

CSCE 631-D: Intelligent Agents — Computational Game Solving

Lecture 1: Introduction — Games, Agents, and Strategic Interaction

Alan Kuhnle

Fall 2026

Texas A&M University

Today's Plan

We start with **game theory** as a discipline, introduce **agents** as players, then build the formal framework: strategies, payoffs, classic examples, pure and mixed strategies, equilibrium existence, and a taxonomy of game types.

What Is Game Theory?

What Is an Agent?

Players, Strategies, and Payoffs

Classic Examples

Pure and Mixed Strategies

Taxonomy of Games

Connecting Game Theory to LLM Agents

Looking Ahead

Learning Objectives

By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. Define what makes an interaction a **game** rather than a single-agent optimization problem.
2. Write the **normal-form representation** of a two-player game (players, strategies, payoff matrix).
3. Identify **dominant strategies** and **Pareto-optimal** outcomes in a payoff matrix.
4. Explain why **mixed strategies** are needed and what role they play in equilibrium existence.

What Is Game Theory?

What Is Game Theory?

Informal Definition

Game theory is the mathematical study of **strategic interaction** among rational decision-makers.

Key ingredients:

- Multiple **agents** (players) whose outcomes depend on each other's choices.
- Each agent ranks outcomes with a scalar **utility** (payoff) and prefers a higher utility.
- Agents reason about what others will do.

Central question: What outcomes should we *predict* (or *prescribe*) when rational agents interact?

Why Game Theory in CS?

- **Internet and networks:** routing, congestion, selfish agents.
- **Auctions & mechanism design:** ad auctions (Google, Meta), spectrum auctions, matching markets.
- **Multi-agent AI:** reinforcement learning, LLM alignment, cooperative/competitive agents.
- **Security:** adversarial models, Stackelberg games.
- **Complexity theory:** PPAD, hardness of equilibrium computation.

Today's multi-agent systems are **LLM agents**: negotiation bots, multi-agent pipelines, agent marketplaces. These are the course's motivating population of players.

What Is an Agent?

What Is an Agent?

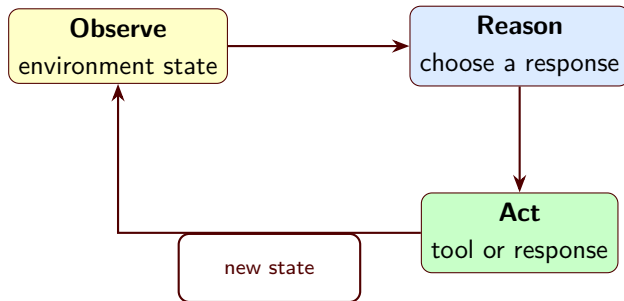
A game needs players. In this course the players are LLM-based agents, so we begin by defining what an agent is.

Operational definitions (Anthropic, “Building Effective Agents”):

- **Language model:** a single LLM call; no control flow.
- **Workflow:** LLM calls orchestrated by fixed, human-designed control flow (chains, routers, pipelines).
- **Agent:** the LLM itself directs the control flow, choosing which tools to call and when to stop.

In this course, an **agent** is an LLM with tool access and LLM-directed control flow. The “game” emerges when two or more agents interact strategically.

The Agent Loop



- **Observe:** read a tool result, user message, or game history.
- **Reason:** select a response using internal reasoning.
- **Act:** invoke a tool or emit a final response.

Tools are the agent's **action set**. The LLM's conditional generation defines the **policy**: a mapping from observations to (distributions over) actions.

Demo: ReAct Agent on the TAMU API

Live demo (recorded for the asynchronous section).

Demo notebook

`demos/demo-react-trace.ipynb`

What to watch for:

- Raw prompt sent to the LLM.
- Streamed Thought / Action / Observation JSON: one realized trajectory.
- Final action selected by the agent.
- Model, token counts, and estimated cost printed by the notebook.
- **Recorded fallback:** replay the notebook's fixed three-round opponent schedule when live API calls are unavailable.

The Agent–Environment Tuple

The ReAct trace is one realized trajectory. Three objects describe what an agent can see and do.

- $\mathcal{H}$: **hidden-state space** of the environment (includes game history and opponent's internal state).
- $O: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}$: **observation function** (what the agent sees after each step).
- $\mathcal{A}$: **action set** (the tools and responses available to the agent).

Connection to the agent loop

The agent observes $O(h)$, then chooses an action $a \in \mathcal{A}$. For simplicity O is deterministic here; Module 4 also allows stochastic observations and information sets.

Two further components specify what actions do and how the agent is scored.

- $T: \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \Delta(\mathcal{H})$: **transition kernel** (how the hidden state updates after an action).
- $r: \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$: **objective** (payoff, reward).

Mapping to the ReAct trace: $\mathcal{A} = \{\text{cooperate, defect}\}$; O maps the hidden game state to the observation the agent receives; r is the payoff.

This describes a single agent interacting with an environment. What is missing before this becomes a *game*?

What Is Still Missing Before This Is a Game?

The agent–environment tuple describes one player.

Think for 30 seconds: what does this single-agent tuple lack before it becomes a game?

A **game** additionally requires:

1. Multiple **players** (and possibly chance).
2. A **history space**: the full tree of possible action sequences, not just one realized trajectory.
3. **Observations** per player: who sees what, and when (information sets).
4. **Counterfactual branches**: what would have happened under alternative actions.
5. **Per-player utilities** at terminal histories.

We will build the full extensive-form game formally in **Module 4**. Today we focus on the simpler **normal-form** representation, where all players choose simultaneously.

We now have the players; let us define the game.

Players, Strategies, and Payoffs

The Three Ingredients

With multiple players identified as the key missing ingredient, we now define the building blocks of a game.

Every game has three components:

1. **Players:** A finite set $N = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.
2. **Strategies:** For each player $i \in N$, a set S_i of available actions.
3. **Payoffs:** For each player i , a utility function

$$u_i : S_1 \times S_2 \times \dots \times S_n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

Notation

A **strategy profile** is a tuple $s = (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n) \in S_1 \times \dots \times S_n$. We write s_{-i} for the profile of all players *except* i .

Normal-Form (Strategic-Form) Game

Definition

A **normal-form game** (also called a **strategic-form game**) is a tuple

$$G = (N, \{S_i\}_{i \in N}, \{u_i\}_{i \in N})$$

where N is the set of players, S_i is the strategy set of player i , and $u_i : \prod_{j \in N} S_j \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the payoff function of player i .

Assumption for most of this course: N and every S_i are **finite**.

All players choose **simultaneously** (or equivalently, without knowledge of others' choices).

Payoff Matrices (Two-Player Case)

For $n = 2$, an $m \times k$ **bimatrix** (A, B) represents a game with m row strategies and k column strategies:

$$A_{ij} = u_1(s_1^{(i)}, s_2^{(j)}), \quad B_{ij} = u_2(s_1^{(i)}, s_2^{(j)}),$$

Here row i is Player 1's strategy $s_1^{(i)}$, and column j is Player 2's strategy $s_2^{(j)}$.

Convention: Player 1 is the **row** player and Player 2 is the **column** player; cell (i, j) contains (A_{ij}, B_{ij}) .

	L	R
U	(a_{11}, b_{11})	(a_{12}, b_{12})
D	(a_{21}, b_{21})	(a_{22}, b_{22})

Nash Equilibrium (Informal Preview)

The classic examples in the next section refer to **Nash equilibria**, the central solution concept in game theory. We formalize Nash equilibria in Lecture 3; for now, the following informal definition suffices.

Informal Definition

A **Nash equilibrium (NE)** is a strategy profile in which no player can improve their payoff by unilaterally changing their strategy.

In other words, at a Nash equilibrium every player is already playing a best response to the other players' strategies.

Two Comparisons for the Examples

The next games use two distinct comparisons. Keep the question being asked separate.

Dominance: compare one player's actions

Strategy s_i **strictly dominates** s'_i if, against every opponent profile s_{-i} , it gives player i a strictly higher payoff:

$$u_i(s_i, s_{-i}) > u_i(s'_i, s_{-i}).$$

Pareto comparison: compare complete outcomes

Outcome s' **Pareto-dominates** s if every player is at least as well off at s' and at least one player is strictly better off.

Classic Examples

Prisoner's Dilemma

The next five games are classic examples. Each isolates a different strategic tension.

Two suspects are interrogated separately. Each can **Cooperate** (stay silent) or **Defect** (betray the other).

	Cooperate	Defect
Cooperate	$(-1, -1)$	$(-3, 0)$
Defect	$(0, -3)$	$(-2, -2)$

Check (30 seconds): In each column, which row gives the row player the higher payoff?

Prisoner's Dilemma: Analysis

- **Answer:** Defect strictly dominates Cooperate: it gives either player a higher payoff against either opponent action.
- Unique outcome: (Defect, Defect) with payoff $(-2, -2)$.
- (Defect, Defect) is Pareto-dominated by (Cooperate, Cooperate).

Question: Would the outcome change if both players could communicate beforehand?

Battle of the Sexes

Two players want to coordinate but have different preferences.

	Opera	Football
Opera	(3, 2)	(0, 0)
Football	(0, 0)	(2, 3)

- Two **pure-strategy Nash equilibria**: (Opera, Opera) and (Football, Football).
- Neither player has a dominant strategy.
- Coordination is valuable; mis-coordination is costly.
- Also has a **mixed-strategy** NE (a preview; we define mixing shortly).

Matching Pennies

A strictly competitive game: payoffs sum to zero in every cell.

	Heads	Tails
Heads	$(1, -1)$	$(-1, 1)$
Tails	$(-1, 1)$	$(1, -1)$

- **No pure-strategy NE:** every pure outcome has a player who can improve their payoff by unilaterally changing their strategy.
- Unique mixed NE (a preview): each player plays Heads with probability $1/2$.
- This is a **zero-sum game**: every cell's payoffs sum to zero.

Why can neither player commit to a single strategy here?

Coordination Game

Both players benefit from choosing the *same* action.

	A	B
A	$(2, 2)$	$(0, 0)$
B	$(0, 0)$	$(1, 1)$

Quick poll (30 seconds): Which equilibrium would you predict without a coordinating signal?

- Two pure NE: (A, A) and (B, B) .
- (A, A) **Pareto-dominates** (B, B) , but (B, B) is still an equilibrium.
- Equilibrium **selection** problem: which NE should we predict?

Stag Hunt

Two hunters choose independently: pursue a stag (high reward, requires both) or a hare (lower reward, guaranteed).

	Stag	Hare
Stag	(4, 4)	(0, 3)
Hare	(3, 0)	(3, 3)

- **Payoff-dominant:** (Stag, Stag) gives every player a higher payoff than any other equilibrium.
- **Risk-dominant:** (Hare, Hare) is safer under uncertainty about the other player's action.
- Models the tension between **cooperation** and **safety**.

A key example in social contract theory (Rawlsian)

Pure and Mixed Strategies

Pure Strategies

So far, every example assumed each player picks a single action. We now formalize this idea and then generalize it.

Definition

A **pure strategy** for player i is a single element $s_i \in S_i$.

A **pure-strategy profile** is $(s_1, \dots, s_n) \in S_1 \times \dots \times S_n$.

In a pure strategy, the player commits deterministically to one action.

Problem: as we saw with Matching Pennies, some games have **no pure-strategy equilibrium**. We need a richer strategy space.

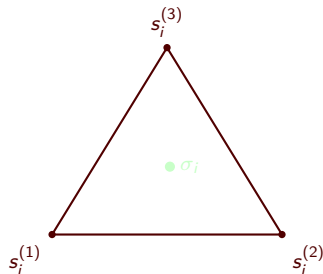
Mixed Strategies: Distributions

Definition

A **mixed strategy** for player i is a probability distribution $\sigma_i \in \Delta(S_i)$ over S_i , where

$$\Delta(S_i) = \left\{ p \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{|S_i|} \mid \sum_{s_i \in S_i} p(s_i) = 1 \right\}.$$

For a three-action strategy set, the triangle at right is the simplex: every point is one probability distribution. Vertices are pure strategies; interior points mix among actions.



Mixed Strategies: Expected Payoffs

Under a mixed-strategy profile $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$, players randomize independently. Player i 's **expected utility** is

$$u_i(\sigma) = \sum_{s \in S} \left(\prod_{j \in N} \sigma_j(s_j) \right) u_i(s).$$

- A pure strategy is a degenerate distribution that assigns probability one to a single action.
- The mixed extension replaces S_i with $\Delta(S_i)$ and extends each payoff by expected value.
- **LLM connection:** temperature-sampled outputs make a policy stochastic. In this course, strategies are prompt, model, and scaffold policies rather than individual utterances.

Support of a Mixed Strategy

Definition

The **support** of a mixed strategy σ_i is the set of pure strategies played with positive probability:

$$\text{supp}(\sigma_i) = \{s_i \in S_i \mid \sigma_i(s_i) > 0\}.$$

Preview result (we will prove this after formally defining Nash equilibrium):

Intuitively, if one pure strategy in the support yielded a higher expected payoff, the player would shift all probability to it, contradicting mixing.

Preview: Indifference Principle

If σ is a Nash equilibrium and $s_i, s'_i \in \text{supp}(\sigma_i)$, then

$$u_i(s_i, \sigma_{-i}) = u_i(s'_i, \sigma_{-i})$$

Example: Mixed Strategy in Matching Pennies

Recall the Matching Pennies payoff matrix for Player 1:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Try it first (30 seconds): What value of q makes Player 1 indifferent between Heads and Tails?

Example: Mixed Strategy in Matching Pennies

Recall the Matching Pennies payoff matrix for Player 1:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Try it first (30 seconds): What value of q makes Player 1 indifferent between Heads and Tails?

Let Player 2 play Heads with probability q . Player 1's expected payoffs:

$$u_1(\text{Heads}, q) = q \cdot 1 + (1 - q) \cdot (-1) = 2q - 1$$

$$u_1(\text{Tails}, q) = q \cdot (-1) + (1 - q) \cdot 1 = 1 - 2q$$

For Player 1 to be willing to mix, the **Indifference Principle** requires equal expected payoffs:

$$2q - 1 = 1 - 2q \implies q = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Nash's Theorem (1950)

Every finite game has at least one **mixed-strategy Nash equilibrium**.

Matching Pennies illustrates why this result requires mixed strategies: no pure-strategy equilibrium exists, yet the uniform mixture $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ for each player is a Nash equilibrium. We will study the proof of Nash's theorem in Lecture 3.

Taxonomy of Games

Zero-Sum Games

Definition

A two-player game $(N, \{S_1, S_2\}, \{u_1, u_2\})$ is **zero-sum** if for every strategy profile $s \in S_1 \times S_2$:

$$u_1(s) + u_2(s) = 0.$$

Quick check (30 seconds): Which earlier game has payoffs that sum to zero in every cell?

Zero-Sum Games

Definition

A two-player game $(N, \{S_1, S_2\}, \{u_1, u_2\})$ is **zero-sum** if for every strategy profile $s \in S_1 \times S_2$:

$$u_1(s) + u_2(s) = 0.$$

Quick check (30 seconds): Which earlier game has payoffs that sum to zero in every cell?

- Equivalently, $u_2 = -u_1$; the game is fully described by one payoff matrix A , with $B = -A$.
- Matching Pennies is zero-sum. Prisoner's Dilemma is **not**.
- Zero-sum games are the “easiest” class: $NE = \maxmin = \minimax$ (von Neumann, 1928).
- Solvable in polynomial time via linear programming.

General-Sum and Constant-Sum Games

General-Sum

Any game that is not zero-sum. Payoff matrices A and B are independent. Most real-world interactions are general-sum.

Constant-Sum

$u_1(s) + u_2(s) = c$ for some constant c and all s . Strategically equivalent to zero-sum (shift payoffs by $c/2$).

Example: Prisoner's Dilemma is general-sum; matching pennies is the special zero-sum case $c = 0$.

Symmetric Games

Symmetric Game

A two-player game is **symmetric** if $S_1 = S_2$ and $u_1(a, b) = u_2(b, a)$ for all $a, b \in S_1$.
Equivalently, $B = A^\top$.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \implies B = A^\top = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$$

Examples: Prisoner's Dilemma, Stag Hunt, and Coordination Game are symmetric.

Larger Games and Representations

When $n > 2$ or $|S_i|$ is large, explicit payoff tables become impractical.

Alternative representations (we may see later):

- **Graphical games:** payoff of i depends only on neighbors in a graph.
- **Congestion games:** payoff depends on number of players sharing resources.
- **Succinct games:** compact circuit- or polynomial-based payoff descriptions.
- **Extensive-form games:** sequential structure (preview in Lecture 2; formal treatment in Module 4).

The normal form is the most general but least compact representation. An n -player game with m strategies each requires $n \cdot m^n$ payoff values.

Caution: succinct representations are exactly where complexity claims need care.

Connecting Game Theory to LLM Agents

Two LLM Negotiators as a Normal-Form Game

The earlier examples used abstract players. The same payoff-matrix framework applies when the players are prompted LLMs. Fix two prompt policies per agent (for example, cooperative or aggressive seller/buyer prompts):

	Cooperative Buyer	Aggressive Buyer
Cooperative Seller	(u_{11}, v_{11})	(u_{12}, v_{12})
Aggressive Seller	(u_{21}, v_{21})	(u_{22}, v_{22})

Each cell's payoff is estimated from repeated play. This is the empirical game construction in **Programming Assignment 1 (PA1)**.

An LLM policy is **stochastic**: the same prompt can produce different outputs across runs (temperature, sampling).

Key principle

One sampled interaction is *not* a payoff. Estimate every payoff-matrix cell with repeated calls, then report the mean and confidence interval.

For credible empirical games, also record model/version, token cost, and seeds where possible; use compute-matched baselines and holdout evaluation data.

Looking Ahead

Course Roadmap

Nine modules weave together two arcs: game-theory foundations and LLM-agent systems.

M1 Foundations of strategic games (Weeks 1–2)

today

M2 Algorithms for equilibria (Weeks 3–4)

M3 Regret minimization (Weeks 5–6)

M4 Extensive-form games (Weeks 7–8)

M5 CFR and self-play (Week 9)

M6 Abstraction and agent action spaces (Week 10)

M7 Multi-agent LLM systems (Week 11)

M8 Monitoring autonomous agents (Week 12)

M9 Applications and frontiers (Weeks 13–14)

Each concept resurfaces: NE (M2 algorithms), regret (M3), EFG (M4), empirical

Summary and Key Takeaways

Agents:

- An **agent** is an LLM with tool access and LLM-directed control flow (observe, reason, act).
- A trajectory describes one agent; a game adds multiple players, counterfactual branches, and per-player utilities.
- Stochastic LLM policies require repeated-play payoff estimates.

Games:

- A **normal-form game** is $(N, \{S_i\}, \{u_i\})$: players, strategies, payoffs.
- Dominance compares actions; Pareto comparison asks whether an outcome can improve every player's payoff.
- Mixed strategies generalize pure strategies; every finite game has a mixed-strategy equilibrium (Nash, 1950).

References i

- Y. Shoham and K. Leyton-Brown, *Multiagent Systems: Algorithmic, Game-Theoretic, and Logical Foundations*, Cambridge University Press, 2008. Chapter 3.
- S. Yao et al., “ReAct: Synergizing Reasoning and Acting in Language Models,” *ICLR*, 2023.
- Anthropic, “Building Effective Agents,” blog post, December 2024.
- J. Sun, Z. Wu, Z. Cheng, and X. Chu, “Game Theory Meets Large Language Models,” *IJCAI*, 2025.
- L. Wang et al., “A Survey on Large Language Model based Autonomous Agents,” arXiv:2308.11432, 2023.
- X. Xi et al., “The Rise and Potential of Large Language Model Based Agents: A Survey,” arXiv:2309.07864, 2023.