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Labels for Misbehavior in a Population
with Short-Run Players

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Abstract

This paper studies how an information mechanism that labels defectors can sustain cooperative behavior in communities containing a subset of short-run players. This is done in the context of a repeated Prisoner's Dilemma game. The paper presents sufficient conditions for a sustainable equilibrium under different information technologies that identify defectors. It also analyzes imperfect labeling mechanisms.

Resumen

Este trabajo analiza cómo un mecanismo de información que identifica a quienes no cooperan puede sostener un comportamiento cooperativo en comunidades que contienen un subconjunto de jugadores de corto plazo. Esto se realiza en el contexto de un juego de Dilema del Prisionero repetido. El trabajo presenta condiciones suficientes para sostener un equilibrio cooperativo bajo diferentes tecnologías de información que identifican a quienes no cooperan. También analiza mecanismos de identificación imperfectos.

Labels for Misbehavior in a Population With Short-Run Players.

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Abstract

This paper studies how an information mechanism that labels defectors can sustain cooperative behavior in communities containing a subset of short-run players. This is done in the context of a repeated Prisoner's Dilemma game. The paper presents sufficient conditions for a sustainable equilibrium under different information technologies that identify defectors. It also analyzes imperfect labeling mechanisms.

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1 Introduction

The world of the twenty-first century is replete with information on our individual identities, quite pervasive and readily available for the purpose of encouraging transactions between otherwise anonymous strangers. People carry credit cards and membership cards and analyze with diligence and care available ratings and reports and their credit history. It appears that all this information and its maintenance serve to enable transactions by promoting trust. However, even in Internet markets where information is free and accessible, fraud is still common.¹ It is not clear whether or how all this information affects the number of transactions among strangers, either those concluded successfully or unsuccessful and aborted.

It is well known that community enforcement can sustain cooperation even when agents only count on their own experience to make decisions. Social norms may sustain cooperative outcomes when transactions among members are infrequent even in the absence of information. A key feature of such norms is the threat of sanctions by future partners to deter dishonest behavior. If, however, the transactions of some agents in the society are not only infrequent but also unique then there is no reason to expect cooperation from those members. Disruption created by such agents undermines the ability of the remaining long-run players to cooperate.² In this cases, the availability of information besides own experience is essential.

In this paper, I explore the role of information in a population with long and short-run players. In particular, I allow for an information technology that resembles the case of bad ratings attached to participants in an Internet market. There is a mechanism that attaches labels to those who misbehave. I study the plausibility of cooperation among unlabeled players even when they are unable to distinguish between long and short-run players. To simplify the analysis, I consider a repeated Prisoner's Dilemma game with random matching.

Cooperation can be sustained even with very limited information when

¹Bolton, Katok, Ockenfels (2004) refer to a research group GartnerG2 report concluding that fraud is 12 times higher in internet transactions.

²As shown in Moscoso Boedo 2007.

a large population of players is randomly matched. Examples of such results include Kandori (1992), Okuno-Fujiwara and Postlewaite (1995), Ellison (1994), Harrington (1995), Ahn and Suominen (2001), and Möller (2005). In particular, Kandori (1992) proves a Folk Theorem with a labeling mechanism that allows to vary punishment lengths. Okuno-Fujiwara and Postlewaite (1995) also assume that players possess observable labels and that this information enables cooperation. Ellison (1994) allows for a public randomization device. All these papers analyze homogeneous populations. Ghosh and Ray (1996) consider a model with heterogeneous agents, but they depart from uniform random matching. The effects of having Internet feedback mechanisms have also been studied. In particular Bolton et al. (2004) conducted experiments to analyze the enhancement of trade supported by internet feedback and the importance of information in settings with different cooperation costs.

Before continuing on to the model, it is worth noting that the difficulty created by short-run players disappears in an environment where players' types can be identified. For example, in small communities, where members know and observe each other's behavior, the presence of newcomers is easily detected and cooperation can be sustained. In particular, equilibrium strategies allow agents to play a *cooperative* strategy against long-run players and a *myopic* strategy against short-run players. This paper focuses on the more interesting settings in which information is imperfect and labels only depend on agent's misbehavior, resulting in newcomers not being identifiable before they act.

In the first part of the paper I consider an information technology that punishes players for their actions irrespective of the transaction in which they engaged. This labeling mechanism is unappealing because any defection generates a contagious process that destroys cooperation in the whole society. I restrict attention to straightforward equilibrium³ and show that the presence of short-run players prevents cooperation in equilibrium with this mechanism.

Next, I consider a technology that monitors transactions. I apply the labeling mechanism proposed by Kandori (1992) to my setting and show

³Definition 2 on Page 72 of Kandori (1992).

the set of restrictions that need to be satisfied in equilibrium. When non-cooperative players are present, long-run players need to be more patient. Besides, given that in equilibrium defection occurs, the loss when cheated cannot be too large.

Finally, I allow for errors in the information technologies. I study the effect of two kinds of mistakes: a mechanism that sometimes labels *innocent* players and one that sometimes forgets to label *guilty* players. These two kinds of mistakes impose different requirements in order to sustain cooperation. I show a rationale for caring more about the first error, which is more disruptive of cooperation.

The rest of paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the specific example that will be used throughout the paper. Section 3 presents the notation in the case of a homogeneous population of only long-run players. Section 4 provides the restrictions that need to be satisfied to sustain cooperation among unlabeled members of the society for different information technologies when there are short-run players present. Section 5 shows how the results change when the labeling mechanism is not perfect. The last section concludes.

2 The Model

For the remainder of the paper, I analyze the model described below.

There is a population of M players, where M is an even number. S of the players are short-run. In each period, players are randomly matched into pairs to play a Prisoner's Dilemma game. The matching rule is uniform and independent across periods with:

$$\Pr \{ \mu(i, t) = j \mid h_{t-1} \} = \frac{1}{M-1}, \quad \forall j \neq i, \forall h_{t-1},$$

where the function $\mu(i, t)$ represents the opponent of player i at time t . In each period S new short-run players enter the game to replace the last period short-run players who leave. Thus, the probability that a long-run player faces a short-run player in a given period is $\rho = \frac{S}{M-1}$.

K denotes the number of defectors from a given strategy and $\kappa = \frac{K}{M-1}$, is the probability that a non-defector faces a defector.

In each period, agents play a Prisoner's Dilemma stage game. Letting $l > 0$ denote the loss when cheated and $g > 0$ the gain from defection, the payoff matrix is as depicted in the figure:

		<i>Player j</i>	
		<i>C</i>	<i>NC</i>
<i>Player i</i>	<i>C</i>	1, 1	-l, 1 + g
	<i>NC</i>	1 + g, -l	0, 0

Short-run players enter the game only for one period. They have a discount factor of zero, given they do not care about the future and play only the myopic best response, *NC*. In contrast, long-run players are concerned about the future and maximize the expected lifetime utility given their common discount factor $\delta \in (0, 1)$. In each period long-runs decide whether to cooperate (*C*) or defect (*NC*).

There is an information technology available, i.e., a labeling mechanism, that is exogenous and trustworthy. It follows a publicly known rule that attaches labels to agents and is independent of players' willingness to provide feedback. This mechanism can only assign a label or not assign it. Given this, player i' status can only be: L_i (labeled) or U_i (unlabeled). The labeling rule that defines each mechanism depends only on players' current actions and on their previous period labels. The mechanism cannot ex-ante identify long-run or short-run players. In this paper, I consider two kind of mechanisms: one that monitor players' actions and another that monitors whole transactions. In addition, I also consider the case in which the labeling works imperfectly, perhaps forgetting to penalize bad behavior or mistakenly penalizing good behavior.

3 Benchmark: No Short-Run Players

In this section I introduce the different labeling mechanisms in a setting with only long-run players. This section follows Kandori (1992) and it is useful in building intuition and introducing the notation.

I restrict attention to a mechanism that can assign a label to each player i conditional on the previous period labels and actions of i and $\mu(i, t)$. I assume that a label is a sign of misbehavior. The restriction to one label implies that the mechanism either assigns the label forever after one defection or assigns it for only one period. For each mechanism, I am interested in the sustainability of cooperative behavior among unlabeled opponents.

3.1 Mechanism That Monitors Actions

First I consider a mechanism that only monitors actions as opposed to monitoring transactions and that assigns labels to any defecting player. In this case the labeling function is given by:

$$\tau_i(\omega_i, a) = \begin{cases} U & \text{if } \omega_i = U_i \text{ and } a_i = C \\ L & \text{else,} \end{cases}$$

where ω_i is a possible status for player i : U_i or L_i , and $a_i = C$ is the cooperative action taken by i . In this case, once a player defects he gets a label forever. A mechanism that only considers $a_i = C$ and ignores ω_i , assigns the labels just for one period.

The timing is as follows. Each player enters the game unlabeled, observes his opponent's label and afterwards chooses an action. I consider the unforgiving contagious strategy: *Cooperate with unlabeled players, defect against labeled people. Once you are labeled, defect forever.*

To verify that this strategy supports a cooperative outcome, I need to check that:

1. (C) against unlabeled people is better than (NC) : $V_i^C(U_i, U_j) \geq V_i^{NC}(U_i, U_j)$.
2. (NC) against labeled people is better than (C) : $V_i^{NC}(U_i, L_j) \geq V_i^C(U_i, L_j)$
3. (NC) once you are labeled is better than (C) : $V_i^{NC}(L_i) \geq V_i^C(L_j)$

Restriction 1 implies that when labels are permanent, this strategy is a Nash Equilibrium as long as $\delta \geq \frac{g}{1+g}$.

Off the equilibrium path, the strategy asks players to cooperate against unlabeled opponents for any beliefs regarding the amount of labeled players in the population. I denote $b_i(K)$ player i 's belief that there are K defectors in the population.⁴ After any history in which labeled players have been seen, the beliefs regarding the amount of labeled players in the economy converges to one.⁵ Thus, for some histories, this strategy asks players to cooperate against unlabeled opponents even under the belief that there are $K = M - 2$ labeled players in the community. In a sequential equilibrium :

$$\begin{aligned} V_i^C(U_i, U_j, M - 2) &\geq V_i^{NC}(U_i, U_j, M - 2) \\ \frac{1}{1 - \frac{\delta}{M-2}} &\geq 1 + g \\ \delta &\geq \frac{g}{1 + g}(M - 2). \end{aligned}$$

For this condition to hold, g has to be low relative to the size of the population ($g < \frac{1}{M-3}$).

For Restriction 2, given that in this scenario $V_i(L_i) = 0$, the current loss for facing a defector needs to be lower than the gain for staying labeled in the community: $l \geq \delta V_i(U_i|K)$. The value of being unlabeled when there are K labeled depends on the probability of meeting unlabeled players each consecutive period.⁶ $V_i(U_i|K)$ is the weighted sum of the probabilities of meeting an unlabeled player each consecutive period given that there are K labeled players. It is independent of l and is bounded above by one. It is sufficient to have $l \geq \delta$.

Restriction 3 is satisfied as long as $l > 0$.

⁴The value of taking any action a depends on this belief: $V_i^a(\omega_i, \omega_j, b_i(K))$.

⁵This is a contagious process. Once triggered, it affects the whole population with probability one (Moscoso Boedo (2007)).

⁶Following Kandori's (1992) paper, let's define the diffusion Markov matrix A , of dimension $(M \times M)$. Define X_t as the number of non-cooperative players at time t . Then each element of the matrix is defined by $a_{ij} = \Pr(X_{t+1} = j | X_t = i)$. Notice that $a_{ij} = 0$ for all $(j \leq i)$, for all j odd and for all $j \geq 2i$. Matrix A has a unique absorbent state, which occurs when all M players are non-cooperative. Define $\tau = \frac{1}{M-1}(M-1, M-2, M-3, \dots, 1, 0)^T$ a column vector of dimension $(M \times 1)$. The i th element of τ represents the conditional probability that a non-cooperative player meets a cooperative player given that there are $[M - i]$ cooperative players in the economy. In addition we define e_i to be the $[1 \times M]$ row vector with i th element 1 and zeros everywhere else. Then the restriction becomes: $l \geq e_1 \tau [(I - \delta A)^{-1} - I]$.

This information mechanism is unable to distinguish defectors from players forced to punish a labeled opponent. It induces a contagious process after any defection. Nevertheless, when agents are sufficiently patient, there are payoffs and population sizes for which this strategy is an equilibrium strategy. The unappealing feature of this strategy is that any tremble (deviation) triggers the contagion of the labeling mechanism, destroying cooperation in the population.⁷

The previous information mechanism which only monitors actions is unappealing. The extra information does not allow players to punish deviators without punishing themselves by getting a label. Even when deviators are identified in the population, their existence triggers a contagious process of labels.

3.2 Mechanism That Monitors Transactions

I will now proceed to show the conditions under which a mechanism that monitors transactions is able to sustain cooperation among unlabeled players. As in the previous section, players have two sources of information, their own history and the labels. I look for strategies that only use the information contained in the labels. This section follows Kandori (1992), Section 5.

The information mechanism attaches one period labels to defecting players. When player i meets opponent j , the relevant states are $\omega = \{U_i U_j, U_i L_j, L_i U_j, L_i L_j\}$, with $\omega_i = \{U_i, L_j\}$. For each player the available actions are $a_i = \{C, NC\}$. The mechanism is described by:

$$\tau_i(\omega, a_i) = \begin{cases} U & \text{if } a_i = \sigma_i(\omega) \\ L & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

Strategies using this extra capacity of the mechanism require actions that depend on the state which is affected by the opponent's status.

⁷If we had a public randomization device to forgive players, making the labels not perpetual, then we could sustain an equilibrium for any population size and any payoffs as long as players are sufficiently patient. This is a straightforward application of Ellison's 1994 result. In this case, the equilibrium is robust to trembles.

For this mechanism, I consider the strategy *Cooperate against unlabeled opponents and defect against labeled ones*:

$$\sigma_i(\omega) = \begin{cases} C & \text{if } \omega_j = U_j \\ NC & \text{if } \omega_j = L_j. \end{cases}$$

This is an equilibrium strategy if:

1. (C) against unlabeled people is better than (NC)

$$\begin{aligned} V_i^C(U_i, U_j) &\geq V_i^{NC}(U_i, U_j), \\ V_i^C(L_i, U_j) &\geq V_i^{NC}(L_i, U_j). \end{aligned}$$

2. (NC) against labeled people is better than (C)

$$\begin{aligned} V_i^{NC}(U_i, L_j) &\geq V_i^C(U_i, L_j), \\ V_i^{NC}(L_i, L_j) &\geq V_i^C(L_i, L_j). \end{aligned}$$

When facing a labeled opponent, the strategy is asking i to defect and thus enjoy a current and future gain.⁸ These two restrictions are always satisfied. The first two are the restrictive conditions. The first one is:

$$\begin{aligned} V_i^C(U_i, U_j) &\geq V_i^{NC}(U_i, U_j) \\ 1 + \frac{\delta}{(1-\delta)} &\geq 1 + g + \delta(-l) + \frac{\delta^2}{(1-\delta)} \\ \delta &\geq \frac{g}{1+l}. \end{aligned}$$

The second one is:

$$\begin{aligned} V_i^C(L_i, U_j) &\geq V_i^{NC}(L_i, U_j) \\ -l + \delta \frac{1}{1-\delta} &\geq 0 \\ \delta &\geq \frac{l}{1+l}. \end{aligned}$$

In this mechanism deviators are forgiven after one period of good behavior. The proposed strategy is an equilibrium whenever $\delta \geq \frac{\max\{g, l\}}{1+l}$ and

⁸This is true when the value of being labeled in the future is larger than the value of being unlabeled.

$g \leq (1 + l)$. When the gain from deviation is too large, punishment periods need to be longer to sustain cooperation among unlabeled opponents .

An alternative labeling mechanism assigns permanent labels (infinite punishment periods) and does not monitor transactions when they involve labeled players. This mechanism is unforgiving, and consequently beliefs regarding the number of labeled players in the population are again relevant. Off the equilibrium path, after any history where an unlabeled player encountered labeled players, beliefs when meeting an unlabeled opponent have to be that there is at least one cooperating player. Thus, a sufficient restriction in equilibrium is:

$$\delta \geq \frac{g}{1 + g - \frac{M-2}{M-1}}.$$

With homogeneous agents, the two mechanisms sustain cooperation for some values of g, l and δ . The unforgiving mechanism entails the negative aspect that after a deviation, players need to be willing to cooperate against unlabeled opponents no matter their belief regarding the number of deviators.

4 Perfect Mechanisms With Short-Runs

This section applies the previously presented plausible mechanisms to a setting with short-run players. The aim is to understand whether each mechanism allows the sustainability of cooperation among permanent members of a society by identifying defectors. With no information technology, the presence of short-run players prevents cooperation among long-run players (Moscoso Boedo (2007)). I here introduce informational mechanisms that resemble the negative reports non-cooperative participants get in an Internet market. First, I consider an informational technology that assigns labels to any non-cooperative players. Secondly, I consider a mechanism that monitors transactions and labels only players who defect against an unlabeled opponent or who failed to repent when required.

All players, including short-runs, enter the game unlabeled. Under both information technologies a label identifies a long-run player who has deviated. In contrast, the type of an unlabeled opponent is uncertain: He could be

either a cooperative long-run player or a short-run player. Thus, if a long-run player cooperates with unlabeled opponents he needs to be willing to accept some periods of loss, as in those when he meets a short-run. This implies that the payoff is at most $\rho(-l) + (1 - \rho)$. This payoff is individually rational if it is positive, imposing a restriction on the payoffs when cheated $l : l \leq \frac{1-\rho}{\rho}$. An increase in the proportion of short-runs (ρ increases) results in a tighter restriction on l . In the limit, if all players are short-runs, there is no positive l that can sustain cooperation.

4.1 Labels Following Any Non-Cooperative Behavior

I first consider a technology that assigns labels forever to those who play NC . Labels in this setting are analogous to bad reports. Any player who does not cooperate gets a label. Therefore, all short-run players get a label which is irrelevant given that they leave the game after one period. All short-runs leave the game labeled.

The timing is as follows. Each player observes his own and his opponent's label before choosing an action. Consider the unforgiving contagious strategy: *Cooperate with unlabeled players, defect against labeled players. Once you are labeled, defect forever.*

In equilibrium the following conditions hold:

1. If unlabeled, (C) against unlabeled people is better than (NC) ,
2. If unlabeled, (NC) against labeled people is better than (C) ,
3. (NC) once you are labeled is better than (C) .

Conditions 2 and 3 are satisfied as long as $l > 0$.

For Condition 1, the beliefs regarding the number of deviators are taken into account. Define $\kappa = \frac{K}{M-1}$ to be the probability that an unlabeled player meets a deviator in the economy. Notice that off the equilibrium path, if an unlabeled player has seen a labeled opponent in the past, the amount of unlabeled opponents in the society approaches the number of short-run players: $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (\#U | h_t = L_j) = S$. Hence, for any unlabeled player i :

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} b_i(\#U | h_{ti} = L_j, U_i) = S - 1$$

If player i is unlabeled but saw a labeled opponent in the past, he has to believe that any unlabeled opponent he meets is a short-run player. Any deviation results in assigning probability one to this belief. This implies that the proposed strategy is not an equilibrium strategy. Under the belief that any unlabeled opponent is a short-run, the best response for a long-run player i is to defect, even when his opponent is unlabeled. The contagious process of labels starts with probability one given short-runs' behavior, and this shuts down cooperation among long-runs. An alternative strategy that keeps track of own histories (such as *cooperate against labeled opponents if you have not seen a labeled opponent, defect otherwise*) solves this problem but is not a straightforward equilibrium⁹.

The previous strategy is a Nash Equilibrium when:

$$\delta \geq \frac{g(1-\rho) - \rho l}{(1+g)(1-\rho)}.$$

Even on the equilibrium path players need to be patient enough in order to ignore some periods of losses due to the presence of short-run players.

4.2 Labels Following Defection Against a Cooperative Player

In this subsection I consider Kandori's information mechanism as introduced in Section 3.2. I show the conditions under which a strategy that asks players to cooperate against unlabeled opponents, defect against labeled ones, and repent when labeled¹⁰ supports a sequential equilibrium. In contrast with the technology of the previous section, this technology monitors not only behavior but also outcomes of the game. An intuitive explanation for this kind of behavior is that only cooperative players take the time to fill in a complaint. With this mechanism, everybody in the game is unlabeled unless they defected against someone who cooperated or fail to repent.

⁹In this strategy, players labels do not provide all the relevant information to make a decision: players also need to take into account their own history.

¹⁰In this game a labeled player repents by choosing to cooperate when an the unlabeled opponent does not cooperate against him. There is a current loss in the repentance process taken in order to be unlabeled again.

In this setting I consider the same unforgiving strategy as before: *Cooperate with unlabeled people, defect against labeled people*. The labeling mechanism is:

$$\tau_i(\omega, a_i) = \begin{cases} U & \text{if } a_i = \sigma_i(\omega) \\ L & \text{else,} \end{cases}$$

and the strategy:

$$\sigma_i(\omega) = \begin{cases} C & \text{if } \omega_j = U_j \\ NC & \text{if } \omega_j = L_j. \end{cases}$$

This is an equilibrium strategy if:

1. (C) against unlabeled people is better than (NC)

$$\begin{aligned} V_i^C(U_i, U_j) &\geq V_i^{NC}(U_i, U_j) \\ V_i^C(L_i, U_j) &\geq V_i^{NC}(L_i, U_j) \end{aligned}$$

2. (NC) against labeled people is better than (C)

$$\begin{aligned} V_i^{NC}(U_i, L_j) &\geq V_i^C(U_i, L_j) \\ V_i^{NC}(L_i, L_j) &\geq V_i^C(L_i, L_j) \end{aligned}$$

In the second set of conditions player i recognizes his opponent is a long-run player, and the strategy requires i to enjoy a present and future gain. Naturally, those are satisfied in equilibrium.

For the first restriction, I denote $\tilde{\rho}$ the probability of meeting a short-run conditional on meeting an unlabeled player. When there are labeled players in the population $\tilde{\rho}$ is larger than ρ . The restriction becomes :

$$\begin{aligned} V_i^C(U_i, U_j) &\geq V_i^{NC}(U_i, U_j) \\ \delta &\geq \frac{(1 - \tilde{\rho})g + \tilde{\rho}l}{(1 - \rho)(1 + l)}. \end{aligned}$$

The second restriction, which asks a labeled player to cooperate in repentance, is:

$$\begin{aligned} V_i^C(L_i, U_j) &\geq V_i^{NC}(L_i, U_j) \\ \delta &\geq \frac{l}{(1 - \rho)(1 + l)}. \end{aligned}$$

When $g \leq l$ the second condition is binding. It still needs to be the case that $l \leq \frac{(1-\rho)}{\rho}$, which also ensures $\delta < 1$ and there is no equilibrium as ρ tends to one.

If $g > l$, the worst case scenario occurs when $\tilde{\rho} = \rho$, thus the restriction becomes:

$$g \leq \frac{(1-\rho) + l(1-2\rho)}{(1-\rho)}.$$

In this case, $l \leq \frac{(1-\rho)}{\rho}$ ensures that the restriction implies a positive g ¹¹. In both cases, the loss when meeting a short-run has to be sufficiently low. This equilibrium is satisfied for a much more restricted set of payoffs than in the case with $\rho = 0$.

The payoffs for which these restrictions are satisfied are: $l \in (0, \frac{1-\rho}{\rho}]$. If $g \leq l$, then $g \in (0, \frac{1-\rho}{\rho}]$, but if $g > l$, then $g \in (1, \frac{1}{\rho}]$. Thus, the higher the proportion of short-run in the economy, the smaller the set of payoffs for which this strategy sustains an equilibrium.

So far, by restricting attention to one-period punishments, I get a set of payoffs with an associated discount factor in which this is supported. Changing punishment lengths would allow the sustainability of equilibria for any payoffs $v_i \in [0, (1-\rho-\rho l)]$ ¹². If there are too many short-run players in a population and the loss when cheated is large, then cooperation cannot be sustained with an information technology that is unable to identify short-run players.

If the information mechanism assigns permanent labels to misbehavior even when it monitors transactions, the existence of short-runs results in a plausible off the equilibrium history in which payer i believes that all unlabeled players are short-runs. Under this belief i 's best response is to defect. This strategy cannot sustain cooperation.

¹¹For $\rho \leq \frac{1}{2}$, the restriction is always positive. For $\rho > \frac{1}{2}$ it is required that $l \leq \frac{(1-\rho)}{2\rho-1}$ which is satisfied whenever $l \leq \frac{(1-\rho)}{\rho}$.

¹²The proof is in Kandori 1992 but the result in the setting of this paper still depends on l to make payoffs individually rational.

5 Imperfect Mechanisms With Short-Runs

In this section, I consider an imperfect mechanism that monitors transactions and punishes deviators for only one period. Two types of errors are analyzed, not labeling a guilty player with probability α or labeling an innocent one with probability β . I study the restrictions that need to be satisfied for the previous section's strategy to be an equilibrium strategy.

A mechanism that makes the error α is extra-forgiving, sometimes a deviator is not penalized. This error reduces the costs of a deviation because it reduces the punishment when deviating. The relevant restrictions become:

$$\delta(1 - \alpha) \geq \frac{\max\{l, (1 - \tilde{\rho})g + \tilde{\rho}l\}}{(1 - \rho)(1 + l)}.$$

The possibility of a mistake in this scenario is only requiring players to be more patient than before. The previous restriction on the discount factor is now the one applied to a discount factor modified by the probability of not making a mistake $(1 - \alpha)$.

Error β characterizes a mechanism that is extremely unconfident and penalizes even those who behave according to the specified strategy.

Under this error, the two restrictions imply that:

$$\delta(1 - \beta)[V_i(U_i) - V_i(L_i)] > \max\{l, (1 - \tilde{\rho})g + \tilde{\rho}l\}$$

so:

$$\delta(1 - \beta) \geq \frac{\max\{l, (1 - \tilde{\rho})g + \tilde{\rho}l\}}{(1 - \rho)((1 - \beta)(1 + l) + \beta(1 + g))}.$$

Error β affects the discount rate differently. As it implies that sometimes innocent players are labeled, the payoffs g is relevant on the equilibrium path. This affects the payoffs negatively, making the restriction on δ sharper.

5.1 Types of Errors to Avoid

A relevant question when designing a labeling mechanism is which of the previous two types of mistakes is more important to avoid. Two aspects can be considered for the comparison, the restrictions imposed on δ and the payoffs along the equilibrium path.

Regarding the restrictions on δ :

- if $l = g$, both errors impose the same requirements on δ
- if $l > g$, the β error is worst
- if $l < g$, the α error is worst.

The intuition is straightforward. If the payoff for defecting is large, then an error by the mechanism that lowers the punishment when deviating is less likely to sustain cooperation. On the other hand, if the repentance payment or the loss when meeting a short-run is too high, then a mechanism that forces players to repent by making mistakes will find it more difficult to support cooperation.

Regarding the payoff along the equilibrium path, with error α , it is:

$$V_i^C(U_i, \alpha) = \frac{\rho(-l) + (1 - \rho)}{1 - \delta}.$$

This payoff is the same as with the perfectly functioning mechanism. By cooperation you can sometimes face a short-run, which is costly.

Error β implies a payoff given by:

$$V_i^C(U_i, \beta) = \frac{\rho(-l) + (1 - \rho) + (1 - \rho)\beta[g - \delta(1 + g\beta + l(1 - \beta))]}{1 - \delta}.$$

In this case, the payoff is affected by the probability of being incorrectly labeled and of meeting an innocent opponent incorrectly labeled. Notice that if $l = g$ and $\delta \rightarrow 1$, then the numerator is lower in the case with β error than in the case with α error.

Internet feedback mechanisms are more concerned with avoiding false bad labels than with monitoring the veracity of good ones. In this setting good labels means not having a label. Focusing on the consequences of the previous model, this behavior suggests that the β error is a more costly mistake. Thus, the costs when cheated might be larger than the gain from punishment. In a mechanism that only monitors actions, the β error is the most costly because it triggers a contagious process in labels that destroys cooperation.

6 Conclusions

In this paper, I have presented a model of random pairwise interactions in a large population of agents who play a Prisoner's Dilemma stage game and get information from a labeling mechanism that identifies defectors. I have shown how the inclusion of a short-run player makes the sustainability of a cooperative outcome more complex. Short-run players disguise as cooperative players in the population. When only one label provides information, long-run players need to be more patient, and the loss when meeting a short-run has to be relatively low. Furthermore, the presence of short-run players results in the collapse of a cooperative strategy based on a system that monitors players actions instead of transactions.

My model is an application of Kandori's (1992) model. In that paper, a Folk theorem for a matching game with homogenous agents and a labeling mechanism was proven. The ability of the information mechanism to adjust punishment lengths is essential for Kandori's result. In this paper I have restricted attention to a mechanism with only one label. I have shown how the presence of short-run players results in more restrictive conditions on discount rates and players' payoffs. In addition, I have studied the effects of having an imperfect labeling mechanism. When *innocent* players are mistakenly labeled the set of parameters that sustain cooperation is further restricted. In many settings this kind of mistake is more detrimental for cooperation than forgetting to label a *guilty* player.

While this paper analyzed the effects of an informational technology that identifies defectors in an economy with heterogeneous players, some interesting questions are still unanswered. First, a strategy that sustains cooperation for any set of parameters in a population with short-run players and labels for misbehavior remains to be defined. Second, the effect of having a mechanism with more labels, i.e. longer punishment periods or labels for good and bad behavior, may be crucial. Finally, in an attempt to explain the functioning of Internet feedback, it would be interesting to study the functioning of an endogenous mechanism that depends on players willingness to provide feedback.

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