

BELIEF-DEPENDENT MOTIVATIONS AND UPDATING

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MOTIVATION

Investors overreact to information, consumers avoid learning about firms' unethical practices, and patients at health risk do not learn about their condition.

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Theories of belief-dependent motivations (BDM) explain these phenomena.

Three drawbacks:

- lack of preferences and beliefs identification;
- impossibility to distinguish "desired" from "undesired" beliefs;
- unknown relation between preferences and belief revision.

Question: can we develop a testable theory of BDM?

THIS PAPER

I develop a theory of BDM in a dynamic setting encompassing previous model.

First, the individual chooses both a menu and information.

Choosing from the menu, she distorts her Bayesian update to satisfy her preferences.

Axiomatic analysis identifies preferences, prior beliefs and distorted posteriors.

Main result: representation of BDM preferences and belief updating rules.

ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLE

An investor decides whether to check the state of her portfolio.

After checking, she decides whether to invest more (i) or withdraw any feasible amount of money, which could be high (\bar{w}) or low (w).

Check	
State	Actions
Good	$i, [0, \bar{w}]$
Normal	
Bad	$i, [0, w]$

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Upon observing a high amount in it she infers the state of the market is not bad.

When she sees a low amount, she knows the state of the market is bad.

ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLE

She can't make any inferences or do anything if she does not check.

Check		Not Check	
State	Actions	State	Actions
Good	$i, [0, \overline{w}]$	Good	0
Normal		Normal	
Bad	$i, [0, w]$	Bad	

ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLE

She could also check and committ not to invest, by delegating to a financial advisor.

Delegate	
State	Actions
Good	$[0, \bar{w}]$
Normal	
Bad	$[0, w]$

Check	
State	Actions
Good	$i, [0, \bar{w}]$
Normal	
Bad	$i, [0, w]$

Not Check	
State	Actions
Good	0
Normal	
Bad	

ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLE

She anticipates to overweight evidence and invest too much.

Therefore, she prefers to commit, but also wants to obtain information.

Delegate			Check			Not Check	
State	Actions		State	Actions		State	Actions
Good	$[0, \bar{w}]$	\succ	Good	$i, [0, \bar{w}]$	\succ	Good	0
Normal			Normal			Normal	
Bad	$[0, w]$		Bad	$i, [0, w]$		Bad	

Table: Commitment under positive prior belief to avoid excessive investment.

"Cognitive" non-Bayesian updating (Epstein, 2006) cannot rationalise this behaviour.

ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLE

If the investor expects the state of the market to be bad, she prefers not to check the portfolio at all to avoid receiving unpleasant information.

Not Check			Delegate			Check	
State	Actions		State	Actions		State	Actions
Good	0	\succ	Good	$[0, \bar{w}]$	\succ	Good	$i, [0, \bar{w}]$
Normal			Normal			Normal	
Bad			Bad			Bad	

Table: Information avoidance under negative prior beliefs, "ostrich effect".

Both excessive trading and the ostrich effect constitutes empirical puzzles in finance (Daniel & Hirshleifer, 2015; Golman et al., 2017).

LITERATURE

- *Decision Theory*. Liang (2017), Dillenberger & Raymond (2020) Rommeswinkel et al. (2023).

Contribution: **Belief revision rule.**

- *Menu Choice*. Gul & Pesendorfer (2001), Ozdenoren (2002), Epstein (2006), Epstein & Kopylov (2007).

Contribution: **Novel primitive object of choice.**

- *Belief-Dependent Motivations*. Eliaz & Spiegel (2006), Bénabou & Tirole (2016), Golman et al. (2017), Battigalli & Dufwenberg (2022).

Contribution: **Interaction between preferences and belief revision.**

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- time 0 preference \succsim is defined on \mathcal{C} .

INFORMATION

The likelihood of state s after realisation of menu M from the contingent menu F is

$$\ell_{M,F}(s) := \frac{F_s(M)}{\sum_{s' \in S} F_{s'}(M)}.$$

Given any contingent menu F and menu M , the vector of likelihoods is $\ell_{M,F}$.

GUL & PESENDORFER (2001)

In the temptation and self-control model, behavior is represented by the following

$$\mathcal{U}(M) = \max_{f \in M} \left\{ U(f) + V(f) - \max_{f' \in M} V(f') \right\}.$$

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Cost of self-control is

$$\max_{f' \in M} V(f') - V(f).$$

UTILITY

Individual's behavior in this paper is represented by the following model

$$\mathcal{U}(F) = \sum_M \left(\sum_s F_s(M) \right) \mathcal{U}(M; \ell_{M,F}) ; \quad (1)$$

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Belief-dependent motivations **imply** non-Bayesian updating.

INTERPRETATION

Choice at period 2 is described by the following

$$\max_{f \in M} \left[\sum_s u(f_s; \ell_{M,F}) p_{\ell_{M,F}}(s) + \alpha_{\ell_{M,F}} \sum_s u(f_s; \ell_{M,F}^*) p_{\ell_{M,F}^*}(s) \right].$$

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$$\max_{f \in M} \left[\sum_s u(f_s; \ell_{M,F}) p_{\ell_{M,F}}(s) + \alpha_{\ell_{M,F}} \sum_s u(f_s; \ell_{M,F}^*) p_{\ell_{M,F}^*}(s) \right].$$

When choosing act f from menu M at likelihood $\ell_{M,F}$, the cost of temptation is

$$\alpha_{\ell_{M,F}} \left[\max_{f' \in M} \sum_s u(f'_s; \ell_{M,F}^*) p_{\ell_{M,F}^*}(s) - \sum_s u(f_s; \ell_{M,F}^*) p_{\ell_{M,F}^*}(s) \right].$$

CONCLUSION

Theory of BDM and motivated updating tested via choices of contingent menus.

The model predicts same beliefs for same preferences, thus assortativity of beliefs.

Value of information for individuals with BDM preferences.

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COST OF SELF-CONTROL

Identification of α_ℓ allows elaborating on its behavioral meaning

$$\alpha_\ell = \frac{\mathcal{U}(\{f, x\}, \ell) - \mathcal{U}(\{f, x'\}, \ell)}{u(x, \ell) - u(x', \ell)}.$$

It is the marginal cost of self-control at likelihood ℓ .

EXAMPLE: MORAL WIGGLE ROOM (DANA ET AL., 2007)

A dictator in a laboratory experiment is endowed with 10 euros.

She decides how much to transfer to a recipient she is coupled with.

The transfer is subject to an unknown multiplier, which could be high, medium, or low.

The experimenter allows the dictator to choose the transfer from various menus conditional on the multiplier's value.

EXAMPLE

State	Actions
High	$h \{5\} + (1 - h) [5, 10]$
Medium	$m \{5\} + (1 - m) [0, 5]$
Low	$[0, 3]$

EXAMPLE

State	Actions		State	Actions
High	$h \{5\} + (1 - h) [5, 10]$	\approx	High	$h \{3\} + (1 - h) [5, 10]$
Medium	$m \{5\} + (1 - m) [0, 5]$		Medium	$m \{3\} + (1 - m) [0, 5]$
Low	$[0, 3]$		Low	$[0, 3]$

EXAMPLE

State	Actions		State	Actions
High	$h \{5\} + (1 - h) [5, 10]$	\sim	High	$h \{3\} + (1 - h) [5, 10]$
Medium	$m \{5\} + (1 - m) [0, 5]$		Medium	$m \{3\} + (1 - m) [0, 5]$
Low	$[0, 3]$		Low	$[0, 3]$
\Downarrow				
State	Actions		State	Actions
High	$h \{5\} + (1 - h) [5, 10]$	\sim	High	$h \{3, 5\} + (1 - h) [5, 10]$
Medium	$m \{5\} + (1 - m) [0, 5]$		Medium	$m \{3, 5\} + (1 - m) [0, 5]$
Low	$[0, 3]$		Low	$[0, 3]$

Table: Set-Betweenness

EXAMPLE

State	Actions		State	Actions
High	$h \{5\} + (1 - h) [5, 10]$	\succsim	High	$h \{7\} + (1 - h) [5, 10]$
Medium	$m \{5\} + (1 - m) [0, 5]$		Medium	$m \{7\} + (1 - m) [0, 5]$
Low	$[0, 3]$		Low	$[0, 3]$

EXAMPLE

State	Actions		State	Actions
High	$h \{5\} + (1 - h) [5, 10]$	\succsim	High	$h \{7\} + (1 - h) [5, 10]$
Medium	$m \{5\} + (1 - m) [0, 5]$		Medium	$m \{7\} + (1 - m) [0, 5]$
Low	$[0, 3]$		Low	$[0, 3]$
\Downarrow				
State	Actions		State	Actions
High	$h \{5\} + (1 - h) [5, 10]$	\sim	High	$h \{5, 7\} + (1 - h) [5, 10]$
Medium	$m \{5\} + (1 - m) [0, 5]$		Medium	$m \{5, 7\} + (1 - m) [0, 5]$
Low	$[0, 3]$		Low	$[0, 3]$

Table: Strategic Rationality for Best Likelihood