

# Advanced Microeconomics

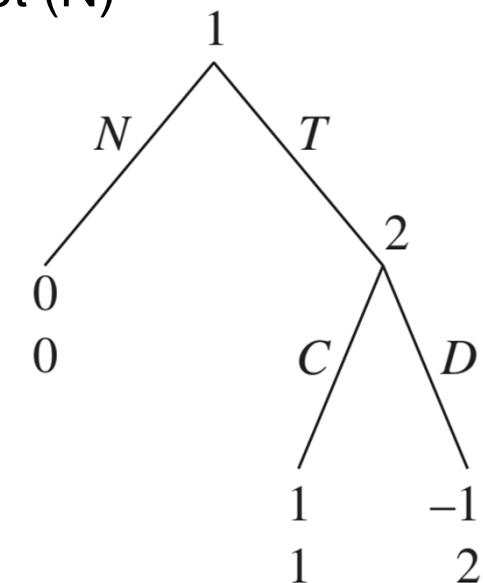
Carsten Helm

## L 6: Dynamic games with complete and perfect information

- Gibbons, Chapter 2.1
  - Tadelis, Section 7
  - Osborne, Chapters 5 and 6
  - McDonald and Solow (1981): "Wage bargaining and employment", American Economic Review, 71(5), 896-908.
-

# The Extensive-Form Game

- Until now, all players decided *simultaneously* on their actions
  - represented by a **normal form game**
- But in many situations players can decide *sequentially* and also more than once
- Example „Trust game“
  - Player 1 decides whether to „trust“ (T) player 2 or not (N)
    - example for trust: paying up front at Ebay and hoping that the seller will deliver
  - Player 2 decides whether to cooperate (C) or to defect (D)

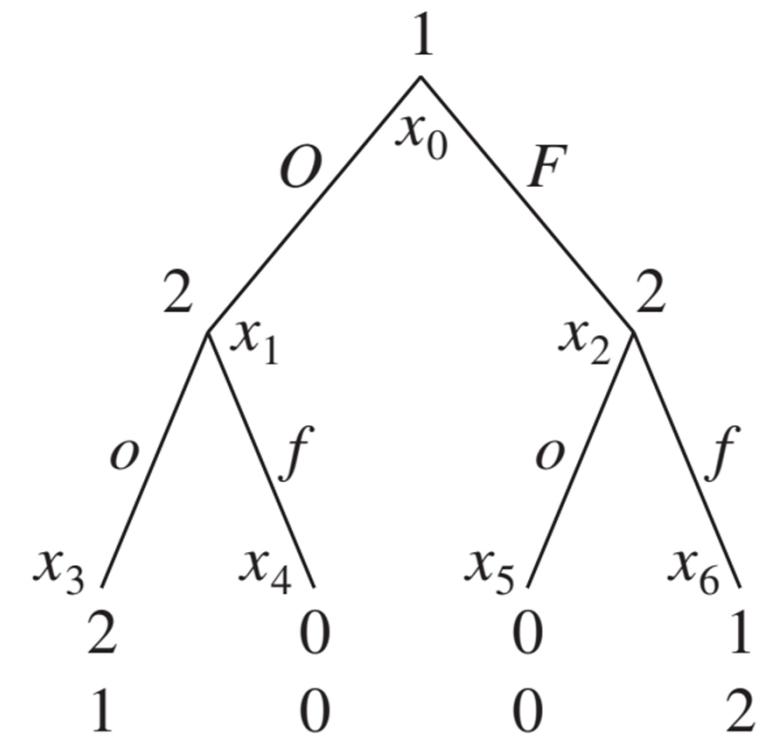


# The Extensive-Form Game

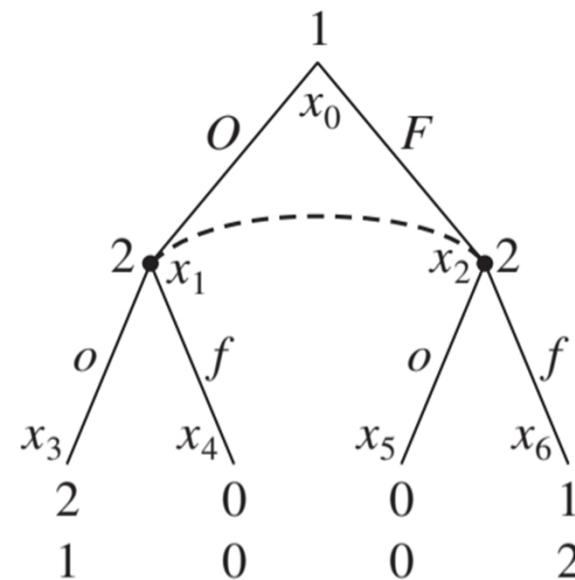
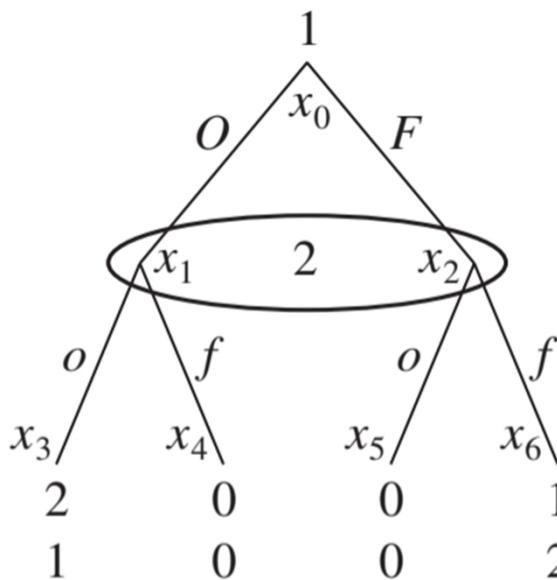
- **Definition.** A game in extensive-form consists of:
  - 1) Set of players,  $N$ .
  - 2a) Order of moves.
  - 2b) Actions of players when they can move.
  - 2c) The knowledge that players have when they can move.
  - 2d) Probability distributions over exogenous events (“moves of nature”).
  - 3) Players’ payoffs as a function of outcomes,  $\{v_i(\cdot)\}_{i \in N}$ .
- The structure of the extensive-form game (represented by the above points) is common knowledge among all the players.
- definitions of games in normal and extensive form have similar structure
  - But in normal form game, point (2) was simply a collection of sets of pure strategies  $\{S_1, \dots, S_n\}$  of the players
  - This aspect is much more complex in extensive form games

## Extensive-form games are often represented by game trees

**Definition.** A **game tree** is a set of nodes  $x \in X$  with a precedence relation  $x > x'$ , which means “ $x$  precedes  $x'$ .” Every node in a game tree has only one predecessor. The precedence relation is *transitive* ( $x > x', x' > x'' \Rightarrow x > x''$ ), *asymmetric* ( $x > x' \Rightarrow \text{not } x' > x$ ), and *incomplete* (not every pair of nodes  $x, y$  can be ordered). The **root** of the tree, denoted by  $x_0$  precedes any other  $x \in X$ . Nodes that do not precede other nodes are called **terminal nodes**, denoted by the set  $Z \subset X$ . Terminal nodes denote the final outcomes of the game with which payoffs are associated. Every node  $x$  that is not a terminal node is assigned either to a player,  $i(x)$ , with the action set  $A_i(x)$ , or to Nature.



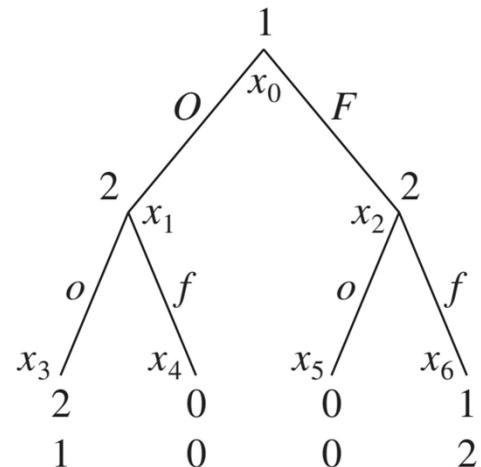
- We can represent simultaneous-move games as game trees
  - Example: simultaneous-move Battle of the Sexes game.



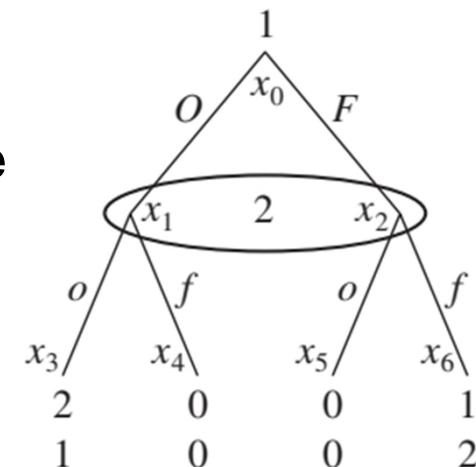
- The fact that 2 has no information whether 1 has chosen  $O$  or  $F$  is represented alternatively by (i) an ellipse, or (ii) a dashed line.

**Definition.** Every player  $i$  has a collection of **information sets**  $h_i \in H_i$  that partition the nodes of the game at which player  $i$  moves with the following properties:

1. If the information set  $h_i$  is a singleton that includes only  $x$ , then player  $i$  who moves at  $x$  knows that he is at  $x$ .
2. If  $x \neq x'$  and if both  $x \in h_i$  and  $x' \in h_i$ , then player  $i$  who moves at  $x$  does not know whether he is at  $x$  or  $x'$ .
3. If  $x \neq x'$  and if both  $x \in h_i$  and  $x' \in h_i$ , then  $A_i(x') = A_i(x)$ .

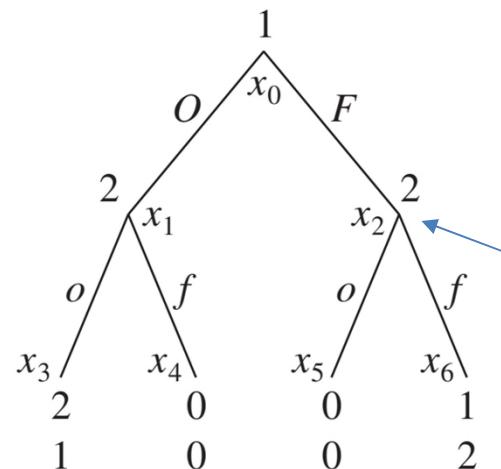


Example Battle of Sexes game:  
sequential- and simultaneous move



**Definition.** Every player  $i$  has a collection of **information sets**  $h_i \in H_i$  that partition the nodes of the game at which player  $i$  moves with the following properties:

1. If the information set  $h_i$  is a singleton that includes only  $x$ , then player  $i$  who moves at  $x$  knows that he is at  $x$ .
2. If  $x \neq x'$  and if both  $x \in h_i$  and  $x' \in h_i$ , then player  $i$  who moves at  $x$  does not know whether he is at  $x$  or  $x'$ .
3. If  $x \neq x'$  and if both  $x \in h_i$  and  $x' \in h_i$ , then  $A_i(x') = A_i(x)$ .

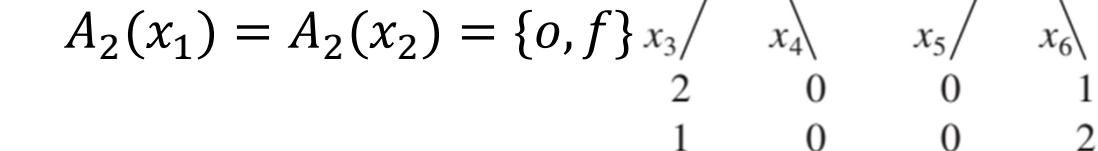


Example Battle of Sexes game:  
sequential- and simultaneous move

$$A_2(x_1) = A_2(x_2) = \{o, f\}$$

$$h_2 = \{x_2\}$$

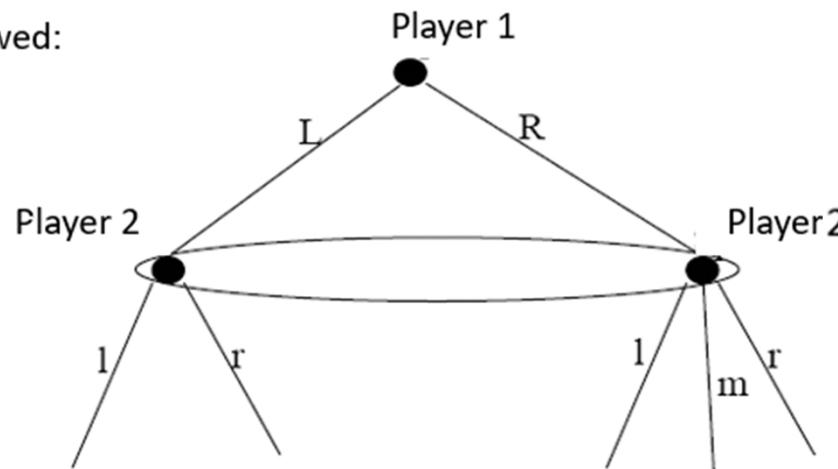
$$h_2 = \{x_1, x_2\}$$



- Properties 1 and 2 describe what knowledge players have when they can move.
- Property 3: „If  $x \neq x'$  and if both  $x \in h_i$  and  $x' \in h_i$ , then  $A_i(x') = A_i(x)$ .“
  - This excludes cases as the one depicted, where player 2 should be able to distinguish between the two nodes because he has different actions available.



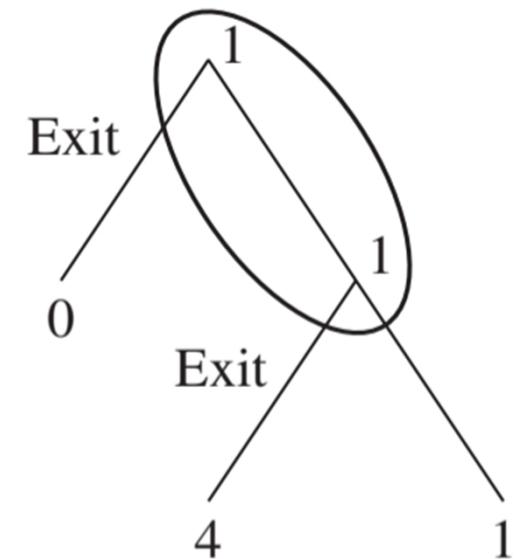
Not allowed:



# Information sets and perfect recall

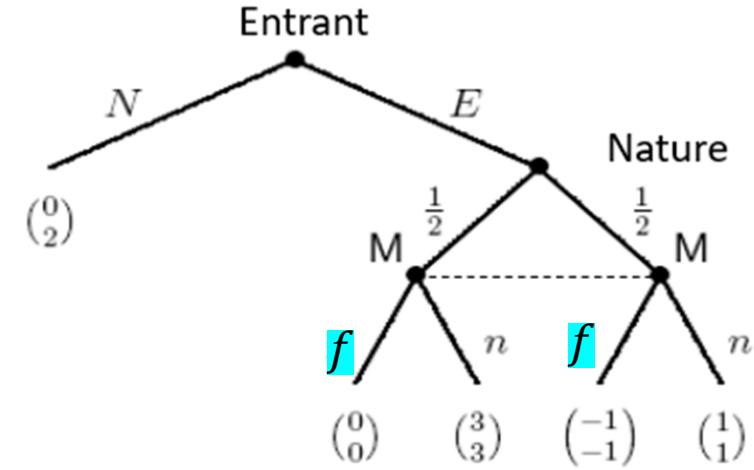
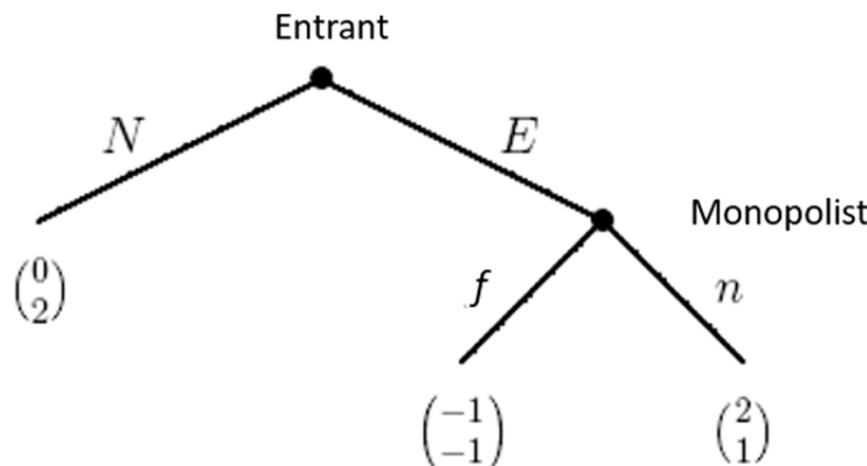
**Definition.** A game of **perfect recall** is one in which no player ever forgets information that he previously knew.

- In the whole lecture we focus on games with perfect recall.
- A game with *imperfect recall* is “The Absent-Minded Driver”
  - There are 2 exits from a motorway
    - The 1<sup>st</sup> leads to an unsafe neighbourhood
    - The 2<sup>nd</sup> is the safe way home
    - If he misses the 2nd exit, he has to take a diversion
  - Imperfect recall means that when the driver is at an exit, he can't remember whether he has already passed one



## Exogenous uncertainty: Modeling as random moves of nature

- **Random moves of nature** (exogenous uncertainty) can be represented by information sets.
- Example: Market entry game with/without move of nature
  - Left: Entrant decides whether to enter ( $E$ ) or not ( $N$ ). Then monopolist decides whether to fight ( $f$ ) or not ( $n$ ) to fight and share the market.
  - Right: Additional player - "**Nature**".
  - from the set of possible states of the world (high or low demand), nature selects one according to a given probability distribution  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$



# Perfect versus imperfect information

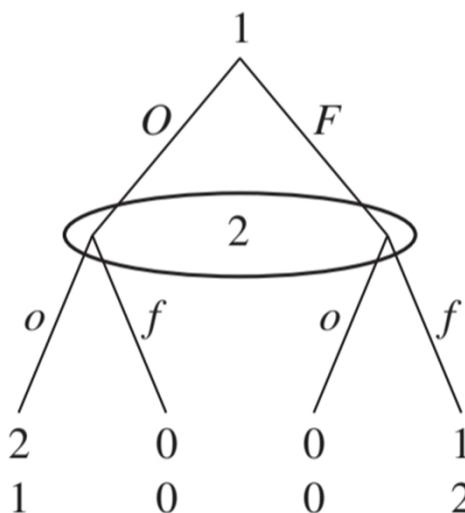
**Definition.** A game of complete information in which every information set is a singleton and there are no moves of Nature is called a **game of perfect information**. A game in which some information sets contain several nodes or in which there are moves of Nature is called a **game of imperfect information**.

- Remember: complete information means that each player  $i$  knows the action set and the payoff function of each player  $j \in N$ , and this itself is common knowledge
- Definition implies that with **perfect information** all players play sequentially and each player observes all previous moves

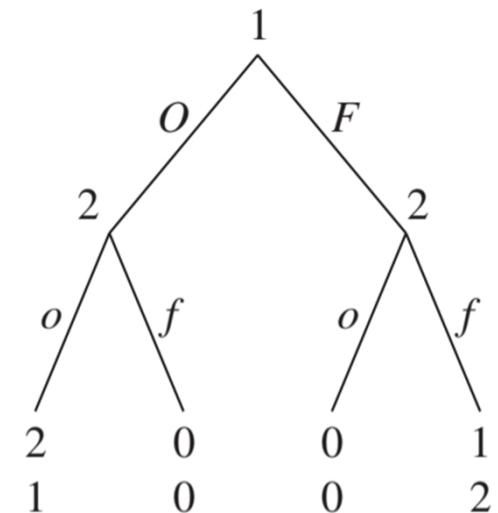
# Strategies in Extensive-Form Games

A **pure strategy** for player  $i$  is a *complete plan of play* that describes which pure action player  $i$  will choose at each of his information sets.

- Pure strategies in simultaneous-move game:
  - $S_1 = \{O, F\}, S_2 = \{o, f\}$
- Pure strategies in sequential-move game:
  - $S_1 = \{O, F\}, S_2 = \{oo, of, fo, ff\}$ , where “ $of$ ” is shorthand for “play  $o$  if player 1 plays  $O$  and play  $f$  if he plays  $F$ . ”



Example Battle of Sexes game:  
simultaneous-move (left) and  
sequential-move (right)

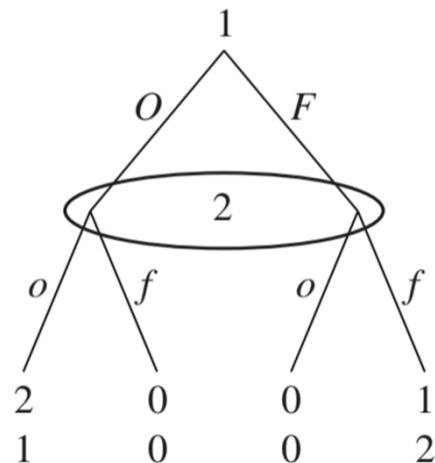


# Pure Strategies: Formal definition

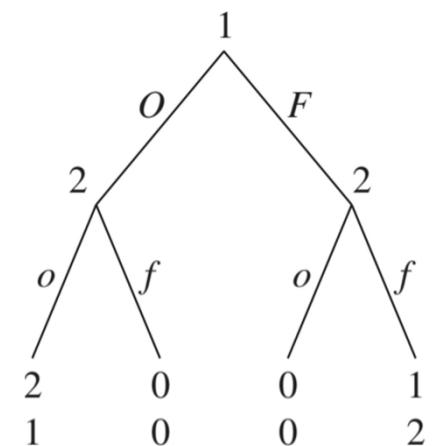
Some notation:

- $A_i(h_i)$ : the actions that player  $i$  can take at information set  $h_i$
- $A_i = \cup_{h_i \in H_i} A_i(h_i)$ : set of all actions of player  $i$ , (i.e., the union of all the elements in all the sets  $A_i(h_i)$ )

**Definition.** A **pure strategy** for player  $i$  is a mapping  $s_i: H_i \rightarrow A_i$  that assigns an action  $s_i(h_i) \in A_i(h_i)$  for every information set  $h_i \in H_i$ . We denote by  $S_i$  the set of all pure-strategy mappings  $s_i \in S_i$ .



Example Battle of Sexes game:  
simultaneous- and sequential-move



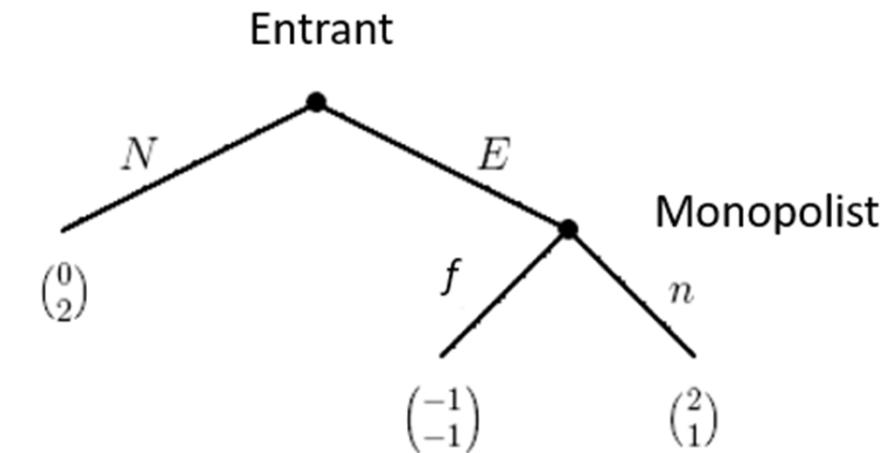
# Mixed strategies in dynamic games

**Definition.** A mixed strategy for player  $i$  is a probability distribution over his pure strategies  $s_i \in S_i$ .

- Similar to definition for the case of normal form games
- But strategies usually more complex
  - Not just an action, but a complete plan of play
- In this lecture we don't analyze mixed strategies in sequential games

## Sequential rationality and backwards induction: Market entry game

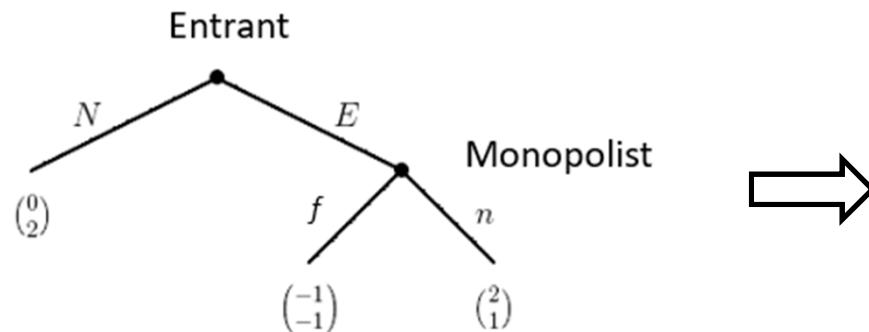
- A sequential game with a finite number of stages and perfect information is solved from behind by „**backward induction**“



- Solution
  - Monopolist: Given that the entrant has entered, it is optimal for it to share the market
  - Entrant: If he enters, the monopolist will share the market; so he should enter
  - The result of the backward induction is therefore  $(E, n)$

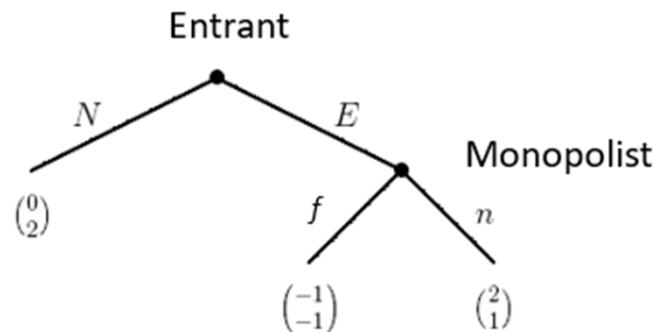
## Sequential rationality and backwards induction: Market entry game

- Game in matrix representation



## Sequential rationality and backwards induction: Market entry game

- Game in matrix representation



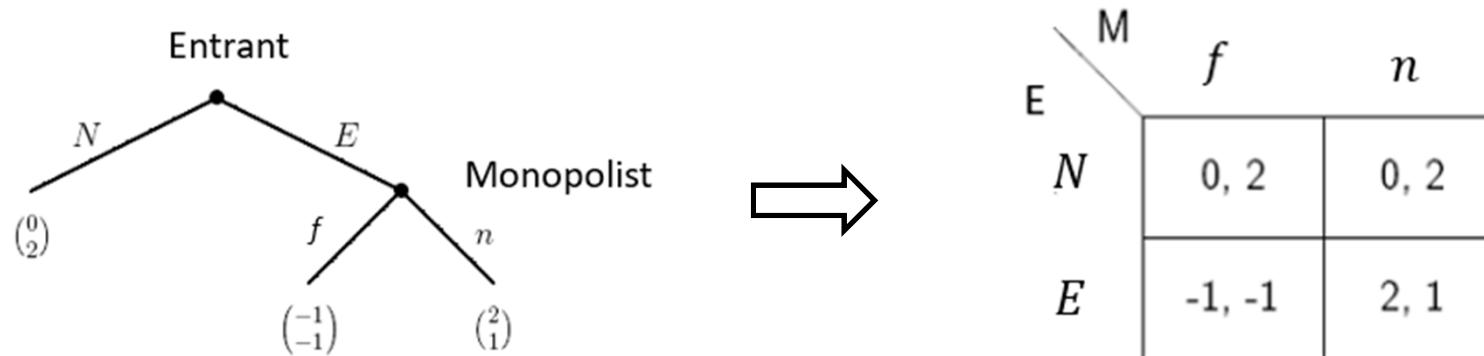
A normal form game matrix representing the same game. The rows are labeled by the Entrant's strategies  $N$  and  $E$ . The columns are labeled by the Monopolist's strategies  $f$  and  $n$ . The payoffs are listed as (Entrant payoff, Monopolist payoff).

		$f$	$n$
$N$	$0, 2$	$0, 2$	
$E$	$-1, -1$	$2, 1$	

- The outcome of backward induction is a Nash equilibrium
  - Given that the entrants plays  $E$ , it is optimal for the monopolist to play  $n$
  - Given that monopolist plays  $n$ , it is optimal for the entrant to play  $E$

## Sequential rationality and backwards induction: Market entry game

- Game in matrix representation



- Analysis of the normal form shows that there is a second Nash-equilibrium  $(N, f)$ 
  - The monopolist "threatens" to fight if the entrant enters
- However, the Nash equilibrium  $(N, f)$  is not convincing
  - To fight is a **non-credible threat**, because it is not in the interest of the monopolist to actually carry out the threat

- The players' equilibrium strategies must satisfy the **principle of sequential rationality**

**Definition.** Given strategies  $\sigma_{-i} \in \Delta S_{-i}$  of  $i$ 's opponents, we say that  $\sigma_i$  is **sequentially rational** if and only if  $i$  is playing a best response to  $\sigma_{-i}$  in each of his information sets.

- i.e., a player's strategy should dictate an optimal action at each information set in the game tree
  - Including those that are not reached in equilibrium

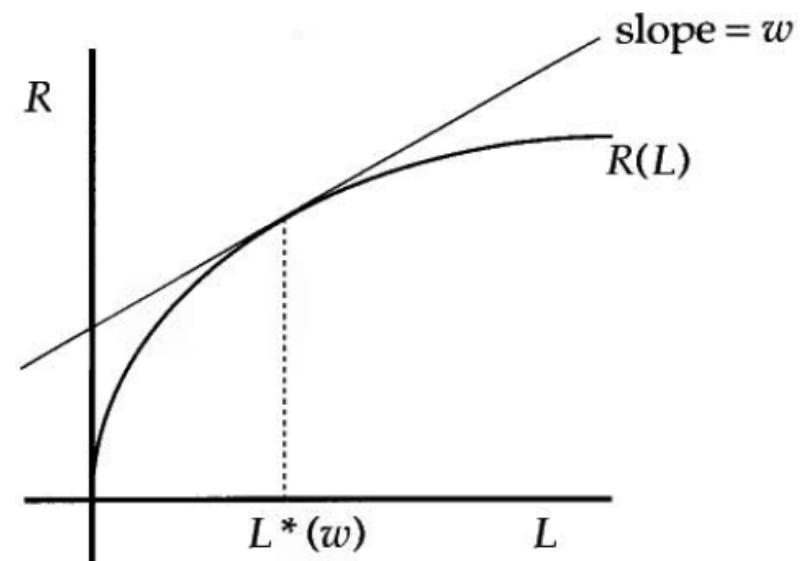
**Proposition** (Zermelo's Theorem). Any **finite game of perfect information** has a **backward induction solution** that is **sequentially rational**. Furthermore if no two terminal nodes prescribe the same payoffs to any player then the backward induction solution is unique.

Next lecture: extended solution concept that covers imperfect information

# Example: Wages and employment

- Leontief (1946), later in numerous variations (e.g. McDonald and Solow 1981, see reference).
- Two-stage game:
  1. Union (player 1) determines the wage rate  $w$
  2. Company (player 2) determines the employment level  $L$
- Solution by backward induction
  - i.e., we first determine the firm's best response:  $L(w)$

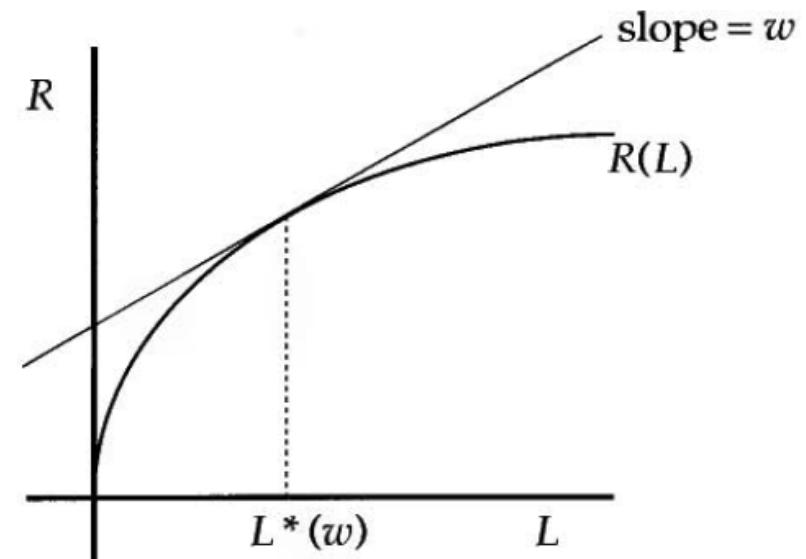
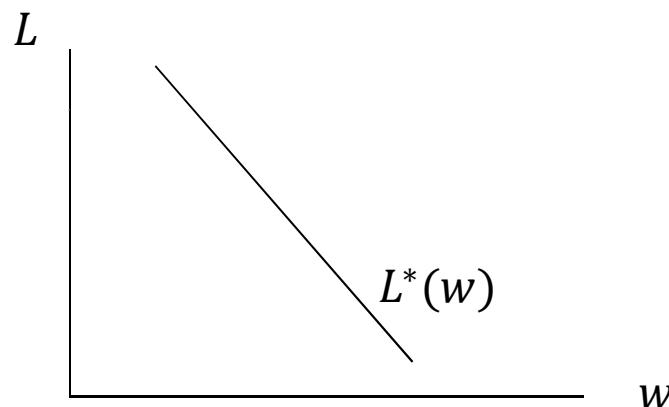
- Stage 2 - Decision by the firm
  - $R(L)$ : Revenues as a function of employment level  $L$
  - $R(L)$  is increasing and strictly concave, i.e.  $R'(L) > 0, R''(L) < 0$
  - Profit maximization:
    - The optimal employment level is a decreasing function of  $w$ ,
      - i.e.  $L'(w) < 0$  (why?)



- Stage 2 - Decision by the firm
  - $R(L)$ : Revenues as a function of employment level  $L$
  - $R(L)$  is increasing and strictly concave, i.e.  $R'(L) > 0, R''(L) < 0$
  - Profit maximization:

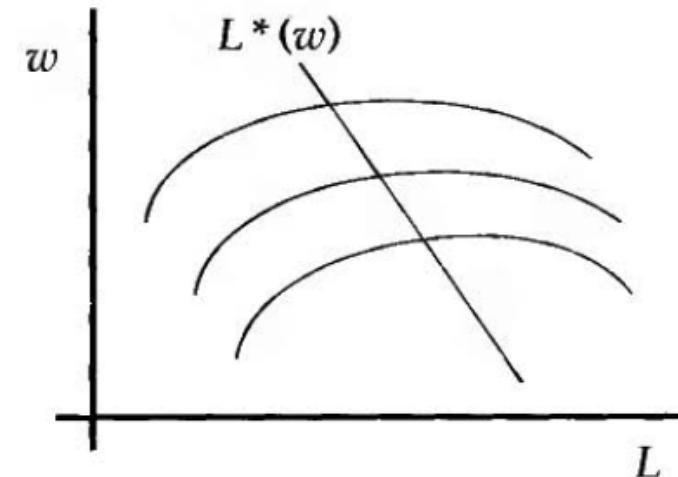
$$\max_L \pi(L) = R(L) - wL \Rightarrow R'(L) = w$$

- The optimal employment level is a decreasing function of  $w$ ,
  - i.e.  $L'(w) < 0$  (why?)

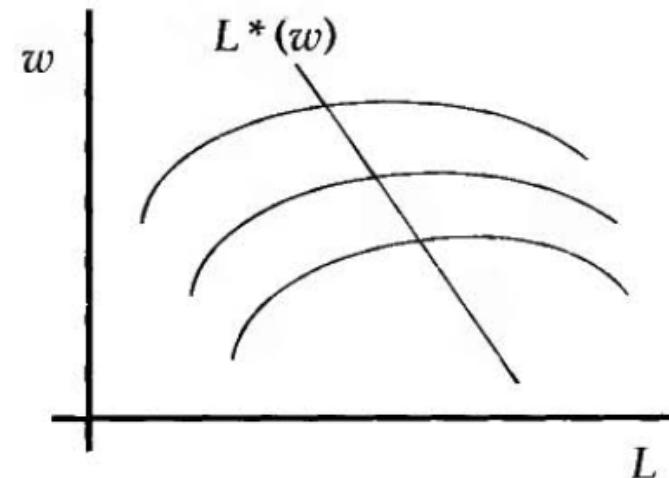


- Best response functions  $L^*(w)$  and iso-profit lines
  - Iso-profit lines (= wage at which firm makes constant profits  $\bar{\pi}$ )
  - $\lim_{L \rightarrow 0} R'(L) = \infty$  and  $\lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} R'(L) = 0$ . Therefore:
  - If  $L$  is small, then  $\frac{dw}{dL} > 0$ , i.e. a higher employment level leads to a higher wage so as to keep profits constant
  - If  $L$  is large, then  $\frac{dw}{dL} < 0$ , i.e. a higher employment level leads to a lower wage so as to keep profits constant

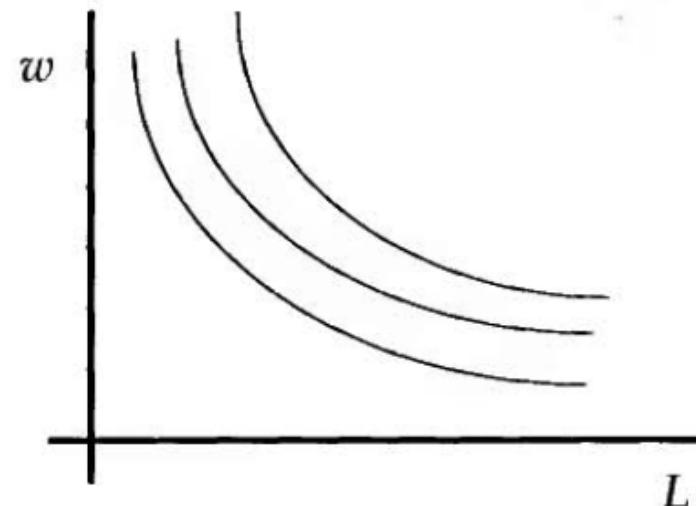
- Best response functions  $L^*(w)$  and iso-profit lines
  - Iso-profit lines (= wage at which firm makes constant profits  $\bar{\pi}$ )
 
$$R(L) - wL = \bar{\pi} \Leftrightarrow w = \frac{R(L) - \bar{\pi}}{L} \text{ with } \frac{dw}{dL} = \frac{R'(L)L - [R(L) - \bar{\pi}]}{L^2}$$
  - Assumption:  $\lim_{L \rightarrow 0} R'(L) = \infty$  and  $\lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} R'(L) = 0$ . Therefore:
  - If  $L$  is small, then  $\frac{dw}{dL} > 0$ , i.e. to keep profits constant, a higher employment level must go along with higher wage
  - If  $L$  is large, then  $\frac{dw}{dL} < 0$ , i.e. to keep profits constant a higher employment level must be compensated by lower wage



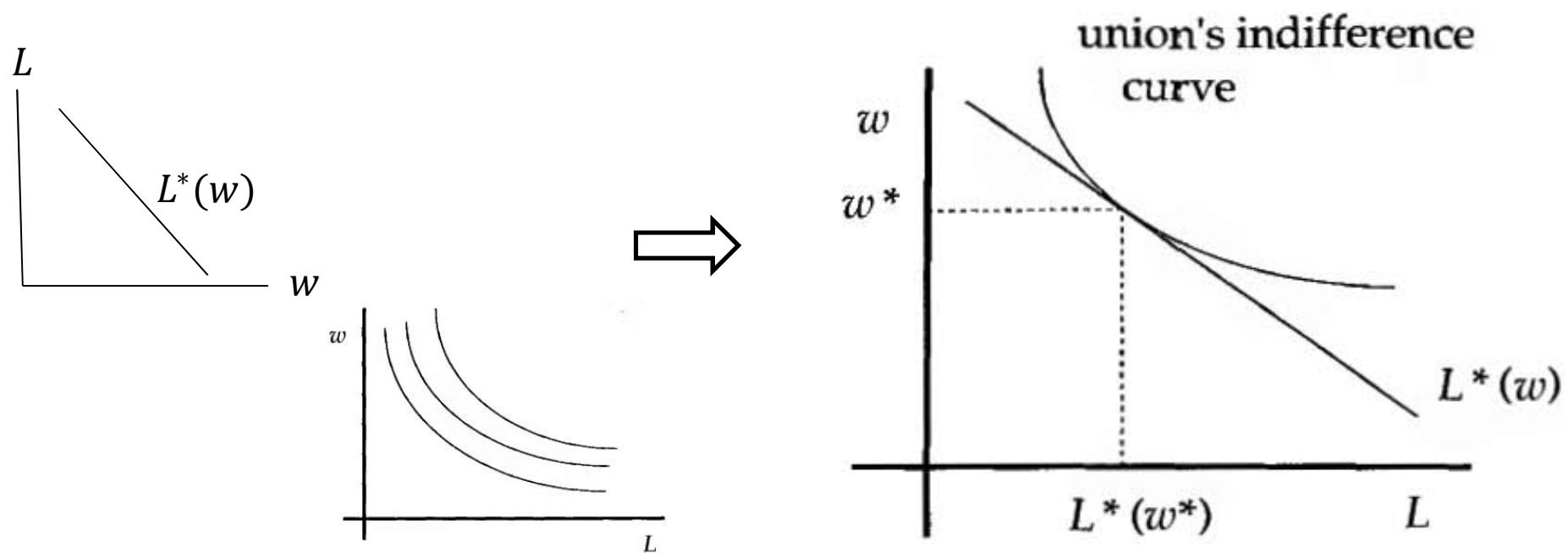
- Best response functions  $L^*(w)$  and iso-profit lines
  - $L^*(w)$  is a decreasing function (see above)
  - $L^*(w)$  intersects each of the iso profit lines at its maximum
    - Because for each  $w$ , firms choose the  $L$ , where they achieve the iso-profit line with the highest profits
    - lower iso-profit lines mean higher profits



- Stage 1 - Decision of the trade union
  - Payoff functions are based on the utility of (potential) workers,  $U(w, L)$
  - $U(w, L)$  is strictly monotonically increasing in  $w$  and  $L$  (a higher wage  $w$  is better, a higher employment level  $L$  is better) and quasiconcave
  - leads to convex indifference curves in figure

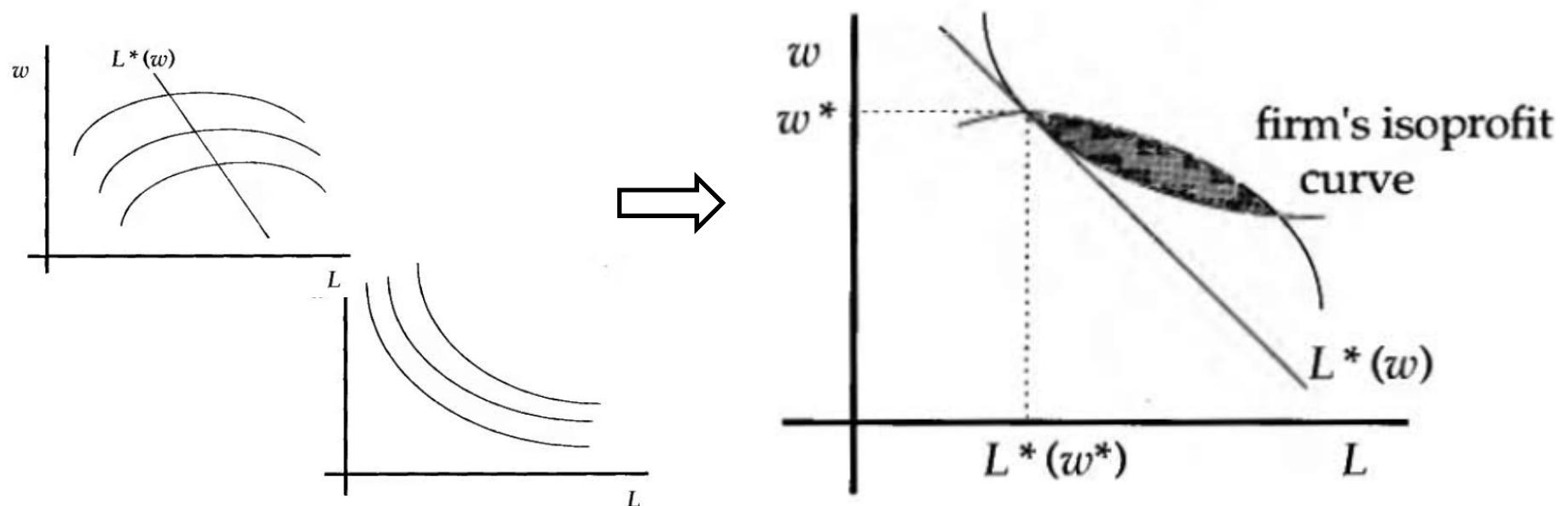


- Stage 1 - Decision of the trade union
  - Union anticipates the reaction function  $L^*(w)$  of the firm and chooses the highest indifference curve compatible with it



# Wages and employment

- Stage 1 - Decision of the trade union
  - $(w^*, L^*)$  is **inefficient** because the union and the company do not negotiate employment and wage levels at the same time
  - Unions and companies could both do better by choosing a point within the shaded ellipse (reduce wages a little and increase employment a little)



## Wages and employment: Policy Implications

- The inefficiency arises because the union and the company do not negotiate employment and wage levels at the same time
- Model thus provides an argument why employment and wage levels should be negotiated together
  - Which is often the case