

MS&E 246: Lecture 6

Dynamic games of perfect and complete information

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Outline

- Dynamic games
- Perfect information
- Game trees
- Strategies
- Backward induction

Dynamic games

Instead of playing simultaneously,
the rules dictate *when* players play,
and *what they know about the past*
when they play.

Example

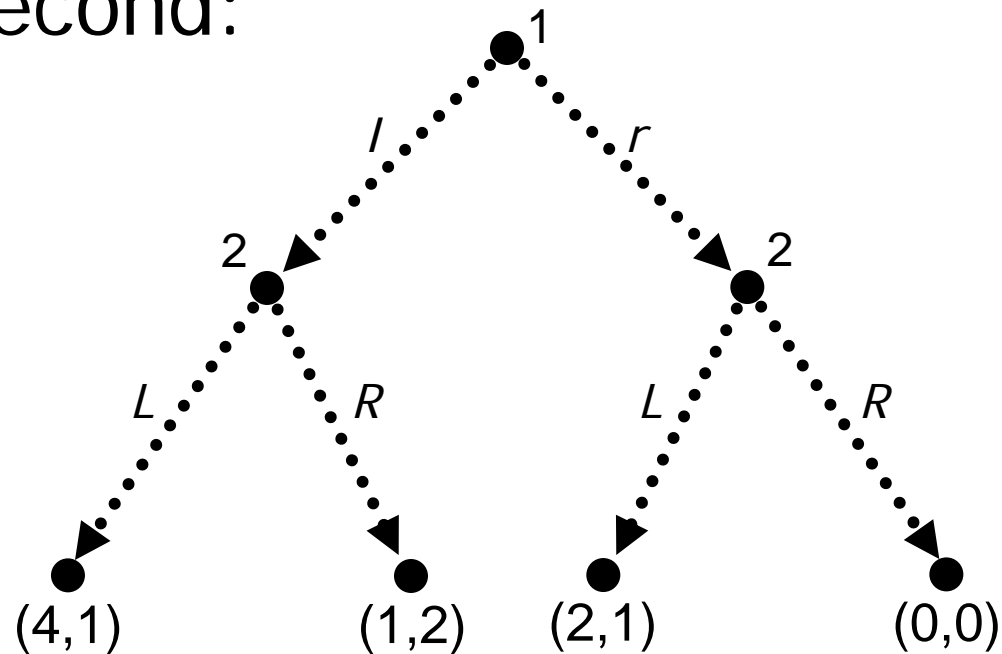
Consider the following game:

		Player 2	
		<i>L</i>	<i>R</i>
Player 1	<i>l</i>	(4, 1)	(1, 2)
	<i>r</i>	(2, 1)	(0, 0)

Only pure NE is (l, R) .

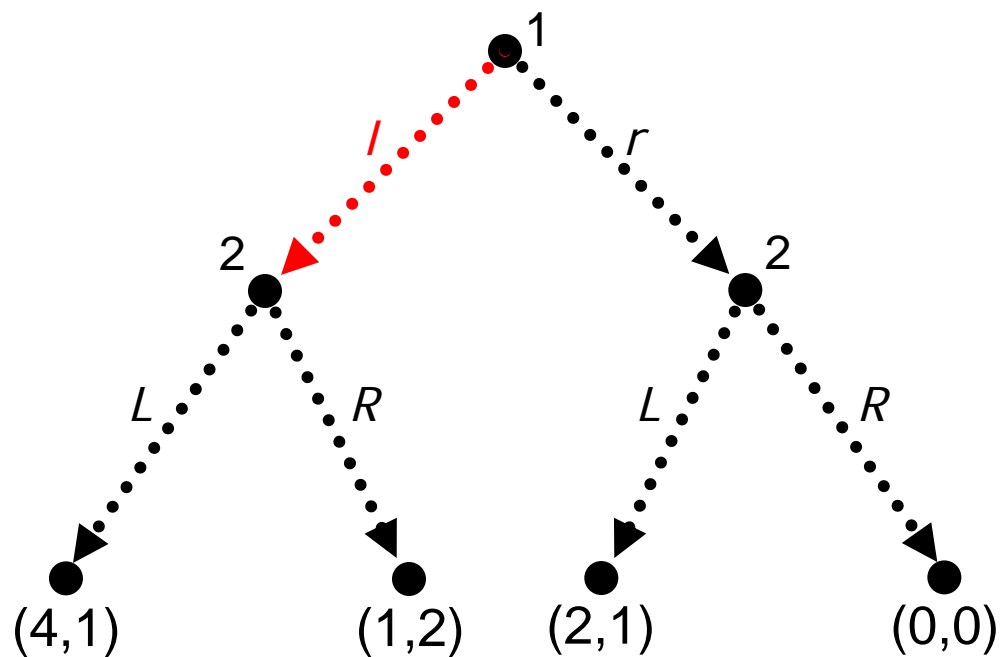
Example: dynamic game

Suppose player 1 moves first, and player 2 moves second:



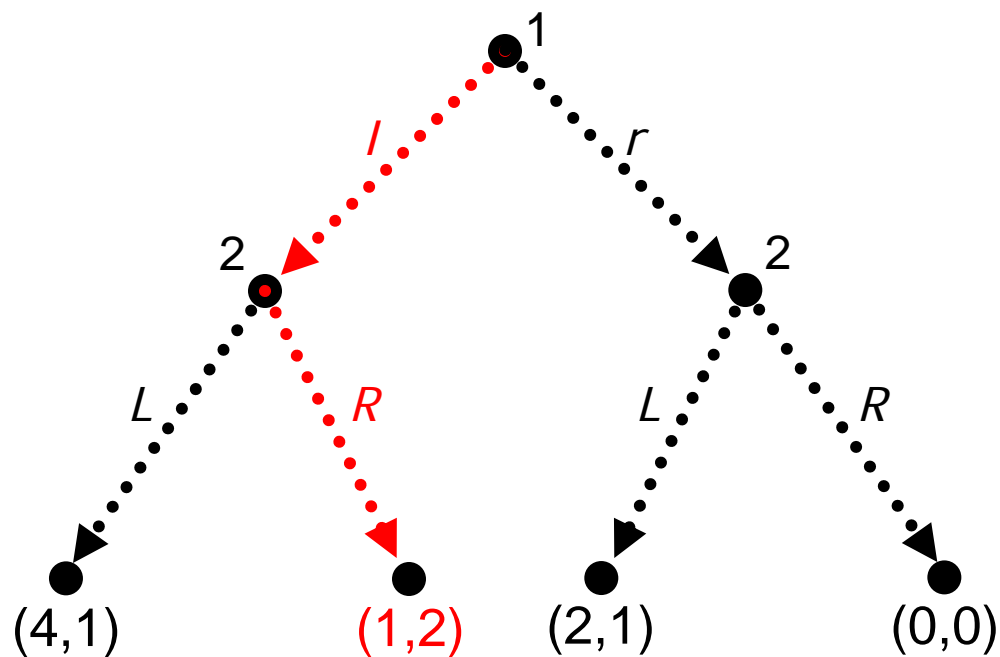
Example: dynamic game

If player 1 plays l ...



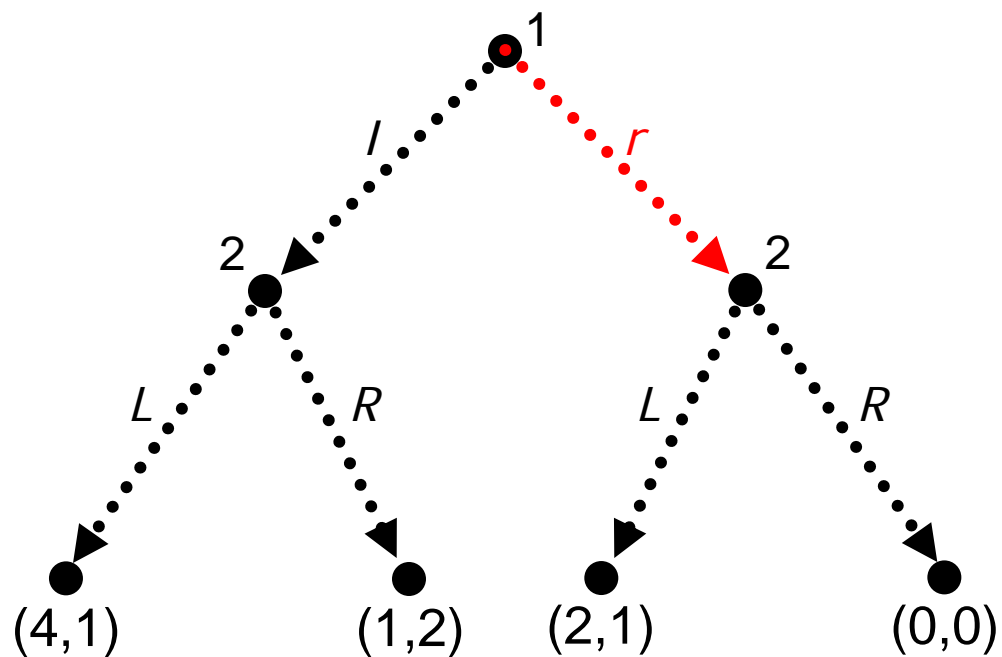
Example: dynamic game

...then player 2 plays $R \Rightarrow \Pi_1 = 1$.



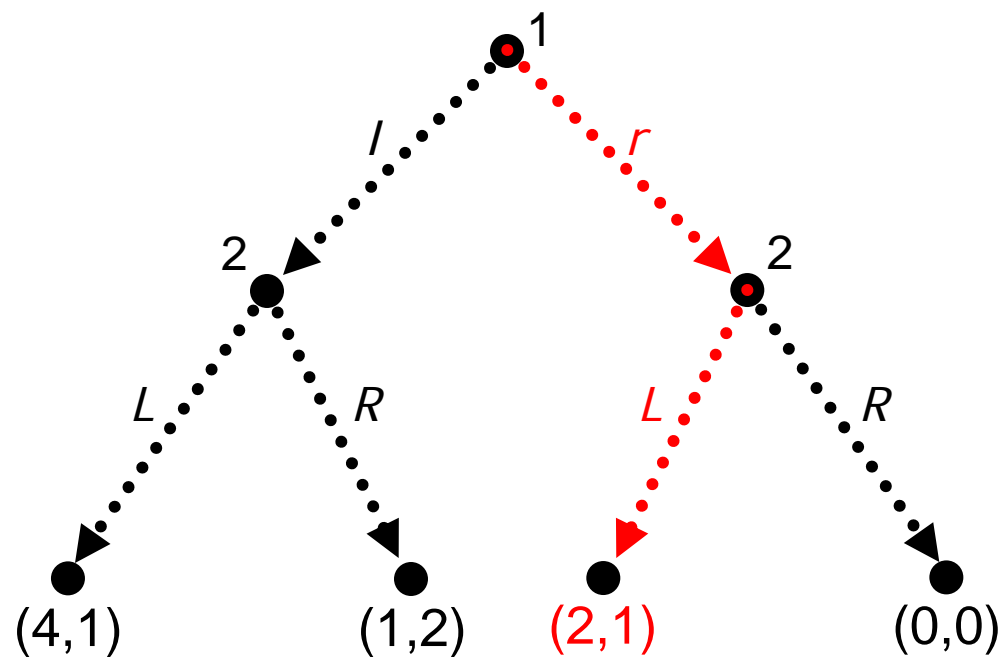
Example: dynamic game

If player 1 plays r ...



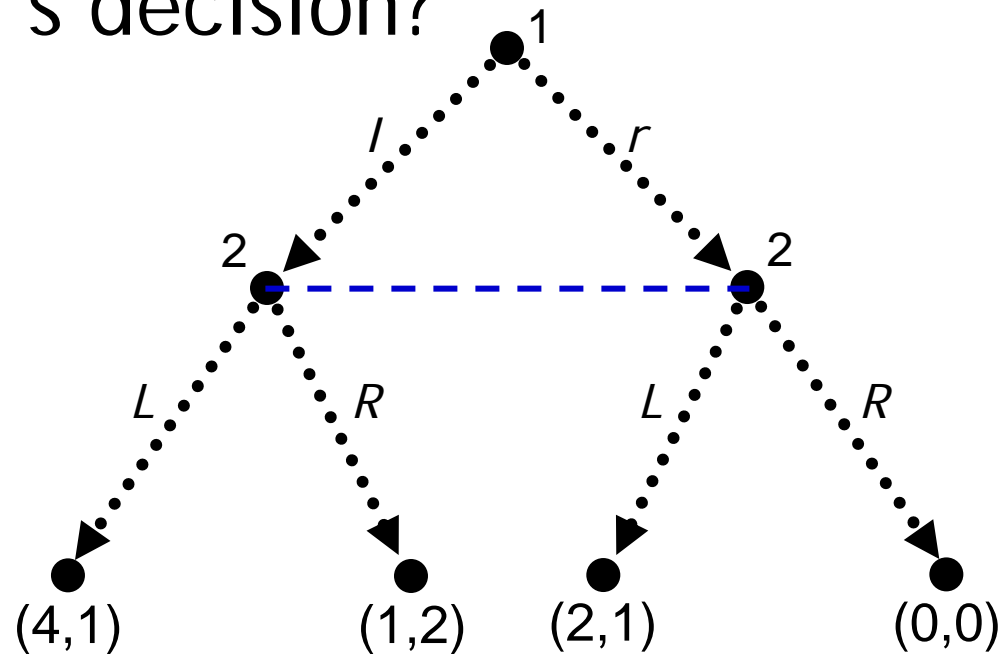
Example: dynamic game

...then player 2 plays $L \Rightarrow \Pi_1 = 2!$



Example: dynamic game

What if player 2 does not observe player 1's decision?



--- : Player 2 cannot distinguish between these nodes

Dynamics

What if player 2 does not observe player 1's decision?

Harder to predict what player 2 might do at stage 2.

Perfect information

In this lecture we will study (finite) dynamic games of *perfect information*:

These are games where all players observe the entire *history* of the game, and the game terminates in finitely many steps.

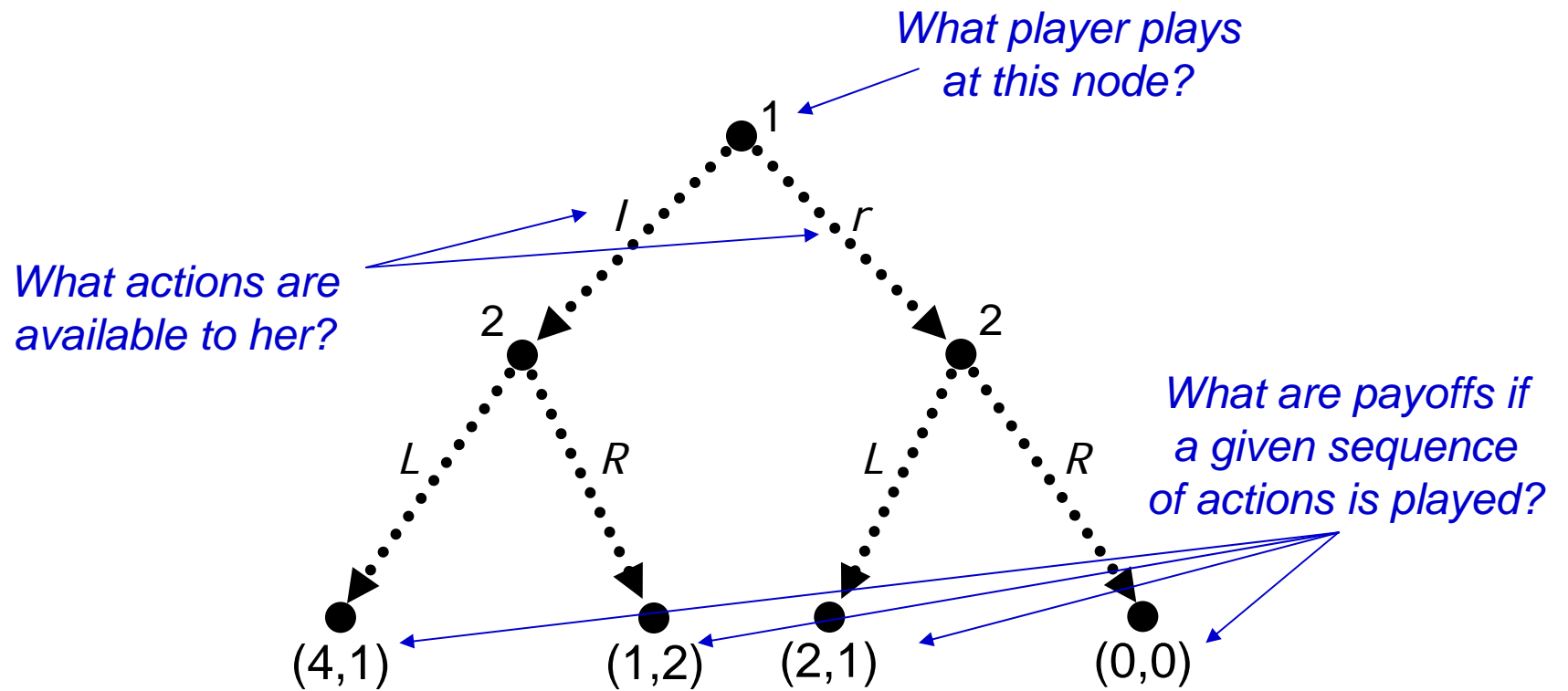
(NOTE: This is not complete information!)

Game tree

Fundamental structure: the *game tree*.

- 1) Each non-leaf node v is identified with a unique player $I(v)$.
- 2) All edges out from a node v correspond to *actions* available to $I(v)$.
- 3) All leaves are labeled with the *payoffs* for all players.

Game tree



Game trees and extensive form

Idea: At each node v , player $I(v)$ chooses an action; this leads to the next “stage.”

The game tree is also called the *extensive form* of the game.

Strategies

For player 1 to “reason” about player 2, there must be a prediction of what player 2 would play *in any of his nodes*.
(See example at the beginning of lecture.)

Strategies

For player 1 to “reason” about player 2, there must be a prediction of what player 2 would play *in any of his nodes*.

Thus in a dynamic game, a strategy s_i is a *complete contingent plan*:

For each v such that $I(v) = i$, $s_i(v)$ specifies the *action* of player i at node v .

Backward induction

We solve finite games of perfect information using *backward induction*.

Idea: find “optimal” decisions for players from the bottom of the tree to the top.

Backward induction

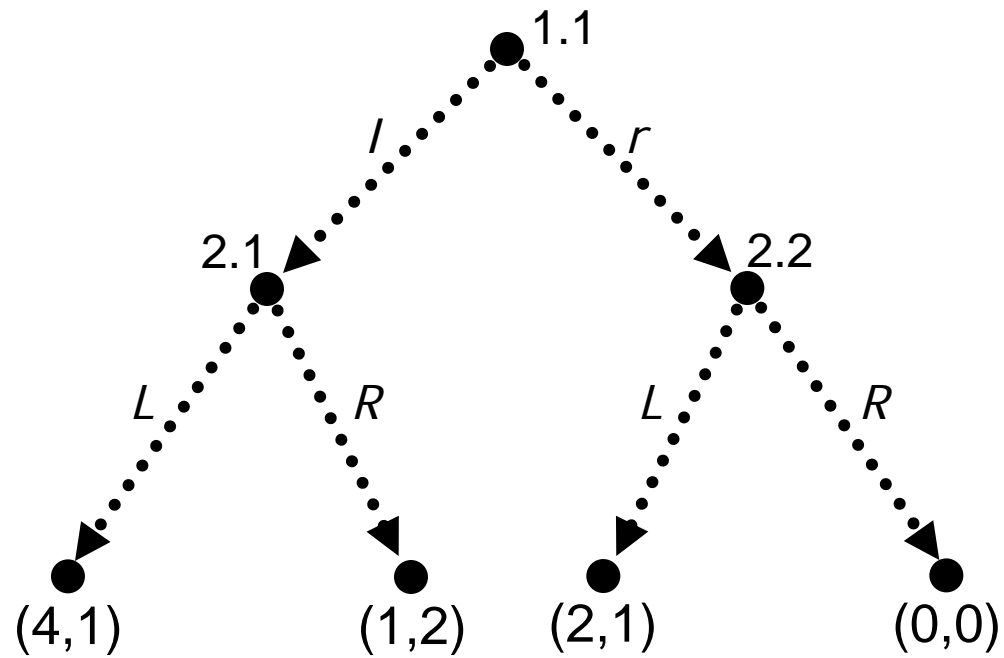
Formally: Suppose the game has L stages.

- Find the set of optimal actions for player $I(v)$ at each node v in stage L (possibly including mixed actions).
- Label each node v in stage L with payoffs from optimal actions, and remove any children.
- Return to (1) and repeat.

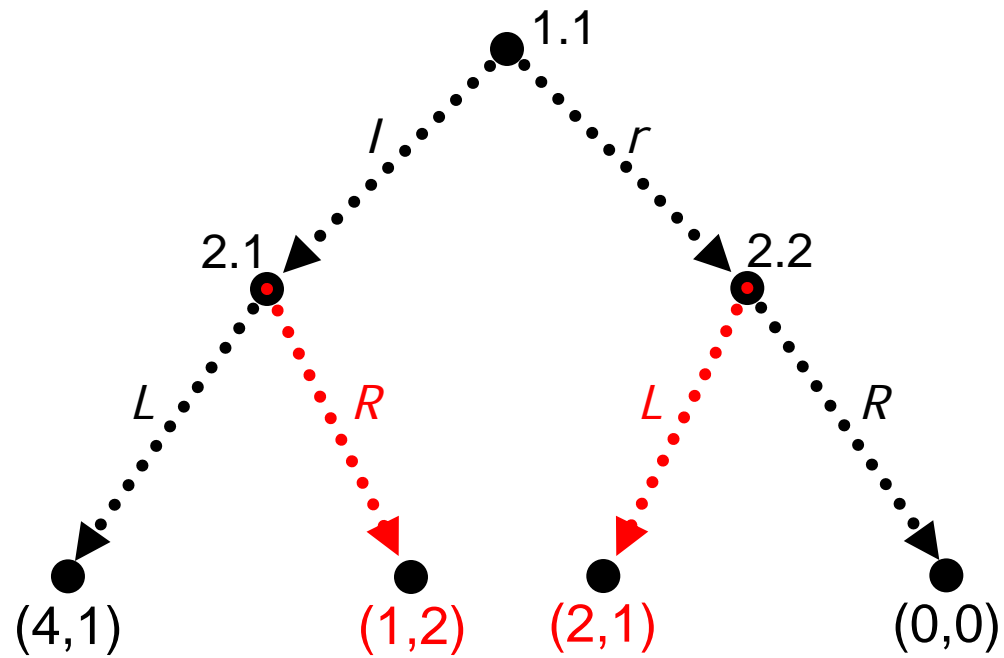
Backward induction

- Note this specifies *complete strategies* for all players, as well as the *path(s) of actual play*.
- Any finite dynamic game of perfect information has a backward induction solution.

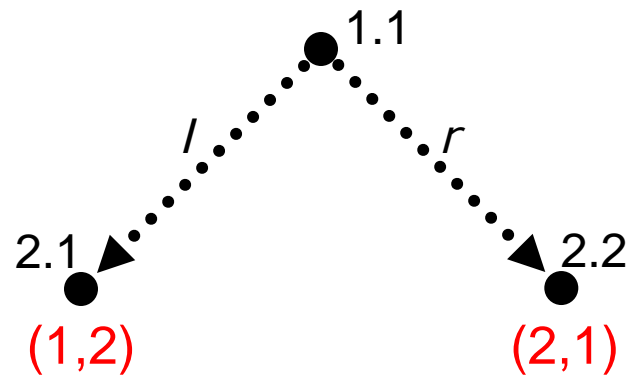
Example



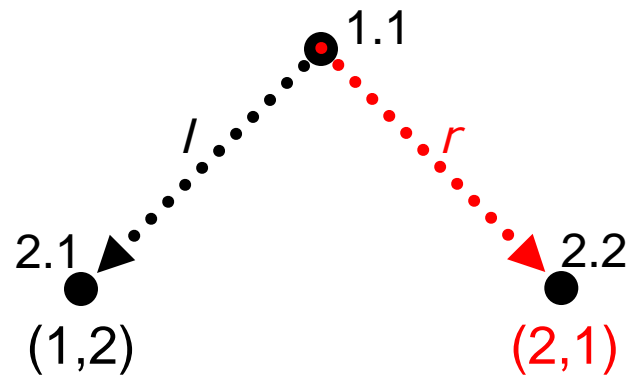
Example



Example



Example



Example

● 1.1
(2,1)

Backward induction solution

Strategies:

Player 1 plays r at node 1.1.

Player 2 plays R at node 2.1, and
plays L at node 2.2.

The *equilibrium path of play* is (r, L) .

Strategic form

The strategic (or normal) form is:

		Player 2			
		<i>LL</i>	<i>LR</i>	<i>RL</i>	<i>RR</i>
Player 1	<i>l</i>	(4, 1)	(4, 1)	(1, 2)	(1, 2)
	<i>r</i>	(2, 1)	(0, 0)	(2, 1)	(0, 0)

Strategic form

What are all pure NE of the strategic form?

(r, RL) and (l, RR)

But (l, RR) is *not credible*:

Player 1 knows a rational player 2 would never play R in 2.2.

Strategic form

Any backward induction solution must be a NE of the strategic form,
but the converse does not necessarily hold.