### **Time Preferences**

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- In the introductory lecture we suggested two possible ways of spotting temptation
  - 1 Preference for Commitment
  - **2** Time inconsistency
- Previously we covered Preference for Commitment
- Now, time preferences!

- Imagine you are asked to make a choice for today
  - 1 Salad or burger for lunch
  - 2 10 minute massage today or 11 minute massage tomorrow
- And a choice for next Monday
  - 1 Salad or burger for lunch
  - 2 10 minute massage on the 18th or 11 minute massage 19th
- Choice {burger,salad} or {10,11} is a 'preference reversal'
- Interpretation: you are tempted by the burger, but would 'prefer' to choose the salad

- This is inconsistent with standard intertemporal choice theory
- Utility given by



- δ is the discount rate
- $c_t$  is consumption in period t
- *u* is stable utility function
- If u(s) > u(b) then salad should be chosen over burger both today and next Monday
- If u(s) < u(b) then burger should be chosen over salad both today and next Monday
- If  $u(10) > \delta u(11)$  then 10 minute earlier massage should be chosen over 11 minute later massage both today and next week
- If  $u(10) < \delta u(11)$  then 11 minute later massage should be chosen over 10 minute earlier massage both today and next week

- Are preference reversals evidence for temptation?
- Not necessarily could be changing tastes
  - Maybe just had a salad, so fancied a burger today but salad next week
  - Maybe know they are going to be busy tomorrow, so would prefer the 10 minute massage today but 11 minute massage in a week and one day
- Such changes should be distributed randomly
- But in many cases choices vary *consistently*
- Thirsty subjects
  - Juice now (60%) or twice amount in 5 minutes (40%)
  - Juice in 20 minutes (30%) or twice amount in 25 minutes (70%)
- Hard to explain with changing tastes

- In order to model time preferences we need to decide what *data set* we are working with
- Initially consider preference over *consumption streams* 
  - Allow clean theoretical statements
- However, often we do not observe preference over consumption streams
- Instead we observe repeated consumption/savings choices
- Will next consider this data set
- Relate to preference for commitment

#### Preference Over Consumption Streams

• Object of choice are now consumption streams:

$$C = \{c_1, c_2, .....\}$$

- c<sub>i</sub> is consumption at date i
- Standard model: Exponential Discounting

$$U(C) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \delta^i u(c_i)$$

### Exponential Discounting

- Characterized by two conditions
- Trade off consistency

$$\{x, y, c_3, c_4, \dots\} \succ \{z, w, c_3, c_4, \dots\} \Rightarrow \{x, y, d_3, d_4, \dots\} \succ \{z, w, d_3, d_4, \dots\}$$

• Stationarity

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \{c_1, c_2, \ldots\} & \succ & \{d_1, d_2, \ldots\} \\ & \Rightarrow \\ \{e, c_1, c_2, \ldots\} & \succ & \{e, d_1, d_2, \ldots\} \end{array}$$

• Trade off consistency: necessary for separable utility function

$$\{x, y, c_3, c_4, \dots\} \succ \{z, w, c_3, c_4, \dots\}$$
  
$$\Rightarrow$$
  
$$\{x, y, d_3, d_4, \dots\} \succ \{z, w, d_3, d_4, \dots\}$$

• Assuming exponential discounting

$$u(x) + \delta u(y) + \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} \delta^{i} u(c_{i}) \geq u(w) + \delta u(z) + \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} \delta^{i} u(c_{i}) \Rightarrow$$
$$u(x) + \delta u(y) \geq u(w) + \delta u(z) \Rightarrow$$
$$u(x) + \delta u(y) + \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} \delta^{i} u(d_{i}) \geq u(w) + \delta u(z) + \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} \delta^{i} u(d_{i})$$

• Stationarity: necessary for exponential discounting

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \{c_1, c_2, \ldots\} & \succ & \{d_1, d_2, \ldots\} \\ & \Rightarrow \\ \{e, c_1, c_2, \ldots\} & \succ & \{e, d_1, d_2, \ldots\} \end{array}$$

• Assuming exponential discounting

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \delta^{i} u(c_{i}) \geq \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \delta^{i} u(d_{i}) \Rightarrow$$
$$u(e) + \delta \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \delta^{i} u(c_{i}) \right) \geq u(e) + \delta \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \delta^{i} u(d_{i}) \right)$$

- Trade Off Consistency and Stationarity clearly necessary for an exponential discounting representation
- Turns out that they are also sufficient (along with some technical axioms)
  - Stationarity propagates Trade Off Consistency to future periods
- See Koopmans [1960] (or for an easier read Bleichrodt, Rohde and Wakker [2008])
- Which of these axioms is violated by time inconsistency?

• Time inconsistency violates Stationarity

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \{10,0,0,\ldots\} &\succ & \{0,11,0,\ldots\} \\ && & \\ && & \\ but \\ \{0,10,0,0,\ldots\} &\prec & \{0,0,11,0,\ldots\} \end{array}$$

- In general this is dealt with by replacing exponential discounting with some other form
  - Hyperbolic

$$U(C) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+ki} u(c_i)$$

quasi hyperbolic

$$U(C) = u(c_1) + \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} \beta \delta^i u(c_i)$$

 Hyperbolic discounting is a pain to use, so people generally work with quasi hyperbolic discounting [Laibson 1997]

## Quasi Hyperbolic Discounting

- Implication of quasi hyperbolic discounting: Only the first period is special
- Otherwise the DM looks standard
- Weaken stationarity to 'quasi-stationarity' [Olea and Strzalecki 2014]

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \{f, c_1, c_2, \ldots\} & \succ & \{f, d_1, d_2, \ldots\} \\ & \Rightarrow \\ \{f, e, c_1, c_2, \ldots\} & \succ & \{f, e, d_1, d_2, \ldots\} \end{array}$$

• Stationarity holds after first period

### Quasi Hyperbolic Discounting

Clearly necessary for quasi-hyperbolic discounting

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \{f, c_1, c_2, \ldots\} & \succ & \{f, d_1, d_2, \ldots\} \\ & \Rightarrow \\ \{f, e, c_1, c_2, \ldots\} & \succ & \{f, e, d_1, d_2, \ldots\} \end{array}$$

$$u(f) + \beta \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \delta^{i} u(c_{i}) \geq u(f) + \beta \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \delta^{i} u(d_{i}) \Rightarrow$$
$$u(f) + \beta \delta \left( u(e) + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \delta^{i} u(c_{i}) \right)$$
$$\geq u(f) + \beta \delta \left( u(e) + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \delta^{i} u(d_{i}) \right)$$

• Olea and Strzalecki show that quasistationarity plus a slight modification to trade off consistency (plus technical axioms) is equivalent to

$$u(c_0) + \beta \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \delta^i v(c_i)$$

Note that u may be different from v

## Quasi Hyperbolic Discounting

• To get to Quasihyperbolic discounting, need to add something else.

• If

then

$$\{e_3, c, c_{,...}\} \succeq \{e_4, d, d_{,...}\}$$

- First two conditions say that, according to *u*, *c* is 'more better' than *d* than *a* is to *b*
- Second two conditions says that this has to be preserved by v
- This ensures that *u* and *v* are the same

### Quasi Hyperbolic Discounting

• Present bias: if  $a \succ c$  then

$$\begin{cases} g, a, b, e, \ldots \end{cases} \sim \{g, c, d, f, \ldots\} \Rightarrow \\ \{a, b, e, \ldots\} \succeq \{c, d, f, \ldots\} \end{cases}$$

• Ensures  $\beta \leq 1$ 

- In general, we do not observe choice over consumption streams
- Instead, observe choices over consumption levels *today*, which determine savings levels tomorrow
- Consumption streams 'fix' level of future consumption
  - Implicitly introduce commitment
- In consumption/savings problems, no commitment
  - Consumption level at time t decided at time t
- What does quasi-hyperbolic discounting look like in this case?

### Consumption and Savings - Example

- Three period cake eating problem, with initial endowment 3y
- Formulate two versions of the problem
  - a single agent chooses  $c_0$ ,  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  in order to maximize

$$U(C) = u(c_0) + \beta \sum_{i=1}^2 \delta^i u(c_i) \text{ st } \sum_{i=0}^2 c_i \le 3y$$

 a game between 3 agents k = 0, 1, 2 where agent k chooses ck to max

$$U(C) = u(c_k) + eta \sum_{i=k+1}^2 \delta^i u(c_i) ext{ st } c_k \leq s_{k-1}$$

• where  $s_{k-1}$  is remaining cake, and taking other agents strategies as given

## Consumption and Savings with Exponential Discounting

- Under exponential discounting (i.e.  $\beta = 1$ ), these two approaches give same outcome
- Assuming CRRA utility

$$\begin{array}{lll} c_{0} & = & \displaystyle \frac{3y}{1+(\delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}}+\left(\delta^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}}} \\ c_{1} & = & \displaystyle (\delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} \, c_{0} \\ c_{2} & = & \displaystyle (\delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} \, c_{1} \end{array}$$

- Agents are time consistent: period i agent will stick to the plan of period i - 1 agent
- Only exponential discounting function has this feature [Strotz 1955]

 Now assume that the agent has a quasi-hyperbolic utility function: agent k chooses ck to max

$$U(C) = u(c_k) + \sum_{i=k+1}^2 \beta \delta^i u(c_i) \text{ st } c_k \leq s_{k-1}$$

- Now the solutions are different:
- Consider three cases
  - **1** Commitment: time 0 agent gets to choose  $c_0$ ,  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$
  - 2 Sophistication: each player solves the game by backward induction and chooses optimally, correctly anticipating future behavior
  - **3** Naive: each player acts as if future plans will be followed

• Case 1: Commitment

$$c_0 = \left(1 + (\beta\delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} + (\beta\delta^2)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}}\right)^{-1} 3y$$
  
$$c_2 = \delta^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} c_1$$

• Case 2: Sophistication

$$\bar{c}_{0} = \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{\beta \delta}{\left( 1 + (\beta \delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} \right)^{1-\sigma}} + \frac{\delta (\beta \delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}}}{\left( 1 + (\beta \delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} \right)^{1-\sigma}} \right)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} \right]^{-1} 3y$$

$$\bar{c}_{2} = (\beta \delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} c_{1}$$

• Without commitment, period 2 consumption lower relative to period 1 consumption

• Case 1: Commitment

$$c_0 = \left(1 + (\beta\delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} + (\beta\delta^2)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}}\right)^{-1} 3y$$
  
$$c_2 = \delta^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} c_1$$

• Case 2: Sophistication

$$\bar{c}_{0} = \left[1 + \left(\frac{\beta\delta}{\left(1 + (\beta\delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}}\right)^{1-\sigma}} + \frac{\delta(\beta\delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}}}{\left(1 + (\beta\delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}}\right)^{1-\sigma}}\right)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}}\right]^{-1} 3y$$

$$\bar{c}_{2} = (\beta\delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} c_{1}$$

- Period 0 consumption can be lower or higher depending on  $\sigma$ 
  - Two offsetting effects:
    - Less efficient use of savings
    - Agent in period 2 gets screwed

### Discounting and Preference for Commitment

- Note that an exponential discounter will not have a preference for commitment
  - Agent at time 1 will follow plan made at time 0
- A sophisticated non-exponential discounter will have a preference for commitment
  - Agent at time 1 will not follow preferred plan of agent at time 0
- Thus, under sophistication

Non-exponential discounting

- $\Leftrightarrow$  Preference reversals
- $\Leftrightarrow$  Demand for commitment

Case 3: Naivete

$$c_0 = \left(1 + (\beta\delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} + (\beta\delta^2)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}}\right)^{-1} 3y$$
  
$$c_2 = (\beta\delta)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} c_1$$

- Period 0 consumption will be the same as commitment case (unsurprisingly)
- Period 1 consumption will be unambiguously higher
- Period 2 consumption will be unambiguously lower
- A naive q-hyperbolic discounter will not have a preference for commitment
  - Will *expect* agent at time 1 to follow plan made at time 0

### Discounting and Preference for Commitment

- This provides a link between preference reversals and demand for commitment
  - A sophisticated q-hyperbolic agent would like to make use of illiquid assets, cut up credit cards, etc
- Next lecture we will examine whether there is an empirical link between the two
- A separate question: how valuable is commitment in consumption savings problems?
  - Not very (Laibson [2015])

• For sophisticated consumers with no commitment optimal behavior can be characterized by the SHEE

$$\frac{\partial u(c_t)}{\partial c_t} = RE_t \left[ \left( \beta \delta c_{t+1}' + (1 - c_{t+1}') \delta \right) \frac{\partial u(c_{t+1})}{\partial c_{t+1}} \right]$$

- Where  $c_{t+1}'$  is the marginal propensity to consume in period t+1
- Modification of 'standard' Euler equation:
  - Standard case: effective discount rate  $d_t = \delta$
  - SHEE: effective discount rate  $d_t = \beta \delta c'_{t+1} + (1 c'_{ct+1}) \delta$
  - If MPC is low, two models look similar
- Requires consumers not to be 'too' hyperbolic (see Harris and Laibson 2001)

## Observing Time Inconsistency in a Consumption/Savings Problem

- What are the observable implications of quasi-hyperbolic discounting?
- If we observe a sequences of
  - consumptions choices
  - one period interest rates
  - prices
  - Incomes

under what circumstances are they consistent with q-hyperbolic discounting?

• Are these conditions different from those for the standard exponential discounting model?

## Observing Time Inconsistency in a Consumption/Savings Problem

- Surprisingly, this question is not well answered
- Barro [1999] shows that if utility is log then the two are observationally equivalent
- What if utility is not log?
- In the CRRA class of utilities, there are three parameters to estimate,  $\beta,\,\delta$  and  $\sigma$
- Intuitively, need three moments
- Above data provides two:
  - Response to changes in income
  - Response to changes in interest rates
- Need to get third moment from somewhere
- Two recent revealed preference approaches
  - Blow, Browning and Crawford [2014] (multiple goods)
  - Saito, Echenique and Imai [2015] (multiple lives)

### Time Preferences as Risk Preferences

- One (quite fundamental) question is: why do we discount in the first place?
- One possible answer is that things in the future *might not* happen
- Would you prefer cake today or cake in a week?
- Before a week's time
  - You might die
  - The baker might die
  - Everyone might die!
- So might prefer cake now

### Time Preferences as Risk Preferences

- Consider a model in which there is a constant probability  $(1-\delta)$  that the world will end in each period
- What is the value of an outcome c received in t periods?
- If you are an expected utility maximizer it is

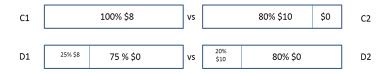
 $\delta^t u(c)$ 

Exponential discounting!

### Time Preferences as Risk Preferences

• However, in the domain of risky choices there is plentiful evidence that people violate EU

### The Common Ratio Effect



- What would you choose?
- Many people choose C1 and D2

## A Common Ratio Effect for Time Preferences

- Informally, we can see a link between the common ratio effect and present bias.
- Perhaps C1 is preferred because it is the only certain option?
- Outcomes received today are the only certain option in intertemporal choice
- In fact a model that gave a boost of  $\frac{1}{\beta}$  for  $\beta < 1$  to options that are certain would
  - Explain the common ratio effect
  - Give the  $\beta \delta$  model
- c valued as

 $\frac{1}{\beta}u(c)$  if received in period 0

 $\delta^t u(c)$  if received in period t > 0

## A Common Ratio Effect for Time Preferences

- For various reasons such a model is not particularly popular
- But there are number of papers that have shown that models of **probability weighting** can explain behavior in both domains
  - In fact the type of probability weighting that gives present bias is exactly the same that gives common ratio effects
- See
  - Halevy, Yoram. "Strotz meets Allais: Diminishing impatience and the certainty effect." American Economic Review 98.3 (2008): 1145-62.
  - Saito, Kota. "Strotz meets allais: Diminishing impatience and the certainty effect: Comment." American Economic Review 101.5 (2011): 2271-75.
  - Chakraborty, Anujit, Yoram Halevy, and Kota Saito. "The Relation between Behavior under Risk and over Time." Unpublished manuscript (2019).
- An obvious question: are these two behaviors linked empirically?

- Recently, researchers have focussed on another possible mechanism for discounting
  - It might be harder to perceive the value of events that occur in the future
- Intuitively, this will mean that good events in the future will be downweighted relative to good events now
- Can give rise to 'present bias' choices

- Consider the following simple example from Gabaix and Laibson [2019]
- Imagine, that, when presented with a prospect of value ut the DM receives a noisy signal

$$s_t = u_t + \varepsilon_t$$

Where  $\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, t\sigma_s^2)$ 

• Assume prior beliefs are distributed  $N(0, \sigma_{\mu}^2)$ 

## Discounting as Perceptual Noise

• Upon receiving signal  $s_t$ , beliefs will be given by

$$N\left(rac{1}{1+rac{t\sigma_s}{\sigma_\mu}}s_t,\left(1-rac{1}{1+rac{t\sigma_s}{\sigma_\mu}}
ight)\sigma_\mu^2
ight)$$

• Integrating over signals, the average mean belief is given by

$$rac{1}{1+rac{t\sigma_s}{\sigma_\mu}}u_t$$

- This has the hyperbolic form so assuming that  $u_t > 0$ 
  - Future rewards will be downweighted
  - Choices will be present biased

even if there is no 'actual' discounting!

- Obviously there are many special assumptions about this set up but the logic is quite strong
- For example, Gabaix and Laibson show that as long as  $\sigma_{s_t}^2$  is a weakly concave function of time, the 'discount rate'  $\frac{1}{1+\frac{\sigma_{s_t}}{\sigma_{\mu}}}$  will generate increasing patience
- Also a recent paper shows that present bias comes naturally out of an optimal choice of attention
  - "Optimal similarity judgments in intertemporal choice" by Adriani and Sonderegger [2019]
- Key mechanism: when time periods are further in the future it is less worthwhile distinguishing between them

- Q-hyperbolic model still difficult to solve for many periods
- Game between two long run players
- Multiple equilibria [Laibson 1997, Harris and Laibson 2004]
- Fudenberg and Levine come up with a simpler model

- Long run self plays a game against a sequence of short lived self
- Short run self gets to choose what action to take  $a \in A$
- Long run self chooses 'self control' *r* ∈ *R* which modifies utility function of short run self
- State *y* evolves according to some (stochastic) process depending on history of *y*,*a* and *r*
- $\Gamma(y)$  available options in state y

• Each short run player chooses an action a to maximize

u(y, r, a)

• Long run player chooses a mapping from histories *h* to *R* to maximize

$$\sum_{i=1}^\infty \delta^{t-1} \int u(y(h), r(h), a(h)) d\pi(h)$$

where

- r(h) is the strategy of the long run player
- a(.) is strategy of each short run player
- y(.) is the state following history h
- $\pi$  is the probability distribution over *h* given strategies

• Define C(y, a) as the self control cost of choosing a in state y

$$C(y, \mathbf{a}) = u(y, 0, \mathbf{a}) - \sup_{r \text{ s.t. } u(y, r, \mathbf{a}) \ge u(y, r, b) \ \forall \ b \in \Gamma(y)} u(y, r, \mathbf{a})$$

- Then we can rewrite long run's self problem as a decision problem
- choose mapping from *h* to *A* in order to maximize

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \int u(y(h), \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{a}(h)) - c(y(h), \mathbf{a}(h)) d\pi(h)$$

- Further assume that self control costs are
  - Linear
  - Depend only on the chosen object and most tempting object in choice set

$$c(y, \mathbf{a}) = \lambda(\max_{\mathbf{b} \in \Gamma(y)} u(\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{0}, y) - u(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{0}, y))$$

- This is a Gul-Pesendorfer type model
  - Reducing choice set reduces self control costs

# A Consumption/Saving Example

- State *y* represents wealth
- a is fraction of wealth saved
- Return on wealth is R
- Instantaneous utility is log

$$u(y, 0, a) = \log((1-a)y)$$

- Temptation utility in each period is log(y)
- Objective function becomes

a<sub>i</sub> Vi+1

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \delta^{t-1} \left[ \log((1-a) y_i) - \lambda(\log(y_i) - \log((1-a_i) y_i)) \right]$$
  
= 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \delta^{t-1} \left[ (1+\lambda) \log((1-a_i) y_i) - \lambda(\log(y_i)) \right]$$
  
subject to  
$$\in \quad [0, 1]$$
  
= 
$$Ra_i y_i$$

- Solution. It turns out that optimal policy is constant savings rate, so  $y_i = \left( {\it Ra} 
ight)^{i-1} y_1$ 

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \delta^{t-1} \begin{bmatrix} (1+\lambda) \log((1-a) + (i-1) \log Ra + \log y_1) \\ -\lambda((i-1) \log Ra + \log y_1) \end{bmatrix}$$
  
=  $(1+\lambda) \frac{\log(1-a)}{(1-\delta)} + \frac{\log y_1}{(1-\delta)} + \frac{\delta \log(Ra)}{(1-\delta)^2}$ 

• FOC wrt a

$$rac{(1+\lambda)}{(1-\delta)(1-{\sf a})}=rac{\delta}{(1-\delta)^2{\sf a}}$$

## A Consumption/Saving Example

$$a = rac{\delta}{1 + (1 - \delta)\lambda}$$

- As self control costs increase, savings go down
- As  $\delta$  increases, effect of self control increases

- Rabin [2000] argued that lab risk aversion cannot be due to curvature of utility function
  - Would lead to absurd levels of risk aversion in the large
- Can be explained by probability weighting
- F and L offer another explanation
  - For small wins, prize will be consumed immediately compare to current spending
  - For large wins prize will be saved compare to current wealth

- Each period split in two
- Bank
  - No consumption, but savings
  - No temptation (nothing to consume)
  - Choose amount x to take out of bank
- Casino
  - Choose how much of x to consume
  - Return remainder to the Bank

- If everything is deterministic then can implement first best outcome
  - Set  $a^* = \delta$
- Now assume that with some small probability will be asked to choose between gambles at casino
- Assume probability is 'small' so still set  $a^* = \delta$  in the bank
- Consider receiving prize z
- Wealth in period 2 given by

$$y_2 = R(y_1 + z_1 - c_1)$$

• Utility of  $y_2$  in period 2 is given by

$$\begin{split} &\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \delta^{t-1} \left[ (1+\lambda) \log((1-a^*) + (i-1) \log Ra^* + \log y_2) \right] \\ &= \frac{\log(1-a^*)}{(1-\delta)} + \frac{\log y_2}{(1-\delta)} + \frac{\delta \log(Ra^*)}{(1-\delta)^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{(1-\delta)} \left[ \log(1-\delta) + \log y_2 + \frac{\delta}{1+\delta} \log(R\delta) \right] \end{split}$$

• Total utility from consuming c1

$$\begin{aligned} &(1+\lambda)\log c_1 - \lambda\log(x_1+z_1) \\ &+ \frac{1}{(1-\delta)}\left[\log(1-\delta) + \log R(y_1+z_1-c_1) + \frac{\delta}{1+\delta}\log(R\delta)\right] \end{aligned}$$

• Gives First Order Conditions

$$egin{array}{rcl} c^* &=& \displaystylerac{(1-\delta)(1+\lambda)(y_1+z_1)}{\delta+(1+\lambda)(1-\delta)} \ &=& \displaystyle\left(1-\displaystylerac{\delta}{\delta+(1+\lambda)(1-\delta)}
ight)(y_1+z_1) \end{array}$$

• Consumption is constrained by  $x_1 + z_1 = (1 - \delta)y_1 + z_1$ . Define  $z^*$  as

$$\left(1-rac{\delta}{\delta+(1+\lambda)(1-\delta)}
ight)(y_1+z^*)=(1-\delta)y_1+z^*$$

• For  $z_1 > z^*$ , consume  $c^*$ , otherwise consume  $(1 - \delta)y_1 + z_1$ 

• Utility of prize less than z\*

$$\frac{\log(x_1 + z_1)}{(1 - \delta)} \left[ \log(1 - \delta) + \log(y_1 - x_1) + \frac{\delta}{1 + \delta} \log(R\delta) \right]$$

Utility of prize greater than z\*

$$(1+\lambda)\log\frac{(1-\delta)(1+\lambda)}{1+\lambda(1-\delta)}(y_1+z_1)-\lambda\log(x_1+z_1) + \frac{1}{(1-\delta)}\left[\log(1-\delta)+\log R\frac{\delta(y_1+z_1)}{1+\lambda(1-\delta)} + \frac{\delta}{1+\delta}\log(R\delta)\right]$$

- For 'small' wins, constant relative risk aversion relative to pocket cash
- For 'large' wins (approximately) constant relative risk aversion relative to wealth



- Systematic preference reversals present a challenge to the standard model of time separable, exponential discounting
  - A violation of stationarity
- There is a strong theoretical link between preference reversals, non-exponential discounting and preference for commitment
- Quasi-hyperbolic discounting model a popular alternative used to explain the data
  - Treats today as special
- Can be used to model a wide variety of phenomena
  - Demand for liquid assets
  - Procrastination
- Pinning down the precise implications of the q-hyperbolic model is
  - Easy in choice over consumption streams
  - Harder in choice in consumption savings problems