

Decision Theory in Economics: an overview of where we are and where we're going

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Choice Theory

- ▶ Why is it important?
 - Sets the 'laws of behavior' of the principle actors in social science
 - Games
 - Strategic actors
 - What are their objectives, how do they use information
 - General equilibrium
 - Prices + information feed into choices
 - **Choices determine aggregate demand for physical and financial goods and**
 - Aggregate demand determines production (supply) + planning + prices

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Aim of this talk

- ▶ Provide a basic review of the neo-classical paradigm for modeling decision making under uncertainty, and through time;
- ▶ Summarize the multiple empirical challenges facing the neo-classical paradigm;
- ▶ Highlight some of the alternatives to the classical theory that are now explored in the literature.

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The neoclassical paradigm

- ▶ Probabilistic sophistication
 - Decision makers (DMs) associate unique subjective probabilities with distinct non-deterministic future events, and update using Bayes' rule
 - When offered a profile of 'payoffs in various disjoint events', the only choice-relevant attribute of an event is its probability.
- ▶ Expected Utility

$$f = (E_1, x_1; \dots; E_n, x_n), g = (E'_1, y_1; \dots; E'_m, y_m)$$

$$f \succ g \Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n p_i u(x_i) > \sum_{i=1}^m q_i u(y_i)$$
- ▶ Time consistency (backward induction)
 - Current choices correctly take into account future choices

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The neoclassical paradigm

- ▶ Derives from 'behavioral axioms'
 - Primitive assumptions over choice behavior
 - Let's see how this works...
 - What can we say about the subjective likelihood of an event, E, if the DM is *always* indifferent between



- ▶ Say that E is *null*

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Probabilistic sophistication

- ▶ What can we say about two events, E₁ and E₂, if the DM is always indifferent (for all x,y, and junk) between



- ▶ Say that E₁ and E₂ are exchangeable: E₁ ≈ E₂

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Probabilistic sophistication

- ▶ Behavioral axioms:
 - Preference is transitive and non-trivial
 - (Axiom A) If E_1 is not null, then any sequence of pairwise disjoint events $E_1 \approx E_2 \approx E_3 \dots$ must be finite.
 - (Axiom N) If E_1, E_2 and A are pairwise disjoint, $E_1 \approx E_2$, and A is not null, then no subevent of E_2 is exchangeable with $E_1 \cup A$.
 - (Axiom C) If E_1 and E_2 are disjoint, then one contains a subevent that is exchangeable with the other.
- ▶ Implication (Chew & Sagi, 2006): A, N, & C iff there is a unique probability measure, m , such that
 - $m(E_1) = m(E_2) \Leftrightarrow E_1 \approx E_2$
 - $m(E_1) > m(E_2) \Leftrightarrow E_1$ contains a subevent that is exchangeable with E_2
 - $m(E_1) = 0$ iff E_1 is null
 - DM only cares about the probability of an event when assigning events to payoffs.

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Utility representation

- ▶ DM treats event-payoff profiles as lotteries
 $f = (E_1, x_1; \dots; E_n, x_n)$ treated as $L_f = (p_1, x_1; \dots; p_n, x_n)$
- ▶ Add Continuity Axiom (assuming appropriate topology)
 - There is a continuous utility representation,
$$f \succ g \Leftrightarrow V(p_1, x_1; \dots; p_n, x_n) > V(q_1, y_1; \dots; q_n, y_n)$$

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Expected Utility

- ▶ Independence Axiom
 - If the lottery L is preferred to the lottery L' , then the compound lottery resulting from



- ▶ Implication: Expected Utility
 $f = (E_1, x_1; \dots; E_n, x_n), g = (E'_1, y_1; \dots; E'_m, y_m)$

$$f \succ g \Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n p_i u(x_i) > \sum_{i=1}^m q_i u(y_i)$$

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Time consistency

- ▶ DM's choices today reflect:
 - Full awareness of and agreement with how he will choose tomorrow
 - Rational expectations + absence of self-control problems
- ▶ Implication when choosing a multi-period consumption stream:

$$\max_{(c_1, c_2, \dots) \in B_1} U_1(c_1, c_2, \dots) = \max_{c_1 \in B'_1} W_1 \left(c_1, \max_{(c_2, \dots) \in B_2(c_1)} U_2(c_2, \dots) \right)$$

- ▶ W is increasing in second argument
 - Alignment of interests

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Time consistency

- ▶ Special example:
 - The exponential discounting model (time separable, time homogeneous attitudes)

$$U_t(\tilde{c}_{t+1}, \tilde{c}_{t+2}, \dots) = E_t[u(\tilde{c}_t) + \beta U_{t+1}(\tilde{c}_{t+2}, \tilde{c}_{t+3}, \dots)]$$

- Iterating:

$$\begin{aligned} U_t(\tilde{c}_{t+1}, \tilde{c}_{t+2}, \dots) &= E_t[u(\tilde{c}_t)] + \beta E_t[u(\tilde{c}_{t+1})] + \beta^2 E_t[u(\tilde{c}_{t+2})] + \dots \\ &= E_t \left[\sum_i \beta^i u(\tilde{c}_{t+i}) \right] \end{aligned}$$

- Chief attractions: simplicity

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The neoclassical paradigm: recap

- ▶ Probabilistic sophistication
 - Decision makers (DMs) associate unique subjective probabilities with distinct non-deterministic future events, and update using Bayes' rule
 - When offered a profile of 'payoffs in various disjoint events', the only choice-relevant attribute of an event is its probability.
- ▶ Expected Utility
 $f = (E_1, x_1; \dots; E_n, x_n), g = (E'_1, y_1; \dots; E'_m, y_m)$

$$f \succ g \Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n p_i u(x_i) > \sum_{i=1}^m q_i u(y_i)$$
- ▶ Time consistency (backward induction)
 - Current choices correctly take into account future choices
 - Exponential discounting model

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Empirical Challenges

- ▶ The Ellsberg Paradox
- ▶ The Allais Paradox
- ▶ Loss aversion and the endowment effect
- ▶ Time inconsistencies and self control

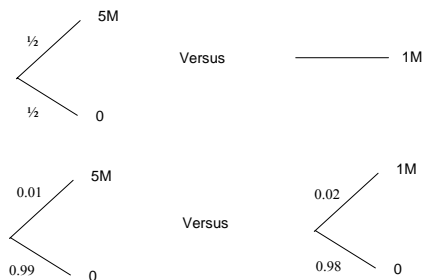
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The Ellsberg Paradox

- ▶ Two urns, one ball will be drawn from each
 - Urn 1: 50 red, 50 black balls
 - Urn 2: 100 balls, red & black, unknown distribution
- ▶ If the stakes are \$10k, bet on:
 - Red in urn 1 or black in urn 1?
 - Indifferent
 - Red in urn 2 or black in urn 2?
 - Indifferent
 - Red in urn 1 or red in urn 2?
 - Most people strictly prefer bets on urn 1
- ▶ Inconsistent with probabilistic sophistication
 - People are not Bayesians

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The Allais Paradox



Typical choice pattern violate the Independence Axiom. People do not maximize expected utility.

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Loss aversion & endowment effect

- ▶ Group A
 - Endowed with \$2000
 - Asked to choose between:
 - Lose \$500 for sure
 - Lose \$1000 with probability $\frac{1}{2}$, or nothing.
- ▶ Group B
 - Endowed with \$1000
 - Asked to choose between:
 - Gain \$500 for sure
 - Gain \$1000 with probability $\frac{1}{2}$, or nothing.
- ▶ Choice pattern is inconsistent with preferences defined *only* over consequences and likelihoods.

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Time inconsistencies and self-control

- ▶ Self control
 - Procrastination
 - I'll study for the exam (or do the referee report) tomorrow....
 - Addiction
 - This is going to be my last cigarette....
- ▶ Failure of backward induction
 - Would you prefer \$50 right now or \$100 next week?
 - Would you prefer \$50 in 52 weeks or \$100 in 53 weeks?

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Addressing the empirical challenges

- ▶ Maxmin multiprior and robust control models
- ▶ Cumulative prospect theory
- ▶ Preference for commitment and flexibility
- ▶ A brief mention of 'behavioral' models

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Maxmin multiprior and robust control models

► Payoff profile f , pays $f(\omega)$ in state ω .

- EU ranking

$$f \succ g \Leftrightarrow \int u(f(\omega)) d\mu(\omega) > \int u(g(\omega)) d\mu(\omega)$$

- Maxmin EUT

$$f \succ g \Leftrightarrow \min_{\mu \in Q} \int u(f(\omega)) d\mu(\omega) > \min_{\mu \in Q} \int u(g(\omega)) d\mu(\omega)$$

- Q is a closed & convex set of subjective probability measures
- A payoff profile is evaluated based on 'worst case beliefs'
- Ellsberg?
 - ◆ Known urn: all measures agree that 'red' is a 50% event
 - ◆ Unknown urn: some measures assign higher (lower) likelihood to red than to black

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Maxmin multiprior and robust control models

► Maxmin EUT is a special example of preferences exhibiting 'uncertainty aversion'

- Avoid bets in which probabilities are not objectively specified
- Additional 'penalty' for the absence of quantifiable probabilities in a decision making situation

► Another example of this: Robust control

$$V(f) = \min_{\mu \in Q(\mu_0)} \left\{ \int u(g(\omega)) d\mu(\omega) + \theta \int \ln \frac{d\mu}{d\mu_0} d\mu(\omega) \right\}$$

► μ_0 is a reference measure, Q a set of absolutely continuous measures wrt μ_0 .

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Cumulative prospect theory

► Allais paradox and endowment effect suggest people exhibit non-linear preferences (in probabilities) and care about gains/losses relative to a reference point

► Enter Prospect Theory

- Gain vs. loss attitudes: easy! Just evaluate expected *relative* utility....

$$f \succ g \Leftrightarrow \int u(f(\omega) - w) d\mu(\omega) > \int u(g(\omega) - w) d\mu(\omega)$$

- w is current wealth
- DM only cares about changes from status quo
- Still have Allais paradox & Ellsberg paradox....

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Cumulative prospect theory

► Prospect theory can also be modified so that it accommodates Allais and Ellsberg

► The most descriptively successful theory to date

► Issues:

- Reference dependence may lead to 'silly' behavior that is not descriptively accurate
- E.g., prefer p over q when SQ is at r , but prefer q over p when the reference point is at p .
- Prospect Theory violates this simple condition (Sagi, 2006)
- Prospect theory with all the bells and whistles is also mathematically difficult
 - Not many applications in GE and games

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Preference for commitment and flexibility

► We saw that DMs may not exhibit full awareness of and agreement with future choice. How can this be modeled?

► Instead of

$$\max_{(c_1, c_2, \dots) \in B_1} U_1(c_1, c_2, \dots) = \max_{c_1 \in B_1} W_1 \left(c_1, \max_{(c_2, \dots) \in B_2(c_1)} U_2(c_2, \dots) \right)$$

► How about

$$\max_{(c_1, c_2, \dots) \in B_1} U_1(c_1, c_2, \dots) = \max_{c_1 \in B_1} W_1 \left(c_1, \max_{(c_2, \dots) \in B_2^a(c_1)} U_2^a(c_2, \dots), \max_{(c_2, \dots) \in B_2^b(c_1)} U_2^b(c_2, \dots), \dots \right)$$

► Interpretation:

- U_2 's correspond to possible future tastes (tastes are unpredictable)
 - If W increases in all U_2 's then the DM will not want to commit to any contingent plan (dynamic program) and will value flexibility

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Preference for commitment and flexibility

$$\max_{(c_1, c_2, \dots) \in B_1} U_1(c_1, c_2, \dots) = \max_{c_1 \in B_1} W_1 \left(c_1, \max_{(c_2, \dots) \in B_2^a(c_1)} U_2^a(c_2, \dots), \max_{(c_2, \dots) \in B_2^b(c_1)} U_2^b(c_2, \dots), \dots \right)$$

► Interpretation:

- U_2 's correspond to possible future tastes (tastes are unpredictable)
 - If W decreases in some U_2 's then the DM may wish to commit to some contingent plan (dynamic program).
 - DM may not 'like' some future realizations of tastes
 - ◆ Addiction
 - ◆ Self-control

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A brief mention of 'behavioral' models

- ▶ Also motivated by experimental evidence against neoclassical paradigm
- ▶ Model driven, rather than behaviorally (axiomatically) driven
 - Psychological mechanism is hypothesized and then modeled
 - Resulting choice behavior can then be tested
 - Contrasts with axiomatic models in which only observable/testable choice behavior is hypothesized and then a model is deduced
- ▶ E.g., hypothesize that a DM plays a strategic game against future 'selves'. Observed choice is the result of an equilibrium in this game.
- ▶ A very rich literature
 - See references

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Conclusions

- ▶ We've described the neo-classical paradigm for modeling decision making under uncertainty, and through time;
- ▶ We've summarize the multiple empirical challenges facing the neo-classical paradigm;
- ▶ Highlight some of the alternatives to the classical theory that are now explored in the literature.
 - This is still a very active field of research

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