

# ECO421: Social learning

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# Plan

Introduction

Simple model

Social learning with uncertainty about preferences

Conclusion

# Wisdom of the crows

- ▶ *Wisdom of the crowds*, J. Surowiecki.
- ▶ In 1906, F. Galton (statistician, a cousin of C. Darwin) observed an ox-weighing competition.
- ▶ 800 farmers estimated the weight of an ox and submitted it to a competition.
- ▶ F. Galton checked that the estimates had normal distribution with a significant standard deviation.

# Wisdom of the crowds

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## Wisdom of the crowds

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- ▶ The ox was later weighed to be 1,198lb.

## Wisdom of the crows

- ▶ The average guess was 1,197lb, which is 1lb less than the true weight of the ox.
- ▶ The ox was later weighed to be 1,198lb.
- ▶ The average guess was 1lb less than the true weight of the ox.
- ▶ There are many examples, where individuals have imperfect information, but when this information becomes aggregated, the wisdom of the crowds
- ▶ Economists are interested in when information aggregation works well, and when it fails.

# Wisdom of the crows

- ▶ Models of information aggregation
  - ▶ stock market,
  - ▶ prediction markets,
  - ▶ voting,
- ▶ Today - social learning.

# Social learning

## Beans

### Example

A bag holds  $n_r$  of red beans and  $n_b$  of brown beans.

- ▶ There are two equally likely possible states of the world:
  - ▶  $R$ :  $n_r = 2n_b$ , and
  - ▶  $B$ :  $2n_r = n_b$ .
- ▶ Sequentially, each student
  - ▶ privately samples the bag and observes the color of one bean,  $m$
  - ▶ publicly, votes for one of the two states of the world.
- ▶ At the end, the state of the world is revealed and students who voted correctly, win.



# Social learning

- ▶ In the Beans example, each individual has a provide signal about the state of the world.
- ▶ Additionally, individuals later in the sequence have an opportunity to observe actions of the earlier individuals.
  - ▶ if the earlier individuals vote depending on their
  - ▶ more information.
- ▶ An example of social learning.

# Social learning

- ▶ Social learning, i.e., learning from other actions, is very common.
- ▶ We go to popular restaurants, or movies
- ▶ Technology adoption.
  - ▶ farmers adopting new type of crop,
  - ▶ PCs, smartphones, etc.
- ▶ Fashion fads, etc.

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# Social learning

## Simple model

- ▶ There are two states of the world,  $\omega \in \{x, y\}$ 
  - ▶ common prior probability of state  $x$  is  $P(x) = \frac{1}{2}$ ,
  - ▶ both states are equally probable.
- ▶ Symmetry is not very important, but helpful.

# Social learning

## Simple model

- ▶ Players  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$
- ▶ Each player privately observes a signal  $s = \{x, y\}$ .
  - ▶ probability of signal  $s$  given state  $\omega$  is

$$\rho(s|\omega) = \begin{cases} q, & \text{if } s = \omega, \\ 1 - q & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- ▶ assume that  $q > \frac{1}{2}$ .

# Social learning

## Simple model

- ▶ Each player sequentially chooses an action  $a \in \{x, y\}$ , with payoffs

	$\omega = x$	$\omega = y$
$a = x$	1	0
$a = y$	0	1

- ▶ Player  $i$  observes her signal, and actions of all players  $j < i$  (but not their signals) before she makes her decision.
- ▶ Assumption: If a player is indifferent, she randomizes equally.
  - ▶ tie-breaking assumption.
- ▶ Very simple model, but it will serve to introduce main ideas.
  - ▶ we will complicate later.

# Social learning

## Goals

- ▶ Find an equilibrium of the social learning model,
  - ▶ beliefs and best responses,
  - ▶ beliefs of player 1,
  - ▶ beliefs of player 2, etc.
- ▶ Does information aggregation work here? Will players learn the true state of the world?

# Social learning

## Simple model

- ▶ Let  $\pi$  be the player's belief that  $\omega = x$ . Then,
- ▶  $a = x$  is a best response if

$$\pi \cdot 1 + (1 - \pi) \cdot 0 > \pi \cdot 0 + (1 - \pi) \cdot 1,$$

or

$$\pi > \pi^* = \frac{1}{2}.$$

- ▶ If  $\pi < \pi^*$ , then  $a = y$  is a best response.
- ▶ If  $\pi = \pi^*$ , player is indifferent and randomizes.



# Social learning

## Behavior: player 1

- ▶ Player 1 will choose action depending on her signal:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\omega = x | s_1 = x) &= \frac{P(\omega = x, s_1 = x)}{P(\omega = x, s_1 = x) + P(\omega = y, s_1 = x)} \\ &= \frac{\frac{1}{2}q}{\frac{1}{2}q + \frac{1}{2}(1 - q)} = q. \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ because  $q > \frac{1}{2}$  the best response of player 1 with signal  $s_1 = x$  is to play  $a_1 = x$ .
- ▶ Similarly, the best response with a signal  $s_1 = y$  is to play  $a_1 = y$ .
- ▶ We say that player 1 acts sincerely.

# Social learning

## Behavior: player 2

- ▶ Player 2 has more information: additionally to her signal, she knows that  $a_1 = s_1$ .
- ▶ If  $a_1 = s_2$ , then player 2 knows that there are two the same signals.
  - ▶ she will choose  $a_2 = s_1 = s_2 = a_1$ .
- ▶ If  $a_1 \neq s_2$ , then pl. 2 knows that there are two conflicting signals.
  - ▶ the two signals cancel each other and her posterior is equal to prior  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,
  - ▶ she is indifferent and she randomizes (by ass.)
- ▶ Player 2 is more likely to choose  $a_1$  if her signal is the same, than if it is different.

# Social learning

## Behavior: player 3

- ▶ Player 3 has even more information.
- ▶ **Claim:** If player 3 observes  $a_1 = a_2$ , then he will ignore his information and always chose the same action as the two previous players.
  - ▶ We can compute conditional probabilities, but we have also less formal (but precise) argument.
  - ▶ If player 3 observed  $a_1 = s_3$ , then all the evidence indicates that  $a_1 = s_3$  is the right action.
  - ▶ Suppose, instead that  $a_1 \neq s_3$ . Player 3 has conflicting information. Hence, he would be indifferent.
  - ▶ But, if additionally he also knows that player 2 chose  $a_1 = a_2$ , this info tilts the balance towards  $a_1$ .
    - ▶ remember that player 2 is more likely to choose  $a_1$  if her signal is equal.
- ▶ If  $a_1 = a_2$ , then player 3 ignores her own signal and always chooses the same action as the previous players.
- ▶ But it means that player 3 action is not informative any more!

# Social learning

## Behavior

- ▶ Suppose that player 4 observes  $a_1 = a_2$ ,
  - ▶ player 4 can ignore  $a_3$  because that is not informative (it's always equal to  $a_1 = a_2$  regardless of pl. 3 signal)
  - ▶ but then player 4 is in the same situation as player 3,
  - ▶ hence, player 4 should choose the same action as the two first players.
- ▶ The same argument applies to any other player  $i \geq 4$ .

# Social learning

## Informational cascades

### Lemma

*If  $s_1 = s_2$ , or  $s_1 = a_2$ , then all players  $i \geq 3$  choose the same action as the first two players, regardless of their private signals.*

- ▶ This behavior as a *informational cascade*.
  - ▶ see references below,
  - ▶ more generally, if player  $i$  ignores her own signal and chooses  $a$ , then it is optimal for player  $j = i + 1$  and any subsequent player to ignore their information

# Social learning

## Behavior

- ▶ If the cascade starts, all subsequent players choose the same action as the first two players of the cascade.
- ▶ There is no guarantee that this is the correct action.
- ▶ “Correct” and “bad” cascades are possible.
- ▶ In fact - the first two players can decide that the rest of the society chooses the wrong action.
  - ▶ their actions stop the rest from using their own information,
  - ▶ negative, “herd” externality,

# Social learning

## Behavior

- ▶ What if  $a_1 \neq a_2$ ?
- ▶ Then, player 3 infers that the two first players have different signals that cancel each other.
- ▶ Player 3 is in the same situation as player 1.
- ▶ The whole process restarts.
- ▶ In particular, there will be a cascade if  $a_3 = a_4$ .

# Social learning

## Probability of a cascade

- ▶ Bad cascade are bad.
- ▶ Society in aggregate has all the information to correctly figure out  $\omega = x$  (Galton!), but they don't.
- ▶ How likely a bad cascade is?



# Social learning

## Probability of a cascade

- ▶ How likely a bad cascade is?
- ▶ We can easily compute the probability of a cascade.
- ▶ Suppose that the state is  $\omega = x$ .
- ▶ There are 4 possibilities for the two first actions:

$$\begin{aligned} P_{xx}^x &= P(a_1 = a_2 = x | \omega = x) \\ &= q \left( q + (1 - q) \frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{1 + q}{2} q, \end{aligned}$$

# Social learning

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$$P_{xy}^x = q \left( (1-q) \frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{2}q(1-q),$$

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$$P_{yx}^x = \frac{1}{2}q(1-q),$$

$$P_{yy}^x = (1-q) \left( 1 - q + q \frac{1}{2} \right) = (1-q) \left( 1 - \frac{q}{2} \right)$$

# Social learning

## Probability of a cascade

- ▶ Probability of a good cascade in period 3:

$$P_{good} = \frac{1+q}{2}q,$$

- ▶ Probability of a “bad” cascade in period 3:

$$P_{bad} = (1-q) \left(1 - \frac{q}{2}\right).$$

- ▶ Probability that no cascade in period 3:

$$P_n = q(1-q).$$

# Social learning

## Probability of a cascade

- ▶ Probability of a good cascade eventually

$$P_{good} + P_n P_{good} + P_n^2 P_{good} + \dots$$

# Social learning

## Probability of a cascade

- ▶ Probability of a good cascade eventually

$$\begin{aligned} & P_{good} + P_n P_{good} + P_n^2 P_{good} + \dots \\ &= P_{good} (1 + P_n + P_n^2 + \dots) \end{aligned}$$

# Social learning

## Probability of a cascade

- ▶ Probability of a good cascade eventually

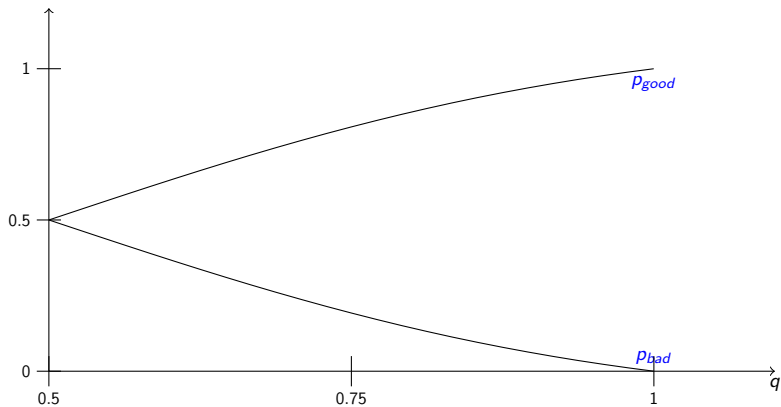
$$\begin{aligned} & P_{good} + P_n P_{good} + P_n^2 P_{good} + \dots \\ &= P_{good} (1 + P_n + P_n^2 + \dots) \\ &= P_{good} \frac{1}{1 - P_n} \\ &= \frac{\frac{1}{2} (1 + q) q}{1 - q(1 - q)}. \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ The remaining probability is of the bad cascade eventually,
  - ▶ the cascade will start eventually with prob. 1.



# Social learning

Probability of a cascade



# Social learning

## Probability of a cascade

- ▶ The probability of a bad cascade is substantial.
- ▶ This is a failure of information aggregation.
- ▶ If players could observe each other signals, they would eventually learn the state of the world
  - ▶ by the LLN, the fraction of signals  $s$  would converge to  $q$  iff  $\omega = s$  and to  $1 - q$  otherwise,
  - ▶ thus, by tracking the fraction of signals  $s$ , we would eventually learn the state of the world.

# Social learning

## Results

- ▶ Herds and cascades are possible.
- ▶ Bad cascades are possible.
- ▶ Early deciders are crucial.

# Social learning

## Results

- ▶ In the same time, cascades are fragile.
- ▶ Later players base their decision only on few initial players, possibly on the first two.
- ▶ Arrival of new public information can upset the cascade.

# Social learning

## Applications

- ▶ Politics: theory of momentum in voting.
- ▶ Fads.
- ▶ Technology adoption (farmers, hybrid corn seed)
  - ▶ initial adoption is very slow,
  - ▶ a new information, or exposure can cause a dramatic change to adoption pattern.

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# Social learning

## Uncertain preferences

- ▶ The basic model is very special in many ways.
- ▶ After cascade happens, nobody ever does anything different.
- ▶ Cascade may arise very fast, after 2 people choose the same action.
- ▶ There are other unintuitive consequences. One of them is that for player 2, if he has opposite signal to the player 2 action, the two signals cancel each other out.

$$P(\omega = x | a_1 = x, s_2 = y) = P(\omega = x | a_1 = y, s_2 = x) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

- ▶ in other words, player 2 values the information of player 1 the same as his own.

# Social learning

## Uncertain preferences

- ▶ Two assumptions are responsible:
  - ▶ Player 1 and 2 signals are generated using the same technology.
  - ▶ But, also, player 1's decision is perfectly transparent to player 2,
- ▶ The latter assumption is problematic.  
Often, player 2 is not csure how to interpret player 1's action  $a$ : Is it because
  - ▶ player 1 got a signal  $a$ , or
  - ▶ player 1 likes action  $a$  very much and chose it regardless of her signal.
- ▶ Intuitively, we do not think that other people make decisions in the same way as we do



# Social learning

## Uncertain preferences

- ▶ Model of preferences.

	$\omega = x$	$\omega = y$
$a = x$	$1 - u$	0
$a = y$	0	$u$

- ▶ For each player i.i.d.,  $u$  is drawn from cdf  $F(\cdot)$  on  $[0, 1]$ .
  - ▶ the higher  $u$ , player is more inclined to play action  $y$ ,
  - ▶ we assume that cdf  $F$  is symmetric around  $\frac{1}{2}$ :  
 $F(q) + F(1 - q) = 1$ .
- ▶ Each player observes his own preferences and actions of other players,
  - ▶ but not their preferences.
- ▶ Other assumptions the same:  $P(x) = \pi(x) = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  
 $\text{Prob}(s = \omega | \omega) = q$ , etc.

# Social learning

## Goal

- ▶ We will show that, with uncertain preferences,

$$P(\omega = x | a_1 = x, s_2 = y) < P(\omega = x | a_1 = y, s_2 = x), \quad (1)$$

or player 2 values his information more than the information of player 1.

- ▶ Two parts of the argument:
- ▶ First, we use Bayes formula to show that inequality (1) is equivalent to

$$P(a_1 = x | \omega = x) < P(s_2 = x | \omega = x),$$

- ▶ Second, we analyze the best response behavior to show that the above inequality holds.

# Social learning

## Bayes formula

- ▶ Notice that

$$P(\omega = x | a_1 = x, s_2 = y) = \frac{P(\omega = x, a_1 = x, s_2 = y)}{P(a_1 = x, s_2 = y)}$$

$$P(\omega = x | a_1 = y, s_2 = x) = \frac{P(\omega = x | a_1 = y, s_2 = x)}{P(a_1 = x, s_2 = y)}.$$

- ▶ The symmetry implies that  $P(a_1 = x, s_2 = y) = P(a_1 = y, s_2 = x)$ .
- ▶ Hence, our inequality (1) is equivalent to

$$P(\omega = x, a_1 = x, s_2 = y) < P(\omega = x, a_1 = y, s_2 = x).$$

# Social learning

## Bayes formula

- ▶ Notice that

$$P(\omega = x, a_1 = x, s_2 = y) = P(\omega = x) P(a_1 = x | \omega = x) P(s_2 = y | \omega = x),$$

$$P(\omega = x, a_1 = y, s_2 = x) = P(\omega = x) P(a_1 = y | \omega = x) P(s_2 = x | \omega = x).$$

- ▶ Hence, our inequality (1) is equivalent to

$$P(a_1 = x | \omega = x) P(s_2 = y | \omega = x) < P(a_1 = y | \omega = x) P(s_2 = x | \omega = x).$$

# Social learning

## Bayes formula

- ▶ Further notice that

$$P(a_1 = x | \omega = x) = 1 - P(a_1 = y | \omega = x) = q_a,$$

$$P(s_2 = x | \omega = x) = 1 - P(s_2 = y | \omega = x) = q.$$

- ▶ The inequality looks like

$$q_a(1 - q) < (1 - q_a)q.$$

After adding  $qq_a$  on both sides, we obtain the inequality (1) is equivalent to

$$P(a_1 = x | \omega = x) = q_a < q = P(s_2 = x | \omega = x).$$

- ▶ To show the inequality, we need to compute  $P(a_1 = x | \omega = x)$ .

# Social learning

## Best responses

- ▶ Suppose player with preferences  $u$  has belief  $\pi$  that the state of the world is  $x$ .
- ▶ Best response behavior: choose  $a = x$  if

$$\pi(1 - u) > (1 - \pi)u,$$

or, after adding  $\pi u$  to both sides, if

$$\pi > u.$$

# Social learning

## Best responses

- ▶ Denote the belief that the state is equal to  $x$  after a signal  $s_1$  as  $\pi(s_1)$ . Then,

$$\pi(x) = q,$$

$$\pi(y) = 1 - q.$$

- ▶ Player 1 makes her decision based on signal  $s_1$  she receives, and her preferences. Hence

$$P(a_1 = x | s_1 = x) = \text{Prob}(u < \pi(x)) = F(q),$$

$$P(a_1 = x | s_1 = y) = \text{Prob}(u < \pi(y)) = F(1 - q) = 1 - F(q),$$

where the last equality comes from the symmetry property of the distribution.

# Social learning

## Best responses

- ▶ Finally, we compute

$$\begin{aligned}P(a_1 = x | \omega = x) &= P(a_1 = x | s_1 = x) P(s_1 = x | \omega = x) \\ &\quad + P(a_1 = x | s_1 = y) P(s_1 = y | \omega = x) \\ &= F(q)q + (1 - F(q))(1 - q) \\ &= 1 - q + F(q)(2q - 1).\end{aligned}$$

But because  $F(q) < 1$ , the above is smaller than

$$1 - q + F(q)(2q - 1) < 1 - q + 2q - 1 < q.$$

- ▶ This is what we wanted to show.



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# Conclusions

What did we learn - skills

- ▶ how to find
- ▶ the size of herd necessary for a cascade
- ▶ probability of a bad cascade
- ▶ stable point of social learning

# Conclusions

## Further reading

### ▶ Herds

- ▶ A. Banerjee, "A simple model of herd behavior" (1992) Quarterly Journal of Economics,
- ▶ Bikhchandani, Sushil, David Hirshleifer, and Ivo Welch. "A theory of fads, fashion, custom, and cultural change as informational cascades." Journal of political Economy 100.5 (1992): 992-1026.

### ▶ Confounded learning

- ▶ Smith, Lones, and Peter Sørensen. "Pathological outcomes of observational learning." Econometrica 68.2 (2000): 371-398.