

## Conclusions

We have presented an overview of some recent results in the computation of solutions of Generalized Nash Equilibrium Problems. Game Theory is a venerable field with a long history and a wealth of results that is not possible to summarize in a few pages. What we have tried to do is to give a glimpse of some recent algorithmic developments from the point of view of mathematical programming. There are very many aspects and approaches that we did not even mention in these notes. Restricting attention to algorithmic issues, we want to at least mention [6, 7, 8, 31, 35, 44, 45, 51, 55, 56, 57, 58, 68, 70, 111] as an interesting sample of the available literature.

The interest of the mathematical programming community in game theory is possibly one of the big novelties in the field, and it promises to change many points of view, with its emphasis on numerical tractability and the emergence of new priorities. The attention of optimizers to Game Theory has also been fuelled by numerous engineering applications that required the effective computation of equilibria. The development of new models, different from traditional ones, has brought new challenges that need to be addressed. To attack these new problems a strong background in optimization techniques is needed. These notes were addressed precisely to optimizers that want to expand their interests in the hope to provide good, albeit somewhat informal and incomplete, entry point into this fascinating world.

# Appendix

## Elements of variational inequality theory

In this appendix we give a very concise introduction to variational inequalities, which is an essential tool used in our approach to the analysis and solution of games. We do not go much beyond some basic definitions and properties and refer the reader to [39] for a broader and deeper analysis of variational inequalities and also for proofs of all statements in this appendix.

Let a convex closed subset  $K$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  be given, together with a function  $F: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ . The *variational inequality* (VI)  $(K, F)$  is the problem of finding a point  $x$  belonging to  $K$  such that

$$F(x)^T(y - x) \geq 0, \quad \forall y \in K. \tag{A.1}$$

The set of all solutions of a VI  $(K, F)$ , i.e., the set of all points  $x$  satisfying (A.1) is denoted by  $\text{SOL}(K, F)$ . Note that, if we assume, as we shall always assume from now on, that  $F$  is continuous on  $K$ , it is readily seen that  $\text{SOL}(K, F)$  is a (possibly empty) closed set. The simplest geometric interpretation of a VI or, more precisely, of (A.1), is that a point  $x \in K$  is a solution if and only if  $F(x)$  forms a non-obtuse angle with all vectors of the form  $y - x$ , for all  $y$  in  $K$ .

VIs provide a unified mathematical model for a host of applied equilibrium problems and include many special cases that are important in their own right. Although some of these special cases can and should be dealt with directly and using more specific tools, it is important to list them here, in order to understand the nature of VIs.

- If  $K = \mathbb{R}^n$ , it is easy to see that solving the VI  $(K, F)$  is equivalent to finding the solution of the system of equations  $F(x) = 0$ . In fact, loosely speaking, we are looking for a point  $x$  such that (A.1) is satisfied for all  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . But since in this case  $y - x$  can be any vector, it is readily seen that the only possibility is that  $F(x)$  be zero.
- If  $F = \nabla f$  for some continuously differentiable convex function  $f: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , it can be shown that a point  $x$  is a solution of the VI  $(K, F)$  if and only if it

is a minimum point of the constrained, convex optimization problem

$$\begin{aligned} \min f(x) \\ \text{s.t. } x \in K. \end{aligned}$$

In fact, it is known that the *minimum principle* states that a point  $x \in K$  is a minimum point of this optimization problem if and only if  $\nabla f(x)^T(y-x) \geq 0$  for all  $y \in K$ , which shows our equivalence.

- If  $K$  is the nonnegative orthant, i.e., if  $K = \mathbb{R}_+^n$ , then a point  $x$  is a solution of the VI  $(\mathbb{R}_+^n, F)$  if and only if

$$0 \leq x \perp F(x) \geq 0,$$

where by  $x \perp F(x)$  we mean that the two vectors are perpendicular, that is,  $x^T F(x) = 0$ . This problem is known as the *nonlinear complementarity problem* and is often denoted by  $\text{NCP}(F)$ . The *linear complementarity problem* (i.e., the case in which  $F(x) = Ax - b$ ) was introduced by Cottle as a tool to study in a unified way linear programs, quadratic problems, and bimatrix games. We refer the reader to [22] and [39] for a detailed history and analysis of this problem.

- If  $K$  is a cartesian product of the form  $\mathbb{R}^{n_1} \times \mathbb{R}_+^{n_2}$ , then we have a problem that can be viewed as a mixture of a system of equations and a nonlinear complementarity problem. Assume that  $x = (u, v)$  with  $u \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1}$ ,  $v \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2}$ , and  $F$  is partitioned accordingly as  $F = (H, G)$ , with  $H: \mathbb{R}^{n_1} \times \mathbb{R}^{n_2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_1}$  and  $G: \mathbb{R}^{n_1} \times \mathbb{R}^{n_2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_2}$ . It can be shown that the VI  $(K, F)$  is in this case equivalent to the problem of finding a  $(u, v)$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} H(u, v) &= 0, \\ 0 &\leq v \perp G(u, v) \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

This problem is known as the *mixed complementarity problem* and, as we will see shortly, it is strictly related to KKT systems.

A solution of a VI can be characterized, under some standard assumptions, by its KKT conditions, that are formally very similar to the KKT conditions of an optimization problem. In order to describe these KKT conditions, we assume that the set  $K$  is defined through a system of equalities and inequalities

$$K = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : g(x) \leq 0, Ax = b\},$$

where  $g: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is a vector of continuously differentiable convex functions and  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^p$ . Note that, fine points apart, if  $K$  must be convex, equality constraints involved in its definitions must be linear. In this setting, the following theorem holds.

**Theorem A.1.** *Let the set  $K$  be defined as above. The following statements hold:*

- (a) *Let  $x \in \text{SOL}(K, F)$ . If any standard constraint qualification holds at  $x$  (for example, linear independence of active constraints, Mangasarain–Fromovitz constraint qualifications, or Abadie condition) then there exist multipliers  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^p$  such that*

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) + \nabla g(x)\lambda + A^T \mu &= 0, \\ Ax &= b, \\ 0 &\leq \lambda \perp g(x) \leq 0. \end{aligned} \tag{A.2}$$

- (b) *Conversely, if a triple  $(x, \lambda, \nu)$  satisfies system (A.2), then  $x$  solves the VI  $(K, F)$ .*

Note that the KKT system (A.2) is very similar to the KKT system of an optimization problem, but it is important to observe that, assuming that some constraint qualification holds and assuming that the set  $K$  is defined as above, the KKT system is totally equivalent to the VI, in the sense that a point  $x$  is a solution of the KKT system if and only if  $x \in \text{SOL}(K, F)$ . This is in contrast to optimization problems where, in order to have a similar equivalence, one must assume that the problem is convex. As a further remark, it may be interesting to note that the KKT system (A.2) is an instance of a mixed complementarity problem; just take

$$\begin{aligned} u &= \begin{pmatrix} x \\ \mu \end{pmatrix}, \quad v = \lambda, \\ H(u, v) &= \begin{pmatrix} F(x) + \nabla g(x)\lambda + A^T \mu \\ Ax - b \end{pmatrix}, \quad G(u, v) = -g(x). \end{aligned}$$

The first important issue one has to analyze when studying VIs is, obviously, existence of solutions. The basic result one can establish parallels the famous Weierstrass theorem for optimization problems, although it should be noted that while the Weierstrass theorem can be proved using elementary tools, the proof of the following theorem, providing the basic existence result for VIs, is rather sophisticated and by no means trivial.

**Theorem A.2.** *Let a VI  $(K, F)$  be given and assume that  $K$  is convex and compact and that  $F$  is continuous on  $K$ . Then  $\text{SOL}(K, F)$  is nonempty and compact.*

This theorem plays a central role in establishing existence of a solution to a VI, but it is not (directly) applicable to all those cases in which the set  $K$  is unbounded; for example, it is of no use when dealing with (mixed) nonlinear complementarity problems. There are obviously many ways to deal with the difficulty

of an unbounded set  $K$  – here we only mention the possibility to introduce special classes of functions that, among other things, have some bearing to existence issues.

Let a function  $F: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be given, with  $K$  a closed convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We say that  $F$  is

- *monotone* on  $K$  if

$$(F(x) - F(y))^T(y - x) \geq 0, \quad \forall x, y \in K;$$

- *strictly monotone* on  $K$  if

$$(F(x) - F(y))^T(y - x) > 0, \quad \forall x, y \in K, x \neq y;$$

- *strongly monotone* on  $K$  if a positive constant  $\alpha$  exists such that

$$(F(x) - F(y))^T(y - x) \geq \alpha \|x - y\|^2, \quad \forall x, y \in K.$$

Two simple considerations can illustrate better the nature of these definitions. In the unidimensional case,  $n = 1$ , a function is monotone if and only if it is nondecreasing, and strictly monotone if and only if it is increasing. In this setting, strongly monotone functions can be seen, roughly speaking, as increasing functions whose slope is bounded away from zero. In the general case of  $n \geq 1$ , there is an important relation to convex functions that also illustrates the various definitions of monotonicity. Let  $f: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuously differentiable function on  $K$ . Then the gradient  $\nabla f$  is (strictly, strongly) monotone on  $K$  if and only if  $f$  is (strictly, strongly) convex on  $K$ . In a sense, monotonicity plays a role in the VI theory that is very similar to that of convexity in optimization theory. Having this in mind, the following theorem is rather “natural”.

**Theorem A.3.** *Let a VI  $(K, F)$  be given, with  $K$  closed and convex and  $F$  continuous on  $K$ . Then:*

- If  $F$  is monotone on  $K$  then  $\text{SOL}(K, F)$  is a (possibly empty) closed, convex set.*
- If  $F$  is strictly monotone on  $K$  then the VI  $(K, F)$  has at most one solution.*
- If  $F$  is strongly monotone on  $K$  then the VI  $(K, F)$  has one and only one solution.*

Note that point (c) in the above theorem guarantees existence (and uniqueness) of a solution even in the case of unbounded sets  $K$ . In view of the importance of monotonicity, it is important to have some easy way to check whether a function is monotone. The following proposition gives an easy test for  $C^1$  functions.

**Proposition A.4.** *Let  $K$  be a closed convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $F: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a  $C^1$  function. The:*

- (a)  *$F$  is monotone on  $K$  if and only if  $JF(x)$  is positive semidefinite for all  $x \in K$ .*
- (b) *If  $JF(x)$  is positive definite for all  $x \in K$  then  $F$  is strictly monotone on  $K$ .*
- (c)  *$F$  is strongly monotone on  $K$  if and only if a positive constant  $\alpha$  exists such that  $JF(x) - \alpha I$  is positive semidefinite for every  $x \in K$ .*

Note that in case (b) we only have a sufficient condition for strict monotonicity. To see that the reverse implication does not hold in general, consider the function  $x^3$ , which is strictly monotone on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Its Jacobian (the derivative in this case) is given by  $x^2$  and it is clear that at the origin  $x^2 = 0$ , so that the Jacobian is not everywhere positive definite.

Computation of the solutions of a VI is a complex issue. In the main text we describe some projection-type algorithms that, although quite simple, are, at least theoretically, very interesting. Although there exist other types of algorithms – see [39] – that might practically outperform projection-type algorithms, these latter algorithms are most interesting, since they are, on the one hand, simple, and on the other hand, they match well with the decomposition schemes that are of paramount interests in the solution of games. The use of more complex VI solution methods in the solution of GNEPs is certainly a topic that should be addressed in the near future.

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