

# Lecture 8

October 17, 2013

# Example of mixed strategy equilibrium

- There are three buyers with unit demands.
- Two are of low valuation  $v < 1$ .
- One is of high valuation 1.
- There are two identical sellers with one unit each.
- Sellers are in the same location and choose price before buyers arrive.
- Buyers arrive in random order.

## Example of mixed strategy equilibrium

- Both sellers are expected to ask price  $v$ .
- Assume a seller deviates and asks price 1; this is the only deviation that has to be checked!
- S/he makes a sale with probability  $\frac{2}{3}$ , i.e., if the high-valuation buyer does not arrive first.
- As long as  $\frac{2}{3} \leq v$  the deviation is not profitable.
- Then both sellers asking price  $v$  is a pure strategy Nash-equilibrium.

# Example of mixed strategy equilibrium

- Assume that  $\frac{2}{3} \leq v$ , or deviation from  $(v, v)$  to unity is profitable.
- Then the symmetric equilibrium is in mixed strategies.
- Can the equilibrium strategy be continuous?
- Then the lowest value in the support of the mixed strategy must be  $v$ ; why?
- Asking  $v$  would generate pay-off  $v$ .

# Example of mixed strategy equilibrium

- The highest value in the support of the mixed strategy must be unity.
- Unity must then generate pay-off  $v$ , too.
- A seller who asks unity gets pay-off zero, as  $v$  is chosen with probability zero, and low-valuation buyers cannot buy either good.
- This is impossible.

# Example of mixed strategy equilibrium

- There must be a mass point at price  $v$ .
- With probability  $\gamma$  a seller asks price  $v$ .
- With probability  $1 - \gamma$  s/he uses a continuous mixed strategy  $F$  with support  $[c, 1]$  where  $c > v$ .
- Notice that  $c$  must be strictly bigger than  $v$  since there is a discrete jump in the selling probability at prices  $p > v$ .

# Example of mixed strategy equilibrium

- Asking price  $v$  results in trade with certainty.
- Asking price 1 results in trade only if the other seller asks price  $v$  which takes place with probability  $\gamma$  and the first arriving buyer is a low-valuation one.
- This happens with probability  $\frac{2}{3}\gamma$ .
- Asking price unity yields consequently pay-off  $\frac{2}{3}\gamma$ .
- In equilibrium  $v = \frac{2}{3}\gamma$  from which we get  $\gamma = \frac{3}{2}v$ .

## Example of mixed strategy equilibrium

- Asking price  $x \in [c, 1)$  results in trade if the other seller asks price  $v$  and the first arriving buyer is a low-valuation one, or if the other seller asks a price higher than  $x$ .
- This happens with probability  $\frac{2}{3}\gamma + (1 - \gamma)(1 - F(x))$ .
- Consequently, we must have

$$x \left[ \frac{2}{3}\gamma + (1 - \gamma)(1 - F(x)) \right] = v$$

- From this we can solve

$$F(x) = \frac{(2 - v)x - 2v}{(2 - 3v)x}$$



# Example of mixed strategy equilibrium

- Inserting  $x = c$  and  $F(c) = 0$  we can solve  $c = \frac{2v}{2-v}$ .
- What we learn is that in equilibrium the low-valuation buyers do not get any surplus because there are more buyers than sellers.
- Also, there is a mass point in the mixed strategy at the low-valuation buyers' valuation, and there is a gap between  $v$  and the lower bound of the support of the mixed strategy  $c$ .
- Most importantly, the equilibrium features inefficiency due to the random arrival of the buyers.

# An application to incomplete contracts

- We take it as given that not all contingencies can be contracted upon.
- The interesting case is when some contingencies/states are not verifiable but the parties to a contract still observe the states.
- Then contracts upon these cannot be taken into the court.
- Assume two persons  $A$  and  $B$  who want to engage in a common enterprise; we call it a project.
- The project consists of  $A$  and  $B$  and physical capital.
- The surplus the project generates depends on how much  $A$  and  $B$  invest in it.

# An application to incomplete contracts

- We assume that the investments take place sequentially, the parties observe each others' investment but they are not verifiable.
- Denote  $A$ 's and  $B$ 's investments by  $a$  and  $b$ .
- Assume that these also signify the costs of investments.
- $A$  and  $B$  must agree on the ownership relations and how the surplus is to be divided between them.
- Before going to this let us study the situation, and specify the details of surplus generation.

# An application to incomplete contracts

- The game consists of three stages.
- In the first  $A$  invests.
- In the second  $B$  invests.
- In the third the surplus is realised as  $\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b} + \sqrt{ab}$ .
- The problem from the players' point of view is that even if they make big investments they cannot be remunerated for this as only the surplus is verifiable.

# An application to incomplete contracts

- The socially optimal solution is got as a solution to

$$\max_{a,b} \sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b} + \sqrt{ab} - a - b$$

- The first order conditions are

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{ab}} b - 1 = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{b}} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{ab}} a - 1 = 0$$

- Symmetric solution is given by  $a^* = b^* = 1$ .

# An application to incomplete contracts

- We also see that once  $A$  has invested the socially optimal investment of  $B$  is given by

$$b^*(a) = \frac{1}{4} (1 + \sqrt{a})^2$$

- But this happens only if  $B$  gets the whole surplus.
- Let us see what happens if  $A$  owns the project or in this case the physical capital.
- Ownership means that  $A$  can contract who can use the capital;  $A$  has all the rights that s/he has not contracted away.

# An application to incomplete contracts

- Whichever way the ownership is allocated, e.g., to  $A$ , or to  $B$ , or jointly to both the parties do not invest optimally.
- This is because at the time the parties divide the surplus  $\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b} + \sqrt{ab}$  their investments are sunk.
- For instance, if they divide the surplus in half each gets only half of his/her contribution while having paid all of it.
- In this case  $B$  would solve the following program

$$\max_b \frac{1}{2} \left( \sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b} + \sqrt{ab} \right) - b$$

# An application to incomplete contracts

- First order condition is

$$\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{b}} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{ab}} a \right) - 1 = 0$$

from which one can solve

$$b = \frac{(1 + \sqrt{a})^2}{16} < b^*(a)$$



# An application to incomplete contracts

- The following contract induces efficiency.

**Contract.** In the beginning  $A$  owns the capital but  $B$  has an option to buy the capital at price  $p^*$  after  $A$  has invested but before the surplus is realised.

- The crucial issue is to determine the correct level of the price  $p^*$ .

# An application to incomplete contracts

**Claim.** At price  $p^* = 2$   $A$  and  $B$  make socially optimal investments.

**Proof.** If  $B$  uses the option s/he gets  $\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b} + \sqrt{ab} - b - p^*$ . This expression is maximised at  $b^*(a) = \frac{1}{4}(1 + \sqrt{a})^2$ . If  $B$  does not use the option his/her utility is zero. So  $B$  uses the option only if

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{a} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}(1 + \sqrt{a})^2} + \sqrt{a \frac{1}{4}(1 + \sqrt{a})^2} - \frac{1}{4}(1 + \sqrt{a})^2 \\ \geq p^* = 2 \end{aligned}$$

# An application to incomplete contracts

The LHS of the inequality is increasing in  $a$ , so  $B$  uses the option only if  $A$  invest sufficiently. Or course,  $A$  invest just what is needed and nothing more. At value  $a = 1$  there is equality and  $B$  invests  $b = 1$ . This generates utility 1 to  $A$ . If  $A$  invests less his/her utility is  $\sqrt{a} - a < 1$ . QED