

Noncooperative Game Theory

J. Leite (adapted from Kevin Leyton-Brown)

Cortes and The Burning of the Boats



Section 1

Perfect-Information Extensive-Form Games

Introduction

- ▶ 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

Definition

A (finite) **perfect-information game** (in extensive form) is defined by the tuple $(N, A, H, Z, \chi, \rho, \sigma, u)$, where:

- ▶ **Players:** N is a set of n players

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- ▶ **Actions:** A is a (single) set of actions

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- ▶ **Players:** N
- ▶ **Actions:** A
- ▶ Choice nodes and labels for these nodes:
 - ▶ **Choice nodes:** H is a set of non-terminal choice nodes

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- ▶ **Players:** N
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 - ▶ **Action function:** $\chi : H \rightarrow 2^A$ assigns to each choice node a set of possible actions

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 - ▶ **Player function:** $\rho : H \rightarrow N$
- ▶ **Terminal nodes:** Z is a set of terminal nodes, disjoint from H

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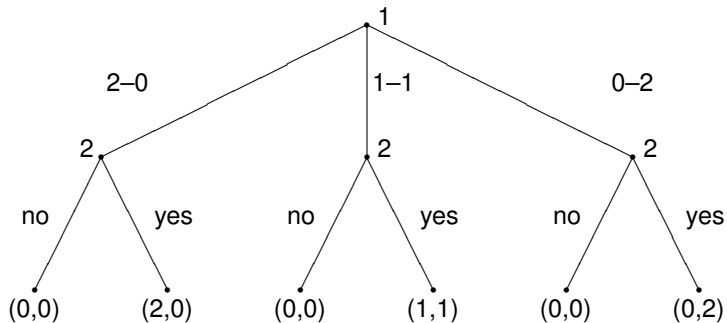
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 - ▶ **Action function:** $\chi : H \rightarrow 2^A$
 - ▶ **Player function:** $\rho : H \rightarrow N$
- ▶ **Terminal nodes:** Z
- ▶ **Successor function:** $\sigma : H \times A \rightarrow H \cup Z$ maps a choice node and an action to a new choice 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 $a_1 = a_2$
 - ▶ The choice nodes form a tree, so we can identify a node with its history.

Definition

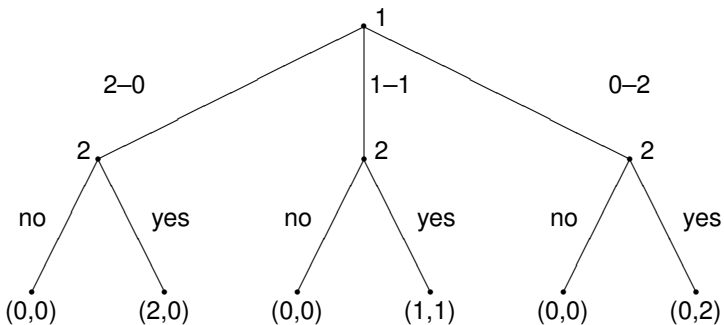
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- ▶ **Successor function:** $\sigma : H \times A \rightarrow H \cup Z$
- ▶ **Utility function:** $u = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$; $u_i : Z \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a utility function for player i on the terminal nodes Z

Example: the sharing game

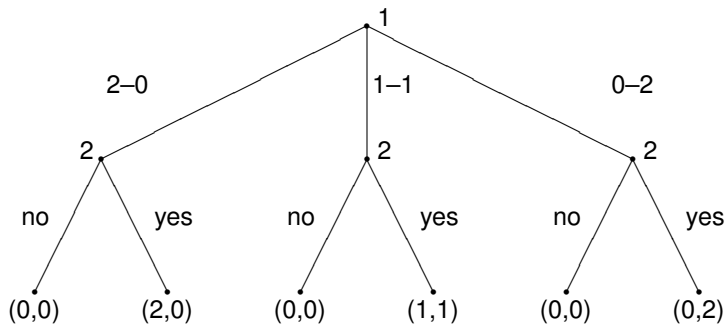


Example: the sharing game



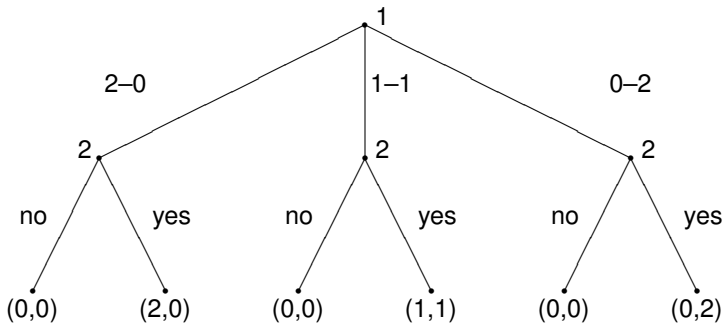
- Play as a fun game, dividing 100 euros in coins. (Play each partner only once.)

Example: the sharing game



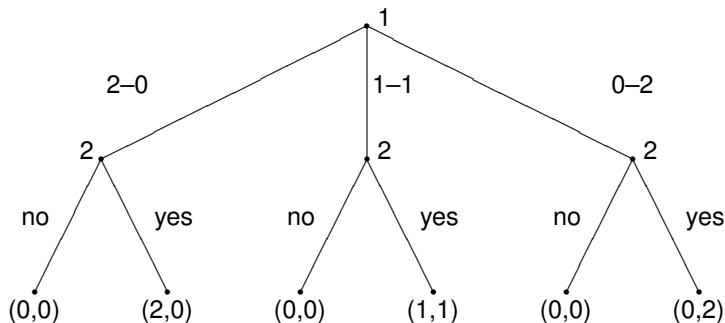
- In the sharing game (splitting 2 coins) how many pure strategies does each player have?

Example: the sharing game



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 - ▶ player 1: 3

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- ▶ In the sharing game (splitting 2 coins) how many pure strategies does each player have?
 - ▶ player 1: 3
 - ▶ player 2: 8

Pure Strategies

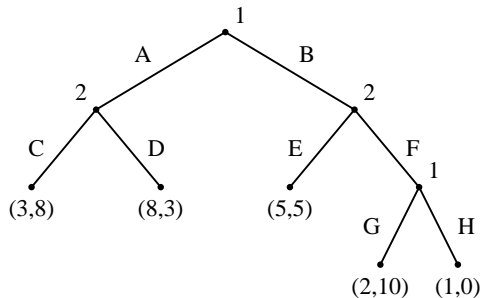
- Overall, a pure strategy for a player in a perfect-information game is a **complete specification** of which deterministic action to take at every node belonging to that player.

Definition (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 cross product

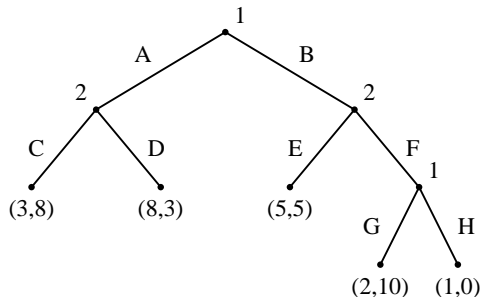
$$\prod_{h \in H, \rho(h)=i} \chi(h)$$

Pure Strategies Example



What are the pure strategies for player 2?

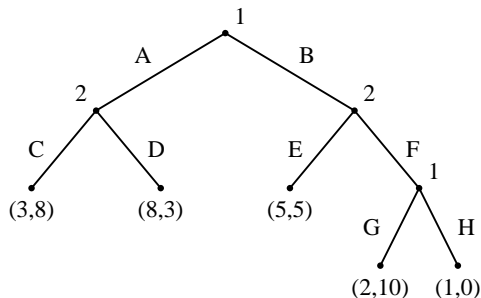
Pure Strategies Example



What are the pure strategies for player 2?

- ▶ $S_2 = \{(C, E); (C, F); (D, E); (D, F)\}$

Pure Strategies Example

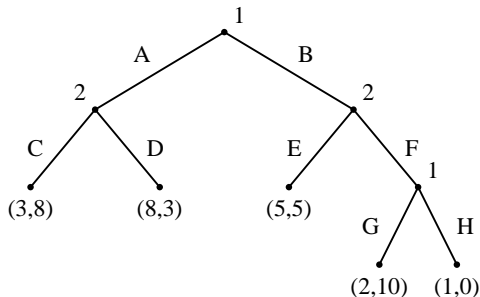


What are the pure strategies for player 2?

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What are the pure strategies for player 1?

Pure Strategies Example



What are the pure strategies for player 2?

- ▶ $S_2 = \{(C, E); (C, F); (D, E); (D, F)\}$

What are the pure strategies for player 1?

- ▶ $S_1 = \{(B, G); (B, H), (A, G), (A, H)\}$
- ▶ This is true even though, conditional on taking A, the choice between G and H will never have to be made

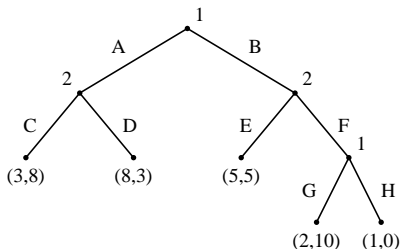
Nash Equilibria

Given our new definition of pure strategy, we are able to reuse our old definitions of:

- ▶ mixed strategies
- ▶ best response
- ▶ Nash equilibrium

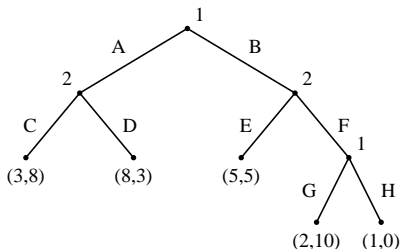
Induced Normal Form

- ▶ In fact, the connection to the normal form is even tighter
 - ▶ we can “convert” an extensive-form game into normal form



Induced Normal Form

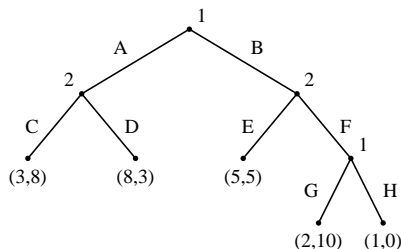
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<i>AG</i>	3, 8	3, 8	8, 3	8, 3
<i>AH</i>	3, 8	3, 8	8, 3	8, 3
<i>BG</i>	5, 5	2, 10	5, 5	2, 10
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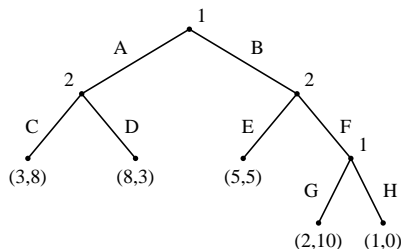


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- ▶ this illustrates the **lack of compactness** of the normal form
 - ▶ games aren't always this small
 - ▶ even here, we write down 16 payoff pairs instead of 5
 - ▶ exponential growth

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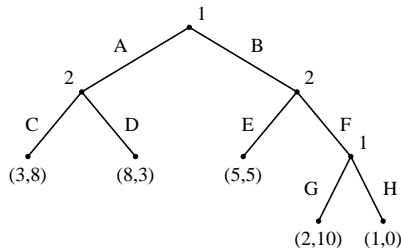


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- ▶ while we can write any extensive-form game as a NF, we can't do the reverse.
 - ▶ e.g., matching pennies cannot be written as a perfect-information extensive form game

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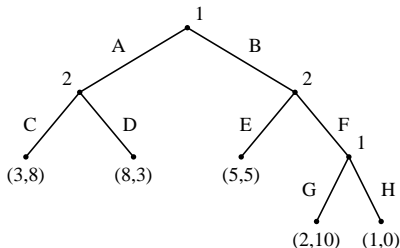
Theorem

Every perfect information game in extensive form has a PSNE

- ▶ This is easy to see, since the players move sequentially.

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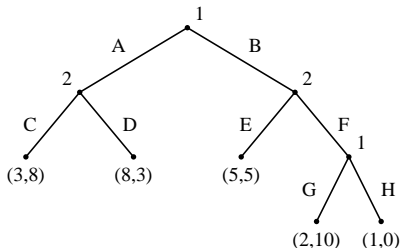


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- ▶ What are the (three) pure-strategy equilibria?

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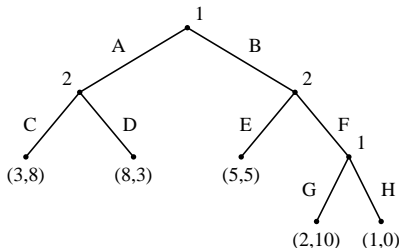


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 - ▶ (A, G), (C, F)
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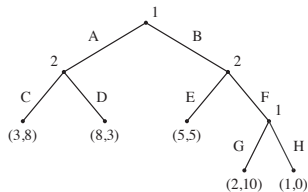
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 - ▶ (A, G), (C, F)
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- ▶ One of these equilibria is preferable—which one?

Section 2

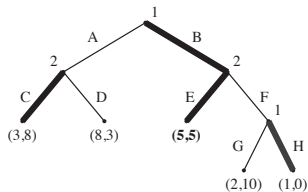
Subgame Perfection

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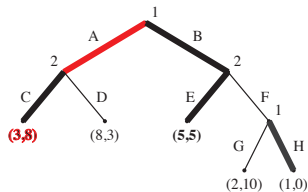
- Consider the equilibrium $(B, H), (C, E)$

Subgame Perfection



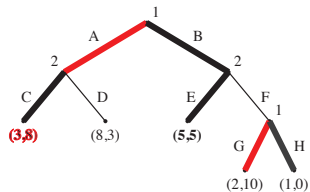
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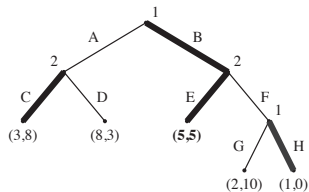
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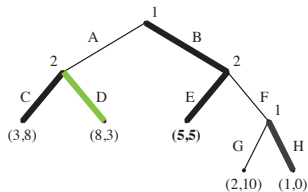
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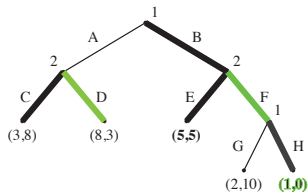
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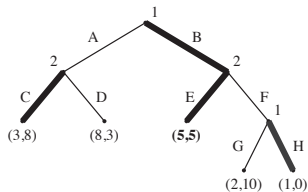
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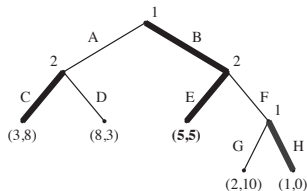
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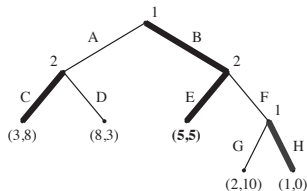
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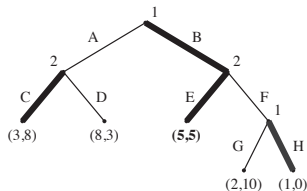
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Subgame Perfection



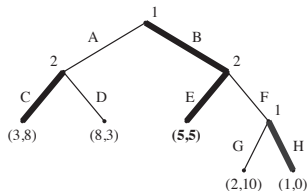
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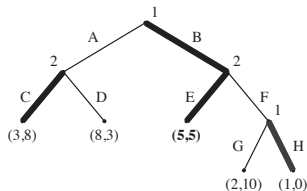
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Subgame Perfection



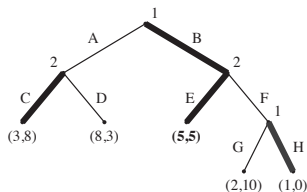
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Subgame Perfection



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Subgame Perfection



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 - ▶ After all, G dominates H for him
 - ▶ He does it to **threaten** player 2, to prevent him from choosing F , and so gets 5
 - ▶ However, this seems like a **non-credible threat**
 - ▶ If player 1 reached his second decision node, would he really follow through and play H ?

Formal Definition

Definition (subgame of G rooted at h)

The **subgame of G rooted at h** is the restriction of G to the descendants of h .

Definition (subgames of G)

The **set of subgames of G** is defined by the subgames of G rooted at each of the nodes in G .

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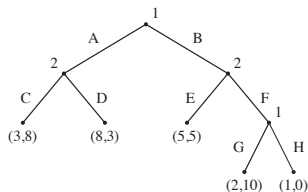
Definition (Subgame perfect equilibrium)

s is a **subgame perfect equilibrium** of G iff for any subgame G' of G , the restriction of s to G' is a Nash equilibrium of G'

► Notes:

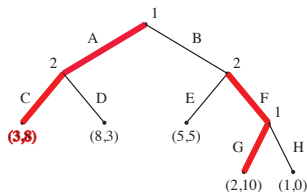
- since G is its own subgame, every SPE is a NE.
- this definition rules out “non-credible threats”

Which equilibria are subgame perfect?



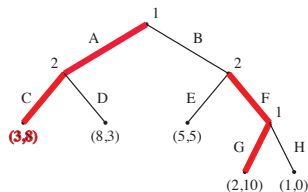
- ▶ Which equilibria from the example are subgame perfect?
 - ▶ $(A, G), (C, F)$:
 - ▶ $(B, H), (C, E)$:
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Which equilibria are subgame perfect?



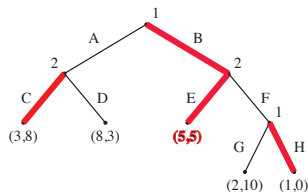
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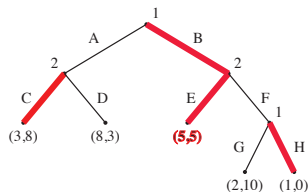
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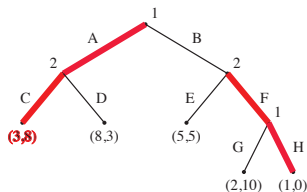
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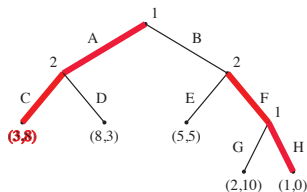
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Which equilibria are subgame perfect?



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Which equilibria are subgame perfect?

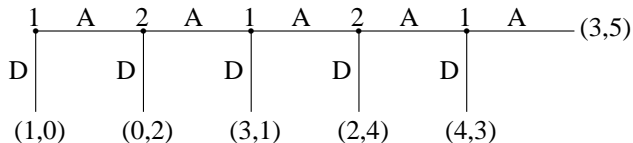


- ▶ Which equilibria from the example are subgame perfect?
 - ▶ $(A, G), (C, F)$: is subgame perfect
 - ▶ $(B, H), (C, E)$: (B, H) is a non-credible threat; not subgame perfect
 - ▶ $(A, H), (C, F)$: (A, H) is also non-credible, even though H is “off-path”

Section 3

Backward Induction

Centipede Game



- Play this as a fun game...

Computing Subgame Perfect Equilibria

Idea: Identify the equilibria in the bottom-most trees, and adopt these as one moves up the tree

```
function BACKWARDINDUCTION (node  $h$ ) returns  $u(h)$ 
if  $h \in Z$  then
  return  $u(h)$ 
 $best\_util \leftarrow -\infty$ 
forall  $a \in \chi(h)$  do
   $util\_at\_child \leftarrow \text{BACKWARDINDUCTION}(\sigma(h, a))$ 
  if  $util\_at\_child_{\rho(h)} > best\_util_{\rho(h)}$  then
     $best\_util \leftarrow util\_at\_child$ 
return  $best\_util$ 
```

- ▶ $util_at_child$ is a vector denoting the utility for each player
- ▶ the procedure doesn't return an equilibrium strategy, but rather labels each node with a vector of real numbers.
 - ▶ This labeling can be seen as an extension of the game's utility function to the non-terminal nodes
 - ▶ The equilibrium strategies: take the best action at each node.

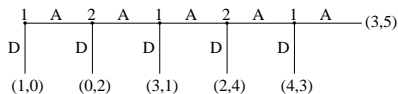
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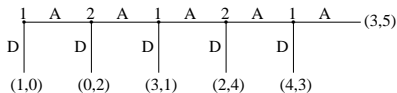
- ▶ For zero-sum games, BACKWARDINDUCTION has another name: the **minimax** algorithm.
 - ▶ Here it's enough to store one number per node.
 - ▶ It's possible to speed things up by **pruning** nodes that will never be reached in play: "alpha-beta pruning".

Backward Induction



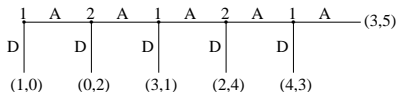
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Backward Induction



- ▶ What happens when we use this procedure on Centipede?
 - ▶ In the only equilibrium, player 1 goes down in the first move.
 - ▶ However, this outcome is Pareto-dominated by all but one other outcome.

Backward Induction



- ▶ What happens when we use this procedure on Centipede?
 - ▶ In the only equilibrium, player 1 goes down in the first move.
 - ▶ However, this outcome is Pareto-dominated by all but one other outcome.
- ▶ Two considerations:
 - ▶ practical: human subjects don't go down right away
 - ▶ theoretical: what should you do as player 2 if player 1 doesn't go down?
 - ▶ SPE analysis says to go down. However, that same analysis says that P1 would already have gone down. How do you update your beliefs upon observation of a measure zero event?
 - ▶ but if player 1 knows that you'll do something else, it is rational for him not to go down anymore... a paradox
 - ▶ there's a whole literature on this question

Centipede Game

- ▶ Some Experimental Results (with 6 nodes):
 - ▶ 1% stop at 1st node;
 - ▶ 6% stop at 2nd node;
 - ▶ 21% stop at 3rd node;
 - ▶ 53% stop at 4th node;
 - ▶ 73% stop at 5th node;
 - ▶ 85% stop at 6th node;

Centipede Game

- ▶ Some Experimental Results (with 6 nodes):
 - ▶ 1% stop at 1st node;
 - ▶ 6% stop at 2nd node;
 - ▶ 21% stop at 3rd node;
 - ▶ 53% stop at 4th node;
 - ▶ 73% stop at 5th node;
 - ▶ 85% stop at 6th node;
- ▶ How to explain?
 - ▶ Bounded ability to reason
 - ▶ Player's own limitations
 - ▶ Or unsure of other player's reasoning
 - ▶ Altruism
 - ▶ Player's own altruism
 - ▶ Or belief that other player is altruistic

Centipede Game

- ▶ Are Chess players playing centipede more rational?
 - ▶ Chess players vs. Chess players

Centipede Game

- ▶ Are Chess players playing centipede more rational?
 - ▶ Chess players vs. Chess players
 - ▶ 69% end at first node

Centipede Game

- ▶ Are Chess players playing centipede more rational?
 - ▶ Chess players vs. Chess players
 - ▶ 69% end at first node
 - ▶ Grandmasters (player 1) vs. Chess players
 - ▶

Centipede Game

- ▶ Are Chess players playing centipede more rational?
 - ▶ Chess players vs. Chess players
 - ▶ 69% end at first node
 - ▶ Grandmasters (player 1) vs. Chess players
 - ▶ 100% end at first node

Centipede Game

- ▶ Are Chess players playing centipede more rational?
 - ▶ Chess players vs. Chess players
 - ▶ 69% end at first node
 - ▶ Grandmasters (player 1) vs. Chess players
 - ▶ 100% end at first node
 - ▶ Students vs. Students
 - ▶

Centipede Game

- ▶ Are Chess players playing centipede more rational?
 - ▶ Chess players vs. Chess players
 - ▶ 69% end at first node
 - ▶ Grandmasters (player 1) vs. Chess players
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 - ▶ Students vs. Students
 - ▶ 3% end at first node

Centipede Game

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 - ▶ Chess players vs. Chess players
 - ▶ 69% end at first node
 - ▶ Grandmasters (player 1) vs. Chess players
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 - ▶ Students vs. Students
 - ▶ 3% end at first node
 - ▶ Students vs. Chess players
 - ▶

Centipede Game

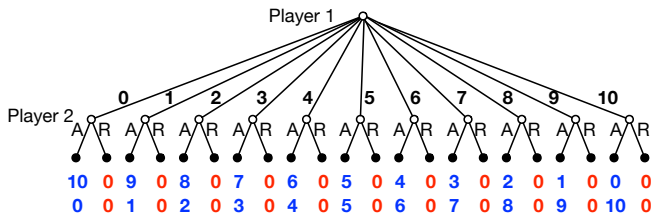
- ▶ Are Chess players playing centipede more rational?
 - ▶ Chess players vs. Chess players
 - ▶ 69% end at first node
 - ▶ Grandmasters (player 1) vs. Chess players
 - ▶ 100% end at first node
 - ▶ Students vs. Students
 - ▶ 3% end at first node
 - ▶ Students vs. Chess players
 - ▶ 30% end at first node

Ultimatum Bargaining

- ▶ Player 1 makes an offer $x \in \{0, 1, \dots, 10\}$ to player 2
- ▶ Player 2 can accept or reject
- ▶ 1 gets $10 - x$ and 2 gets x if accepted
- ▶ Both get 0 if rejected

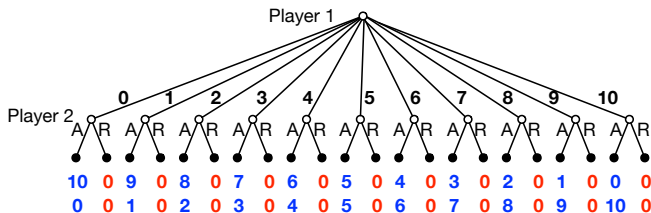
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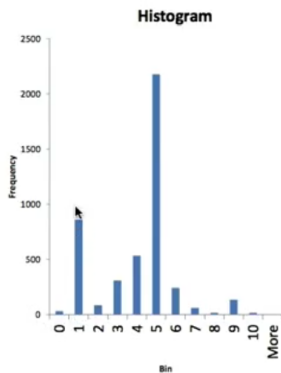
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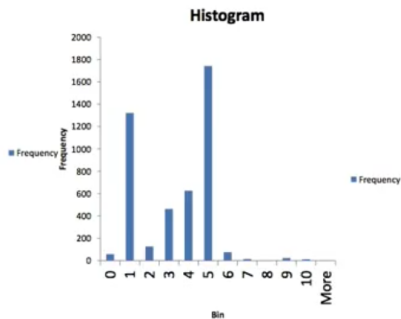


- ▶ Subgame Perfect Equilibria
 - ▶ Player 2 accepts every positive x .
 - ▶ If offered 0, Player 2 is indifferent could accept or reject (or even mix).
 - ▶ Player 1 offers either 0 or 1 depending on 2's decision at 0.

Ultimatum Bargaining

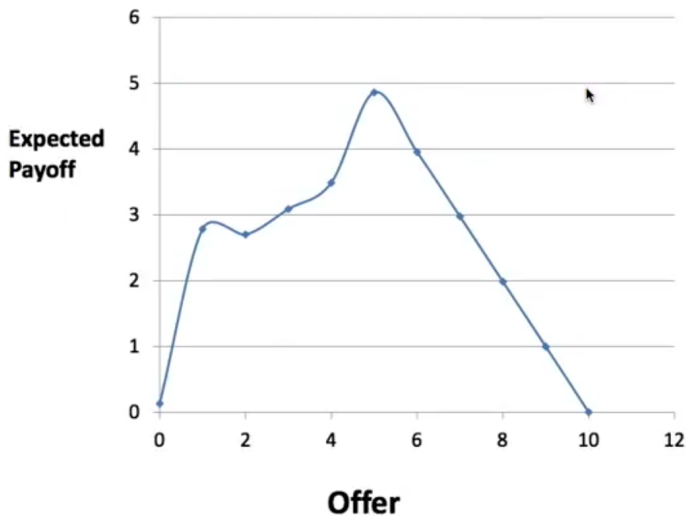


Offers



Min Accept

Ultimatum Bargaining



Ultimatum Bargaining

- ▶ Subgame perfection doesn't always match data.
- ▶ Rejections violate “rationality”?
- ▶ ... or do we have the payoffs incorrect: people value equity, or feel emotions: Behavioural Game Theory.