

Social Learning and Choice Theory

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Introduction

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- “Building codes and appliance standards, if well designed and implemented, have been among the most environmentally and cost effective instruments for emission reductions (*robust evidence, high agreement*).”

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From “Energy Efficiency Policies: A retrospective examination” (Gillingham et al, Annual Reviews, 2009):

- “Ex post and ex ante analyses from Meyers et al. estimate past costs to the government of implementing 1987 to 2000 appliance standards as \$200 million to \$250 million and the cumulative net benefit for those years as \$17.4 billion. This latter amount is added to some ex ante estimates to yield a cumulative net benefit of \$154 billion and CO₂ emissions reductions of 1216 MMTCE for 1987 to 2050.”

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- “Although these skeptical authors contend that empirical evidence supports their theoretical findings, they typically do not provide it.”
- “In fact, most empirical studies provide evidence at the state or program level, supporting the cost-effectiveness of appliance standards. Further empirical research would be useful to examine the practical importance of the theoretical criticisms and generalize the results of the many program-level studies.”

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- This is typical of controversies over the "energy efficiency gap".
- Economists are often sceptical about the existence or, at least, the importance, of the energy efficiency gap because it seems to violate the axiom of revealed preference.
- Today I want to discuss how the use of revealed preference in economics can go wrong. I will provide a model to suggest that it will sometimes be misleading, and when this is likely to happen. The model will make some predictions and I will look at the available evidence in this regard.

Overheard in the economics department

- “I took the best way home yesterday.”

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- “I took the best way home yesterday.”
- “How do you know it was the best?”

Overheard in the economics department

- “I took the best way home yesterday.”
- “How do you know it was the best?”
- “Because I took it.”

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- This suggests that if we want to understand what can go wrong with applying revealed preference and what can be done when it does go wrong, we need to understand how people learn.
- In this paper, we provide a model of social learning.

A model of the Evolution of Learning Rules

One decision problem [Rogers, 1988]

- In each period, a snerdwump faces a decision problem in which it has to take one of two actions, labelled 0 and 1.

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- If a snerdwump takes action j when $X = j$, then it receives a benefit of 1.
- If it takes the "wrong" action, then it gets a benefit of -1, so that the expected benefit of taking an action without conditioning on the state is 0.

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- If it is perturbed, then the two states occur with equal probability in the next period.

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- The first is to learn the state in every period before acting. This has a payoff of $1 - c$.
- The second is to do what a random other snerdwump was seen to do in the last period.
- We shall suppose that such *social learning* can happen at low (for simplicity, zero) cost.

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$$(1 - u)[(1 - p) + p(1 - u)[(1 - p) + \dots] = \frac{(1 - u)(1 - p)}{1 - p(1 - u)}$$

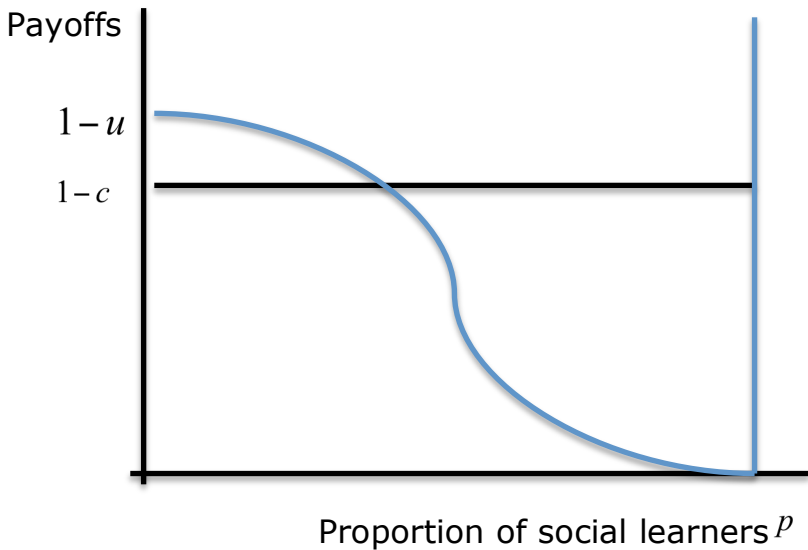
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The payoff to social learning is decreasing in p and approaches zero as p nears one.



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A population of snerdwumps with no social learners is thus evolutionarily unstable.

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- [Rogers, 1988] concludes from this that social learning cannot raise aggregate payoffs.
- In economic terms, the problem is that while individual learners create a positive informational externality that can raise the payoffs of social learners, the social learners' exploitation of this information itself degrades the quality of information in the population, rendering it more and more obsolete, until the net gain from social learning is entirely dissipated.

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- A fraction $1/n$ of the people are largely familiar with type- i problems, $i = 1, \dots, n$, which they face with probability q .
- For them, these have only a few novel features while type- j problems where $j \neq i$, that they face with probability $1 - q$ are mostly unfamiliar to them.

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- The cost of learning the state is low (c_l) for a familiar problem and high ($c_h > c_l$) for an unfamiliar problem.
- Now consider the learning rule L : Use individual learning when faced with a familiar problem, use social learning otherwise.
- The operational assumption here is that it is not possible to distinguish between informed and un-informed members of the population.

Multiple decision problems: People

If p now denotes the proportion of people in the population who faced a particular decision problem but did not learn the state for that problem, then the payoff to this learning rule is

$$q(1 - c_I) + (1 - q) \frac{(1 - u)(1 - p)}{1 - p(1 - u)}. \quad (1)$$

Multiple decision problems: People

A necessary condition for evolution by natural selection to an equilibrium in which every member of the population uses the learning rule L is

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The right-hand inequality is necessary to ensure that those with the high cost of learning the state will not do better by using individual rather than social learning.

Multiple decision problems: People

If everyone uses the learning rule L , then for any of the problems, the proportion of un-informed people facing that problem will be

$$p = \frac{\frac{(1-q)(n-1)}{n}}{\frac{(1-q)(n-1)}{n} + \frac{q}{n}}. \quad (3)$$

Multiple decision problems: People

- We shall suppose that those facing unfamiliar problems will get a higher payoff from social than individual learning at the value of p given above. This will certainly be true, for example, if $c_h > 1$ so that even random choice is better than individual learning for unfamiliar problems.

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- We shall suppose that those facing unfamiliar problems will get a higher payoff from social than individual learning at the value of p given above. This will certainly be true, for example, if $c_h > 1$ so that even random choice is better than individual learning for unfamiliar problems.
- If the left-hand inequality also holds strictly at this value of p , so that those facing familiar problems get a strictly higher payoff from individual rather than social learning, then evolution by natural selection must lead to the entire population following L .

Multiple decision problems: People

The resulting value of the payoff is strictly higher than what would have been possible with individual learning alone. If people (unlike snerdwumps) can specialise, then not only will they evolve a social learning rule, but this social learning will raise the payoffs of the population as a whole.

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- The evolutionarily stable outcome in this case will consist of a mixture of two strategies, L , and a strategy that calls for always using social learning, even for familiar problems.
- In this state, everyone will earn a payoff of $1 - c_I$ so that social learning leads to everyone getting the highest possible payoff at all times.

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- The benefit to social learning in this case is even higher than in the case when natural selection leads to the entire population following the learning rule L .
- This is because the fraction of uninformed people is not large, so that information does not get obsolete through too much imitation.

If there was some degree of specialisation of tasks in our evolutionary past – hunting different kinds of game in different places, gathering different kinds of plant foods in different places, etc. – but this specialisation was incomplete, so that individuals still had to occasionally perform tasks that they were not used to, then the model suggests that this would have led to evolutionary selection pressure to adopt a learning rule like L .

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- But it is ubiquitous because it costs nothing for both teachers and learners.

Implications for Choice Theory

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- The model suggests that evolution would have predisposed people to invest in finding the optimal choice when the cost of doing so is low, and to imitate others when this is not the case.
- When will the cost of finding the optimal choice be low?

Repeated choices

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- Caveat. Ariely, Drazen, and Prelec (2003). Coherent Arbitrariness.

Easily observable attributes

- Even if a decision has to be made that is encountered only occasionally, if it is the case that people can easily observe the payoffs that others got from having made such choices, rather than only the choices themselves, then the cost of learning which is the best choice will be low.

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- An example is the purchase of consumer durables such as smartphones.
- The relevant characteristics of such phones may be discerned from those possessed by one's friends fairly easily, so that it may not be difficult to make a good choice.
- Once again, standard welfare economics using revealed preference may be appropriate.

It is when we depart from both these cases that standard theory will no longer be reliable, whether for prediction or for making welfare judgements.

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- A common reaction of economists to this observation has been that, since this violates the central postulate of choice theory that people maximise their utility or profits subject to feasibility constraints, the observation itself must be false or greatly exaggerated, except possibly for special cases such as owner-renter split incentives.

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- Therefore, while it is possible to observe which models of any given appliance others are buying, their payoffs from such purchases are largely unobservable.

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- This is because it is difficult to evaluate the energy consumption of any specific appliance even after using it (Jesso and Rapson, 2013).
- Therefore, while it is possible to observe which models of any given appliance others are buying, their payoffs from such purchases are largely unobservable.
- Furthermore, since the goods are durable, one makes such purchases infrequently. Personal experience, therefore, tends to be obsolete in the presence of technical change. It is, therefore, difficult to determine the best choice. These are exactly the conditions under which imitation is predicted by our theory.

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- Suppose that in Year 1, a new model that is, in fact, superior to previous models, becomes available.
- Suppose the fraction of persons with a low cost of making the optimal choice is f .
- Suppose, in accordance with the evolved behaviour modelled above, that these buyers make the optimal choice while the other buyers imitate the choice of a random member of the population from the previous period.

Then the fraction of buyers making the optimal choice in Year 2 will be

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so that, by induction, the fraction of buyers making the optimal choice in Year t will be

$$F_t = 1 - (1 - f)^t. \quad (5)$$

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- What fraction of buyers will actually be capable of making the optimal choice in real situations?
- 40% of US car buyers in a survey said they did not take operating costs into account when choosing which car to buy (Allcott, 2011).
- Let us generously assume that $f = 0.1$
- Then it will be 22 years before 90% of buyers are buying the right model, even assuming that there is no further technical progress in this time, rather than zero years as would be the case with correctly optimising buyers.

- For example, if we consider a product like an air-conditioner with a 10-year lifespan, then it will take 27 years after the introduction of a superior model before 90% of the air-conditioners in use are the best model, rather than the 9 years it would take if everyone made the optimal choice.

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- In actuality, matters will be worse because of further technical progress.
- Standard welfare economics would suggest that once any pollution externalities have been priced, further government intervention would only raise costs.

- Note that there is no pollution externality above, yet we get a hugely inefficient outcome because of the cost to individuals of making the optimal choice.

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- The cost to society of making the optimal choice is much lower because it can be incurred only once and then transmitted to everybody via information or regulation.

Information or Regulation?

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- Economists generally look upon labelling policies and nudges with less disapproval than regulations because they preserve consumer choice.
- From the perspective of costly decision-making, however, this neglects the costs consumers have to still undergo to make choices, mostly because many people will continue to make the wrong choices.
- Regulation is a better policy when the other attributes of a good that consumers care about (other than their energy bill) are unimportant or unaffected by the performance standard. This is likely to be the case with devices such as air-conditioners, but may be less the case with, for example, cars.

Health-related behaviours

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- Switching from modern to traditional fuels, protecting water sources, paying for improved sanitation, etc.

Water quality and information

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- Households can undertake averting expenditures to improve their own water quality if they feel the need to do so. These actions are easily observed and act as a measure of demand, using revealed preference.
- How does demand vary with the information available to households?

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- Awareness and the Demand for Environmental Quality: Survey Evidence on Drinking Water Quality in India. Environment and Development Economics (2009) – J. Jalan, E. Somanathan and S. Chaudhuri

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- If awareness does have a significant effect on willingness to pay for better water quality, then we would expect more educated people, who are presumably more aware of the importance of water quality for health, to be spending more on home purification.
- We used the urban subsample of the 1998-99 National Family Health Survey in India to see if this is the case.

Water quality and information

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- Sampled households highly exposed to waterborne diseases:
16.5 percent of households with children in the 0-3 age group had at least one case of diarrhea in the two weeks preceding the survey.

Water quality and information

- Households used various home water purification methods ranging from costless filtration with a cloth to costly electronic water purifiers. We estimated the probabilities of these methods as functions of wealth, education and other variables and calculated expected expenditure as a function of the variables.

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- Female (and to a lesser degree male) education, exposure to media, and occupations all have strong effects on the willingness to pay for better water quality.

Water quality and information

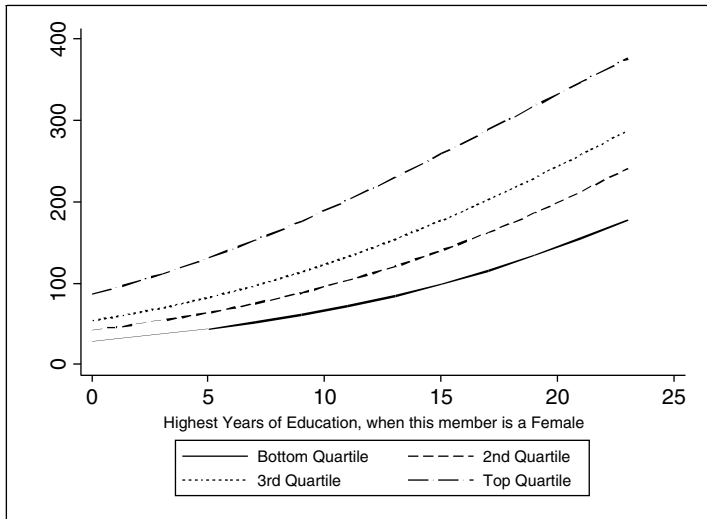


Figure 5. *Averting expenditure: highest years of education (when the member is female) across different wealth quartiles*

Water quality and information

- The Importance of Being Informed: Experimental Evidence on the Demand for Environmental Quality. *Journal of Development Economics* (2008) – J. Jalan and E. Somanathan

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- A randomised trial in Gurgaon, suburb of Delhi.

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- A randomised trial in Gurgaon, suburb of Delhi.
- Our survey found that awareness about the causes of waterborne diseases was surprisingly low.

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- Half of them randomised into treatment. Treatment group given results soon after - either dirty water, or clean water, and a handout explaining purification methods and their cost and effectiveness.
- A few weeks later, all households were re-surveyed to see if they had changed their purification behaviour.
- The treatment group with a dirty result was 11 percentage points more likely to start purifying their water than the control, if they were initially not doing so. The clean result had no effect. The effect was present only above median wealth and education.

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- Balasubramanya et al, (EDE, forthcoming) in this conference, examines longer-run effects.

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- This research has subsequently been confirmed experimentally and has been used for policy-making.

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- Other people's consumption, however, is observable, and so social learning may matter for savings via imitation of consumption decisions.
- This provides an alternative, perhaps more benign, interpretation of the findings Robert Frank talked about three days ago, that the consumption of the rich "cascades" down the income ladder.

Social effects on savings: Prediction

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- Since higher income people consume more, if one compares two identical people with the same income living in rich and poor neighbourhoods respectively, then the one in the richer neighbourhood will tend to consume more due to social learning and thus will save less. (Note that this effect will tend to make the rich save more than the poor.)

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- Is this prediction borne out?

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- He found that a \$1 increase in income in a household's zip code is associated with a 9 cent reduction in family saving. Since the mean savings rate in the data was 10-15%, this is a large effect.
- The use of longitudinal data allowed quite fine control for permanent, as opposed to only current, income. It also allowed a check for selection bias by looking at a subsample of households that moved from zip codes with a significantly different median income. The results were robust to this.

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- Kapteyn (2000) asked people about their acquaintances' incomes and found that those who reported friends with higher incomes saved less.

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- The other approach is free of this problem. But it does incorporate strong assumptions about how society's choices should be evaluated, for example, that consumption is all that matters.
- It's not clear whether this can be improved upon. Stated preference methods are one possibility.

The rhetoric of preferences

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- Valuation of non-marketed goods is, of course, a very important sub-field of economics.
- Sometimes the claim is made, that these methods “uncover” preferences, as if such preferences actually existed in the way that Fermat’s Last Theorem exists.
- It should be clear by now that I believe that people discover what they like and the best choice to make in a process of discovery. Consequently, I prefer to treat non-market valuation methods as “best guesses” about what people would choose if they were in a position to actually do so.

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- Technologies that affect soil fertility and long-run yields, may however, be much more dependent on neighbourhood effects, because the payoffs are harder to observe.

Conclusions

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- Behavioral economics now consists largely of a disjointed bunch of findings that contradict mainstream theory. A theoretical integration of behavioural economics with mainstream theory is a goal we should aim towards, which means testing theory more rigorously as it is developed.
- The model given here is one attempt in this direction.