Extensive Form Games

Felix Jen

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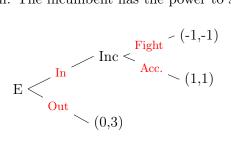
1 Extensive Form Games

In many situations, games unfold simultaneously, warranting the use of *dynamic games*. However, some things unfold over a period of time, in a sequence, making an *extensive game*.

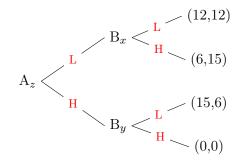
Definition 1.1 (Extensive Form Game). An extensive form game consists of

- A set of players $I \in \{1, 2, 3..n\}$
- A game tree with nodes x, y, z and branches
 - Each action node (a node before the end) x is labeled with a player i
 - From each action node x, the possible actions $a_i(x)$ of player i(x) are represented by the branches leaving the node
 - Some of *i*'s action nodes can be circled, meaning that they belong to the same information set
- Payoffs for each player for each terminal node $t: u_i(t), i \in I$

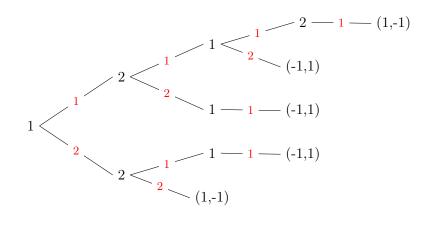
Example 1.1 (Simple Entry Game). Imagine a situation if there are two firms in the industry and one firm wants to enter the firm. The incumbent has the power to start a pricing war, etc...



Example 1.2 (Simple Stackelberg Duopoly). Suppose there is some firm in the industry that is a leader and can choose the quantity it wants to produce. The second firm can response to that quantity and choose its own.



Example 1.3 (Game of Nim). Suppose there are 2 players that start with a n = 4 matches. Player 1 starts and each chooses whether to pick up one or 2 matches and the players alternate. The player picking up the last match loses.



Definition 1.2 (Strategy). A strategy for i in an extensive form game specifies i's choices at each of i's action nodes

Remark 1.1. Each extensive form game can be analyzed as a static strategic form game. In particular, we can define a Nash Equilibria in an extensive form game \triangle

Example 1.4 (Market Entry Game). Consider the market entry game. A payoff matrix can be created:

$$Inc \quad \begin{array}{c} F \\ A \end{array} \underbrace{ \begin{array}{c} In \\ -1,-1 \\ 1,1 \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 0ut \\ 3,0 \end{array} } \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} H \\ \hline \end{array}$$

A pure strategy Nash Equilibria can be found. Note that (A,In) and (F,Out) are both Nash Equilibria. $\hfill \Box$

Example 1.5 (Stackelberg Nash). We can define a payoff matrix as:

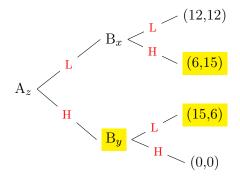
		B_2			
		H(x),H(y)	H(x),L(y)	L(x),H(y)	L(x),L(y)
A_1	L	$6,\!15$	$6,\!15$	12,12	12,12
	Н	0,0	$15,\!6$	0,0	$15,\!6$

We can find our Nash Equilibria as H(x), H(y), H(x), L(y), and L(x), L(y). It's important to note that two of those Nash Equilibria make little sense in this game. Firm B choosing H is not very credible. At Node y, if firm B was making a choice, it should choose L. Therefore, the threat of H is incredible. As well, at node x, firm B should choose H, instead of L. Therefore, there needs to be a more complete definition of an equilibrium in an extensive form game.

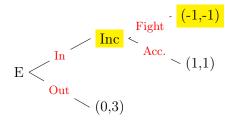
Definition 1.3 (Backwards Induction). A backward induction solution is a strategy profile that satisfies:

- At last action nodes, each player picks an optimal choice
- At penultimate nodes, each player picks an optimal choice, taking later choices as given
- ... until initial node

Example 1.6 (Backwards Induction with Stackelberg). We can perform a backwards induction as follows:



Example 1.7 (Simple Entry Game). We can perform a backwards induction as follows:



Theorem 1.1 (Zermelo's Theorem). Every finite game with complete information has a backwards induction solution. Moreover, if all payoffs differ, the backwards induction solution is unique.

Example 1.8 (Game of Nim). Varying the number of matches in a game of Nim, we have a table of possible results:

Ν	P_1	\mathbf{P}_2
2	+	-
3	+	-
4	-	+
5	+	-
6	+	-

In this table, whichever player has a (+) has an enforcible winning strategy.

Theorem 1.2. In zero-sum games with payoffs (1,-1) or (-1,1), one player must have a winning strategy.