Deterministic Dynamic Choice

- Today 2 periods, $t = 0,1$.
- Use fairly general representations to clarify some conceptual points; the next lecture will look at more structured representations (e.g. additively separable) for choice over multiple time periods.
- *Warning: the model covered today has a lot of notation we don't usually both with; its purpose is to let make assumptions explicit and not hidden when they are implicit in the notation.*
- Spaces Z_0, Z_1 of alternatives.
- In period 0 the agent may face a choice of period-1 menus, and also choose a period-0 alternative, and these two may be linked. So chooses an element of $X_0 := Z_0 \times M(Z_1)$. (*recall that* $M(Z) = 2^Z - {\{\emptyset\}}$.)
- In period 1 the agent chooses an element of $X_1 := Z_1$.
- *Example*: agent has initial wealth w_0 . Can spend some of it but not borrow; can save at real rate *r.* So period-0 menu is

$$
\{(c_0, M(c_0)) : c_0 \in [0, w_0], M(c_0) = \{c_1 \in [0, (1+r)(w_0 - c_0)]\}.
$$

Note that not all second period menus are consistent with all first-period choices: if the agent consumes all her wealth in period 0 she can't consume in period 1.

• In general, period- 0 choices are described by a choice correspondence

$$
c_0: M(X_0) \to M(X_0) \text{ s.t. } c_0(A_0) \subseteq A_0 \text{ for all } A_0 \in M(X_0) . \tag{0}
$$

Here $c_0(A_0)$ is a finite collection of pairs $\left\{(z_0^{'},A_1^{'}), (z_0^{''},A_1^{''}),...\right\}.$

- Period 1 choices might depend on period-0 consumption.
- And (for now) let's allow the possibility they also depend on the choice problem the agent faced in period 0.
- So define the period-0 histories h_0 to be pairs (A_0, x_0) , where A_0 is the menu the agent faced, and $x₀$ is the choice she made.
- The set of all possible period-0 histories is then

$$
H_0 := \{(A_0, x_0) \in M(X_0) \times X_0 : x_0 \in c_0(A_0)\}.
$$

- Note the restriction to "intended choices" $x_0 \in c_0(A_0)$): can't observe choice in period 1 when the agent didn't get their intended period-0 outcome.
- Would learn more about preferences if agents were forced to "tremble" as in Frick, Iijima, and Strzalecki [2017]; won't cover that here.

For each period-1 menu A_1 , let $H_0(A_1)$ be the period-0 histories consistent with it:

$$
H_0(A_1) := \{(A_0, x_0) \in H_0 : x_0 = (z_0, A_1) \text{ for some } z_0 \in Z_0\}.
$$

The domain of period 1 choice correspondence- the set it's defined on- is the current menu A_1 and the history that preceded it. Denote this as

$$
\mathcal{D}_1 := \{(A_1, A_0, x_0) \in M(X_1) \times H_0 : (A_0, x_0) \in H_0(A_1)\}.
$$

• *The period 1 choice correspondence i*s a

$$
c_1: \mathcal{D}_1 \longrightarrow M(X_1) \text{ with } c_1(A_1, A_0, x_0) \subseteq A_1. \tag{1}
$$

• A *dynamic choice correspondence* is a pair (c_0, c_1) that satisfies (0) and (1).

• **Definition:** A dynamic choice correspondence is *consequentialist* if $c_1(A_1, A_0, x_0) = c_1(A_1, B_0, x_0)$ for all A_0, B_0 s.t. for all $(A_0, x_0), (B_0, x_0) \in H_0(A_1)$ s.t. $x_0 = (z_0, A_1)$ for some $z_0 \in Z_0$.

-Note that this <u>does</u> let period-1 choice vary with the period-0 choice x_0 *.*

*-It requires that the agent makes the same choice from A*¹ *regardless of the period-* 0 <u>menu</u> A_0 or B_0 . The "s.t." part says to only look at situations where *the period-0 menu allows picking* x_0 *.*

Suppose that in period 0 you eat lunch and pick a restaurant for dinner, in period 1 you order dinner.

- Consequentialism allows what you order at dinner (period 1) to depend on the $z₀$ you had for lunch. But it requires that what you order at dinner in an Italian restaurant doesn't depend on whether the alternative restaurant you considered was Greek or Spanish.
- Same idea as the "consequentialism" I defined for static choice under risk, which said that if first Nature decides whether to implement lottery *r* or give you a choice between *p* and *q,* your choice doesn't depend on what *r* was.
- In both settings, consequentialism is a form of "no regret" condition.
- It allows dependence on things that have happened in the past, but not on things that "might have happened."
- From here on assume consequentialism and write $c_1(A_1, x_0)$.
- Note that w/o consequentialism period-1 choice at A_1 can be different for each A_0 that leads to it- so hard to have non-vacuous consistency conditions on period-1 choice.
- The next condition is not needed to define "rational" dynamic choice, and in some applications such as habit formation it is relaxed. But it is commonly assumed to simplify:

Definition: Choice is *history-independent* if $c_1(A_1, z_0) = c_1(A_1, z_0)$ for all $z_0, z_0 \in Z, A_1 \in M(X_1)$.

• Will assume history independence (aka *time separability*) for the rest of this lecture and write period-1 choice as $c_1(A_1)$.

- In fact will now go further and suppose there is no period-0 consumption choice, and set $X_0 = M(Z_1)$.
- Assume that both c_0 and c_1 satisfy WARP.
- So they correspond to maximizing complete transitive preferences \succsim_0 and \succsim_1 , and (because Z_1 is finite) to maximizing utility functions u_0 and u_1 .
- Note: u_0 and \succsim_0 are defined on $X_0 = M(Z_1)$.
- They induce a utility function and preference on Z_1 by looking at singleton menus $\{z_1\}$.
- But the domain of singleton menus is too small to determine period-0 preferences without additional conditions.

Definition: Preferences (\succsim_0, \succsim_1) have a *recursively consistent representation* if they can be represented by u_0, u_1 s.t. $u_0(A_1) = \max_{z_1 \in A_1} u_1(z_1)$. (*Note: Strzalecki calls this a "dynamically consistent representation" but then*

calls another condition "dynamic consistency of preferences.")

- Economists usually (but not always!) use recursively consistent representations.
- Let's try to understand them better by seeing when they apply.

Definition: Period-0 preference \succsim_0 is *strategically rational* if $A_1 \succeq_0 B_1 \Rightarrow A_1 \sim_0 A_1 \cup B_1$.

- Note that this needn't be true if the period-1 choice isn't made to maximize period-0 preferences.
- For example B_1 might be a "temptation": Let B_1 be $\{S\text{catch}\}\$ and $A_1 = \{$ Pellegrino $\}.$
- If Drew thinks that if he buys Scotch now (period 0) he will drink more of it tonight than he ought to, then we could have $A_1 \succ_0 B_1$ and $A_1 \succ_0 A_1 \cup B_1$.
- OTOH if period-1 preference is stochastic, then it might be that $A_1 \succsim_0 B_1$ and $A_1 \prec_0 A_1 \cup B_1$; the larger menu adds an "option value."

Lemma (Kreps *Ema* [1979]): Period-0 preference \succsim_0 is *strategically rational* iff the function $u_0(A_1)$ = $\max_{z_1 \in A_1} u_0\big(\big\{z_1\big\}\big)$ represents \succsim_0 .

Proof sketch: For each A₁ list its elements in decreasing preference order, $\left\{z_1^1\right\}\sum_{0}\left\{z_1^2\right\}\sum_{0}\cdots\sum_{0}\left\{z_1^{*A_1}\right\}$ $\{z_1^1\} \succsim_0 \{z_1^2\} \succsim_0 \dots \succsim_0 \{z_1^{\#A_1}\} \;.$

By strategic rationality $\left\{z_1^1\right\}\sim_0\left\{z_1^1,z_1^2\right\}$, and by induction $\left\{z_1^1\right\}\sim_0 A_{\!\!1}$ so $u_0(A_1) = \max_{z_1 \in A_1} u_0(\{z_1\}).$

Conversely if $u_0(A_1) = \max_{z_1 \in A_1} u_0(\{z_1\})$,

then $u_0(A_1 \cup B_1) = u(A_1)$ so $A_1 \sim A_1 \cup B_1$.

• Strategic rationality is a condition only on period-0 choice, so it can't link period-0 and period-1 choices. (Although it can suggest possibilities that are consistent with the period-0 choice and a given way of linking the two periods together.)

Definition: Preferences (\succsim_0, \succsim_1) are *dynamically stable* if $\{z_1\}\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} w_i \} \Leftrightarrow z_1 \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} w_i$.

Theorem: Preferences (\succsim_0, \succsim_1) have a *recursively consistent representation* iff they are strategically rational and dynamically stable.

Proof: easy HW.

Recursive consistency rules out stochastic period-1 preferences. To allow stochastic preference, Kreps (*Ema* [1979]) provides a representation theorem for the representation

$$
u_0(A_1) = \sum_{s \in S} p(s) [\max_{a_1 \in A_1} u_1(a_1, s)] \text{ for some } S, p, \text{ and } u_1. \quad (3)
$$

Here u_1 can depend on *s* but neither it nor p can depend on A_1 . (*Note this reduces to recursive consistency when S is a singleton.*)

With representation (3), if $\{a,b\} \sim_0 \{a\}$ then the agent can never strictly prefer to add *b* to any menu that contains *a:* if adding *b* helps menu *C* it means sometimes *b* is better than *a* so we would have $\{a,b\} \succ_0 \{a\}$.

More generally, representation (3) satisfies *modularity:*

If $A_1 \sim_{0} A_1 \cup B_1$ then $A_1 \cup C_1 \sim_{0} A_1 \cup C_1 \cup B_1$ for all C_1 .

Kreps shows that period-0 menu preferences have representation (3) iff they satisfy modularity and

"Preference for Flexibility" : If $A_i \supseteq B_i$ then $A_i \gtrsim_0 B_i$. (*)

Aside: I prefer to call (*) *monotonicity* as it can have other interpretations. Note that this result is about the representation of choice in period 0, and doesn't say anything about period-1 choice; see Ahn and Sarver *Ema* [2013]. Temptation and Self Control

A strategically rational agent never strictly prefers a smaller menu, and wouldn't sign up for a monitoring program that has only fines and no positive payments.

Many experiments where a non-trivial (though sometimes small) fraction of participants prefer a smaller menu:

Ashraf, Karlan and Yin *QJE* [2006] 28% of subjects choose a commitment savings account; Gine, Karlan and Zimmerman *AER* [2010] 11% of smokers agree to be fined if they don't quit; Kaur, Kremer and Mullainathan *JPE* [2015] commitment contracts chosen 35% of the time (averaging over days and workers); Houser et al [2010] 36% of subjects use commitment device to keep from web surfing during a lab experiment; Augenblick, Nierderle, and Sprenger *QJE* [2015] 58% of subjects prefer costless commitment in a work now/work later task (though only 9% will pay more than \$0.25 for it.

Period-0 preference \gtrsim_0 has *a Strotz representation* (Strotz *REStud* [1955]) if there are u_0 , u_1 s.t.

 $c_1(A_1) = \arg \max_{z_1 \in A_1} u_1(z_1)$ and $c_0(A_0) = \arg \max_{A_1 \in A_0, z_1 \in c(A_1)} u_0(z_1)$.

- Here the agent is "sophisticated": she knows not only that her period-1 preferences will be different but what they will be, and picks a menu accordingly- it's as if the observed choices are the equilibria of a game between these two selves.
- Strotz preferences aren't concerned by items in the menu that won't be chosen. This rules out a preference to avoid temptations that would be resisted.

Definition Period-0 preference \sum_{0} satisfies **no compromise** if for all $A_1, B_1 \in M(Z_1)$ either $A_1 \sim_0 A_1 \cup B_1$ or $B_1 \sim_0 A_1 \cup B_1$.

Theorem (Gul and Pesendorfer *REStud* [2005]): Period-0 preference \succsim_0 satisfies no compromise iff it has a Strotz representation.

Not-very-revealing proof outline: *define a revealed preference on subsets, and a separate revealed preference on singletons, and then relate them*.

- The Strotz representation is closely related to quasi-hyperbolic discounting, where preferences represented by $U_0 = u_0 + \beta \delta u_1 + \beta \delta^2 u_2$ and $U_1 = u_1 + \beta \delta u_2$
- Here the period-1 utility function U_1 differs from period-0 utility U_0 in its tradeoffs between immediate rewards in period 1 and rewards that will arrive later, say in a period 2 where the agent has no decision to make. The idea is that the period-1 agent will sacrifice period 2 consumption for consumption in period 1 at worse terms than the period-0 agent would like.
- O'Donoghue and Rabin *AER* [1999] define "partially naïve" Strotz models: agent realizes that his future self will be present biased but mis-forecasts how large that bias will be.
- Ahn, Iijima, Le Yaouonq, and Sarver mimeo [2016]: representation theorem for partially naïve Strotz.
- Gul and Pesendorfer *Ema* [2001]: the value of a menu is $u_0(A_1) = \max_{z_1 \in A_1} u_1(z_1) - (\max_{x_1 \in A_1} v_1(x_1) - v_1(z_1)).$
- Here v_1 is an arbitrary "temptation function," and the control cost of choosing z_1 from menu A_1 is the resisted temptation $\Big(\max_{z_1 \in A_1} v_1(z_1^-) - v_1(z_1^-)\Big).$
- Important: only the biggest temptation in A_1 matters- fits with perfectly foreseen preferences.
- This comes from their assumption of set betweenness: $A_1 \succeq B_1 \rightarrow A_1 \succeq A_1 \cup B_1 \succeq B_1$.
- Control cost is linear in foregone utility from a version of the independence axiom, on a different and more complex space. But there is some evidence for convex costs.
- To model period-1 choice GP specify dynamic consistency, so that $c_1(A_1) = \arg \max_{z_1} \left(u_1(z_1) - \left(\max_{x_1 \in A_1} v_1(x_1) - v_1(z_1) \right) \right)$ $=$ arg max $_{z_1} u_0(z_1) + v_1(z_1)$

Note that the "temptation" $\max_{x_i \in A_i} v_1(x_i)$ doesn't alter period-1 choice.

- Fudenberg and Levine *AER* [2006] show that a similar representation describes the equilibrium of a game between a "long run self" and a sequence of completely myopic short-run selves who have the same per-period utilities (and so differ from the LR only in their discount factors).
- Dual selves: a long-run "planner" can exert effort to change the preferences of a myopic "doer.
- As in GP this control cost depends on foregone utility.
- The subgame-perfect equilibrium is as if LR self maximizes

$$
(1-\delta)\!\sum\nolimits_{t=0}^\infty \delta^t\left(u_t(z_t)-\gamma(\Delta_t)\right)
$$

where $\Delta_t = \max_{x \in A} u(z_t) - u(z_t)$ $t = \max_{z_t \in A_t} u(z_t) - u(z_t)$ $\Delta_t = \max_{|z| \leq t} u(z_t) - u(z_t)$ is the difference between the maximum feasible utility in the current period and the utility actually received.

- More restrictive than GP because same utility function for temptation and choice instead of the pair (u,v) : the two selves differ only in their discount factors, as in quasi-hyperbolic preferences.
- **Less restrictive than GP because** γ **can be strictly convex.**
- When γ strictly convex, it's more than twice as hard/costly to resist twice the temptation.
- Convex control costs allow certain (but not all!) violations of WARP, such as the "compromise effect" : pick fruit from {fruit, small desert} but small desert from {fruit, small desert, large desert.}
- This can't happen with GP's linear cost function because there the action chosen maximizes $w(z_1) := u_0(z_1) + v_1(z_1)$ - so choice satisfies WARP.
- Convex costs explain why more self-indulgent in one domain (e.g. diet or exercise) when exerting more self control in another (e.g. hours of work).
- Can also be used to explain the effect of cognitive load (Shiv and Fedorikhin *J. Cons. Res.* [1999]:
- Subjects were asked to memorize either a two- or a seven-digit number, and then walk to a table with a choice of two deserts, chocolate cake and fruit salad.
- Subjects would then pick a ticket for a desert and report the number and their choice in a second room. Longer number to memorize: % choosing cake increases from 41% to 63%.
- Ward and Mann *J Pers. Social Psych.* [2000] report a similar effect of cognitive load.
- Dual-self explanation: control cost depends on the sum of cognitive load and foregone utility.

Toussaert [2016] : Subjects paid for doing a tedious task, face temptation to forego earnings to hear a story.

- Elicit preference ordering over {story}, {no story}, {choose later}, when the preferred choice is implemented *stochastically*: highest ranked menu is most likely but not certain. *Here "choose later" means choose the subsequent menu {story, no story}*
- "self-control types" can rank {no story} \succ {choose later} \succ {story}.
- Strotz preferences can't do this, as they aren't concerned by items in the menu that won't be chosen.
- Implement (stochastic) distribution over menus: now can observe 2nd period choices of subjects who preferred commitment. (w/o this stochastic element, the 2nd period choice of someone who chose not to have a 2nd period choice is hypothetical/counterfactual.)
- To distinguish indifference from strict preference, offered subjects the chance to pay to get their 1^{st} choice if lottery says get 2^{nd} - either in \$ or in extra time to work (using a price list mechanism as in the BDM procedure.)
- Also asked subjects' beliefs about what they'd do w/o commitment. (*and used predictions of other subject's second-period choice as an instrument…*)

Findings:

- 36% of subjects report {no story} \succ {choose later} \succ {story}.
- 58% of this group (so 25% of overall pool) willing to pay for a commitment.
- Only 2.5% of subjects consistent with Strotz preferences.
- Almost all self-control types predicted that they would resist the temptation to learn the story in the absence of commitment- no support for "random temptation" or "random Strotz" models.
- Perceived self-control almost exactly matches observed self control when making the choice: 18%.

Now back to "standard" preferences and work up to more than 2 periods…

Additively separable discounting: $U(z_0, z_1, ...) = \sum_t \delta^t u(z_t)$.

- Used by (most?) models of choice over time.
- Here the same utility function is used in every period, and the discount factor δ is constant.
- This rules out e.g. exogenously changing tastes, habit formation as in Becker-Murphy *JPE* [1988], and a preference for consumption streams that increase over time. Can pick these up with a state variable that tracks the payoffrelevant aspects of past consumption, won't do that here.
- To understand the restrictions that the discounting representation imposes on choice, need to first understand when preferences are *additively separable,* e.g. when can we decompose u (apples, oranges) into u_a (apples) + u_a (oranges)?

Separable Preferences

- Let *I* be a finite (for now) set of indices (e.g. time periods, fruits, states). (*We will see a representation theorem for countably many time periods, it needs more assumptions. And the expected utility representations extend to uncountable state spaces, this also needs more structure.*)
- For each $i \in I$ there is a set X_i , let $X := \times_{i \in I} X_i$.
- Analyst observes complete transitive preference \succeq on X.
- **Definition:** \succsim has an *additively separable representation* if there are $u_i: X_i \to \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $U(x_1,...,x_n) = u_1(x_1) + ... + u_n(x_n)$ represents \succsim .
- In an additively separable representation, the tradeoff between any x_i and x_j is independent of the other components, i.e. of $X_{-i,j}$.
- For any $E \subseteq I$ and any $x, y \in X$ define $x_E y \in X := \left\{ \begin{matrix} x_i & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{matrix} \right\}$ *E i* x_i $i \in E$ $x_E y \in X := \begin{cases} \begin{cases} \begin{cases} \n\cdot & i \in E \\ \n\cdot & i \notin E \n\end{cases} \end{cases}$ $\begin{cases} x_i & i \in \end{cases}$ $\in X := \begin{cases} x_i & i \in \mathbb{Z} \\ y_i & i \notin E \end{cases}$.
- **Definition:** \succsim is *singleton separable* if for all $i \in I$ and all $x, y, z, z' \in X$, $x_i z \succsim y_i z \leftrightarrow x_i z \succsim y_i z$ ' . (this should remind you of the independence axiom of *expected utility*!)
- Singleton separability implies that for each index *i* we have a complete transitive preference \succsim on X_i that is independent of the other components: $x_i \succsim_i y_i$ if $x_i z \succsim y_i z$ for some *z*.
- Already restrictive, but not sufficient, because it doesn't yet imply that the tradeoff between any x_i and x_j is independent of the other components.
- For example if $X_1 = \{1,2,3\}$, $X_2 = \{1,3,5\}$, the preference induced by $u(x_1.x_2) = x_1x_2 + x_1^{x_2}$ is strictly increasing in x_1 for each x_2 and vice versa. But it does not have an additive representation (HW).
- In the discounting application, we need an additive representation if we want the tradeoff between consumption in periods *t* and *s* to be independent of consumption in other periods.
- So we use a stronger condition:

 \sum has *jointly separable indices* if for any $E \subseteq I$ and all $x, y, z, z' \in X$, $x_{_E}z \succsim y_{_E}z \leftrightarrow x_{_E}z' \succsim y_{_E}z$ '. (Strzalecki calls this "separable.").

• With 3 or more indices this say the tradeoffs between x_i and x_j don't depend on the level of some 3rd index *k.*

- For this to have any bite we need 3 indices that "matter."
- *Reason:* with only 2 indices, jointly separable indices reduces to singleton separability, and as we saw that doesn't imply an additive representation. And having 3 with one that doesn't matter is like having 2.
- **Definition:** An index *i* is *null* if for all $x, y, z \in X$, $x, z \sim y, z$.
- The next theorem will ask that every index is non-null, and also that each X_i is connected; together these two conditions mean that each coordinate has a continuum of elements.
- Since additively separable representations have a utility function, we expect to need a continuity condition when *X* isn't finite.

• "Technical condition": Assume each X_i is a connected subset of \mathbb{R}^k (or more generally a connected topological space) and that the preference \succsim on $X := \times_{i \in I} X_i$ is continuous w.r.t. the product topology. (*result extends to more general topological spaces)*

Theorem (Debreu [1960], generalized by Wakker *J Math Pyschology* [1988]): Suppose complete transitive preference \succsim satisfies the technical condition and has at least three non-null indices. Then it has jointly separable indices iff it has an additively separable representation by continuous utility functions $u_i: X_i \to \mathbb{R}$ s.t. u_i is constant whenever *i* is null. Moreover, if $v_1, ..., v_n$ also represent \succsim , then there are $\alpha > 0$ and β_i s.t. $v_i = \alpha u_i + \beta_i$.

Proof: omitted.

• *Reading for next time***:** Strzalecki Ch 3.1-3.3, Ch 4.