

GAME THEORY #5

Reminders

- (*) Classical game theory is about strategic decision-making among rational actors
 - Elements: (-) Players (-) Actions (-) Order of moves
 - (-) Information (-) Payoffs
- (-) Static games with complete information $\Gamma = (N, A, \pi)$
- (-) Two solution concepts
 - (*) Dominance solvability
 - (*) Nash equilibrium [Give that others use it, I want to use it, too]
- (-) Example: Stop-Hunt

	Stop	Hunt
→ Stop	10, 10	0, 6
→ Hunt	6, 0	6, 6

2 Nash equilibria in pure strategies

§ 3 DYNAMIC GAMES WITH COMPLETE INFORMATION

§ 3.1 Games of perfect information (Sequential games)

Example 3.1 (Sequential stop-hunt)

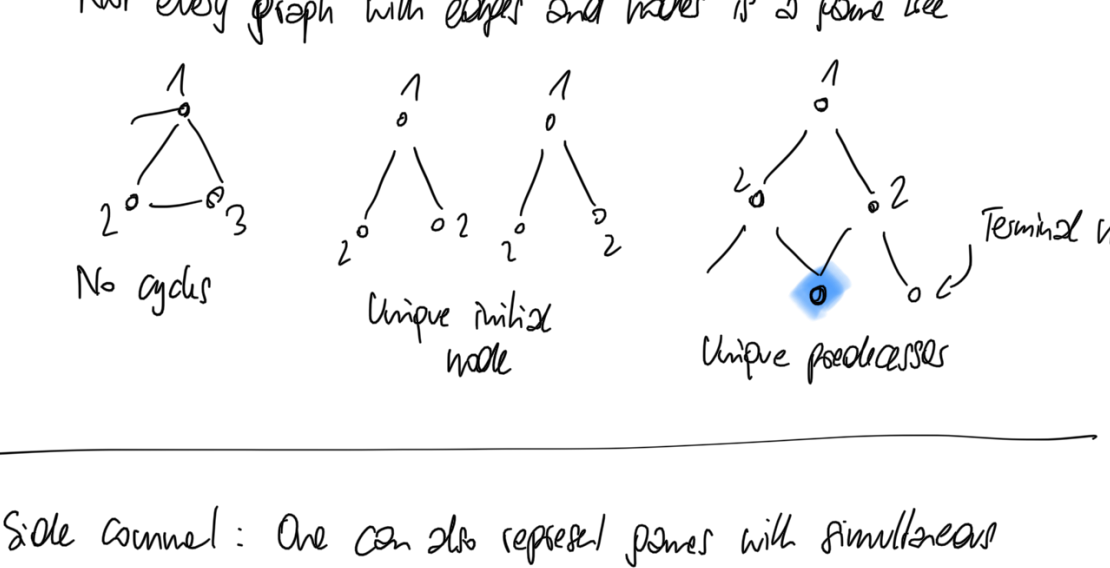
Players, actions, payoffs are as before. However, now Player 1 makes his decision first and announces publicly what it is. Then player 2 decides.

→ Assumption: Player 2 knows player 1's move when making his decision.

(*) Pure strategies

Player 1: $S^1 = \{ \text{Stop, Hunt} \}$
 Player 2: $S^2 = \{ (\text{Stop, Stop}), (\text{Stop, Hunt}), (\text{Hunt, Stop}), (\text{Hunt, Hunt}) \}$

Always Stop Stop if co-player does Stop if co-player does not Always Hunt



3 pure Nash equilibria

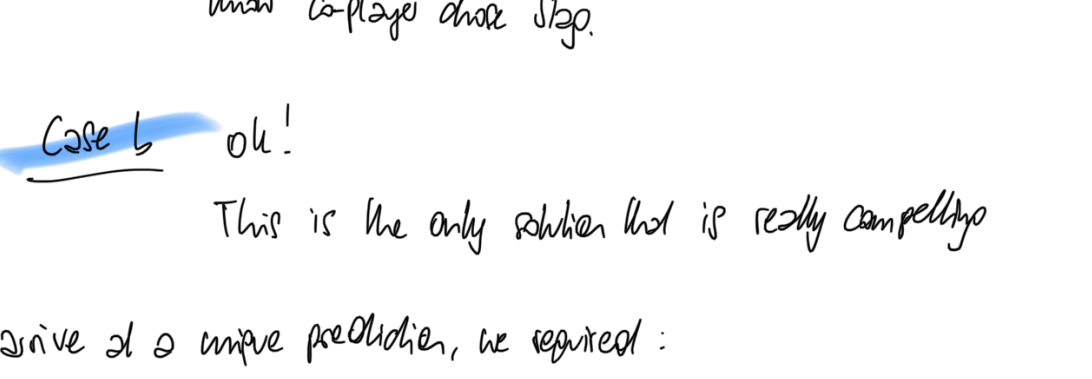
Question: Is this all?

Definition 3.2 (Games of perfect information)

In a game of perfect information, players move sequentially, and they know everything that happened before.

Remark 3.3 (Game tree)

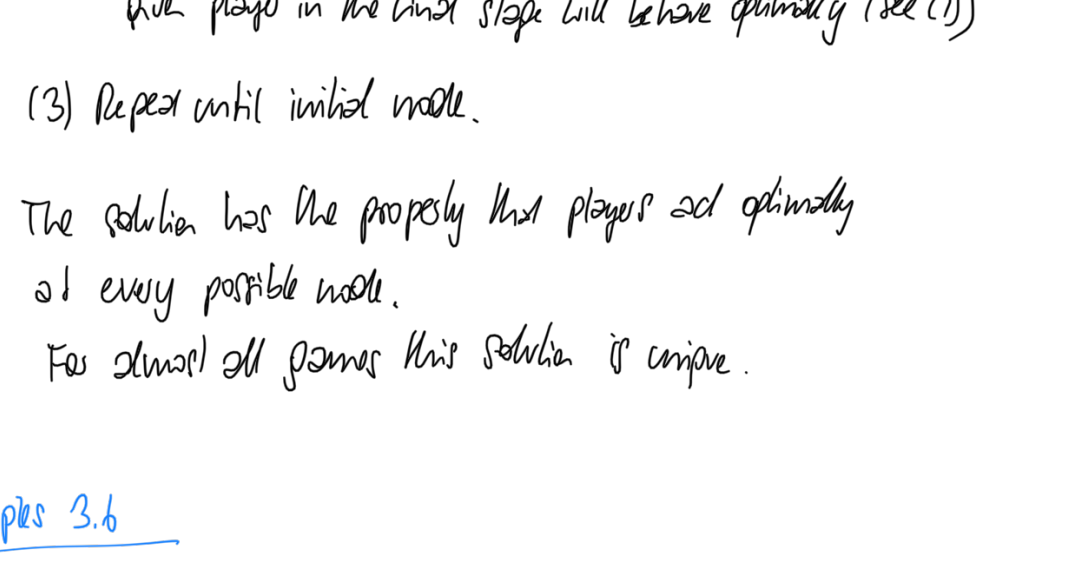
A game tree is a graphical representation of the game. For example, for stop-hunt



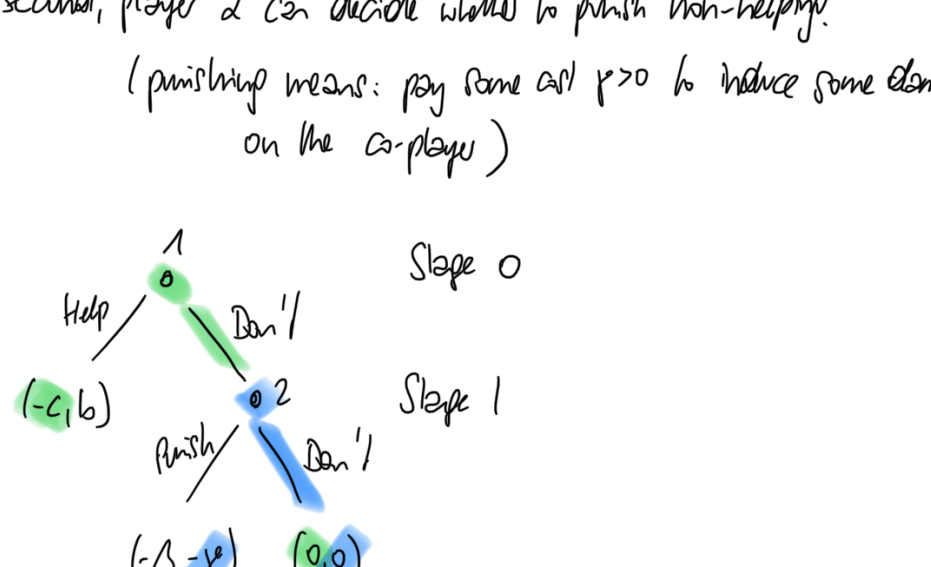
Contains information about:

- (*) Who moves
- (*) What is it that players know
- (*) What are the possible outcomes

Not every graph with edges and nodes is a game tree



Side comment: One can also represent games with simultaneous moves. For example, classical stop-hunt game



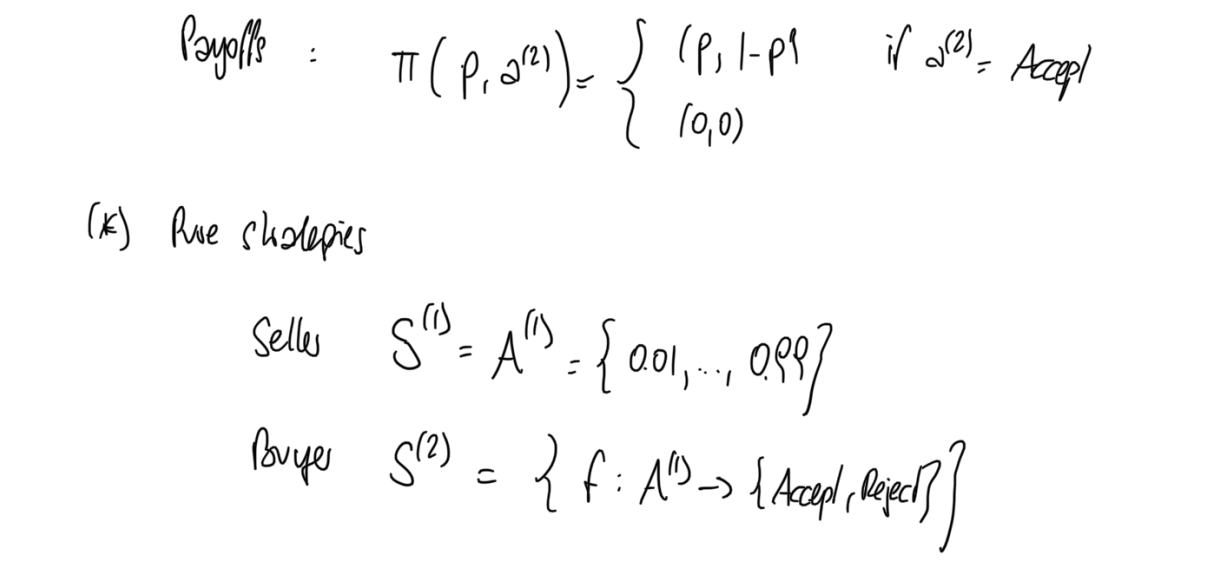
Desired object is called an information set

Comprises all nodes that a player cannot distinguish

Overall, every game with complete information can be represented as both, by a game tree or a matrix (for 2 players)

Example 3.4 (Sequential stop-hunt)

Let us illustrate the 3 Nash equilibria



Let's analyze the off-equilibrium behaviors

Case a: Unreasonable to play Stop if I already know co-players choose Hunt

Case c: Unreasonable to play Hunt if I already know co-players choose Stop

Case b: ok!

This is the only solution that is really compelling

To arrive at a unique prediction, we required:

- (1) In the last stage, players need to make optimal decisions even off the equilibrium path.
- (2) Players who make decisions at previous nodes can rely on (1)

Proposition 3.5 (Backward induction)

For any game with perfect information and finitely many stages one can find a Nash equilibrium with the following algorithm:

- (1) For each node in the final stage, determine the optimal action of the respective player
- (2) Go to the second-to-final stage. Determine the optimal behavior, given players in the final stage will behave optimally (see (1))
- (3) Repeat until initial node.

The solution has the property that players act optimally at every possible node.

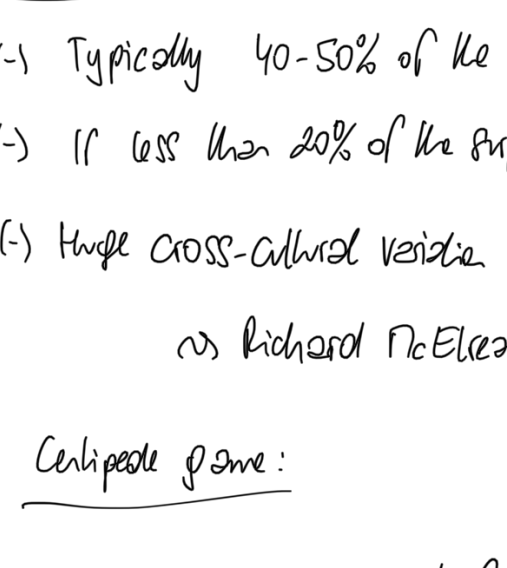
For almost all games this solution is unique.

Examples 3.6

1) Cooperation and punishment

First, player 1 can decide whether or not to help player 2 (helping means: pay some cost $c > 0$ to handle a level $b > 0$ to the co-player)

Second, player 2 can decide whether to punish non-helping (punishing means: pay some cost $p > 0$ to induce some damage $s > 0$ on the co-player)



Backward induction:

- (*) Player 2 would never punish
- (*) Knowing this, player 1 would never help

Punishment is a non-credible threat

2) Bargaining (Ultimatum game)

(*) Seller and a potential buyer. The item is worth 0 to the seller and 1 to the buyer. Question: Which price should they agree on?

Rules: First, seller names a price. Then, buyer accepts or rejects.

Players: $N = \{ \text{Seller, Buyer} \}$
 Actions: $A^1 = \{ 0.01, 0.02, \dots, 0.98, 0.99 \}$ possible price
 $A^2 = \{ \text{Accept, Reject} \}$

Payoffs: $\pi(p, s^2) = \begin{cases} (p, 1-p) & \text{if } s^2 = \text{Accept} \\ (0, 0) & \text{if } s^2 = \text{Reject} \end{cases}$

(*) Pure strategies

Seller: $S^1 = A^1 = \{ 0.01, \dots, 0.99 \}$
 Buyer: $S^2 = \{ f: A^1 \rightarrow \{ \text{Accept, Reject} \} \}$

(*) There are many Nash equilibria

$$s^2 = 1/2$$

$$s^1(s^2) = \begin{cases} \text{Accept} & \text{if } s^2 \geq 1/2 \\ \text{Reject} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(*) What is the solution according to backward induction?

Buyer decides last		Buyer
Seller proposes	$p = 0.01$	Accept
	$p = 0.02$	Accept
	\vdots	
	$p = 0.99$	Accept

→ Optimal strategy for buyer: Always accept

Seller: Ask for the highest possible price, $p = 0.99$

→ Equilibrium: $s^1 = 0.99$
 $s^2(s^1) = \text{Accept } \forall s^1$

"First-mover advantage"

What happens if there is smaller number of negotiations?

→ Exercise

3) Stackelberg duopoly

Like Cournot, but now one firm moves first

→ Exercises

Remark 3.7 (Critique of backward induction)

1) Example:

Backward induction: $\hat{b} = (R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n)$

(*) Suppose player 1 thinks there will be small probability to go down. To reach equilibrium, probability $(1-\epsilon)^n$

→ Risky if there are many players.

(*) Player 2 might have similar considerations.

Play reinforces player 1's temptation to exit

(*) Again, quite strange behaviorally surprising. For large n , solution is less compelling.

2) Centipede game

Backward induction: At each node go down
 Payoff (1, 0) instead of (5, 5)

(*) Do we find this solution compelling?

Backward induction paradox

- Suppose yes, and suppose you are player 2.
- Suppose you find yourself in a situation where you need to choose between D_2 and R_2
- Backward induction says: choose D_2 , otherwise player 1 will choose D_3
- However backward induction also predicted you were here to make this decision

Player 2 might find it reasonable to play R_2

If player 1 anticipates this, he might want to choose R_1 in the first place.

Remark 3.8 (Behavioral game theory and backward induction)

(*) Ultimatum game:

- (-) Typically 40-50% of the surplus is offered to the buyer.
- (-) If less than 20% of the surplus is offered, no buyer rejects
- (-) Huge cross-cultural variance
- Richard H. Thaler

(*) Centipede game:

Usually players move quite far to the right (no exit choice)

Polacinski-Hewit & Volij: