Algorithmic game theory

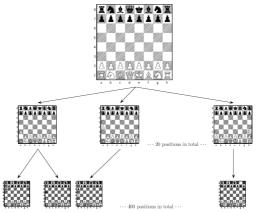
Martin Balko

9th lecture

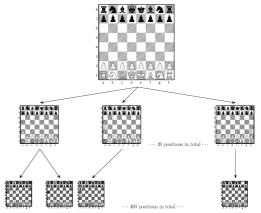
December 2nd 2025



• Last lecture, we introduced a new notion of games, so-called games in extensive form, which are described using trees.



• Last lecture, we introduced a new notion of games, so-called games in extensive form, which are described using trees.



 Today, we describe strategies for such games and how to compute Nash equilibria.

• Extensive game consists of a directed tree where nodes represent game states.

- Extensive game consists of a directed tree where nodes represent game states.
- The game starts at the root of the tree and ends at a leaf, where each player receives a payoff.

- Extensive game consists of a directed tree where nodes represent game states.
- The game starts at the root of the tree and ends at a leaf, where each player receives a payoff. Each node that is not a leaf is a decision node.

- Extensive game consists of a directed tree where nodes represent game states.
- The game starts at the root of the tree and ends at a leaf, where each player receives a payoff. Each node that is not a leaf is a decision node.
- Moves a player can make in a given state are assigned to the outgoing edges of the corresponding decision node.

- Extensive game consists of a directed tree where nodes represent game states.
- The game starts at the root of the tree and ends at a leaf, where each player receives a payoff. Each node that is not a leaf is a decision node.
- Moves a player can make in a given state are assigned to the outgoing edges of the corresponding decision node.
- We partition decision nodes into information sets where all nodes in an information set belong to the same player and have the same moves.

- Extensive game consists of a directed tree where nodes represent game states.
- The game starts at the root of the tree and ends at a leaf, where each
 player receives a payoff. Each node that is not a leaf is a decision node.
- Moves a player can make in a given state are assigned to the outgoing edges of the corresponding decision node.
- We partition decision nodes into information sets where all nodes in an information set belong to the same player and have the same moves.
- For player i, we let H_i be the set of information sets of i and, for an information set h∈ H_i, we let C_h be the set of moves at h.

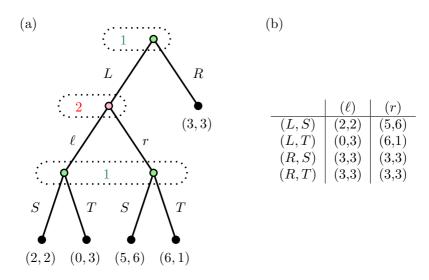
- Extensive game consists of a directed tree where nodes represent game states.
- The game starts at the root of the tree and ends at a leaf, where each
 player receives a payoff. Each node that is not a leaf is a decision node.
- Moves a player can make in a given state are assigned to the outgoing edges of the corresponding decision node.
- We partition decision nodes into information sets where all nodes in an information set belong to the same player and have the same moves.
- For player i, we let H_i be the set of information sets of i and, for an information set h∈ H_i, we let C_h be the set of moves at h.
- In perfect-information games all information sets are singletons.

- Extensive game consists of a directed tree where nodes represent game states.
- The game starts at the root of the tree and ends at a leaf, where each player receives a payoff. Each node that is not a leaf is a decision node.
- Moves a player can make in a given state are assigned to the outgoing edges of the corresponding decision node.
- We partition decision nodes into information sets where all nodes in an information set belong to the same player and have the same moves.
- For player i, we let H_i be the set of information sets of i and, for an information set $h \in H_i$, we let C_h be the set of moves at h.
- In perfect-information games all information sets are singletons.
 Otherwise, we have an imperfect-information game where players have only partial knowledge of the states that they are in.

Example: imperfect-information game

Example: imperfect-information game

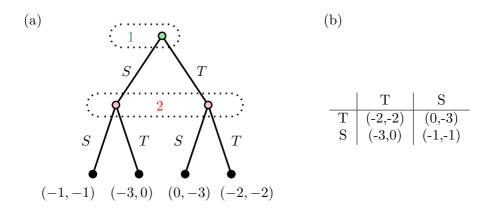
 An example of an imperfect-information game in extensive form (part (a)) and its normal-form (part (b)).



Example: Prisoner's dilemma

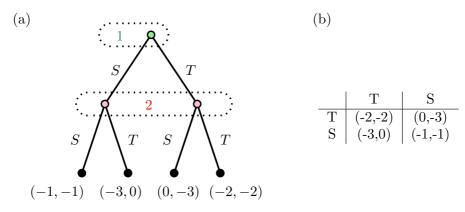
Example: Prisoner's dilemma

Prisoner's dilemma in extensive form (part (a)) and its normal-form (part (b)).



Example: Prisoner's dilemma

Prisoner's dilemma in extensive form (part (a)) and its normal-form (part (b)).



• Every normal-form game can be expressed as an imperfect-information extensive game.

• A pure strategy for player *i* is a complete specification of which deterministic action to take at every information set belonging to *i*.

- A pure strategy for player i is a complete specification of which deterministic action to take at every information set belonging to i.
 - o Formally, a pure strategy of player i is a vector $(c_h)_{h \in H_i}$ from the Cartesian product $\prod_{h \in H_i} C_h$.

- A pure strategy for player *i* is a complete specification of which deterministic action to take at every information set belonging to *i*.
 - o Formally, a pure strategy of player i is a vector $(c_h)_{h \in H_i}$ from the Cartesian product $\prod_{h \in H_i} C_h$.
 - \circ Using pure strategies, we can transform an extensive game G into a normal-form game G' simply by tabulating all pure strategies of the players and recording the resulting expected payoffs.

- A pure strategy for player *i* is a complete specification of which deterministic action to take at every information set belonging to *i*.
 - Formally, a pure strategy of player i is a vector $(c_h)_{h \in H_i}$ from the Cartesian product $\prod_{h \in H_i} C_h$.
 - \circ Using pure strategies, we can transform an extensive game G into a normal-form game G' simply by tabulating all pure strategies of the players and recording the resulting expected payoffs.
- Mixed strategies of G are the mixed strategies of G'.

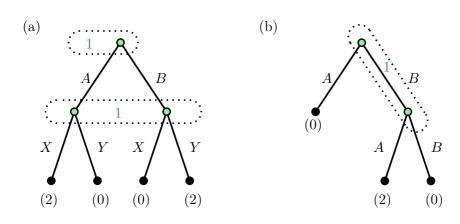
- A pure strategy for player *i* is a complete specification of which deterministic action to take at every information set belonging to *i*.
 - Formally, a pure strategy of player i is a vector $(c_h)_{h \in H_i}$ from the Cartesian product $\prod_{h \in H_i} C_h$.
 - \circ Using pure strategies, we can transform an extensive game G into a normal-form game G' simply by tabulating all pure strategies of the players and recording the resulting expected payoffs.
- Mixed strategies of G are the mixed strategies of G'.
- In the same way, we also define the set of Nash equilibria of G.

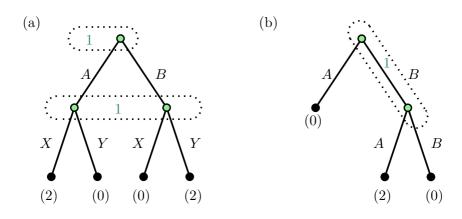
- A pure strategy for player *i* is a complete specification of which deterministic action to take at every information set belonging to *i*.
 - Formally, a pure strategy of player i is a vector $(c_h)_{h \in H_i}$ from the Cartesian product $\prod_{h \in H_i} C_h$.
 - \circ Using pure strategies, we can transform an extensive game G into a normal-form game G' simply by tabulating all pure strategies of the players and recording the resulting expected payoffs.
- Mixed strategies of G are the mixed strategies of G'.
- In the same way, we also define the set of Nash equilibria of G.
- A behavioral strategy of player i is a probability distribution on C_h for each h∈ H_i.

- A pure strategy for player *i* is a complete specification of which deterministic action to take at every information set belonging to *i*.
 - Formally, a pure strategy of player i is a vector $(c_h)_{h \in H_i}$ from the Cartesian product $\prod_{h \in H_i} C_h$.
 - \circ Using pure strategies, we can transform an extensive game G into a normal-form game G' simply by tabulating all pure strategies of the players and recording the resulting expected payoffs.
- Mixed strategies of G are the mixed strategies of G'.
- In the same way, we also define the set of Nash equilibria of G.
- A behavioral strategy of player *i* is a probability distribution on C_h for each *h* ∈ H_i.
 - This is a strategy in which each player's choice at each information set is made independently of his choices at other information sets.

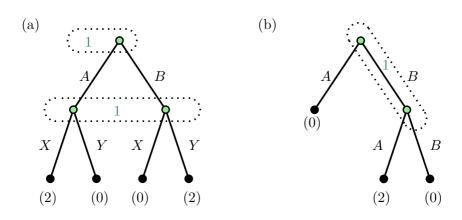
- A pure strategy for player *i* is a complete specification of which deterministic action to take at every information set belonging to *i*.
 - Formally, a pure strategy of player i is a vector $(c_h)_{h \in H_i}$ from the Cartesian product $\prod_{h \in H_i} C_h$.
 - \circ Using pure strategies, we can transform an extensive game G into a normal-form game G' simply by tabulating all pure strategies of the players and recording the resulting expected payoffs.
- Mixed strategies of G are the mixed strategies of G'.
- In the same way, we also define the set of Nash equilibria of G.
- A behavioral strategy of player i is a probability distribution on C_h for each h∈ H_i.
 - This is a strategy in which each player's choice at each information set is made independently of his choices at other information sets.
 - So a behavioral strategy is a vector of probability distributions while a mixed strategy is a probability distribution over vectors.

- A pure strategy for player i is a complete specification of which deterministic action to take at every information set belonging to i.
 - ∘ Formally, a pure strategy of player i is a vector $(c_h)_{h \in H_i}$ from the Cartesian product $\prod_{h \in H_i} C_h$.
 - \circ Using pure strategies, we can transform an extensive game G into a normal-form game G' simply by tabulating all pure strategies of the players and recording the resulting expected payoffs.
- Mixed strategies of G are the mixed strategies of G'.
- In the same way, we also define the set of Nash equilibria of G.
- A behavioral strategy of player *i* is a probability distribution on C_h for each *h* ∈ H_i.
 - This is a strategy in which each player's choice at each information set is made independently of his choices at other information sets.
 - So a behavioral strategy is a vector of probability distributions while a mixed strategy is a probability distribution over vectors.
 - Unlike in mixed strategy, here a player might play different moves in different encounters of *h*.





• (a) No behavioral strategy can remember whether A or B was played, while the mixed strategy $(\frac{1}{2}(A, X), \frac{1}{2}(B, Y))$ can employ this.



- (a) No behavioral strategy can remember whether A or B was played, while the mixed strategy $(\frac{1}{2}(A, X), \frac{1}{2}(B, Y))$ can employ this.
- (b) A mixed strategy has to commit to A or B both times, while the behavioral strategy $\frac{1}{2}A + \frac{1}{2}B$ can give a different move each time and yields a better payoff.

Games of perfect recall

Games of perfect recall

• In general, the expressive power of behavioral strategies and mixed strategies is incomparable.

Games of perfect recall

- In general, the expressive power of behavioral strategies and mixed strategies is incomparable.
- However, there is a large class of extensive games for which the two definitions coincide.

- In general, the expressive power of behavioral strategies and mixed strategies is incomparable.
- However, there is a large class of extensive games for which the two definitions coincide. To define it, we need some auxiliary terms.

- In general, the expressive power of behavioral strategies and mixed strategies is incomparable.
- However, there is a large class of extensive games for which the two definitions coincide. To define it, we need some auxiliary terms.
- A sequence $\sigma_i(t)$ of moves of player i to a node t is the sequence of his moves (disregarding the moves of other players) on the unique path from the root of the tree to t.

- In general, the expressive power of behavioral strategies and mixed strategies is incomparable.
- However, there is a large class of extensive games for which the two definitions coincide. To define it, we need some auxiliary terms.
- A sequence $\sigma_i(t)$ of moves of player i to a node t is the sequence of his moves (disregarding the moves of other players) on the unique path from the root of the tree to t. The empty sequence is denoted \emptyset .

- In general, the expressive power of behavioral strategies and mixed strategies is incomparable.
- However, there is a large class of extensive games for which the two definitions coincide. To define it, we need some auxiliary terms.
- A sequence $\sigma_i(t)$ of moves of player i to a node t is the sequence of his moves (disregarding the moves of other players) on the unique path from the root of the tree to t. The empty sequence is denoted \emptyset .
- Player *i* has perfect recall if and only if, for every $h \in H_i$ and any nodes $t, t' \in h$, we have $\sigma_i(t) = \sigma_i(t')$.

- In general, the expressive power of behavioral strategies and mixed strategies is incomparable.
- However, there is a large class of extensive games for which the two definitions coincide. To define it, we need some auxiliary terms.
- A sequence $\sigma_i(t)$ of moves of player i to a node t is the sequence of his moves (disregarding the moves of other players) on the unique path from the root of the tree to t. The empty sequence is denoted \emptyset .
- Player *i* has perfect recall if and only if, for every $h \in H_i$ and any nodes $t, t' \in h$, we have $\sigma_i(t) = \sigma_i(t')$.
- In such case, we use σ_h to denote the unique sequence leading to any node t in h.

- In general, the expressive power of behavioral strategies and mixed strategies is incomparable.
- However, there is a large class of extensive games for which the two definitions coincide. To define it, we need some auxiliary terms.
- A sequence $\sigma_i(t)$ of moves of player i to a node t is the sequence of his moves (disregarding the moves of other players) on the unique path from the root of the tree to t. The empty sequence is denoted \emptyset .
- Player *i* has perfect recall if and only if, for every $h \in H_i$ and any nodes $t, t' \in h$, we have $\sigma_i(t) = \sigma_i(t')$.
- In such case, we use σ_h to denote the unique sequence leading to any node t in h.
- A game G is a game of perfect recall if each player has perfect recall.

- In general, the expressive power of behavioral strategies and mixed strategies is incomparable.
- However, there is a large class of extensive games for which the two definitions coincide. To define it, we need some auxiliary terms.
- A sequence $\sigma_i(t)$ of moves of player i to a node t is the sequence of his moves (disregarding the moves of other players) on the unique path from the root of the tree to t. The empty sequence is denoted \emptyset .
- Player *i* has perfect recall if and only if, for every $h \in H_i$ and any nodes $t, t' \in h$, we have $\sigma_i(t) = \sigma_i(t')$.
- In such case, we use σ_h to denote the unique sequence leading to any node t in h.
- A game G is a game of perfect recall if each player has perfect recall.
 - No player forgets any information he knew about moves made so far.

- In general, the expressive power of behavioral strategies and mixed strategies is incomparable.
- However, there is a large class of extensive games for which the two definitions coincide. To define it, we need some auxiliary terms.
- A sequence $\sigma_i(t)$ of moves of player i to a node t is the sequence of his moves (disregarding the moves of other players) on the unique path from the root of the tree to t. The empty sequence is denoted \emptyset .
- Player *i* has perfect recall if and only if, for every $h \in H_i$ and any nodes $t, t' \in h$, we have $\sigma_i(t) = \sigma_i(t')$.
- In such case, we use σ_h to denote the unique sequence leading to any node t in h.
- A game G is a game of perfect recall if each player has perfect recall.
 - No player forgets any information he knew about moves made so far. That is, each player remembers what he did in prior moves, and each player remembers everything that he knew before.

- In general, the expressive power of behavioral strategies and mixed strategies is incomparable.
- However, there is a large class of extensive games for which the two definitions coincide. To define it, we need some auxiliary terms.
- A sequence $\sigma_i(t)$ of moves of player i to a node t is the sequence of his moves (disregarding the moves of other players) on the unique path from the root of the tree to t. The empty sequence is denoted \emptyset .
- Player *i* has perfect recall if and only if, for every $h \in H_i$ and any nodes $t, t' \in h$, we have $\sigma_i(t) = \sigma_i(t')$.
- In such case, we use σ_h to denote the unique sequence leading to any node t in h.
- A game G is a game of perfect recall if each player has perfect recall.
 - No player forgets any information he knew about moves made so far. That is, each player remembers what he did in prior moves, and each player remembers everything that he knew before.
 - Every perfect-information game is a game of perfect recall.

• In games of perfect recall, mixed strategies and behavioral strategies are equivalent.

• In games of perfect recall, mixed strategies and behavioral strategies are equivalent.

Kuhn's theorem (Theorem 2.62)

In a game of perfect recall, any mixed strategy of a given player can be replaced by an equivalent behavioral strategy, and any behavioral strategy can be replaced by an equivalent mixed strategy.

 In games of perfect recall, mixed strategies and behavioral strategies are equivalent.

Kuhn's theorem (Theorem 2.62)

In a game of perfect recall, any mixed strategy of a given player can be replaced by an equivalent behavioral strategy, and any behavioral strategy can be replaced by an equivalent mixed strategy.





Figure: Harold William Kuhn (1925-2014).

• Every extensive game G can be converted into an equivalent normal-form game G'.

- Every extensive game G can be converted into an equivalent normal-form game G'.
- So we can find NE of G by converting it into G' and applying the Lemke–Howson algorithm to G'.

- Every extensive game G can be converted into an equivalent normal-form game G'.
- So we can find NE of G by converting it into G' and applying the Lemke–Howson algorithm to G'.
- However, this is inefficient, as the number of actions in G' is exponential in the size of G.

- Every extensive game G can be converted into an equivalent normal-form game G'.
- So we can find NE of G by converting it into G' and applying the Lemke–Howson algorithm to G'.
- However, this is inefficient, as the number of actions in G' is exponential in the size of G. So the number of steps can be double exponential!

- Every extensive game G can be converted into an equivalent normal-form game G'.
- So we can find NE of G by converting it into G' and applying the Lemke–Howson algorithm to G'.
- However, this is inefficient, as the number of actions in G' is exponential in the size of G. So the number of steps can be double exponential!
- To avoid this problem, we will work directly with G using so-called sequence form.

- Every extensive game G can be converted into an equivalent normal-form game G'.
- So we can find NE of G by converting it into G' and applying the Lemke–Howson algorithm to G'.
- However, this is inefficient, as the number of actions in G' is exponential in the size of G. So the number of steps can be double exponential!
- To avoid this problem, we will work directly with *G* using so-called sequence form.
- From now on, we consider only games of perfect recall.

- Every extensive game G can be converted into an equivalent normal-form game G'.
- So we can find NE of G by converting it into G' and applying the Lemke–Howson algorithm to G'.
- However, this is inefficient, as the number of actions in G' is exponential in the size of G. So the number of steps can be double exponential!
- To avoid this problem, we will work directly with *G* using so-called sequence form.
- From now on, we consider only games of perfect recall.
- By Kuhn's Theorem, NE do not change if we restrict ourselves to behavioral strategies.

- Every extensive game G can be converted into an equivalent normal-form game G'.
- So we can find NE of G by converting it into G' and applying the Lemke–Howson algorithm to G'.
- However, this is inefficient, as the number of actions in G' is exponential in the size of G. So the number of steps can be double exponential!
- To avoid this problem, we will work directly with *G* using so-called sequence form.
- From now on, we consider only games of perfect recall.
- By Kuhn's Theorem, NE do not change if we restrict ourselves to behavioral strategies. So we will work with them.

• The sequence form of an imperfect-information game G is a 4-tuple (P, S, u, \mathcal{C}) where

- The sequence form of an imperfect-information game G is a 4-tuple (P,S,u,\mathcal{C}) where
 - \circ *P* is a set of *n* players,

- The sequence form of an imperfect-information game G is a 4-tuple (P, S, u, \mathcal{C}) where
 - \circ *P* is a set of *n* players,
 - \circ $S = (S_1, \dots, S_n)$, where S_i is a set of sequences of player i,

- The sequence form of an imperfect-information game G is a 4-tuple (P, S, u, \mathcal{C}) where
 - P is a set of n players,
 - \circ $S = (S_1, \dots, S_n)$, where S_i is a set of sequences of player i,
 - \circ $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$, where $\mathbf{u}_i \colon S \to \mathbb{R}$ is the payoff function of player i, and

- The sequence form of an imperfect-information game G is a 4-tuple (P, S, u, \mathcal{C}) where
 - \circ *P* is a set of *n* players,
 - \circ $S = (S_1, \dots, S_n)$, where S_i is a set of sequences of player i,
 - \circ $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$, where $\mathbf{u}_i \colon S \to \mathbb{R}$ is the payoff function of player i, and
 - \circ $\mathcal{C} = (\mathcal{C}_1, \dots, \mathcal{C}_n)$ is a set of linear constraints on the realization probabilities of player i.

- The sequence form of an imperfect-information game G is a 4-tuple (P, S, u, \mathcal{C}) where
 - \circ *P* is a set of *n* players,
 - \circ $S = (S_1, \dots, S_n)$, where S_i is a set of sequences of player i,
 - \circ $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$, where $\mathbf{u}_i \colon S \to \mathbb{R}$ is the payoff function of player i, and
 - \circ $\mathcal{C} = (\mathcal{C}_1, \dots, \mathcal{C}_n)$ is a set of linear constraints on the realization probabilities of player i.
- Now, we will define all these terms properly.

- The sequence form of an imperfect-information game G is a 4-tuple (P, S, u, \mathcal{C}) where
 - \circ *P* is a set of *n* players,
 - \circ $S = (S_1, \dots, S_n)$, where S_i is a set of sequences of player i,
 - \circ $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$, where $\mathbf{u}_i \colon S \to \mathbb{R}$ is the payoff function of player i, and
 - \circ $\mathcal{C} = (\mathcal{C}_1, \dots, \mathcal{C}_n)$ is a set of linear constraints on the realization probabilities of player i.
- Now, we will define all these terms properly. It will take some time...

- The sequence form of an imperfect-information game G is a 4-tuple (P, S, u, \mathcal{C}) where
 - \circ *P* is a set of *n* players,
 - \circ $S = (S_1, \dots, S_n)$, where S_i is a set of sequences of player i,
 - \circ $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$, where $\mathbf{u}_i \colon S \to \mathbb{R}$ is the payoff function of player i, and
 - \circ $C = (C_1, ..., C_n)$ is a set of linear constraints on the realization probabilities of player i.
- Now, we will define all these terms properly. It will take some time...
- First, we explain the set of sequences *S* in more detail.

- The sequence form of an imperfect-information game G is a 4-tuple (P, S, u, C) where
 - P is a set of n players,
 - \circ $S = (S_1, \dots, S_n)$, where S_i is a set of sequences of player i,
 - \circ $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$, where $\mathbf{u}_i \colon S \to \mathbb{R}$ is the payoff function of player i, and
 - \circ $C = (C_1, ..., C_n)$ is a set of linear constraints on the realization probabilities of player i.
- Now, we will define all these terms properly. It will take some time...
- First, we explain the set of sequences *S* in more detail.
 - Any sequence σ from S_i is either the empty sequence \emptyset or it is uniquely determined by the last move c at the information set h,

- The sequence form of an imperfect-information game G is a 4-tuple (P, S, u, C) where
 - P is a set of n players,
 - \circ $S = (S_1, \dots, S_n)$, where S_i is a set of sequences of player i,
 - \circ $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$, where $\mathbf{u}_i \colon S \to \mathbb{R}$ is the payoff function of player i, and
 - \circ $C = (C_1, ..., C_n)$ is a set of linear constraints on the realization probabilities of player i.
- Now, we will define all these terms properly. It will take some time...
- First, we explain the set of sequences *S* in more detail.
 - Any sequence σ from S_i is either the empty sequence \emptyset or it is uniquely determined by the last move c at the information set h, that is, $\sigma = \sigma_h c$.

- The sequence form of an imperfect-information game G is a 4-tuple (P, S, u, C) where
 - P is a set of n players,
 - \circ $S = (S_1, \dots, S_n)$, where S_i is a set of sequences of player i,
 - \circ $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$, where $\mathbf{u}_i \colon S \to \mathbb{R}$ is the payoff function of player i, and
 - \circ $C = (C_1, ..., C_n)$ is a set of linear constraints on the realization probabilities of player i.
- Now, we will define all these terms properly. It will take some time...
- First, we explain the set of sequences *S* in more detail.
 - Any sequence σ from S_i is either the empty sequence \emptyset or it is uniquely determined by the last move c at the information set h, that is, $\sigma = \sigma_h c$.
 - ∘ Thus, $S_i = \{\emptyset\} \cup \{\sigma_h c : h \in H_i, c \in C_h\}$.

- The sequence form of an imperfect-information game G is a 4-tuple (P, S, u, C) where
 - P is a set of n players,
 - \circ $S = (S_1, \dots, S_n)$, where S_i is a set of sequences of player i,
 - \circ $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$, where $\mathbf{u}_i \colon S \to \mathbb{R}$ is the payoff function of player i, and
 - \circ $\mathcal{C} = (\mathcal{C}_1, \dots, \mathcal{C}_n)$ is a set of linear constraints on the realization probabilities of player i.
- Now, we will define all these terms properly. It will take some time...
- First, we explain the set of sequences *S* in more detail.
 - Any sequence σ from S_i is either the empty sequence \emptyset or it is uniquely determined by the last move c at the information set h, that is, $\sigma = \sigma_h c$.
 - ∘ Thus, $S_i = \{\emptyset\} \cup \{\sigma_h c : h \in H_i, c \in C_h\}$.
 - \circ It follows that $|S_i| = 1 + \sum_{h \in H_i} |C_h|$,

- The sequence form of an imperfect-information game G is a 4-tuple (P, S, u, C) where
 - \circ *P* is a set of *n* players,
 - \circ $S = (S_1, \dots, S_n)$, where S_i is a set of sequences of player i,
 - \circ $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$, where $\mathbf{u}_i \colon S \to \mathbb{R}$ is the payoff function of player i, and
 - \circ $C = (C_1, ..., C_n)$ is a set of linear constraints on the realization probabilities of player i.
- Now, we will define all these terms properly. It will take some time...
- First, we explain the set of sequences *S* in more detail.
 - Any sequence σ from S_i is either the empty sequence \emptyset or it is uniquely determined by the last move c at the information set h, that is, $\sigma = \sigma_h c$.
 - ∘ Thus, $S_i = \{\emptyset\} \cup \{\sigma_h c : h \in H_i, c \in C_h\}$.
 - It follows that $|S_i| = 1 + \sum_{h \in H_i} |C_h|$, which is linear in the size of the tree of G.

• We now explain the payoff function u in more detail.

- We now explain the payoff function *u* in more detail.
 - For player i and sequences $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n) \in S$, the payoff $u_i(\sigma)$ equals $u_i(\ell)$ where ℓ is the leaf that would be reached if each player j played his sequence σ_j .

- We now explain the payoff function *u* in more detail.
 - For player i and sequences $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n) \in S$, the payoff $u_i(\sigma)$ equals $u_i(\ell)$ where ℓ is the leaf that would be reached if each player j played his sequence σ_j . Otherwise, $u_i(\sigma) = 0$.

- We now explain the payoff function *u* in more detail.
 - For player i and sequences $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n) \in S$, the payoff $u_i(\sigma)$ equals $u_i(\ell)$ where ℓ is the leaf that would be reached if each player j played his sequence σ_j . Otherwise, $u_i(\sigma) = 0$.
 - \circ Similarly as in normal-form games, we can represent the payoffs u using matrices with entries indexed by elements from S.

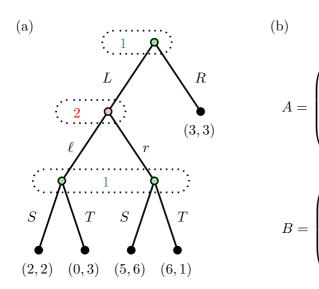
- We now explain the payoff function *u* in more detail.
 - For player i and sequences $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n) \in S$, the payoff $u_i(\sigma)$ equals $u_i(\ell)$ where ℓ is the leaf that would be reached if each player j played his sequence σ_j . Otherwise, $u_i(\sigma) = 0$.
 - \circ Similarly as in normal-form games, we can represent the payoffs u using matrices with entries indexed by elements from S.
 - Note that these matrices are sparse as most entries are 0.

- We now explain the payoff function *u* in more detail.
 - For player i and sequences $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n) \in S$, the payoff $u_i(\sigma)$ equals $u_i(\ell)$ where ℓ is the leaf that would be reached if each player j played his sequence σ_j . Otherwise, $u_i(\sigma) = 0$.
 - \circ Similarly as in normal-form games, we can represent the payoffs u using matrices with entries indexed by elements from S.
 - Note that these matrices are sparse as most entries are 0.
 - If there are only two players, then we capture their payoffs with matrices A and B.

Example: sequence form payoff matrices

Example: sequence form payoff matrices

 An example of an imperfect-information game in extensive form (part (a)) and its sequence form payoff matrices (part (b)).



• We now explain the linear constraints \mathcal{C} in more detail.

- We now explain the linear constraints C in more detail.
 - We still do not have everything to describe G since a player cannot choose sequences as actions because other players might not play in a way that would allow him to follow to a leaf.

- We now explain the linear constraints C in more detail.
 - We still do not have everything to describe G since a player cannot choose sequences as actions because other players might not play in a way that would allow him to follow to a leaf. This is why we will work with behavioral strategies.

- We now explain the linear constraints \mathcal{C} in more detail.
 - \circ We still do not have everything to describe G since a player cannot choose sequences as actions because other players might not play in a way that would allow him to follow to a leaf. This is why we will work with behavioral strategies.
 - However, working with them directly is computationally difficult.

- We now explain the linear constraints \mathcal{C} in more detail.
 - \circ We still do not have everything to describe G since a player cannot choose sequences as actions because other players might not play in a way that would allow him to follow to a leaf. This is why we will work with behavioral strategies.
 - However, working with them directly is computationally difficult.
 So we develop an alternate concept of a realization plan.

- We now explain the linear constraints \mathcal{C} in more detail.
 - \circ We still do not have everything to describe G since a player cannot choose sequences as actions because other players might not play in a way that would allow him to follow to a leaf. This is why we will work with behavioral strategies.
 - However, working with them directly is computationally difficult.
 So we develop an alternate concept of a realization plan.
 - The realization plan of a behavioral strategy β_i for player i is a mapping $x \colon S_i \to [0,1]$ defined as $x(\sigma_i) = \prod_{c \in \sigma_i} \beta_i(c)$.

- We now explain the linear constraints \mathcal{C} in more detail.
 - \circ We still do not have everything to describe G since a player cannot choose sequences as actions because other players might not play in a way that would allow him to follow to a leaf. This is why we will work with behavioral strategies.
 - However, working with them directly is computationally difficult.
 So we develop an alternate concept of a realization plan.
 - The realization plan of a behavioral strategy β_i for player i is a mapping $x \colon S_i \to [0,1]$ defined as $x(\sigma_i) = \prod_{c \in \sigma_i} \beta_i(c)$. The value $x(\sigma_i)$ is called the realization probability.

- We now explain the linear constraints \mathcal{C} in more detail.
 - \circ We still do not have everything to describe G since a player cannot choose sequences as actions because other players might not play in a way that would allow him to follow to a leaf. This is why we will work with behavioral strategies.
 - However, working with them directly is computationally difficult.
 So we develop an alternate concept of a realization plan.
 - The realization plan of a behavioral strategy β_i for player i is a mapping $x \colon S_i \to [0,1]$ defined as $x(\sigma_i) = \prod_{c \in \sigma_i} \beta_i(c)$. The value $x(\sigma_i)$ is called the realization probability.
 - The realization plan is the probability that a sequence arises under a given behavioral strategy.

- We now explain the linear constraints C in more detail.
 - \circ We still do not have everything to describe G since a player cannot choose sequences as actions because other players might not play in a way that would allow him to follow to a leaf. This is why we will work with behavioral strategies.
 - However, working with them directly is computationally difficult.
 So we develop an alternate concept of a realization plan.
 - The realization plan of a behavioral strategy β_i for player i is a mapping $x \colon S_i \to [0,1]$ defined as $x(\sigma_i) = \prod_{c \in \sigma_i} \beta_i(c)$. The value $x(\sigma_i)$ is called the realization probability.
 - The realization plan is the probability that a sequence arises under a given behavioral strategy.
 - Equivalently, we can work with it using a set of linear equations:

- We now explain the linear constraints $\mathcal C$ in more detail.
 - \circ We still do not have everything to describe G since a player cannot choose sequences as actions because other players might not play in a way that would allow him to follow to a leaf. This is why we will work with behavioral strategies.
 - However, working with them directly is computationally difficult.
 So we develop an alternate concept of a realization plan.
 - The realization plan of a behavioral strategy β_i for player i is a mapping $x \colon S_i \to [0,1]$ defined as $x(\sigma_i) = \prod_{c \in \sigma_i} \beta_i(c)$. The value $x(\sigma_i)$ is called the realization probability.
 - The realization plan is the probability that a sequence arises under a given behavioral strategy.
 - ♦ Equivalently, we can work with it using a set of linear equations: A realization plan for player i is a mapping $x: S_i \rightarrow [0,1]$ satisfying

- We now explain the linear constraints \mathcal{C} in more detail.
 - \circ We still do not have everything to describe G since a player cannot choose sequences as actions because other players might not play in a way that would allow him to follow to a leaf. This is why we will work with behavioral strategies.
 - However, working with them directly is computationally difficult.
 So we develop an alternate concept of a realization plan.
 - The realization plan of a behavioral strategy β_i for player i is a mapping $x \colon S_i \to [0,1]$ defined as $x(\sigma_i) = \prod_{c \in \sigma_i} \beta_i(c)$. The value $x(\sigma_i)$ is called the realization probability.
 - The realization plan is the probability that a sequence arises under a given behavioral strategy.
 - ♦ Equivalently, we can work with it using a set of linear equations: A realization plan for player i is a mapping $x: S_i \rightarrow [0,1]$ satisfying $x(\emptyset) = 1$, and

- We now explain the linear constraints $\mathcal C$ in more detail.
 - We still do not have everything to describe G since a player cannot choose sequences as actions because other players might not play in a way that would allow him to follow to a leaf. This is why we will work with behavioral strategies.
 - However, working with them directly is computationally difficult.
 So we develop an alternate concept of a realization plan.
 - The realization plan of a behavioral strategy β_i for player i is a mapping $x \colon S_i \to [0,1]$ defined as $x(\sigma_i) = \prod_{c \in \sigma_i} \beta_i(c)$. The value $x(\sigma_i)$ is called the realization probability.
 - The realization plan is the probability that a sequence arises under a given behavioral strategy.
 - ♦ Equivalently, we can work with it using a set of linear equations: A realization plan for player i is a mapping $x: S_i \to [0,1]$ satisfying $x(\emptyset) = 1$, and $\sum_{c \in C_h} x(\sigma_h c) = x(\sigma_h)$ for every $h \in H_i$.

- We now explain the linear constraints \mathcal{C} in more detail.
 - We still do not have everything to describe *G* since a player cannot choose sequences as actions because other players might not play in a way that would allow him to follow to a leaf. This is why we will work with behavioral strategies.
 - However, working with them directly is computationally difficult. So we develop an alternate concept of a realization plan.
 - The realization plan of a behavioral strategy β_i for player i is a mapping $x \colon S_i \to [0,1]$ defined as $x(\sigma_i) = \prod_{c \in \sigma_i} \beta_i(c)$. The value $x(\sigma_i)$ is called the realization probability.
 - ♦ The realization plan is the probability that a sequence arises under a given behavioral strategy.
 - ♦ Equivalently, we can work with it using a set of linear equations: A realization plan for player i is a mapping $x: S_i \to [0,1]$ satisfying $x(\emptyset) = 1$, and $\sum_{c \in C_h} x(\sigma_h c) = x(\sigma_h)$ for every $h \in H_i$.
 - \diamond We let \mathcal{C}_i be the set of constraints of the second type.

• Consider an extensive game *G* of two players.

- Consider an extensive game *G* of two players.
- We show how to actually use the sequence form to compute NE.

- Consider an extensive game *G* of two players.
- We show how to actually use the sequence form to compute NE.
- Consider realization plans as vectors $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_{\sigma})_{\sigma \in S_1} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_1|}$ and $\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{y}_{\tau})_{\tau \in S_2} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_2|}$.

- Consider an extensive game G of two players.
- We show how to actually use the sequence form to compute NE.
- Consider realization plans as vectors $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_{\sigma})_{\sigma \in S_1} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_1|}$ and $\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{y}_{\tau})_{\tau \in S_2} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_2|}$.
- ullet Then, the linear constraints from ${\mathcal C}$ can be written as

- Consider an extensive game *G* of two players.
- We show how to actually use the sequence form to compute NE.
- Consider realization plans as vectors $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_{\sigma})_{\sigma \in S_1} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_1|}$ and $\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{y}_{\tau})_{\tau \in S_2} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_2|}$.
- ullet Then, the linear constraints from ${\mathcal C}$ can be written as

$$Ex = e, \quad x \ge \mathbf{0}$$
 and $Fy = f, \quad y \ge \mathbf{0}$

- Consider an extensive game G of two players.
- We show how to actually use the sequence form to compute NE.
- Consider realization plans as vectors $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_{\sigma})_{\sigma \in S_1} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_1|}$ and $\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{y}_{\tau})_{\tau \in S_2} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_2|}$.
- ullet Then, the linear constraints from ${\mathcal C}$ can be written as

$$Ex = e, x \ge \mathbf{0}$$
 and $Fy = f, y \ge \mathbf{0}$

where the constraint matrices E and F have $1+|H_1|$ and $1+|H_2|$ rows with first row of Ex=e and Fy=f corresponding to $x(\emptyset)=1$ for E and $y(\emptyset)=1$ for F.

- Consider an extensive game *G* of two players.
- We show how to actually use the sequence form to compute NE.
- Consider realization plans as vectors $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_{\sigma})_{\sigma \in S_1} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_1|}$ and $\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{y}_{\tau})_{\tau \in S_2} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_2|}$.
- ullet Then, the linear constraints from ${\mathcal C}$ can be written as

$$Ex = e, x \ge \mathbf{0}$$
 and $Fy = f, y \ge \mathbf{0}$

where the constraint matrices E and F have $1+|H_1|$ and $1+|H_2|$ rows with first row of Ex=e and Fy=f corresponding to $x(\emptyset)=1$ for E and $y(\emptyset)=1$ for F.

• The other rows of Ex = e are $-x(\sigma_h) + \sum_{c \in C_h} x(\sigma_h c) = 0$ for every $h \in H_1$.

- Consider an extensive game *G* of two players.
- We show how to actually use the sequence form to compute NE.
- Consider realization plans as vectors $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_{\sigma})_{\sigma \in S_1} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_1|}$ and $\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{y}_{\tau})_{\tau \in S_2} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_2|}$.
- ullet Then, the linear constraints from ${\mathcal C}$ can be written as

$$Ex = e, \quad x \ge \mathbf{0}$$
 and $Fy = f, \quad y \ge \mathbf{0}$

where the constraint matrices E and F have $1+|H_1|$ and $1+|H_2|$ rows with first row of Ex=e and Fy=f corresponding to $x(\emptyset)=1$ for E and $y(\emptyset)=1$ for F.

- The other rows of Ex = e are $-x(\sigma_h) + \sum_{c \in C_h} x(\sigma_h c) = 0$ for every $h \in H_1$.
- For Fy = f, we have the rows $-y(\sigma_h) + \sum_{c \in C_h} y(\sigma_h c) = 0$ for every $h \in H_2$.

- Consider an extensive game *G* of two players.
- We show how to actually use the sequence form to compute NE.
- Consider realization plans as vectors $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_{\sigma})_{\sigma \in S_1} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_1|}$ and $\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{y}_{\tau})_{\tau \in S_2} \in \mathbb{R}^{|S_2|}$.
- ullet Then, the linear constraints from ${\mathcal C}$ can be written as

$$Ex = e, x \ge \mathbf{0}$$
 and $Fy = f, y \ge \mathbf{0}$

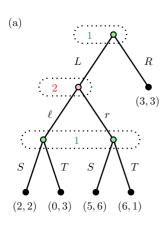
where the constraint matrices E and F have $1 + |H_1|$ and $1 + |H_2|$ rows with first row of Ex = e and Fy = f corresponding to $x(\emptyset) = 1$ for E and $y(\emptyset) = 1$ for F.

- The other rows of Ex = e are $-x(\sigma_h) + \sum_{c \in C_h} x(\sigma_h c) = 0$ for every $h \in H_1$.
- For Fy = f, we have the rows $-y(\sigma_h) + \sum_{c \in C_h} y(\sigma_h c) = 0$ for every $h \in H_2$.
- The vectors e and f also have $1 + |H_1|$ and $1 + |H_2|$ rows.

Example: sequence form constraints

Example: sequence form constraints

 An example of an imperfect-information game in extensive form (part (a)) and linear constraints in its sequence form (part (b)).



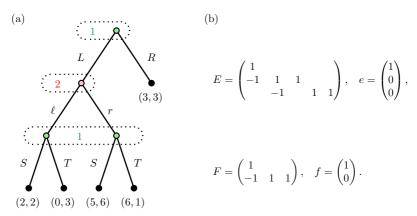
(b)

$$E = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ -1 & 1 & 1 & \\ & -1 & & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ -1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad f = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Example: sequence form constraints

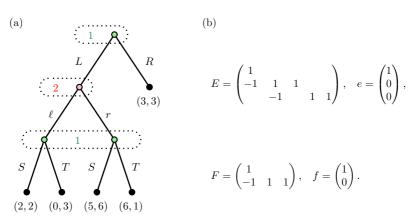
 An example of an imperfect-information game in extensive form (part (a)) and linear constraints in its sequence form (part (b)).



• We can uniquely recover behavioral strategy β_i from a realization plan x for player i in all relevant information sets $h \in H_i$ with $x(\sigma_h) > 0$.

Example: sequence form constraints

 An example of an imperfect-information game in extensive form (part (a)) and linear constraints in its sequence form (part (b)).



- We can uniquely recover behavioral strategy β_i from a realization plan x for player i in all relevant information sets $h \in H_i$ with $x(\sigma_h) > 0$.
- For each such $h \in H_i$ and $c \in C_h$, we set $\beta_i(h, c) = \frac{x(\sigma_h c)}{x(\sigma_h)}$.

• We first show how to compute best responses.

- We first show how to compute best responses.
- For a fixed realization plan *y* of player 2, a best response of player 1 is a realization plan *x* that maximizes the expected payoff.

- We first show how to compute best responses.
- For a fixed realization plan *y* of player 2, a best response of player 1 is a realization plan *x* that maximizes the expected payoff.
- Thus, x is a solution to the following linear program P

- We first show how to compute best responses.
- For a fixed realization plan *y* of player 2, a best response of player 1 is a realization plan *x* that maximizes the expected payoff.
- Thus, x is a solution to the following linear program P

 $\max x^{\top} Ay$ subject to Ex = e, $x \ge \mathbf{0}$.

- We first show how to compute best responses.
- For a fixed realization plan y of player 2, a best response of player 1 is a realization plan x that maximizes the expected payoff.
- Thus, x is a solution to the following linear program P

$$\max x^{\top} Ay$$
 subject to $Ex = e$, $x \ge \mathbf{0}$.

• The dual D of P uses unconstrained variables u and is of the form

- We first show how to compute best responses.
- For a fixed realization plan *y* of player 2, a best response of player 1 is a realization plan *x* that maximizes the expected payoff.
- Thus, x is a solution to the following linear program P

$$\max x^{\top} Ay$$
 subject to $Ex = e$, $x \ge \mathbf{0}$.

• The dual D of P uses unconstrained variables u and is of the form

$$\min e^{\top} u \text{ subject to}$$

$$E^{\top} u \ge Ay.$$

- We first show how to compute best responses.
- For a fixed realization plan *y* of player 2, a best response of player 1 is a realization plan *x* that maximizes the expected payoff.
- Thus, x is a solution to the following linear program P

$$\max x^{\top} Ay$$
 subject to $Ex = e$, $x \ge \mathbf{0}$.

• The dual D of P uses unconstrained variables u and is of the form

min
$$e^{\top}u$$
 subject to $E^{\top}u \ge Ay$.

• Analogous LPs can be used to compute best responses of player 2.

• Assume G is zero-sum, that is, A = -B.

- Assume G is zero-sum, that is, A = -B.
- Then, using the Duality Theorem to P and D, similarly as we did in the proof of the Minimax theorem, gives an LP for finding NE in G.

- Assume G is zero-sum, that is, A = -B.
- Then, using the Duality Theorem to P and D, similarly as we did in the proof of the Minimax theorem, gives an LP for finding NE in G.
- The reason is that player 2 wants to minimize $x^{\top}Ay$, which by duality equals $e^{\top}u$ if player 1 maximizes his payoff $x^{\top}Ay$.

- Assume G is zero-sum, that is, A = -B.
- Then, using the Duality Theorem to P and D, similarly as we did in the proof of the Minimax theorem, gives an LP for finding NE in G.
- The reason is that player 2 wants to minimize $x^{T}Ay$, which by duality equals $e^{\top}u$ if player 1 maximizes his payoff $x^{\top}Ay$.

Theorem 2.65

NE of a 2-player zero-sum extensive game of perfect recall are solutions of the following LP: $\min e^{\top}u$ subject to $Fy = f, E^{\top}u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, y \ge \mathbf{0}$.

- Assume G is zero-sum, that is, A = -B.
- Then, using the Duality Theorem to P and D, similarly as we did in the proof of the Minimax theorem, gives an LP for finding NE in G.
- The reason is that player 2 wants to minimize $x^{T}Ay$, which by duality equals $e^{\top}u$ if player 1 maximizes his payoff $x^{\top}Ay$.

Theorem 2.65

NE of a 2-player zero-sum extensive game of perfect recall are solutions of the following LP: min $e^{\top}u$ subject to $Fy = f, E^{\top}u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, y \ge \mathbf{0}$.

$$\min_{u,y} e^{\top} u$$
 subject to $Fy = f, E^{\top} u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, y \ge \mathbf{0}$

$$\max_{v,x} f^{\top}v$$
 subject to $Ex = e, F^{\top}v - A^{\top}x \leq \mathbf{0}, x \geq \mathbf{0}$.

- Assume G is zero-sum, that is, A = -B.
- Then, using the Duality Theorem to P and D, similarly as we did in the proof of the Minimax theorem, gives an LP for finding NE in G.
- The reason is that player 2 wants to minimize $x^{T}Ay$, which by duality equals $e^{\top}u$ if player 1 maximizes his payoff $x^{\top}Ay$.

Theorem 2.65

NE of a 2-player zero-sum extensive game of perfect recall are solutions of the following LP: min $e^{\top}u$ subject to $Fy = f, E^{\top}u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, y \ge \mathbf{0}$.

$$\min_{u,y} e^{\top} u$$
 subject to $Fy = f, E^{\top} u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, y \ge \mathbf{0}$

• The dual of this program has variables x and v and is of the form

$$\max_{v,x} f^{\top}v$$
 subject to $Ex = e, F^{\top}v - A^{\top}x \leq \mathbf{0}, x \geq \mathbf{0}$.

• This LP finds realization plan x with payoff $f^{\top}v$ for player 1.

- Assume G is zero-sum, that is, A = -B.
- Then, using the Duality Theorem to P and D, similarly as we did in the proof of the Minimax theorem, gives an LP for finding NE in G.
- The reason is that player 2 wants to minimize $x^{T}Ay$, which by duality equals $e^{\top}u$ if player 1 maximizes his payoff $x^{\top}Ay$.

Theorem 2.65

NE of a 2-player zero-sum extensive game of perfect recall are solutions of the following LP: min $e^{\top}u$ subject to $Fy = f, E^{\top}u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, y \ge \mathbf{0}$.

$$\min_{u,y} e^{\top} u$$
 subject to $Fy = f, E^{\top} u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, y \ge \mathbf{0}$

$$\max_{v,x} f^{\top}v$$
 subject to $Ex = e, F^{\top}v - A^{\top}x \leq \mathbf{0}, x \geq \mathbf{0}$.

- This LP finds realization plan x with payoff $f^{\top}v$ for player 1.
- The number of nonzero entries in matrices E, F.A, B is linear in the size of the game tree.

- Assume G is zero-sum, that is, A = -B.
- Then, using the Duality Theorem to P and D, similarly as we did in the proof of the Minimax theorem, gives an LP for finding NE in G.
- The reason is that player 2 wants to minimize x^TAy , which by duality equals $e^{\top}u$ if player 1 maximizes his payoff $x^{\top}Ay$.

Theorem 2.65

NE of a 2-player zero-sum extensive game of perfect recall are solutions of the following LP: min $e^{\top}u$ subject to $Fy = f, E^{\top}u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, y \ge \mathbf{0}$.

$$\max_{v,x} f^{\top}v$$
 subject to $Ex = e, F^{\top}v - A^{\top}x \leq \mathbf{0}, x \geq \mathbf{0}$.

- This LP finds realization plan x with payoff $f^{\top}v$ for player 1.
- The number of nonzero entries in matrices E, F.A, B is linear in the size of the game tree. Thus, the LPs can be solved in polynomial time with respect to the size of G.

- Assume G is zero-sum, that is, A = -B.
- Then, using the Duality Theorem to P and D, similarly as we did in the proof of the Minimax theorem, gives an LP for finding NE in G.
- The reason is that player 2 wants to minimize x^TAy , which by duality equals $e^{\top}u$ if player 1 maximizes his payoff $x^{\top}Ay$.

Theorem 2.65

NE of a 2-player zero-sum extensive game of perfect recall are solutions of the following LP: min $e^{\top}u$ subject to $Fy = f, E^{\top}u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, y \ge \mathbf{0}$.

$$\max_{v,x} f^{\top}v$$
 subject to $Ex = e, F^{\top}v - A^{\top}x \leq \mathbf{0}, x \geq \mathbf{0}$.

- This LP finds realization plan x with payoff $f^{\top}v$ for player 1.
- The number of nonzero entries in matrices E, F.A, B is linear in the size of the game tree. Thus, the LPs can be solved in polynomial time with respect to the size of G. This is an exponential improvement!

 A similar idea based on the Duality theorem and complementary slackness, we can also compute NE in 2-player extensive games.

 A similar idea based on the Duality theorem and complementary slackness, we can also compute NE in 2-player extensive games. See the lecture notes for more details.

 A similar idea based on the Duality theorem and complementary slackness, we can also compute NE in 2-player extensive games. See the lecture notes for more details.

Theorem 2.66

$$x^{\top}(E^{\top}u - Ay) = 0, \quad y^{\top}(F^{\top}v - B^{\top}x) = 0,$$

 $Ex = e, x \ge \mathbf{0}, \quad Fy = f, y \ge \mathbf{0},$
 $E^{\top}u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, \quad F^{\top}v - B^{\top}x \ge \mathbf{0}.$

 A similar idea based on the Duality theorem and complementary slackness, we can also compute NE in 2-player extensive games. See the lecture notes for more details.

Theorem 2.66

A pair (x, y) of realization plans in a 2-player game in the extensive form of perfect recall is NE iff there are vectors u and v such that:

$$x^{\top}(E^{\top}u - Ay) = 0, \quad y^{\top}(F^{\top}v - B^{\top}x) = 0,$$

 $Ex = e, x \ge \mathbf{0}, \quad Fy = f, y \ge \mathbf{0},$
 $E^{\top}u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, \quad F^{\top}v - B^{\top}x \ge \mathbf{0}.$

• This is not an LP.

 A similar idea based on the Duality theorem and complementary slackness, we can also compute NE in 2-player extensive games. See the lecture notes for more details.

Theorem 2.66

A pair (x, y) of realization plans in a 2-player game in the extensive form of perfect recall is NE iff there are vectors u and v such that:

$$x^{\top}(E^{\top}u - Ay) = 0, \quad y^{\top}(F^{\top}v - B^{\top}x) = 0,$$

$$Ex = e, x \ge \mathbf{0}, \quad Fy = f, y \ge \mathbf{0},$$

$$E^{\top}u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, \quad F^{\top}v - B^{\top}x \ge \mathbf{0}.$$

• This is not an LP. It is the so-called linear complementarity problem.

 A similar idea based on the Duality theorem and complementary slackness, we can also compute NE in 2-player extensive games. See the lecture notes for more details.

Theorem 2.66

$$x^{\top}(E^{\top}u - Ay) = 0, \quad y^{\top}(F^{\top}v - B^{\top}x) = 0,$$

 $Ex = e, x \ge \mathbf{0}, \quad Fy = f, y \ge \mathbf{0},$
 $E^{\top}u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, \quad F^{\top}v - B^{\top}x \ge \mathbf{0}.$

- This is not an LP. It is the so-called linear complementarity problem.
- These can be solved with Lemke's algorithm,

 A similar idea based on the Duality theorem and complementary slackness, we can also compute NE in 2-player extensive games. See the lecture notes for more details.

Theorem 2.66

$$x^{\top}(E^{\top}u - Ay) = 0, \quad y^{\top}(F^{\top}v - B^{\top}x) = 0,$$

 $Ex = e, x \ge \mathbf{0}, \quad Fy = f, y \ge \mathbf{0},$
 $E^{\top}u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, \quad F^{\top}v - B^{\top}x \ge \mathbf{0}.$

- This is not an LP. It is the so-called linear complementarity problem.
- These can be solved with Lemke's algorithm, which can take exponentially many steps, similarly to the Lemke–Howson algorithm.

• A similar idea based on the Duality theorem and complementary slackness, we can also compute NE in 2-player extensive games. See the lecture notes for more details.

Theorem 2.66

$$x^{\top}(E^{\top}u - Ay) = 0, \quad y^{\top}(F^{\top}v - B^{\top}x) = 0,$$

 $Ex = e, x \ge \mathbf{0}, \quad Fy = f, y \ge \mathbf{0},$
 $E^{\top}u - Ay \ge \mathbf{0}, \quad F^{\top}v - B^{\top}x \ge \mathbf{0}.$

- This is not an LP. It is the so-called linear complementarity problem.
- These can be solved with Lemke's algorithm, which can take exponentially many steps, similarly to the Lemke-Howson algorithm.
- Still, it is exponentially faster than to run the Lemke–Howson algorithm on the induced normal-form game.



• More about games in extensive form + implementation of the algorithms is taught in a lecture by Martin Schmid.

 More about games in extensive form + implementation of the algorithms is taught in a lecture by Martin Schmid.

Novinky.cz

Q

Novinky.cz » Internet a PC » Češi vytvořili umělou inteligenci, která drtí v ... Podrubriky: Hardware • Software • Testy • Hry a herní systémy • Mobil

Češi vytvořili umělou inteligenci, která drtí v pokeru jednoho hráče za druhým







 More about games in extensive form + implementation of the algorithms is taught in a lecture by Martin Schmid.

Novinky.cz

Q

Novinky.cz » Internet a PC » Češli vytvofili umělou inteligenci, která drtí v ... Podrubníky: Hardware - Software - Testy - Hry a herní systémy - Mobi

Češi vytvořili umělou inteligenci, která drtí v pokeru jednoho hráče za druhým

Vědci z Matematicko-fyzikální fakulty Univerzity Karlovy a Fakulty elektrotechnické ČVUT v Praze pracovali několik posledních měsíců na vývojí umělé inteligence, jejímž hlavním úkolem bude stát se špičkou v karetní hře Poker Texas Hold'em. A to se skutečně podařilo, program porazil hned několik profesionálních hráčů.





Thank you for your attention.