

Topic 4E: Sequential Games and Stackelberg Oligopoly

Business Economics, Organization, and Management
(BUEC 211)

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1. **From Simultaneous to Sequential Games** — timing, game trees, and backward induction
2. **Quantity-Stackelberg Games** — first-mover advantage and why leading on output pays
3. **Price-Stackelberg Games** — second-mover advantage and price leadership
4. **Limit Pricing and Entry Deterrence** — using price as a strategic barrier to entry

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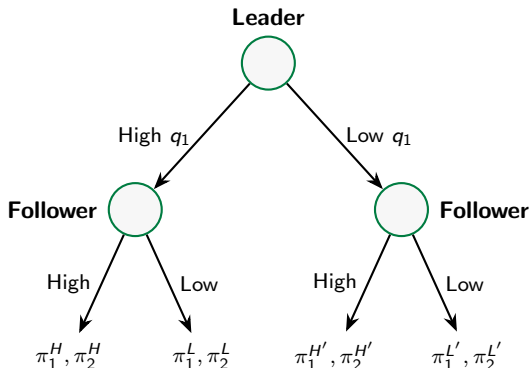
- One firm moves *first* and **commits** to a strategy.
- Rivals *observe* that choice, then respond.

Examples:

- Boeing announces a new aircraft programme; Airbus decides whether to match it.
- An incumbent airline expands route capacity; a low-cost carrier decides whether to enter the market.
- A dominant platform sets a low subscription price; a potential rival decides whether to launch.

The Extensive Form: Game Trees

Sequential games are represented by **game trees** (extensive form).



Reading the tree:

- **Nodes** — decision points (circles)
- **Branches** — available actions
- **Leaves** — payoffs
($\pi_{\text{Leader}}, \pi_{\text{Follower}}$)
- The Leader moves at the root; the Follower moves after observing the Leader's choice.

Backward Induction

Start at the **last** decision nodes and work *backward*. At each node, the player selects the action that maximises their own payoff, taking all future play as given.

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Why backward induction?

- The leader cannot simply ignore the follower — the follower will *react optimally* to whatever the leader does.
- The leader should **anticipate** that reaction and choose the output level that is best for itself, *given* the follower's optimal response.

Subgame Perfect Nash Equilibrium

The outcome of backward induction. Each player's strategy is optimal at every point in the game — even at nodes never reached in equilibrium.

Quantity-Stackelberg: Setup

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- **Cournot:** firms choose output *simultaneously*; neither observes the other's decision.
- **Stackelberg:** decisions are *sequential*; the follower's best-response function is therefore known and exploitable by the leader.

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Sequence of play:

1. Leader chooses q_1 .
2. Follower observes q_1 , then chooses q_2 .
3. Market price $P(q_1 + q_2)$ is determined; payoffs realised.

Example: American Airlines vs. United Airlines

We return to the airline duopoly: American Airlines (A) and United Airlines (U) from Topic 4D.

Market setup (same as Cournot):

$$P = 339 - Q, \quad Q = q_A + q_U$$

$$MC_A = MC_U = \$147 \text{ per passenger}$$

New assumption — sequential timing:

- **American Airlines** is the **Stackelberg Leader**: it announces its route capacity q_A first (e.g., schedules new flights months in advance).
- **United Airlines** is the **Follower**: it observes American's capacity commitment and then sets q_U .

Step 1: The Follower's Problem (United Airlines)

United **takes** q_A **as given** and maximizes profit:

$$\pi_U = (P - 147)q_U = (339 - q_A - q_U - 147)q_U = (192 - q_A - q_U)q_U$$

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United's best-response function is *identical* to its Cournot best response. The difference is that the leader **knows and uses** this function when it makes its decision.

Interpretation: every extra unit American produces leads United to reduce its output by **half** a unit. American can *push United down its best-response curve* by producing more and capturing more market share.

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American treats United's output as a *function of its own choice*, not as a fixed constant (as in Simultaneous Cournot).

Step 2: Solving the Leader's Problem

Maximise $\pi_A = 96 q_A - \frac{1}{2} q_A^2$ over q_A :

$$\frac{d\pi_A}{dq_A} = 96 - q_A = 0 \quad \implies \quad \boxed{q_A^* = 96}$$

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Substitute back into United's best response:

$$q_U^* = 96 - \frac{1}{2}(96) = 96 - 48 = \mathbf{48}$$

Equilibrium outcomes:

$$Q^* = 96 + 48 = 144, \quad P^* = 339 - 144 = \$195$$

$$\pi_A^* = (195 - 147) \times 96 = \$4,608\text{k}, \quad \pi_U^* = (195 - 147) \times 48 = \$2,304\text{k}$$

Stackelberg vs. Cournot vs. Monopoly vs. Competition

	Monopoly	Cournot	Stackelberg	Competition
q_A	96	64	96	96
q_U	—	64	48	96
Total Q	96	128	144	192
Price P	\$243	\$211	\$195	\$147
π_A	\$9,216k	\$4,096k	\$4,608k	\$0
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- The **leader earns more** than in Cournot (**first mover advantage**)
- The **follower earns less** than in Cournot

Consumers benefit: lower price and more output than Cournot.

Why Does First Mover Advantage Arise?

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- By committing to a **large quantity**, the leader *shifts the game* in its favour — the follower is forced to produce less.
- The leader essentially “steals” market share from the follower.

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Real-world commitment devices:

- Building capacity in advance (airlines, oil refineries, steel plants).
- Long-term supply contracts.
- Public announcements of expansion plans.

Price Leadership: Does Order Matter?

New question: What if firms compete on *price*? Does being the first to announce a price give an advantage? **Case 1 — Homogeneous products:**

- If Firm 1 sets $p_1 > c$, Firm 2 can set $p_2 = p_1 - \varepsilon$ and capture the entire market.
- The leader is stuck: any $p_1 > c$ invites undercutting.
- Moving first in price (with homogeneous goods) is a disadvantage.

Case 2 — Differentiated products:

- Products are imperfect substitutes; a price cut does not steal *all* customers. But, the logic applies:
- The follower can *observe* the leader's price announcement and undercut.
- This creates a **second mover advantage**.

Price-Stackelberg: Setup (Spotify vs. Apple Music)

We return to the streaming duopoly from Topic 4D.

Demand (millions of subscribers per month):

$$q_S = 48 - 4p_S + 2p_A, \quad q_A = 48 - 4p_A + 2p_S$$

Marginal cost: $c = \$6$ per subscriber.

Recall the simultaneous Bertrand equilibrium:

$$p_S^C = p_A^C = \$12, \quad q_S^C = q_A^C = 24\text{M}, \quad \pi_S^C = \pi_A^C = \$144\text{M}$$

New assumption — sequential timing:

- **Spotify** is the **price leader**: it announces p_S first (e.g., publicly announces its new subscription fee).

Step 1: The Follower's Best Response (Apple Music)

Apple takes p_S as given and maximises:

$$\pi_A = (p_A - 6) q_A = (p_A - 6)(48 - 4p_A + 2p_S)$$

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First-order condition:

$$\frac{d\pi_A}{dp_A} = (48 - 4p_A + 2p_S) + (p_A - 6)(-4) = 0$$

$$48 - 8p_A + 2p_S + 24 = 0 \quad \implies \quad \boxed{p_A^*(p_S) = 9 + 0.25 p_S}$$

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Prices are **strategic complements**: if Spotify raises its price, Apple's best response is to *also raise* its price. This is the opposite of Cournot quantities (strategic substitutes).

Step 2: The Leader's Problem (Spotify)

Spotify substitutes Apple's best response $p_A^* = 9 + 0.25p_S$ into its own demand:

$$q_S = 48 - 4p_S + 2(9 + 0.25p_S) = 48 - 4p_S + 18 + 0.5p_S = 66 - 3.5p_S$$

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Spotify's profit:

$$\pi_S = (p_S - 6)(66 - 3.5p_S)$$

First-order condition:

$$\frac{d\pi_S}{dp_S} = (66 - 3.5p_S) + (p_S - 6)(-3.5) = 0$$

$$66 - 7p_S + 21 = 0 \quad \implies \quad p_S^* = \frac{87}{7} \approx \$12.43$$

Apple's response:

$$p_A^* = 9 + 0.25(12.43) \approx \$12.11$$

Equilibrium quantities and profits:

$$q_S = 66 - 3.5(12.43) = 22.5\text{M subscribers}$$

$$q_A = 48 - 4(12.11) + 2(12.43) = 24.4\text{M subscribers}$$

$$\pi_S = (12.43 - 6) \times 22.5 \approx \$144.6\text{M}, \quad \pi_A = (12.11 - 6) \times 24.4 \approx \$149.2\text{M}$$

Price-Stackelberg Equilibrium

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	Simultaneous Bertrand	Leader (Spotify)	Follower (Apple)
Price	\$12.00	\$12.43	\$12.11
Quantity	24.0M	22.5M	24.4M
Profit	\$144.0M	\$144.6M	\$149.2M

The **follower (Apple)** earns more than either player under simultaneous pricing.

Why a Second Mover Advantage in Prices?

The logic:

- Spotify announces a *high* price first ($p_S = \$12.43 > \12).
- Because prices are **strategic complements**, Apple's best response is to also raise its price ($p_A = \$12.11 > \12).
- Apple captures more customers than Spotify (24.4M vs 22.5M) because it prices *slightly below* Spotify while still above cost.

Managerial implication: In price-setting industries, it often pays to *wait and see* what the rival charges before committing. Being the first to announce a price raise can be exploited by a rival who undercuts you slightly.

Remember this!

Model	Strategic variable	First mover
Cournot	Quantity (substitutes)	Advantage
Bertrand (diff.)	Price (complements)	Disadvantage

Limit Pricing and Entry Deterrence

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- The **incumbent** currently enjoys monopoly profits.
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- If the entrant enters, the market becomes a duopoly and profits fall for both.

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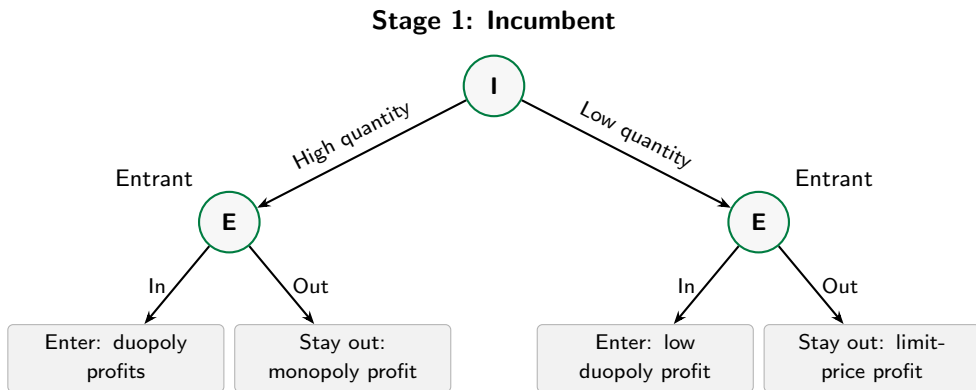
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Definition: Entry Deterrence

Strategies an incumbent uses to make market entry unprofitable for a potential rival.

The Entry Game: Sequence of Play



The incumbent commits to production in Stage 1. The entrant decides in Stage 2. We solve by **backward induction**.

Numerical Example: Oil Refinery

Setup:

$$\text{Market demand: } P = 100 - Q$$

$$\text{Incumbent MC: } c_I = \$10$$

$$\text{Potential entrant MC: } c_E = \$10$$

$$\text{Fixed entry cost: } F = \$400$$

Incumbent's monopoly outcome (benchmark):

$$MR = 100 - 2Q = 10 \Rightarrow Q_m = 45, \quad P_m = \$55$$

$$\pi_m = (55 - 10) \times 45 = \$2,025$$

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Q: Can the incumbent deter entry by producing *more* than the monopoly quantity?

Solving for the Limit Quantity

If the incumbent pre-commits to output Q_I , the entrant's optimal response

$$\pi_E = (100 - Q_I - q_E - 10) q_E - F = (90 - Q_I - q_E) q_E - F$$

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Entrant's FOC:

$$90 - Q_I - 2q_E = 0 \Rightarrow q_E^*(Q_I) = \frac{90 - Q_I}{2}$$

Maximum entrant profit (before F):

$$\pi_E^{\max} = \left(\frac{90 - Q_I}{2} \right)^2 - F$$

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Entry deterred when $\pi_E^{\max} \leq 0$:

$$\left(\frac{90 - Q_I}{2} \right)^2 \leq F = 400 \Rightarrow \frac{90 - Q_I}{2} \leq 20 \Rightarrow \boxed{Q_I \geq Q_L = 50}$$

Limit Price vs. Monopoly Price

	Monopoly	Limit Pricing
Output Q_I	45	50
Price P	\$55	\$50
Incumbent profit	\$2,025	\$2,000
Entry occurs?	Yes ($\pi_E = \$400 > F$)	No

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Limit pricing costs the incumbent only $\$2,025 - \$2,000 = \$25$ in forgone profit *per period*. If keeping the rival out is worth more than \$25 per period, limit pricing is the optimal strategy.

Is Limit Pricing Credible?

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Commitment mechanisms that make low prices credible:

- **Excess capacity investment:** Build more capacity than needed for monopoly output Q_m . This makes it cheap to flood the market if entry occurs, making the threat of low post-entry prices credible.
- **Long-term supply contracts:** Lock in low prices with buyers before entry occurs.
- **Learning-by-doing:** High output now lowers future costs (e.g., semiconductors, solar panels), making sustained low prices rational.
- **Reputation:** In a repeated game, the incumbent builds a reputation for aggressive pricing that deters future potential entrants across many markets.

Predatory pricing is the real-world name for aggressive pricing designed to deter or eliminate rivals. It is subject to antitrust scrutiny.

Examples:

- **Pharmaceuticals:** Brand-name drug makers cut prices aggressively when generics threaten to enter the market, using bulk contracts with pharmacies to foreclose shelf space.
- **Airlines:** Incumbent carriers on a profitable route may increase frequencies and cut fares when a low-cost carrier announces entry (e.g., WestJet entering new Canadian markets).
- **Big Tech:** Dominant platforms price key services at zero (e.g., free email, maps) to deter rivals from building a user base in adjacent markets.

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Key Takeaways for Sequential Games

Model		Key result
Quantity	Stackelberg	First mover advantage
Price	Stackelberg (differentiated)	Second mover advantage
Limit Pricing		Entry deterrence

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Note: Sequential games show that **timing and commitment matter**. Being first is advantageous when rivals respond by *backing off* (quantities), but disadvantageous when rivals respond by *matching or improving* (prices). Incumbents can also use sequential play to shape whether rivals enter a market at all. But these threats need to be **credible**.