Advanced Microeconomic Theory: Decision Theory and Markets

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Hannu Vartiainen University of Helsinki Decisions and Market

- What is economic theory?
- Set of theories that can (or should) be tested
- **2** Bag of tools to be used by economic agents
- 3 A framework through which professional and academic economists view the world
- Arena for the investigation of concepts we use in thinking about economics in real life

- Methodological individualism: a principle according to which social phenomena can only be understood by examining how they result from actions of individual agents
- Microeconomics: models in which the primitives are details about the behavior of units called economic agents
- Microeconomic models investigate assumptions about economic agents' activities and about interactions between these agents
- Models in microeconomic theory are, as in any honest scientific enterprise, formal
 - Permits clear insight
 - Makes models comparable and integrable
 - Rules out faulty logic
 - Comparative static exercises
 - Facilitates testing the model

Lecture notes 1: Choice theory

- The only thing that is even in principle observable from the agent is his behavior
- What does observed (economic) behavior tell us about the decision maker? => Her preferences
- Obs.: "utility" cannot be observed!
- Observations without a model meaningless finding the right model crucial
- In economics, the model is that of a rational agent (what does rationality mean?)

Rationality precludes biases, delusions, and inconsistencies

Example (Aesop's fox)

The fox was wandering in the forest and spotted a bunch of grapes hanging in a high branch. The fox jumped but failed to reach them. Giving up, the fox lifted its nose and said "they are probably sour anyway"

Example (Groucho Marx)

I never care to join a club that accepts people like me as its members

Example (Money pump)

The agent is willing to pay $1 \in$ to replace an apple to banana, $1 \in$ to replace an banana to orange, and $1 \in$ to replace an orange to apple. Whenever, she has x at her hand, she is thus willing to pay 50c to replace it to something else. Soon, she is in financial troubles.

 Precluding inconsistencies of this sort, i.e. violations of transitivity, can perhaps be justified on evolutionary grounds Four elements:

- 1 The known choice set X
- **2** Observed feasible set $A \subseteq X$
- 3 Choice rule
- 4 Behavioral assumption

Set of possible outcomes X

- X is the universe of alternative choices
- Examples:
 - Lunch from a menu
 - 2 Consumption over time
 - 3 Speeding or not speeding a car
 - 4 Occupational choice
 - 5 \mathbb{R}^n_+

Feasible Set A

- Achievable choices, a subset of X
- Given by external conditions
- Examples:
 - Budget set $B(p, m) = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}_+^L : \sum_{l=1}^L p_l \cdot x_l \le m \right\}$ with L commodities, prices $p_0, ..., p_L$ and budget m
 - In a normal form game, X = X₁ × · · · × X_N each player *i* chooses independently from his strategy set in X_i, i.e. B_i (x_{-i}) = {(x_i, x_{-i}) : x_i ∈ X_i}
- Why separate A and X?

Choice function

- How is choice made when A is given?
- Let A denote the collection of all possible feasible sets in X, call A a context
- A choice function c assigns to each set A in the context A a unique element c(A) ∈ A with the interpretation that c(A) is chosen if A happens to be the choice problem at hand
- c is the information that we get of the agent in the context $\mathcal A$

Behavioral assumption

- In economics, decisions in c are made through "rational deliberation"
- What would rationality imply for c(A)?

Axiom (Independence of irrelevant alternatives, IIA)

If $B \subseteq A$ and $c(A) \in B$, then c(A) = c(B)

- Removing nonchosen outcomes will not affect the choice
- A version of what is called the Weak Axiom of Revealed Preferences
- Our aim is to show that if the agent chooses according to IIA, then he behaves as if he has rational preferences that he maximizes (and conversely)

- Preferences reflect the summary of all judgements of the agent, how he compares distinct alternatives against one another
- Independent of the context, i.e. desirability does not depend on feasibility
- Preference relation ≿ is a binary relation, a subset of X × X, but written for convenience x ≿ y when (x, y) ∈ ≿
- Other binary relations derived from ≿:
 - Indifference part: $x \sim y$ if $x \succeq y$ and $y \succeq x$
 - Strict part: $x \succ y$ if $x \succeq y$ and not $y \succeq x$

Rational preferences

Axiom (Completeness)

For all $x, y \in X$ either $x \succeq y$ or $y \succeq x$

Axiom (Transitivity)

For all x, y, $z \in X$, if $x \succeq y$ and $y \succeq z$, then $x \succeq z$

- Complete and transitive preferences are called rational
- Below we simplify exposition by also ruling out indifferences

Axiom (Strictness)

For all $x, y \in X$, if $x \succeq y$ and $y \succeq x$, then x = y

 Rationality thus means nothing but that the agent can order the alternatives

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Independence of the frame is crucial

Example (Reference dependence)

Let preferences depend on the anticipated choice x such that, when x is chosen preferences are $\succeq_x \subset X \times X$. Optimal anticipated choice need not exist.

In particular, economic agents *do not regret*

Example (Multi-attribute decisions)

Let agent's preferences concerning a cars x, y, and z depend on the price, reliability, and coolness. A car is preferred to anther if it is better in terms of two of the criteria. Let criteria based ranking be

Rank	Price	Reliability	Coolness
1.	X	У	Ζ
2.	У	Z	X
3.	Ζ	X	У

By majority relation $x \succ y$, $y \succ z$, $z \succ x$. Hence no maximal choice exists.

■ Given the observed choice function c (·), we can define the revealed preference relation ≿*:

$$x\succsim^* y$$
 if $x,y\in A$ and $x=c\left(A
ight)$, for some $A\in\mathcal{A}$

■ "x ≿* y" means "x is at least as good as y" or "y is not preferred to x"

Proposition

Let context A include all subsets of X containing two or three elements. If $c(\cdot)$ satisfies IIA on A, then the induced revealed preference relation \succeq^* is rational and strict

• That is, \succeq^* rationalizes c if c meets IIA

- Why is the restriction on the sets in the previous proposition important?
- Example 1: $X = \{x, y, z\}, A = \{\{x, y\}, \{y, x\}, \{x, z\}\}$
- Example2: As Ex. 1 but add X to \mathcal{A}

- To obtain the other direction, assume that ≿ is a strict preference relation: either x ≻ y or y ≻ x for all x ≠ y
- Since strict rational preferences ≿ put alternatives into a linear order, each subset A of X contains a unique ≿ -maximal element denoted by c*(A, ≿)

Proposition

If \succeq is a strict rational preference relation, then the choice function $c^*(\cdot, \succeq)$ induced by \succeq satisfies IIA

Interpretation:

- If the sample of observations is sufficiently rich (A includes all subsets of X with two or three elements), rationality (strict, complete, and transitive preferences) is **equivalent to** Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives
- Taking rational preferences as the starting point means that the analysis is based on (potentially) observable characterisitics of the decision maker (assuming IIA)
- Conversely, rejecting rationality would imply rejection on IIA plausible?
- In principle testable hypothesis

- Psychological elements such as feelings, emotions, anxiety, excitement do **not** affect the rational choice theory as such: there is no reason why the preference relation ≿ could not summarize the effect of these as well
- Psychological effects may have an impact if they affect the decision making procedures of the agent: how she deliberates and chooses
- Resulting models, which emphasize the frictions implied by the procedure, reflect **bounded rationality**

Example (Satisficing)

(Herbert Simon): the agent arranges the alternatives in A into an ordering, and starts checking the value of the candidates in this order. The first alternative whose value exceeds a threshold value is chosen.

- The the ordering in the list is the same across Bs, the observed choice function c* meets IIA, and is made as if there is a rational preference ordering that is maximized
- The the ordering in the list varies between Bs, the observed choice function c* does not meet IIA, and cannot imitated by a rational choice model

- Satisficing one of the very few models of decision making that meet the IIA
- However, super sensitive to the underlying assumptions (how to choose listing order), and hence more complicated and arbitrary than rationality

Examples (Framing)

(Kahnemann and Tversky): An outbreak of a disease will cause 600 deaths. One of two emergency programs may be executed:

- 1 400 people will die
- 2 with prob. 1/3, no-one dies and with prob. 2/3, all die

Another way to describe the decision problem:

- 1'. 200 people will be saved
- 2'. with prob. 1/3, all will be saved and with prob. 2/3, no-one will be saved

Experminetal subjects typically choose 2 and 1'

Utility representation for rational preferences

- Real utility or happiness, if it exists, is not used in nor required by economics models
- However, we often work with a utility functions for convenience: it can be easily manipulated, and it nicely summarizes the information contained in preferences
- Then utility function represents preferences
- Is it OK to let a real-valued function to represent potentially complicated preferences over the choice set?
- What are we exactly assuming when taking this approach?
- Our objective: reveal the relationship between the axioms and the utility function

• We say that a utility function $u: X \to \mathbb{R}$ represents rational preferences \succeq if it holds that

$$u(x) \ge u(y)$$
 if and only if $x \succeq y$

No additional interpretation associated to u, in particular, u does not reflect the level of satisfaction nor "happiness"

Proposition

If there exists a utility function representing \succsim , then \succsim is rational

- Note: If u represents \succeq , then so does $f \circ u$ for **any** increasing $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$
- => Utilities here do not have any interpretation as the level of satisfaction or "happiness"

When the underlying environment is countable, one can always construct a utility function step-by-step, starting from a specific outcome and adding or substracting utility when moving upwards or downwards in preferences

Proposition

If the choice set X is countable and \succeq is rational, then \succeq has a utility representation.

- One can imagine noncountable situations where utility representation does exist: e.g. consumtion of a single desirable good
- Are there situations where a utility representation does not exist?

Example

Let preferences.on $X = [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ be **Lexicographic** such that

 $\begin{aligned} (x_1, x_2) \succsim (y_1, y_2) \\ \text{if and only if} \\ x_1 \ge y_1 \text{ or } [x_1 = y_1 \text{ and } x_2 \ge y_2]. \end{aligned}$

Assuming a representation u for these preferences leads to impossibility:

Suppose *u* represents preferences. Then

u(a, 1) > u(a, 0) > u(b, 0), for any $a, b \in [0, 1]$ such that a > b. For any a, choose a rational number f(a) such that u(a, 1) > f(a) > u(a, 0). Then f is a strictly monotonic function from [0, 1] to the set of rational numbers, i.e. there is a 1-1 mapping from a continuum to a subset of rational numbers, a contradiction.

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- Implication: further restrictions on the preference relation are needed
- Let $X = \mathbb{R}_+^L$, e.g. the set of commodity bundles.
- Define the **upper contour set** (or simply upper set) at x by

$$\succsim (x) = \{y \in X : y \succsim x\}$$

 Similarly, the lower contour set (or simply lower set) at x is given by

$$\precsim (x) = \{y \in X : x \succeq y\}$$

and the indifference set at x is denoted by

$$I\left(x\right)=\left\{y\in X:x\succsim y\text{ and }y\succsim x\right\}$$

- The set $Y \subseteq X$ is **closed** if for all sequences $\{y_n\}$ such that $y_n \to y$ and $y_n \in Y$, we have $y \in Y$
- If $\precsim(x)$ and $\succsim(x)$ are closed, so is their intersection I(x)

■ Note that a path from y ∈ ∑ (x) to z ∈ ≾ (x) passes through a point of indifference

Axiom (Continuity)

Preferences \succeq are continuous if, for all $x \in X$, the sets $\succeq (x)$ and $\preceq (x)$ are closed

- If the agent strictly prefers x to y, and preferences are continuous, then a small perturbation of x (or y) does not affect the ranking
- The next result states that, in a consumer choice context, rational preferences have a utility function characterization under very general conditions

Theorem

(Debreu) Let $X = \mathbb{R}_{+}^{L}$. If \succeq is rational and continuous, then there exists a continuous utility function $u(\cdot)$ that represents \succeq .

Proof.

[Sketch] Let Y be a dense subset of X (such exists). Let v be the utility function on Y (such exists by the previous proposition). Choose $u(x) = \sup\{y \in Y : x \succ y\}$, for all $x \in X$. We claim that $u(x) \ge u(y)$ if $x \succeq y$ for all $x, y \in X$. Since X is dense in Y, by continuity of preferences, u(x) = u(y) if $x \sim y$. Let $x \succ y$. Then there are $z_1, z_2 \in Y$ such that $x \succ z_1 \succ z_2 \succ y$ (see Rubinstein p.19). By construction $u(x) \ge v(z_1) > v(z_2) \ge u(y)$.

 Does not require assumptions regarding tastes (convexity, monotonicity)

- Recently it has become fashionable to evaluate human well being through reflect happiness measures
- Could utility functions be replaced with "happiness functions"?
- Problematic questioners
 - The order of questions
 - Correlation with weather but not when the weather is pointed out
 - Meaning of life not evaluated

- National well being is often measured through GDP or equivalent
- Can happiness be measured by wealth?
 - Easterlin paradox
 - Stimulus effect
 - Keeping up with the Joneses
- Neuroimaging