

Plausible Cooperation*

Olivier Compte
PSE, Paris

Andrew Postlewaite
University of Pennsylvania

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Abstract

There is a large repeated games literature illustrating how future interactions provide incentives for cooperation. Much of this literature assumes public monitoring: players always observe precisely the same thing. Even slight deviations from public monitoring to private monitoring that incorporate differences in players' observations dramatically complicate coordination. Equilibria with private monitoring often seem unrealistically complex.

We set out a model in which players accomplish cooperation in an intuitively plausible fashion. Players process information via a mental system – a set of psychological states and a transition function between states depending on observations. Players restrict attention to a relatively small set of simple strategies, and consequently, might learn which perform well.

1. Introduction

Cooperation is ubiquitous in long-term interactions: we share driving responsibilities with our friends, we offer help to relatives when they are moving and we write joint papers with our colleagues. The particular circumstances of an agent's interactions vary widely across the variety of our long-term relationships but the mechanics of cooperation are usually quite simple. When called upon, we do what the relationship requires, typically at some cost. We tend to be upset if our partner seems not to be doing his part and our willingness to cooperate diminishes. We may be forgiving for a time but stop cooperating if we become convinced the relationship is one-sided. We sometimes make overtures to renew the relationship when opportunities arise, hoping to rejuvenate cooperation. Incentives to cooperate stem from a concern that the relationship would temporarily break down, while incentives to be less cooperative when the relationship feels one-sided stem from the fear of being taken advantage of by a non-cooperative partner. Such simple behavior seems to be conducive to cooperation under a broad range of circumstances,

*Compte: Paris School of Economics, 48 Bd Jourdan, 75014 Paris (e-mail: compte@enpc.fr); Postlewaite: Department of Economics, 3718 Locust Walk, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104-6207 (e-mail: apostlew@econ.upenn.edu). This paper is a substantially revised version of two earlier working papers, "Repeated Relationships with Limits on Information Processing" and "Effecting Cooperation". We thank Ted Bergstrom, Larry Samuelson, Alvaro Sandroni and the participants at many seminars at which this paper was presented for helpful comments. A large part of this work was done while Postlewaite visited the Paris School of Economics; their hospitality is gratefully acknowledged. The authors thank the Gould Foundation for financial support, and Postlewaite thanks the National Science Foundation for financial support.

including those in which we get only a noisy *private* signal about our partner’s efforts in the relationship, that is, when our partner does not always know if we are less than satisfied with their effort.

Despite the fundamental importance of cooperation in understanding human interaction in small or large groups, there is not currently a satisfactory theoretical foundation of such cooperation. The theory of repeated games has provided important insights about repeated interactions but does not capture the simple intuition in the paragraph above. When signals are private, the quest for “stable” rules of behavior (or equilibria) typically produces complex strategies that are finely tuned to the parameters of the game (payoffs, signal structure).¹ If the parameters of the game are changed slightly the rule fails to remain stable.^{2,3}

The complexity of repeated game strategies with private monitoring begins with the fact that the number of possible histories increases exponentially with the number of interactions, and a strategy must specify what action is to be taken at each of these histories. If I and my spouse alternate cooking dinner and whoever cooks can either shirk or put in effort each time they cook, there will be approximately a billion possible histories after one month. For each of these billion histories, both I and my spouse will have gotten imperfect signals about the effort put in by the other on the nights they cooked, and for each of the histories, I must decide whether or not to put in effort the next time I cook. It is inconceivable that I recall the precise history after even a month let alone after several years.⁴

A more realistic description is that I rely on some summary statistic in deciding whether or not to put in effort – the number of times it seemed effort was put in over the past several times my spouse cooked, for example. In this way, histories are catalogued in a relatively small number of equivalence classes, and my action today depends only on the equivalence class containing the history. Our aim is to provide a *realistic* description of cooperation when players are strategic, and a central feature of the description is that players do not distinguish all histories in precise detail.

We ask more for a strategy to be realistic than that it can be represented with a small number of equivalence classes of histories. Repeated game strategies can often be represented in this way, but the classification of histories is for mathematical convenience, not on an *a priori* basis of how individuals pool histories.⁵ Our aim is a positive model in which cooperation is attained via

¹See, e.g., Piccione (2002) and Ely and Valimaki (2002).

²In other words, equilibria are not strict.

³Fundamental to the standard approach to repeated games with private signals is the analysis of incentives of one party to convey to the other party information about the private signals he received, either directly (through actual communication), or indirectly (through the action played). Conveying such information is necessary to build punishments that generate incentives to cooperate in the first place.

Incentives to convey information however are typically provided by making each player indifferent between the various messages he may send, or the various actions he may play. There are exceptions, and some work such as Sekiguchi (1997) *do* have players provided with *strict* incentives to use their observation. But, these constructions rely on fine tuning some initial uncertainty about the opponent’s play (as shown in the work of Bagwell (1995)), and they typically produce strategies that depend in a complex way on past histories (as in Compte (2002)).

⁴The difficulty of choosing an action for each history is a problem not only for potential cooperators; even theorists analyzing repeated games find it prohibitive to do this. The recursive techniques of Abreu, Pearce and Stachetti (1990) are often used to characterize the set of equilibrium payoffs attainable as equilibria of repeated games without having to describe the strategies that attain those payoffs.

⁵In public monitoring games, a particular vector of continuation values may be assigned after different histories. Typically, histories might be categorized into equivalence classes, where the same vector of continuation values is

intuitively plausible behavior. A player’s pooling of histories is not simply a mathematical tool, but is meant to capture plausible cognitive limitations, and different histories in an equivalence class should have a natural similarity. Importantly, the categorization of histories should *not* depend on fine details of the problem at hand: small changes in the payoffs or the signal structure should not affect a player’s categorization of histories.

A realistic description of cooperative behavior should be consistent with agents coming to that behavior. In the standard approach to repeated games there is no realistic story of how players would arrive at the proposed equilibrium strategies. It seems extremely implausible that players could compute appropriate strategies through introspection in repeated games with private signals. Equilibrium strategies in such a setting typically rely on my knowing not only the distribution of signals I receive conditional on the other player’s actions, but also on the distribution of *his* signals given my actions, something I never observe. Even if one entertains the possibility that players compute equilibrium strategies through introspection there is the question of how the players might know these signal distributions. One might posit that players could “learn” the equilibrium strategies, but the set of strategies is huge and it is difficult to see how a player might learn which strategies work well.⁶ Learning equilibrium strategies is much more plausible when histories are catalogued into a small number of equivalence classes. When there is a finite number of actions and a finite number of equivalence classes, there is a finite number of pure strategies a player needs to consider, as opposed to the necessarily infinite number of pure strategies in the standard approach.

To summarize, our goal is to find sets of strategies that have the following desirable properties: (i) the number of strategies in the set should be small enough that players might ultimately learn which perform well; (ii) the strategies should be based on a cataloging of histories that is intuitively plausible; and (iii) the sets of strategies should allow agents to cooperate under a broad set of circumstances. This goal motivates the model that we set out below. We do not claim that this model is unique in achieving our goal, only that it is a plausible model that satisfies our stated desiderata.

Before going on we should emphasize two things. First, cooperation is not always possible in our framework, and second, even when equilibrium cooperation is possible, there may well be equilibria in which cooperation doesn’t obtain. We should expect to see both in any model that has claims to being descriptive; we observe many relationships in which there is no cooperation, including many in which we would have thought cooperation possible. We will have nothing to say about what determines whether the cooperative equilibrium or the uncooperative equilibrium arises when both exist. Although this is an interesting question, and although we believe that our framework makes it more plausible that players would learn to cooperate, this is beyond the scope of this paper.

assigned to all histories in an equivalence class, regardless of the actions and signals that constitute the histories.

⁶In the repeated game literature, allowing for public communication is often seen as a remedy to the problems caused by the fact that signals are private (see Compte (1998) and Kandori and Matsushima (1998)). However, while communication simplifies the analysis, all the comments above apply: when signals are conditionally independent, providing incentives to communicate truthfully is done by making players indifferent between the various messages they send.

1.1. Strategy restrictions

The restrictions on the strategies available to players are a crucial element of our approach. We are not interested in arbitrary restrictions, but rather, on restrictions that might arise naturally. An individual's action in any period is generally assumed to be a function of the history to that point. As we suggested above, we assume players do not recall all details of a history, but rather catalogue them into equivalence classes. We will refer to an equivalence class of histories as the *mental state* a player is in and limit the number of mental states available to a player. This restricts a player to behaving the same way for all histories of the game that lead to the same mental state.⁷

We think of the set of mental states not to be a choice variable, but rather a natural limitation of mental processing. We might feel cheated if we have put effort into a relationship and get signals that the other is not reciprocating. We can think of those histories in which one feels cheated as leading to a mental state (U)pset, and those histories in which one doesn't feel cheated as leading to a mental state (N)ormal.⁸ A *mental system* is the *set of mental states* one can be in along with a *transition function* that describes what combinations of initial mental state, actions and signals lead to specific updated mental states. We will assume in most of what we do that the transition function does not depend on the fine details of the game – the payoffs and the monitoring structure – but in principle it might. For example, in circumstances in which it is extremely costly for my partner to put in effort, I may not become upset if he does not seem to be doing so. However, a fundamental aspect of the transition function is that the individual does not have control over it.

While the mental system may be the same across a variety of games, how one *responds* to being upset may be situational, that is, may depend on the particular game one is involved in, as well as on the behavior of the other player. If the cost of cooperation is very small, one might be hesitant to defect in state U and risk breaking a relationship that is generally cooperative, but not hesitate when the cost is large; whether in state U or state N, the individual may either cooperate or defect. Thus, while a player's *available* strategies depend only on that player's mental process - hence not necessarily on the fine details of the payoffs and informational structure of the game - the strategy he chooses will typically be sensitive to the specifics of the game at hand.

Our view is that there are limits to peoples' cognitive abilities, and evolution and cultural indoctrination determine an individual's mental system consisting of the states he can be in and the transition function that moves him from one state to another. Children experience a large number of diverse interactions, and how they interpret those experiences are affected by their parents and others they are (or have been) in contact with. A parent may tell his child that the failure of a partner to have reciprocated in an exchange is not a big deal and should be ignored, or the parent can tell the child that such selfish behavior is reprehensible and inexcusable. Repeated similar instances shape how the child interprets events of a particular type. Even in the absence of direct parental intervention, observing parental reactions to such problems shape the child's interpretations.

⁷For many problems restricting a player to a finite number of mental states is natural. If there is a finite number of signals a player can receive following the play of a game in any period, and if players have bounded recall, the assumption that an individual has a finite number of mental states is without loss of generality.

⁸The case in which there are only two mental states is sufficient to illustrate our ideas. We do not suggest that people are necessarily limited to two mental states and our basic message holds when there are more mental states, as long as there is a finite number.

As stated above, our goal is to set out a model that allows cooperation between people using plausible strategies. We set out such a model in the next section and analyze the circumstances in which cooperation in a repeated prisoners dilemma problem with private monitoring is possible. In section 3 we compare players' behavior with the behavior assumed in the standard model and analyze the robustness of the cooperative behavior that we identify. In this section we assume that there is occasionally a public signal that facilitates periodic synchronization. In section 4 we drop the assumption of such a public signal and show how synchronization can be accomplished without such a signal. In Section 5 we discuss the results and possible extensions.

2. Model

Gift exchange.

There are two players who exchange gifts each period. Each has two possible actions available, $\{D, C\}$. Action D is not costly and can be thought of as no effort having been made in choosing a gift. In this case the gift will not necessarily be well received. Action C is costly, and can be interpreted as making substantial effort in choosing a gift; the gift is very likely to be well-received in this case. The expected payoffs to the players are as follows:

$$\begin{array}{cc} & \begin{array}{cc} C & D \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} C \\ D \end{array} & \begin{array}{cc} 1, 1 & -L, 1 + L \\ 1 + L, -L & 0, 0 \end{array} \end{array}$$

L corresponds to the cost of effort in choosing the “thoughtful” gift: you save L when no effort is made in choosing the gift.

Signal structure.

We assume that there are two possible private signals that player i might receive, $y_i \in Y_i = \{0, 1\}$, where a signal corresponds to how well player i perceives the gift he received. We assume that if one doesn't put in effort in choosing a gift, then most likely, the person receiving the gift will not think highly of the gift. We will refer to $y = 0$ as a “bad” signal and $y = 1$ as “good”. We restrict attention to two signals in the example, but discuss how the analysis can be extended to a continuum of signals in Section 3.5.

Formally,

$$p = \Pr\{y_i = 0 \mid a_j = D\} = \Pr\{y_i = 1 \mid a_j = C\}.$$

We assume that $p > 1/2$ and for most of the main text analysis we consider the case where p is close to 1.

In addition to this private signal, we assume that at the start of each period, players receive a public signal $z \in Z = \{0, 1\}$, and we let

$$q = \Pr\{z = 1\}.$$

The existence of a public signal z facilitates our exposition but can be dispensed with, as we demonstrate in section 4.

2.1. Strategies

As discussed above, players' behavior in any period will depend on the previous play of the game, but in a more restricted way than in traditional models. There is a finite set of possible *mental*

states, S_i , that player i can be in. Mental states capture the bounds on players' memories of the precise details of past play. For example, a player who has gotten one bad signal in the past twenty periods should not be assumed to remember this occurred in period sixteen or period seventeen. For simplicity, we assume that in the current example the players can be in one of two states U (pset) or N (ormal). The names are chosen to convey that at any time player i is called upon to play an action, he knows the mood he is in, which is a function of the history of (own) play and signals, but does not condition his action on finer details of the history.⁹ One can interpret the restriction to strategies that are constant across the histories that lead to a particular mental state as being a limit on the player's memory. S_i is exogenously given, not a choice. Player i 's set of pure strategies is

$$\Sigma_i = \{\sigma_i, \sigma_i : S_i \longrightarrow A_i\}.$$

The particular state in S_i that player i is in at a given time depends on the previous play of the game. The *transition function* for player i , which we shall denote by T_i , is a function that determines the state player i will be in at the beginning of period t as a function of his state in period $t - 1$, his choice of action in period $t - 1$, and the outcome of that period – the signals y_i and z .¹⁰ As is the set of states for player i , the transition function is exogenous. A player who has made an effort in his choice of gift but receives a bad signal may find it impossible not to be upset, that is, be in state U .

We assume the transition function for the example, which we will refer to as the *leading example* below, is as in the following figure.

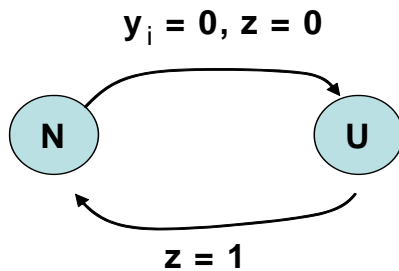


Figure 1: Transition

This figure shows which combinations of actions and signals will cause the player to move from one state to the other. If player i is in state N , he remains in that state unless he receives signals $y = 0$ and $z = 0$, in which case he transits to state U . If i is in state U , he remains in that state until he receives signal $z = 1$, at which point he transits to state N regardless of the signal y .¹¹

⁹For expository ease we assume that an individual's payoffs depend on outcomes, but not on the state he is in. The names that we use for the states suggest that the state itself could well be payoff relevant: whatever outcome arises, I will be less happy with that outcome if I'm upset. Our framework can easily accommodate state-dependence, and the qualitative nature of our conceptual points would be unchanged if we did so.

¹⁰In principle, the transition function could depend on more than the most recent signal, for example, whether two of the past three signals was "bad". For simplicity, in this paper we assume the given form.

¹¹For this particular example, transitions depend only on the signals observed, and not on the individual's action. In general, it might also depend on the individual's action.

To summarize, a player is endowed with a *mental system* that consists of a set of mental states the player can be in and a transition function that describes what triggers moves from one state to another. Our interest is in finding stable patterns of behavior. Our structure requires that players' strategies are stationary: they do not depend on the period. This rules out strategies of the sort "Play D in prime number periods and play C otherwise", consistent with our focus on behavior that is a function of the information close to hand at the time choices are made.

Our candidate behavior for the players will be as follows. For player i ,

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_i(N) &= C \\ \sigma_i(U) &= D.\end{aligned}$$

That is, player i plays C as long as he receives a gift that seems thoughtful, that is $y_i = 1$, or when $z = 1$. He plays D otherwise. Intuitively, player 1 triggers a "punishment phase" when he sees $y_1 = 0$, that is, when he didn't find the gift given to him appropriate. This punishment phase ends only when signal $z = 1$ is received.

The public signal z gives the possibility of "resetting" the relationship to a cooperative mode. If the signal z is ignored and the mental process is defined by

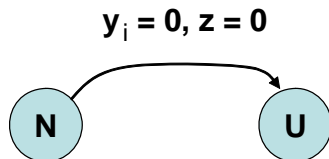


Figure 2: No "resetting"

then eventually, because signals are noisy, with probability 1 the players will get to state U under the proposed strategy and this will be absorbing: there would be nothing to change their behavior. The signal z allows for possible recoordination back to state N (and possibly cooperation).¹²

In our leading example, players stop being upset for exogenous reasons. Alternatively, in a two-state mental system the players could move from state U back to state N after seeing a good signal: you stop being upset as soon as you receive a nice gift.

Formally, players may be either in state N or in state U , but are endowed with the following transition function.

¹²As mentioned above, we show the existence of a public signal z is not necessary for re-coordination below.

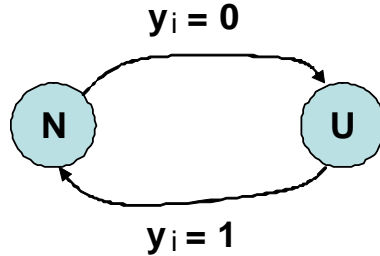


Figure 3: Forgiving transition

A player endowed with this alternative mental process, who would cooperate in N and defect in U , would be following a TIT for TAT strategy.¹³

2.2. An illustrative experiment

Before continuing with the formal description of our model, it is useful to give a real-world example to illustrate our idea of a mental system. Cohen *et al.* ran several experiments in which participants (students at the University of Michigan) were insulted by a confederate who would bump into the participant and call him an “asshole”. The experiment was designed to test the hypothesis that participants raised in the north reacted differently to the insult than did participants raised in the south. From the point of view of our model, what is most interesting is that the insult triggered a physical response in participants from the south. Southerners were upset by the insult, as shown by cortisol levels, and more physiologically primed for aggression, as shown by a rise in testosterone. We would interpret this as a transition from one mental state to another, evidenced by the physiological changes. This transition is plausibly not a choice on the participant’s part, but involuntary. The change in mental state that is a consequence of the insult was followed by a change in behavior: southerners were more likely to respond in an aggressive manner following the insult than were northerners. Moreover, Southerners who had been insulted were more than three times as likely to respond in an aggressive manner in a word completion test than were Southerners in a control group who were not insulted. There was no significant difference in the aggressiveness of Northerners who were insulted and those who were not.

The physiological reaction to an insult – what we would think of as a transition from one state to another – seems not to be “hard-wired”: physiological reactions to insults were substantially lower for northern students than for southern students. Indeed, the point of the Cohen *et al.* paper is to argue that there is a southern “culture of honor” that is inculcated in small boys from an early age. This culture emphasizes the importance of honor and the defense of it in the face of insults. This illustrates the view of our model expressed above that the transition function in our model can be thought of as culturally determined, but fixed from the point of view of an individual at the time decisions are taken.

¹³We show below that cooperation is impossible if players have this mental process.

2.3. Ergodic distributions and strategy valuation

For any pair of players' strategies there will be an ergodic distribution over the pairs of actions played. While in general the ergodic distribution may depend on the initial conditions, we restrict attention to transition functions for which the distribution is unique. The ergodic distribution gives the probability distribution over payoffs in the stage game, and we take the payoff to the players to be the expected value of their payoffs given this distribution.

Formally, define a state profile s as a pair of states (s_1, s_2) . Each strategy profile σ induces transition probabilities over state profiles: by assumption each state profile s induces an action profile $\sigma(s)$, which in turn generates a probability distribution over signals, and hence, given the transition functions T_i , over next period states. We denote by ϕ_σ the ergodic distribution over states induced by σ . That is, $\phi_\sigma(s)$ corresponds to the (long run) probability that players are in state s .¹⁴

We associate with each strategy profile σ the value induced by the ergodic distribution. This corresponds to computing discounted expected payoffs, and taking the discount to 1.¹⁵ We denote by $v(\sigma)$ this value (vector). Thus,

$$v(\sigma) = \sum_s g(\sigma(s))\phi_\sigma(s)$$

where $g(\sigma(s))$ is the payoff vector induced by the strategy profile σ for state profile s .

Equilibrium.

Definition: We say that a profile $\sigma \in \Sigma$ is an equilibrium if for any player i and any strategy $\sigma'_i \in \Sigma_i$,

$$v_i(\sigma'_i, \sigma_{-i}) \leq v_i(\sigma).$$

This is a weaker notion of equilibrium than traditionally used in repeated games because of the restriction on the set of strategies to be mappings from S_i to A_i .¹⁶ Also note that σ_i as defined should not be viewed as a strategy of the repeated game.¹⁷

2.4. Successful Cooperation

We are interested in equilibria in which the players cooperate at least some of the time asymptotically. It is clear that it is an equilibrium for both players to play the strategy "always

¹⁴Formally, define $Q_\sigma(s', s)$ as the probability that next state profile is s' when the current state is s . That is, Q_σ is the transition matrix over state profiles induced by σ . The vector ϕ_σ solves $\phi_\sigma(s') = \sum_s Q_\sigma(s', s)\phi_\sigma(s)$.

¹⁵When discounting is not close to one, then a more complex valuation function must be defined: when σ is being played, and player i evaluates strategy σ'_i as compared to σ_i , the transitory phase from ϕ_σ to $\phi_{\sigma'_i, \sigma_{-i}}$ matters. Note however that the equilibria we will derive are strict equilibria, to they would remain equilibria under this alternative definition for discount factors sufficiently close to 1.

¹⁶We restrict attention to pure strategies. However, our definitions can be easily generalized to accommodate mixed actions, by re-defining the set A_i appropriately, and having it include mixed actions. However, the spirit of our approach is that players should adjust play from experience, by checking from time to time the performance of alternative strategies. So if mixed actions are to be allowed, only few of them, rather than the whole set of mixed actions, should in our view be considered. We discuss the issue of mixed strategies in detail in the discussion section below.

¹⁷A strategy of the repeated game is a mapping from histories to actions. The strategy σ_i , along with the mental system (S_i, T_i) would induce a repeated game strategy, once the initial state is specified.

defect”, and it is clear that there cannot be an equilibrium in which a player plays the strategy “always cooperate”. The possibility of asymptotic cooperation depends on the players playing the strategy “play C in N and D in U ”. We shall call σ_i^* this strategy for player i .

It is straightforward to see that $\sigma^* \equiv (\sigma_1^*, \sigma_2^*)$ cannot be an equilibrium for all parameters p , q and L . For example fix p and q . Then L *cannot be too large*. If L is sufficiently large it will pay a player to deviate to “always defect”: the occasional reward of L to the deviating player will be more than enough to compensate for causing the opponent to very likely switch from N to U .

Also, L *cannot be too small*. When a player gets a bad signal he is not sure if his opponent is now in U and is playing D , or if the signal is a “mistake”. If it’s the latter case, playing D will likely lead to a spell of noncooperation. If L is small, there is little cost to playing C to avoid this; thus there is a lower bound on L that is consistent with the strategies above being an equilibrium.

We now turn to a formal derivation of these two bounds. We refer to ϕ_{ij} as the long-run probability that player 1 is in state $i \in \{U, N\}$ while player 2 is in state j when both players follow σ^* . By definition we have

$$v_1(\sigma_1^*, \sigma_2^*) = \phi_{NN} - L\phi_{NU} + (1 + L)\phi_{UN}.$$

By symmetry, $\phi_{NU} = \phi_{UN}$, so this expression reduces to

$$v_1(\sigma_1^*, \sigma_2^*) = \phi_{NN} + \phi_{UN} = \Pr_{\sigma^*}(s_2 = N) \equiv \phi_N.$$

Consider now the alternative strategy σ^D (respectively σ^C) where player 1 plays D (respectively C) in both states U and N . Also call ϕ_j^D (respectively ϕ_j^C) the long-run probability that player 2 is in state $j \in \{U, N\}$ when player 1 plays the strategy σ^D (σ^C) and player 2 plays σ_2^* . We have:

$$v_1(\sigma^D, \sigma_2^*) = (1 + L)\phi_N^D.$$

This expression reflects the fact that playing σ^D induces additional gains when the other is in the normal state; but this has a cost because of an adverse effect on the chance that player 2 is in the normal state ($\phi_N^D < \phi_N$ when $p > 1/2$). The expressions above imply that the deviation to σ^D is not profitable when

$$L \leq \bar{L} = \frac{\phi_N}{\phi_N^D} - 1.$$

When player 1 plays σ^C , he obtains:

$$v_1(\sigma^C, \sigma_2^*) = \phi_N^C - L\phi_U^C.$$

This expression reflects the fact that playing σ^C changes the probability that player 2 is in N ($\phi_N^C > \phi_N$ when $p > 1/2$) in a way that benefits player 1: player 2 is more likely to be in N when player 1 always cooperates than when he follows σ^* , because he avoids triggering a punishment/Upset phase when he receives bad signals by mistake. But this has a cost: he loses L whenever player 2 is in U . The deviation to σ^C is thus not profitable when

$$L \geq \underline{L} \equiv \frac{\phi_N^C - \phi_N}{\phi_U^C} = \frac{\phi_U - \phi_U^C}{\phi_U^C} = \frac{\phi_U}{\phi_U^C} - 1$$

We turn to checking when these two bounds are compatible. First we consider $p = 1/2$ and p close to 1.

(i) $p = 1/2$.

The distribution over player 2's state is then independent of player 1's strategy, so $\phi_N^C = \phi_N^D$, hence the two bounds coincide (and they are equal to 0).

(ii) p is close to 1.

Then mistakes are rare, so $\phi_N \simeq 1$. When player 1 always defects, player 2 essentially receives only bad signals. If in state N , this signal triggers a change to U with probability $(1 - q)$. Since it takes on average $1/q$ periods to return to N , the fraction of the time player 2 spends in N when player 1 always plays D is $\frac{1}{1+(1-q)/q} = q$, hence $\phi_N^D \simeq q$. This gives us the upper bound

$$\bar{L} = \frac{1}{q} - 1.$$

Now assume player 1 follows σ^C . Mistakes occur with probability $(1 - p)$, leading with probability $(1 - q)$ to an Upset phase of length $1/q$, hence $\phi_U^C \simeq (1 - p)(1 - q)/q$. When player 1 is following σ^* , he too reacts to bad signals, and in turn induces player 2 to switch to U (though with one period delay). So ϕ_U is larger than ϕ_U^C , but no larger than $2\phi_U^C$. Thus

$$\underline{L} = \frac{\phi_U}{\phi_U^C} - 1 \leq 1$$

and the two bounds are compatible when $q < 1/2$.¹⁸

The following Proposition, which is obtained by using exact expressions for the long run distributions, shows that the inequalities are compatible for any $p > 1/2$ and any $q \in (0, 1)$.

Proposition 1: *For any $p > 1/2$ and any $q \in (0, 1)$, we have $0 < \underline{L} < \bar{L}$. Besides, for any q , both \bar{L} and \underline{L} are increasing with p .*

Details of the computation are in the Appendix.¹⁹ We note here that the long-run distributions are easily derived. For example, the long run probability ϕ_{NN} satisfies

$$\phi_{NN} = q + (1 - q)p^2\phi_{NN}$$

(both players are in state N either because resetting to cooperation occurred, or because players were already in state N and no mistake occurred). Solving, this gives $\phi_{NN} = \frac{q}{1-(1-q)p^2}$.

Finally, there is still a deviation that has not been checked: the possibility that player 1 chooses to play C in U and D in N . We show in the appendix that this deviation can only be profitable when L is large enough. This thus imposes another upper bound on L , possibly tighter than \bar{L} . We check that for q not too large, that constraint is not tighter.

Proposition 2: *There exists \bar{q} such that for any $q < \bar{q}$, $p \in (1/2, 1)$ and any $L \in (\underline{L}, \bar{L})$, it is an equilibrium for both agents to play the strategy C in N and D in U .*

¹⁸This is a rough approximation of the upperbound. Exact computation for p close to 1 gives $\underline{L} = 1 - q$.

¹⁹We thank an anonymous referee for suggesting the outline of the calculation.

Our proof of Proposition 2 proposes a formal argument that does not pin down a particular value for \bar{q} . Direct (but tedious) computations however show that Proposition 2 holds with \bar{q} as large as 0.4.

The shaded region in the graph below shows how the range of L for which cooperation is possible varies as a function of p for the particular value of q equal .3.

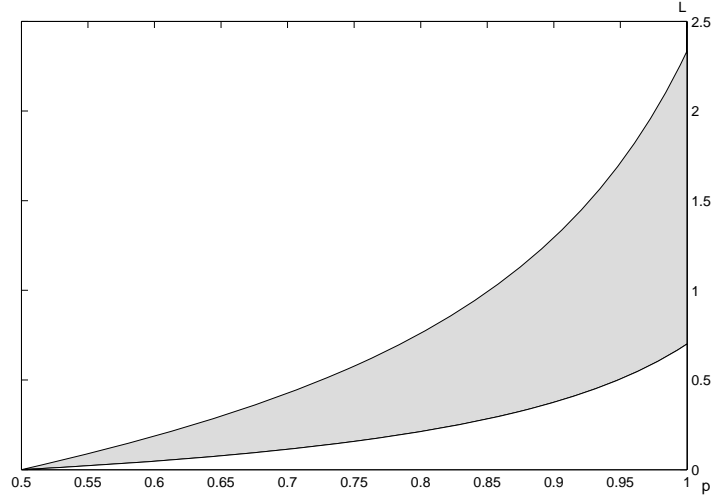


Figure 4: $p - L$ combinations that allow cooperation for $q = .3$
 Note that as long as the signal about the opponent's effort is not completely random, there are some values of L for which cooperation is possible. Both the lower bound and upper bound on such L 's are increasing as p increases, as is the size of the interval of such L 's.

2.5. Tit-for-tat

A mental system generates restrictions on the set of strategies available to players and these restrictions eliminate potentially profitable deviations. It is not the case, however, that seemingly reasonable mental systems necessarily make cooperation possible. The following mental system causes a player to be responsive to good signals: good signals make him switch back to the normal state.

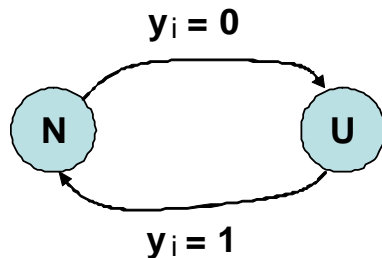


Figure 3: Forgiving transition

Along with the strategy of playing C in N and D in U , this mental system induces a tit-for-tat strategy. With such a mental system however, for almost all values of p the only equilibrium entails both players defecting in both states.

Proposition 3: *If $p \neq 1 - \frac{1}{2(1+L)}$, and if each players' mental process is as defined above, then the only equilibrium entails defecting in both states.*

We leave the proof of this proposition in the appendix, but give the basic idea here. To fix ideas, consider the case where p is close to 1 and check that it cannot be an equilibrium that both players follow the strategy σ that plays C in N and D in U . If both players follow σ , then by symmetry, the induced ergodic distribution will put identical weight on (NN) and (UU) : the dynamic system has equal chances of exiting from (NN) as it has of exiting from (UU) . As a result, players payoff will be bounded away from 1.

Consider next the case where player 1 deviates and plays the strategy σ^C that plays C at all states. There will be events where player 2 will switch to U and defect. However, since player 1 continues to cooperate, player 2 will soon switch back to N and cooperate. As a consequence, if player 1 plays σ^C , his payoff will remain arbitrarily close to 1. Hence it cannot be an equilibrium that both players play σ .

3. Discussion of example

Our leading example illustrates how cooperation can be achieved when strategies are constrained. Before going on, it is useful to compare this approach with the standard approach and discuss why cooperation is difficult when strategies are not constrained. We will then discuss richer mental processes.

3.1. Adding more mental states

Players in our example had two possible mental states and two possible (pure) actions, which limited them to four pure strategies. This clearly limits them both in the existence of strategies that might lead to cooperation and in the possible profitable deviations. Adding a state can allow for more flexible reaction to signals that might permit cooperation which would have been impossible with only two states. Adding a state is not unambiguously good, however. An additional state allows not only for more complex strategies to achieve cooperation, but more complex strategies for deviating as well. Compte and Postlewaite (2009b) contains an example in which agents have three states and demonstrates when the additional state increases the possibilities of cooperating and when it decreases those opportunities.

3.2. Available strategies and One-shot deviations

The standard approach to repeated games puts no constraints on the strategies available to players. An equilibrium strategy is then characterized by the property that neither player would find a deviation profitable. The one-shot deviation principle states that checking incentives, both ex ante or interim, can be done by considering all possible histories and checking that, at any of these histories, there are no profitable one-shot deviations. The one-shot deviation principle is

useful in the standard approach because the set of strategies is huge: rather than checking that a strategy is optimal among all the strategies available, one need only check optimality among few alternative strategies (though of course this has to be done after all histories).

In our framework, the one-shot deviation principle does not apply.²⁰ First, a player's mental process constrains the strategies of the repeated game he can choose from, and it is typically the case that beginning with one of the allowed strategies, changing a player's action at one particular date results in a strategy that falls outside the allowable set (see however Section 3.4). Indeed, a mental state corresponds to an information node, at which all histories leading to that mental state are pooled, and it is natural to assume that one cannot modify behavior at only some of the histories leading to a particular mental state: the available deviations from a prescribed strategy have to respect the player's information constraints.

In addition, our mental state approach turns the game into one of imperfect recall, so that checking for one-shot deviations only does not ensure that multiple deviations are deterred.

3.3. Ex ante and interim incentives

The distinction between ex ante and interim incentives is irrelevant in our framework. When a strategy profile $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2)$ is played, the value that player i obtains is $v_i(\sigma)$ and it is computed by considering the ergodic distribution over state profiles induced by σ . Neither the date at which this computation takes place, nor the beliefs that player i might have about the other player's current mental state are specified.

We do not specify beliefs because we do not think of players as having common knowledge over the signal structure nor the mental systems. However as a modeler, we could very well consider a particular history h_i of the game for player i , define the belief that a player would have after that history, and compute the continuation payoff $v_i^{h_i}(\sigma)$ that player i obtains if he follows σ from then on. Because we are considering arbitrarily patient players however, $v_i^{h_i}(\sigma)$ is arbitrarily close to $v_i(\sigma)$. So if σ is a strict equilibrium in our sense, it will also be a sequential equilibrium in the usual sense given the assumed strategy restrictions: after any history h_i , conforming to σ is optimal among all the strategies available to player i .

3.4. Pure versus mixed strategies

Although one-shot deviations are not allowed, there are ways to expand the set of strategies that respect the constraints imposed by the mental system and generate deviations that approximate one-shot deviations. If one allows mixed strategies in which a player puts weight at least $1 - \varepsilon$ on a pure strategy, with ε small, then that player is allowed to very infrequently choose an action that differs from that suggested by σ . Then a legitimate question is whether our equilibrium strategy profile σ^* remains an equilibrium in that expanded strategy set.

The following Proposition shows that this is indeed the case.

Proposition 4: *Consider the set of strategies $\Sigma_i^\varepsilon : S_i \rightarrow A_i^\varepsilon$ where A_i^ε is the set of mixed strategies that put weight at least $1 - \varepsilon$ on a pure strategy. Call P^ε the set of parameters (q, p, L) for which σ^* is a strict equilibrium. If $(q, p, L) \in P^0$ then $(q, p, L) \in P^\varepsilon$ for ε small enough.*

²⁰Fortunately however the number of strategies is limited so there are few deviations to check.

The proof is in the appendix. It is interesting to note that the proof of this Proposition shows that looking at one-shot deviations generates strictly weaker restrictions than the ones we consider, consistent with the statement above that checking for one-shot deviations only does not ensure that multiple deviations are deterred.

3.5. Robustness

The example was kept simple in a number of ways to make clear how cooperation could be achieved when strategies are restricted. Some of the simplifications are not particularly realistic, but can be relaxed without affecting the basic point that cooperation is possible even when agents get private signals if strategies are restricted. In Compte and Postlewaite (2008) we show that the assumption that the players simultaneously chose actions in the basic stage game can be relaxed so that their choices are sequential without altering the qualitative conclusions about cooperation. That paper also shows that it is straightforward to extend the analysis to problems in which agents are heterogeneous in costs and benefits, and in which agents are heterogeneous in their monitoring technologies. In general, agent heterogeneity typically restricts the set of parameters for which cooperation is possible.

In the initial example that we analyzed an agent received a binary signal about her partner’s effort. This assumption makes the analysis more transparent but can easily be replaced with a signal structure in which agents might receive signals in the unit interval, with higher signals being stronger evidence that the partner put in effort. One may then modify each agent’s mental system by defining a threshold in the signal set with signals below the threshold treated as “bad” and signals above treated as “good”. With a mental system modified in this way, the qualitative features of the equilibria we study are essentially unchanged with this signal structure.²¹

The extensions examined in Compte and Postlewaite (2008) are not meant only as a robustness check though. As mentioned in the introduction, our goal is a realistic description of cooperation when people are strategic and the structure of the games they play varies. In the face of the variety of the games we play, players’ mental processes should be viewed as the linchpin of cooperation. These extensions are meant to capture the scope of a given mental process.

4. Resetting the relationship to cooperation

A central issue in relationships where monitoring is private is ensuring that players have incentives to trigger punishments. When monitoring is public, all players see the same signal, so there is no problem in coordinating a punishment phase: it is common knowledge what other players know. The issue in private monitoring is as in our example – when a player gets a bad signal it is equally likely that the other player may or may not have already received a bad signal, making it a nontrivial decision for a player to begin a punishment phase.

²¹The difference is that we would no longer have $p = \Pr(y = 1 | C) = \Pr(y = 0 | D)$. This assumption was made for convenience, however (so that a single parameter describes the monitoring structure. In the more general setup suggested here, we would have two parameters: $p = \Pr(y = 1 | C)$ and $r = \Pr(y = 0 | D)$. Also, even for symmetric monitoring structures, we could lose the symmetry of outcomes if players were to use a different threshold.

The lack of common knowledge among players results in a second key issue – how do players get back to cooperation once a punishment has been triggered. We finessed the second issue in the analysis above by assuming the public signal z that facilitated recoordination after a punishment period. A public signal z is a relatively simple way for the players to re-coordinate, but as we emphasized, not necessary. We demonstrate next how players can coordinate a move back to cooperation in the absence of a public signal.

We first illustrate that the issue of recoordination is not trivial. We examine the case where the players receive private signals z_i , $i = 1, 2$ (instead of a public signal z) and where players' mental systems are as in our leading example. With this simple mental system, cooperation can be supported if z_1 and z_2 are highly correlated. We show however that when the signals z_i are independently distributed cooperation can no longer be supported. Finally, we show two alterations of that simple mental system that allow cooperation.

4.1. The difficulties of recoordination with private signals: An illustration.

Assume that each player i receives a private signal $z_i \in Z_i = \{0, 1\}$ and consider the mental process as before with the qualification that T_i is now defined over Z_i rather than Z . (See figure 5 below.)

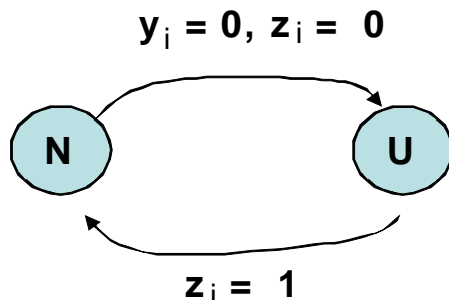


Figure 5: Independent “resetting”

If the parameters (p, q, L) are such that incentives are strict in the public resetting signal case, then by continuity, incentives will continue to be satisfied if the signals z_i have the property that $\Pr(z_i = 1) = q$ and $\Pr(z_1 = z_2)$ close enough to 1.

As we show below, however, the correlation between signals in this information structure cannot be too weak if cooperation is to be possible. If the two signals z_1 and z_2 are independent, cooperation cannot be sustained in equilibrium when p is close to 1.

Proposition 5: *Fix the mental system as above with z_1 and z_2 independent. For any fixed $q \in (0, 1)$, for p close enough to 1, the strategy profile where each player cooperates in N and defects in U cannot be an equilibrium.*

We leave the proof to the Appendix.

4.2. Resetting without a public signal

Public and nearly public signals can facilitate the coordination back to cooperation, but they are not necessary. Slightly more complicated, but still plausible, mental systems can support cooperation when there is no correlation in players' signals. We mention here two such possibilities that are analyzed in detail in the appendix.

Modified Tit-for-Tat. The first example is a stochastic modification of the Tit-for-Tat example discussed above. In that case, bad signals caused a transition from N to U and a good signal caused a transition back to N . Cooperation was essentially impossible with that mental system, but cooperation may be possible if the transitions are made stochastic. Suppose that the transitions are modified so that player i transits from N to U with probability b independently of his signal. (One might think of this as the player “forgetting” or “forgiving”.) Similarly, modify the transition so that the player transits from U to N with probability k when they receive a good signal.

For some configurations of parameters cooperation (play C in N and D in U) will be an equilibrium, demonstrating that mental systems that embody stochastic transitions extend the circumstances under which cooperation can be sustained.

Asymmetric mental systems. In the second example the two players have different mental systems, each with three states N, U and F . Transitions from N to U are as before. Transitions from U to F are stochastic, depending on independent private signals z_1 and z_2 , $z_i \in \{0, 1\}$ and $\Pr\{z_i = 1\} = q$. (The transitions can be thought of as a player forgetting being upset.

A key feature of the modified transition functions is that what triggers a change from F to N differs between the two players. For player 2, such a transition requires receiving a good signal, $y_2 = 1$. For player 1, such a transition is automatic. These transitions are summarized in Figure 12.

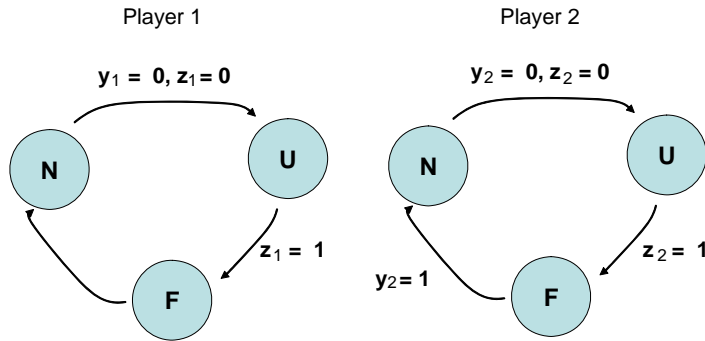


Figure 12: “Successful” independent resetting

We show in the appendix that there is a range of parameters for which it is an equilibrium strategy for player 1 to cooperate at N and F , and for player 2 to cooperate at N only.

The key difference with the analysis in section 2 is that players no longer simultaneously switch back to cooperation (because there is no public signal to allow that). Rather, the transition functions are as though one player acts as a leader in the relationship, and makes an

effort in choosing a gift (i.e., cooperate) as a signal that he understands that the relationship has broken down and needs to be restarted.

Intuitively, incentives to play C at F are easy to provide for player 1: When player 1 is in F , the other player has a non negligible chance (approximately equal to $1/2$ if q is small) of being in F as well, hence playing C in F , though costly, generates a substantial chance of resetting cooperation. In contrast, incentives to play C at U are much weaker: playing C at U would also allow player 1 to reset cooperation in the event of a breakdown, but this would be a very costly strategy as it requires player 1 to possibly cooperate during many periods before player 2 switches back to N .

5. Further discussion

Evolution of mental system. We have taken the mental system – the states and transition function – to be exogenously given. We did, however, suggest that one might think of these as having been formed by environmental factors. In the long run, evolution might influence both the set of mental states that are possible and the transition function. While beyond the scope of this paper, it would be interesting to understand how evolution shapes mental systems. It is *not* the case that evolution should necessarily favor more complicated mental systems; adding more states to a mental system that allows cooperation might make cooperation then impossible, or reduce the set of parameters under which cooperation is possible. The question of evolution is discussed in more detail in Compte and Postlewaite (2009b).

*Extensions of the model.*²² Our model has no explicit communication. In the three state asymmetric example, Player 1 was exogenously designated as the leader in the relationship, and one can interpret the decision to play C in state G as an implicit communication that the relationship should restart. There, communication was noisy (because the other player does not receive a good signal with probability one) and costly (it costs L , and L cannot be too small if cooperation is to be achieved). One could mimic the implicit communication in this example with explicit communication by allowing player 1 to send a message at the end of each period, and by defining the transition induced by the message, if sent, on both players' mental states.

Direct utility from being in a mental state. There is no utility attached to mental states in our model; the states U and N are no more than collections of histories. It is straightforward to extend our model to the case in which utility is attached to states, or to particular transitions between states (going from upset to normal, for example).

Cooperation in larger groups. The basic structure and ideas in this paper can be extended to the case of many agents who are randomly matched. As is intuitive, the range of parameters for which cooperation is possible is smaller than in the two-person case because there is a longer time between a player's first defection and when he first meets opponents who do not cooperate as a result of his defection.

Social norms. We have restricted attention to play in a prisoner's dilemma game to focus attention on the central ingredients of our model. It is straightforward to extend the basic idea to more general games, including asymmetric games. There may exist a "norm" that prescribes acceptable behavior for a wide variety of problems, with agents receiving noisy signals about whether their partner has followed the norm or not. Two-state mental systems will allow support

²²These extensions are discussed in more detail in Compte and Postlewaite (2009a).

of the norm in a manner similar to the cooperation that is possible in the model we analyze in this paper. Agents will follow a norm’s prescriptions when they are in the “normal” state, and behave in their own self interest following observations that suggest their partner has violated the norm.

5.1. Related literature

Although we have emphasized the difficulty in supporting cooperation when signals are private, there are monitoring structures for which cooperation is relatively easy to sustain. These are case when each player can be sure – or almost sure – of his opponent’s state of mind. Mailath and Morris (2002) analyze repeated games in which players get imperfect information about past play. Consider first games in which players get a public signal, that is, a signal that both see. Cooperation may be possible here, because if players choose pure strategies, they know exactly their opponents’ state of mind: the public signals and the actions prescribed by the equilibrium strategies will be common knowledge. Mailath and Morris then consider a perturbation of this information structure whereby each player gets the public signal with a small amount of noise. They focus on the case that players’ signals are *almost public*: for any signal a player receives, the probability that other players have received the same signal is close to one. Mailath and Morris show that if players’ strategies depend only on a finite number of past signals, the introduction of the small amount of noise into the players’ signals about past play doesn’t matter; strategies that comprise an equilibrium when there is no discrepancy in what players observe remain equilibrium strategies when players’ signals are almost public.²³

This result provides sufficient conditions under which cooperation can be possible even when players receive private signals, but those conditions are quite stringent. In particular, when signals are almost public, I can predict very accurately what other players will next do. This is in sharp contrast to our example. First, the signals that players get are not helpful in predicting the signal received by the other player, and second, however accurate signals are, there are times (in state U for example) when a player may not be able to accurately predict what his opponent will do.²⁴

It has long been understood that some Nash equilibria are sufficiently complicated that it is implausible that players will be able to identify the strategies and play them. One approach to taking complexity of strategies into account is to assume players use finite automata to implement their strategies. A finite automaton consists of a finite number of states and a transition function, as in our model. The complexity of a player’s strategy is defined to be the minimal size of a machine that can implement that strategy.²⁵ We differ from this literature in several respects. First, the literature using automata to implement strategies has players choosing both the transition function and the mapping from states to actions, taking fixed only the number of states available given the automaton’s size. In contrast, we take players’ transition functions as fixed with players’ choices being only the mapping from states to actions. Second,

²³Phelan and Skrzypacz (2006) ask a related question. They consider strategies that depend on a finite number of states, but unlike Mailath and Morris, conditioning on past actions is allowed. Then, for any given monitoring structure, by looking at the set of beliefs generated after any history, they provide a general method for evaluating whether the candidate strategy is an equilibrium. See also Kandori and Obara (2007) for a related treatment.

²⁴This is because even as p gets close to 1, the probability $\Pr(s_2 = U \mid s_1 = U) = \phi_{UU}^\sigma / (\phi_{UU}^\sigma + \phi_{UN}^\sigma)$ remains bounded away from 0 and 1.

²⁵See, e.g., Ben-Porath (1986) and Abreu and Rubinstein (1988).

to our knowledge, this literature does not consider games with private monitoring. Third, the earlier literature used automata primarily as a tool to capture complexity; our modeling strategy takes more seriously mental systems as being a plausible, if crude, model of the process by which players may interact. There has also been work in single-person decision making problems that is analogous to the papers using automata to capture complexity costs.²⁶ While we take agents' transition functions as fixed, the focus of this literature is on characterizing the optimal transition rule.

In our model a player must choose an action at a given date that depends only on which of the finite number of states that he is in at that time. The number of realized histories goes to infinity so a state is an information set that over time contains a large set of histories, and a player might prefer to choose different actions at different histories that led to a given state if he could distinguish the histories. This structure is analogous to the "absent-minded driver problem"²⁷ in which a driver who wishes to exit a limited access highway "at the second exit" must decide what to do when he arrives at an exit but cannot recall whether he has already passed an exit.

The model we study reduces to a stochastic game of a particular kind in which each player has his own state variable, and each player observes only his own state.²⁸ Most of the literature in stochastic games assumes that in each period, there is a state that is known to both players,²⁹ while our interest is in the case that players do *not* know their partner's state. In addition, our interest is primarily in understanding the conditions under which cooperation is possible for specific classes of games.

Kandori (1992) and Okuno-Fujiwara and Postlewaite (1995) analyze the possibility of cooperation when players are repeated randomly matched to play a prisoner's dilemma game with limited information about previous play. Those papers demonstrate that cooperation can be supported with limited information, but the nature of the limited information is different from that in this paper. In particular, there is no uncertainty about the action that an individual has taken in a given interaction unlike in our model.

Abdulkadiroglu and Bagwell (2007) analyze a two-person favor exchange model in which in each period one or the other, or neither, of the agents may be able to do a costly favor for the other agent.³⁰ When in a given period an agent has the opportunity to do a favor, this fact will be known to him but not to the potential recipient of the favor. If a favor is done, it is publicly observed by both agents. It is assumed that the benefit to the recipient of a favor is greater than the cost of doing the favor, it is efficient that all possible favors be done. It is straightforward to see that there is an incentive problem in inducing an agent to do a costly favor when his opponent will not know that such a favor was possible however. Abdulkadiroglu and Bagwell analyze the equilibria in this problem and demonstrate how relatively simple strategies can support significant cooperation. This problem differs from ours in the nature of the asymmetry of information. In the problem Abdulkadiroglu and Bagwell analyze, agents do not know precisely the game they face in any period. If an agent cannot do a favor for his opponent, he does

²⁶See Wilson (2004) and Cover and Hellman (1970) for such models of single-person decision problems and Monte (2007) for a strategic treatment of such models.

²⁷See, e.g., Piccione and Rubinstein (1997).

²⁸We thank Eilon Solan for this observation.

²⁹However, see Altman et. al. (2005).

³⁰Mobius (2001) and Hauser and Hopenhayn (2005) analyze similar models.

not know whether or not his opponent can do a favor for him. But when an agent chooses to do a favor, both agents observe this with no uncertainty. In contrast, in our model agents know precisely the game in any period, but get an imperfect signal of the action taken by their opponent. It is this latter imperfection that makes coordination and cooperation in our framework so difficult.

6. Appendix

Proof of Proposition 1

In what follows, we define $\mu = (1 - q)/q$.

Recall that ϕ_j^D denotes the long run probability that player 2 is in state j when 1 defects at all states and 2 plays σ_2^* . We have: $\phi_N^D = q + (1 - q)(1 - p)\phi_N^D$, implying that

$$\phi_N^D = \frac{q}{1 - (1 - q)(1 - p)} = \frac{1}{1 + \mu p}$$

Similarly we have $\phi_N^C = q + (1 - q)p\phi_N^C$, implying that

$$\phi_N^C = \frac{q}{1 - (1 - q)p} = \frac{1}{1 + \mu(1 - p)}$$

Recall that ϕ_{ij} denote the long-run probability that player 1 is in state $i \in \{U, N\}$ while player 2 is in state j , under the candidate equilibrium σ^* . As we already explained, we have $\phi_{NN} = q + (1 - q)p^2\phi_{NN}$ implying that

$$\phi_{NN} = \frac{q}{1 - (1 - q)p^2} = \frac{1}{1 + \mu(1 - p^2)}$$

Next, we similarly have $\phi_{UN} = (1 - q)(1 - p)\phi_{UN} + (1 - q)p(1 - p)\phi_{NN}$; implying that

$$\phi_{UN} = \frac{\mu p(1 - p)}{1 + \mu p}\phi_{NN},$$

hence:

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_N &= \left(1 + \frac{\mu p(1 - p)}{1 + \mu p}\right)\phi_{NN} = \left(\frac{1 + \mu(1 - p^2) + \mu(2p - 1)}{1 + \mu p}\right)\phi_{NN} \\ &= \phi_N^D(1 + \mu(2p - 1)\phi_{NN}) \end{aligned}$$

These equalities permit to derive the bounds \bar{L} and \underline{L} as a function of μ and p (and to simplify computations, ϕ_{NN}). Specifically,

We have:

$$\bar{L} = \frac{\phi_N}{\phi_N^D} - 1 = \mu(2p - 1)\phi_{NN}.$$

We then use $\phi_N = \phi_N^D(1 + \bar{L})$ and $\underline{L} = \frac{1 - \phi_N}{1 - \phi_N^C} - 1$ to obtain, after some algebra:

$$\underline{L} = \bar{L}p\phi_N^D = \frac{p}{1 + p\mu}\bar{L}$$

This shows that $\underline{L} < \bar{L}$. Besides, since ϕ_{NN} increases with p , and since $\frac{p}{1+p\mu}$ increases with p , both \bar{L} and \underline{L} are increasing functions of p . Q.E.D.

Proof of Proposition 2

We already checked that for any $L \in (\underline{L}, \bar{L})$, neither σ^C nor σ^D are profitable deviations. To complete the proof, we need to check that the strategy $\tilde{\sigma}$ that plays D in N and C in U is not profitable. Call $\tilde{\phi}$ the long run distribution over state profiles. We have:

$$v_1(\tilde{\sigma}, \sigma_2^*) = (1 + L)\tilde{\phi}_{NN} + \tilde{\phi}_{UN} - L\tilde{\phi}_{UU}.$$

Since $v_1(\sigma_1^*, \sigma_2^*) = \phi_N$, the deviation is not profitable whenever (letting $\tilde{\phi}_N = \tilde{\phi}_{NN} + \tilde{\phi}_{UN}$):

$$(\tilde{\phi}_{NN} - \tilde{\phi}_{UU})L < \phi_N - \tilde{\phi}_N$$

Lemma 1: $\phi_N > \tilde{\phi}_N$

Intuitively, under $\tilde{\sigma}$, player 1 plays D in N , triggering player 2 to exit from N . There is a small counterbalancing effect because with probability $(1 - p)^2$ players may end up in UN and play CC . However this is not enough to increase the long-run probability that 2 is in N above ϕ_N .

Lemma 2: There exists \bar{q} such that for all $q < \bar{q}$ and $p \in (1/2, 1)$, $\tilde{\phi}_{NN} < \tilde{\phi}_{UU}$

Intuitively, since player 1 plays D in N , it is relatively easy to exit from NN to NU and then to UU (the probability of such exit is bounded away from 0, uniformly on $p \in (1/2, 1)$), while exit from UU requires an occurrence of the resetting signal z .

Combining these two Lemma implies that under the conditions of Lemma 2, $\tilde{\sigma}$ cannot be a profitable deviation.

To check Lemma 1 formally, let us compute explicitly the long-run probabilities $\tilde{\phi}_{ij}$. The long run probability $\tilde{\phi}_{NN}$ satisfies: $\tilde{\phi}_{NN} = q + (1 - q)p(1 - p)\tilde{\phi}_{NN}$ implying that

$$\tilde{\phi}_{NN} = \frac{q}{1 - (1 - q)p(1 - p)} = \frac{1}{1 + \mu(1 - p(1 - p))}$$

where $\mu = (1 - q)/q$. We similarly have $\tilde{\phi}_{NU} = (1 - q)(1 - p)\tilde{\phi}_{NU} + (1 - q)p^2\tilde{\phi}_{NN}$ implying that

$$\tilde{\phi}_{NU} = \frac{\mu p^2}{1 + \mu p} \tilde{\phi}_{NN},$$

and $\tilde{\phi}_{UN} = (1 - q)p\tilde{\phi}_{UN} + (1 - q)p(1 - p)\tilde{\phi}_{NN}$, implying that

$$\tilde{\phi}_{UN} = \frac{\mu p(1 - p)}{1 + \mu(1 - p)} \tilde{\phi}_{NN},$$

Simple algebra permits to conclude that $\tilde{\phi}_N = \tilde{\phi}_{NN} + \tilde{\phi}_{NU} < \phi_N$. Q.E.D.

Proof of Proposition 3

Consider first the case where each player i follows the strategy σ_i^* that plays C in N and D in U , and let ϕ denote the long-run distribution over states induced by $\sigma^* = (\sigma_1^*, \sigma_2^*)$. By

symmetry, and since the dynamic system has equal chances of exiting from NN as it has of exiting from UU , we have:

$$\phi_{NN} = \phi_{UU} \text{ and } \phi_{NU} = \phi_{UN} \quad (6.1)$$

The value to player 1 from following that strategy is thus

$$\begin{aligned} v_1(\sigma_1^*, \sigma_2^*) &= \phi_{NN} + (1+L)\phi_{UN} - L\phi_{NU} \\ &= \phi_{NN} + \phi_{UN} = \frac{1}{2}(\phi_{NN} + \phi_{UN} + \phi_{NU} + \phi_{UU}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Now if player 1 cooperates in both states (σ^C), player 2 will switch back and forth between states N and U , spending a fraction p of the time in state N . The value to player 1 from following that strategy is thus:

$$v(\sigma^C, \sigma) = p + (1-p)(-L)$$

and it exceeds $1/2$ if

$$p > 1 - \frac{1}{2(1+L)}.$$

If player 1 defects in both states (σ^D), player 2 will again switch back and forth between states N and U , but now spending a fraction $1-p$ of the time in state N . The value to player 1 from following that strategy is thus:

$$v(\sigma^D, \sigma) = (1-p)(1+L)$$

which exceeds $1/2$ as soon as $p < 1 - \frac{1}{2(1+L)}$.

Finally, if player 1 follows the strategy $\hat{\sigma}$ that plays D in N and C in U , then, as above, the dynamic system has equal chances of exiting from (NN) as it has of exiting from (UU) . Therefore, equalities (6.1) hold for the profile $(\hat{\sigma}, \sigma)$, and the value to player 1 from following $\hat{\sigma}$ thus remains equal to $1/2$. It follows that unless $p = 1 - \frac{1}{2(1+L)}$, the strategy profiles (σ, σ) and $(\hat{\sigma}, \sigma)$ cannot be equilibria. Similar considerations show that the strategy profile $(\hat{\sigma}, \hat{\sigma})$ cannot be an equilibrium. As a result, only strategy profiles that are constant across states may be in equilibrium, hence the only equilibrium entails defecting in both states.

Proof of Proposition 4

Consider parameters (p, q, L) for which σ^* is a strict equilibrium. We investigate whether player 1 has a profitable deviation when he puts weight at least $1 - \varepsilon$ on a pure strategy. If player 1 deviates to a strategy nearby σ^C , he obtains a payoff nearby $v_1(\sigma^C, \sigma^*)$, so since σ^* is strict, these deviations cannot be profitable for ε small enough. The same argument applies to σ^D or $\tilde{\sigma}$ (the strategy that plays D in N and C in U).

So we only need to investigate the case where player 1 would put weight $1 - \varepsilon$ on σ^* . Note that because ε is arbitrarily small (so that deviations occur arbitrarily infrequently).

Case 1: deviations to σ^D .

We consider first deviations that put weight ε on σ^D . We call $\sigma_1^{\varepsilon, D}$ that strategy, and $\phi^{\varepsilon, d}$ the long run distribution over state profiles induced by $(\sigma_1^{\varepsilon, D}, \sigma_2^*)$, so that $\phi^{0, d} = \phi$ corresponds

to the long-run distribution induced by σ^* . The condition that $\sigma_1^{\varepsilon, D}$ is not profitable for ε small enough writes as:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} [\phi_{NN}^{\alpha, d} - L\phi_{NU}^{\alpha, d} + (1+L)\phi_{UN}^{\alpha, d}] |_{\alpha=0} + L\phi_N^{0, d} < 0, \quad (6.2)$$

where the first term in this expression characterizes the (adverse) effect on long-run probabilities induced by the deviation, while the second characterizes the extra gain player 1 obtains from playing D (these gains happen when player 2 is in the normal state).

Define $p(\alpha) = p(1-\alpha) + \alpha(1-p) = p - \alpha(2p-1)$. We have $\phi_{NN}^{\alpha, d} = q + (1-q)pp(\alpha)\phi_{NN}^{\alpha, d}$, implying:

$$\phi_{NN}^{\alpha, d} = \frac{1}{1 + \mu p p(\alpha)}$$

We also have $\phi_{NU}^{\alpha, d} = (1-q)[(1-p)\phi_{NU}^{\alpha, d} + (1-p(\alpha))p\phi_{NN}^{\alpha, d}]$, and $\phi_{UN}^{\alpha, d} = (1-q)[(1-p)\phi_{UN}^{\alpha, d} + (p(\alpha))(1-p)\phi_{NN}^{\alpha, d}]$, thus implying:

$$\phi_{NU}^{\alpha, d} = \frac{\mu p(1-p(\alpha))}{1 + \mu p} \phi_{NN}^{\alpha, d} \text{ and } \phi_{UN}^{\alpha, d} = \frac{\mu p(\alpha)(1-p)}{1 + \mu p} \phi_{NN}^{\alpha, d}.$$

It is immediate to check that $\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} [\phi_{UN}^{\alpha, d} - \phi_{NU}^{\alpha, d}] |_{\alpha=0} < 0$, so for (6.2) to hold, it is sufficient that

$$L\phi_N^{0, d} < -\frac{\partial \phi_N^{\alpha, d}}{\partial \alpha} |_{\alpha=0} \quad (6.3)$$

Letting $h(\alpha) = \frac{\mu p(\alpha)(1-p)}{1 + \mu p}$, so that $\phi_N^{\alpha, d} = (1 + h(\alpha))\phi_{NN}^{\alpha, d}$, and $h = h(0)$, we get

$$-\frac{\partial \phi_N^{\alpha, d}}{\partial \alpha} |_{\alpha=0} = -(1+h)\frac{\partial \phi_{NN}^{\alpha, d}}{\partial \alpha} |_{\alpha=0} - h'(0)\phi_{NN}^{\alpha, d}$$

Using $-h'(0) = \frac{\mu(1-p)(2p-1)}{1 + \mu p}$ and $-\frac{\partial \phi_{NN}^{\alpha, d}}{\partial \alpha} = \mu p(2p-1)(\phi_{NN}^{\alpha, d})^2$, inequality (6.3) holds when

$$L < p\mu(2p-1)\phi_{NN} + (1-p)\mu(2p-1)\frac{1}{1 + \mu p}$$

Since $\frac{1}{1 + \mu p} > \frac{1}{1 + \mu p^2} = \phi_{NN}$, expression (6.3) holds a fortiori when

$$L < p(\mu(2p-1)\phi_{NN} = \bar{L})$$

Case 2: Deviations to σ^C .

Using similar notations, the condition that $\sigma_1^{\varepsilon, C}$ is not profitable for ε small enough writes as:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} [\phi_{NN}^{\alpha, c} - L\phi_{NU}^{\alpha, c} + (1+L)\phi_{UN}^{\alpha, c}] |_{\alpha=0} - L\phi_U < 0, \quad (6.4)$$

where the first term in this expression characterizes the (now positive) effect on long-run probabilities induced by the deviation, while the second characterizes the extra loss player 1 obtains from playing C in events where player 2 is in state U .

It is immediate to check that

$$\phi_{NN}^{\alpha,c} = \phi_{NN}^{0,c} = \phi_{NN} \quad \phi_{NU}^{\alpha,c} = \phi_{NU}^{0,c} = \phi_{NU}, \text{ and } \phi_{UN}^{\alpha,c} = \frac{\mu p(1-p)}{1 + \mu(1-p(\alpha))} \phi_{NN}$$

Condition (6.4) is thus equivalent to

$$(1+L) \frac{\partial \phi_{UN}^{\alpha,c}}{\partial \alpha} < L \phi_U$$

Since $\frac{\partial \phi_{UN}^{\alpha,c}}{\partial \alpha} = \frac{\mu(2p-1)}{1+\mu p} \phi_{UN}^{0,c}$, since $\phi_{UN}^{0,c} = \frac{\mu p(1-p)}{1+\mu p} \phi_{NN}^{0,c}$, since $\phi_U = 1 - \phi_{NN} - \phi_{UN}$ and since $1 - \phi_{NN} = \mu(1-p^2) \phi_{NN}$, one obtains

$$L > \underline{\underline{L}} \equiv \frac{\mu p(2p-1)}{(1+\mu p)^2 + \mu p(1+\mu p^2)}$$

Simple algebra shows that for any $p > 1/2$ and $\mu > 0$, $\underline{L} > \underline{\underline{L}}$.³¹

Finally, observe that for deviations to strategies that would put weight on all σ^C , σ^D and $\tilde{\sigma}$, the first order effect for ε small is a combination of the effect characterized above, so these deviations are not profitable either.

Proof of Proposition 5

Assume p is close to 1. Under σ , cooperation phases last $\frac{1}{2(1-p)(1-q)}$ on average (because each player has a chance $(1-p)(1-q)$ of switching to U in each period), and punishment phases last $\frac{1}{q^2}$ (since only in events where both players get signal $z = 1$ at the same date that recoordination on cooperation is possible).³² So for p close enough to 1, the value to following the proposed strategy profile is 1.

Compared to the case where z is public, the incentives to play C at N are unchanged: if player 1 plays D at both states, his opponent will be cooperative once every $1/q$ periods on average, hence the condition

$$L < 1/q - 1 \tag{6.5}$$

still applies.

Incentives to defect at U however are much harder to provide. As before, by cooperating at U , player 1 ensures that a punishment phase is not triggered in the event state profile is UN . But there is another beneficial effect. In the event state profile UU occurs, the punishment phase that follows will last only $1/q$ periods (as simultaneous transition to N is no longer required). So player 1 will only have incentives to defect at U if:

$$\frac{1}{2}L(1/q) > 1/q^2,$$

or equivalently

$$L > 2/q,$$

³¹Recall that $\underline{\underline{L}} = \frac{\mu p(2p-1)}{(1+\mu p)(1+\mu(1-p^2))}$.

³²Omitting terms comparable to $(1-p)$, this is true whether the current state profile is (U,U) , (U,N) or (N,U) .

a condition which is incompatible with inequality (6.5).

Thus strategy σ cannot be an equilibrium: the length of punishment phases is substantially reduced when playing C at U , which makes playing C at U an attractive option.

Recoordination with stochastic tit-for-tat

The analysis in Section 2.4 applies: following the candidate equilibrium strategy σ^* induces a long payoff equal to ϕ_N ; deviating to σ^D generates a payoff equal to $(1+L)\phi_N^D$, and deviating to σ^C generates a payoff equal to $\phi_N^C - L\phi_U^C$. Detering these deviations thus require, as before:

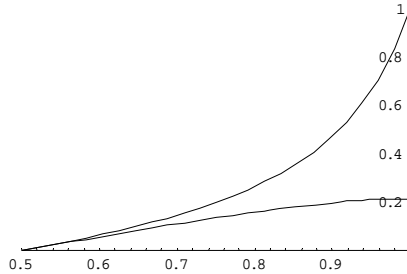
$$\underline{L} = \frac{\phi_U^C}{\phi_N^C} - 1 < L < \bar{L} = \frac{\phi_N^D}{\phi_N} - 1$$

The difference with Section 2.4 however is that the long-run probabilities take different values (they are functions of p, b, k and h), and that these long-run probabilities are more difficult to compute. We state here our main result:

Proposition 6: $\underline{L} < \bar{L}$ if and only if $h < (1-b)k$.

Intuitively, the higher k and the smaller h , the easier it is to recoordinate on state NN from state UU . Indeed, once one player, say player 1, switches to N and cooperates, the other player will be likely to switch to N in the next period if k is large enough. If h is high as well however, then it is quite possible that the player who has initiated a move back to cooperation (i.e. player 1) gets back to state U even before player 2 switches to N , and recoordination does not occur.

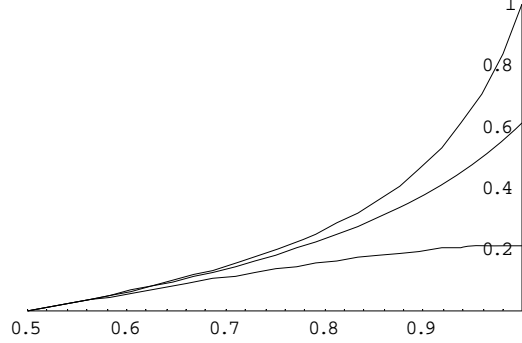
The following graph draws the set of (p, L) for which the two inequalities above are compatible when $h = b = 0.1$ and $k = 0.9$:



Note that this graph gives an equilibrium if we only check for deviations state by state, so that from σ_i^* , only deviations to the strategy σ^C that plays C at all states, and to the strategy σ^D that plays D at all states, are allowed.

If we want to include the possibility that a player deviates to the (manipulative) strategy σ^{DC} that plays C at U and D at N , then another (possibly tighter) upper constraint must hold. Intuitively, it may be profitable for a player to cooperate in U to induce the other to cooperate (this is relatively easy when $k(1-b) > h$), and play D in N to take advantage of the fact that the other player is likely to be in N as well. The following figure adds this new upper constraint to

the set of parameters for which σ^* is an equilibrium. The figure is again drawn for $b = h = 0.1$ and $k = 0.9$.



The middle curve is the new upper constraint that must be satisfied to ensure that σ^{DC} is not a profitable deviation.

Computations: We do not provide here the entire calculation, but only explain the steps that we followed.

We first define the following transition probabilities, as a function of the action (C or D) played by the other player. For transitions from N to U , we let:

$$p_C = \Pr(N \rightarrow U \mid C) \text{ and } p_D = \Pr(N \rightarrow U \mid D)$$

and for transitions from U to N :

$$q_C = \Pr(U \rightarrow N \mid C) \text{ and } q_D = \Pr(U \rightarrow N \mid D)$$

Note that given our assumption about the mental system, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} p_C &= (1-p)h \text{ and } p_D = ph \\ q_C &= b + (1-b)pk \text{ and } q_D = b + (1-b)(1-p)k. \end{aligned}$$

The long-run probabilities ϕ_N^C and ϕ_N^D are simple to compute. We have $\phi_N^C = (1-p_C)\phi_N^C + q_C(1-\phi_N^C)$, which yields:

$$\phi_N^C = \frac{q_C}{q_C + p_C}.$$

Similarly, we have $\phi_N^D = (1-p_D)\phi_N^D + q_D(1-\phi_N^D)$, implying that:

$$\phi_N^D = \frac{q_D}{q_C + p_D}.$$

To compute $\phi_N = \phi_{NN} + \phi_{UN}$, we have to find a probability vector $\phi = (\phi_{NN}, \phi_{NU}, \phi_{UN}, \phi_{UU})$ which is fixed point of:

$$\phi = \phi.M \text{ where } M = \begin{pmatrix} (1-p_C)^2 & (1-p_D)q_C & q_C(1-p_D) & (q_D)^2 \\ (1-p_C)p_C & (1-p_D)(1-q_C) & p_Dq_C & q_D(1-q_D) \\ p_C(1-p_C) & p_Dq_C & (1-p_D)(1-q_C) & (1-q_D)q_D \\ (p_C)^2 & p_D(1-q_C) & p_D(1-q_C) & (1-q_D)^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This was done using Mathematica.

Recoordination with asymmetric mental systems

In this example the two players have different mental systems, each with three states N, U and F . Transitions from N to U are as before. Transitions from U to F are stochastic, depending on independent private signals z_1 and z_2 , $z_i \in \{0, 1\}$ and $\Pr\{z_i = 1\} = q$. For player 2, a transition from F to N requires receiving a good signal, $y_2 = 1$ while for player 1, such a transition is automatic. These transitions are summarized in Figure 12.

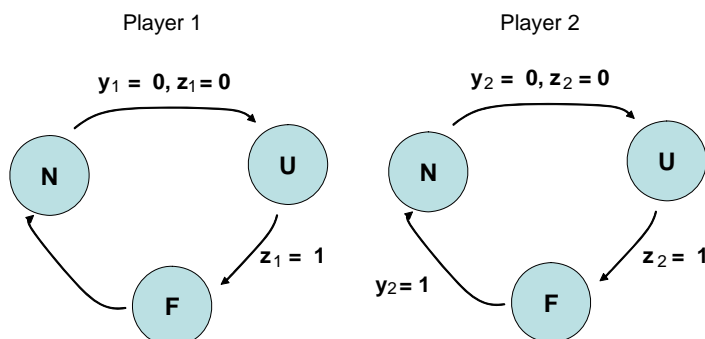


Figure 12: “Successful” independent resetting
Our candidate equilibrium strategy pair is as follows. For player 1,

$$\sigma_1(N) = C, \sigma_1(U) = D \text{ and } \sigma_1(F) = C$$

and for player 2,

$$\sigma_2(N) = C, \sigma_2(U) = D, \sigma_2(F) = D.$$

Intuitively, when the state profile is (N, N) , both players cooperate until one player receives a bad signal and triggers a punishment phase. Once a punishment phase starts, two events may occur: Either player 2 moves to state F before player 1 moves to F (or at least no later than one period after player 2 does). In that case, the most likely event is that players will coordinate back to (N, N) (with probability close to 1).³³ Alternatively, player 1 moves to state F more than one period before player 2 moves to state F . In that case, the most likely event is that players switch to (N, F) or (N, U) , hence coordination back to (N, N) will take longer.

We show here the calculations of the set of $q - L$ combinations that are consistent with cooperation when p is close to 1. We illustrate the main transitions for the state pairs for the case where p is close to 1 and q is small, but not too small:

$$0 < 1 - p \ll q \ll 1.$$

³³This is because once in state profile (G, W) , player 1 plays C and moves to N , while player 2 receives (with probability close to 1) signal $y_2 = 1$, hence also moves to N .

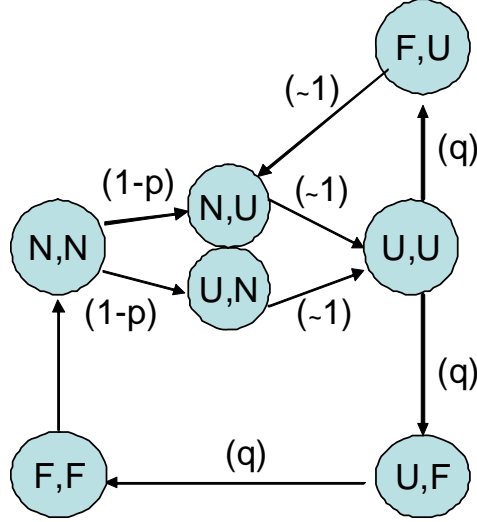


Figure 13: Transition of mental state

As mentioned above, we restrict attention in this example to this case; for the more general case where q is larger, tedious computations are required. We only report graphically the set of $q - L$ combinations for which the proposed strategy profile is an equilibrium (as shown in Figure 13).

Analysis:

When players follow the proposed strategy profile, they alternate between long phases of cooperation (of length $1/\pi$ with $\pi = 2(1 - p)$), and relatively short punishment phases (of approximate length $2/q$).

Incentives for player 1 at U. Under the proposed equilibrium strategy profile, the expected loss that player 1 incurs (compared to being in the cooperative phase) until coordination back to cooperation occurs is approximately $2/q$.³⁴

When player 1 cooperates at U , he avoids triggering a punishment phase in the event (U, N) , so the occurrences of punishment phases are reduced by $1/2$. In addition, punishment phases are shorter, as coordination back to cooperation occurs as soon as player 2 transits to W (hence punishment length is reduced to $1/q$), however they are more costly per period of punishment, as player 1 loses an additional L in each period (compared to the case where he would play D).

³⁴The exact cost is larger because there are a few periods in which player 1 cooperates while player 2 still defects. A better approximation of the cost is $2/q + \frac{1}{2} + 3(1 + L)$. To see this, compute, conditional on being in (U, U) , the expected loss that player 1 incurs (compared to being in the cooperative phase) until coordination back to cooperation occurs. We denote by Δ that loss. We have:

$$\Delta = 1 + q[2(1 + L) + \Delta] + q[1/q + 1 + L] + (1 - 2q)\Delta$$

or equivalently:

$$\Delta = \frac{2}{q} + 3(1 + L)$$

Because there is equal chance of going to UU through NU or UN , the expected loss from a punishment phase is:

$$\frac{1}{2}(1 + L) + \frac{1}{2}(-L) + \Delta = \frac{1}{2} + \Delta$$

The condition is thus:

$$\frac{2}{q} < \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{q} \right) (1 + L)$$

or equivalently:

$$L > 3.$$

Incentives of player 2 at N: Defection generates short periods of cooperation (cooperation lasts 2 periods), during which player 2 gains an additional payoff of L , and long periods of punishment (that last $1/q$ periods) during which player 2 loses 1. Hence the condition

$$2L < \frac{1}{q}.$$

We omit the verification of the other incentives, which are easily checked and automatically satisfied. **QED**

In the case that p is close to 1, cooperation can be sustained for the q and L combinations in the shaded region in figure 13 below.

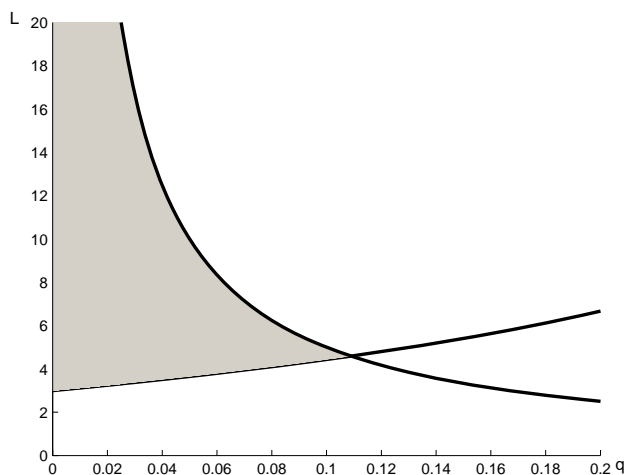


Figure 14: Values of q and L for which cooperation is possible (for p close to 1).

The key difference with the previous analysis is that players no longer simultaneously switch back to cooperation (because there is no public signal to allow that). Intuitively, incentives to play C at F are easy to provide for player 1: When player 1 is in F , the other player has a non negligible chance (approximately equal to $1/2$ if q is small) of being in F as well, hence playing C in F , though costly, generates a substantial chance of resetting cooperation. In contrast, incentives to play C at U are much weaker: playing C at U would also allow player 1 to reset cooperation in the event of a breakdown, but this would be a very costly strategy as it requires player 1 to possibly cooperate during many periods before player 2 switches back to N .

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