorem: in extensive-form games of perfect information, the sets of SPE and SE are always equivalent

- Works for games with perfect recall
 - for general-sum games, can compute equilibrium in time exponential in the size of the extensive form game
 - exponentially faster than converting to normal form
 - for zero-sum games, computing equilibrium is polynomial in the size of the extensive form game
 - exponentially faster than the LP formulation we saw before
- Solutions via linear programs