

# Introduction to Game Theory

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*Game Theory: Analysis of Strategic Thinking*

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**ABSTRACT: Game Theory** (GT) is the *formal analysis* of interactive decision making, i.e., of situations with  $n$  individuals (called **players**), some or all of whom have to take actions, which affect the outcome for everybody. In one-stage, or **static** games, players move simultaneously once and for all. In **multistage** games, some or all moves are sequential. The **game tree** describes the rules of interaction (who can do what, when, etc.). The **game form** describes all the rules; hence, also how outcomes depend on actions. The **game** represents a *situation*, it describes both the rules and players' personal preferences (utility functions). There is **complete information** if the rules and players' preferences are common knowledge, and **incomplete information** otherwise. There is **perfect information** if players move one at a time and perfectly observe previous moves, and **imperfect information** otherwise. The jargon of GT can be confusing, as it developed historically and therefore it was not perfectly designed.

[These slides summarize and complement Chapter 1 of "Game Theory: Analysis of Strategic Thinking" (GT-AST). For the mathematical formalism see also the note "Mathematical Language and Game Theory".]

# Introduction: game theory

- **Game theory** is the formal analysis of interactive decision making, i.e., of situations with  $n$  individuals (called **players**), some or all of whom have to take actions, which affect the outcome (consequences) for everybody. We will often focus on monetary outcomes.
  - In one-stage, or **static** games, active players move simultaneously once and for all.
  - In **multistage** games, moves are sequential, although some of them may be simultaneous.
- Game theory describes interactive situations using a *mathematical language*. It is crucial to *distinguish*:
  - the *description* of the “rules of the game”, called **game form**,
  - from the *description of the exogenous personal features* of the participating individuals, such as their “tastes” (e.g., preferences over lotteries of outcomes).
  - By appending to a game form the description of players’ exogenous features we obtain a **game**.

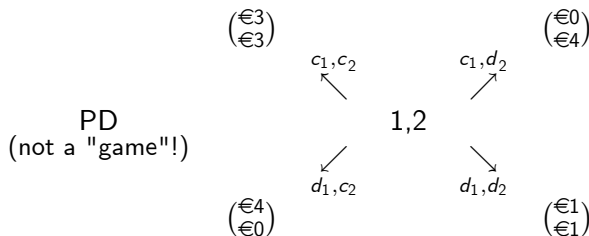
# Example of static game form: Prisoners' Dilemma

- Ann (pl. 1) and Bob (pl. 2) choose simultaneously between actions  $c$  (cooperate) and  $d$  (defect). Outcomes often are *monetary gains*  $g = (g_1, g_2)$  in, say, €=euro. *Static game forms* admit a *tabular description*, the **monetary payoff matrix**:

PD  
(not a "game"!)

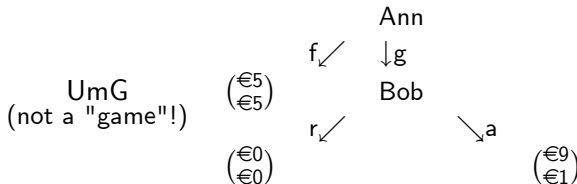
| $g$ (in ECU) | $c_2$  | $d_2$  |
|--------------|--------|--------|
| $c_1$        | €3, €3 | €0, €4 |
| $d_1$        | €4, €0 | €1, €1 |

- ... and also a *graphical description*, the **game tree** form:



# Example of multistage game form: Ultimatum mini-Game

- There are €10 to split. Stage 1: Ann can implement the fair allocation (€5, €5) (action **f**) or make a greedy offer of only €1 to Bob (action **g**). If Ann makes the greedy offer, Bob can reject (**r**) or accept (**a**).
- The possible sequences of actions and the implied payoffs are described by the **game tree** form:



# Examples of “tastes” (utility functions)

- **Preliminaries:**

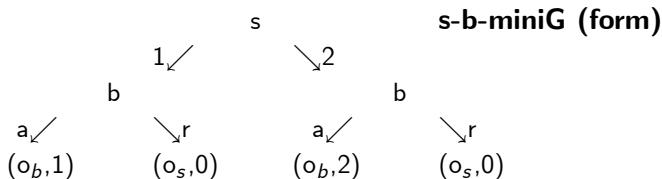
- Fix an index set  $I$  of “individuals” (e.g.,  $I = \{\text{Ann}, \text{Bob}\}$ ) and some range  $X$  (a set, possibly a set of sets, or a set of functions).
- We call “**profile**” a function with domain  $I$  and codomain  $X$ , typically denoted by  $(x_i)_{i \in I}$ , that is, individual  $i$  is associated with object  $x_i \in X$ .
- The **set of profiles** is denoted  $X^I$  (if  $I$  and  $X$  are finite, its cardinality is  $|X^I| = |X|^{|I|}$ ).

- **Standard economics** describes tastes by means of utilities of outcomes (e.g., monetary outcomes),  $v_i : Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where typically  $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^I$  with  $I$ =set of agents, for example (*non exhaustive* list,  $y_j$ =monetary payoff of  $j \in I$ ):

- $v_i \left( (y_j)_{j \in I} \right) = y_i$  (selfish and risk neutral),
- $v_i \left( (y_j)_{j \in I} \right) = V_i(y_i)$  with  $V'_i > 0$ ,  $V''_i < 0$  (selfish, risk averse),
- $v_i \left( (y_j)_{j \in I} \right) = y_i + \sum_{j \neq i} V_{ij}(y_j)$ ,  $0 < V'_{ij} \leq 1$  (partial altruism).

# Mathematical description of games

Introductory example: seller-buyer mini-game (form)



- The seller (**s**) owns an object, she can ask a price  $p = \text{€}1$  or  $p = \text{€}2$  for it.
- The Buyer (**b**) can accept (**a**), or reject (**r**).
- **Outcomes:**  $(o_i, t) = (i \text{ final owner, transfer } \text{€}t \text{ from } \mathbf{b} \text{ to } \mathbf{s})$ .

# Mathematical description: games tree (hints)

- **Game tree:** a mathematical structure  $\langle I, (A_i)_{i \in I}, \mathcal{E} \rangle$ , where
  - $I$  is the finite **player set**, with generic element  $i$  (possibly also chance, typically denoted 0 or  $c$ );
  - $A_i$  is the **set of feasible actions** of player  $i$ ;  $(A_i)_{i \in I}$  is the profile of action sets.
  - $\mathcal{E}$  is the **extensive form** representation of the *rules of interaction* (details are postponed to the 2nd part of the course).
- $\mathcal{E}$  yields a *tree structure* (see the figures), with a set  $Z$  of **terminal paths of play**, i.e., “legal” sequences of actions, or profiles of actions, leading to termination.
- In the **s-b-miniG**:
  - $I = \{s, b\}$ ;
  - $A_s = \{1, 2\}$ ,  $A_b = \{a, r\}$ ;
  - $\mathcal{E}$ : **s** starts, **b** follows upon observing the ask price;
  - $Z = \{(1, a), (1, r), (2, a), (2, r)\}$ .

# Mathematical description: game form

To complete the description of the rules, we must specify what outcomes are determined by players' actions.

- **Game form:** a structure  $\langle I, (A_i)_{i \in I}, \mathcal{E}, Y, g \rangle$  where
  - $\langle I, (A_i)_{i \in I}, \mathcal{E} \rangle$  is a game tree with a set  $Z$  of terminal paths of play;
  - $Y$  is the set of possible **outcomes** (or consequences);
  - $g : Z \rightarrow Y$  is the **outcome** (or consequence) **function**.
- **Examples of outcome function:**
  - $Y \subset \mathbb{R}^I$  is a set of possible allocations of monetary payoffs,  $g$  determines the monetary payoff of each player  $i$  as a function of what players did.
  - $Y \subset (\mathbb{O} \times \mathbb{R})^I$  is a set of possible allocations of objects (elements of  $\mathbb{O}$ ) and monetary transfers (positive or negative).
- **s-b-miniG:**  $Y = \{o_b, o_s\} \times \{0, 1, 2\}$ ,  $g(p, a) = (o_b, p)$ ,  $g(p, r) = (o_s, 0)$  for each  $p \in \{1, 2\}$ .

# Mathematical description: game

Adding a representation of players' preferences (personal features), we obtain a **“game”** in the jargon of Game Theory.

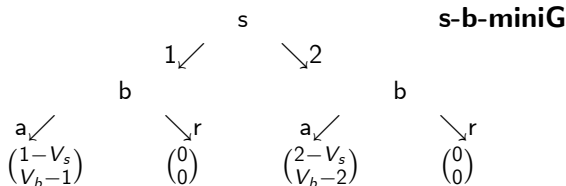
- **Game:** a mathematical structure  $\langle I, (A_i)_{i \in I}, \mathcal{E}, Y, g, (v_i)_{i \in I} \rangle$  where
  - $\langle I, (A_i)_{i \in I}, \mathcal{E}, Y, g \rangle$  is a game form (description of the *rules of the game*);
  - for each  $i \in I$ ,  $v_i : Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a von Neumann-Morgenstern **utility function**, representing preferences over lotteries of outcomes *via* expected utility calculations: for all  $\lambda', \lambda'' \in \mathcal{L}(Y)$  (set of lotteries on  $Y$  with finitely many realizations)

$$\lambda' \succsim_i \lambda'' \iff \mathbb{E}_{\lambda'}(v_i) \geq \mathbb{E}_{\lambda''}(v_i),$$

with  $\mathbb{E}_{\lambda}(v_i) = \sum_y \lambda(y) v_i(y)$  (expected utility of lottery  $\lambda$ ).

- *Misleadingly*, the composite function  $u_i = v_i \circ g : Z \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called **“payoff function”** of  $i$ , because, when GT was born, players were assumed selfish and risk neutral:  $Y \subset \mathbb{R}^I$ ,  $v_i(y) = y_i$ , and  $u_i(z) = v_i(g(z))$  = monetary payoff of  $i$  given  $z$ .

# Example: seller-buyer mini-game



- Recall: according to EU theory,  $v_i$  is determined up to positive affine transformations (affine=convex & concave). Thus, we can arbitrarily fix, for each  $i$ , what outcome has 0-utility.
- Fix the *utility of the status quo* ( $o_s, 0$ ) to 0 for both.
- Let  $V_i$  the monetary value of the object for  $i$ .
- Let  $v_b(o_b, p) = V_b - p$ ,  $v_s(o_b, p) = p - V_s$  (risk neutrality).

# Assumptions about knowledge: complete information

- **Common knowledge (CK) of some fact/event  $E$ :**
  - everybody knows that  $E$  is the case,
  - everybody knows that everybody knows that  $E$  is the case,
  - ... for each  $n$ , (everybody knows that) <sup>$n$</sup>   $E$  is the case.
- We assume (for simplicity) that the *rules of interaction* represented by the game tree *are CK*.
- In many cases (e.g., in lab experiments), also the outcome function  $g$  is CK; hence, *the rules of the game* (represented by the game form) *are CK*. Since each  $i$  knows her vNM utility  $v_i$ , this implies that each  $i$  knows  $u_i = v_i \circ g$  (and this fact is CK).
- Are the preferences (represented by  $(v_i)_{i \in I}$ ) CK? In reality, it is unlikely. But *often we assume also CK of preferences as a simplification*. This is called **complete information**: *CK of every aspect of the game situation*, including personal preferences.
- E.g., outcomes are monetary payoffs and it is CK that players are selfish and risk neutral, as in the early GT.

# Assumptions about knowledge: (in)complete information

- **s-b-mini-game:** complete information means CK of *everything*, including valuations  $V_s$  and  $V_b$ . Note, knowing  $V_b$  is key for **s**: ask  $p = 1$  if  $V_b < 2$ , ask  $p = 2$  if  $V_b > 2$ .
- **Incomplete information:** *some aspects of the game situation are not commonly known*, i.e., for some  $n$  it is not the case that (everybody knows that) <sup>$n$</sup>  the rules of the games and preferences are such and such.
- The most common situation of incomplete information is that players' personal preferences (e.g., whether they care about others, or are risk averse) are not commonly known.

# Assumptions about knowledge: relevance

- *To model strategic thinking we must specify what players know.*
- E.g., if in the **s-b-mini-game** the rules (game form) are CK and **s** knows  $V_b$ , then we can “solve” (give a prediction for) the game by “backward induction”:
  - start from the last (second) stage: if rational, **b** accepts (**a**) if  $p < V_b$ , and rejects (**r**) if  $p > V_b$ .
  - go back to the first stage: if **s** is rational and believes that **b** is rational, **s** asks  $p < V_b$ .
- But if **s** does not know  $V_b$  with sufficient precision, she has to form beliefs about  $V_b$  (e.g., based on statistics) and pick the ask price that maximizes her expected utility, comparing the opportunity cost of missing on a hefty sale with the risk of rejection of a “greedy” ask price.

# Assumptions about information: perfect vs imperfect

- *Another strange feature of the GT jargon:* Assumptions about *knowledge* of the game situation are classified as complete/incomplete *information*. But there are very different assumptions about *information concerning previous moves* for which a similar language is used.
- A game tree features **perfect information** if (1)-(2) below holds, and **imperfect information** otherwise:
  - (1) there are *no simultaneous moves*,
  - (2) *earlier moves* (including chance moves) *are perfectly observed*.
- If (2) holds (whereas (1) may or may not hold), we say that there are **observed actions** (or **perfect monitoring**).
- For example:
  - The **PD** has simultaneous moves; hence, it does not feature perfect information, i.e., it is a game with *imperfect information*. Also the **PD played repeatedly**, with *perfect monitoring of actions of previous rounds* is a game with *imperfect information*.
  - The **UmG** and **s-b-miniG** are games with *perfect information*.

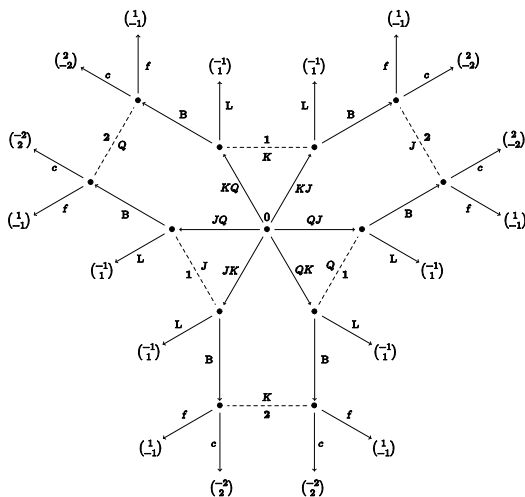
# Example: Poker

- Consider the following situation:
  - $n$  players play *version X of Poker* (e.g., Texas hold'em);
  - of course, *the rules of X-Poker are commonly known*;
  - furthermore, it is CK that each player cares only about how much he gains (i.e., is selfish) and is risk neutral, that is, it is CK that  $v_i(y) = y_i$  for each  $i$ .
- This is a *game with imperfect but complete information* (it is imperfect because players do not perfectly observe the random distribution of cards, a chance move).

## Example: mini-Poker, the rules

- 2 players, plus chance (player 0); 3 cards: Jack, Queen, and King. Each player puts €1 in the pot. Chance determines the order of cards, player 1 gets the 1st, player 2 the 2nd; each player sees only her/his card (*imperfect information*).
- Player 1 can **B**et (+€1 in the pot) or **L**ease; player 2 can respond to **B** by **f**olding, or **c**alling (+€1 in the pot).
- Outcome function: if
  - P1 **B**ets and P2 **c**alls, the one with the highest card gets the pot;
  - P1 **L**eaves, P2 gets the pot;
  - P1 **B**ets and P2 **f**olds, P1 gets the pot.

# Example: mini-Poker, graphical representation



Chance (pl. 0) determines “hands”. Nodes joined by dotted lines represent the information of the active player, who does not know the opponent’s “hand”.

# Static and dynamic games

- In the games analyzed here, the play unfolds through a sequence of stages. (This assumption is quite innocuous for our purposes.)
- In every stage, either only one player moves, or more players move simultaneously; chance is a (pseudo)player.
- **Games with simultaneous moves**, or **static games** have only one stage; e.g., PD, Matching Pennies (“Pari o Dispari”), Rock-Scissor-Paper (“Morra Cinese”), first and second-price sealed-bid auctions.
- Other games, i.e., **multistage games** are **“dynamic”**; e.g., Tic-Tac-Toe (“Tris”), Poker, Chess, ascending and descending auctions.
- Many game theorists call “dynamic” only those games where a state variable changes according to a (deterministic or stochastic) transition function. Therefore, we speak of *static* (one-stage, simultaneous) *games* and *multistage* (sequential) *games*.
- We start with static games (Part I) because they are simpler.

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