

Classical Game Theory and Behavioral Game Theory

نظریه بازیهای کلاسیک و بازیهای رفتاری

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Outline

Part I

Expected Value, Expected Utility, Prospect Theory

ارزش مورد انتظار، مطلوبیت انتظاری و نظریه چشم انداز

Part II

Classical Game Theory

Focal Point, Nash Equilibrium, Pareto Efficiency, Rawls Justice, Amartya Sen Capability Approach

نقطه کانونی، تعادل نش، کارایی پاره تو، عدالت رالز، رویکرد قابلیت آمارتیاسن

Behavioral Game Theory

Dictator Game, Ultimatum Game, Public Goods Game

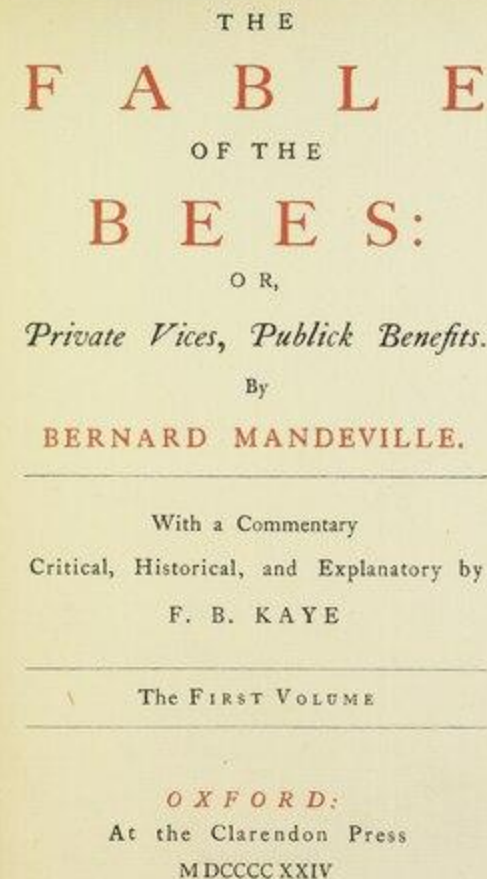
بازی دیکتاتور، بازی اولتیماتوم، بازی کالای عمومی

Industrial Policy Case Studies

مطالعات موردی سیاست صنعتی (سبزشدن بنگاه ها)

افسانه زنبوران

پیام ماندویل: پس ای زنبورها دیگر ناله نکنید! احمقانه است که بخواهید هم از نعمت‌های یک امپراتوری بزرگ، ثروتمند و قدرتمند لذت ببرید و همزمان در یک روستای کوچک با فضیلت‌های ساده و پاکدامنانه زندگی کنید. بهشتِ طلایی (رفاه) و بهشتِ اخلاقی (فضیلت) در این دنیا با هم جمع نمی‌شوند.



Expected value vs. Expected Utility

Expected value theory says you should always choose the option with the HIGHEST EXPECTED VALUE.

A: \$1 million for sure

B :50% chance of \$3 million

EV says you should prefer B to A. Many people prefer A to B.

Why do people prefer A to B , in contrast to the advice given by EV theory?

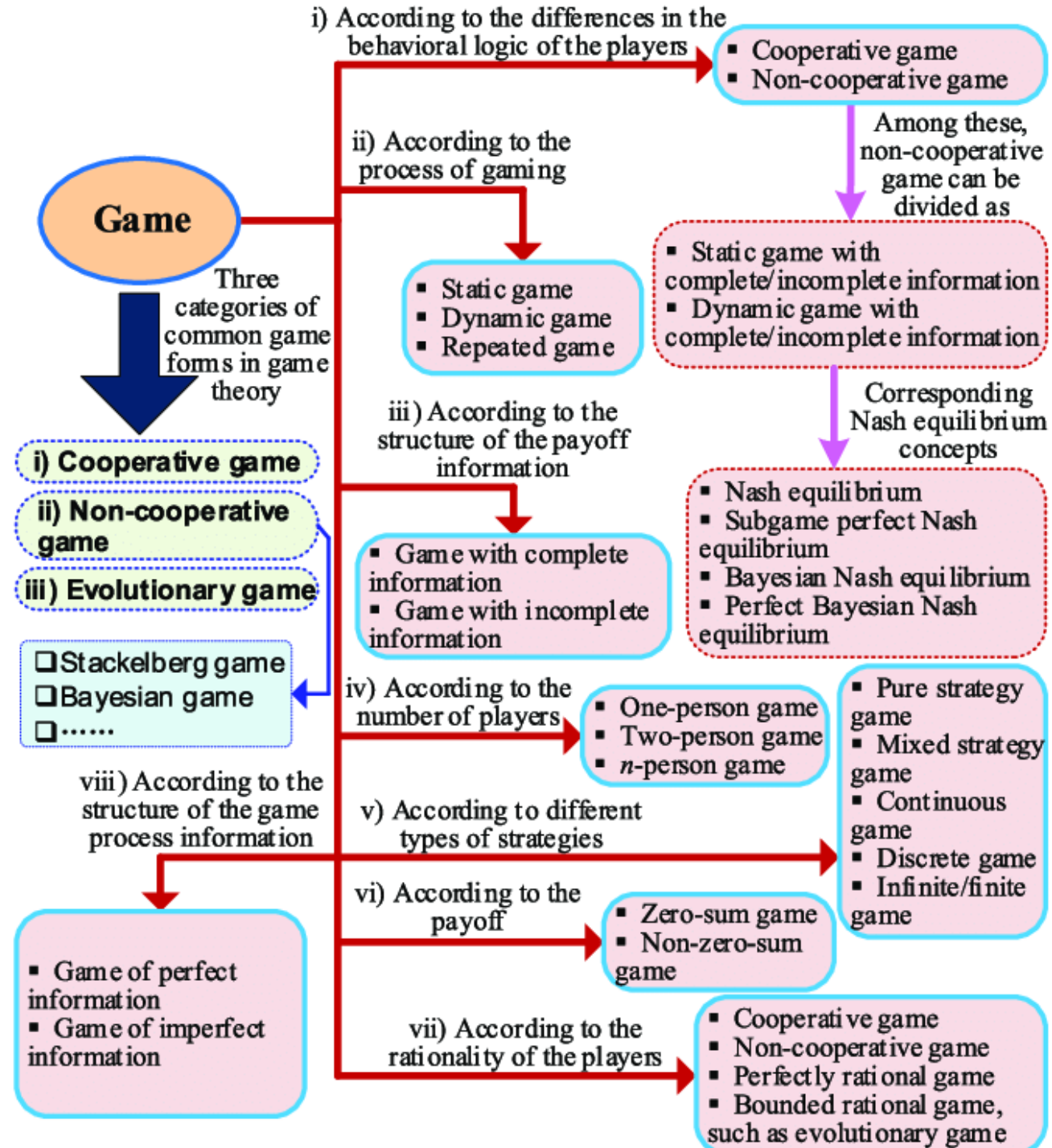
A. 99% chance of \$100

B. \$1 for sure

A. 95% chance of \$1 million

B. 50% chance of \$3 million

In this situation, most people would prefer A. But BOTH A and B are gambles. \$3 million is not really three times as desirable a consequence as \$1 million. This is the answer given by expected utility theory.



Game Theory classification

▶ Simultaneous Move Games and Sequential Move Games

- ▶ A simultaneous-move (static) game is a game in which both players must choose their strategies at the same time. No player knows for sure what the other player's course of action would be. Examples of simultaneous-move games include:

Two firms in an oligopoly deciding about their output level (in Cournot model) or price level (in Bertrand model) or two prisoners deciding about whether to confess or not in the prisoners' dilemma, football penalty kicks

- ▶ On the contrary, a sequential (dynamic) game is a game where one player chooses their action before the others choose theirs. However, in sequential games, the players do not have a deep knowledge about the strategies of other players.



Game Theory classification

▶ **Cooperative ,Non cooperative**

Non-cooperative games refer to the games in which the players decide on their own strategy to maximize their profit. The best example for non cooperative game is Prisoner dilemma.

Cooperative games are the one in which players are convinced to adopt a particular strategy through negotiations and agreements between players.

▶ **Fixed rules or Not fixed rules**

- Card game , chess
- Business , politics, real life

Game Theory classification

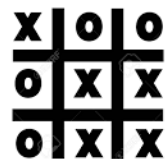
- ▶ **Zero sum, non-zero-sum game**
- ▶ Zero-sum game is a mathematical representation of a situation in which each participant's gain or loss of utility is exactly balanced by the losses or gains of the utility of the other participants. Thus, cutting a cake, where taking a larger piece reduces the amount of cake available for others as much as it increases the amount available for that taker, is a zero-sum game if all participants value each unit of cake equally (see marginal utility).
- ▶ In contrast, non-zero-sum describes a situation in which the interacting parties' aggregate gains and losses can be less than or more than zero.



Game Theory classification

▶ Perfect information and imperfect information

Perfect information refers to the fact that each player has the same information that would be available at the end of the game like chess game or tick-tack-toe.



Tic tac toe

In imperfect information players have private information. A good example of imperfect information games is a card game where each player's card are hidden from the rest of the players.

▶ One shot game , repeated game

- One shot game is a game that is played only once.
- Repeated games – a game played more than once
 - Tit for tat strategy: if you defect, I defect in the next round
 - Grim trigger strategy: if you defect , I will defect in all future round

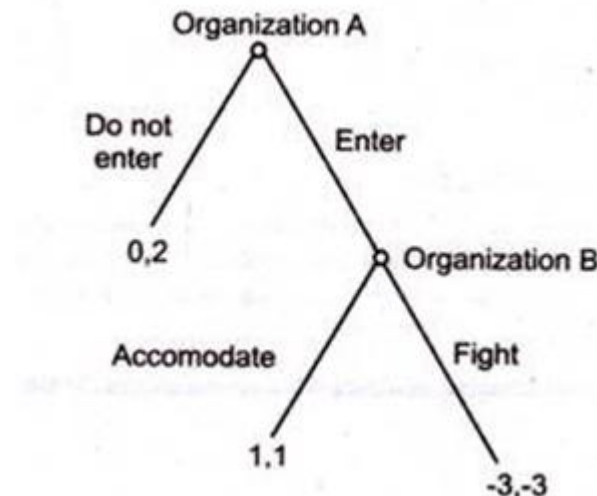
Game Theory classification

► Normal Form and Extensive Form Games

Normal form games refer to the description of game in the form of matrix. In other words, when the payoff and strategies of a game are represented in a tabular form, it is termed as normal form games.

On the other hand, extensive form games are the one in which the description of game is done in the form of a decision tree.

		Player 2	
		confess	don't confess
Player 1	confess	$(-6, -6)$	$(0, -10)$
	don't confess	$(-10, 0)$	$(-1, -1)$



Game Theory

- ▶ Game theory is a field of Mathematics, analyzing strategically inter-dependent situations in which the outcome of your actions depends also on the actions of others.

The birth of game theory invented by von Neumann and Morgenstern (1944):
“We need essentially new mathematical theory to solve variety of problems in social sciences.”

- ▶ Any social problem can be formalized as a “game,” consisting of three elements:

Players: $i=1,2,\dots,N$. a rational agents who participated in game
And try to maximize their payoff.

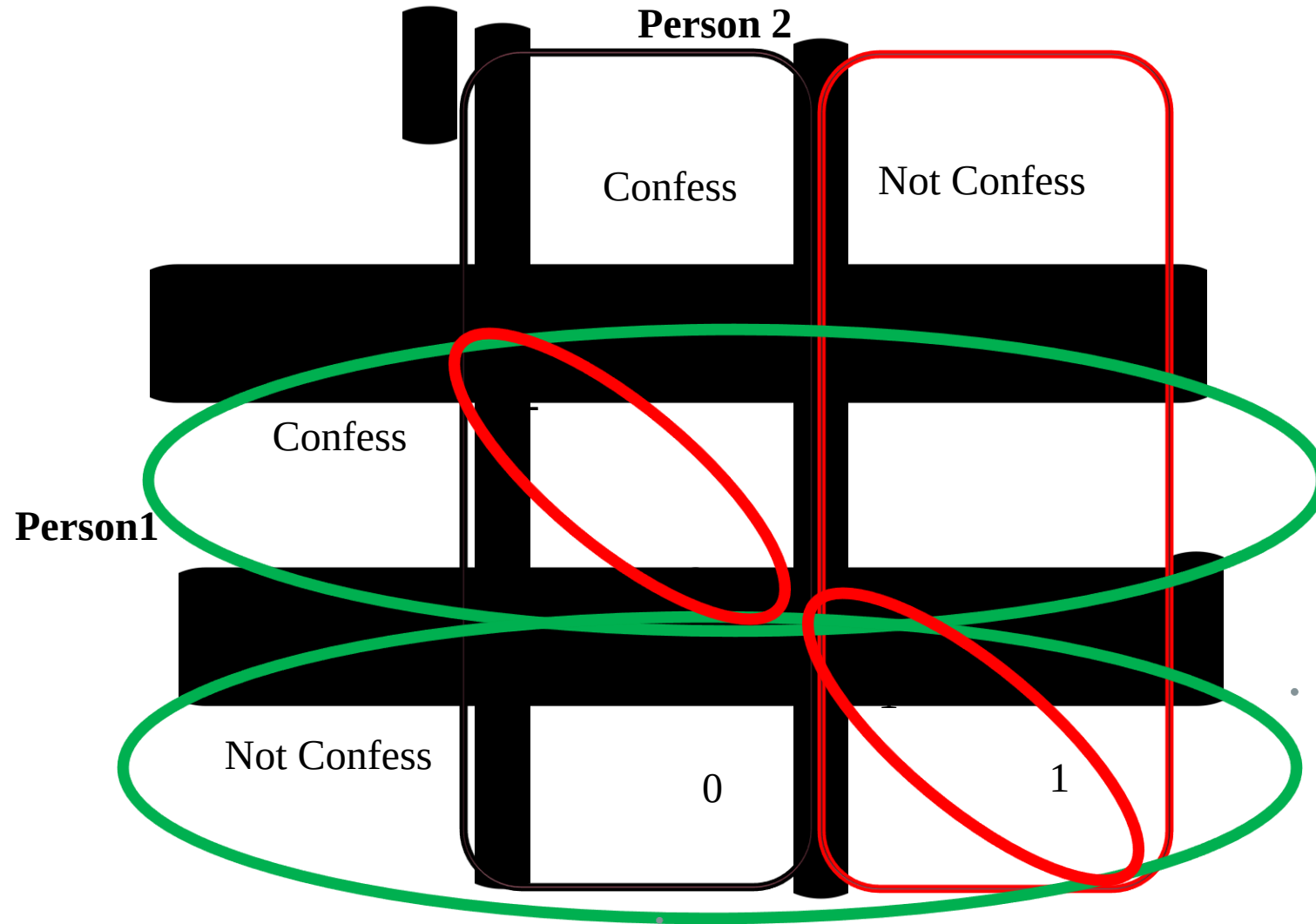
- ▶ i 's Action: An action which players can choose from a set of possible action in every conceivable situation.
- ▶ i 's Payoff: the utility that a player receives depending on the strategy profile.

Common knowledge

Some piece of information X

- ▶ Knowledge : I know X
- ▶ Mutual knowledge : Each of us know the X
- ▶ Common knowledge : Each of us knows that each of us know X ,...
- ▶ The rules of game is common knowledge (Players, strategies, payoffs ,timing, information,..) are common knowledge.

Prisoners Dilemma



Nash Equilibrium

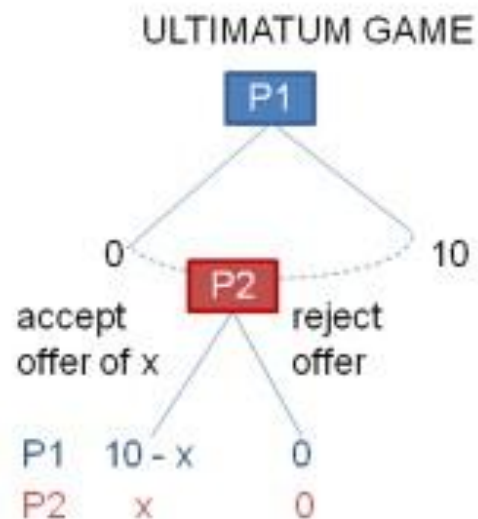
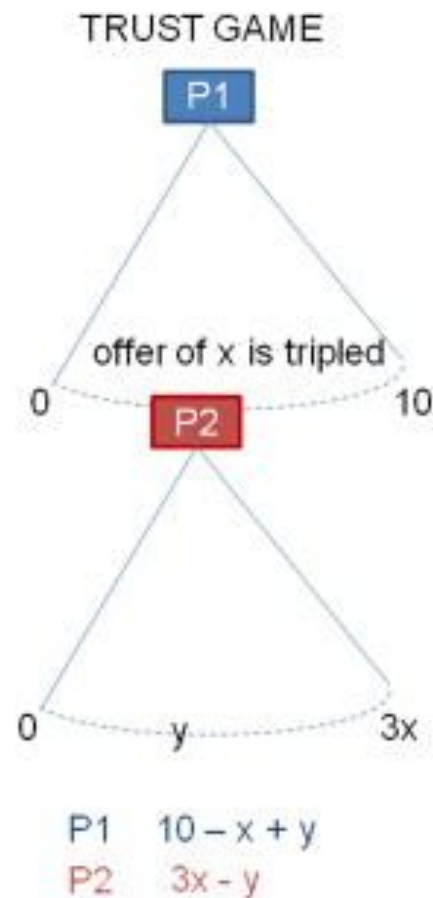
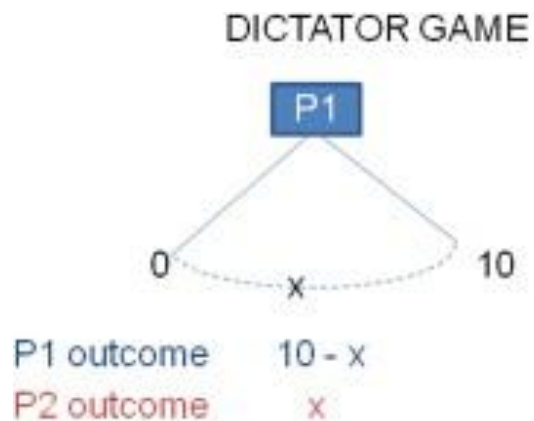
- ▶ $a=(a_1,a_2,\dots,a_n)$ action profile
- ▶ $a^*=(a_1^*, a_2^*,\dots a_n^*)$ Specific action
- ▶ $U_1(a^*)= U_1 (a_1^*, a_2^*,\dots a_n^*) \geq U_1 (a_1, a_2^*,\dots a_n^*)$

Utility of player get with playing a_1^* when everybody else play $a_2^*,\dots a_n^*$ is bigger than when he play other strategy like a_1

- ▶ $U_2(a^*)= U_2 (a_1^*, a_2^*,\dots a_n^*) \geq U_2 (a_1^*, a_2,\dots a_n^*)$

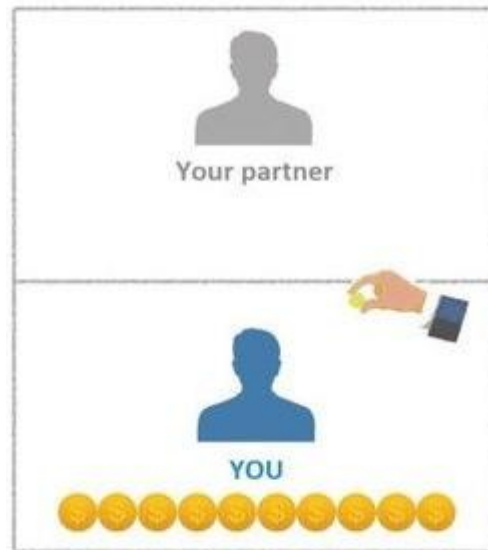
Behavioral Games (Social Preference Games)

بازیهای رفتاری

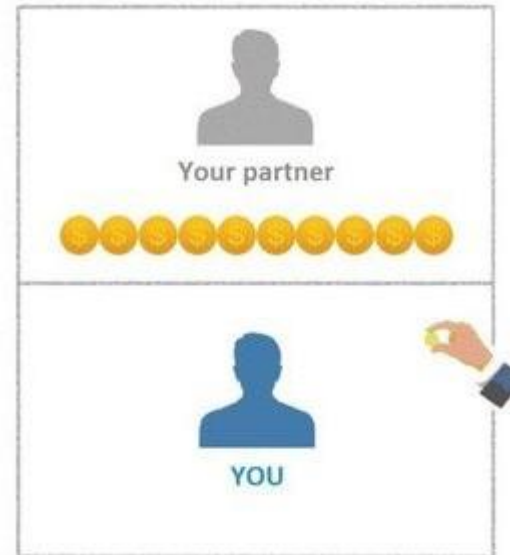


بازی دیکتاتور

A dictator (proposer) decides on the splitting (anonymously) given endowment (pie) between self and another party (receiver).



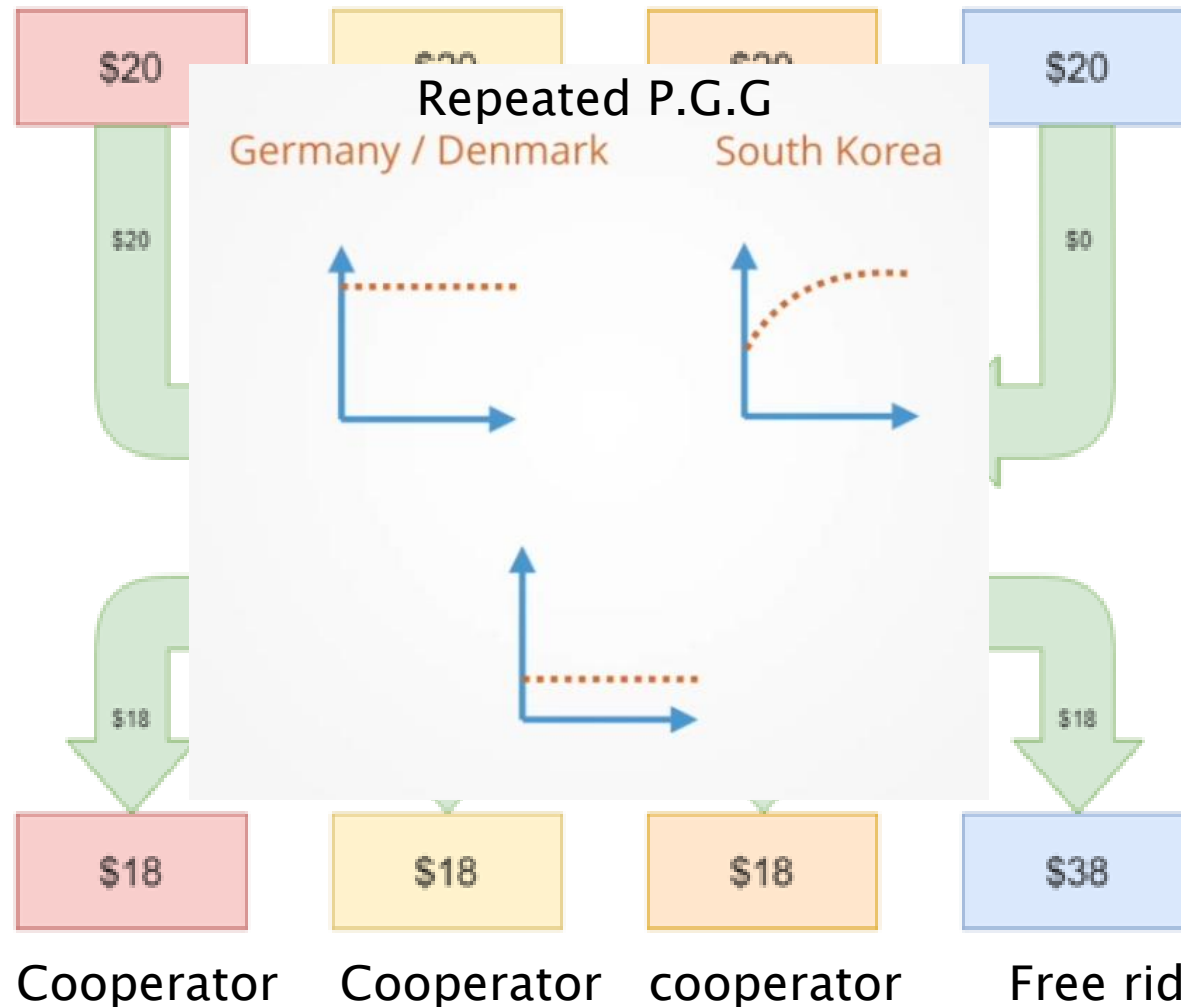
Giving



Taking

Experimental data is inconsistent !

Public Goods Game (Reinforcement learning)



<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lwyPEFC4Tsk&t=115s>

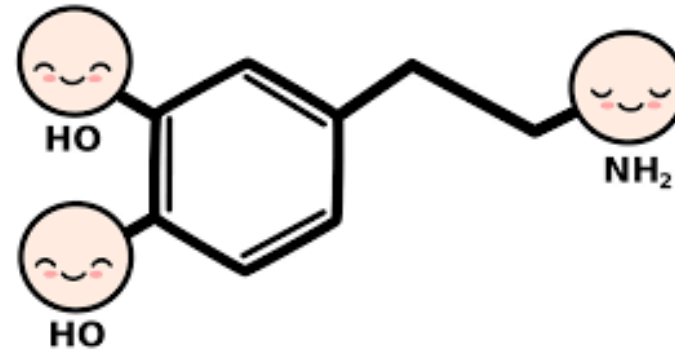
Experimental data is inconsistent !

- Güth, Schmittberger, Schwarze (1983)
 - ✓ They did the first experimental study on this game.
 - ✓ The mean offer was 37% of the “pie”
- Since then several other studies has been conducted to examine this gap between experiment and theory.
- Almost all show that humans disregard the rational solution in favor of some notion of fairness*.
 - ✓ The average offers are in the region of 40-50% of the pie
 - ✓ About half of the responders reject offers below 30%

Responder Irrationality ?

Rejection

- Pleasure to punish
- Inequity aversion
- Spiteful preference



Proposer Irrationality?

Proposer

- A taste of fairness (altruistic component)
- Fear of rejection (low offer will be rejected)
- Moral Preference?

Prospect theory vs. Expected utility theory

- Expected utility theory suggests that individuals can determine expected values of risky prospects and make choices consistent with utility maximization.
- Prospect theory-people are not good intuitive statisticians. Likely outcomes are estimated to be less probable than they really are; and outcomes that are quite unlikely are typically estimated to be more probable than they are. Furthermore, people often behave as if extremely unlikely, but still possible, outcomes have no chance whatsoever of occurring.

$$V(x, p) = W(p_1)v(x_1) + W(p_2)v(x_2) + \dots W(p_n)v(x_n) \\ = \sum_{i=1}^n W(p_i)v(x_i)$$

$$W(p) = \frac{p^\gamma}{p^\gamma + (1 - p)^\gamma}$$

$$V(x) = \begin{cases} x^\alpha, & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ -\lambda(-x)^\beta, & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

α sensitivity to gain and β sensitivity to loss

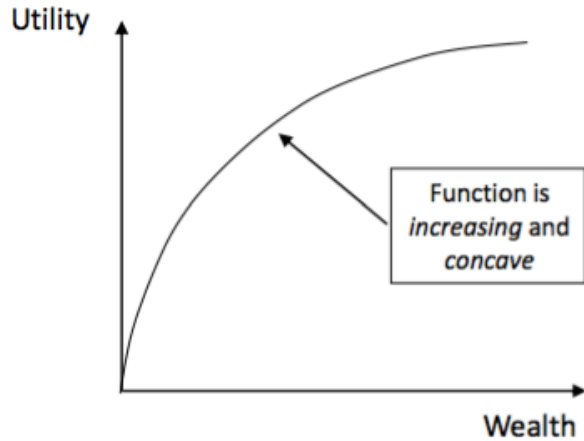
λ is overall concavity; individual are more sensitive to loss than gain.

γ is probability weight parameter

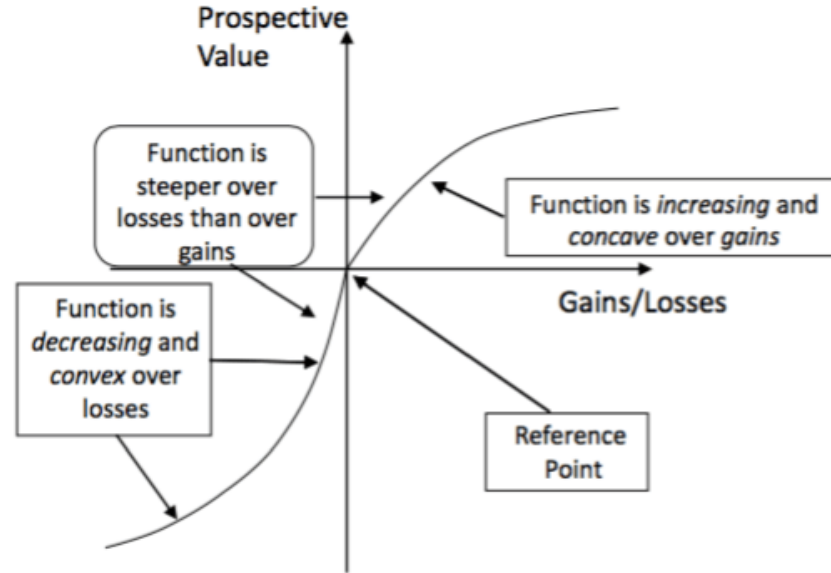
Kahneman and Tversky : $\alpha = \beta = 0.88$, $\lambda = 2.25$

Expected Utility (EU) versus Prospect Theory (PT)

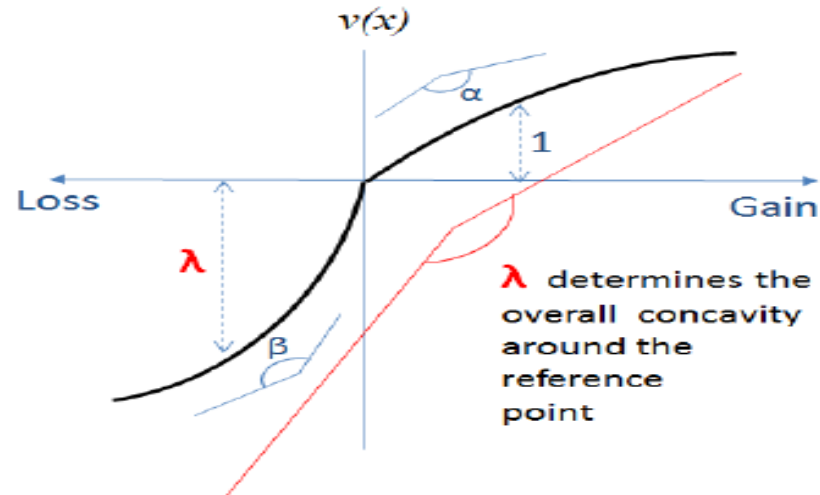
Expected Utility Theory



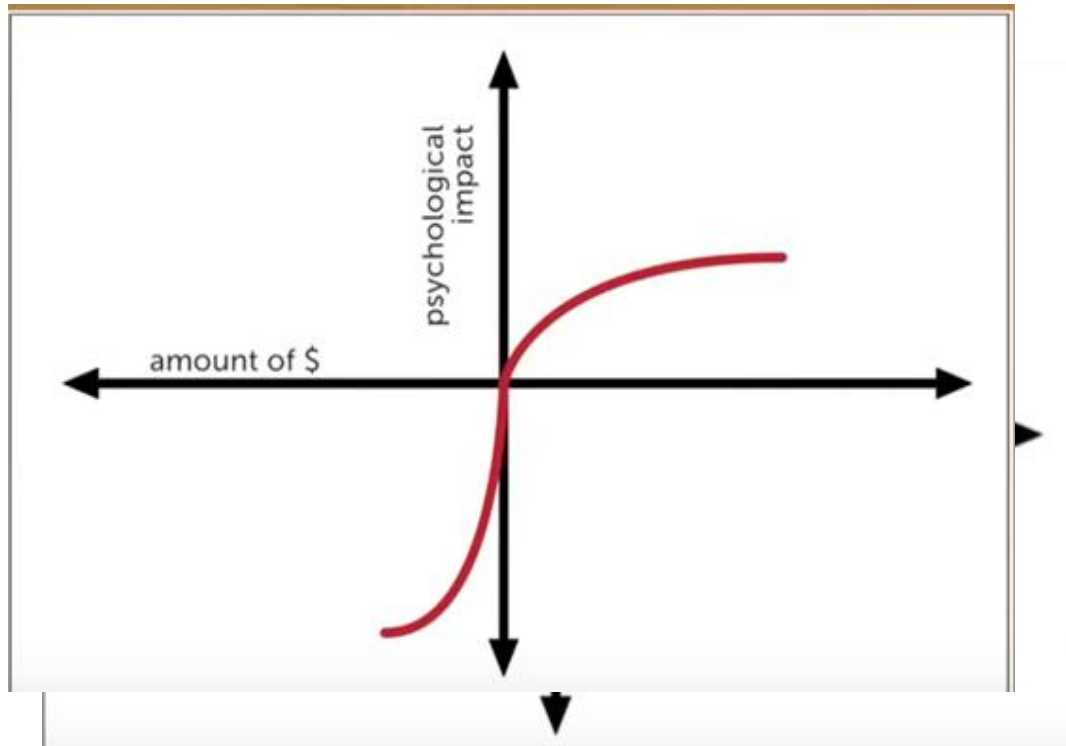
Prospect Theory



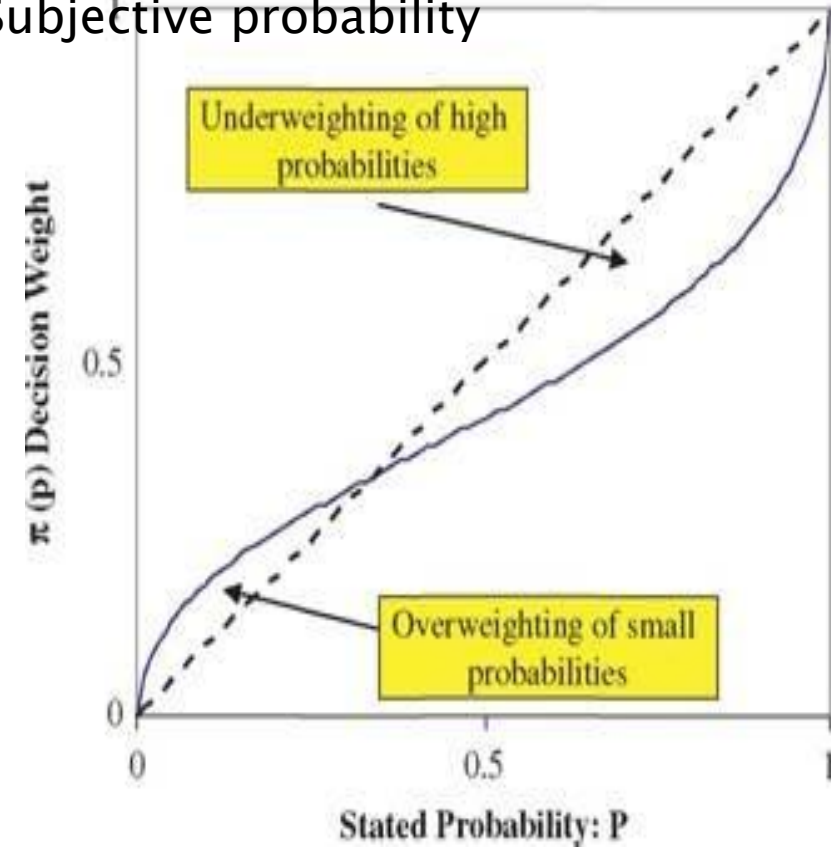
2-2.5 times steeper in losses, people feel losses more than gains. values from losses are greater than values from the same amount of gains(asymmetric)



Prospect theory



Subjective probability



Objective probability

- (Adam Smith 1759, Parte VI)

among our equals is perhaps, the strongest of all our desires; and our anxiety to obtain the advantages of fortune is, accordingly, much more excited and irritated by this desire, than by that of supplying all the necessities and conveniencies of the body, which are always very easily supplied.

Our rank and credit among our equals, too, depend very much upon what, perhaps, a virtuous man would wish them to depend entirely,—our character and conduct, or upon the confidence, esteem, and good-will, which these naturally excite in the people we live with.

The care of the health, of the fortune, of the rank and reputation of the individual, the objects upon which his comfort and happiness in this life are supposed principally to depend, is considered as the proper business of that virtue which is commonly called prudence.

We suffer more, it has already been observed, when we fall from a better to a worse situation, than we ever enjoy when we rise from a worse to a better. Security, therefore, is the first and the principal object of prudence. It is averse to expose our health, our fortune, our rank, or reputation, to any sort of hazard. It is rather cautious than enterprising, and more anxious to preserve the advantages which we already possess than forward to prompt us to the acquisition of still greater advantages. The methods of improving our fortune, which it principally recommends to us, are those which expose to no loss or hazard; real knowledge and skill in our trade or profession, assiduity and industry in the exercise of it, fru-

Policy Evaluation Framework

چارچوب ارزیابی سیاست

نقطه کانونی (Focal Point) به سیاستگذار می گوید: چگونه سیاست می تواند انتظارات را هماهنگ کند؟

نش (Nash) می گوید: آیا رفتار حاصل پایدار است؟

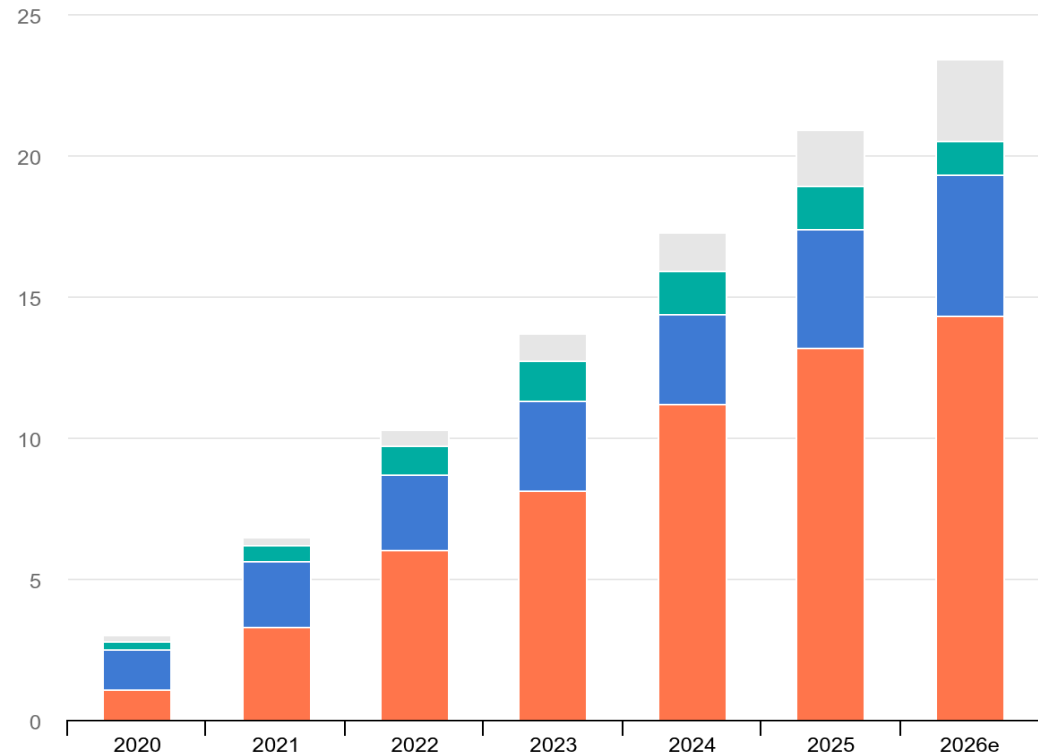
پارتو (Pareto) می گوید: آیا نتیجه از نظر کارایی قابل دفاع است؟

رالز (Rawls) می گوید: چه کسی از این سیاست سود می برد و چه کسی هزینه می دهد؟

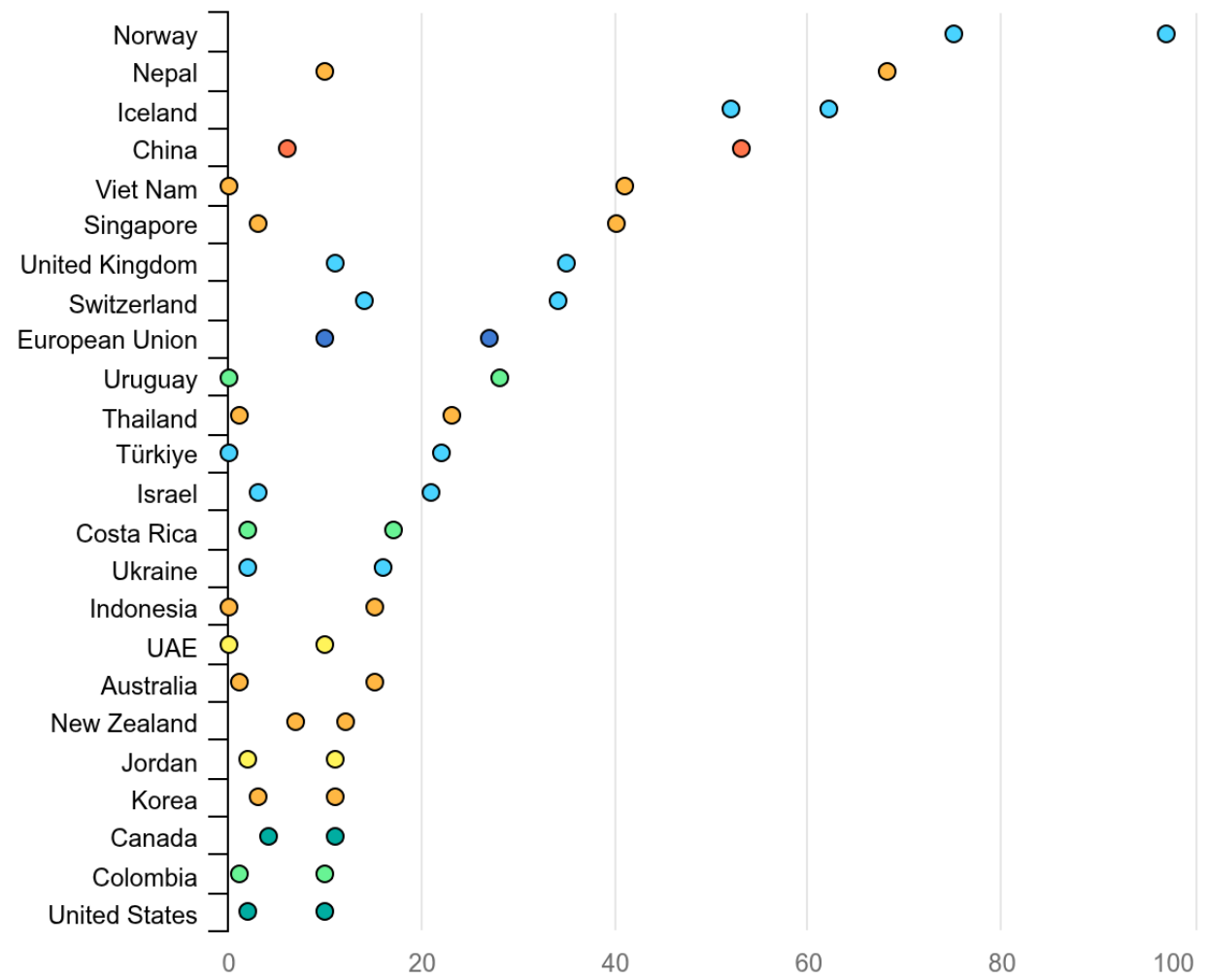
آمارتیا سن (Amartya Sen) می گوید آیا همگان قابلیت استفاده از این سیاست را دارند؟

Trends in Electric Cars

One in four new cars sold worldwide was electric in 2025



<https://www.iea.org/data-and-statistics/charts/electric-car-sales-share-for-countries-exceeding-10-2020-and-2025>



Carbon Border Adjustment Mechanism (CBAM)

مکانیسم تعدیل کربن در مرز

CBAM در واقع به کارخانجات ایرانی اعلام میکند: آلودگی فقط یک مسئله زیست محیطی نیست؛ از این به بعد روی صادرات و رقابت پذیری اتان هم اثر می گذارد. پس یک کارخانه فولاد ایرانی ممکن است بگوید: اگر کوره و فناوری ام را کم کربن نکنم، صادراتم به اروپا گران تر می شود. یعنی CBAM فقط یک مالیات مرزی نیست؛ یک سیگنال بسیار قوی درباره جهت آینده صنعت هم هست. و برای وزارت صمت ایران، سؤال سیاستی مهم این است:

آیا ما باید منتظر بمانیم CBAM هزینه ای به صادرات فولاد ایران تحمیل کند، یا قبل از آن با سیاست داخلی، بنگاه ها را به سمت فولاد کم کربن ببریم؟

چهار سؤال: Focal Point: آیا بنگاه ها باور می کنند آینده صنعت کم کربن است؟ Nash: آیا سرمایه گذاری سبز برای بنگاه به استراتژی پایدار تبدیل می شود؟ Pareto: آیا کاهش کربن همراه با افزایش کارایی و رفاه است؟ Rawls: هزینه گذار سبز را چه کسی می دهد و آیا بنگاه های کوچک و نیروی کار حمایت می شوند؟

Supporting Green Industries

سوال سیاستی : آیا حمایت دولت می تواند با تغییر انتظارات بنگاه ها و مصرف کنندگان، اقتصاد را از یک تعادل «غیرسبز» به یک تعادل «سبز» منتقل کند؟

عنصر	توضیح
Policy Issue	گذار بنگاه ها از فناوری آلاینده به فناوری سبز
بازیگران اصلی	دولت، بنگاه ها و مصرف کنندگان
استراتژی دولت	S: حمایت از صنایع سبز / N: عدم حمایت
استراتژی بنگاه	G: سبز شدن / N: سبز نماندن
استراتژی مصرف کننده	B: خرید محصول سبز / N: خرید محصول غیرسبز
مسئله اصلی	هزینه بالای سرمایه گذاری اولیه و عدم اطمینان نسبت به تقاضای آینده
مسئله هماهنگی	بنگاه منتظر مصرف کننده است و مصرف کننده منتظر بنگاه

بازی فرضی دولت، بنگاه و مصرف کننده برای سبز شدن بنگاه ها

Government Support (S)

Firm/Consumer	<i>Consumer (G)</i>	<i>Consumer (NG)</i>
<i>Firm (G)</i>	8,8,10	6,3,7
<i>Firm (NG)</i>	4,6,5	3,3,2

Government Not Support (N)

Firm/Consumer	<i>Consumer (G)</i>	<i>Consumer (NG)</i>
<i>Firm (G)</i>	6,7,6	4,2,4
<i>Firm (NG)</i>	3,5,3	5,4,5

Estimating Payoffs and Choice Probabilities

برآورد پیامدها و احتمالات بازی

- $\pi_f = TR_{G(N)} - TC_{G(N)} - I + Sub - CO_2Cost$
- $U_c(G) = WTP_{G(N)} - P_{G(N)} + Env. Benefit$
- $W_{social.wel}(G) = Con. Surplus + Pro. Surplus + Env. Benefit - Tax$

$G = 1$ Green

$G = 0$ Not Green

$$P(G_i = 1) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-Z_i}}$$

$$Z_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Sub_i + \beta_2 Carbon Price_i + \beta_3 Energy Price_i + \beta_4 Firm Size_i + \beta_5 Demand_i$$