Algorithmic Game Theory and Applications

# Lecture 10: Games in Extensive Form

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#### the setting and motivation

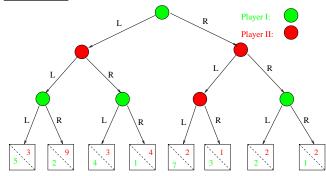
▷ Most games in "real life" are not in "strategic form": players don't pick their entire strategies independently ("simultaneously"). Instead, the game transpires over time, with players making "moves" to which other players react with "moves", etc. Examples: chess, poker, bargaining, dating, ...

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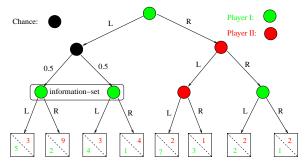
 $\triangleright$  A "game tree" looks something like this:



 $\triangleright$  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 *information* 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>".

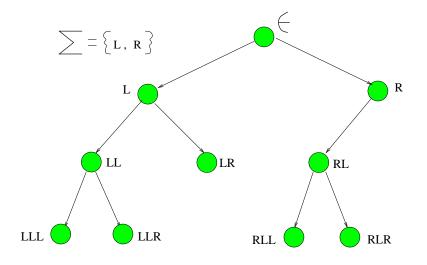


To define extensive form games, we have to formalize all these.

#### Trees: a formal definition

 $\triangleright$  Let  $\Sigma = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k\}$  be an alphabet. A tree 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  $ch(w) = \{w' \in T \mid w' = wa, \text{ for some } a \in \Sigma\}$ . For  $w \in T$ , let  $Act(w) = \{a \in \Sigma \mid wa \in T\}$  be "<u>actions</u>" 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.

#### Tree example



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 $\triangleright$  We defined our alphabet of possible actions  $\Sigma$  to be finite, which is generally sufficient for our purposes. In other words, the tree is finitely branching. In more general settings, even the set of possible actions at a given node can be infinite.  $\triangleright$  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 *Info*<sub>*i*,*j*</sub> contains only 1 node.

#### pure strategies

▷ A <u>pure strategy</u>  $s_i$  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. ▷ Given pure profile  $s = (s_1, \ldots, s_n) \in S_1 \times \ldots \times S_n$ , 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:

▷ 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 j < m, if  $w_j \in Pl_i$ , 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

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

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:

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

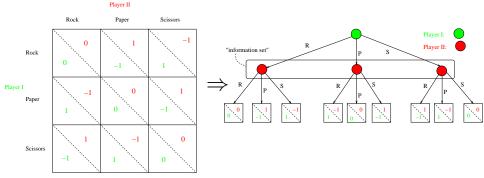
Again, for infinite games, much more elaborate definitions of "expected payoffs" would be required.

<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):



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#### from extensive to strategic games

Every extensive game  $\mathcal{G}$  can be viewed as a strategic game  $\Gamma_{\mathcal{G}}$ :  $\triangleright \ln \Gamma_{\mathcal{G}}$ , the strategies for player *i* are the mappings  $s_i \in S_i$ .  $\triangleright \ln \Gamma_{\mathcal{G}}$ , 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  $|Pl_i| = m$  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).

▷ 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  $w, w' \in Info_{i,i}$  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.

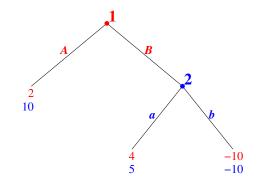
 $\triangleright$  [Kuhn'53]: with perfect recall it suffices to restrict players' strategies to behavior strategies: strategies that only randomize (independently) on actions at each information set. ▷ Perfect recall is often assumed as a "sanity condition" for EFGs (most games we encounter do have perfect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

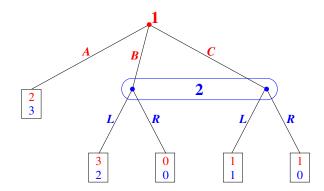
# subgames and (subgame) perfection

 $\triangleright$  A **subgame** of an extensive form game is an induced subtree of the game tree, induced by a node (acting as its "root") and <u>all</u> of that node's descendants, such that moreover the subtree has only "*self-contained information sets*". In other words, every node in that subtree must be contained in an information set that is itself entirely contained within 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 Nash equilibrium** (SPNE) if it defines a Nash equilibrium for *every* subgame of *G*.

 [Selten'75]: Nash equilibrium (NE) (and even SPNE) 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 SPNE 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].)

 $\triangleright$  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.

▷ 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'2014,2021]: For EFGs with  $\geq$  3 players with perfect recall, computing refinements of Nash equilibrium (including computing a "trembling-hand perfect" equilibrium and a "quasi-perfect" equilibrium) can be reduced to computing a NE for a 3-player normal form game.

For more on this see:

K. Etessami, "The complexity of computing a (quasi-)perfect equilibrium for an *n*-player extensive form game." *Games and Economic Behavior*, vol. 125, pp. 107–140, 2021.

<u>Our main focus next</u> will be games of <u>perfect</u> <u>information</u>. 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 SPNE) 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.