

Introduction to Game Theory

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Slides are modified from version written by Benjamin Johnson, UC Berkeley

Lecture 15–16

Notes

Review: rational choice model
Game theory

Topics

Notes

We now discuss the final big idea in the course

- 1 Introduction
 - 2 Security metrics and investment
 - 3 Measuring cybercrime
 - 4 **Security games**
- We now consider strategic interaction between players

2 / 40

Review: rational choice model
Game theory

Preferences and outcomes
Utility
Expected utility: modeling security threats as random acts

Recall how we model rationality

Notes

- Economics attempts to model the *decisions* we make, when faced with multiple choices and when interacting with other strategic agents
- Rational choice theory (RCT): model for decision-making
- Game theory (GT): extends RCT to model strategic interactions

4 / 40

Review: rational choice model
Game theory

Preferences and outcomes
Utility
Expected utility: modeling security threats as random acts

Model of preferences

Notes

- An agent is faced with a range of possible outcomes
 $\omega_1, \omega_2 \in \mathcal{O}$, the set of all possible outcomes
- Notation
 - $\omega_1 \succ \omega_2$: the agent is strictly prefers ω_1 to ω_2 .
 - $\omega_1 \succeq \omega_2$: the agent weakly prefers ω_1 to ω_2 ;
 - $\omega_1 \sim \omega_2$: the agent is indifferent between ω_1 and ω_2 ;
- Outcomes can be also viewed as tuples of different properties
 $\hat{x}, \hat{y} \in \mathcal{O}$, where $\hat{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ and $\hat{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$

5 / 40

Rational choice axioms

Rational choice theory assumes consistency in how outcomes are preferred.

Axiom

Completeness. For each pair of outcomes o_1 and o_2 , exactly one of the following holds: $o_1 \succ o_2$, $o_1 \sim o_2$, or $o_2 \succ o_1$.

⇒ Outcomes can always be compared

Axiom

Transitivity. For each triple of outcomes o_1 , o_2 , and o_3 , if $o_1 \succ o_2$ and $o_2 \succ o_3$, then $o_1 \succ o_3$.

⇒ People make choices among many different outcomes in a consistent manner

6 / 40

Notes

Utility

Rational choice theory defines utility as a way of quantifying consumer preferences

Definition

(Utility function) A utility function U maps a set of outcomes onto real-valued numbers, that is, $U: \mathcal{O} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. U is defined such that $U(o_1) > U(o_2) \iff o_1 \succ o_2$.

Agents make a rational decision by picking the outcome with highest utility:

$$o^* = \arg \max_{o \in \mathcal{O}} U(o) \quad (1)$$

7 / 40

Notes

Why isn't utility theory enough?

- Only rarely do actions people take directly determine outcomes
- Instead there is uncertainty about which outcome will come to pass
- More realistic model: agent selects action a from set of all possible actions \mathcal{A} , and then outcomes \mathcal{O} are associated with probability distribution

8 / 40

Notes

Expected utility

Definition

(Expected utility (discrete)) The *expected utility* of an action $a \in \mathcal{A}$ is defined by adding up the utility for all outcomes weighed by their probability of occurrence:

$$E[U(a)] = \sum_{o \in \mathcal{O}} U(o) \cdot P(o|a) \quad (2)$$

Agents make a rational decision by maximizing expected utility:

$$a^* = \arg \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} E[U(a)] \quad (3)$$

9 / 40

Notes

Example: process control system security

Global Exposure Surface Timeline

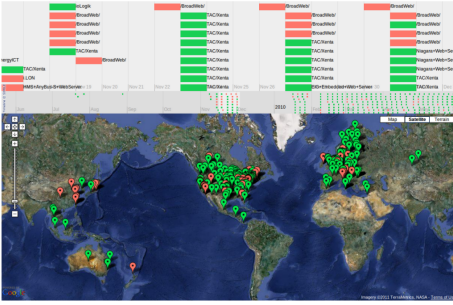


Figure 2.1: Example exposure time-map with red marking systems with known exploits

Source: <http://www.cl.cam.ac.uk/~fms27/papers/2011-Leverett-industrial.pdf>

Notes

Example: process control system security

- Actions available: $\mathcal{A} = \{\text{disconnect}, \text{connect}\}$
- Outcomes available:
 $\mathcal{O} = \{\text{successful attack}, \text{no successful attack}\}$
- Probability of successful attack is 0.01
($P(\text{attack}|\text{connect}) = 0.01$)
- If systems are disconnected, then $P(\text{attack}|\text{disconnect}) = 0$

Notes

Example: process control system security

Action	successful attack		no succ. attack		$E[U(\text{action})]$
	U	$P(\text{attack} \text{action})$	U	$P(\text{no attack} \text{action})$	
connect	-50	0.01	10	0.99	9.4
disconnect	-10	0	-10	1	-10

\Rightarrow risk-neutral IT security manager chooses to connect since
 $E[U(\text{connect})] > E[U(\text{disconnect})]$.

This model assumes fixed probabilities for attack. Is this assumption realistic?

Notes

Games vs. Optimization

Optimization: Player vs Nature



Games: Player vs Player



Notes

Strategy

Book of Qi

- War
- Business
- Policy

36 Stratagems (Examples)

- Befriend a distant state while attacking a neighbor
- Sacrifice the plum tree to preserve the peach tree
- Feign madness but keep your balance
- See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Thirty-Six_Stratagems

15 / 40

Notes

Representing a game with a payoff matrix

- Suppose we have two players A and B .
 - A 's actions $\mathcal{A}_A = \{u, d\}$
 - B 's actions $\mathcal{A}_B = \{l, r\}$
 - Possible outcomes $\mathcal{O} = \{(u, l), (u, r), (d, l), (d, r)\}$
 - We represent 2-player, 2-strategy games with a *payoff matrix*

		Player B chooses l	Player B chooses r
Player A chooses u		$(U_A(u, l), U_B(u, l))$	$(U_A(u, r), U_B(u, r))$
Player A chooses d		$(U_A(d, l), U_B(d, l))$	$(U_A(d, r), U_B(d, r))$

16 / 40

Notes

Returning to the process control system example

- Suppose we have two players: plant security manager and a terrorist
 - Manager's actions $\mathcal{A}_{mgr} = \{\text{disconnect}, \text{connect}\}$
 - Terrorist's actions $\mathcal{A}_{terr} = \{\text{attack}, \text{don't attack}\}$
 - Possible outcomes $\mathcal{O} = \{(a_1, a_3), (a_1, a_4), (a_2, a_3), (a_2, a_4)\}$
 - We represent 2-player, 2-strategy games with a *payoff matrix*

		Terrorist	
		attack	don't attack
Manager	connect	$(-50, 50)$	$(10, 0)$
	disconnect	$(-10, -10)$	$(-10, 0)$

17 / 40

Notes

Important Notions

Zero-Sum

In a zero-sum game, the sum of player utilities is zero.

	zero-sum		not zero-sum	
	heads	tails	invest	defer
heads	$(1, -1)$	$(-1, 1)$	invest	$(1, 1)$ $(1, 2)$
tails	$(-1, 1)$	$(1, -1)$	defer	$(2, 1)$ $(0, 0)$

18 / 40

Notes

How can we determine which outcome will happen?

- We look for particular *solution concepts*
 - Dominant strategy equilibrium
 - Nash equilibrium
- Pareto optimal outcomes

19 / 40

Notes

Dominant strategy equilibrium

- A player has a *dominant strategy* if that strategy achieves the highest payoff regardless of what other players do.
- A *dominant strategy equilibrium* is one in which each player has and plays her dominant strategy.

Example 1: Dominant Strategy Equilibria?

		Bob	
		left	right
Alice	top	(1, 2)	(0, 1)
	bottom	(2, 1)	(1, 0)

20 / 40

Notes

Nash equilibrium

Nash equilibrium

A Nash equilibrium is an assignment of strategies to players such that no player can improve her utility by changing strategies.

- A Nash equilibrium is called *strong* if every player strictly prefers their strategy given the current configuration.
- It is called *weak* if at least one player is indifferent about changing strategies.

Nash equilibrium for 2-player game

For a 2-person game between players A and B , a pair of strategies (a_i, a_j) is a Nash equilibrium if $U_A(a_i, a_j) \geq U_A(a_{i'}, a_j)$ for every $i' \in \mathcal{A}_A$ where $i' \neq i$ and $U_B(a_i, a_j) \geq U_B(a_i, a_{j'})$ for every $j \in \mathcal{A}_B$ where $j' \neq j$.

21 / 40

Notes

Finding Nash equilibria

Nash equilibrium for 2-player game

For a 2-person game between players A and B , a pair of strategies (a_i, a_j) is a Nash equilibrium if $U_A(a_i, a_j) \geq U_A(a_{i'}, a_j)$ for every $i' \in \mathcal{A}_A$ where $i' \neq i$ and $U_B(a_i, a_j) \geq U_B(a_i, a_{j'})$ for every $j \in \mathcal{A}_B$ where $j' \neq j$.

Example 1: Nash equilibria? (top, left) and (bottom, right)

		Bob		(top, left)?	$U_A(\text{top, left}) > U_A(\text{bottom, left})?$ $2 > 0$? yes!
		left	right		
Alice	top	(2, 1)	(0, 0)	(top, right)?	$U_A(\text{top, right}) > U_A(\text{bottom, right})?$ $0 > 1$? no!
	bottom	(0, 0)	(1, 2)		

22 / 40

Notes

Exercise: is there a dominant strategy or Nash equilibrium for these games?

	left	right		left	right
top	(1, 1)	(1, 2)	top	(1, -1)	(-1, 1)
bottom	(2, 1)	(0, 0)	bottom	(-1, 1)	(1, -1)

Notes

Review: rational choice model
Game theory

Introduction and notation
Finding equilibrium outcomes

Pareto Optimality

Notes

Definition

An outcome of a game is Pareto optimal if no other outcome makes at least one player strictly better off, while leaving every player at least as well off.

Example: Pareto-optimal outcome? *everything except defect / defect*

	cooperate	defect
cooperate	(-1, -1)	(-5, 0)
defect	(0, -5)	(-2, -2)

24 / 40

Review: rational choice model
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Introduction and notation
Finding equilibrium outcomes

Prisoners' dilemma

Notes



	deny	confess
deny	(-1, -1)	(-5, 0)
confess	(0, -5)	(-2, -2)

25 / 40

Review: rational choice model
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Finding equilibrium outcomes

Thoughts on the Prisoners' Dilemma

Notes

- Can you see why the equilibrium strategy is not always Pareto efficient?
- Exemplifies the difficulty of cooperation when players can't commit to a actions in advance
- In a *repeated game*, cooperation can emerge because anticipated future benefits shift rewards
- But we are studying *one-shot* games, where there is no anticipated future benefit
- Here's one way to use psychology to commit to a strategy: <http://www.tutor2u.net/blog/index.php/economics/comments/game-show-game-theory>

26 / 40

Split or Steal

		Nick	
		split	steal
Ibrahim	split	(6 800, 6 800)	(0, 13 600)
	steal	(13 600, 0)	(0, 0)

27 / 40

Notes

Prisoners' dilemma in infosec: sharing security data



		share	don't share
		share	(-1, -1) (-5, 0)
don't share	share	(0, -5)	(-2, -2)

Note, this only applies when both parties are of the same type, and can benefit each other from sharing. Doesn't apply in the case of take-down companies due to the outsourcing of security

28 / 40

Notes

Assurance games: Cold war arms race

		USSR	
		refrain	build
USA	refrain	(4,4)	(1,3)
	build	(3,1)	(2,2)

Exercise: compute the equilibrium outcome (Nash or dominant strategy)

29 / 40

Notes

Assurance games in infosec: Cyber arms race

		Russia	
		refrain	build
USA	refrain	(4,4)	(1,3)
	build	(3,1)	(2,2)

30 / 40

Notes

Assurance games in infosec: Upgrading protocols

Many security protocols (e.g., DNSSEC, BGPSEC) require widespread adoption to be useful

	upgrade	don't upgrade
upgrade	(4,4)	(1,3)
don't upgrade	(3,1)	(2,2)

31 / 40

Notes

Battle of the sexes

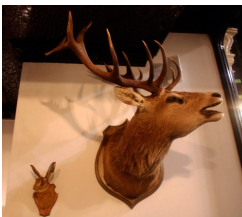


	party	home
party	(10, 5)	(0, 0)
home	(0, 0)	(5, 10)

32 / 40

Notes

Stag-hunt games and infosec: joint cybercrime defense



	stag	hare
stag	(10, 10)	(0, 7)
hare	(7, 0)	(7, 7)

CONFICKER WORKING GROUP

	join WG	protect firm
join WG	(10, 10)	(0, 7)
protect firm	(7, 0)	(7, 7)

33 / 40

Notes

Chicken

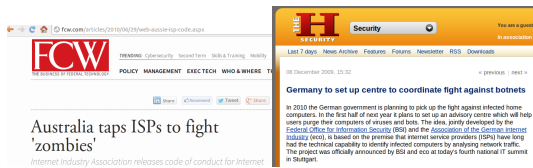


	dare	chicken
dare	(0, 0)	(7, 2)
chicken	(2, 7)	(5, 5)

34 / 40

Notes

Chicken in infosec: who pays for malware cleanup?



		ISPs	
		Pay up	Don't pay
Gov	Pay up	(0, 0)	(-1, 1)
	Don't pay	(1, -1)	(-2, -2)

35 / 40

How to coordinate (Varian, Intermediate Microeconomics)

- Goals of coordination game: force the other player to cooperate
 - **Assurance game**: “coordinate at an equilibrium that you both like”
 - **Stag-hunt game**: “coordinate at an equilibrium that you both like”
 - **Battle of the sexes**: “coordinate at an equilibrium that one of you likes”
 - **Prisoner’s dilemma**: “play something other than an equilibrium strategy”
 - **Chicken**: “make a choice leading to your preferred outcome”

36 / 40

How to coordinate (Varian, Intermediate Microeconomics)

- In assurance, stag-hunt, battle-of-the-sexes, and chicken, coordination can be achieved by one player moving first
- In prisoner’s dilemma, that doesn’t work? Why not?
- Instead, for prisoner’s dilemma games one must use repetition or contracts.
- Robert Axelrod ran repeated game tournaments where he invited economists to submit strategies for prisoner’s dilemma in repeated games
- Winning strategy? Tit-for-tat

37 / 40

Assurance games: Cyber arms race

		Russia	
		refrain	build
USA	refrain	(4, 4)	(1, 3)
	build	(3, 1)	(2, 2)

38 / 40

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