

STRATEGIC COMMUNICATION WITH LYING COSTS

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ABSTRACT. I develop a model of strategic communication between an informed Sender and an uninformed Receiver, where the Sender bears a cost of lying, or more broadly, of misrepresenting his private information in certain ways. The main results show that inflated language naturally arises in this environment, where the Sender (almost) always claims to be a higher type than he would under complete information. Regardless of the intensity of lying cost, there is incomplete separation, with some pooling on the highest messages. How much information is revealed depends upon the intensity of lying cost. The analysis delivers a framework to span a class of cheap talk and verifiable disclosure games, unifying the orthogonal predictions they make under large conflicts of interest.

Date: January 5, 2008 (First version: November 2003).

Key words and phrases. Cheap Talk, Signaling, Misreporting, Exaggeration, Inflated Language, Disclosure, Persuasion.

This paper subsumes portions of an earlier manuscript circulated as “Information Transmission with Almost-Cheap Talk.” The other parts of that manuscript are now superseded by “Selecting Cheap-Talk Equilibria,” with Ying Chen and Joel Sobel.

I am indebted to my Ph.D. advisors, Doug Bernheim and Steve Tadelis, for their generous advice and support when this research began. I am grateful to Vince Crawford and, especially, Joel Sobel for encouragement and numerous conversations. I thank David Ahn, Nageeb Ali, Yeon-Koo Che, Peter Hammond, Cristóbal Huneus, Jon Levin, Mikko Packalen, Ilya Segal, Jeroen Swinkels, Bob Wilson, and a number of seminar and conference audiences for helpful comments. It is my pleasure to acknowledge financial support from a John M. Olin Summer Research Fellowship, a Humane Studies Fellowship, the National Science Foundation, and the Institute for Advanced Study at Princeton. I also thank the Institute for its hospitality.

1. INTRODUCTION

The strategic transmission of private information plays an important role in many areas of economics and political science. Most theoretical studies can be usefully classified into the following two categories. One set of models, initiated by Grossman (1981) and Milgrom (1981), assumes that information is verifiable and agents cannot lie, sometimes referred to as games of “persuasion” or “verifiable disclosure.” The second set, pioneered by Crawford and Sobel (1982) and Green and Stokey (2007, circulated in 1981), assumes that information is unverifiable and an agent can lie arbitrarily without direct costs, typically referred to as games of “cheap talk.”

These are two extremes in a continuum of possibilities. Rather than lying—synonymous in this paper with misrepresentation or misreporting—being completely costless or prohibitively costly, reality sometimes lies in between: individuals can and do misrepresent private information, but bear some cost in doing so. These costs arise for various reasons in applications. First, there may be probabilistic ex-post state verification resulting in direct penalties if an agent is caught misreporting, such as a taxpayer running the risk of a random audit (e.g. Allingham and Sandmo, 1972). Second, there may be opportunity costs of falsifying a message, such as when a manager has to spend time “cooking the numbers” or inefficiently reallocating resources in order to report higher profits (e.g. Lacker and Weinberg, 1989). Third, recent experimental work suggests that in some settings, people have an intrinsic aversion to lying, even though messages are *prima facie* cheap talk (Gneezy, 2005; Hurkens and Kartik, 2006; Sánchez-Pagés and Vorsatz, 2006). In these cases, aversion to lying represents a *procedural preference* (cf. Sen, 1997): a person may care not just about how much money she gets, but also about how she gets that money, in particular whether she must lie to get it.

In this paper, I analyze the classic strategic communication setting of Crawford and Sobel (1982) (hereafter CS), with the innovation that some messages entail direct lying costs for the Sender. A simplified version of the model presented in Section 2 is as follows: a Sender is privately informed about his type, $t \in [0, 1]$, and can send a message to the Receiver, who then takes a decision which affects both players’ payoffs. There is a conflict of interest because the Sender wants the Receiver to believe that his type is higher than it actually is. I suppose that for each Sender type, t , there is a set of messages, M_t , with the interpretation that any message $m \in M_t$ has the literal meaning “my type is t .” This permits a clear notion of when the Sender is lying—when he sends a message $m \in M_{t'}$ for some $t' \neq t$ —and moreover, to measure the magnitude of a lie in a simple way—by the distance between his true type and the type he claims to be. When type t sends a message $m \in M_{t'}$, he bears a cost $kC(t', t)$, where k is a scalar that parameterizes the intensity of lying cost. If $k = 0$, messages are cheap talk, and the setting reduces to that of CS. This paper is concerned with $k > 0$. Assume that for any t , it is cheapest to tell the truth, and moreover, the marginal cost of a bigger lie is increasing in the magnitude of the lie.

Lying costs transform the CS cheap-talk model into one of costly signaling, although the structure is different from standard signaling models because of the nature of the Sender’s preferences over both messages and the Receiver’s decision. The main results I provide concern the amount of information revealed by the Sender in equilibrium, and the language—the equilibrium mapping from types to messages—through which it is revealed. For most of the paper, I focus on a tractable and appealing class of Perfect Bayesian equilibria, described and analyzed in Section 3.¹ The structure of these equilibria is simple: low Sender types *separate*, revealing themselves through their equilibrium message, whereas high types segment into one or more connected *pools*. The equilibria feature *language inflation* in the sense that (almost) every type t sends a message $m \in M_{t'}$ for some $t' > t$. That is, the Sender (almost) always claims to be a higher type than he truly is, even though he suffers a cost of lying. Of course, the Receiver is not systematically deceived, because she recognizes that the Sender is inflating his messages and adjusts her decision accordingly. While this state of affairs may appear paradoxical at first glance, notice that if the Sender were to tell the truth (i.e. send a message $m \in M_t$ when his type is t), the Receiver would infer that his type is in fact *lower* than it actually is, since she expects messages to be inflated. There is thus an inescapable inefficiency for the Sender in equilibrium, reminiscent of unproductive education signaling in Spence (1973) or “money burning” advertising in Milgrom and Roberts (1986a).

Language inflation is difficult to explain in a framework of pure cheap talk, due to the indeterminacy of language in any cheap-talk game. Yet, the phenomenon resonates with anecdotal evidence in settings such as recommendation letters, where at least some reference writers feel compelled to overstate the quality of an applicant because they expect readers to deflate their statements. More systematically, Malmendier and Shantikumar (2004) and Healy and Wahlen (1999) provide empirical evidence of inflated language in the context of stock recommendations and earnings statements respectively, while Blume et al. (2001) and Cai and Wang (2006) document it in experimental strategic information transmission games. In all these cases, it is plausible that misreporting or lying is costly for one of the reasons previously mentioned.² I establish some intuitive and testable comparative statics results with respect to the intensity of lying costs, k . For example, as $k \rightarrow \infty$, the equilibria I study converge to full separation with almost no language inflation, i.e. there is close to truth-telling. On the other hand, as $k \rightarrow 0$, there is a lot of pooling, all of it with extremely inflated language.

Section 4 develops an extension to span the cheap talk and verifiable disclosure approaches to strategic communication. As previously noted, the verifiable disclosure literature assumes that the Sender cannot lie about his type, but can withhold information. Not being able to lie may

¹Although the possibility of other equilibria is not ruled out, these are the only ones that satisfy a refinement criterion proposed by Bernheim and Severinov (2003).

²It is also possible that language inflation stems from the possibility of the Receiver being “naive,” which can be subsumed into my framework as discussed in Section 2.

be viewed as the limit of my model as $k \rightarrow \infty$. To capture the ability to withhold information, I augment the model so that the Sender can make vague statements about his type, including being silent altogether at no cost. The main results of the paper are extended to this setting. One consequence is that when the conflict of interest between Sender and Receiver is large, the framework unifies the orthogonal results of “*unraveling*” (full information revelation) in verifiable disclosure games and “*babbling*” (no information revelation) in cheap-talk games.

1.1. Related Literature. This paper contributes to the literatures on cheap talk, costly signaling, and verifiable disclosure. Within these sizeable literatures, my work is most related to the following papers: [Chen \(2006\)](#), [Chen et al. \(2008\)](#), [Kartik et al. \(2007\)](#), and [Ottaviani and Squintani \(2006\)](#).³ I now discuss the connections in some detail, followed by a briefer mention of some other related work.

[Kartik et al. \(2007\)](#) also study the notion of costly lying and language inflation. However, the focus and analysis is quite different, because they study an *unbounded* type space setting. Their results concern the existence of separating or fully-revealing equilibria for arbitrarily small intensity of lying cost, a result that depends essentially on the unboundedness of the type space.⁴ Here, I study the canonical *bounded* type space model of CS, and show that separating equilibria do not exist regardless of the lying cost intensity.⁵ Consequently, the attention here is necessarily on partially-pooling equilibria. This not only requires a more complex analysis, but also permits me to address issues that cannot be meaningfully answered in their model, such as large conflicts of interest and comparative statics of partial-separation.

In a bounded type space, [Ottaviani and Squintani \(2006\)](#) study the “uniform-quadratic” case of CS, viz. the prior on types is uniform and utility functions take quadratic loss form with a constant bias between Sender and Receiver. They introduce the possibility that the Receiver may be naive or non-strategic. This transforms the game from one of cheap talk into a costly signaling structure that can be subsumed by the current framework (see Section 2). For some parameterizations, they construct an equilibrium that has similar features to the equilibria studied here. Their parametric restrictions require the conflict of interest between Sender and Receiver to be sufficiently large relative to other parameters. I do not impose any such restriction. Within their parameter space, [Ottaviani and Squintani \(2006\)](#) perform comparative statics that

³All four of these are either contemporaneous or posterior to earlier versions of this paper.

⁴[Austen-Smith and Banks \(2000\)](#) analyze a model of cheap talk and costly signaling, where the costly signal takes the form of “burned money.” That is, the cost of the signaling instrument does not vary with the Sender’s type. Their focus is on how the presence of this additional instrument can enlarge the set of CS equilibria, with a key result that so long as the Sender’s ability to impose costs on himself is sufficiently large, separating equilibria exist. [Kartik \(2007\)](#) shows that as the ability to burn money shrinks to 0, the set of equilibria in [Austen-Smith and Banks \(2000\)](#) converges to the entire set of CS equilibria. [Kartik \(2005\)](#) discusses the differences between burned money and costly lying.

⁵This statement requires some caveats when the setting is more general than that described in this introduction; see Theorem 1 and fn. 12.

are complementary to those in this paper. There is no analog in their work to the analysis of Section 4.

Chen (2006) furthers the non-strategic approach by modeling not only Receiver naivety, but also Sender naivety or mechanical honesty. Specifically, she assumes that with some probability the Sender just reports his type truthfully, and with some independent probability the Receiver takes the message to be truthful. Chen (2006) studies the uniform-quadratic case of CS, showing that there is a unique equilibrium in the cheap-talk extension (Manelli, 1996) of her model when a monotonicity requirement is imposed. Language is inflated in her equilibrium, for reasons similar to this paper, since Receiver naivety induces a particular form of lying costs. A benefit of assuming Sender naivety is that it ensures that all messages are used in equilibrium, obviating the need to analyze the Receiver’s off-the-equilibrium-path beliefs.⁶ A strength of the approach here is that both the underlying cheap-talk model and the costly signaling structure are more general. Moreover, the application to verifiable disclosure is novel to this paper.

Chen et al. (2008) propose a refinement called *No Incentive to Separate* (NITS) for cheap-talk games like CS. Among other justifications for the criterion, they show that only CS equilibria satisfying NITS can be the limit of certain equilibria in a class of games with lying costs, as the intensity of lying costs shrink to 0. Although their model does not subsume the current setting, their arguments can be adapted under some conditions. The analysis here is entirely complementary, because I study arbitrary intensities of lying cost, rather than the cheap-talk limit as the costs vanish. *Inter alia*, I provide an explicit characterization of a set of equilibria for any cost intensity, which is neither addressed nor needed by Chen et al. (2008).

With regards to the broader signaling literature, I build upon techniques developed by Mailath (1987) to study signaling with a continuum of types. Whereas his analysis concerns separating equilibria, the main results in this paper concern partially-pooling equilibria, as already noted. Cho and Sobel (1990) were the first to derive incomplete separation in the manner obtained here: pooling at the top of the type space using the highest messages and separation at the bottom. Their analysis is for a class of signaling games that have a finite type space and satisfy a single-crossing property that does not apply to the current setting. A more closely related model is that of Bernheim and Severinov (2003). While theirs is a specific application to public finance, the formal structures share many properties. Some of my equilibrium characterization owes much to their work, although they are important differences in the analysis and issues addressed.

Finally, I should also briefly mention three other literatures that touch upon related issues, but from quite different perspectives. First, there is a small literature on mechanism design or contracting with misrepresentation costs, e.g. Deneckere and Severinov (2007a,b). Second, there are some papers in accounting that propose signaling theories of earnings management, e.g. Stein

⁶The choice of how to specify Sender naivety is significant, however, because it imposes particular restrictions on beliefs when a message is observed that is not sent by a strategic Sender. In effect, the specification of Sender naivety substitutes for restrictions on off-the-equilibrium-path beliefs in a fully rational model.

(1989). They also motivate costly misreporting for technological or legal reasons, but to my knowledge only consider unbounded type spaces and special functional forms. Lastly, small (lexicographic) lying costs are being studied in models of pre-play communication of complete information games, e.g. Crawford (2007) and Demichelis and Weibull (2007).

2. THE MODEL

There are two players, a Sender (S) and a Receiver (R). The Sender has private information summarized by his type $t \in T = [0, 1]$, which is drawn from a differentiable probability distribution $F(t)$, with strictly positive density for all $t \in T$. After privately observing his type t , the Sender sends the Receiver a message, $m \in M$, where M is a Borel space of available messages. After observing the message, R takes an action, $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

I assume that $M = \bigcup_t M_t$, with $|M_t| = \infty$ for all t and $M_t \cap M_{t'} = \emptyset$ if $t \neq t'$. The interpretation is that any $m \in M_t$ carries the literal meaning “my type is t .” Since $\{M_t\}_{t \in T}$ is a partition of M , any m can be associated with a unique t such that $m \in M_t$; denote this mapping by $\Psi(m)$. Thus, if $\Psi(m) > \Psi(m')$, the Sender is claiming in literal terms to be a higher type when he sends m rather than m' , and I will say that m is higher or larger than m' (only weakly, if $\Psi(m) \geq \Psi(m')$).

The payoff for R is given by $U^R(a, t)$, and the payoff for S is given by $U^S(a, t) - kC(\nu(\Psi(m)), t)$. Here, $U^R : \mathbb{R} \times T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $U^S : \mathbb{R} \times T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ represent the two players' preferences over type-action pairs, whereas $C : \mathbb{R} \times T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a lying cost function, $k > 0$ is a scalar that parameterizes its intensity, and $\nu : T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a function that will be further discussed below. Note that m is payoff-relevant only for S . All aspects of the game except the value of t are common knowledge.

I now introduce two sets of assumptions on players' preferences. The first set is identical to Crawford and Sobel (1982), while the latter is novel.

Preferences over types and actions: For $i \in \{R, S\}$, the function $U^i(\cdot, \cdot)$ is twice continuously differentiable on $\mathbb{R} \times T$.⁷ Using subscripts to denote derivatives as usual, $U_{11}^i < 0 < U_{12}^i$ for $i \in \{R, S\}$, so that both players' payoffs are concave in R 's action and supermodular in (a, t) . For any t , there exists $a^R(t)$ and $a^S(t)$ respectively such that $U_1^R(a^R(t), t) = U_1^S(a^S(t), t) = 0$, with $a^S(t) > a^R(t)$. That is, the most-preferred actions are well-defined for both players, and the Sender prefers higher actions than the Receiver. These assumptions imply that for $i \in \{R, S\}$, $\frac{da^i(\cdot)}{dt} > 0$, i.e. both players prefer higher actions when the Sender's type is higher.

Preferences over messages: The function $\nu(\cdot)$ is continuously differentiable on T and strictly increasing. The function $C(\cdot, \cdot)$ is twice continuously differentiable on $\mathbb{R} \times T$, with

⁷That is, there exists an open set T' containing T and two twice continuously differentiable functions on $\mathbb{R} \times T'$ which are respectively identical to U^S and U^R on $\mathbb{R} \times T$. Analogous statements apply to subsequent assumptions about differentiability of ν and C .

$C_{11} > 0 > C_{12}$. These assumptions imply that there is a continuous and weakly increasing function, $r^S : T \rightarrow T$, such that for any t , $r^S(t) = \arg \min_{t'} C(\nu(t'), t)$. One interprets $r^S(t)$ as the type that t would claim to be in order to minimize message costs. Equivalently, any $m \in M_{r^S(t)}$ is a cost-minimizing message for t . I assume that $r^S(1) = 1$, but nothing else about the function r^S . The assumptions on C and ν imply that when $\Psi(m)$ is farther from $r^S(t)$, m is more costly for t , and moreover, the marginal change in cost from claiming to be a slightly higher type than $\Psi(m)$ is larger in absolute value.

2.1. Discussion. Here are some comments on the model's assumptions and interpretations.

Message space. As mentioned, each message is associated with some type, with the interpretation that every statement the Sender can make has a literal meaning about the exact value of his type.⁸ An alternative interpretation is that the Sender must submit some evidence or data to the Receiver, and his type represents the true realization of this evidence, which is costly to falsify. The assumption that each M_t contain an infinite number of messages may be viewed as a *rich language* assumption: there are a large number of ways in which the Sender can make a statement with the literal content that his type is t , for example, “my type is t ,” or “you should believe that my type is t ,” and so forth.⁹ It is worth noting that a special case of the model is when the Sender can make a two-dimensional statement about his type: on one dimension he reports an exact value and suffers a cost of misreporting the truth, while on the other, he just makes a cheap-talk statement from some arbitrary (infinite) set. For example, firms can take costly actions to manipulate earnings reports that they must submit, but can also make, in addition, cheap-talk statements with explanations or justifications.

Lying costs. If $k = 0$, the model reduces to the cheap-talk model of CS. Since $k > 0$, messages are *discriminatory signals* in the sense that the cost of a message varies with the Sender's type. Although the model permits some generality in the lying costs which is useful for applications, a simple case to keep in mind throughout the analysis is as follows: $\nu(t) = t$, and $C_1(t, t) = 0$ for all t (e.g., $C(x, t) = (x - t)^2$). This implies that $r^S(t) = t$, i.e. it is cheapest to tell the literal truth.

The assumption $r^S(1) = 1$ means that the highest type minimizes cost by claiming to be itself. Obviously, this assumption is automatically satisfied if it is cheapest for each type to tell the truth. It also holds in an application discussed below, even though truth-telling is not cost-minimizing for all types there. In any case, the assumption is made primarily for expositional

⁸Section 4 shows how the model can be extended to cases where the Sender is permitted to make “vague” statements about his type (e.g., “my type lies in $[0.1, 0.3]$ ”). Of course, if vague statements can be mapped sensibly into point-valued equivalents, then the model applies as is. See fn. 11 for one example.

⁹It is not essential that there in fact be an infinite number of messages in each M_t ; a large enough finite number would always do. Some of the results only require $|M_t| \geq 1$.

convenience; all the analysis can be generalized to settings where $r^S(1) < 1$, as pointed out in fn. 12.

It is worth emphasizing that treating messages which are farther from cost-minimizing ones as more costly is a substantive assumption. This naturally arises in some applications, for example when penalties are proportional to the magnitude of misreporting when discovered. While it is also plausible in the context of intrinsic distaste for lying, and would be interesting to test, I know of no direct evidence.

Naive Receivers. Permitting the possibility that the Receiver may be naive or credulous can induce costs on the Sender that are similar to exogenous lying costs. To illustrate, suppose as [Chen \(2006\)](#) or [Ottaviani and Squintani \(2006\)](#) that messages are cheap talk, but with probability $q \in (0, 1)$, the Receiver is (perceived to be) credulous, in which case she takes message m at face value, responding with action $a^R(\Psi(m))$.¹⁰ Now, when the Sender is of type t , the expected utility from sending message m and receiving the action a from a strategic Receiver is given by

$$(1 - q)U^S(a, t) + qU^S(a^R(\Psi(m)), t).$$

Setting $k = \frac{q}{1-q}$, $\nu(t) = a^R(t)$, and $C(x, t) = -U^S(x, t)$, the above payoff expression can be normalized and rewritten as $U^S(a, t) - kC(\nu(\Psi(m)), t)$. The properties of U^S and U^R imply that C and ν thus defined satisfy my assumptions. Note that in this case,

$$r^S(t) = \begin{cases} (a^R)^{-1}(a^S(t)) & \text{if } a^S(t) < a^R(1), \\ 1 & \text{if } a^S(t) \geq a^R(1), \end{cases}$$

and is therefore not strictly increasing. Indeed, if the conflict of interest between Sender and Receiver is sufficiently large ($a^S(0) \geq a^R(1)$), r^S is a constant function. Nevertheless, r^S is weakly increasing and satisfies $r^S(1) = 1$.¹¹

2.2. Strategies and Equilibrium. A pure strategy for the Sender strategy is a (measurable) function $\pi : T \rightarrow M$, so that $\pi(t)$ is the message sent by type t . Denote the posterior beliefs of the Receiver given a message m by the cumulative distribution $G(t | m)$. A pure strategy for the Receiver is a function $\alpha : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, so that $\alpha(m)$ is the action taken when message m is observed. The solution concept is Perfect Bayesian Equilibrium (PBE), which requires the Sender to maximize utility for each type given the Receiver's strategy, the Receiver to maximize utility given his beliefs after every message, and beliefs to satisfy Bayes' rule wherever it is well-defined.

¹⁰See [Crawford \(2003\)](#) for a similar conceptual framework in a game of pre-play communication.

¹¹In the context of Receiver naivety, the model can naturally accommodate message spaces with vague statements. For example, the message space M could consist of every (Borel) subset of T , permitting the Sender to make statements such as "my type is in $[0.3, 0.4]$." Assume that in response to a message m , the credulous Receiver plays $\arg \max_{t \in m} \int U^R(a, t) dF(t)$. This will place every message m into an equivalence class with a message of the form "my type is t ," in terms of the action elicited from the credulous Receiver. This defines $\Psi(m)$ for any m , and the model applies with ν and C defined as before. Many other specifications for the message space and the credulous Receiver's response can also be subsumed similarly.

For most of the analysis, I only consider pure strategy PBE, or simply “equilibria” hereafter. Moreover, I typically restrict attention to equilibria where the Sender’s strategy is weakly increasing, in the sense that if $t > t'$, then $\Psi(\mu(t)) \geq \Psi(\mu(t'))$. This property is called *message monotonicity*, and an equilibrium which satisfies the property is a *monotone equilibrium*. In a monotone equilibrium, the Sender makes a weakly higher claim about his type when his type is truly higher. Attention to such equilibria seems reasonable because higher types intrinsically prefer higher messages due to the cost of lying structure (formally, $r^S(t)$ is weakly increasing).

3. SIGNALING AND INFLATED LANGUAGE

3.1. Impossibility of Full Separation. The basic signaling problem is that the Sender wants the Receiver to infer that he is a higher type than he actually is. Say that a type t is *separating* if $\{t' : \mu(t') = \mu(t)\} = \{t\}$, i.e. the message sent by t reveals that the Sender’s type is t . A *separating equilibrium* is one where all types are separating. Naturally, the first question is whether such equilibria exist.

It is often convenient to work with the mapping $\rho := \Psi \circ \mu$ directly, rather than just μ . Note that $\rho : T \rightarrow T$, and $\rho(t)$ is interpreted as the type that t claims to be.

Definition 1. A type t is said to be using *inflated language* if $\rho(t) > r^S(t)$. A type is *telling the truth* if $\rho(t) = r^S(t)$.

The above definition is appropriate because it compares what a type claims to be in equilibrium relative to what it would claim under complete information, i.e. if the Receiver knew the Sender’s type, which is $r^S(\cdot)$ by definition. Thus, *truth-telling* refers to what a type would say under complete information. Note that truth-telling may or may not satisfy $\rho(t) = t$, depending on the properties of C and ν . Since under complete information the Sender would play a strategy such that $\rho(\cdot) = r^S(\cdot)$, any deviation in the equilibrium $\rho(\cdot)$ from $r^S(\cdot)$ stems from the signaling concerns of the Sender. The following result identifies a key property of ρ in any separating region of types.

Lemma 1. *If types (t_l, t_h) are separating in a monotone equilibrium, then for each $t \in (t_l, t_h)$, $\rho(t) > r^S(t)$ and*

$$\rho'(t) = \frac{U_1^S(a^R(t), t) \frac{da^R}{dt}(t)}{kC_1(\nu(\rho(t)), t) \nu'(\rho(t))}. \quad (\text{DE})$$

(Note: all proofs are in Appendix A.) The Lemma says that in a monotone equilibrium, ρ must solve (DE) on any open interval of types that are separating. This is straightforward given differentiability of ρ , since in that case, (DE) is the first order condition of the following maximization problem for each $t \in (t_l, t_h)$:

$$\arg \max_{\tilde{t} \in (t_l, t_h)} U^S(a^R(\tilde{t}), t) - kC(\nu(\rho(\tilde{t})), t). \quad (1)$$

The proof that ρ must be in fact be differentiable is based on Mailath (1987). Observe that the sign of ρ' in (DE) is determined by the sign of $C_1(\cdot, \cdot)$, since all the other terms on the right hand side are positive. In turn, the sign of $C_1(\nu(\rho(t), t))$ depends on whether $\rho(t)$ is greater or less than $r^S(t)$. Since a monotone equilibrium requires ρ to be weakly increasing, (DE) implies that *all types in the interior of a separating interval must be using inflated language*, i.e. $\rho(t) > r^S(t)$.

Consider now whether there can be complete separation in a monotone equilibrium. If so, the previous Lemma implies that all types in $(0, 1)$ must be using inflated language. However, since $r^S(1) = 1$, the highest type cannot be using inflated language. This suggests:

Theorem 1. *There is no separating monotone equilibrium, regardless of the lying cost intensity.*

The formal logic is as follows: a separating monotone equilibrium requires a continuous function to solve an initial value problem defined by the differential equation (DE) together with some boundary condition $\rho(0) \geq r^S(0)$. The proof of Theorem 1 shows that there is no solution on the domain $t \in [0, 1]$, regardless of the choice of boundary condition. Intuitively, each type inflates its claim in order to separate itself from lower types, but one eventually “runs out” of claims that can be made. More precisely, the solution to the initial value problem hits the upper bound of 1 at some $t < 1$.¹²

Theorem 1 contrasts with the main result of Kartik et al. (2007), who show that when the type space is not bounded above, a separating monotone equilibrium exists for any $k > 0$. The reason for this difference is straightforward: in their model, the solution to the differential equation (DE) is not constrained by an upper bound, and accordingly can be extended to the whole domain.¹³

3.2. Pooling Equilibria. Theorem 1 implies that any monotone equilibrium involves some pooling. The logic that the Sender eventually runs out of types to mimic for separation suggests a class of pooling equilibria to study, where *low types separate and high types pool on the highest messages*. In what follows, I first define this class precisely, then discuss the structure and existence of such equilibria, followed by a justification for focusing on this class.

¹²Here is where the assumption that $r^S(1) = 1$ simplifies matters. If $r^S(1) < 1$, then it may be possible to have a separating monotone equilibrium, depending on other parameters. However, the Theorem can be generalized to show that even in these cases, a separating monotone equilibrium will not exist if k is not too large. Intuitively, as k decreases, the slope of the solution to the relevant initial value problem increases, such that one eventually runs out of types to mimic once again. One can also show that there cannot be a separating equilibrium within the class of all PBE if either of two conditions hold: $r^S(0) = 0$, or k is sufficiently small.

¹³It is also appropriate here to compare with Bernheim and Severinov (2003). Translating their model—specifically, their main case of “imitation towards the center”—to the current notation, separating equilibria exist in their setting whenever k is large enough. The reason is that they have different assumptions on U^S and U^R . In particular, they assume that $a^S(t) = a^R(t)$ for $t \in \{0, \frac{1}{2}, 1\}$. This contrasts with the current setting, where $a^S(t) > a^R(t)$ for all t . Moreover, in their model, the signal space is constrained, so that sufficiently low (resp. high) types necessarily inflate (resp. deflate) language. These differences have subtle but significant consequences on the analysis.

Let a *separating function* be a continuous, increasing function that solves (DE) with the initial condition $\rho(0) = r^S(0)$. This choice of initial condition is motivated by the usual “Riley condition” of least costly separation in signaling games. The Appendix (Lemma A.1) establishes that there is a unique separating function, denoted ρ^* hereafter, which is well-defined on some interval $[0, \bar{t}]$, where $\bar{t} < 1$ is such that $\rho^*(\bar{t}) = 1$.

Definition 2. A Sender’s strategy μ is a LSHP (Low types Separate and High types Pool) strategy if there exists $\underline{t} \in [0, \bar{t}]$ such that:

- (1) for all $t < \underline{t}$, $\mu(t) \in M_{\rho^*(t)}$ (i.e., $\rho(t) = \rho^*(t)$),
- (2) for all $t \geq \underline{t}$, $\mu(t) \in M_1$ (i.e., $\rho(t) = 1$).

An equilibrium (μ, α) is a LSHP equilibrium if μ is an LSHP strategy.

A LSHP equilibrium features a *cutoff type*, $\underline{t}$, such that all types below $t < \underline{t}$ separate by playing $\rho^*(t)$, whereas all types above $\underline{t}$ send messages in M_1 . The structure of such equilibria is elucidated by several observations. A key point is that the following indifference condition must hold if $\underline{t} > 0$:

$$U^S(\alpha(\mu(\underline{t})), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(1), \underline{t}) = [U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(\rho^*(\underline{t})), \underline{t})]. \quad (2)$$

That is, type $\underline{t} > 0$ must be indifferent between sending $\mu(\underline{t}) \in M_1$ and inducing $\alpha(\mu(\underline{t}))$ versus sending any $m \in M_{\rho^*(\underline{t})}$ and inducing $a^R(\underline{t})$. This follows from the fact that any $t < \underline{t}$ plays $\rho^*(t)$ and induces action $a^R(t)$, combined with the equilibrium requirement that type $\underline{t}$ should not prefer to mimic some $t < \underline{t}$, and conversely, no $t < \underline{t}$ should prefer to mimic $\underline{t}$. Equation (2) implies that for any $\underline{t} > 0$, there is a unique $\alpha(\mu(\underline{t}))$. This imposes a restriction on which types can be sending $\mu(\underline{t})$, because $\alpha(\mu(\underline{t}))$ must be optimal for the Receiver against $\mu(\underline{t})$.

Since $\mu(t) \in M_1$ for all $t \geq \underline{t}$, it is equally expensive in terms of direct message costs for a given type to mimic any $t \geq \underline{t}$. Consequently, the cheap-talk constraints of CS apply within $[\underline{t}, 1]$. To state this precisely, define (with an abuse of notation), for any $t'' < t'$,

$$a^R(t'', t') = \arg \max_a \int_{t''}^{t'} U^R(a, t) dF(t)$$

as the optimal action for the Receiver if the only information she has is that the Sender’s type lies in $[t'', t']$. CS’s logic dictates that there must be a strictly increasing sequence, $\langle t_0 = \underline{t}, t_1, \dots, t_J = 1 \rangle$, such that for all $j \in \{1, \dots, J-1\}$,

$$U^S(a^R(t_{j-1}, t_j), t_j) - U^S(a^R(t_j, t_{j+1}), t_j) = 0. \quad (3)$$

For $j = 1, \dots, J$, every type $t \in (t_{j-1}, t_j)$ sends the same message, call it $m_j \in M_1$, and induces the same action, $a^R(t_{j-1}, t_j)$. Of course, $m_j \neq m_k$ for $k \neq j$, and a boundary type t_j for $j = 1, \dots, J-1$ can send either m_j or m_{j+1} , while type 1 must send m_J .

The above discussion pins down the Sender's strategy in any LSHP equilibrium with cutoff type $\underline{t} > 0$, modulo payoff-irrelevant permutations of messages that carry the same literal meaning.¹⁴ It is important to underscore that although all types above $\underline{t}$ are incurring the same direct message cost ($\rho(t) = 1$ for all $t \geq \underline{t}$), they typically will not be sending the same message. Thus, there can be *multiple pools* in an LSHP equilibrium, but all pools use messages in M_1 . On the Receiver's side, it is clear what she must play on the equilibrium path: $\alpha(\mu(t)) = a^R(t)$ for all $t < \underline{t}$, and $\alpha(m_j) = a^R(t_{j-1}, t_j)$ for any m_j such that $\mu(t) = m_j$ for all $t \in (t_{j-1}, t_j)$. As usual, optimality of the Sender's strategy places some constraints on what responses the Receiver can take off the equilibrium path.

We have so far identified a have a set of necessary conditions for a LSHP equilibrium with $\underline{t} > 0$. The following result establishes that they are also sufficient, and moreover, accounts for the possibility that there may be LSHP equilibria with $\underline{t} = 0$. In this latter case, all types are using messages in M_1 , and (3) continues to apply to the boundary types between pools.

Theorem 2. *A LSHP equilibrium exists for any $k > 0$. If $r^S(0) < r^S(1)$ and k is sufficiently large, then there is an LSHP equilibrium with $\underline{t} > 0$.*

Existence is established by constructively showing that there exists a $\underline{t} \geq 0$ such that all the equilibrium incentive constraints—those for $\underline{t}$ and all the boundary types between pools—can be satisfied. The second part of the Theorem is intuitive: it says that so long as not all types have the same cost-minimizing messages, if the intensity of lying cost is sufficiently large, then at least some types can be separating in equilibrium.

Figure 1 illustrates a LSHP equilibrium. It is drawn for a case where $a^R(t) = r^S(t) = t$, so that sequential rationality requires the Receiver to only takes actions in $[0, 1]$. The Sender's strategy is represented by the solid red curve, which is $\rho(t)$. The separating function, ρ^* , coincides with ρ on $[0, \underline{t}]$, and then extends as the dotted green curve up to $\bar{t}$. There are two pools in this equilibrium: every $t \in [\underline{t}, t_1]$ plays $\mu(t) = m_1 \in M_1$, whereas every $t \in (t_1, 1]$ plays $\mu(t) = m_2 \in M_1 \setminus \{m_1\}$. The Receiver's strategy is depicted in the dashed blue line, which shows the correspondence $\beta : T \rightrightarrows \mathbb{R}$ defined by $\beta(t) = \cup_{m \in M_t} \alpha(m)$. That is, $\beta(t)$ is the set of all actions taken by the Receiver in response to messages where the Sender claims to be type t .

Since the separating function ρ^* has $\rho^*(t) > r^S(t)$ for all $t \in (0, \bar{t}]$, every LSHP equilibrium displays inflated language, so long as $r^S(0) < 1$. The inflation of language is inefficient and costly for every type $t < \underline{t}$, since such types are revealing themselves in equilibrium, yet not minimizing their message costs. Telling the truth—or more generally, reducing the magnitude of inflation—is not profitable, however, because it would lead to adverse inferences from the Receiver, who expects the equilibrium degree of language inflation and thus rationally deflates.

¹⁴For example, for $t < \underline{t}$, $\rho(t) = \rho^*(t)$ can be satisfied in an infinite number of ways since $|M_{\rho^*(t)}| = \infty$.

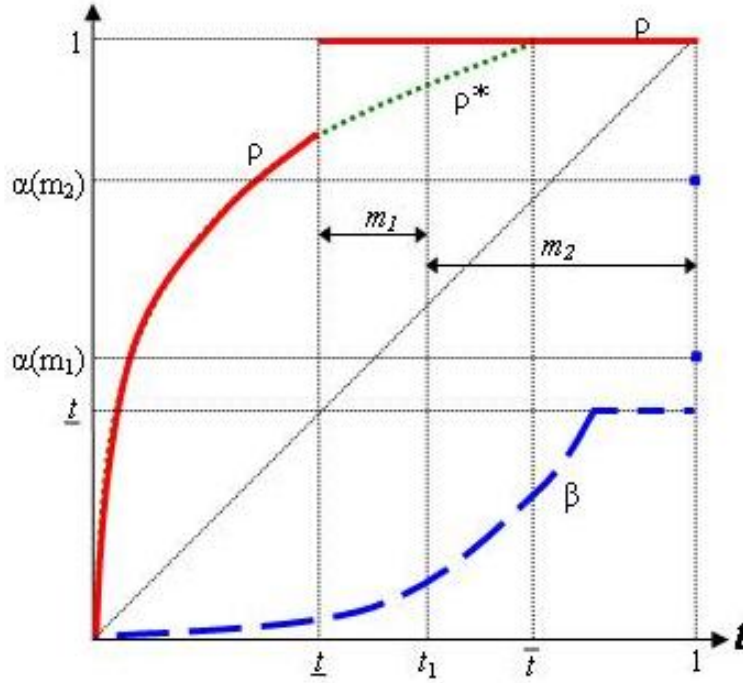


FIGURE 1. A LSHP equilibrium: solid red curve represents Sender’s strategy via $\rho(t) = \Psi(\mu(t))$; dotted green curve is the separating function, ρ^* ; dashed blue curve represents Receiver’s strategy via $\beta(t) = \cup_{m \in M_t} \alpha(m)$.

As mentioned, LSHP equilibria are an intuitively natural class of pooling equilibria to focus on: they feature message monotonicity, which is appealing given the preference of higher types for higher messages; low types separate in the cheapest way possible consistent with message monotonicity; and all pooling occurs on messages in the set M_1 , which is effectively the barrier to complete separation. For these reasons, the structure of LSHP equilibria is reminiscent of the “D1” equilibria of [Cho and Sobel \(1990\)](#), the “central pooling” equilibria of [Bernheim and Severinov \(2003\)](#), and, in a more distant setting, the “variable bribes equilibria” of [Esö and Schummer \(2004\)](#).¹⁵ Indeed, [Cho and Sobel \(1990\)](#) established that in standard signaling games where complete separation is not possible due to a bound on the signal space, refinements based on [Kohlberg and Mertens’s \(1986\)](#) notion of *strategic stability* ([Cho and Kreps, 1987](#); [Banks and](#)

¹⁵A difference with [Cho and Sobel \(1990\)](#) is that there cannot be multiple pools in their D1 equilibria, unlike here where this plays an important role. The difference arises because in the current model, not all types generally wish to be perceived as the highest type, an assumption made by Cho and Sobel (cf. Proposition 1). This is also the case in [Esö and Schummer \(2004\)](#). Multiple pools do arise in [Bernheim and Severinov’s \(2003\)](#) central pooling equilibria; a distinction with their analysis is that it is important here to allow for the possibility that $\bar{t}$ may equal 0, because there generally will not exist LSHP equilibria with positive $\bar{t}$ when k is small. Bernheim and Severinov’s equilibria always have $\bar{t} > 0$; the difference stems from the preference distinctions noted in fn. 13.

Sobel, 1987) select equilibria where low types separate in a least costly manner and high types pool on the maximal costly signal. Because the current model has some differences with standard signaling games, these refinements have limited power per se. Nevertheless, Bernheim and Severinov (2003) proposed a modification of the D1 refinement, called *monotonic D1 equilibrium*, which rules out any non-LSHP equilibrium.¹⁶ Moreover, there is always an LSHP equilibrium which satisfies the refinement criterion. Therefore, focussing on this class of equilibria can be formally justified. Appendix B contains all the details.

The remainder of this section looks at various special cases of the model which provide additional insights into the structure of communication.

3.3. Large Conflicts of Interest. LSHP equilibria are particularly simple if the conflict of interest between Sender and Receiver is large in the following precise sense.

Definition 3. The Sender has (or there is) a *large bias* if $a^S(0) \geq a^R(1)$.

When there is a large bias, the Sender would always like to be perceived as high a type as possible, which is the usual assumption in costly signaling games. This implies that there cannot be multiple pools in an LSHP equilibrium, since no type would be willing to send a message $m \in M_1$ if there exists some $m' \in M_1$ such that $\alpha(m') > \alpha(m)$. Consequently, all types above $\underline{t}$ must induce action $a^R(\underline{t}, 1)$ in equilibrium, and condition (3) becomes vacuous. This yields a simplification of condition (2) and the following result.

Proposition 1. *Assume the Sender has a large bias. There is a single pool in any LSHP equilibrium. It is necessary and sufficient for an LSHP equilibrium with $\underline{t} > 0$ that*

$$U^S(a^R(\underline{t}, 1), \underline{t}) - U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), \underline{t}) = k(C(\nu(1), \underline{t}) - C(\nu(\rho^*(\underline{t})), \underline{t})) \quad (4)$$

have a solution in the domain $(0, \bar{t})$. It is necessary and sufficient for an LSHP equilibrium with $\underline{t} = 0$ (where all types pool) that

$$U^S(a^R(0, 1), 0) - U^S(a^R(0), 0) \geq k(C(\nu(1), 0) - C(\nu(r^S(0)), 0)). \quad (5)$$

The Proposition implies that if there is large bias, then for any t , there is a unique message in M_t that is used in an LSHP equilibrium. Therefore, the rich language assumption that $|M_t|$ be large for each t is redundant; the analysis would apply just as well if instead $|M_t| = 1$ for all t . Note also that it is simple to directly establish existence of an LSHP equilibrium under large bias, because there is a single constraint to satisfy, unlike in the general bias case where not only is there is the constraint on $\underline{t}$, but moreover all the boundary types between pools.¹⁷

¹⁶i.e., any equilibrium where the Sender's strategy is not an LSHP strategy for a positive measure of types.

¹⁷The direct argument is this: if (5) does not hold, then there must be at least one solution to (4), since each side of (4) is continuous, and at $\underline{t} = \bar{t}$ the right-hand side is 0 whereas the left-hand side is strictly positive (by $\bar{t} < 1$ and large bias).

3.4. No Conflict of Interest. I have assumed that $a^S(t) > a^R(t)$ for all t , which was crucial for Theorem 1. At the other extreme, consider $a^S(t) = a^R(t)$ for all t , so that there is no conflict of interest. Intuitively, one would expect complete separation with truth-telling in this case. Formally, although (DE) does not apply, it's clear that the appropriate separating function becomes $\rho^*(t) = r^S(t)$ for all t . There is a separating equilibrium where each t sends any $m \in M_{r^S(t)}$, with the caveat that any t and $t' \neq t$ use distinct messages if $r^S(t) = r^S(t')$. Since $\rho(t) = \rho^*(t)$ in such equilibria, these are indeed LSHP equilibria.

3.5. Almost-Cheap Talk. Return now to the general case of conflict of interest. Recall that when $k = 0$, the setting reduces to the CS model of cheap-talk. An interesting question then is what happens when the intensity of lying cost is small, $k \approx 0$. It must be that that $\underline{t} \approx 0$ in any LSHP equilibrium, because by (DE), the separating function ρ^* cannot be extended very far, i.e. $\bar{t} \approx 0$. Hence, as the cost of lying vanish, the type space is almost entirely partitioned into pools, with extremely inflated language.¹⁸ The following result says that in fact, there generally is an LSHP equilibrium where no type separates.

Proposition 2. *Assume that there is no CS cheap-talk equilibrium, (α, μ) , with $U^S(\alpha(\mu(0)), 0) = U^S(a^R(0), 0)$. Then, for all k sufficiently small, there is a LSHP equilibrium with $\underline{t} = 0$, where types partition as in a CS cheap-talk equilibrium.*

The assumption made in the proposition is mild: intuitively, it holds “generally” in the sense that if a given constellation of U^S , U^R , and F (the prior on types) has a cheap-talk equilibrium with $U^S(\alpha(\mu(0)), 0) = U^S(a^R(0), 0)$, then small perturbations to any of the three functions would lead to the assumption being satisfied.¹⁹ The proof uses a result from Chen et al. (2008) that there is always a cheap-talk equilibrium where $U^S(\alpha(\mu(0)), 0) > U^S(a^R(0), 0)$, under the assumption. Pick any one of these; if k is sufficiently small, then it is an LSHP equilibrium for all types to pool just as in the cheap-talk equilibrium, using messages only in M_1 , with the Receiver responding to any $m \notin M_1$ with $\alpha(m) = a^R(0)$.

3.6. Very Costly Talk. Consider what happens as the intensity of lying cost, k gets large. A simple observation is that the possible gains from lying for any type are bounded in a PBE, since

¹⁸Since (3) must hold for every boundary type in the partition of $[\underline{t}, 1]$, and $\underline{t} \approx 0$, the partition of $[\underline{t}, 1]$ must be close to some CS partition in any sensible metric. Chen et al. (2008) discuss which cheap-talk equilibria can be limits of a class of equilibria in a model of costly lying as the lying costs vanish. Although their assumptions are not quite comparable to the current setting, their arguments can be adapted, so long as $r^S(t)$ is strictly increasing. However, the class of equilibria they consider when $k > 0$ does not include LSHP equilibria, because they require monotonicity of the Receiver's strategy, which need not hold in an LSHP equilibrium. Nevertheless, it can be shown that so long as $r^S(t)$ is strictly increasing, any cheap-talk equilibrium which is the limit of a sequence of LSHP equilibria must satisfy Chen et al.'s (2008) *No Incentive to Separate* property.

¹⁹For example, in the widely-applied “uniform-quadratic” case where $F(t) = t$, $U^R(a, t) = -(a - t)^2$, and $U^S(a, t) = -(a - t - b)^2$ for some $b > 0$, the assumption only excludes $\left\{ b : b = \frac{1}{2K(K+1)} \text{ for some } K \in \mathbb{N}^* \right\}$, which is a nowhere-dense set of zero Lebesgue measure.

the range of the Receiver's strategy in a PBE is contained in $[a^R(0), a^R(1)]$. Hence, for any t and any $\varepsilon > 0$, any PBE satisfies $\rho(t) \in (r^S(t) - \varepsilon, r^S(t) + \varepsilon)$ if k is sufficiently large. Since the type space is compact, it follows that when k sufficiently large, *any PBE is close to truth-telling*. Consequently, in a LSHP equilibrium, $\underline{t}$ becomes arbitrarily close to $\inf\{t : r^S(t) = 1\}$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. This implies that when all types have distinct cost-minimizing messages (so that r^S is strictly increasing), there is just a single pool in an LSHP equilibrium when k is sufficiently large, since all types sufficiently close to 1 wish to be perceived as high a type as possible.

4. WITHHOLDING INFORMATION AND DISCLOSURE

The cheap-talk approach to strategic communication assumes that it is costless for the Sender to lie arbitrarily. An alternative approach, initiated by Grossman (1981) and Milgrom (1981), is to assume that the Sender can tell the truth or withhold information at no cost, but cannot lie. As Milgrom and Roberts (1986b, p. 19) put it, one motivation is that “there are penalties for perjury, false advertising or warranty violation that are sufficiently sure and heavy that false reporting never pays.” In the literature, this is often referred to as *verifiable disclosure*. The classic result, which would apply under the assumptions made on U^S and U^R here, is one of complete separation in every PBE (Seidmann and Winter, 1997). This derives from a well-known “unraveling argument,”²⁰ but is orthogonal to the cheap-talk prediction of no information revelation when there is a large enough conflict of interest between Sender and Receiver (Crawford and Sobel, 1982, Corollary 1).

The notion of costly lying provides a framework to unify these diverse results. But there is an obstacle: although it may appear that the limit as $k \rightarrow \infty$ of the current model corresponds to verifiable disclosure, this is not a valid interpretation because the model does not permit the Sender to withhold information freely in any way. This section develops an extension which allows this, thereby spanning a class of cheap-talk and verifiable disclosure games.²¹

4.1. A Simple Form of Withholding Information. For this section, assume that $\nu(t) = t$ and that $r^S(t) = t$, to permit a clear comparison with the verifiable disclosure setting. Moreover, to avoid some tedious complications, assume that Sender always wishes to be thought of as the highest type, i.e. there is large bias. This is a standard assumption in verifiable disclosure models, and moreover, as noted above, implies that cheap-talk and verifiable disclosure generate polar predictions.

Augment the message space to now be $M^* = M \cup M_\phi$, where M is as before, and M_ϕ is a new set of one or more messages (i.e., $|M_\phi| \geq 1$ and $M_\phi \cap M = \emptyset$). Assume that for any t and

²⁰Note, however, it is not sufficient for the unraveling argument that the Sender merely face large (even infinite) penalties for lying; it is crucial for that he be incapable of lying. For this reason, these models are also referred to as models of evidence disclosure or provability.

²¹I am grateful to Yeon-Koo Che for suggesting this extension.

$m \in M_\phi$, $C(m, t) = C(t, t)$,²² so that all messages in $M_\phi \cup M_t$ are equally costly for the Sender. The rest of the model remains as before. The set M_0 can be viewed as a set of pure cheap-talk messages (it is without loss of generality to normalize $C(m, t) = 0$ for all $m \in M_0$ and t), or as the Sender being silent, or otherwise *freely withholding information*.²³ In this formulation, withholding information takes particularly stark and simple form: at the limit as $k \rightarrow \infty$, the Sender is effectively choosing between either reporting his true type, or reporting nothing. This is generalized considerably later in this section. It is convenient however to start with this simple formulation, which I call the *withholding model*.

4.2. Augmented LSHP Equilibria. Consider first whether there can be full separation for any k . Suppose there is such an equilibrium. Any message in M_ϕ can not be used by any $t > 0$, for all sufficiently close lower types would mimic it. So separation of all types greater than zero must be achieved with non-withholding messages. But, by extending the argument of Theorem 1, this is impossible. Therefore, there must be pooling in equilibrium. As it is not my goal to characterize every pooling equilibrium, some of which can be implausible,²⁴ I only show that LSHP equilibria can be extended in an obvious way to the current environment.

To state this precisely, start with any LSHP equilibrium strategy profile when withholding is not allowed. Now consider a strategy profile in the withholding model where the Receiver responds to any withholding message, $m \in M_\phi$, with a maximally skeptical inference and plays $\alpha(m) = a^R(0)$; in other respects, strategies are identical to the LSHP profile. Call such a strategy profile an *augmented LSHP profile*.

Proposition 3. *An augmented LSHP profile is an equilibrium of the withholding model.*

The reason is simple: given the Receiver's play, telling the truth is always at least as good (strictly better if $t > 0$) as withholding, since it costs the same and leads to a weakly preferred (strictly, if $t > 0$) action. Hence, for any lying cost intensity, arbitrarily large or small, there are equilibria with the following properties: there is lying on the equilibrium path (since a positive measure of types play $m \in M_1$ in any LSHP equilibrium); there exists some $\underline{t} \geq 0$ such that types in $[\underline{t}, 1]$ form a single pool, claiming to be the highest type; all types below $\underline{t}$ separate, but claim to be higher types than they truly are; withholding does not occur on the equilibrium path; and the Receiver responds to withholding with a maximally skeptical inference. These last two properties are standard in the equilibria of verifiable disclosure games (e.g., [Milgrom and Roberts, 1986b](#),

²²Writing $C(m, t)$ involves an abuse of notation, but is a convenient shorthand in this section.

²³If one instead assumes that $C(t, t) > C(m, t)$ for any t and $m \in M_0$, then the Sender's cost of sending any $m \notin M_0$ has fixed and marginal components. Although this formulation is not analyzed here, I note that when combined with " $k = \infty$," it yields a model akin to *costly disclosure* (e.g., [Verrecchia, 1983](#)), which has also been studied recently by [Esö and Galambos \(2007\)](#).

²⁴For example, there is always an uninformative equilibrium where all types send the same $m \in M_0$, and the Receiver responds to every message with $a^R(0, 1)$. This can be ruled out by standard refinements such as [Cho and Kreps's \(1987\)](#) D1 criterion, for any $k > 0$ (and even weaker criteria for large k).

Proposition 2), with the caveat that of course the lowest type could just as well fully disclose or withhold.

Proposition 3 implies that the insights of the original non-withholding model can be applied to the current environment. Of particular interest are the limits as $k \rightarrow 0$ or $k \rightarrow \infty$.

Proposition 4. *When $k \approx 0$, any equilibrium in an augmented LSHP profile is uninformative, with all types pooling on some $m \in M_1$. As $k \rightarrow \infty$, any sequence of equilibria in augmented LSHP profiles has $\underline{t} \rightarrow 1$ and, for all t , $\rho(t) \rightarrow t$.*

Thus, at the cheap-talk limit of augmented LSHP equilibria, not only is there no information revealed, but language is entirely inflated (all types claim to be the highest), whereas at the verifiable disclosure limit, there is full separation through truth-telling. In this sense, the augmented LSHP equilibria provide an intuitively sensible spanning of the extreme cases both in terms of how much information is conveyed and the messages that are used.

4.3. Richer Forms of Withholding. The withholding model studied so far is special because, at the limit of $k \rightarrow \infty$, the Sender has only two (undominated) choices: either completely withhold information about his type or completely reveal it. Most verifiable disclosure models endow the Sender with a much richer set of statements, for example, reporting that his type lies in any closed subset of $[0, 1]$ that contains his true type. This means the Sender can credibly reveal some information without revealing it all. To consider such possibilities when the intensity of lying cost is not too large requires specifying the cost of each such message for each type. The discussion below identifies a sufficient condition for the earlier analysis to extend.

Let $\mathcal{T}$ be any set of closed subsets of $T = [0, 1]$, such that as for each $t \in T$, $\{t\} \in \mathcal{T}$. The Sender is permitted to claim that his type lies in any element of $\mathcal{T}$, i.e. for any $X \in \mathcal{T}$, there is a (non-empty) set of messages M_X with the literal meaning “my type is in X .” Let $\theta : \mathcal{T} \times T \rightarrow T$ be any function satisfying $\theta(X, t) \in X$. Starting with the usual cost function that is defined for all precise statements (i.e., any singleton $X \in \mathcal{T}$), I extend it to each vague statement by assuming that $C(X, t) = C(\theta(X, t), t)$. That is, the cost for the Sender of claiming that his type is in a set X is the same as the cost of claiming that his type is $\theta(X, t)$.

The model without any withholding is the special case where $\mathcal{T}$ consists only of singleton sets. The withholding model discussed so far is the case where $\mathcal{T}$ also contains the set T , and $\theta(T, t) = t$ for all t . In general, one natural specification for θ is that $\theta(X, t) = \arg \min_{\tilde{t} \in X} |\tilde{t} - t|$. This captures the idea that a vague statement is a lie to the extent it is a lie when given its most favorable interpretation, i.e. the distance of the true type to the closest point in X . At the limit of $k \rightarrow \infty$, the Sender’s (undominated) choices are to claim that his type is in any $X \in \mathcal{T}$ such that $\theta(X, t) = t$. If $\theta(X, t) = \arg \min_{\tilde{t} \in X} |\tilde{t} - t|$, this consists of all sets in $\mathcal{T}$ which contain his true type.

The basic LSHP equilibria can be extended to this setting as well, for any lying cost intensity, as follows. Suppose the Sender plays as in some LSHP equilibrium, and let the Receiver respond to any $m \in M_X$ with $|X| = 1$ as in the LSHP equilibrium. For any $m \in M_X$ with $|X| > 1$, let the Receiver play $\alpha(m) = a^R(\min X)$. Therefore, the Receiver again makes a skeptical inference. Plainly, this is a generalization of the augmented LSHP strategy profile, because $\alpha(m) = a^R(0)$ for any $m \in M_{[0,1]}$. It can be verified that this construction is an equilibrium, regardless of k : for any $X \in \mathcal{T}$, if $m \in M_X$ is a profitable deviation for a type t , then $\tilde{m} \in M_{\theta(X,t)}$ is also a profitable deviation because it leads to a weakly higher action and costs the same; but there is no such profitable deviation since we started with an LSHP equilibrium.

5. CONCLUSION

This paper has studied a model of communication between an informed Sender and an uninformed Receiver, where the Sender has a cost of lying, or more broadly, misrepresenting his private information in certain ways. These costs on the Sender may arise for various reasons. The main results show that inflated language naturally arises in this environment, where the Sender (almost) always claims to be a higher type than he would under complete information. Regardless of the intensity of lying cost, there is incomplete separation, with some pooling on the highest messages. Nevertheless, how much information is revealed is a function of the intensity of lying cost. Various special cases such as large biases give further insights into the structure of the equilibria I have studied. An extension of the basic model to allow costless withholding of information provides a unified framework to embed both cheap talk and verifiable disclosure.

The formal structure of misrepresentation costs developed here permits various interpretations and applications. For example, technological and legal costs seem relevant when thinking about firms communicating to a market or analysts communicating to investors. In these settings, credulity of the Receiver is also quite pertinent. On the other hand, in many informal and direct communication settings, an intrinsic aversion to lying seems potentially important, and worthy of further study both theoretically and empirically. I end with two speculative comments in this regard.

Although intrinsic aversion to lying could arise from moral or norm-based preferences, there are other sources. Lying may cause physical discomfort or be otherwise difficult, as manifested by blushing, excessive blinking, stress, etc.²⁵ Moreover, misrepresentation sometimes requires “weaving a consistent web of lies,” which is a cognitive burden. Such physical and cognitive costs are likely to be more severe in face-to-face exchanges than in indirect ones. This may provide a rationale for why communication is thought to be more effective when conducted face-to-face.

²⁵In an intriguing experiment, Wang et al. (2006) measure pupil dilation of Senders in a strategic information transmission game. They find that “pupils dilate more widely when [Senders] are misrepresenting by a larger amount” (p. 5), and suggest that this is a manifestation of stress or cognitive difficulty.

In addition to the mode of communication, the *context* is also an important consideration. In settings where the “name of the game” is to deceive by lying—such as the popular card game *I Doubt It*—one may not expect an intrinsic aversion to lying.²⁶ Charness and Dufwenberg (2006, 2007) have argued for a guilt aversion theory of communication, using experimental evidence from pre-play messages in complete information games. One can incorporate guilt aversion into the CS model by assuming that the Sender suffers a disutility from “letting the Receiver down” in terms of how truthful he is relative to what the Receiver expects. I conjecture that the induced game would have similarities to the problem studied here, although the details would depend on the exact nature of guilt aversion and the solution concept imposed on the psychological game. These, and many others, are exciting topics for future research.

²⁶See [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bullshit_\(game\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bullshit_(game)) for a description of this card game. Note also that even in such settings, there may be direct constraints on lying, such as a player not be able to tell a big lie without giving it away through expression, laughter, etc.

APPENDIX A: PROOFS

Proof of Lemma 1 on page 8. By hypothesis, types (t_l, t_h) are separating in a monotone PBE with mapping ρ . If ρ is constant on some interval $X \subseteq (t_l, t_h)$, then some $t \in X$ can profitably deviate and mimic a slightly higher type $t + \varepsilon \in X$, contradicting equilibrium separation; hence ρ must be strictly increasing on (t_l, t_h) . This implies that for any $t \in (t_l, t_h)$, $\rho(t) \in (0, 1)$. Separation requires that for each $t \in (t_l, t_h)$, t must be a solution to (1). If ρ is differentiable on (t_l, t_h) , then the first order condition obtained by differentiating (1) is (DE), as required. So it suffices to prove that ρ is differentiable on (t_l, t_h) . This is done in series of steps.

CLAIM: $\rho(t) \neq r^S(t)$ for all $t \in (t_l, t_h)$.

PROOF: Suppose there exists a $\hat{t} \in (t_l, t_h)$ such that $\rho(\hat{t}) = r^S(\hat{t})$. Define $g(\varepsilon)$ as the expected utility gain for a type $\hat{t} - \varepsilon$ by deviating from $\rho(\hat{t} - \varepsilon)$ to $\rho(\hat{t})$. Since we are on a separating portion of the type space when $|\varepsilon|$ is small,

$$g(\varepsilon) = [U^S(a^R(\hat{t}), \hat{t} - \varepsilon) - kC(\nu(r^S(\hat{t})), \hat{t} - \varepsilon)] - [U^S(a^R(\hat{t} - \varepsilon), \hat{t} - \varepsilon) - kC(\nu(\rho(\hat{t} - \varepsilon)), \hat{t} - \varepsilon)].$$

Since $C(\nu(\rho(\hat{t} - \varepsilon)), \hat{t} - \varepsilon) \geq C(\nu(r^S(\hat{t} - \varepsilon)), \hat{t} - \varepsilon)$,

$$g(\varepsilon) \geq \phi(\varepsilon) := [U^S(a^R(\hat{t}), \hat{t} - \varepsilon) - kC(\nu(r^S(\hat{t})), \hat{t} - \varepsilon)] - [U^S(a^R(\hat{t} - \varepsilon), \hat{t} - \varepsilon) - kC(\nu(r^S(\hat{t} - \varepsilon)), \hat{t} - \varepsilon)].$$

ϕ is differentiable in a neighborhood of 0, and has derivative

$$\begin{aligned} \phi'(\varepsilon) = & -U_2^S(a^R(\hat{t}), \hat{t} - \varepsilon) + kC_2(\nu(r^S(\hat{t})), \hat{t} - \varepsilon) - kC_1(\nu(r^S(\hat{t} - \varepsilon)), \hat{t} - \varepsilon) \nu'(r^S(\hat{t}) - \varepsilon) r_1^S(\hat{t} - \varepsilon) \\ & - kC_2(\nu(r^S(\hat{t} - \varepsilon)), \hat{t} - \varepsilon) + U_1^S(a^R(\hat{t} - \varepsilon), \hat{t} - \varepsilon) a_1^R(\hat{t} - \varepsilon) + U_2^S(a^R(\hat{t} - \varepsilon), \hat{t} - \varepsilon). \end{aligned}$$

Observe that $\phi(0) = 0$ and $\phi'(0) = U_1^S(a^R(\hat{t}), \hat{t}) a_1^R(\hat{t}) > 0$ (using $C_1(r^S(\hat{t}), \hat{t}) = 0$). Hence, for small $\varepsilon > 0$, $g(\varepsilon) \geq \phi(\varepsilon) > 0$, implying that a type $\hat{t} - \varepsilon$ strictly prefers to imitate $\hat{t}$, contradicting equilibrium separation of $\hat{t}$. $\diamond$

CLAIM: $\rho(t) > r^S(t)$ for all $t \in (t_l, t_h)$.

PROOF: Suppose not. By the previous Claim, there exists a $t' \in (t_l, t_h)$ such that $\rho(t') < r^S(t')$. By monotonicity of ρ , $\rho(t' - \varepsilon) < \rho(t')$ for all $\varepsilon > 0$. It follows that for small enough $\varepsilon > 0$, $C(\nu(\rho(t' - \varepsilon)), t' - \varepsilon) > C(\nu(\rho(t')), t' - \varepsilon)$. On the other hand, for small enough $\varepsilon > 0$, $U^S(a^R(t'), t' - \varepsilon) > U^S(a^R(t' - \varepsilon), t' - \varepsilon)$. Therefore, for small enough $\varepsilon > 0$, a type $t' - \varepsilon$ strictly prefers to imitate t' , contradicting equilibrium separation of t' . $\diamond$

CLAIM: ρ is continuous on (t_l, t_h) .

PROOF: Suppose there is a discontinuity at some $\hat{t} \in (t_l, t_h)$. First assume $\rho(\hat{t}) < \lim_{t \downarrow \hat{t}} \rho(t) =: \bar{\rho}$. By the continuity of C and ν , and the monotonicity of ρ , as $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$,

$$C(\nu(\rho(\hat{t} + \varepsilon)), \hat{t} + \varepsilon) - C(\nu(\rho(\hat{t})), \hat{t} + \varepsilon) \rightarrow C(\nu(\bar{\rho}), \hat{t}) - C(\nu(\rho(\hat{t})), \hat{t}) > 0,$$

where the inequality above follows from $\bar{\rho} > \rho(\hat{t}) \geq r^S(\hat{t})$. On the other hand, $U^S(a^R(\hat{t} + \varepsilon), \hat{t} + \varepsilon) - U^S(a^R(\hat{t}), \hat{t} + \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$ as $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$; hence, for small enough $\varepsilon > 0$, $\hat{t} + \varepsilon$ prefers to imitate $\hat{t}$, contradicting equilibrium separation.

The argument for the other case where $\rho(\hat{t}) > \lim_{t \uparrow \hat{t}} \rho(t)$ is similar, establishing that $\hat{t}$ prefers to imitate $\hat{t} - \varepsilon$ for small enough $\varepsilon > 0$. $\diamond$

CLAIM: ρ is differentiable on (t_l, t_h) .

PROOF: Given the previous claims that ρ is continuous and does not intersect r^S on (t_l, t_h) , one can simply replicate the argument of Mailath (1987, Proposition 2 in Appendix). $\diamond$
Q.E.D.

The following Lemma is used in the proof of Theorem 1 and proves uniqueness of the separating function.

Lemma A.1. *Fix any $t_0 \in [r^S(0), 1]$. There is a unique solution to the problem of finding a $\bar{t} \in [0, 1]$ and $\rho : [0, \bar{t}] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that (i) ρ is strictly increasing and continuous on $[0, \bar{t}]$, (ii) $\rho(0) = t_0$, (iii) ρ solves (DE) on $(0, \bar{t})$, and (iv) $\rho(\bar{t}) = 1$ if $\bar{t} < 1$. Moreover, $\bar{t} = 0$ if $r^S(0) = 0$, otherwise $\bar{t} < \min\{t : r^S(t) = 1\}$.*

Proof. If $r^S(0) = 1$, the Lemma is trivial, so assume $r^S(0) < 1$. Since $C_1(r^S(t), t) = 0$ for all t such that $r^S(t) \in (0, 1)$, there is no Lipschitz condition on (DE) on the relevant domain, in particular even locally if $t_0 = r^S(0)$. Thus, standard results on differential equations do not apply. Instead, I proceed as follows, similar to Mailath (1987).

STEP 1: (Local existence and uniqueness.) Consider the inverse initial value problem to find $\tau(\hat{t})$ such that:

$$\tau' = g(\hat{t}, \tau) := \frac{kC_1(\nu(\hat{t}), \tau)\nu'(\hat{t})}{U_1^S(a^R(\tau), \tau)a_1^R(\tau)}, \quad \tau(\hat{t}_0) = 0. \quad (\text{A-1})$$

By the assumptions on C , ν , and U^S , g is continuous and Lipschitz on $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$. Hence, standard theorems (e.g. Coddington and Levinson, 1955, Theorem 2.3, p. 10) imply that there is a unique location solution, $\tilde{\tau}$, to (A-1) on $[\hat{t}_0, \hat{t}_0 + \delta)$, for some $\delta > 0$; moreover, $\tilde{\tau} \in \mathcal{C}^1([\hat{t}_0, \hat{t}_0 + \delta))$.²⁷ Inverting $\tilde{\tau}$ gives a strictly increasing $\tilde{\rho}$ on $[0, \tilde{t})$ such that $\tilde{\rho}(0) = t_0$, $\tilde{\rho}$ solves (DE) on $(0, \tilde{t})$, and $\tilde{\rho} \in \mathcal{C}^1([0, \tilde{t}))$. Note that $\tilde{\rho}(t) > r^S(t)$ for all $t \in (0, \tilde{t})$. Since the inverse of any increasing local solution to (DE) is a local solution to (A-1) on $[r^S(0), r^S(0) + \eta)$ for some $\eta > 0$, local uniqueness of an increasing solution to (DE) follows from the fact that $\tilde{\tau}$ is the unique local solution to (A-1) above $r^S(0)$.

STEP 2: ($\tilde{\rho}$ is bounded away from r^S above 0.) Suppose $\tilde{\rho}$ is a solution to (DE) on $[0, \delta)$, with $\tilde{\rho} \in \mathcal{C}^1([0, \delta))$ and $\tilde{\rho}' > 0$. Let $t_\delta := \lim_{t \uparrow \delta} \tilde{\rho}(t)$. I claim that $t_\delta > r^S(\delta)$. This is obviously true if $r^S(\delta) = 0$, so assume $r^S(\delta) > 0$, and $t_\delta \leq r^S(\delta)$, towards contradiction. We must have $t_\delta = r^S(\delta)$ (because $\tilde{\rho}(t) > r^S(t)$ for all $t \in (0, \delta)$) and $\lim_{t \uparrow \delta} \tilde{\rho}'(t) = \infty$. Let $z := \max r_1^S(t)$. By the assumptions on $C(\cdot, \cdot)$, $z < \infty$. Since $\tilde{\rho} \in \mathcal{C}^1([0, \delta))$, there exists $t_1(0, \delta)$ such that $\tilde{\rho}'(t) > z$ for all $t \in [t_1, \delta)$. Pick $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $\tilde{\rho}(t_1) > r^S(t_1) + \varepsilon$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} t_\delta &= \tilde{\rho}(t_1) + \lim_{t \uparrow \delta} \int_{t_1}^t \tilde{\rho}'(y) dy \\ &> r^S(t_1) + \varepsilon + \int_{t_1}^\delta \tilde{\rho}'(y) dy \\ &> r^S(t_1) + \varepsilon + \int_{t_1}^\delta r_1^S(y) dy \\ &= r^S(\delta) + \varepsilon, \end{aligned}$$

²⁷ $\mathcal{C}^1([a, b))$ is the set of all Real-valued functions on $[a, b)$ that have a continuous derivative at all $\hat{t} \in (a, b)$ and in addition have a right-hand derivative at a that is continuous from the right at a .

which contradicts $t_\delta = r^S(\delta)$.

STEP 3: The proof is completed as follows. If $\tilde{\rho}$ is defined on $[0, \delta)$ with $\lim_{t \uparrow \delta} \tilde{\rho}(t) < 1$, then by the previous step, $\frac{U^S(a^R(t), t) a_1^R(t)}{kC_1(r, t)}$ is continuous, Lipschitz, and bounded in a neighborhood of $(\delta, \lim_{t \uparrow \delta} \tilde{\rho}(t))$, hence standard theorems (e.g. [Coddington and Levinson, 1955](#), Theorem 4.1 and preceding discussion, p. 15) imply that there is a unique extension of $\tilde{\rho}$ to $[0, \delta + \eta)$ for some $\eta > 0$; this extension is strictly increasing, in $\mathcal{C}^1([0, \delta + \eta))$, and by the previous step, $\lim_{t \uparrow \delta + \eta} \tilde{\rho}(t) > r^S(\delta + \eta)$. Now let $\bar{t} := \sup\{x : \tilde{\rho} \text{ can be extended to } [0, x)\}$. Clearly, $\bar{t} < \min\{t : r^S(t) = 1\}$. Moreover, we must have $\lim_{t \uparrow \bar{t}} \tilde{\rho}(t) = 1$, for otherwise $\tilde{\rho}$ can be extended beyond $\bar{t}$. We are done by setting $\tilde{\rho}(\bar{t}) = 1$. Q.E.D.

Proof of Theorem 1 on page 9. Suppose there is a separating monotone equilibrium, (α, μ) . By Lemma 1, the induced map $\rho = \Psi \circ \alpha$ solves (DE) on $(0, 1)$. Let $t_0 := \lim_{t \downarrow 0} \rho(t)$. Since $\rho(t) > r^S(t)$ for all $t \in (0, 1)$, $t_0 \geq r^S(0)$. However, by Lemma A.1, there is no solution on $[0, 1)$ to the initial value problem given by $\rho(0) = t_0$ and (DE) on $(0, 1)$, a contradiction. Q.E.D.

The following Lemma is used in the proof of Theorem 2.

Lemma A.2. *There exists $\underline{t} \in [0, \bar{t}]$ and a strictly increasing sequence, $(t_0 = \underline{t}, t_1, \dots, t_J = 1)$, such that*

$$\text{For all } j \in \{1, \dots, J-1\}, U^S(a^R(t_{j-1}, t_j), t_j) - U^S(a^R(t_j, t_{j+1}), t_j) = 0, \quad (\text{A-2})$$

$$\text{If } \underline{t} > 0, U^S(a^R(\underline{t}, t_1), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(1), \underline{t}) = U^S(a^R(\underline{t}, \underline{t}), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(\rho^*(\underline{t})), \underline{t}). \quad (\text{A-3})$$

$$\text{If } \underline{t} = 0, U^S(a^R(\underline{t}, t_1), 0) - kC(\nu(1), 0) \geq U^S(a^R(0, 0), 0) - kC(\nu(r^S(0)), 0). \quad (\text{A-4})$$

Moreover, if $r^S(0) < r^S(1)$ and k is large enough, this is true with some $\underline{t} > 0$.

Proof. The proof is constructive.

STEP 0: PRELIMINARIES

Start by defining the function

$$\phi(t) := U^S(a^S(t), t) - kC(\nu(1), t) - [U^S(a^R(t), t) - kC(\nu(\rho^*(t)), t)].$$

$\phi(t)$ is the utility gain for type t from sending a message in M_1 and receiving its ideal action over separating itself (thus inducing $a^R(t)$) with a message in $M_{\rho^*(t)}$. Note that in an LSHP equilibrium, the gain from pooling over separating can be no more than $\phi(t)$, and will generally be strictly less. There are two conceptually distinct cases: one where $\phi(t) = 0$ for some $t \leq \bar{t}$, and the other where $\phi(t) > 0$ for all $t \leq \bar{t}$. Define

$$\hat{t} := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \phi(t) > 0 \text{ for all } t \leq \bar{t}, \\ \sup_{t \in [0, \bar{t}]} \{t : \phi(t) = 0\} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

ϕ is continuous and $\phi(\bar{t}) > 0$; hence $\hat{t} < \bar{t}$ and for all $t \in (\hat{t}, \bar{t}]$, $\phi(t) > 0$. In everything that follows, we are only concerned with $t \in [\hat{t}, \bar{t}]$. So statements such as “for all t ” are to be read as “for all $t \in [\hat{t}, \bar{t}]$ ” and so forth unless explicitly specified otherwise.

STEP 1: CONSTRUCTING THE NECESSARY SEQUENCES.

Initialize $p_0^l(t) = p_0^r(t) = t$, and $a_0^l(t) = a_0^r(t) = a^R(t)$. Define

$$\Delta(a, t) := U^S(a, t) - kC(\nu(1), t) - [U^S(a^R(t), t) - kC(\nu(\rho^*(t)), t)].$$

Clearly, Δ is continuous in both arguments, and strictly concave in a with a maximum at $a^S(t)$. Since $\Delta(a^R(t), t) \leq 0 \leq \Delta(a^S(t), t)$ for all $t \in [\hat{t}, \bar{t}]$, it follows that for any such t , in the domain $a \in [a^R(t), a^S(t)]$ there exists a unique solution to $\Delta(a, t) = 0$. Call this $a_1^l(t)$. Similarly, on the domain $a \in [a^S(t), \infty)$, there exists a unique solution to $\Delta(a, t) = 0$. Call this $a_1^r(t)$. By continuity of Δ , a_1^l and a_1^r are continuous, $a_1^l(\bar{t}) = a_0^r(\bar{t})$, and $a_1^r(\hat{t}) = a_0^l(\hat{t}) = a^S(\hat{t})$ if $\hat{t} > 0$. By the monotonicity of $a^R(\cdot, \cdot)$, for $q \in \{l, r\}$ and t , there is either no solution or a unique t' that solves $a^R(t, t') = a_1^q(t)$. If there is a solution, call it $p_1^q(t)$, otherwise set $p_1^q(t) = 1$. It is straightforward that p_1^l and p_1^r are continuous functions, $p_1^l(t) \geq p_0^l(t)$ with equality if and only if $t = \bar{t}$, and $p_1^r(t) > p_0^r(t)$. Note that $p_1^r(t) \geq p_1^l(t)$, and $p_1^l(\hat{t}) = p_1^r(\hat{t})$ if $\hat{t} > 0$.

For $j \geq 2$ and $q \in \{l, r\}$, recursively define $p_j^q(t)$ as the solution to

$$U^S\left(a^R\left(p_{j-1}^q(t), p_j^q(t)\right), p_{j-1}^q(t)\right) - U^S\left(a^R\left(p_{j-2}^q(t), p_{j-1}^q(t)\right), p_{j-1}^q(t)\right) = 0$$

if a solution exists that is strictly greater than $p_{j-1}^q(t)$, and otherwise set $p_j^q(t) = 1$. By the monotonicity of a^R and $U_{11}^S < 0$, $p_j^q(t)$ is well-defined and unique. Define $a_j^q(t) := a^R(p_{j-1}^q(t), p_j^q(t))$. Note that for all $j \geq 2$, $p_j^q(t) > p_{j-1}^q(t)$ and $a_j^q(t) > a_{j-1}^q(t)$ if and only if $p_{j-1}^q(t) < 1$. For all j and $q \in \{l, r\}$, $p_j^q(t)$ is continuous, $p_j^r(t) \geq p_j^l(t)$ for all t , $p_j^l(\hat{t}) = p_j^r(\hat{t})$ if $\hat{t} > 0$, and $p_{j+1}^l(\bar{t}) = p_j^r(\bar{t})$ (these follow easily by induction, given that we noted all these properties for $j = 1$).

STEP 2: THE CRITICAL SEGMENT B.

I claim there exists $B \geq 1$ such that $p_{B-1}^r(\bar{t}) < 1 = p_B^r(\bar{t})$. (Obviously, if it exists, it is unique.) To see this, first note that by definition, $p_0^r(\bar{t}) = \bar{t} < 1$. Let $\bar{K} = \inf\{K : p_K^r(\bar{t}) = 1\}$.²⁸ It is sufficient to show that $\exists \varepsilon > 0$ such that for any $j < \bar{K}$, $|a_{j+1}^r(\bar{t}) - a_j^r(\bar{t})| \geq \varepsilon$. By construction, $a_j^r(\bar{t}) < a^S(p_j^r(\bar{t})) < a_{j+1}^r(\bar{t})$ and $a_j^r(\bar{t}) \leq a^R(p_j^r(\bar{t})) \leq a_{j+1}^r(\bar{t})$. Since $\min_{t \in [0, 1]} |a^S(t) - a^R(t)| > 0$, we are done.

STEP 3: EXISTENCE WHEN $\hat{t} > 0$.

Consider the functions p_B^l and p_B^r . These are continuous, and $p_B^l(\bar{t}) = p_{B-1}^r(\bar{t}) < 1 = p_B^r(\bar{t})$. Moreover, $p_B^l(\hat{t}) = p_B^r(\hat{t})$; hence either $p_B^l(\hat{t}) = 1$ or $p_B^r(\hat{t}) < 1$. It follows that there is some type $\tilde{t} \in [\hat{t}, \bar{t}]$ such that either (i) $p_B^l(\tilde{t}) = 1$ and $p_B^l(t) < 1$ for all $t > \tilde{t}$; or (ii) $p_B^r(\tilde{t}) = 1$ and $p_B^r(t) < 1$ for all $t < \tilde{t}$. Let $q = l$ if (i) is the case; $q = r$ if (ii) is the case. By construction, setting $\underline{t} = \tilde{t}$ and $t_j = p_B^q(\tilde{t})$ for $j = 1, \dots, B$ satisfies the needed properties.

STEP 4: EXISTENCE WHEN $\hat{t} = 0$.

By the continuity of p_B^l and p_B^r , the logic in Step 3 can fail when $\hat{t} = 0$ only if $p_B^l(0) < 1 = p_B^r(0)$. So suppose this is the case. Note that this requires $p_1^l(0) < p_1^r(0)$. For any $t \in [p_1^l(0), p_1^r(0)]$, $U^S(a^R(0, t), 0) - kC(1, 0) - [U^S(a^r(0), 0) - kC(0, 0)] \geq 0$, with strict

²⁸Recall that the infimum of an empty set is $+\infty$.

inequality for interior t . In words, when $t \in [p_1^l(0), p_1^r(0)]$, type 0 weakly prefers (indifference at the endpoints and strict preference for interior t) inducing $a^R(0, t)$ with a message in M_1 over inducing $a^R(0)$ with message in $M_{r^S(0)}$. This follows from the construction of p_1^l and p_1^r , and $U_{11}^S < 0$. Given any $t \in [0, 1]$, define $\tau_0(t) = 0$, $\tau_1(t) = t$, and recursively, for $j \geq 2$, $\tau_j(t)$ as the solution to

$$U^S(a^R(\tau_{j-1}(t), \tau_j(t)), \tau_{j-1}(t)) - U^S(a^R(\tau_{j-2}(t), \tau_{j-1}(t)), \tau_{j-1}(t)) = 0$$

if a solution exists that is strictly greater than $\tau_{j-1}(t)$, and otherwise set $\tau_j(t) = 1$. It is straightforward that for all $j \geq 0$, $\tau_j(t)$ is continuous in t . Since $\tau_B(p_1^l(0)) = p_B^l(0) < 1 = r_B^r(0) = \tau_B(p_1^r(0))$, it follows that $\tilde{t} = \min_{t \in [p_1^l(0), p_1^r(0)]} \{t : \tau_B(t) = 1\}$ is well-defined and lies in $(p_1^l(0), p_1^r(0)]$. By construction, setting $\underline{t} = 0$ and $t_j = \tau_j(\tilde{t})$ for $j = 1, \dots, B$ satisfies the needed properties.

Finally, the proof of the Lemma is completed by noting that $\hat{t} > 0$ for all k large enough if $r^S(0) < r^S(1)$, because $\underline{t} > 0$ if $r^S(0) < r^S(1)$ and $\phi(0) < 0$ for all k large enough in this case. Q.E.D.

Proof of Theorem 2 on page 11.

Fix any $\underline{t} \geq 0$ and strictly increasing sequence $\langle t_0 = \underline{t}, t_1, \dots, t_J = 1 \rangle$ that satisfy conditions (A-2), (A-3), and (A-4). I will show that there is a corresponding LSHP equilibrium. This suffices to prove the Theorem because of Lemma A.2.

I first define the strategy profile. Based on the discussion in the main text preceding the Theorem, the Sender's strategy, μ , is clear, with the only possible ambiguity being for types $t_0, \dots, t_{J-1}$: assume for concreteness that they "pool up" rather than "down" (so type $\underline{t}$ does not separate). Let $M^\mu := \bigcup_t \mu(t)$ be the set of messages used in this strategy. It is obvious what the Receiver's response, $\alpha(m)$, must be for any $m \in M^\mu$. For any $m \notin M^\mu$, the Receiver plays as follows:

- (1) For any $m \in M_t \setminus M^\mu$ with $t < r^S(0)$, $\alpha(m) = a^R(0)$.
- (2) For any $m \in M_t \setminus M^\mu$ with $t \in [\rho^*(0), \rho^*(\underline{t})]$, $\alpha(m) = a^R((\rho^*)^{-1}(t))$.
- (3) For any $m \in M_t \setminus M^\mu$ with $t \in [\rho^*(\underline{t}), 1]$, $\alpha(m) = a^R(\underline{t})$.
- (4) For any $m \in M_1 \setminus M^\mu$, $\alpha(m) = a^R(\underline{t}, t_1)$.

I now argue that (μ, α) as constructed above is an LSHP equilibrium. Obviously, μ is an LSHP strategy and α is optimal given beliefs that are derived by Bayes rule on the equilibrium path. So it only needs to be shown that μ is optimal for the Sender.

No type $t \geq \underline{t}$ has a profitable deviation to some $m \in M_1$, because $\alpha(m) = a^R(t_0, t_1)$ for any $m \in M_1 \setminus M^\mu$ and $U^S(\alpha(\mu(t)), t) \geq U^S(a^R(t_{j-1}, t_j), t)$ for all $j = 1, \dots, J$ since (3) holds for each t_j ($j = 1, \dots, J$) and $U_{12}^S > 0$. This logic also implies that if any $t < \underline{t}$ has a profitable deviation to some $m \in M_1$, it has a profitable deviation to some $m \in M_1 \cap M^\mu$. Note also that if any type has a profitable deviation to some $m \in M_t$ where $t < r^S(0)$, then it has a profitable deviation to some $\tilde{m} \in M_{r^S(0)}$, because $\tilde{m}$ is cheaper than m for all types, and they both lead to the same action, $\alpha(m) = \alpha(\tilde{m}) = a^R(0)$.

CLAIM: Assume $\underline{t} = 0$. Then no type has a profitable deviation to any $m \in \bigcup_{t \in [r^S(0), 1]} M_t$.

PROOF: By Lemma A.2, type 0 does not have a profitable deviation to any $m \in M \setminus M_1$. So I prove the result by showing that if some type has a profitable deviation to some $m \in \bigcup_{t \in [r^S(0), 1)} M_t$, then type 0 has a profitable deviation to m . For this, it suffices to show that if $t > 0$ and $\hat{t} \in [r^S(0), 1)$, then

$$\begin{aligned} U^S(a^R(0), t) - kC(\nu(\hat{t}), t) &> U^S(\alpha(\mu(t)), t) - kC(\nu(1)(t), t) \\ &\Downarrow \\ U^S(a^R(0), 0) - kC(\nu(\hat{t}), 0) &> U^S(\alpha(\mu(0)), 0) - kC(\nu(1), 0). \end{aligned}$$

Fix a $t > 0$ and $\hat{t} \in [r^S(0), 1)$. Since $\underline{t} = 0$, we have

$$U^S(\alpha(\mu(t)), t) - kC(\nu(1), t) \geq U^S(\alpha(\mu(0)), t) - kC(\nu(1), t),$$

and hence it suffices to show that

$$\begin{aligned} U^S(a^R(0), 0) - kC(\nu(\hat{t}), 0) &- [U^S(\alpha(\mu(0)), 0) - kC(\nu(1), 0)] \\ &> U^S(a^R(0), t) - kC(\nu(\hat{t}), t) - [U^S(\alpha(\mu(0)), t) - kC(\nu(1), t)]. \end{aligned}$$

This inequality can be rewritten as

$$\int_{a^R(0)}^{\alpha(\mu(0))} \int_0^t U_{12}^S(y, z) dz dy > k \int_{\nu(\hat{t})}^{\nu(1)} \int_0^t C_{12}(y, z) dz dy,$$

which holds because $C_{12} < 0 < U_{12}^S$. $\diamond$

CLAIM: Assume $\underline{t} > 0$. Type $\underline{t}$ is indifferent between playing $\mu(t)$ and playing any $m \in M_{\rho^*(t)} \setminus M^\mu$, but strictly prefers $\mu(t)$ to any $m \in M^\mu \setminus \{M_{\rho^*(t)} \cup M_1\}$. Any $t \neq \underline{t}$ strictly prefers $\mu(t)$ to any $m \in M^\mu \setminus M_{\rho(t)}$.

PROOF: The indifference property for type $\underline{t}$ is proved by two observations: if $\rho^*(\underline{t}) < 1$, then it is immediate from Lemma A.2 and that $\alpha(m) = a^R(\underline{t})$ for all $m \in M_{\rho^*(t)}$; on the other hand, if $\rho^*(\underline{t}) = 1$, then for any $m \in M_{\rho^*(t)} \setminus M^\mu$, $\alpha(\mu(t)) = \alpha(m) = a^R(\underline{t}, 1)$ and $\mu(t)$ and m have the same cost. Note that if $\rho^*(\underline{t}) = 1$, Lemma A.2 implies that $U^S(a^R(\underline{t}, t_1), \underline{t}) = U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), \underline{t})$.

Equation (DE) implies that for all $t \in (0, \underline{t})$,

$$U_1^S(a^R(t), t) \frac{da^R}{dt}(t) - kC_1(\nu(\rho^*(t)), t) \nu'(\rho^*(t)) \frac{d\rho^*}{dt}(t) = 0.$$

Since $U_{12}^S > 0 > C_{12}$, this implies that for any $\tilde{t} < t \in (0, \underline{t})$,

$$U_1^S(a^R(t), \tilde{t}) \frac{da^R}{dt}(t) - kC_1(\nu(\rho^*(t)), \tilde{t}) \nu'(\rho^*(t)) \frac{d\rho^*}{dt}(t) < 0.$$

Therefore, by continuity, any $t \leq \underline{t}$ strictly prefers $\mu(t)$ to any $m \in \bigcup_{\hat{t} \leq t} M_{\rho^*(\hat{t})} \setminus M_1$.

To show that any $t < \underline{t}$ strictly prefers $\mu(t)$ to any $m \in M_1$, pick any such t . The highest utility for t when constrained to sending $m \in M_1$ is attained by sending $\mu(\underline{t})$. From the previous arguments,

$$U^S(\alpha(\mu(t)), t) - kC(\nu(\rho(t)), t) > U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), t) - kC(\nu(\rho(\underline{t})), t),$$

and hence it suffices to show that

$$U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), t) - kC(\nu(\rho(\underline{t})), t) \geq U^S(\alpha(\mu(\underline{t})), t) - kC(\nu(1), t). \quad (\text{A-5})$$

Since $U^S(\alpha(\mu(\underline{t})), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(1), \underline{t}) = U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), t) - kC(\nu(\rho^*(\underline{t})), \underline{t})$, (A-5) is true if

$$\begin{aligned} & U^S(\alpha(\mu(\underline{t})), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(1), \underline{t}) - [U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), t) - kC(\nu(\rho^*(\underline{t})), \underline{t})] \\ & > U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), t) - kC(\nu(\rho(\underline{t})), t) - [U^S(\alpha(\mu(\underline{t})), t) - kC(\nu(1), t)], \end{aligned}$$

which can be rewritten as

$$\int_{a^R(\underline{t})}^{a^R(\underline{t}, t)} \int_{\underline{t}}^t U_{12}^S(y, z) dz dy > k \int_{\nu(\rho^*(\underline{t}))}^{\nu(1)} \int_{\underline{t}}^t C_{12}(y, z) dz dy,$$

which holds since $U_{12}^S > 0 > C_{12}$.

The argument for types $t > \underline{t}$ strictly preferring $\mu(t)$ to any $m \in M^\mu \setminus M_1$ is analogous to above. $\diamond$

CLAIM: Assume $\underline{t} > 0$. No type has a profitable deviation to any $m \in \bigcup_{t \in [\rho^*(\underline{t}), 1)} M_t$.

PROOF: The result is vacuously true if $\rho^*(\underline{t}) = 1$, so assume that $\rho^*(\underline{t}) < 1$. Any $m \in \bigcup_{t \in [\rho^*(\underline{t}), 1)} M_t$ is responded to with $\alpha(m) = a^R(\underline{t})$, hence when constrained to such messages, any type $t \leq \underline{t}$ maximizes utility by sending an $m \in M_{\rho^*(t)}$, because $\rho^*(\underline{t}) > r^S(t)$. However, by the previous Claim, all $t \leq \underline{t}$ weakly prefer playing $\mu(t)$ to any $m \in M_{\rho^*(t)}$. This proves the claim for any $t \leq \underline{t}$.

To prove the claim for all $t > \underline{t}$, it suffices to show that if $t > \underline{t}$ has a profitable deviation to an $m \in \bigcup_{t \in [\rho^*(\underline{t}), 1)} M_t$, then type $\underline{t}$ has a profitable deviation to m , since the latter is not possible. To prove this, it suffices to show that for any $t > \underline{t}$ and $\hat{t} \in [\rho^*(\underline{t}), 1)$,

$$\begin{aligned} U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), t) - kC(\nu(\hat{t}), t) & > U^S(\alpha(\mu(t)), t) - kC(\nu(1), t) \\ & \Downarrow \\ U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(\hat{t}), \underline{t}) & > U^S(\alpha(\mu(\underline{t})), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(1), \underline{t}). \end{aligned}$$

Fix a $t > \underline{t}$ and $\hat{t} \in [\rho^*(\underline{t}), 1)$. Since $U^S(\alpha(\mu(t)), t) \geq U^S(\alpha(\mu(\underline{t})), t)$, it suffices to show that

$$\begin{aligned} U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), t) - kC(\nu(\hat{t}), t) & > U^S(\alpha(\mu(\underline{t})), t) - kC(\nu(1), t) \\ & \Downarrow \\ U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(\hat{t}), \underline{t}) & > U^S(\alpha(\mu(\underline{t})), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(1), \underline{t}). \end{aligned}$$

This is true if

$$\begin{aligned} & U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(\hat{t}), \underline{t}) - [U^S(\alpha(\mu(\underline{t})), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(1), \underline{t})] \\ & > U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), t) - kC(\nu(\hat{t}), t) - [U^S(\alpha(\mu(\underline{t})), t) - kC(\nu(1), t)], \end{aligned}$$

which can be rewritten as

$$\int_{a^R(\underline{t})}^{\alpha(\mu(\underline{t}))} \int_{\underline{t}}^t U_{12}^S(y, z) dz dy > k \int_{\nu(\hat{t})}^{\nu(1)} \int_{\underline{t}}^t C_{12}(y, z) dz dy,$$

which is true because $U_{12}^S > 0 > C_{12}$. $\diamond$

The above claims establish that μ is optimal for the Sender, completing the proof.

Q.E.D.

Proof of Proposition 1 on page 13. Large bias implies that for any t , $U^S(\cdot, t)$ is strictly increasing on $[a^R(0), a^R(1)]$. Hence there cannot be multiple pools in an LSHP equilibrium

because all pools use messages in M_1 , imposing the same direct message cost on any type, whereas higher actions are strictly preferred by all types.

Necessity of (4) for $\underline{t} > 0$ is straightforward, since if it does not hold, continuity implies that for small enough $\varepsilon > 0$, either some type $\underline{t} - \varepsilon$ will deviate from $\mu(\underline{t} - \varepsilon)$ to $\mu(\underline{t})$, or $\underline{t}$ will deviate from $\mu(\underline{t})$ to $\mu(\underline{t} - \varepsilon)$. Sufficiency of (4) with $\underline{t} \in (0, \bar{t})$ for an LSHP equilibrium follows from the observation that such a $\underline{t}$ and (trivial) sequence $\langle t_0 = \underline{t}, t_1 = 1 \rangle$ satisfies and (A-2) and (A-3), and therefore the equilibrium construction of Theorem 2 applies.

Similarly, (5) must hold for an LSHP equilibrium with $\underline{t} = 0$, since otherwise type 0 will deviate to some $m \in r^S(0)$. It is sufficient because then $\underline{t} = 0$ and the (trivial) sequence $\langle t_0 = \underline{t} = 0, t_1 = 1 \rangle$ satisfies (A-2) and (A-4). *Q.E.D.*

Proof of Proposition 2 on page 14. Chen et al. (2008, Proposition 1) show that there is always a strictly increasing sequence $\langle t_0 = 0, t_1, \dots, t_J = 1 \rangle$ ($J \geq 1$) such that for $j = 1, \dots, J$, t_j satisfies (3), and moreover, $U^S(a^R(t_0, t_1), 0) \geq U^S(a^R(0), 0)$. Under the Proposition's assumption, we cannot have $U^S(a^R(t_0, t_1), 0) = U^S(a^R(0), 0)$. This implies that for all k sufficiently small enough, the sequence $\langle t_0 = 0, t_1, \dots, t_J = 1 \rangle$ ($J \geq 1$) combined with $\underline{t} = 0$ satisfies (A-2) and (A-4), and therefore the equilibrium construction of Theorem 2 applies. *Q.E.D.*

Proof of Proposition 3 on page 16. Since on-path behavior in an augmented LSHP profile is identical to an LSHP equilibrium, I only need to verify that deviating to some $m \in M_\phi$ is not profitable for any type. Fix any type t and some $m \in M_\phi$. Since the (non-augmented) LSHP profile is an equilibrium, it is not profitable for type t to deviate some unused $\tilde{m} \in r^S(t)$, which induces an action $\alpha(r^S(t)) \geq a^R(0)$. But then, since all $\tilde{m} \in r^S(t)$ cost the same as $m \in M_\phi$, and by large bias, $U^S(\alpha(r^S(t)), t) \geq U^S(a^R(0), t)$, deviating to m is not profitable for type t . *Q.E.D.*

Proof of Proposition 4 on page 17. Since bias is large, Proposition 1 implies that if $\underline{t} > 0$, (4) must hold. But the left-hand side of (4) is bounded above zero (on the domain $\underline{t} \in [0, \bar{t}]$) given any set of k that is bounded away from ∞ ; whereas the right-hand side is converging to 0 as $k \rightarrow 0$. Hence, for small enough k , there is no solution to (4) in the domain $\underline{t} \in [0, \bar{t}]$, which proves the first part of the Proposition.

The second part follows from the discussion in Section 3.6, noting that $\inf\{t : r^S(1) = 1\} = 1$ since $r^S(t) = t$ in the withholding model. *Q.E.D.*

APPENDIX B: EQUILIBRIUM REFINEMENT

This appendix develops a rigorous justification for focussing on LSHP equilibria, by applying an equilibrium refinement proposed by [Bernheim and Severinov \(2003\)](#) called the *monotonic D1* (mD1) criterion. The first part below explains and formalizes the criterion; the second part applies it to the current model, deriving the sense in which it justifies LSHP equilibria.

The Monotonic D1 Criterion. The underlying idea of the mD1 criterion is the same as [Cho and Kreps's \(1987\)](#) D1 criterion, which requires that the Receiver not attribute a deviation to a particular type if there is some other type that is willing to make the deviation for a strictly larger set of possible Receiver responses. The mD1 criterion strengthens this by applying the test to only those responses from the Receiver which satisfy an *action monotonicity* restriction. Analogous to message monotonicity for the Sender, action monotonicity requires the Receiver's strategy to satisfy $\alpha(m) \geq \alpha(m')$ if $\Psi(m) > \Psi(m')$. In words, if the Sender claims to be a strictly higher type, the Receiver should respond with a weakly higher action. Intuitively, given message monotonicity, action monotonicity is natural (and indeed, is an implication of message monotonicity on the equilibrium path).

Some notation is needed for the formal statement. With respect to a given profile (μ, α) , which induces some $\rho = \Psi \circ \alpha$, define

$$\begin{aligned}\xi_l(\tilde{t}) &:= \max\{a^R(0), \sup_{t:\rho(t) \leq \tilde{t}} \alpha(\mu(t))\}, \\ \xi_h(\tilde{t}) &:= \min\{a^R(1), \inf_{t:\rho(t) \geq \tilde{t}} \alpha(\mu(t))\},\end{aligned}$$

where I follow the convention that $\sup(\emptyset) = +\infty$ and $\inf(\emptyset) = -\infty$. To understand these functions, suppose (μ, α) is an equilibrium with message and action monotonicity. If some type claims to be $\tilde{t}$ on the equilibrium path, then $\xi_l(\tilde{t})$ (resp. $\xi_h(\tilde{t})$) is just the “lowest” (resp. “highest”) equilibrium action taken in response to a claim of $\tilde{t}$. If no type claims to be $\tilde{t}$, yet some type does claim to be a $t < \tilde{t}$ (resp. $t > \tilde{t}$), then $\xi_l(\tilde{t})$ (resp. $\xi_h(\tilde{t})$) is the “highest” (resp. “lowest”) action taken by the Receiver in equilibrium to a claim of being lower (resp. higher) than $\tilde{t}$. If no type claims to be any $t \leq \tilde{t}$ (resp. $t \geq \tilde{t}$), then $\xi_l(\tilde{t})$ (resp. $\xi_h(\tilde{t})$) just specifies the lowest (resp. highest) rationalizable action for the Receiver.

With respect to some profile (μ, α) , let

$$\begin{aligned}A(m, t) &:= [\xi_l(\Psi(m)), \xi_h(\Psi(m))] \cap \{a : U^S(a, t) - kC(\nu(\Psi(m)), t) \geq U^S(\alpha(\mu(t)), t) - kC(\nu(\rho(t)), t)\}, \\ \bar{A}(m, t) &:= [\xi_l(\Psi(m)), \xi_h(\Psi(m))] \cap \{a : U^S(a, t) - kC(\nu(\Psi(m)), t) > U^S(\alpha(\mu(t)), t) - kC(\nu(\rho(t)), t)\}.\end{aligned}$$

To interpret, consider an unused message m in some equilibrium. $A(m, t)$ (resp. $\bar{A}(m, t)$) is the set of responses *within the set* $[\xi_l(\Psi(m)), \xi_h(\Psi(m))]$ that give type t a weak (resp. strict) incentive to deviate to m .

The following is [Bernheim and Severinov's \(2003\)](#) refinement criterion adapted to the current model.

Definition B.1. An equilibrium, (μ, α) , satisfies the mD1 criterion if it satisfies (i) message monotonicity, (ii) action monotonicity, and (iii) $\alpha(m) = a^R(t')$ for any t' and any out-of-equilibrium message m such that $A(m, t) \subseteq \bar{A}(m, t')$ for all $t \neq t'$ and $A(m, t') \neq \emptyset$.

The first two parts of the definition are clear. In the third part, the requirement that $\alpha(m) = a^R(t')$ could alternatively be posed as $\text{support}[G(\cdot|m)] = \{t'\}$. If we replace $[\xi_l(\Psi(m)), \xi_h(\Psi(m))]$ in the definitions of A and $\bar{A}$ with $[a^R(0), a^R(1)]$, then the above test is basically the D1 criterion (cf. [Cho and Kreps, 1987](#), p. 205). However, given action monotonicity, any out-of-equilibrium message m satisfies $\alpha(m) \in [\xi_l(\Psi(m)), \xi_h(\Psi(m))]$. Accordingly, the definition above applies the idea behind the D1 criterion on the restricted action space $[\xi_l(\Psi(m)), \xi_h(\Psi(m))]$. That is, it requires that for some out-of-equilibrium message m , if there some type t' would *strictly* prefer to deviate to m for any response $a \in [\xi_l(\Psi(m)), \xi_h(\Psi(m))]$ that a type $t \neq t'$ would *weakly* prefer to deviate for, then upon observing the deviation m , the Receiver should believe it is type t' , so long as there is some response in $a \in [\xi_l(\Psi(m)), \xi_h(\Psi(m))]$ such that t' would at least weakly prefer sending m to it's equilibrium payoff.²⁹

The Connection to LSHP Equilibria. The mD1 criterion provides a justification for focussing on LSHP equilibria in the following sense: any mD1 equilibrium is an LSHP equilibrium, modulo the behavior of the cutoff type; conversely, there is always an LSHP equilibrium that is identical to some mD1 equilibrium. Formally,

Theorem B.1. (1) *If (μ, α) is an mD1 equilibrium, then there is an LSHP equilibrium, $(\tilde{\mu}, \tilde{\alpha})$ such that for almost every t , $\tilde{\mu}(t) = \mu(t)$ and $\tilde{\alpha}(\tilde{\mu}(t)) = \alpha(\mu(t))$.*

(2) *There is an LSHP equilibrium that is also an mD1 equilibrium.*

Remark B.1. *It is possible to strengthen part 2 of the Theorem considerably. For example, one can show that if $r^S(\cdot)$ is strictly increasing, then for any LSHP equilibrium, (μ, α) , there is some mD1 equilibrium, (μ, α') , such that $\alpha' \circ \mu = \alpha \circ \mu$, i.e. there are only off-the-equilibrium-path differences if any. A proof is available on request.*

The proof of Theorem B.1 requires a series of lemmata that derive necessary conditions for an mD1 equilibrium. Some notation is helpful, where all of the following are defined with implicit respect to some strategy, μ . Let $\mu^{-1}(m) := \{t : \mu(t) = m\}$ and $\Gamma(t) := \bigcup_{m \in M_t} \mu^{-1}(m)$. Hence, $\Gamma(t)$ is the set of types who claim to be type t , i.e. who use messages in M_t . To say that there is a pool on message m is to say that $|\mu^{-1}(m)| > 1$, type t is separating if $|\mu(t)| = 1$, and a message m is used if $|\mu^{-1}(m)| > 0$. Next, define $t_l(m) := \inf \{t : \rho(t) = \Psi(m)\}$ and $t_h(m) := \sup \{t : \rho(t) = \Psi(m)\}$. In words, $t_l(m)$ identifies the “lowest” type who claims to be type $\Psi(m)$, and similarly for $t_h(m)$. Note that under message monotonicity, $t_l(m) < t_h(m)$ implies that any type $t \in (t_l(m), t_h(m))$ satisfies $\mu(t) \in M_{\Psi(m)}$, although not necessarily $\mu(t) = m$.

Lemma B.1. *In any monotone equilibrium, for any message m ,*

- (1) $\mu^{-1}(m)$ and $\Gamma(\Psi(m))$ are convex sets, and $|\Gamma(\Psi(m))| \in \{0, 1, \infty\}$.
- (2) *If $|\Gamma(\Psi(m))| > 0$, there is a strictly increasing sequence, $\langle t_l(m) = t_0, t_1, \dots, t_J = t_h(m) \rangle$ and a set of distinct messages $\{m_j\}_{j=1}^J \subseteq M_{\Psi(m)}$ such that (i) for all $j = 1, \dots, J-1$, t_j solves (3), (ii) for any $j = 1, \dots, J$ and $t \in (t_{j-1}, t_j)$, $\mu(t) = m_j$, and $\alpha(\mu(t)) = a^R(t_{j-1}, t_j)$.*

Proof. Just apply the logic of CS.

Q.E.D.

²⁹The caveat that $A(m, t') \neq \emptyset$ prevents internal inconsistencies in the criterion when there exists m , t , and t' such that $A(m, t) = A(m, t') = \emptyset$.

Lemma B.2. *In any monotone equilibrium, if there is pooling on some message $m_p \notin M_1$, then there exists $\eta > 0$ such that every $m \in \bigcup_{t \in (\Psi(m_p), \Psi(m_p) + \eta)} M_t$ is unused.*

Hence, if there is pooling on some message, then there are some unused messages “just above.”

Proof. Suppose there is pooling on $m_p \notin M_1$. To minimize notation in this proof, write t_h instead of $t_h(m_p)$. If $\rho(t_h) > \Psi(m_p)$, then by message monotonicity, we are done, since all messages in $\bigcup_{(\Psi(m_p), \Psi(\alpha(t_h)))} M_t$ are unused. So assume that $\rho(t_h) = \Psi(m_p)$. If $t_h = 1$, we are done since all messages in $\bigcup_{(\Psi(m_p), 1)} M_t$ are unused, by message monotonicity. So assume $t_h < 1$. Let $m_h := \mu(t_h)$. We must have $|\mu^{-1}(m_h)| > 1$, for if not, t_h is separating, and a slightly lower type would strictly prefer to mimic type t_h , contradicting equilibrium. It follows that $\alpha(m_h) < a^R(t_h)$. Let $\tilde{t} := \lim_{t \downarrow t_h} \rho(t)$. (ρ' is well-defined by message monotonicity, though it may not be used.)

CLAIM: $\tilde{t} > \Psi(m_p)$.

PROOF: Suppose not. By message monotonicity, $\tilde{t} = \Psi(m_p) = \rho(t_h)$. Note that $\rho(\cdot)$ is then continuous at t_h . Since $\rho(t) > \Psi(m_p)$ for all $t > t_h$, it follows that ρ is strictly increasing on $(t_h, t_h + \delta)$ for some $\delta > 0$, i.e. all types in this interval are separating. Hence, $a_\varepsilon := \alpha(\mu(t_h + \varepsilon)) = a^R(t_h + \varepsilon)$ for small enough $\varepsilon > 0$. By picking $\varepsilon > 0$ small enough, we can make $C(\nu(\rho(t_h + \varepsilon)), t_h) - C(\nu(\rho(t_h)), t_h)$ arbitrarily close to 0, whereas $U^S(a_\varepsilon, t_h) - U^S(\alpha(m_h), t_h)$ is positive and bounded away from 0, because $\alpha(m_h) < a^R(t_h) < a_\varepsilon < a^S(t_h)$. Therefore, for small enough $\varepsilon > 0$, t_h prefers to imitate $t_h + \varepsilon$, contradicting equilibrium. $\diamond$

This completes the argument because messages in $\bigcup_{t \in (\Psi(m_p), \tilde{t})} M_t$ are unused. *Q.E.D.*

Lemma B.3. *In any mD1 equilibrium, if $|\Gamma(\tilde{t})| = 0$ for some $\tilde{t} > \rho(0)$, then for all $m \in M_{\tilde{t}}$, $\alpha(m) = a^R(\sup\{t : \rho(t) < \tilde{t}\})$.*

Hence, if no type claims to be $\tilde{t} > \rho(0)$, then the Receiver must respond to any claim of being $\tilde{t}$ by inferring that the Sender is the “highest type who claims to be below $\tilde{t}$.” The proof shows that it is this type who has the biggest incentive to claim to be $\tilde{t}$ (given action monotonicity for the Receiver).

Proof. Fix a $\tilde{t} > \rho(0)$ such that $|\Gamma(\tilde{t})| = 0$. Let $\hat{t} := \sup\{t : \rho(t) < \tilde{t}\}$ and, for any t , $a_t := \alpha(\mu(t))$. There are two distinct cases: either $\hat{t} < 1$, or $\hat{t} = 1$.

Case 1: $\hat{t} < 1$

Let $t^+ := \inf_{t > \hat{t}} \rho(t)$, $t^- := \sup_{t < \hat{t}} \rho(t)$, $a^+ := \xi_h(\tilde{t})$, and $a^- := \xi_l(\tilde{t})$. Message monotonicity implies that $\rho(\hat{t}), \hat{t} \in [t^-, t^+]$.

CLAIM: The inequalities below, (B-1) and (B-2), hold for all t , with equality for $t = \hat{t}$:

$$U^S(a_t, t) - kC(\nu(\rho(t)), t) \geq U^S(a^-, t) - kC(\nu(t^-), t), \quad (\text{B-1})$$

$$U^S(a_t, t) - kC(\nu(\rho(t)), t) \geq U^S(a^+, t) - kC(\nu(t^+), t). \quad (\text{B-2})$$

PROOF: I prove it for (B-1); it is analogous for (B-2). Suppose first that $\rho(\hat{t}) > \tilde{t}$. Then, by message and action monotonicity, $a^- = \lim_{t \uparrow \hat{t}} a_t$ and $(a_t, \rho(t)) \uparrow (a^-, t^-)$ as $t \uparrow \hat{t}$. Continuity of U^S , C , and ν imply that any t for which (B-1) does not hold has a profitable

deviation to $\mu(\hat{t} - \varepsilon)$ for small enough $\varepsilon > 0$. For type $\hat{t}$, suppose towards contradiction that (B-1) holds strictly. Continuity of U^S , C , and ν then imply that for all sufficiently small $\varepsilon > 0$, $U^S(a_{\hat{t}}, \hat{t} - \varepsilon) - kC(\nu(\rho(\hat{t})), \hat{t} - \varepsilon) > U^S(a_{\hat{t}-\varepsilon}, \hat{t} - \varepsilon) - kC(\nu(\rho(\hat{t} - \varepsilon)), \hat{t} - \varepsilon)$, which contradicts optimality of $\mu(\hat{t} - \varepsilon)$.

Now suppose that $\rho(\hat{t}) < \tilde{t}$. Then $a^- = a_{\hat{t}}$ and $t^- = \rho(\hat{t})$, and it is obvious that (B-1) holds with equality for $\hat{t}$. Moreover, any t for which (B-1) does not hold has a profitable deviation to $\mu(\hat{t})$. $\diamond$

The following two claims show that the mD1 criterion yields the desired conclusion.

CLAIM: For all $m \in M_{\tilde{t}}$, $A(m, \hat{t}) \neq \emptyset$.

PROOF: Pick any $m \in M_{\tilde{t}}$. If $\tilde{t} \leq r^S(0)$, then since (B-1) holds with equality for $\hat{t}$, $a^- \in A(m, \hat{t})$. If $\tilde{t} > r^S(0)$, then since (B-2) hold with equality for $\hat{t}$, $a^+ \in A(m, \hat{t})$. $\diamond$

CLAIM: For all $m \in M_{\tilde{t}}$ and $t \neq \hat{t}$, $A(m, t) \subseteq \overline{A}(m, \hat{t})$.

PROOF: Fix any $m \in M_{\tilde{t}}$ and $t \neq \hat{t}$. I must show that $\forall a \in [a^-, a^+]$,

$$\begin{aligned} U^S(a, t) - kC(\nu(\tilde{t}), t) &\geq U^S(a, t) - kC(\nu(\rho(t)), t) \\ &\Downarrow \\ U^S(a, \hat{t}) - kC(\nu(\tilde{t}), \hat{t}) &> U^S(a_{\hat{t}}, \hat{t}) - kC(\nu(\rho(\hat{t})), \hat{t}). \end{aligned}$$

I provide the argument assuming $t < \hat{t}$; it is analogous for $t > \hat{t}$ (using (B-2) instead of (B-1)). Since (B-1) holds for all t , with equality for $\hat{t}$, it suffices to show that

$$\begin{aligned} U^S(a, t) - kC(\nu(\tilde{t}), t) &\geq U^S(a^-, t) - kC(\nu(t^-), t) \\ &\Downarrow \\ U^S(a, \hat{t}) - kC(\nu(\tilde{t}), \hat{t}) &> U^S(a^-, \hat{t}) - kC(\nu(t^-), \hat{t}). \end{aligned}$$

This is true if

$$\begin{aligned} U^S(a, \hat{t}) - kC(\nu(\tilde{t}), \hat{t}) - [U^S(a^-, \hat{t}) - kC(\nu(t^-), \hat{t})] \\ > U^S(a, t) - kC(\nu(\tilde{t}), t) - [U^S(a^-, t) - kC(\nu(t^-), t)], \end{aligned}$$

which can be rewritten as

$$\int_{a^-}^a \int_t^{\hat{t}} U_{12}^S(y, z) dz dy > k \int_{\nu(t^-)}^{\nu(\hat{t})} \int_t^{\hat{t}} C_{12}(y, z) dz dy,$$

which is true because $U_{12}^S > 0 > C_{12}$. $\diamond$

Case 2: $\hat{t} = 1$

It needs to be shown that for any $m \in M_{\tilde{t}}$, $\alpha(m) = a^R(1)$. If $a_1 = a^R(1)$, this is an immediate consequence of action monotonicity, so assume that $a_1 < a^R(1)$. If $\rho(1) > \tilde{t}$, then the same proof as in Case 1 works, except that one now defines $t^+ := \rho(1)$. So consider $\rho(1) < \tilde{t}$. Then $a^- = a_1$ and $a^+ = a^R(1)$. Since $a^+ \in A(m, 1)$, the following claim shows that the mD1 criterion yields the desired conclusion.

CLAIM: For all $t < 1$ and $m \in M_{\tilde{t}}$, $A(m, t) \subseteq \overline{A}(m, 1)$.

PROOF: Fix any $t < 1$ and $m \in M_{\bar{t}}$. I must show that $\forall a \in [a_1, a^R(1)]$,

$$\begin{aligned} U^S(a, t) - kC(\nu(\tilde{t}), t) &\geq U^S(a_t, t) - kC(\nu(\rho(t)), t) \\ &\Downarrow \\ U^S(a, 1) - kC(\nu(\tilde{t}), 1) &> U^S(a_1, 1) - kC(\nu(\rho(1)), 1). \end{aligned}$$

Since optimality of $\mu(t)$ implies $U^S(a_t, t) - kC(\nu(\rho(t)), t) \geq U^S(a_1, t) - kC(\nu(\rho(1)), t)$, it suffices to show that

$$\begin{aligned} &U^S(a, 1) - kC(\nu(\tilde{t}), 1) - [U^S(a_1, 1) - kC(\nu(\rho(1)), 1)] \\ &> U^S(a, t) - kC(\nu(\tilde{t}), t) - [U^S(a_1, t) - kC(\nu(\rho(1)), t)], \end{aligned}$$

which can be rewritten as

$$\int_{a_1}^a \int_t^1 U_{12}^S(y, z) dz dy > k \int_{\nu(\rho(1))}^{\nu(\tilde{t})} \int_t^1 C_{12}(y, z) dz dy.$$

This inequality holds because $U_{12}^S > 0 > C_{12}$. $\diamond$

Q.E.D.

Lemma B.4. *In any mD1 equilibrium, if $\rho(0) > r^S(0)$, then $\alpha(m) = a^R(0)$ for any m such that $\Psi(m) \in [0, \rho(0))$.*

Hence, if the lowest type is using inflated language, then all unused messages at the bottom must be attributed by the Receiver to type 0.

Proof. Assume $r^S(0) < \rho(0)$. It suffices to show that $\alpha(m) = a^R(0)$ for any m such that $\Psi(m) \in [r^S(0), \rho(0))$, because action monotonicity then implies that $\alpha(m) = a^R(0)$ for any m such that $\Psi(m) \in [0, r^S(0))$. Accordingly, pick any m such that $\Psi(m) \in [r^S(0), \rho(0))$. For any t , let $a_t := \alpha(\mu(t))$. It follows from message and action monotonicity that $\xi_l(\Psi(m)) = a^R(0)$ and $\xi_h(\Psi(m)) = a_0$. Plainly, $a_0 \in A(m, 0)$, so the mD1 criterion yields the result if for all $t > 0$, $A(m, t) \subseteq \bar{A}(m, 0)$. Equivalently, I must show that $\forall a \in [a^R(0), a_0]$ and $\forall t > 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} U^S(a, t) - kC(\nu(\Psi(m)), t) &\geq U^S(a_t, t) - kC(\nu(\rho(t)), t) \\ &\Downarrow \\ U^S(a, 0) - kC(\nu(\Psi(m)), 0) &> U^S(a_0, 0) - kC(\nu(\rho(0)), 0). \end{aligned}$$

That (μ, α) is an equilibrium implies

$$U^S(a_t, t) - kC(\nu(\rho(t)), t) \geq U^S(a_0, t) - kC(\nu(\rho(0)), t),$$

and hence it suffices to show that

$$\begin{aligned} &U^S(a, 0) - kC(\nu(\Psi(m)), 0) - [U^S(a_0, 0) - kC(\nu(\rho(0)), 0)] \\ &> U^S(a, t) - kC(\nu(\Psi(m)), t) - [U^S(a_0, t) - kC(\nu(\rho(0)), t)]. \end{aligned}$$

This inequality can be rewritten as

$$\int_a^{a_0} \int_0^t U_{12}^S(y, z) dz dy > k \int_{\nu(\Psi(m))}^{\nu(\rho(0))} \int_0^t C_{12}(y, z) dz dy,$$

which holds because $C_{12} < 0 < U_{12}^S$.

Q.E.D.

Lemma B.5. *In any mD1 equilibrium, there is a cutoff type $\underline{t} \in [0, \bar{t}]$ such that all types $t < \underline{t}$ are separating with $\rho(t) = \rho^*(t)$, while all $\mu(t) \in M_1$ for any $t > \underline{t}$.*

Hence, the Sender's behavior in an mD1 equilibrium is an LSHP strategy, modulo perhaps the behavior of the cutoff type.

Proof. I prove the result in two steps.

CLAIM: There is a cutoff type $\underline{t} \in [0, 1)$ such that all types below are separating and all types above are sending messages in M_1 .

PROOF: We know there must be some pooling, by Theorem 1. So it suffices to prove that $|\Gamma(m)| > 1$ implies $m \in M_1$, because then $\underline{t} = \inf\{t : \rho(t) = 1\}$ satisfies the needed properties for a cutoff type. Suppose there is some m_p such that $\Psi(m_p) < 1$ and $|\Gamma(m_p)| > 1$. Let $\hat{a} := \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \alpha(\mu(t_h(m_p) - \varepsilon))$. By Lemma B.1, for all small enough $\varepsilon > 0$, $\mu(t_h(m_p) - \varepsilon) \in M_{\Psi(m_p)}$, $\alpha(\mu(t_h(m_p) - \varepsilon)) = \hat{a}$, and $\hat{a} < a^R(t_h(m_p))$. By Lemma B.2, $\exists \eta > 0$ such that for any m with $\Psi(m) \in (\Psi(m_p), \Psi(m_p) + \eta)$, $|\Gamma(m)| = 0$. By Lemma B.3, for any m with $\Psi(m) \in (\Psi(m_p), \Psi(m_p) + \eta)$, $\alpha(m) = a^R(t_h(r_p))$. It follows that for small enough $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\delta > 0$, a type $t_h(r_p) - \varepsilon$ strictly prefers to send message any $m \in M_{\Psi(m_p) + \delta}$ rather than playing $\mu(t_h(r_p) - \varepsilon)$, a contradiction. $\diamond$

CLAIM: $\underline{t} \leq \bar{t}$ and $\rho(t) = \rho^*(t)$ for all $t < \underline{t}$.

PROOF: Assume $\underline{t} > 0$, for there is nothing to prove otherwise. Since all types in $[0, \underline{t})$ are separating, Lemma 1 implies that $\rho(t) > r^S(t)$ for all $t \in (0, \underline{t})$. The same continuity argument as in the proof of Lemma 1 shows that ρ must be continuous at 0, hence $\rho(0) \geq r^S(0)$. But then, we must have $\rho(0) = r^S(0)$, for if not, action monotonicity implies that action monotonicity implies that $\alpha(m) = a^R(0)$ for all $m \in M_{r^S(0)}$, and type 0 can profitably deviate to some $m \in M_{r^S(0)}$. Both parts of the desired conclusion now follows from Lemma A.1. $\diamond$ Q.E.D.

Lemma B.6. Assume $r^S(0) < 1$. In any mD1 equilibrium with cutoff $\underline{t} = 0$, $\rho(0) \in \{r^S(0), 1\}$.

This says that so long as not all types have the same cost-minimizing messages, the lowest type must either minimize its costs or maximally inflate its message.

Proof. Assume $\underline{t} = 0$ and $\rho(0) \neq 1$. By Lemma B.5, type 0 is separating, hence $\alpha(\mu(0)) = a^R(0)$, while $\rho(t) = 1$ for all $t > 0$. If $\rho(0) > r^S(0)$, then by action monotonicity, $\alpha(m) = a^R(0)$ for any $m \in M_{r^S(0)}$, and type 0 can profitably deviate to such a message. Therefore, $\rho(0) \leq r^S(0)$. Suppose $\rho(0) < r^S(0)$. Let $\hat{a} := \lim_{\varepsilon \downarrow 0} \alpha(\mu(\varepsilon))$. We must have $U^S(\hat{a}, 0) - kC(\nu(1), 0) = U^S(a^R(0), 0) - kC(\rho(0), 0)$, because otherwise, a small enough type $\varepsilon > 0$ would have a profitable deviation to $\mu(0)$. Pick an arbitrary $m \in M_{r^S(0)}$. By action monotonicity, $\alpha(m) \in [a^R(0), \hat{a}]$, and hence $U^S(\alpha(m), 0) \geq \min\{U^S(a^R(0), 0), U^S(\hat{a}, 0)\}$. Since $r^S(0) \in (\rho(0), 1)$, we have $C(\nu(r^S(0)), 0) < \min\{C(\nu(\rho(0)), 0), C(\nu(1), 0)\}$, and it follows that $U^S(\alpha(m), 0) - kC(\nu(r^S(0)), 0) > U^S(\hat{a}, 0) - kC(\nu(1), 0)$. Therefore, type 0 has a profitable deviation to m , a contradiction. Q.E.D.

Lemma B.7. In any mD1 equilibrium with cutoff $\underline{t}$, letting $a_1 := \lim_{t \downarrow \underline{t}} \alpha(\mu(t))$,

- (i) if $\underline{t} > 0$, $U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(\rho^*(\underline{t})), \underline{t}) = U^S(a_1, \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(1), \underline{t})$;
- (ii) if $\underline{t} = 0$, $U^S(a^R(0), 0) - kC(\nu(r^S(0)), 0) \leq U^S(a_1, 0) - kC(\nu(1), 0)$.

Proof. (i) Assume $\underline{t} \in (0, 1)$. First suppose $\rho^*(\underline{t}) = 1$. Then $\mu(\underline{t}) \in M_1$, and we must have $U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), \underline{t}) = U^S(a_1, \underline{t})$. Since all types below $\underline{t}$ are separating, equilibrium requires that for all

$\varepsilon > 0$,

$$U^S(a^R(\underline{t} - \varepsilon), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(\rho^*(\underline{t} - \varepsilon)), \underline{t}) \leq U^S(a_1, \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(1), \underline{t}).$$

The desired conclusion follows from the above inequality and continuity of all the relevant functions.

So suppose $\rho^*(\underline{t}) < 1$. I claim that $\rho(\underline{t}) \in \{\rho^*(\underline{t}), 1\}$. If this is not the case, $\rho(\underline{t}) \in (\rho^*(\underline{t}), 1)$ by message monotonicity, hence $\underline{t}$ is separating. But then, action monotonicity implies that $\alpha(m) = a^R(\underline{t})$ for all $m \in M_{\rho^*(\underline{t})}$, and since $\rho^*(\underline{t}) > r^S(\underline{t})$, $\underline{t}$ can profitably deviate to any $m \in M_{\rho^*(\underline{t})}$.

Consider first that $\rho(\underline{t}) = \hat{t}$, in which case $\underline{t}$ is separating. Define for $\varepsilon \geq 0$,

$$W(\varepsilon) := U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), \underline{t} + \varepsilon) - kC(\nu(\rho^*(\underline{t})), \underline{t} + \varepsilon) - [U^S(a_1, \underline{t} + \varepsilon) - kC(\nu(1), \underline{t} + \varepsilon)].$$

If the Lemma does not hold, $W(0) > 0$ (the reverse inequality is inconsistent with optimality of $\mu(\underline{t})$). But then, by continuity of W , for small enough $\varepsilon > 0$, a type $\underline{t} + \varepsilon$ would prefer to deviate to playing $\mu(\underline{t})$, contradicting equilibrium.

It remains to consider $\rho(\underline{t}) = 1$. Lemma B.3 implies that for all $m \in M_{\rho^*(\underline{t})}$, $\alpha(m) = a^R(\underline{t})$. Thus, if the Lemma does not hold, optimality of $\mu(\underline{t})$ implies that $U^S(a_1, \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(1), \underline{t}) > U^S(a^R(\underline{t}), \underline{t}) - kC(\nu(\rho^*(\underline{t})), \underline{t})$. But then, by continuity of the relevant functions, we have that that for small enough $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$U^S(a_1, \underline{t} - \varepsilon) - kC(\nu(1), \underline{t} - \varepsilon) > U^S(a^R(\underline{t} - \varepsilon), \underline{t} - \varepsilon) - kC(\nu(\rho^*(\underline{t} - \varepsilon)), \underline{t} - \varepsilon),$$

implying that a type $\underline{t} - \varepsilon$ has a profitable deviation, contradicting equilibrium.

(ii) Assume $\underline{t} = 0$. The result is obvious if $r^S(0) = 1$, so assume $r^S(0) < 1$. Suppose first $\rho(0) = 1$. Then Lemma B.4 implies that for any $m \in M_{r^S(0)}$, $\alpha(m) = a^R(0)$. The desired result now follows from optimality of $\mu(0)$. So consider $\rho(0) < 1$. By Lemma B.6, type 0 is separating with $\rho(0) = r^S(0)$. If the Lemma is not true, then optimality of $\mu(0)$ implies $U^S(a^R(0), 0) - kC(\nu(r^S(0)), 0) > U^S(a_1, 0) - kC(\nu(1), 0)$. But then, by continuity of the relevant functions, for small enough $\varepsilon > 0$, a type ε has a profitable deviation to $\mu(0)$, contradicting equilibrium. *Q.E.D.*

Proof of Theorem B.1 on page 29. (1) Fix an mD1 equilibrium (μ, α) . Lemmas B.1, B.5, and B.7 imply that there is an associated cutoff type $\underline{t}$ and strictly increasing sequence $\langle t_0 = \underline{t}, t_1, \dots, t_J = 1 \rangle$ that satisfy (A-2), (A-3), and (A-4). Moreover, by Lemma B.5, all types $t < \underline{t}$ are playing $\mu(t) \in M_{\rho^*(t)}$, while all types $t > \underline{t}$ are playing $\mu(t) \in M_1$. Hence, the proof of Theorem 2 shows that there is an LSHP equilibrium, $(\tilde{\mu}, \tilde{\alpha})$, such that $\tilde{\mu}(t) = \mu(t)$ and $\tilde{\alpha}(\tilde{\mu}(t)) = \alpha(\mu(t))$ for all $t \neq \underline{t}$.

(2) Pick an LSHP equilibrium, (μ, α) , that is constructed in the proof of Theorem 2. I will argue that this is an mD1 equilibrium. Message and action monotonicity are obviously satisfied, so it only remains to check that every out-of-equilibrium response $\alpha(m)$ passes the third part of the mD1 criterion. Let M^μ denote the range of μ , i.e. the set of messages used in equilibrium.

STEP 1: First consider any $m \notin M^\mu$ such that there is an $\tilde{m} \in M^\mu$ with $\Psi(\tilde{m}) = \Psi(m)$. Then we must have $\bar{A}(m, t) = \emptyset$ for all t , for otherwise some type can profitably deviate to some message in $M_{\Psi(m)}$. Hence, the mD1 criterion permits any response to m , in particular $\alpha(m)$.

STEP 2: Suppose $\underline{t} > 0$. Consider any m such that $\Psi(m) \in [\rho^*(\underline{t}), 1)$. We have $\xi_l(\Psi(m)) = a^R(\underline{t}) < \xi_h(\Psi(m)) = a^R(\underline{t}, t_1)$, and $\alpha(m) = a^R(\underline{t})$. By construction, (A-3) holds. So

the argument used in the proof of Lemma B.3 (in particular, the Claim in Case 1) can be applied to show that $A(m, t) \subset \bar{A}(m, \underline{t})$ for any $t \neq \underline{t}$. Moreover, it can be verified that there exists some $a \in [\xi_l(m), \xi_h(m)]$ such that

$$U^S(a, \underline{t}) - C(\nu(\Psi(m)), \underline{t}) = U^S(\alpha(\mu(\underline{t})) - kC(\nu(\rho(\underline{t})), \underline{t}),$$

and because of $U_{12}^S > 0 > C_{12}$,

$$U^S(a, t) - C(\nu(\Psi(m)), t) < U^S(\alpha(\mu(t)) - kC(\nu(\rho(t))), t)$$

for all $t \neq \underline{t}$. Hence, $A(m, \underline{t}) \not\subseteq \bar{A}(m, t)$ for any $t \neq \underline{t}$. Therefore, $\alpha(m) = a^R(\underline{t})$ passes the mD1 test.

STEP 3: Suppose $\underline{t} > 0$. Consider any m such that $\Psi(m) < r^S(0)$. We have $\xi_l(\Psi(m)) = \xi_h(\Psi(m)) = \alpha(m) = a^R(0)$. It follows that $A(m, t) = \emptyset$ for all t , hence $\alpha(m)$ passes the mD1 test.

STEP 4: Suppose $\underline{t} = 0$, hence $M^\mu \subseteq M_1$. Pick any m such that $\Psi(m) < 1$. We have $\xi_l(\Psi(m)) = \alpha(m) = a^R(0) < \xi_h(\Psi(m)) = a^R(\underline{t}, t_1)$. The argument of Lemma B.4 can be applied to show that $A(m, t) \subseteq \bar{A}(m, 0)$ for all t . There are now two cases to consider. First, suppose $A(m, 0) = \emptyset$. Then it follows that $A(m, t) = \emptyset$ for all t , hence any response to m passes the mD1 test. On the other hand, suppose $A(m, 0) \neq \emptyset$. Then because (A-4) holds by construction, continuity implies that exists some $a \in [\xi_l(\Psi(m)), \xi_h(\Psi(m))]$ such that

$$U^S(a, 0) - C(\nu(\Psi(m)), 0) = U^S(\alpha(\mu(0)) - kC(\nu(\rho(0))), 0),$$

and because of $U_{12}^S > 0 > C_{12}$,

$$U^S(a, t) - C(\nu(\Psi(m)), t) < U^S(\alpha(\mu(t)) - kC(\nu(\rho(t))), t)$$

for all $t > 0$. Hence, $A(m, 0) \not\subseteq \bar{A}(m, t)$ for any $t > 0$. Therefore, $\alpha(m) = a^R(\underline{t})$ passes the mD1 test. Q.E.D.

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