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Extended Games Played by Managerial Firms¹

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Abstract

The issue of timing is addressed in a game between managerial rms. The choice over timing can be taken either by managers or by entrepreneurs. It is shown that (i) delegation drastically modi⁻es the owners' preferences concerning the distribution of roles, as compared to the setting where rms act as pure pro⁻t-maximizers; and (ii) the ability of moving rst in the market game entails that, at least observationally, the owner of the leading rm prefers not to delegate. I show that the choice of the timing by managers entails the same pro⁻t owners would achieve by specifying the timing in the delegation contract.

J.E.L. Classi⁻cation Numbers: D43, L13

Keywords: delegation, extended games, timing, roles

1 Introduction

The earliest literature in oligopoly theory treated the choice between simultaneous and sequential moves as exogenous (Stackelberg, 1934; Fellner, 1949). Later contributions investigated the preferences of pro⁻t-maximizing ⁻rms over the distribution of roles (Gal-Or, 1985; Dowrick, 1986; Boyer and Moreaux, 1987a,b). The preference for leadership (respectively, followership) in quantity (price) games can be established on the basis of the slope of ⁻rms' reaction functions or, likewise, resorting to the concepts of strategic substitutability or complementarity between products (Bulow et al., 1985).¹

Recent literature explicitly models the strategic choice of timing. Hamilton and Slutsky (1990) endogenize the choice of roles in noncooperative two-person games, by analyzing an extended game where players (say, ⁻rms) are required to set both the actual moves or actions and the time at which such actions are to be implemented. When rms choose to act at di[®]erent times, sequential equilibria obtain, while if they decide to move at the same time, simultaneous Nash equilibria are observed. The choice of timing occurs in a preplay stage which does not take place in real time, so that there is no discounting associated with waiting. Matsumura (1995) analyses endogenous timing in a two-stage strategic commitment game where the decision upon a cost-reducing investment is followed by Cournot competition at the market stage (as in Brander and Spencer, 1983). Matsumura shows that the extended game has a unique equilibrium involving both ⁻rms setting output levels at the earliest occasion. Another application of HS's box of tools is in Lambertini (1996), where a market is considered where at least one rm is labor-managed (LM). It is shown that, when an LM rm competes against a pro⁻t-maximizing counterpart in a Cournot fashion, the pro⁻t seeker takes the lead.

As to the interplay between market competition and the internal organization of the ⁻rm, several contributions show that, in order to acquire the Stackelberg leader's position in the product market, ⁻rms' stockholders delegate the control over their assets to managers who end up maximizing an objective function consisting in a weighted sum of pro⁻ts and sales (Vickers, 1985; Fershtman and Judd, 1987; Sklivas, 1987; Fershtman et al., 1991; Polo and Tedeschi, 1992; Barcena-Ruiz and Paz Espinoza, 1996). In a Cournot setting, the equilibrium indeed involves all ⁻rms delegating control in order to try and achieve a dominant position. Each ⁻rm would prefer the rivals not to delegate, the equilibrium being a[®]ected by a prisoner's dilemma. Basu (1995) extends the basic model to explicitly describe the owner's decision to hire a manager in a Cournot duopoly.² He shows that a Stackelberg equilibrium may arise, with just one ⁻rm delegating,

¹On the role of cost asymmetry, see Ono (1982).

²Another incentive to hire managers not necessarily aligned with the owners' objectives may derive from the owners' attempt at colluding (Lambertini and Trombetta, 1997).

even though the cost of hiring an agent is the same across owners. However, no attention has been devoted so far to the question whether the endogenous choice of roles by managerial rms may actually lead to situations where these rms move sequentially in the market game. Moreover, a question mark arises as to whether the separation between ownership and control may a®ect owners' preferences over the distribution of roles in price or quantity games.³

These issues are tackled here in a model where ⁻rms supply substitute goods (Singh and Vives, 1984). I assume that principals delegate to agents the price or output decisions and instruct them to move early or delay as long as possible, on the basis of the pro⁻t ranking associated with the mutually exclusive roles of Stackelberg leader, Stackelberg follower or Nash competitor. First, the managerial preferences over timing are analysed. I show that they coincide with the preferences characterizing pure pro⁻t-maximizing agents. This is due to the fact that delegation is observationally equivalent to a parallel shift of the demand function which does not a[®]ect the sequence of payo[®]s arising under simultaneous and sequential play. When the owners' preferences over the distribution of roles are examined, two main results emerge. Under Cournot competition, the Nash equilibrium breaks as usual the sequence of the payo[®]s associated with the Stackelberg equilibrium, though the latter are reversed as compared to the setting where no delegation takes place. The leader cannot do any better than she is already doing, in that delegation does not add anything to the position acquired by moving rst, given that the two decision are observationally equivalent. On the other hand, the follower can pro-tably shift outwards her reaction function by hiring a manager. This entails that delegation becomes a free-riding device allowing the follower to produce more and gain higher pro⁻ts than the leader. In the case of Bertrand competition, from the owners' viewpoint leadership is preferred to followership, and both are better than being a Nash competitor. Thus, once again, the payo[®]s emerging from sequential play are reversed as compared to the usual sequence, while still being both higher than the pro⁻t associated with simultaneous play.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the basic setting. Section 3 deals with the game of timing between managers. The owners' preferences are discussed in section 4. Section 5 concludes.

2 The model

I adopt a simpli⁻ed version of the linear duopoly model introduced by Dixit (1979) and then used by Singh and Vives (1984) and many others. Two symmetric ⁻rms compete on a market for di[®]erentiated products, supplying one good each. The

³The picture could be enriched by considering a fully-°edged decision problem involving the choice of internal organization of the rm, timing, strategic market variable, and rally the actual competition at the market stage. This is done in Lambertini (1997).

inverse demand function faced by ⁻rm i is

$$p_i = 1 i q_i i ^{\circ} q_j; \qquad (1)$$

where j $\boldsymbol{6}$ i denotes i's rival, and j°j \cdot 1: When ° 2 [i 1;0[; the two goods are complements, while in the range where ° 2]0;1] they are substitutes. In the remainder of the paper, I shall con⁻ne to the latter case, since once one avails of the results pertaining to substitute goods, a simple reversion gives those pertaining to the case of complements. From (1), the direct demand function for ⁻rm i can be easily obtained:

$$q_{i} = \frac{1}{1 + \circ} i \frac{1}{1 i \circ 2} p_{i} + \frac{\circ}{1 i \circ 2} p_{j}:$$
(2)

I assume \neg rms operate with the same technology, characterized by a constant marginal production cost. Without loss of generality, I normalize it to zero. Consequently, pro \neg ts coincide with revenues,⁴ $\frac{1}{4}_i = p_i q_i$:

Firms can choose whether to move at the same time or scatter their respective decisions. If they decide to move simultaneously, no matter whether early or late, a Nash equilibrium in prices or quantities (or mixed) obtains. If, conversely, they move sequentially, then a Stackelberg equilibrium is observed. This is what Hamilton and Slutsky (1990) de ne as an extended game with observable delay.⁵ In order to illustrate this concept, consider the simplest extended game where ⁻rms can set a single strategic variable (e.g., price or quantity) and must choose between moving rst or second. I shall adopt here a symbology which largely replicates that in HS (1990, p. 32). De⁻ne $i^{1} = (N; S^{1}; -^{1})$ the extended game with observable delay. The set of players (or -rms) is N = fA; Bg, and @ and $\bar{}$ are the compact and convex intervals of R^1 representing the actions available to A and B in the basic game. $-^{1}$ is the payo[®] function. Payo[®]s depend on the actions undertaken in the basic (market) game, according to the following functions, $a : {}^{\otimes} f = ! R^1$ and $b : {}^{\otimes} f = ! R^1$. The set of times at which $\neg rms$ can choose to move is T = fF; Sg, i.e., rst or second. The set of strategies for player i is $S_i^1 = fF$; $Sg \in R^1 \in C_i$, where C_i is the set of functions that map $T \in (or \ (n) \ (or \ (n) \ (or \ (n) \$ and follower, respectively) that rm i plays as a result of the combined choice of timing taken by the two rms. If both rms choose to move at the same time, they obtain the payo[®]s associated with the simultaneous Nash equilibrium, (aⁿ; bⁿ), otherwise they get the payo[®]s associated with the Stackelberg equilibrium, e.g.,

⁴A more general formulation of the pro⁻t function would be $\frac{1}{4i} = (A_i q_{ij} \circ q_{ji} c)q_i$: Observe that, as long as a constant marginal cost c is assumed, $A_j c$ simply exerts a scale e[®]ect, so that its normalization has no qualitative bearings on the results.

⁵They also consider an extended game with action commitment, where an agent can play early only by selecting an action to which he is then committed. The undominated equilibria of such a game always involve sequential moves. This game is close in spirit to Robson (1990).

(a^l; b^f) if A moves ⁻rst and B moves second, or vice versa. The game can be described in normal form as in matrix 1 (cfr. HS, 1990, p. 33).



Moreover, ⁻rms' stockholders may decide whether to delegate control to managers who are not interested in pro⁻t maximization as such, as they own no share, but rather in sales, so that in case of managerialization ⁻rm i's maximand modi⁻es as follows:⁶

$$\mathsf{M}_{i} = \mathsf{Y}_{i} + \mu_{i} \mathsf{q}_{i}; \tag{3}$$

where parameter μ_i identi⁻es the weight attached to the volume of sales, and is optimally set by the stockholder in the employment contract, in order to maximize pro⁻ts (Vickers, 1985). As to μ_i ; one might believe that it should be natural to think of it as being positive. For reasons that will become clear in the remainder of the paper, I assume μ_i 2 R . Managerial remuneration is a two-part wage, where a component is exogenously <code>-xed</code> and the other is increasing in output (see Fershtman and Judd, 1987; and Basu, 1995).

3 The game of timing between managers

The game where managers are delegated both the choice of the output level and the choice of timing can be quickly dealt with. The objective function of the managers at the market stage can be rewritten as follows:

$$M_i = (p_i + \mu_i)q_i:$$
(4)

This entails that delegation mimics a shift in the demand function.⁷ It is trivial to verify that the payo[®]s M_i^k ; where k indicates the role, are ordered according to the same ranking as pro⁻ts would be if the game of timing where played by entrepreneurs, without delegation, as in HS. This holds independently of the strategic variable being ⁻xed by each ⁻rm, so that we have

$$M_{i}^{f}(C) > M_{i}^{n}(C) > M_{i}^{f}(C);$$
 (5)

⁶Considering a linear contract only is restrictive, but this assumption is adopted for the sake of comparability with most of the existing literature.

⁷ If unit production cost were not normalized to zero, delegation could as well be interpreted as a shift of the cost function. The two interpretations are indeed qualitatively equivalent. The direction of such shifts depends on the sign of μ , which is discussed below.

$$M_{i}^{f}(B) > M_{i}^{l}(B) > M_{i}^{n}(B);$$
 (6)

where the letter in parenthesis indicates whether \neg rms are Cournot or Bertrand agents. As a result, managerial preferences concerning the distribution of roles are I(C) Â n(C) Â f(C) and f(B) Â I(B) Â n(B): The outcome can be summarized as follows. When managers are being delegated both the output and the timing decision, the extended game with observable delay has (i) a unique subgame perfect equilibrium in pure strategies, if both \neg rms act as quantity-setters; (ii) a unique subgame perfect equilibrium in pure strategies, up to a permutation, plus a correlated equilibrium and a mixed-strategy equilibrium, if both \neg rms act as price-setters.⁸ Now the following question arises: if, say, the owner of \neg rm i anticipates that the manager of his \neg rm will move early (or will delay, respectively), then will he indeed allow any modi \neg cation of the output level through μ_i on the part of his manager, as compared to what would be required by strict pro \neg t maximization? This issue is tackled in the following section.

4 The stockholders' perspective

In order to answer the question raised above, consider what happens in the two possible epiphanies of the Cournot setting. To start with, take the case in which managers play the Cournot-Nash equilibrium due to the fact that they delay the output decision as long as possible. The <code>-rst</code> order condition (FOC) for <code>-rm</code> i is

$$\frac{@M_{i}(C)}{@q_{i}} = 1 \, i \, 2q_{i} \, i \, ^{\circ}q_{j} + \mu_{i} = 0;$$
(7)

where (q; q) reveals that both ⁻rms are quantity-setters. This yields

$$q_{i}^{n}(C) = \frac{2 + 2\mu_{i} \ i \ \circ i \ \circ \mu_{j}}{4 \ i \ \circ 2};$$
(8)

when $^{\circ}$ = 1, i.e., goods are perfect substitutes, (9) obviously coincides with Vickers' inding (see Vickers, 1985, p. 142). The proit function simplies as follows:

$$\mathcal{H}_{i}(\mu_{i};\mu_{j}) = \frac{(2 i 2\mu_{i} i \circ i \circ \mu_{j} + \circ^{2}\mu_{i})(2 + 2\mu_{i} i \circ i \circ \mu_{j})}{4 i \circ^{2}}:$$
(9)

The stockholder's FOC w.r.t. μ_i is

$$\frac{@\mu_{i}(\mu_{i};\mu_{j})}{@\mu_{i}} = \frac{(^{\circ 2} i 2)(2 + 2\mu_{i} i ^{\circ} i ^{\circ} \mu_{j}) + 2(2 i 2\mu_{i} i ^{\circ} i ^{\circ} \mu_{j} + ^{\circ 2}\mu_{i})}{4 i ^{\circ 2}} = 0;$$
(10)

⁸It can be easily shown that the mixed case where one ⁻rm is a quantity-setter, while the other acts as a price-setter yields a unique equilibrium, with the quantity-setter leading.

yielding

$$\mu_{i}^{n}(C) = \frac{{}^{\circ 2}(2 i {}^{\circ})}{{}^{\circ 3} i {}^{4} {}^{\circ 2} + 8}$$
(11)

as the optimal output weight for pro⁻t maximization if simultaneous play is expected to occur between managers ⁻xing the level of production in the ensuing market stage. Equilibrium pro⁻t turns out as

$$\mathcal{H}_{i}^{n}(C) = \frac{2(2_{i} \circ 2)}{(\circ 2_{i} 2 \circ i 4)^{2}}:$$
 (12)

Let me now turn to the Stackelberg game. By symmetry, I con⁻ne to the case where the manager of ⁻rm j takes the lead, while that of ⁻rm i follows. Hence, the leader's problem consists in maximizing $M_j(C)$ subject to the constraint $@M_i(q;q)=@q_i = 0$; as in (8). The leader's FOC is

$$\frac{@M_{j}(C)}{@q_{j}} = 1_{i} 2q_{j} + {}^{\circ 2}q_{j}_{i} \frac{}{2}(1 + \mu_{i}) + \mu_{j} = 0;$$
(13)

yielding

$$q_{j}^{I}(C) = \frac{2_{j} \circ (1 + \mu_{i}) + 2\mu_{j}}{2(2_{j} \circ ^{2})}$$
(14)

as the optimal output for the leader. The pro⁻t function at the ⁻rst stage simplify as follows:

$$\mathcal{H}_{i}^{f} = \frac{(4_{i} \ 2^{\circ} \ i \ ^{\circ 2} \ i \ 4\mu_{i} + 3^{\circ 2}\mu_{i} \ i \ 2^{\circ}\mu_{j})(4_{i} \ 2^{\circ} \ i \ ^{\circ 2} + 4\mu_{i} \ i \ ^{\circ 2}\mu_{i} \ i \ 2^{\circ}\mu_{j})}{16(2_{i} \ ^{\circ 2})^{2}};$$

$$\mathcal{H}_{j}^{I} = \frac{(2_{i} \ ^{\circ} \ i \ ^{\circ}\mu_{i} + 2\mu_{j})(2_{i} \ ^{\circ} \ i \ ^{\circ}\mu_{i} \ i \ 2\mu_{j})}{8(2_{i} \ ^{\circ 2})}:$$
(15)

At this stage, stockholders simultaneously \bar{x} their respective μ : The FOCs are

$$\frac{{}^{@}\mu_{i}^{f}}{{}^{@}\mu_{i}} = \frac{4^{\circ 2} i 2^{\circ 3} i ^{\circ 4} i 16\mu_{i}(1 i ^{\circ 2} + 3^{\circ 4}) i 2^{\circ 3}\mu_{j}}{8(2 i ^{\circ 2})^{2}} = 0;$$
(16)

$$\frac{@\mu_j^{l}}{@\mu_j} = \frac{\mu_j}{\circ 2_i 2} = 0:$$
(17)

As a consequence of (18), $\mu_j^l(C) = 0$; i.e., the stockholder of the \neg rm which is going to take the lead in the ensuing market stage decides that it is optimal not to allow for any output expansion, while

$$\mu_{i}^{f}(C) = \frac{{}^{\circ 2}(4 i 2^{\circ} i {}^{\circ 2})}{16 i 16^{\circ 2} + 3^{\circ 4}} 2 [0; 1=3] \text{ as } \circ 2 [0; 1]:$$
(18)

Equilibrium pro⁻ts are

$$\mathbb{M}_{i}^{f}(C) = \frac{(4 i 2^{\circ} i^{\circ 2})^{2}}{4(16 i 16^{\circ 2} + 3^{\circ 4})}; \quad \mathbb{M}_{j}^{I}(C) = \frac{(2 i^{\circ 2})(8 i 4^{\circ} i 4^{\circ 2} + {}^{\circ 3})^{2}}{2(16 i 16^{\circ 2} + 3^{\circ 4})^{2}}:$$
(19)

Evaluating (13) and (20) it can be quickly established that

$$\mathscr{U}_{i}^{\dagger}(C) > \mathscr{U}_{i}^{\dagger}(C) > \mathscr{U}_{i}^{\dagger}(C) = 8 \circ 2 [0; 1]:$$
 (20)

The inequalities in (21) reveal that the relevant payo[®] sequence emerging from the quantity game where both ⁻rms are managerial is reversed as compared to the ranking observed when ⁻rms strictly behave as pro⁻t-seeking units. This implies that, from the owners' viewpoint, the preferences over the distribution of roles turn out to be reversed as well, so that the delegation contract should contain the clause that the manager must move at the latest available occasion, in order to avoid being the leader. This is con⁻rmed by inspection of matrix 2, describing the reduced form of the extended quantity-setting game from the owners' standpoint.



The obligation to move late being absent, both managers' decision would be to move rst, as we already know from the previous section, with unfortunate consequences for a principal if the manager of the rival rm is indeed compelled to move late by the terms of her hiring contract. Obviously, in equilibrium, the prort accruing to stockholders is the same as long as rms move simultaneously, but to ensure that this is indeed the equilibrium outcome, both managers have to be obliged to behave against their own nature.

The setting where both ⁻rms are price-setters can now be brie^oy depicted. The Bertrand-Nash equilibrium is characterized by:

$$\mathcal{H}_{i}^{n}(B) = \frac{2(1_{i} \circ)(2_{i} \circ^{2})}{(1+\circ)(^{\circ 2}+2^{\circ}_{i} 4)^{2}}; \quad \mu_{i}^{n}(B) = \frac{\circ^{2}(^{\circ}_{i} 1)}{4_{i} 2^{\circ}_{i} i^{\circ 2}}:$$
(21)

Observe that $\mu_i^n(B) < 0.8^\circ 2$ [0; 1[; while it is nil in the case of perfect substitutability. Hence, price competition leads the owners to design the optimal

delegation contract so as to generate output restriction rather than expansion.⁹ When, say, ⁻rm j takes the lead in the market stage, the relevant equilibrium magnitudes are

$$\mathscr{Y}_{i}^{f}(B) = \frac{(1_{i}^{\circ})(^{\circ 2}_{i} 2^{\circ}_{i} 4)^{2}}{4(4_{i}^{\circ 2})(1 + ^{\circ})(3^{\circ 2}_{i} 4)^{2}}; \quad \mu_{i}^{f}(B) = \frac{^{\circ 2}(^{\circ}_{i} 1)(4 + 2^{\circ}_{i} ^{\circ 2})}{16_{i} 16^{\circ 2} + 3^{\circ 4}}; \quad (22)$$

$$\mathcal{W}_{j}^{l}(B) = \frac{(1_{i} \circ)(2_{i} \circ^{2})(\circ^{3} + 4\circ^{2}_{i} 4\circ^{i}_{i} 8)^{2}}{2(\circ_{i} 2)^{2}(2 + \circ)^{2}(1 + \circ)(3\circ^{2}_{i} 4)^{2}}; \quad \mu_{j}^{l}(B) = 0:$$
(23)

Again, notice that moving <code>-rst</code> involve, at least from the observational point of view, no delegation; and $\mu_i^f(B) < 0.8^\circ 2]0$; 1[: Pro⁻ts can be ordered according to the following ranking:

$$\lambda_{i}^{l}(B) \downarrow \lambda_{i}^{f}(B) \downarrow \lambda_{i}^{n}(B) = 8^{\circ} 2 [0; 1];$$
 (24)

so that, contrarily to what is observed under strictly pro⁻t-seeking behaviour, leading is at least weakly preferred to following. Nevertheless, obviously, the extended game with observable delay, as seen with the owners' eyes, still has two subgame perfect equilibria in pure strategies, namely, (F;S) and (S;F), together with a correlated equilibrium and a mixed-strategy equilibrium. The explanation of the reversal of fortune between leader and follower under Bertrand competition is largely analogous to the one underlying Cournot competition. The above ⁻ndings concerning the timing game between owners can be summarized in the following:

Proposition 1 When managers are being delegated only the market decision, while the choice of timing remains in the stockholders' hands, the extended game with observable delay observationally exhibits the same subgame perfect equilibria arising if both decisions were delegated to managers.

It can be shown that the same also holds in the mixed setting where one <code>-rm</code> is a quantity-setter while the other is a price-setter. Irrespectively of the market variable, delegation and the ability to move <code>-rst</code> are observationally equivalent, or, in the jargon of demand theory, perfect substitutes. This implies that these instruments can be used only alternatively. Hence, if the owner, say, of <code>-rm j</code>, anticipates that his manager is going to move <code>-rst</code> in the market subgame, he also knows that there is no reason to use delegation to achieve the very same goal. The latter consideration can be interpreted in two ways, namely, that $\mu_j^l = 0$ means either that the delegation contract allows for no output expansion at all, forcing the manager to maximize pro⁻t only, or that there is no delegation at

⁹It is usually assumed that managers have a preference for output expansion. The above result may hold if one thinks of the population of consumers as consisting of two type of individuals, one having a taste for output expansion, the other for output restrictions.

all and the rm is entrepreneurial. Consider now the follower's behaviour. In the Cournot setting, if the owner of rm i knows that his manager is going to move late in the market stage, he rnds pro table to use the delegation device so as to shift his own reaction function outwards. Delegation works thus as a freeriding tool in the hands of the follower. Hence, both owners must oblige their respective managers to move as late as possible, in that moving late is a strictly dominant strategy as far as stockholders are concerned, as in Vickers (1985). In the Bertrand setting, delegation is used by the owner of the rm moving late, to obtain an output restriction. This drives the price of the follower upwards and the follower's pro t below the leader's. As long as both rms obtain higher pro ts under sequential than under simultaneous play, it follows that delegation is irrelevant as far as the choice of timing is concerned.

5 Concluding remarks

The preferences over the distribution of roles when an extended duopoly game is played by managerial rms have been discussed. The main rndings are that (i) managers' and stockholders' preferences do not coincide, and yet (ii) it is wise to leave the explicit timing decision out of the delegation contract intentionally, given that the result of strategic interaction between managers is observationally equivalent to the outcome that would emerge at equilibrium if the owners' preferences were literally adhered to. As a rnal remark, consider the possibility that rms choose the strategic variable for the market subgame. A straightforward implication of the foregoing analysis is that adding a stage to model the choice of the market variable would lead to the same conclusion reached by Singh and Vives (1984), namely, that rms choose to play a simultaneous Cournot-Nash game since quantity-setting is a strictly dominant strategy.

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