Commitment and Welfare

Frank N. Caliendo and T. Scott Findley Utah State University

Spring 2015

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• Unanswered question: How should we do welfare analysis when individuals have dynamically inconsistent preferences?

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- In a multiself model, whose preferences should we respect?
- Standard practice: welfare = preferences of time-zero self.

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 \bigstar Our finding: Pareto rationale for standard approach if the number of selves (decision nodes) *exceeds* a threshold.

• Unanswered question: How should we do welfare analysis when individuals have dynamically inconsistent preferences?

- In a multiself model, whose preferences should we respect?
- Standard practice: welfare = preferences of time-zero self.

★ Our finding: Pareto rationale for standard approach if the number of selves (decision nodes) *exceeds* a threshold. Threshold can be very small (as small as 3 selves).

- Why welfare = time-zero preferences?
 - —Based on the idea of helping people reach their goals.

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- —Combat self-control problems.
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- Essential concern: *committing* individuals to initial goals forces later selves to do something suboptimal.
- But again, we show: all selves benefit from commitment if #selves > threshold.

• If # selves is small: a given self has power to significantly influence the equilibrium allocation (i.e., equilibrium may be close to what he wants).

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• If # selves is large:

—Power to influence the equilibrium allocation is diffuse.

—Equilibrium allocation far from what any one self wants.

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★ When all selves are very unhappy in equilibrium, the door is open for a Pareto improvement (even if they disagree on the ideal allocation).

• Hyperbolic discounting with sophistication.

- Hyperbolic discounting with sophistication.
- Two classic dynamic programming problems.

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 - **2** Eating a cake (nonrenewable resource).
- These examples span a range of settings in which DI preferences are considered.

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 - **2** Eating a cake (nonrenewable resource).
- These examples span a range of settings in which DI preferences are considered.

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• Results go through in both settings.

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• Following Caplin and Leahy (2004), lifetime utility is a mapping $U(t, \mathbf{c}) : \mathbb{R}^T \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ that depends on the vantage point $t \in [0, T]$.

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• Following the terminology of Bernheim and Rangel (2009), an allocation $\mathbf{c}' \in S$ multiself Pareto dominates another allocation $\mathbf{c}'' \in S$ if and only if

$$U(t, \mathbf{c}') > U(t, \mathbf{c}'')$$
 for all $t \in [0, T]$.

$$\mathbf{c}^{\mathbf{0}} = \arg \max_{\mathbf{c} \in S} U(0, \mathbf{c}).$$

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$$\mathbf{c}^{\mathbf{0}} = \arg \max_{\mathbf{c} \in S} U(0, \mathbf{c}).$$

• The equilibrium allocation \mathbf{c}^* is the allocation that actually materializes from the internal conflict among the many time-dated selves who each have a different view on optimal decision making.

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• Dynamic inconsistency is a situation in which $\mathbf{c}^{\mathbf{0}} \neq \mathbf{c}^*$.

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- Dynamic inconsistency is a situation in which $\mathbf{c}^{\mathbf{0}} \neq \mathbf{c}^*$.
- Point of our paper: understand the conditions under which c^0 multiself Pareto dominates c^* .

Part I: Eating Fruit from a Tree

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• An individual plants a tree at t = 0.

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- An individual plants a tree at t = 0.
- Beginning at t = 1, tree bears one piece of fruit at each t.

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- An individual plants a tree at t = 0.
- Beginning at t = 1, tree bears one piece of fruit at each t.
- Fruit may be consumed immediately, or left on the tree one period to fully ripen.

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• Unripe fruit tastes good, but ripe fruit tastes great.

- An individual plants a tree at t = 0.
- Beginning at t = 1, tree bears one piece of fruit at each t.
- Fruit may be consumed immediately, or left on the tree one period to fully ripen.

- Unripe fruit tastes good, but ripe fruit tastes great.
- Fruit is totally rotten if left on the tree for two periods.

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- Fruit is totally rotten if left on the tree for two periods.
- The last piece of new fruit is produced at t = T 1.

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- \bullet Tree dies and no consumption takes place beyond T.

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- Unripe fruit tastes good, but ripe fruit tastes great.
- Fruit is totally rotten if left on the tree for two periods.
- The last piece of new fruit is produced at t = T 1.
- Tree dies and no consumption takes place beyond T.
- We call T the number of decision nodes.

• Utility is linear (in the next section utility is concave).

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• Utility is linear (in the next section utility is concave).

• Simple choice: take a small amount of utility now c^- or a larger amount c^+ one period later.

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- Utility is linear (in the next section utility is concave).
- Simple choice: take a small amount of utility now c^- or a larger amount c^+ one period later.

• The lifetime utility of the individual at age t is $U(t, \mathbf{c}) = \begin{cases} \beta \sum_{s=1}^{T} c_s & t = 0\\ \gamma \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} c_s + c_t + \beta \sum_{s=t+1}^{T} c_s & t \in [1, T] \end{cases}$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{c^0} &= (0, c^+, ..., c^+) \\ \mathbf{c^*} &= (c^-, ..., c^-, 0) \\ \mathbf{c^1} &= (c^-, 0, c^+, ..., c^+). \end{aligned}$$

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Examples

- $c^+/c^- = 2$ and $\beta = 0.4 \implies$ all selves eat unripe fruit in equilibrium.
- If T = 2, commitment doesn't make everyone happy.
- If T > 2, then all selves like commitment over equilibrium (for any γ).
- Note the surprise: adding more selves (more conflicting points of view) makes commitment a Pareto move!

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Figure 1. Parameter Space where $U(t, \mathbf{c}^0) > U(t, \mathbf{c}^*)$ for all t

Note: $U(t, \mathbf{c}^0) > U(t, \mathbf{c}^*)$ for all t, if $\beta \in (\overline{\beta}(T), c^-/c^+)$.





Part II: Eating a Cake

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• At t = 0, individual orders a cake that will arrive at t = 1.

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• At t = 0, individual orders a cake that will arrive at t = 1.

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 $\bullet~T$ decision nodes or opportunities to eat from the cake.

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- $\bullet~T$ decision nodes or opportunities to eat from the cake.
- Cake doesn't spoil or grow.

Self 0 would like his future selves to obey

max :
$$\sum_{t=1}^{T} F(t) \ln c_t$$
, s.t. $\sum_{t=1}^{T} c_t = C$,

which has the following solution (commitment allocation)

$$c_t = \frac{CF(t)}{\sum_{s=1}^T F(s)}, \text{ for all } t > 0.$$

However, equilibrium allocation satisfies the following recursion

$$c_{t+1} = c_t \left(\frac{\sum_{s=1}^{T-t} F(s)}{1 + \sum_{s=1}^{T-t-1} F(s)} \right) < c_t.$$

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Table 1. $U(t, \mathbf{c}^0) > U(t, \mathbf{c}^*)$ for all t iff:

	$\beta = 0.2$	$\beta = 0.4$	$\beta = 0.6$	$\beta = 0.8$
$\gamma = 1$	$T \ge 9$	$T \ge 8$	$T \ge 8$	$T \ge 8$
$\gamma = \beta$	$T \ge 6$	$T \ge 5$	$T \ge 4$	$T \ge 4$
$\gamma = 0$	$T \ge 6$	$T \ge 5$	$T \ge 4$	$T \ge 4$

 β is the forward disc. factor, γ is the backward disc. factor.

How big are the gains from commitment?

Define Δ_t as the solution to

$$U(t, \mathbf{c}^{\mathbf{0}}(C\Delta_t)) = U(t, \mathbf{c}^*(C)).$$

The function $1 - \Delta_t$ is the fraction of cake self t would give up to commit to $\mathbf{c}^{\mathbf{0}}(C\Delta_t)$.

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Note: $1 - \Delta_t$ is the fraction of cake self t would give up; β and γ are the forward and backward discount factors.



Figure 5. Willingness to Pay for Commitment: The Case of $\beta = \gamma = 0.5$

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Figure 6. Willingness to Pay for Commitment: The Case of $\beta = 0.5$, $\gamma = 0$

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Others have quantified gains from commitment...

• Laibson (1996): analytical proof that commitment Pareto dominates equilibrium (∞ horizon setting).

• Laibson, Repetto, and Tobacman (1998): compute welfare gains from commitment.

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What's new in our paper?

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What's new in our paper?

 \bigstar We uncover the fundamental connection between the number of decision nodes and the appropriateness of the time-zero welfare criterion.

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• Critics of behavioral economics say welfare analysis is hopeless under DI preferences.

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• In some cases, as few as 3 nodes will do the trick.

Thank You!

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