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Convergence of the solutions of the discounted Hamilton-Jacobi equation: a counterexample

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Abstract

This paper provides a counterexample about the asymptotic behavior of the solutions of a discounted Hamilton-Jacobi equation, as the discount factor vanishes. The Hamiltonian of the equation is a 1-dimensional continuous and coercive Hamiltonian.

Résumé

Cet article fournit un contre-exemple à la convergence asymptotique des solutions d'une équation de Hamilton-Jacobi escomptée, lorsque le facteur d'escompte tend vers 0. Le Hamiltonien de cette équation est unidimensionnel, continu et coercitif.

Keywords: Hamilton-Jacobi equations, Viscosity solutions, Stochastic games, Zero-Sum games. 2010 MSC: 49L25, 91A15, 91A25, 91A05.

1. Introduction and main result

Let $n \ge 1$. Denote by $\mathbb{T}^n = \mathbb{R}^n / \mathbb{Z}^n$ the *n*-dimensional torus. For $c \in \mathbb{R}$, consider the Hamilton-Jacobi equation

$$H(x, Du(x)) = c \quad (E_0)$$

where the Hamiltonian $H : \mathbb{T}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is jointly continuous and coercive in the momentum. In order to build solutions of the above equation, Lions, Papanicolaou and Varadhan [1] have introduced a technique called *ergodic approximation*. For $\lambda \in (0, 1]$, consider the discounted Hamilton-Jacobi equation

$$\lambda v_{\lambda}(x) + H(x, Dv_{\lambda}(x)) = 0 \quad (E_{\lambda}) \tag{1}$$

By a standard argument, this equation has a unique viscosity solution $v_{\lambda} : \mathbb{T}^n \to \mathbb{R}$. Moreover, $(-\lambda v_{\lambda})$ converges uniformly as λ vanishes to a constant c(H) called the *critical value*. Set $u_{\lambda} := v_{\lambda} + c(H)/\lambda$. The

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c = c(H). Note that (E_0) may have several solutions. Recently, under the assumption that H is convex

family (u_{λ}) is equi-Lipschitz, and converges uniformly along subsequences towards a solution of (E_0) , for

in the momentum, Davini, Fathi, Iturriaga and Zavidovique [2] have proved that (u_{λ}) converges uniformly (towards a solution of (E_0)). In addition, they proved that the solution can be characterized using Mather measures and Peierls barriers.

Without the convexity assumption, the question of whether (u_{λ}) converges or not remained open. This paper solves negatively this question and provides a 1-dimensional continuous and coercive Hamiltonian for which (u_{λ}) does not converge².

Theorem 1. There exists a continuous Hamiltonian $H : \mathbb{T}^1 \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ that is coercive in the momentum, such that u_{λ} does not converge as λ tends to 0.

The example builds on a class of discrete-time repeated games called *stochastic games*. The main in-¹⁵ gredient is to establish a connection between recent counterexamples to the existence of the limit value in stochastic games (see [4, 5]) and the Hamilton-Jacobi problem³.

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 presents the stochastic game example. Section 3 shows that in order to prove Theorem 1, it is enough to study the asymptotic behavior of the stochastic game, when the discount factor vanishes. Section 4 determines the asymptotic behavior of the stochastic game.

²⁰ game

 $^{^{2}}$ Note that for time-dependent Hamilton-Jacobi equations, several counterexamples about the asymptotic behavior of solutions have been pointed out in [3].

 $^{^{3}}$ Let us mention the work [6, 7, 8, 9] as other illustrations of the use of repeated games in PDE problems.

2. The stochastic game example

Given a finite set A, the set of probability measures over A is denoted by $\Delta(A)$. Given $a \in A$, the Dirac measure at a is denoted by δ_a .

2.1. Description of the game

²⁵ Consider the following stochastic game Γ , described by:

- A state space K with two elements ω_1 and ω_{-1} : $K = \{\omega_1, \omega_{-1}\},\$
- An action set $I = \{0, 1\}$ for Player 1,
- An action set $J = \{2 \sqrt{2} + 2^{-2n}, n \ge 1\} \cup \{2 \sqrt{2}\}$ for Player 2,
- For each $(k, i, j) \in K \times I \times J$, a transition $q(. | k, i, j) \in \Delta(K)$ defined by:

$$q(. |\omega_1, i, j) = [ij + (1-i)(1-j)]\delta_{\omega_1} + [i(1-j) + (1-i)j]\delta_{\omega_{-1}},$$

$$q(. |\omega_{-1}, i, j) = [i(1-j) + (1-i)j]\delta_{\omega_1} + [ij + (1-i)(1-j)]\delta_{\omega_{-1}}.$$

• A payoff function $g: K \times I \times J \rightarrow [0, 1]$, defined by

$$g(\omega_1, i, j) = ij + 2(1-i)(1-j)$$
 and $g(\omega_{-1}, i, j) = -ij - 2(1-i)(1-j)$.

- ³⁰ Let $k_1 \in K$. The stochastic game Γ^{k_1} starting at k_1 proceeds as follows:
 - The initial state is k₁. At first stage, Player 2 chooses j₁ ∈ J and announces it to Player 1. Then, Player 1 chooses i₁ ∈ I, and announces it to Player 2. The payoff at stage 1 is g(k₁, i₁, j₁) for Player 1, and -g(k₁, i₁, j₁) for Player 2. A new state k₂ is drawn from the probability q(. |k₁, i₁, j₁) and announced to both players. Then, the game moves on to stage 2.

- At each stage $m \ge 2$, Player 2 chooses $j_m \in J$ and announces it to Player 1. Then, Player 1 chooses $i_m \in I$, and announces it to Player 2. The payoff at stage m is $g(k_m, i_m, j_m)$ for Player 1, and $-g(k_m, i_m, j_m)$ for Player 2. A new state k_{m+1} is drawn from the probability $q(. |k_m, i_m, j_m)$ and announced to both players. Then, the game moves on to stage m + 1.
- Remark 2. The action set of Player 2 can be interpreted as a set of randomized actions. Indeed, imagine that Player 2 has only two actions, 1 and 0. These actions are called *pure actions*. At stage *m*, if Player 2 chooses *j_m* ∈ *J*, this means that he plays 1 with probability *j_m*, and 0 with probability 1 − *j_m*. Denote by *j_m* ∈ {0,1} his realized action. Player 1 knows *j_m* before playing, but does not know *j_m*. If Player 1 chooses *i_m* ∈ *I* afterwards, then the realized payoff is *g(k_m, i_m, j_m)*. Thus, the payoff *g(k_m, i_m, j_m)* represents the law of *q(k_m, i_m, j_m)*. Likewise, the transition *q(. |k_m, i_m, j_m)* represents the law of *q(k_m, i_m, j_m)*. The transition and payoff in Γ when players play pure actions can be represented by the following matrices:

ω_1	1	0		ω_{-1}	1	0
1	1	$\overrightarrow{0}$	-	1	-1	$\overrightarrow{0}$
	1				/	

0

 $\overline{0}$ |-2

Table 1: Transition and payoff functions in state ω_1 and ω_{-1}

The left-hand side matrix stands for state ω_1 , and the right-hand side matrix stands for state ω_{-1} . Consider the left-hand side matrix. Player 1 chooses a row (either 1 or 0), and Player 2 chooses a column (either 1 or 0). The payoff is given by the numbers: for instance, g(1,1) = 1 and g(1,0) = 0. The arrow means that when the corresponding actions are played, the state moves on to state ω_{-1} ; otherwise, it stays in ω_1 . For instance, $q(.|\omega_1, 1, 1) = \delta_{\omega_1}$ and $q(.|\omega_1, 1, 0) = \delta_{\omega_{-1}}$. The interpretation is the same for the right-hand side matrix. In the game Γ , Player 1 can play only pure actions (1 or 0), and Player 2 can play 1 with some

This matrix representation is convenient to understand the strategic aspects of the game.

0́

0

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probability $j \in J$.

Let us now define formally *strategies*. In general, the decision of a player at stage m may depend on all the information he has: that is, the stage m, and all the states and actions before stage m. In this paper, it is sufficient to consider a restricted class of strategies, called *stationary strategies*. Formally, a stationary strategy for Player 1 is defined as a mapping $y: K \times J \to I$. The interpretation is that at stage m, if the current state is k, and Player 2 plays j, then Player 1 plays y(k, j). Thus, Player 1 only bases his decision on the current state and the current action of Player 2. Denote by Y the set of stationary strategies for Player 1.

A stationary strategy for Player 2 is defined as a mapping $z : K \to J$. The interpretation is that at stage m, if the current state is k, then Player 2 plays z(k). Thus, Player 2 only bases his decision on the current state. Denote by Z the set of stationary strategies for Player 2.

The sequence $(k_1, i_1, j_1, k_2, i_2, j_2, ..., k_m, i_m, j_m, ...) \in H_{\infty} := (K \times I \times J)^{\mathbb{N}^*}$ generated along the game is called history of the game. Due to the fact that state transitions are random, this is a random variable. The law of this random variable depends on the initial state k_1 and the pair of strategies (y, z), and is denoted by $\mathbb{P}_{y,z}^{k_1}$. We will call g_m the *m*-stage random payoff $g(k_m, i_m, j_m)$. Let $\lambda \in (0, 1]$. The game $\Gamma_{\lambda}^{k_1}$ is the game where the strategy set of Player 1 (resp. 2) is Y (resp. Z), and the payoff is $\gamma_{\lambda}^{k_1}$, where

$$\gamma_{\lambda}^{k_1}(y,z) = \mathbb{E}_{y,z}^{k_1}\left(\sum_{m \ge 1} (1-\lambda)^{m-1} g_m\right).$$

The goal of Player 1 is to maximize this quantity, while the goal of Player 2 is to minimize this quantity. The game $\Gamma_{\lambda}^{k_1}$ has a value, that is:

$$\min_{z \in \mathbb{Z}} \max_{y \in Y} \gamma_{\lambda}^{k_1}(y, z) = \max_{y \in Y} \min_{z \in \mathbb{Z}} \gamma_{\lambda}^{k_1}(y, z).$$

The value of $\Gamma_{\lambda}^{k_1}$ is then defined as the above quantity, and is denoted by $w_{\lambda}(k_1)$. A strategy for Player 1 is optimal if it achieves the right-hand side maximum, and a strategy for Player 2 is optimal if it achieves the left-hand side minimum. The interpretation is that if players are rational they should play optimal strategies, and as a result Player 1 should get $w_{\lambda}(k_1)$, and Player 2 should get $-w_{\lambda}(k_1)$.

2.2. Asymptotic behavior of the discounted value

As we shall see in the next section, for each $\lambda \in (0, 1]$, one can associate a discounted Hamilton-Jacobi equation with c(H) = 0, such that its solution evaluated at x = 1 is approximately $w_{\lambda}(\omega_1)$, for λ small enough. Thus, the asymptotic behavior of this quantity needs to be studied.

Define
$$\lambda_n := 2^{-2n} \left(\frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^{-1}$$
 and $\mu_n := 2^{-2n-1} \left(\frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^{-1}$.

- ⁶⁵ **Proposition 3.** *The following hold:*
 - (i) $w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) \leq w_{\lambda}(\omega_{1}) \leq w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) + 2$
 - (ii) $\lim_{n\to+\infty} w_{\lambda_n}(\omega_1) = 1/\sqrt{2}$ and $\liminf_{n\to+\infty} w_{\mu_n}(\omega_1) > 1/\sqrt{2}$. Consequently, $(w_{\lambda}(\omega_1))$ does not have a limit when $\lambda \to 0$.
- The proof of the above proposition is done in Section 4. As far as the proof of Theorem 1 is concerned, the key point is (ii). is Let us give here some piece of intuition for this result. Consider the game Γ' that is identical to Γ , except that Player 2's action set is [0,1] instead of J. For each $\lambda \in (0,1]$, denote by w'_{λ} its discounted value. Because $J \subset [0,1]$, Player 2 is better off in the game Γ' compared to the game Γ : $w'_{\lambda} \leq w_{\lambda}$. Interpret now Γ and Γ' as games with randomized actions, as in Table 2. As λ vanishes, standard computations show that an (almost) optimal stationary strategy for Player 2 in $\Gamma'_{\lambda}^{\omega_1}$ is to play 1
- with probability $p^*(\lambda) := 2 \sqrt{2} + \left(\frac{3}{4} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\lambda$ in both states ω_1 and ω_{-1} , and $(w_{\lambda}(\omega_1))$ converges to $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$. Moreover, for all $n \ge 1$, $p^*(\lambda_n) \in J$. Thus, this strategy is available for Player 2 in Γ , and consequently $w_{\lambda_n}(\omega_1) = w'_{\lambda_n}(\omega_1) + O(\lambda_n)$, as n tends to infinity.

On the other hand, for all $n \ge 1$, $p^*(\mu_n) \notin J$, and the distance of $p^*(\mu_n)$ to J is larger than $\left(\frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \mu_n/2$. Consequently, the distance of the optimal strategy in $\Gamma_{\mu_n}^{\omega_1}$ to the optimal strategy in $\Gamma_{\mu_n}^{\omega_1}$ is of order μ_n . This

produces a payoff difference of order μ_n at each stage, and thus of order 1 in the whole game. Thus, Player 2 is significantly disadvantaged in $\Gamma_{\mu_n}^{\omega_1}$ compared to $\Gamma_{\mu_n}^{\prime\omega_1}$, and the difference between $w_{\mu_n}(\omega_1)$ and $w'_{\mu_n}(\omega_1)$ is of order 1. **Remark 4.** As we shall see in the following section, we have $\lim_{\lambda\to 0} \lambda w_{\lambda}(\omega_1) = \lim_{\lambda\to 0} \lambda w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) = 0$.

The next section explains how to derive the counterexample and Theorem 1 from Proposition 3. 85

3. Link with the PDE problem and proof of Theorem 1

The following proposition expresses w_{λ} as the solution of a functional equation called *Shapley equation*.

Proposition 5. Let $\lambda \in (0,1]$ and $u_{\lambda} := (1+\lambda)^{-1} w_{\lambda/(1+\lambda)}$. For each $r \in \{-1,1\}$, the two following equations hold:

(i)

$$w_{\lambda}(\omega_{r}) = \min_{j \in J} \max_{i \in I} \left\{ g(\omega_{r}, i, j) + (1 - \lambda) \left[q(\omega_{r} | \omega_{r}, i, j) w_{\lambda}(\omega_{r}) + q(\omega_{-r} | \omega_{r}, i, j) w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-r}) \right] \right\}$$

(ii)

$$\lambda u_{\lambda}(\omega_{r}) = \min_{j \in J} \max_{i \in I} \left\{ g(\omega_{r}, i, j) + q(\omega_{-r} | \omega_{r}, i, j) \left[u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-r}) - u_{\lambda}(\omega_{r}) \right] \right\}$$

Proof. (a) The intuition is the following. Consider the game $\Gamma_{\lambda}^{\omega_r}$. At stage 1, the state is ω_r . The term 90 g represents the current payoff, and the term $(1 - \lambda)[...]$ represents the future optimal payoff, that is, the payoff that Player 1 should get from stage 2 to infinity. Thus, this equation means that the value of $\Gamma_{\lambda}^{\omega_r}$ coincides with the value of the one-stage game, where the payoff is a combination of the current payoff and the future optimal payoff. For a formal derivation of this type of equation, we refer to [10, VII.1., p. 392].

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(b) Evaluating the previous equation at $\lambda/(1+\lambda)$ yields

$$w_{\frac{\lambda}{1+\lambda}}(\omega_{r}) = \min_{j \in J} \max_{i \in I} \left\{ g(\omega_{r}, i, j) + \frac{1}{1+\lambda} [q(\omega_{r}|\omega_{r}, i, j)w_{\frac{\lambda}{1+\lambda}}(\omega_{r}) + q(\omega_{-r}|\omega_{r}, i, j)w_{\frac{\lambda}{1+\lambda}}(\omega_{-r})] \right\}$$

Using the fact that $q(\omega_r|\omega_r, i, j) = 1 - q(\omega_{-r}|\omega_r, i, j)$ yields the result.

For $r \in \{1, -1\}$ and $p \in \mathbb{R}$, define $H_r : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ by

$$H_r(p) := \begin{cases} -\min_{j \in J} \max_{i \in I} \left\{ g(\omega_r, i, j) - rp \cdot \left([i(1-j) + (1-i)j] \right\}, & \text{if } |p| \le 2, \\ H_r\left(2\frac{p}{|p|}\right) + |p| - 2 & \text{if } |p| > 2. \end{cases}$$

For $x \in [-1, 1]$ and $p \in \mathbb{R}$, let

$$H(x,p) := |x|H_1(|p|) + (1-|x|)H_{-1}(|p|).$$
⁽²⁾

Note that the definition of H_1 and H_{-1} for |p| > 2 ensures that $\lim_{|p| \to +\infty} H_1(p) = \lim_{|p| \to +\infty} H_{-1}(p) = +\infty$, thus $\lim_{|p|\to+\infty} H(p) = +\infty$. Note also that for all $x \in [-1,1]$, $H_1(x,.)$ is increasing on [-2,2] and $H_{-1}(x,.)$ is decreasing on [-2, 2].

Thanks to Proposition 5 (ii) and Proposition 3 (i), we have $\lambda u_{\lambda}(\omega_1) + H_1(u_{\lambda}(\omega_1) - u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1})) = 0$ and $\lambda u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) + H_{-1}(u_{\lambda}(\omega_{1}) - u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1})) = 0.$

For $x \in [-1,1]$, let $u_{\lambda}(x) = |x|u_{\lambda}(\omega_1) + (1-|x|)u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1})$. Let $x \in (-1,1) \setminus \{0\}$. Proposition 3 (i) implies that $w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) \leq w_{\lambda}(\omega_{1})$, thus $u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) \leq u_{\lambda}(\omega_{1})$ and $|Du_{\lambda}(x)| = u_{\lambda}(\omega_{1}) - u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1})$. Consequently, Proposition 5 (ii) yields

$$\lambda u_{\lambda}(x) + H(x, Du_{\lambda}(x)) = 0.$$
(3)

Note that the above equation is identical to equation (3). The reason why we use the notation u_{λ} and not v_{λ} is that, as we shall see, c(H) = 0, thus u_{λ} coincides with v_{λ} . 100

Extend u_{λ} and H(.,p) $(p \in \mathbb{R})$ as 2-periodic functions defined on \mathbb{R} . The Hamiltonian H is continuous and coercive in the momentum, and the above equation holds in a classical sense for all $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Z}$.

For $x \in \mathbb{R}$, denote by $D^+u_{\lambda}(x)$ (resp., $D^-u_{\lambda}(x)$) the super-differential (resp., the sub-differential) of u_{λ} at x. Let us show that u_{λ} is a viscosity solution of (3) on \mathbb{R} . By 2-periodicity, it is enough to show that this is a viscosity solution for x = 0 and x = 1.

Let us start by
$$x = 0$$
. We have $D^+u_{\lambda}(0) = \emptyset$ and $D^-u_{\lambda}(0) = [u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) - u_{\lambda}(\omega_{1}), u_{\lambda}(\omega_{1}) - u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1})].$
Let $p \in D^-u_{\lambda}(0)$. Then $H_{-1}(p) \ge H_{-1}(u_{\lambda}(\omega_{1}) - u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1})) = -\lambda u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1})$, thus $\lambda u_{\lambda}(0) + H(0, p) \ge 0$.
Consequently, u_{λ} is a viscosity solution at $x = 0$.

Consider now the case x = 1. We have $D^+ u_{\lambda}(1) = [u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) - u_{\lambda}(\omega_{1}), u_{\lambda}(\omega_{1}) - u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1})]$ and $D^- u_{\lambda}(1) = \emptyset$. Let $p \in D^+ u_{\lambda}(1)$. Then $H_1(p) \leq H_1(u_{\lambda}(\omega_1) - u_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1})) = -\lambda u_{\lambda}(\omega_1)$, thus $\lambda u_{\lambda}(1) + H(1,p) \geq 0$. Consequently, u_{λ} is a viscosity solution at x = 1.

Let us now conclude the proof of Theorem 1. Because H is 2-periodic, equation (3) can be considered as written on \mathbb{T}^1 .

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As noticed before, equation (3) is identical to equation (1). Therefore, as stated in the introduction, $-\lambda u_{\lambda}$ converges to c(H). Proposition 3 (ii) implies that $(-\lambda_n u_{\lambda_n}(1))$ converges to 0, thus c(H) = 0. Still by Proposition 3 (ii), $(u_{\lambda}(1))$ does not have a limit when λ tends to 0: Theorem 1 is proved.

4. Proof of Proposition 3

4.1. Proof of (i)

Consider Proposition 5 (i) for r = 1. Take $j = 1/2 \in J$. It yields

$$w_{\lambda}(\omega_{1}) \leq \max_{i \in I} \left\{ 1 + (1 - \lambda) \left(\frac{1}{2} w_{\lambda}(\omega_{1}) + \frac{1}{2} w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) \right) \right\}$$

= $1 + \frac{1}{2} (1 - \lambda) \left(w_{\lambda}(\omega_{1}) + w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) \right).$ (4)

Take i = 1/2. This yields

$$w_{\lambda}(\omega_1) \ge \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}(1-\lambda)\left(w_{\lambda}(\omega_1) + w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1})\right).$$
(5)

For r = -1, taking j = 1/2 and then i = 1/2 produce the following inequalities:

$$w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) \leq -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}(1-\lambda)\left(w_{\lambda}(\omega_{1}) + w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1})\right),\tag{6}$$

and

$$w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) \ge -1 + \frac{1}{2}(1-\lambda)\left(w_{\lambda}(\omega_{1}) + w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1})\right).$$

$$\tag{7}$$

Combining (5) and (6) yield $w_{\lambda}(\omega_1) \ge w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) + 1 \ge w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1})$. Combining (4) and (7) yield $w_{\lambda}(\omega_{-1}) \ge w_{\lambda}(\omega_1) - 2$, and (i) is proved.

4.2. Proof of (ii)

For $(i, i') \in \{0, 1\}^2$, consider the strategy y of Player 1 that plays i in ω_1 and i' in ω_{-1} (regardless of Player 2's actions), and the strategy z of Player 2 that plays a in state ω_1 , and b in state ω_{-1} . Denote $\gamma_{\lambda}^{i,i'}(a,b) := \gamma_{\lambda}^{\omega_1}(y,z)$ (resp., $\tilde{\gamma}_{\lambda}^{i,i'}(a,b) := \gamma_{\lambda}^{\omega_{-1}}(y,z)$), the payoff in $\Gamma_{\lambda}^{\omega_1}$ (resp., $\Gamma_{\lambda}^{\omega_{-1}}$), when (y,z) is played.

Proposition 6. The following hold:

1.

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$$\begin{split} \gamma_{\lambda}^{0,0}(a,b) &= \frac{-2(a-b-\lambda+b\lambda)}{\lambda(a+b+\lambda-a\lambda-b\lambda)} \\ \gamma_{\lambda}^{1,1}(a,b) &= -\frac{a-b+\lambda b}{\lambda(a+b+\lambda-a\lambda-b\lambda-2)} \\ \gamma_{\lambda}^{1,0}(a,b) &= \frac{2a+2b+2\lambda-ab-a\lambda-2b\lambda+ab\lambda-2}{\lambda(b-a+\lambda a-b\lambda+1)} \\ \gamma_{\lambda}^{0,1}(a,b) &= -\frac{2a+2b-ab-2b\lambda+ab\lambda-2}{\lambda(a-b-a\lambda+b\lambda+1)} \end{split}$$

2. •
$$\gamma_{\lambda}^{0,0}$$
 is decreasing with respect to a and increasing with respect to b

- $\gamma_{\lambda}^{1,1}$ is increasing with respect to a and decreasing with respect to b.
- $\gamma_{\lambda}^{1,0}$ is increasing with respect to a and b.
- $\gamma_{\lambda}^{0,1}$ is decreasing with respect to a and b.

Proof. 1. The payoffs $\gamma_{\lambda}^{0,0}(a,b)$ and $\tilde{\gamma}_{\lambda}^{0,0}(a,b)$ satisfy the following recursive equation:

$$\begin{split} \gamma_{\lambda}^{0,0}(a,b) &= a(1-\lambda)\widetilde{\gamma}_{\lambda}^{0,0}(a,b) + (1-a)(2+(1-\lambda)\gamma_{\lambda}^{0,0}(a,b)) \\ \widetilde{\gamma}_{\lambda}^{0,0}(a,b) &= a(1-\lambda)\gamma_{\lambda}^{0,0}(a,b) + (1-a)(-2+(1-\lambda)\widetilde{\gamma}_{\lambda}^{0,0}(a,b)) \end{split}$$

Combining these two relations give the first equality. The three other equalities can be derived in a similar fashion.

¹³⁵ 2. These monotonicity properties are simply obtained by deriving $\gamma_{\lambda}^{i,i'}$ with respect to a and b.

For $\lambda \in (0,1]$, set $p^*(\lambda) := 2 - \sqrt{2} + \left(\frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\lambda$. Define a strategy y of Player 1 in the following way:

- in state ω_1 , play 0 if $j \leq p^*(\lambda)$, play 1 otherwise,
- in state ω_{-1} , play 1 if $j \leq p^*(\lambda)$, play 0 otherwise.

The rationale behind this strategy can be found in Section 2.2. For all $n \ge 1$, define

$$\lambda_n := \frac{2^{-2n}}{\frac{3}{4} - \sqrt{2}}$$
 and $\mu_n := \frac{2^{-2n-1}}{\frac{3}{4} - \sqrt{2}}.$

¹⁴⁰ **Proposition 7.** *The following hold:*

1.

$$\lim_{n \to +\infty} \min_{z \in Z} \gamma_{\lambda_n}(y, z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

2.

$$\lim_{n \to +\infty} \min_{z \in Z} \gamma_{\mu_n}(y, z) = \frac{5}{2\sqrt{2}} - 1 > \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Proof. 1. For all $(i, i') \in \{0, 1\}$,

$$\lim_{n \to +\infty} \gamma_{\lambda_n}^{i,i'}(p^*(\lambda_n), p^*(\lambda_n)) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}},$$

and the result follows.

Let z be a strategy of Player 2, and a = z(ω₁) and b = z(ω₋₁).
 Note that the interval (p*(μ_n/2), p*(2μ_n)) does not intersect J.
 The following cases are distinguished:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{Case 1. } a \leq p^{*}(\mu_{n}) \text{ and } b \leq p^{*}(\mu_{n}), \text{ thus } a \leq p^{*}(\mu_{n}/2) \text{ and } b \leq p^{*}(\mu_{n}/2) \\ \text{We have } \gamma_{\mu_{n}}^{\omega_{1}}(y,z) = \gamma_{\mu_{n}}^{0,1}(a,b) \geq \gamma_{\mu_{n}}^{0,1}(p^{*}(\mu_{n}/2),p^{*}(\mu_{n}/2)) \xrightarrow[n \to +\infty]{} \frac{5}{4}\sqrt{2} - 1 \\ \text{Case 2. } a \leq p^{*}(\mu_{n}) \text{ and } b \geq p^{*}(\mu_{n}), \text{ thus } a \leq p^{*}(\mu_{n}/2) \text{ and } b \geq p^{*}(2\mu_{n}) \\ \text{We have } \gamma_{\mu_{n}}^{\omega_{1}}(y,z) = \gamma_{\mu_{n}}^{0,0}(a,b) \geq \gamma_{\mu_{n}}^{0,0}(p^{*}(\mu_{n}/2),p^{*}(2\mu_{n})) \xrightarrow[n \to +\infty]{} - \frac{1+2\sqrt{2}}{8(-2+\sqrt{2})} \end{array}$

Case 3. $a \ge p^*(\mu_n)$ and $b \le p^*(\mu_n)$, thus $a \ge p^*(2\mu_n)$ and $b \le p^*(\mu_n/2)$ We have $\gamma_{\mu_n}^{\omega_1}(y,z) = \gamma_{\mu_n}^{1,1}(a,b) \ge \gamma_{\mu_n}^{1,1}(p^*(2\mu_n),p^*(\mu_n/2)) \xrightarrow[n \to +\infty]{} (-1/16) \frac{-25+14\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2}-1}$ **Case 4.** $a \ge p^*(\mu_n)$ and $b \ge p^*(\mu_n)$, thus $a \ge p^*(2\mu_n)$ and $b \ge p^*(2\mu_n)$ We have $\gamma_{\mu_n}^{\omega_1}(y,z) = \gamma_{\mu_n}^{1,0}(a,b) \ge \gamma_{\mu_n}^{1,0}(p^*(2\mu_n),p^*(2\mu_n)) \xrightarrow[n \to +\infty]{} -2 + 2\sqrt{2}$ Among these cases, the smallest limit is $\frac{5}{4}(\sqrt{2}-1)$, and the result follows.

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