

# Instability of a punishment strategy in correlated equilibria

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**Abstract**—In game theory, to achieve correlated equilibria without a trusted mediator, the idea of replacing the mediator with protocol execution by players is suggested. Before players take actions in a game, players communicate with each other by following a protocol. In that model, the concept of a punishment strategy is defined for cases in which a player (or some players) aborts the protocol. In this paper, we present an example of game in which a punishment strategy does not work and suggest an improved definition of a punishment strategy.

**Index Terms**—Game theory, Nash equilibrium, Correlated equilibrium, Punishment strategy.

## I. INTRODUCTION

For years, in the field of cryptography, researchers have been concerned with applying game theory to cryptography. This is because cryptography and game theory pertain to the study of interactions among mutually distrusting players. Cryptographic protocols are designed under the assumption that some players are honest and faithfully follow the protocol, while some players are malicious and behave arbitrarily. However in game theory, all players are considered to be rational and behave in order to maximize their profits. In traditional cryptography theory, if a player is corrupted, he is considered to be dishonest and may even take an unreasonable action that the other players can not expect. However in game theory, almost in the same way as in the real world, it is assumed that each player selects his action from the viewpoint of the profit he can achieve even if he is not honest.

One of the most important ideas in game theory is equilibrium which is the best way for all players to follow actions. Two kinds of equilibrium were proposed. First, Nash equilibrium (named after John Forbes Nash, who proposed it) is a solution concept for a game involving two or more players, in which each player is assumed to know the equilibrium strategies of the other players and no player has anything to gain by only changing his own strategy ([1]). The other is a correlated equilibrium, which was proposed by Robert Aumann [2], and is a solution concept that is more general than the well known Nash equilibrium. The idea is that each player

chooses his action according to his observation of the value of the single public signal. This signal is supposed to be sent by a trusted third party called a mediator. The mediator chooses the set of moves according to the right joint distribution and privately informs each player of what his designated move is. Then the next question is "can we remove the mediator by using some protocols?". In the case of a two-player game, it is well known that in the standard cryptographic models the answer is positive, provided that the two players can interact (see [3]). This positive result can be carried over to the game theory model as well. Especially, we consider an extended game, in which the players first exchange some messages (this part is called "cheap talk" in game theory), and then choose their actions and execute them simultaneously as in the original game. In [4], Dodis et al. suggested the concept of a punishment strategy, which is a kind of rule for players not to abort the protocols in the cheap talk phase. If a player aborts during the cheap talk phase, the other players take actions that cause the utility level of the aborting player to decrease. So all players have incentives not to abort during the cheap talk phase or to deviate from the actions in the original game. This topic is similar to that of strong equilibrium in the terms of an equilibrium for deviation of multiple players. However, a strong equilibrium is an equilibrium in a game for every subset of players where they can not increase their utilities by deviating from an equilibrium. On the other hand, our topic is to achieve the correlated equilibrium by using communications among players called cheap talk and punishment strategy when players do not follow the protocol in the cheap talk phase. However, definitions of a punishment strategy so far have focused only on the utilities of the punished players. Thus punishment might also decrease the utilities of punishing players. So under the assumption that malicious players select their actions rationally in terms of their utilities, there is a case in which the punishment strategy does not work, i.e, when the punishment strategy is not better than any other strategies. In this paper, we show an example of a game in which the punishment strategy does not work and suggest an improved

		$P_2$		
		$\hat{A}$	$\hat{B}$	$\hat{C}$
$P_1$	A	(11,6)	(7,8)	(8,10)
	B	(8,6)	(10,10)	(6,7)
	C	(8,12)	(4,3)	(10,9)

Fig. 1. Two player game.

definition of the punishment strategy.

## II. PRELIMINARIES

### A. Game theory

In game theory we assume players take actions and have their own utility functions that are determined by a set of all players actions. An  $n$ -player game,  $\Gamma$  is denoted as  $\Gamma = (\{A_i\}_{i=1}^n, \{u_i\}_{i=1}^n)$ .

$A_i$  is a set of actions of each player  $i$  ( $P_i$  from now on). Player  $P_i$  selects an action  $a_i \in A_i$ .  $u_i$  is a utility function of  $P_i$ .  $N = \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n\}$  is the set of all players. The game is played by having every player takes action  $a_i \in A_i$  simultaneously. The payoff to  $P_i$  is given by  $u_i(\mathbf{a})$ , where  $\mathbf{a}$  is the tuple of the action of each player, ( $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$ ).  $P_i$  prefers outcome  $\mathbf{a}$  to outcome  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$  iff  $u_i(\mathbf{a}) \geq u_i(\hat{\mathbf{a}})$ . We say  $P_i$  strictly prefers outcome  $\alpha$  to outcome  $\hat{\alpha}$  if  $u_i(\alpha) > u_i(\hat{\alpha})$  and  $P_i$  weakly prefers  $\alpha$  to  $\hat{\alpha}$  if  $u_i(\alpha) \geq u_i(\hat{\alpha})$ . We assume that information of all possible actions of the players,  $A = A_1 \times \dots \times A_n$  and utility functions  $u = u_1 \times \dots \times u_n$  are common knowledge among the players.

We show an example of a two-player game in Fig. 1. It can be represented in a matrix form by mapping actions  $A_1$  to rows and  $A_2$  to columns.

The entry in the cell at row  $a_1 \in A_1$  and column  $a_2 \in A_2$  contains tuple  $(u_1, u_2)$  indicating the payoffs to  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , respectively, given the outcome  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2)$ . The example in Fig.1 represents a game where  $A_1 = \{A, B, C\}$ ,  $A_2 = \{\hat{A}, \hat{B}, \hat{C}\}$ , and e.g.,  $u_1(A, \hat{A}) = 11$  and  $u_2(A, \hat{A}) = 6$ .

### B. Nash equilibrium

If players play a game and  $P_1$  knows the actions the other players will take,  $P_1$  will select an action  $a_1 \in A_1$  that maximizes  $u_1(\mathbf{a})$ . If  $a_1$  is the best way  $a_1$  is called the best response to the actions of the other players for  $P_1$ . If for every player action  $a_i$  is the best response to the other actions, we call the tuple of actions ( $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in A$ ) a Nash equilibrium. Formally, we define  $\mathbf{a}_{-i} = (a_1, \dots, a_{i-1}, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_n)$  and let  $(\hat{a}_i, \mathbf{a}_{-i})$  denote  $(a_1, \dots, a_{i-1}, \hat{a}_i, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_n)$ .

In a Nash equilibrium each player can not receive additional profit by deviating from his strategy. In the example in Fig. 1,  $P_1$  may think that  $P_2$  selects  $\hat{A}$  to receive maximum payoff 12 ( $(a_1, a_2) = (C, \hat{A})$ ), so  $P_1$  may select strategy A to receive maximum payoff 11 under the assumption that  $P_2$  will take  $\hat{A}$ . However, if  $P_2$  thinks that  $P_1$  will take this strategy,  $\hat{C}$  becomes a better strategy for  $P_2$ . In this case, if players try to maximize their payoffs, their strategies and the prediction of strategies that the other player will take are changing except for the point that is the best response for each player. In the

example of Fig. 1., we can see,  $u_1(A, \hat{B}) \leq u_1(B, \hat{B}) \geq u_1(C, \hat{B})$  and  $u_2(B, \hat{A}) \leq u_2(B, \hat{B}) \geq u_2(B, \hat{C})$ .

So  $B$  is the best response to actions of  $P_2$  and  $\hat{B}$  is the best response to actions of  $P_1$ . In this case, the set of actions  $(B, \hat{B})$  fulfills the condition of the Nash equilibrium  $u_i(\hat{a}_i, \mathbf{a}_{-i}) \leq u_i(\mathbf{a})$  for all  $i$ .

### C. Correlated equilibrium

The concept of a correlated equilibrium is suggested in [2]. This equilibrium may give a better payoff than the Nash equilibrium for every player  $P_i$ . A correlated equilibrium can be described by means of a joint distribution over the strategy sets.

Let  $\Gamma = (\{A_i\}_{i=1}^n, \{u_i\}_{i=1}^n)$  be an  $n$ -player game. Then,  $\alpha \in A_1 \times \dots \times A_n$  denotes the set of  $n$ -tuple strategies of  $\Gamma$ . We assume the existence of external party  $M$  called the mediator and define a mediated version of  $\Gamma$  that relies on  $M$ .

The game is now played in two stages: first, the mediator  $M$  chooses a tuple of actions,  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in A$ , according to some known distribution  $D$ , and then hands the recommendation  $a_i$  to player  $P_i$ . Secondly the players play  $\Gamma$  as before by choosing any action in their respective action sets. Players are supposed to follow the recommendation of  $M$ , and it is the best response for each player to realize a correlated equilibrium. To define formally this notion, let  $u_i(\hat{a}_i, \mathbf{a}_{-i}|a_i)$  denote the expected utility of  $P_i$ , given that he plays action  $\hat{a}_i$  after having received recommendation  $a_i$  and all other players take their recommended actions  $\mathbf{a}_{-i}$ .

*Definition 1:* Let  $\Gamma = (A_i, u_i)$ . Distribution  $D \in \Delta(A)$  is a correlated equilibrium if for all  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$  in the support of  $D$ , all  $i$ , and all  $\hat{a}_i \in A_i$ , it holds that  $u_i(\hat{a}_i, \mathbf{a}_{-i}|a_i) \leq u_i(\mathbf{a}|a_i)$ .

### D. Realizing correlated equilibrium with cheap talk

Consider some  $n$ -player game  $\Gamma = (A_i, u_i)$  in normal form, along with a correlated equilibrium  $D$ . We then define the extensive form game  $\Gamma_{CT}$  in which all players first communicate in a cheap talk phase before the original game  $\Gamma$ . Following the game-theoretic convention, all players must take some actions in  $\Gamma$ , i.e., we do not allow player  $P_i$  to abort in  $\Gamma$  unless this is an action in  $A_i$ . On the other hand, following the cryptographic convention we allow players to abort during the cheap talk phase. In case players abort during the cheap talk phase, we must consider a new idea for each player to move properly.

## III. PUNISHMENT STRATEGY

A punishment strategy was suggested as a kind of rule to prevent players from aborting protocols in the cheap talk phase. If a player aborts, the other players take actions that cause the utility level of aborting player to decrease. So there is no incentive for any players to abort in the cheap talk phase and to deviate from an action in the original game. The initial result of employing the punishment strategy was shown in [4], which examines the case of a two-player game. The basic idea is described hereafter. Let  $D$  be a correlated equilibrium in a two-player game  $\Gamma$  in  $\Gamma_{CT}$ , the two players run a protocol II

to calculate  $(a_1, a_2) \leftarrow D$ , where player  $P_i$  receives  $a_i$  as an output. This protocol,  $\Pi$ , is secure-with-abort (cf.[6]), which informally means that privacy and correctness hold. On the other hand, fairness does not hold in particular, we assume it is possible for  $P_1$  to receive its output even though  $P_2$  does not. After running  $\Pi$ , each player takes the action it received as the output in  $\Pi$ . If  $P_2$  does not receive an output from  $\Pi$  then it plays the minimax profile against  $P_1$ . The minimax profile against  $P_i$  is an action  $a_{-i} \in A_{-i}$  that minimizes  $\max_{a_i \in A_i} u_i(a_i, a_{-i})$ . Kats generalized this punishment strategy from two players to  $n$ -players in [7]. Assume that some players select actions following the recommended actions from the outputs of  $\Pi$ , while some collude with each other (which is called coalition  $C$ ) and deviate from the recommendation.  $C$  prefers  $\sigma$  to  $\hat{\sigma}$  only if every player in  $C$  weakly prefers  $\sigma$  to  $\hat{\sigma}$  and some player in  $C$  strictly prefers  $\sigma$  to  $\hat{\sigma}$ .

*Definition 2:* Let  $\Gamma$  be an  $n$ -player game with correlated equilibrium  $D$ . A strategy vector  $\rho$  is a t-punishment strategy with respect to  $D$  if for all  $C \subseteq N$  with  $|C| \leq t$ , and all  $\hat{\sigma}_C$ , it holds that for all  $i \in C$ ,  $u_i(\hat{\sigma}_C, \rho_{-C}) \leq u_i(D)$ .

We introduce another definition of punishment strategy as described in [5]. In [5], Dolev et al. considered a case with  $k$ -immune, which means that the strategy is tolerant to at most  $k$  Byzantine failure players. Byzantine fault tolerant means that there is nothing that players in a set  $T$  of size at most  $k$  can do to give the rest of players a worse payoff, even if the players in  $T$  can communicate with each other. For simplicity of discussion, this paper assumes that  $k=0$ , that is, there is no Byzantine failure players. They also consider type  $t_i$  which is an input given to each player at the beginning. This paper does not consider type  $t_i$ , that is, there is a single type for every player. The example in this paper can be easily extended to cases where there are multiple types for players.

*Definition 3:* If  $\Gamma$  is an underlying game with a mediator  $M$ , a strategy profile  $\rho$  in  $\Gamma$  is a t-punishment strategy with respect to a strategy profile  $\sigma$  in  $\Gamma$  if for all subsets  $C \subseteq N$  with  $|C| \leq t$ , all strategies  $\phi$  in  $\Gamma$  with a cheap talk  $CT(C)$  among players in  $C$ , and all players  $i \in C$ ,  $u_i(\Gamma, \sigma) > u_i(\Gamma + CT(C), \phi_C, \rho_{-C})$ .

A remarkable difference between Definition 2 and Definition 3 is the allowing of equal utilities. In regard to this, Definition 3 requires a stronger condition. Intuitively, for any set  $C$ , even if all players in  $C$  collude and communicate with each other during the cheap talk, no player in  $C$  can obtain a better payoff than the correlated equilibrium if the rest of the players select the punishment strategy. In [7], Katz showed that if there is a punishment strategy, in a five-players game with two malicious players, Nash equilibrium can be implemented. In [8], In an  $n$ -player game with  $t$  malicious players, if  $n > 2t + k$  ( $k$  is the number of Byzantine failure players) and there is a punishment strategy, the Nash equilibrium can be implemented.

#### IV. CHEATING PLAYERS' ACTIONS AGAINST PUNISHMENT STRATEGY

This section describes an example in which the punishment strategy does not prevent the players in  $C$  from aborting during

the cheap talk phase. We consider a five-player game with two malicious players. This satisfies the conditions in both [7] and [5] mentioned above. However, a table that shows a five-player game is very complicated to explain, so to simplify the example, we assume a dummy player as defined below.

*Definition 4:* Let  $\delta_{-d}$  be the set of actions of the players other than the dummy player. A dummy player,  $P_d$  is a player who satisfies the following conditions,

1.His actions do not affect the other players' utilities.

$$\forall \sigma_d, \hat{\sigma}_d \in A_d \quad \forall \sigma_{-d} \in \delta_{-d}, u_{-d}(\sigma_d, \sigma_{-d}) = u_{-d}(\hat{\sigma}_d, \sigma_{-d}).$$

2.His utility is not affected by the other players' actions except for a punishment strategy.

His utility is as defined below,

$$\text{When a punishment strategy } \rho_{-d} \text{ for } P_d \text{ is taken, } \forall \sigma_d \in A_d, \forall \sigma_{-d} \in \delta_{-d}, u_d(\sigma_d, \sigma_{-d}) > u_d(\sigma_d, \rho_{-d}).$$

otherwise,

$$\forall \sigma_{-d}, \hat{\sigma}_{-d} \in \delta_{-d} - \{\rho_{-d}\}, \forall \sigma_d \in A_d, u_d(\sigma_d, \sigma_{-d}) = u_d(\sigma_d, \hat{\sigma}_{-d})$$

An example of five-player game is shown as follows.  $N = \{P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4, P_5\}$ , we assume  $P_5$  is a dummy player, so his actions do not concern us here. The number of malicious players is 2 ( $t=2$ ), and for  $1 \leq i \leq 4$ ,  $P_i$ 's action set is  $A_i = \{a_1^i, a_2^i, a_3^i, a_4^i\}$ . The utility  $u_i$  is shown in Fig 2. Fig. 2 consists of  $4 \times 4$  sub-tables. The utilities when  $P_4$  takes  $a_4^i$  and  $P_3$  takes  $a_3^j$  are shown in the sub-table at the  $i$ -th row and  $j$ -th column. In each sub-table, the actions by  $P_1$  are mapped to the rows and the actions by  $P_2$  are mapped to the columns. Each entry is a tuple of utilities,  $(u_1, u_2, u_3, u_4)$ . The correlated equilibria for this game are  $(a_3^1, a_2^2, a_3^3, a_2^4)$  and  $(a_1^1, a_1^2, a_3^3, a_3^4)$ . In these cases, the utilities of the players are  $(5,5,5,5)$ , as indicated by the bold outlined boxes. Let us consider the case when  $P_3$  and  $P_4$  abort during the cheap talk phase. After aborting the protocol, they declare that they will take actions  $a_1^3$  and  $a_1^4$  using the cheap talk, the rest of players are supposed to select the punishment strategy  $(a_4^1, a_4^2)$ . As a result, the set of actions is  $(a_4^1, a_4^2, a_1^3, a_1^4)$ , and each player will receive a utilities  $(u_1, u_2, u_3, u_4) = (3,3,3,3)$ . The utilities for  $P_3$  and  $P_4$  decrease from the correlated equilibria. So, these utilities satisfy the definition of a punishment strategy (for all  $C \subseteq N$  and all  $\hat{\sigma}_C$  it holds that for all  $i \in C$ ,  $u_i(\hat{\sigma}_C, \rho_{-C}) \leq u_i(D)$ ). However, the important point is that the utilities of  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  also decrease from other strategies. If they try increase their utilities, they must give up taking the punishment strategy for  $P_3$  and  $P_4$  and select different actions that could increase the utilities of  $P_3$  and  $P_4$ . If the players are honest, they will select a punishment strategy even if they receive worse utilities than the other strategies. However, in game theory, all players are considered to be rational, so if there is a better set of actions for  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , it is natural for them to select a better action than the Nash equilibrium.  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  know the actions that  $P_3$  and  $P_4$  will take and their utilities when they select a punishment strategy. Thus, the aborting players think that they will not execute the punishment strategy. This is called an "empty threat" [4]

In this example, given that  $P_3$  and  $P_4$  take  $a_1^3$  and  $a_1^4$  (in this case, we use the table at the upper left), we repeat iterative elimination of strictly dominated strategies for  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ . From the viewpoint of  $P_2$ , strategies  $a_3^2$  and  $a_4^2$  are dominated by  $a_2^2$ , so we can remove the possibility that  $P_2$  takes  $a_3^2$  and  $a_4^2$ . On the other hand, from the viewpoint of  $P_1$ , strategies  $a_1^1$ ,  $a_3^1$  and  $a_4^1$  are dominated by  $a_2^1$  and  $a_1^2$  are dominated by  $a_2^2$ . Then,  $(a_2^1, a_2^2)$  is found to be the dominant strategy for  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ . Note that both  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  can independently calculate the strategy by itself. So all players try to receive the maximum profits under the assumption that all players are rational, and  $(a_2^1, a_2^2, a_3^3, a_4^4)$  is the equilibrium for the all players. (As a result, they will receive utilities (4,4,5,6)). In this case, even if  $P_3$  and  $P_4$  abort protocols during the cheap talk phase, the other players will not punish aborting players, rather they will help aborting players to receive more payoff to get more payoff than that received from the punishment strategy. This is indicated by an arrow in Fig. 2. The players will select the set of actions  $(a_2^1, a_2^2, a_3^3, a_4^4)$ , not the punishment strategy  $(a_4^1, a_4^2, a_3^1, a_4^1)$ .

#### V. NEW DEFINITION OF PUNISHMENT STRATEGY

The reason a punishment strategy does not work is that definitions in [7] and [5] do not care about utilities of punishing players. In [4], it was shown that for two-player games, a min-max strategy may be an "empty threat" without the proper setting. For multiple player games, the above example shows that a punishment strategy does not work. To avoid these cases, we suggest a new definition of a punishment strategy that considers punishing players' utilities.

*Definition 5:* Let  $\Gamma$  be an  $n$ -player game with correlated equilibrium  $D$ . A strategy vector  $\rho$  is a t-punishment strategy if for any strategy vector  $\hat{\rho}$  with respect to  $D$  and for all  $i \in C \subseteq N$ ,  $j \notin C$  with  $|C| \leq t$ , all  $\sigma_C$  it holds that  $u_i(\sigma_C, \rho_{-C}) \leq u_i(D)$  and  $u_j(\sigma_C, \hat{\rho}_{-C}) \leq u_j(\sigma_C, \rho_{-C})$ , where  $\sigma_C$  satisfies the condition  $u_i(D) < u_i(\sigma_C, \rho''_{-C})$  for some strategy vector  $\rho''_{-C}$ .

We add the idea of punishing player (punisher) utilities to the original definition of the punishment strategy to avoid the case in which the utilities of the punishers decrease when they punish the aborting players. We also add the condition for  $\sigma_C$  to avoid the the case where punishment strategy becomes a dominant strategy for punishers. A punishment strategy is the dominant strategy for punishers only when some players abort in the cheap talk phase.

*Theorem 1:* Let  $\Gamma$  be an  $n$ -player game with correlated equilibrium  $D$  and the punishment strategy as defined above. Correlated equilibria can be implemented even in the presence of at most  $t$  malicious players under the condition that  $n > 2t$ .

*Proof* When some players  $C$  abort during the cheap phase, the other players try to punish them using the punishment strategy. Since all punishing players' utilities for the punishment strategy are not worse than other strategies, they will select the punishment strategy. Malicious players know that the rest of the players will choose the punishment strategy whenever they abort the protocol, and they are not supposed to deviate from the protocol.

#### VI. CONCLUSION

We showed that there are cases when a punishment strategy does not work. We suggested a new definition of a punishment strategy to avoid these cases. As future directions of investigation, we are exploring cases in different settings and searching for better definitions for rational multi party protocols.

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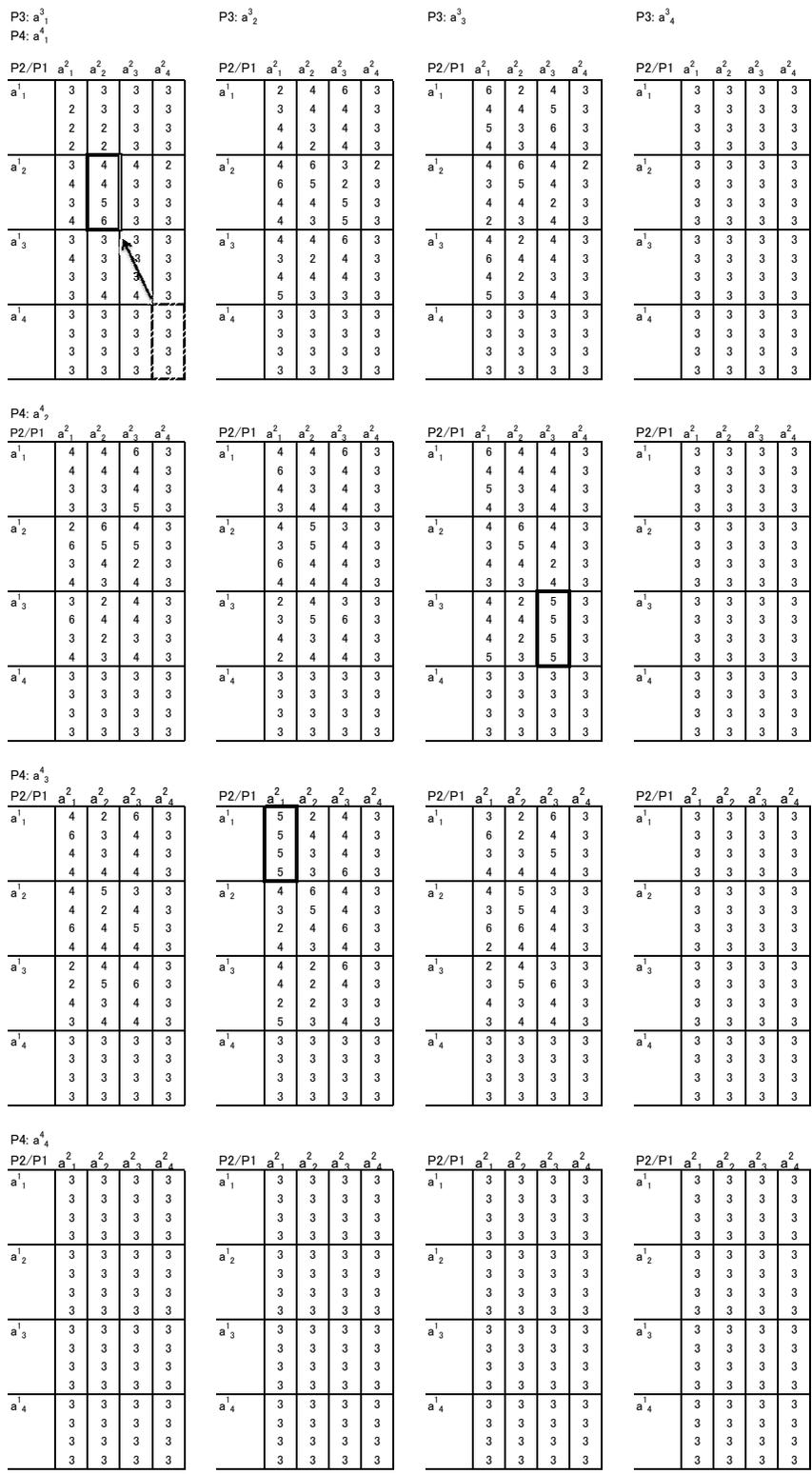


Fig. 2. An example of game that a punishment strategy does not work.

P3: $a_1^3$					P3: $a_2^3$					P3: $a_3^3$					P3: $a_4^3$				
P2/P1																			
$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$
3	3	3	3	3	2	4	6	3	3	6	2	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
2	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	5	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
2	2	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	5	3	6	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	
2	2	3	3	3	4	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	
$a_2^1$	2	3	4	3	$a_2^1$	4	6	3	3	$a_2^1$	4	6	4	2	$a_2^1$	3	3	3	3
4	3	2	3	3	6	5	2	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3		
3	5	3	3	3	4	4	5	3	4	4	2	3	3	3	3	3	3		
4	6	3	3	3	4	3	5	3	2	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3		
$a_3^1$	2	3	3	3	$a_3^1$	4	4	6	3	$a_3^1$	4	2	4	3	$a_3^1$	3	3	3	3
4	3	2	3	3	3	2	4	4	6	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3		
3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3		
3	3	4	4	3	5	3	3	3	5	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3		
$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3		
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3		
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3		

P4: $a_1^4$					P2/P1					P2/P1					P2/P1					
$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	
4	4	4	6	3	4	4	6	3	3	6	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	
4	4	4	4	3	6	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	5	3	4	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	5	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	3
$a_2^1$	2	6	4	3	$a_2^1$	4	5	3	3	$a_2^1$	4	6	4	3	$a_2^1$	3	3	3	3	
6	5	5	3	3	3	5	4	3	3	5	4	3	3	3	3	3	3			
3	4	2	3	3	6	4	4	3	4	4	2	3	3	3	3	3	3			
4	4	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3			
$a_3^1$	3	2	4	3	$a_3^1$	2	4	3	3	$a_3^1$	4	2	5	3	$a_3^1$	3	3	3	3	
6	4	4	3	3	3	5	6	3	4	4	5	3	3	3	3	3	3			
3	2	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	2	5	3	3	3	3	3	3			
4	3	4	3	3	2	4	4	3	5	3	5	3	3	3	3	3	3			
$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3			
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3			
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3			

P4: $a_3^4$					P2/P1					P2/P1					P2/P1					
$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	
4	4	3	6	3	5	2	4	3	3	3	2	6	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	
6	3	4	3	3	5	4	4	3	6	2	4	3	3	3	3	3	3			
4	3	4	3	3	5	3	4	3	3	3	5	3	3	3	3	3	3			
4	4	4	3	3	5	3	6	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3
$a_2^1$	4	5	3	3	$a_2^1$	4	6	4	3	$a_2^1$	4	5	3	3	$a_2^1$	3	3	3	3	
4	2	4	3	3	3	5	4	3	3	5	4	3	3	3	3	3	3			
6	4	5	3	3	2	4	6	3	6	6	4	3	3	3	3	3	3			
4	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	3	2	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3			
$a_3^1$	2	3	4	3	$a_3^1$	4	2	6	3	$a_3^1$	2	4	3	3	$a_3^1$	3	3	3	3	
2	5	6	3	3	4	2	4	3	3	5	6	3	3	3	3	3	3			
4	3	4	3	3	2	2	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3			
3	4	4	3	3	5	3	4	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3			
$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3			
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3			
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3			

P4: $a_4^4$					P2/P1					P2/P1					P2/P1					
$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	$a_1^1$	$a_2^1$	$a_3^1$	$a_4^1$	$a_5^1$	
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
$a_2^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_2^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_2^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_2^1$	3	3	3	3	
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
$a_3^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_3^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_3^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_3^1$	3	3	3	3	
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	$a_4^1$	3	3	3	3	
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3

Fig. 3. An example of game that satisfies the new definition of punishment strategy.