

Communication Policy in Presence of Negative Externality

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PRELIMINARY DRAFT

Abstract

We study the optimal disclosure policy of a planner under negative externality. We model the strategic communication between the planner and the agent following the information design a la Kamenica and Gentzkow(2011). Additionally, we assume that relevant information is scientific, thus both the planner and the agent have access to the information subject to a cost function following Rational Inattention, a la Caplin, Dean, and Leahy (2018). We show the planner truthfully recommends in the *good* state and mixes the *bad* and the *middle* state by staying silent. Silence is informative for the agent but it strategically changes the consideration set for the agent, improving social welfare.

Keywords: : Strategic communication, Disclosure Policy, Information design, Rational Inattention, Consideration set

JEL Code: D83, D89. D90

1 Introduction

The recent pandemic has highlighted the importance of strategic communication. Consider a planner who is trying to communicate appropriate public health advisory to an agent in presence of negative externality. The misalignment between the public and the private objective would make it difficult for the planner to communicate truthfully. Problems with such strategic communication models are commonplace in economics, however, we consider a communication problem regarding scientific information. Two features of scientific information complicate our problem. First, it is difficult or costly to obtain and understand them and second, often such information is available in the public domain through various journals and databases. Using the strategic communication framework of information design literature a la Kamenica and Gentzkow (2011) [KG 2011 henceforth], we want to understand how strategic communication affects the dissemination of scientific information. KG 2011 showed even in presence of preference misalignment the sender can manipulate the action of the receiver through communication.

To model this we consider a strategic communication framework in which the planner (sender) wants to send a recommendation (message) to a representative agent (receiver) where both of them have access to the same learning technology but learning is costly for both. Previous papers in the literature have considered models with costs of learning on one side. Kamenica and Gentzkow (2014) show if only the sender has a cost of learning, under some restrictions on the cost of learning function, the results remain unaltered. Matyskova (2018) considers a model where the sender faces no cost but the receiver can pay a learning cost and obtain information. However, in equilibrium, it is never optimal to do so. In this paper, with costs on both sides, we find a different channel of manipulating behavior.

Since the same costly learning technology is available to both the planner and the agent the planner cannot directly manipulate the action chosen by the agent. Instead of using the communication strategy only, the planner also uses his learning strategy to manipulate the agent's behavior. To model the learning problem we borrow from the cost of information processing models in the Rational Inattention (RI henceforth) literature (see Caplin and Dean(2015), Matejka and McKay(2015), Caplin, Dean, and Leahy (2018)). One interesting feature of these models is that when learning is costly, agents optimally choose to not pay attention to all available actions. This creates an endogenous consideration set chosen by the agent that optimizes the net payoff.

Using the consideration set framework of RI literature we show that in equilibrium, the planner chooses a learning and communication strategy that changes the consideration set of the agent. We implement this by allowing the planner an option to send no recommendation. No recommendation is informative, i.e., it changes the intermediate

belief and hence the consideration set of the agent. Thus in this model, the planner strategically manipulates the consideration set of the agent to implement a favorable set of actions. We further explore the impact of strategic communication on scientific learning. To do so we compare our equilibrium with a hypothetical communication problem where the agent fully complies with the recommendation of the planner. We find that under strategic communication, the planner often learns less. More importantly, learning loss happens in states where learning is more crucial, i.e., the payoff loss from making a mistake is much higher.

For the rest of the paper, we will continue with the example of public health communication. However, our model can be applied to any strategic communication problem where both sides can access information, subject to a learning cost. Any communication problem that involves complexity, e.g., providing technical information to farmers, or providing financial information to agents, can be modeled using this framework.

1.1 Literature Review

The strategic communication framework in this paper is built on the information design problem a la Kamenica and Gentzkow (2011). Several recent papers have added a cost structure following RI literature, in the canonical information design setup. Kamenica and Gentzkow (2014) consider a variation where only the sender faces a cognitive cost. However they find that for the posterior separable cost function (see Caplin, Dean, and Leahy (2018) for more details) the main result from KG 2011 holds, i.e., the sender can manipulate the receiver’s action. In Matyskova (2018) receiver has an option to learn (costly) after obtaining the information from the sender whereas the sender faces no cost. Unlike this paper, they find that the receiver never learns on his own in equilibrium, because the sender can choose any information structure he wants. Bloedel and Segal (2018) also assume a cognitive cost for the receiver and with continuous state and two actions, they find the sender optimally partitions the state space into at most three intervals and provides either a simple recommendation strategy (*pooling*) or complex information strategy of disclosing the state (*separating*). Unlike their model disclosing the state is never optimal in our model since the receiver can learn on his own as well which leads to the optimal non-revelation strategy. Lipnowski et al (2020) show that if the receiver faces a cost of attention then even a benevolent sender (no preference misalignment) would not reveal full information and would prefer to restrict the choice set of the receiver, which improves welfare. In our model, the sender cannot directly restrict the choice set, but they do so with their optimal communication strategy.

The learning technology used in this paper is borrowed from Rational Inattention literature. Caplin and Dean (2015), Matejka, and McKay (2015) have shown that

solving the optimal choice of signals and the optimal posterior distribution is equivalent when Bayesian plausibility is satisfied. We use this formulation to solve the strategic interaction problem between the rationally inattentive agents and a social planner with misalignment in preferences. In a recent paper, Caplin et al (2018) related the RI learning problem to an endogenous consideration set problem. In this paper, we use a similar analysis and investigate how the planner can strategically change the consideration set of the agent using the information policy.

The results obtained in this paper also relate to the consideration set literature. Manzini and Mariotti (2014) provide an axiomatic foundation of choice under consideration set formation. Lleras et al (2015) characterize choice behavior under different consideration sets. In both cases, the formation of the consideration is a result of assumptions about the choice problem. However, in this paper even though we obtain a consideration set formulation, unlike the previous literature the formation of the consideration set is generated as an implication of a strategic communication problem. The formation of an endogenous choice set is thus not a result of choice axioms but an implication of the cost of learning. Since learning is costly, agents exclude some actions from consideration based on prior beliefs. A similar intuition is present in Caplin, Dean, and Leahy (2018). In this paper, we further show that strategic communication can manipulate this process.

In spirit, this paper is also close to the disclosure policies literature. Some prominent examples are Goldstein and Leitner (2018) and Leitner and Williams (2020). In both these papers, a regulator conveys information about the financial condition of a bank in a possible distress scenario. No information leads to costly market failure here. In equilibrium, regulator mixes *good* bank with *bad* banks to improve social welfare. Unlike the disclosure literature in bank regulation, in this paper, no communication can be an optimal strategy as it triggers a learning behavior of the agent that is beneficial to the regulator.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 outlines a working example that we use throughout the paper. Section 3 describes the model, section 4 discusses the main results and section 5 concludes.

2 Illustrative Example

Before we introduce our model let us consider a simple example that illustrates the main findings. Let us consider the public health communication problem during the Covid 19 pandemic. For simplicity, let us assume three actions are optimal in three possible scenarios. First, going out without a mask both indoors and outdoors (similar to pre-Covid scenario), second, going out with masks and Covid-appropriate behavior,

and third, staying home unless an emergency arrives. Let us consider the first action to be most risky and only appropriate if a sufficient number of citizens have been fully vaccinated and herd immunity has been reached in the community. The third action is assumed to be the least risky and would be appropriate in the advent of a Covid wave.

But this action is economically costly for agents. Thus agents are more likely to choose a middle ground of going out with precautions than staying home. This creates a negative externality as the rate of infection (R) increases, creating excessive pressure on the public healthcare system. A planner would like to avoid such a situation and would thus be more cautious than the agent when choosing a somewhat or highly risky action. This misalignment of preferences makes it difficult for the planner to communicate truthfully.

Our model, as explained in the next section, predicts that the planner would predict the riskiest action when the state of the world is indeed good. Since the planner is more cautious than the agent, following such recommendations agents will obey. However, the planner will never send a staying-home recommendation since agents will not follow such a recommendation and would choose to learn by themselves. Since scientific learning is difficult for the agents, this can result in many people choosing a riskier action than what is socially optimal. Thus it is optimal for the planner to not send any recommendation in the worst and mix between suggesting to go out with precaution and saying nothing in the middle state. In that case, following no recommendation the agents will correctly update that the state cannot be good, thus the probability of choosing the riskiest action would be driven to zero.

We argue that there are real-world examples of such policies being implemented during the current pandemic. To elaborate let us consider two examples from the US and India in April-May 2021. On May 13th CDC announced that fully vaccinated Americans can go back to pre-Covid activities without masking despite criticism in media. This significantly increased the business activities across parts of the country where many citizens have been fully vaccinated. Around the same time, India was experiencing one of the worst second waves in the world but when PM addressed the nation on April 20th, he appealed to individuals and states to practice caution but did not mandate a nationwide lockdown. Most states and local authorities ended up imposing localized lockdown in the following weeks. We argue that both strategies were optimal given the prior belief and preference misalignments.

3 Model

3.1 Primitives

Let us consider a one-period model of an economy with a planner and a representative agent. The payoff relevant set of states is given by $\Omega = \{\omega_H, \omega_L, \omega_0\}$ where ω_H is the *good* state, ω_L represents a *bad* state where caution is needed and ω_0 represents a *dire* state where the normal activity must be halted. The corresponding action set is given by $A = \{a_H, a_L, a_0\}$ where a_H , a_L , and a_0 denote the high, low and zero level of action chosen by the agent.

The utility function $u : A \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of the agents are as follows:

$$u(a, \omega) = \begin{cases} \alpha_H - i(\omega)\beta_H & \text{for } a = a_H \\ \alpha_L - i(\omega)\beta_L & \text{for } a = a_L \\ 0 & \text{for } a = a_0 \end{cases} \quad \text{where } i(\omega) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } \omega = \omega_H \\ i & \text{for } \omega = \omega_L \\ 1 & \text{for } \omega = \omega_0 \end{cases}$$

where $i \in (0, 1)$. In the payoff function α_i denotes the positive impact(or benefit) of action a_i . For simplicity we assume the positive impact to be state-independent. This is highest for action a_H , independent of the state. The parameter β_i denotes the negative impact(or cost) of action a_i . Unlike the positive factors, the negative impact of an action is state-dependent and $i(\omega)$ denotes the marginal impact of the negative factors in state ω .

The utility function models a scenario where in the good state ω_H , there are no costs of choosing any action. However, the costs increase as the state gets worse. However, choosing a_0 does not bear any costs and pays zero in all states. Thus without perfect information a_0 denotes a riskless choice and a_H and a_L would be risky choices, where the risk is higher for the former action. We further assume that

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_H &> \alpha_L > 0; & \beta_H &> \beta_L > 0; \\ \alpha_L &< \beta_L; & \alpha_L &> i\beta_L; & \alpha_H &< \beta_H \\ \alpha_H - \beta_H &< \alpha_L - \beta_L < 0 \end{aligned}$$

This set of assumptions ensures that if the agent knows the true state, i.e., under full information, they will optimally choose a_i in state ω_i for $i = H, L$ or 0.

The misalignment of preference between the planner and the agent arises due to the presence of a negative externality. When choosing a_H and a_L the agents only consider the private cost of disease contraction, however, in presence of negative externality the planner faces an additional cost. Thus the utility function of the planner is thus given

by,

$$\begin{aligned} v(a_H, \omega) &= u(a_H, \omega) - i(\omega)\nu \\ v(a_L, \omega) &= u(a_L, \omega) - i(\omega)\nu \\ v(a_0, \omega) &= u(a_0, \omega) \end{aligned}$$

where $\nu \in (0, \frac{\alpha_L}{i} - \beta_L)$ is the social cost ignored by the agent, that measures the level of preference misalignment. Note that if $\nu < \frac{\alpha_L}{i} - \beta_L$, then $v(a_L, \omega_L) > v(a_0, \omega_L)$ a_L would be the optimal choice in state ω_L under full information. Since $i(\omega_H) = 0$ and a_0 maximizes $u(a, \omega_0)$, the planner will also choose action a_i in state ω_i under full information. Thus the preference misalignment is an artifact of the lack of full information.

3.2 Learning Technology

Both DMs (the planner and the agent) enter the period with a common prior belief $\mu_0 \in \Delta(\Omega)$ and are Bayesian. Assume that $\mu_0 \in \text{int}(\Delta(\Omega))$, i.e., the true state is learnable and both the DMs have access to the same learning technology. We assume there is no inherent asymmetry in terms of access to information. We want to show under this assumption also the planner can manipulate the agent's choice by appropriately choosing learning and communication strategies.

Let $\pi(s, \omega)$ denote the signal structure chosen by a DM to update his belief about the state ω , where $s \in S$ denotes a typical signal from the set of possible signals S . WLOG we can consider a set of signals as a set of possible actions, i.e., $S = A$ ¹. Let γ^i denote the posterior belief upon observing signal a_i ,

$$\gamma^i(\omega_j) = \text{Pr}(\omega_j | s = a_i) = \frac{\pi(a_i, \omega_j)\mu_0(\omega_j)}{\sum_k \pi(a_i, \omega_k)\mu_0(\omega_k)}$$

As shown by Matejka and McKay (2015), Caplin, Dean, and Leahy (2018) we can abstract away from the information structure $\pi(a_i, \omega)$ and consider directly the posterior distribution γ^i generated by the signal structure. This is because if two separate signal structures generate the same posterior distribution, the DM would choose the one with lower cost as they are equally Blackwell informative. Since $S = A$ this implies only one action is chosen at any posterior.

We can also define corresponding choice probabilities given any posterior belief over state as $P(a, \omega)$, i.e, the conditional (posterior) probability of choosing action a in state ω and $P(a)$, i.e., the unconditional (prior) probability of choosing action a . By Bayes

¹If the DM chooses a signal structure that generates two separate signals for the same action then such a signal structure is equally Blackwell informative as the one where each signal generates a unique action.

plausibility,

$$\sum_k P(a_i, \omega_k) \mu_0(\omega_k) = P(a_i)$$

Following the tradition of the RI literature, we define the cost of learning function over choice probabilities $P(a, \omega)$ instead of γ^i directly. Since each action is chosen only at one posterior, the relation between the two objects is given by,

$$\gamma^i(\omega_j) = \frac{P(a_i, \omega_j) \mu_0(\omega_j)}{\sum_k P(a_i, \omega_k) \mu_0(\omega_k)}.$$

The cost of learning function is given by the Shannon mutual entropy between the conditional and unconditional choice probabilities,

$$K(\lambda, \mu_0) = \lambda D(P(a_i, \omega_j) || P(a_i)); \quad \text{where} \quad D(p||q) = \sum_x p(x) \ln \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$

and $\lambda \in (0, \infty)$ denotes the marginal cost of learning. From Matejka and McKay (2015) we know the optimal choice probabilities take the logistic form as follows,

$$P(a_i, \omega_j) = \frac{P(a_i) z(a_i, \omega)}{\sum_k P(a_k) z(a_k, \omega_j)}; \quad \text{where} \quad z(a_k, \omega_i) = \exp(u(a_k, \omega_k) / \lambda). \quad (\text{logistic solution})$$

We assume that the payoff functions and the cost functions of both the agent and the planner are common knowledge.

3.3 Strategic Communication

In presence of negative externality in this model, it is socially optimal for the planner to learn and communicate the information to the agent. However, because of the negative externality truthful communication between the planner and the agent may not be possible. This implies there are possibilities for strategic communication between the planner and the agent. The timeline of the strategic communication problem is as follows:

1. All DM enter with the common prior $\mu_0 \in \Delta(\Omega)$
2. The planner chooses a learning strategy
3. The planner chooses a communication strategy
4. Agent chooses optimal learning strategy
5. Agent chooses the optimal action
6. Payoffs are realized for all DMs

The learning technology available to both the DMs is as explained in the previous section with common λ . The communication strategy of the planner consists of two types of actions, recommend an action a or not recommend at all. The separation of the learning and communication strategy of the planner allows that truth-telling is not necessary.

For the rest of the analysis, we assume that any recommendation can be costlessly verified by the agent. Thus the planner cannot lie but can hide information. This can be implemented by assuming a negligible cost of verification for the agent.

Note that, since learning is costly, it is without a loss that we can assume agents choose their learning strategy after observing the information provided by the planner. This is true because in the state where after obtaining the recommendation from the planner if the agent decided to obey the recommendation, then learning before the recommendation will generate sunk cost of learning (Ghosh, 2020).

3.4 Decision Problem

Given the cost of the learning function, the agents want to maximize the net expected utility conditional on information obtained from the planner. The one-to-one relationship between the posterior belief over states and conditional choice probabilities allows us to write the agent's strategy as only choosing $P(a, \omega)$ optimally subject to the recommendation of the planner. Let μ denote the interim belief of the agent upon observing the (no) recommendation of the planner. In case, the planner does not recommend any action, the interim belief coincides with the prior belief, μ_0 , of the agent. Thus the agent's problem is as follows:

$$\max_{P(a, \omega)} E_{\mu} u(P(a, \omega)) - K(\lambda, \mu).$$

Given the decision problem of the agent the planner chooses a learning strategy $\gamma : \Omega \rightarrow \Delta(\omega)$ and a recommendation strategy $\sigma : \Delta(\Omega) \rightarrow A \cup \emptyset$ to maximize the social welfare as follows:

$$\max_{\sigma, \gamma} v(P(a, \omega | \sigma(\gamma)), \omega) - K(\lambda, \mu_0)$$

where $P(a, \omega | \sigma)$ denote the optimal action chosen by the agent where the interim belief μ is obtained using γ and $\sigma(\gamma)$.

4 Results

4.1 Learning Problem

4.1.1 Agent's Learning Strategy

To solve for the optimal recommendation policy $\sigma(\omega)$ for the planner we will approach the problem backward and solve the learning problem of the agent first. Given the learning strategy, we will find the optimal recommendation and learning strategy of the planner.

Lemma 1. *Agents' optimal learning strategy divides the simplex over states, $\Delta(\omega)$ into distinct consideration sets, and within each consideration set the optimal distribution of posterior beliefs is constant, i.e., independent of specific interim belief μ .*

The proof of the lemma is given in the appendix, here we describe the main intuition using figure 2. The proof of the lemma lies on a property of a class of cost function, namely, *uniform posterior separable* cost function, of which the Shannon entropy cost is a key example. The property, known as *likelihood invariant posterior*, or LIP, (refer to Caplin, Dean, and Leahy (2017)), indicates that for two decision problems the optimal posterior obtained in the first decision problem remains optimal in the second decision problem if the prior belief in the second decision problem keeps the optimal posterior from the first problem feasible.

In the two-state, two-action example, the optimal posterior is obtained by concavifying the net value function of the two actions. The LIP property means if the new prior lies in the interval joining the two optimal posteriors (for the two states) then the concavification process at the new prior would generate the same set of posteriors. The diagram below illustrates,

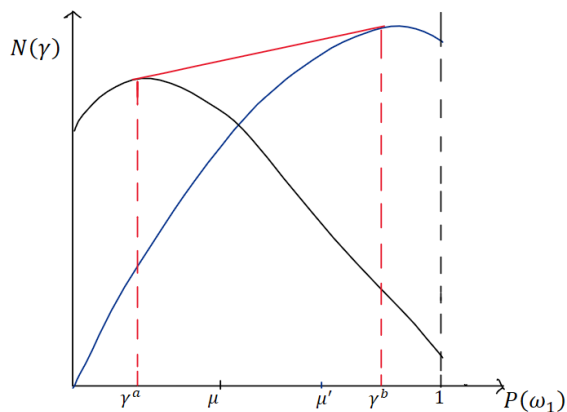


Figure 1: LIP: two-state, two-action problem

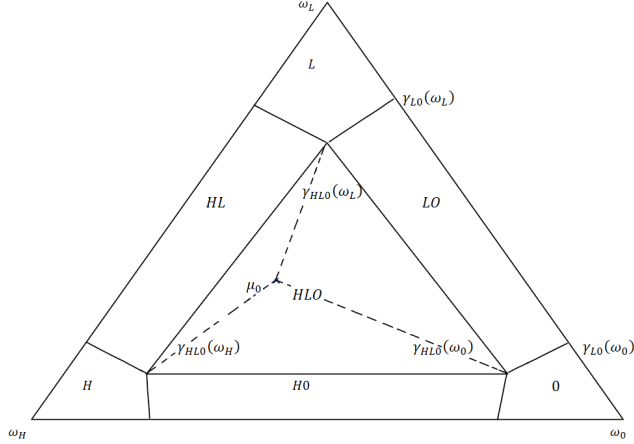


Figure 2: Agent's problem: consideration set

In figure 1, the black and the blue curve denote the net expected payoff from the two actions for different values of the probability of state ω_1 . The red line concavifies the net expected payoff from the two actions. Suppose in the first problem, the prior is μ and the concavification generates the optimal posteriors as γ^a and γ^b . If in the second problem the prior μ' lies within $[\gamma^a, \gamma^b]$, i.e., the optimal posterior is *admissible* under the new prior, then the optimal posterior under μ' would also be given by γ^a and γ^b , since the concavification at μ' generates the same result at μ' as in μ .

We extend that in our example of three states and actions. In figure 2, consider any point in the interior of $\triangle HLO$ as the interim belief of the agent given the planner's recommendation policy. Suppose the optimal posterior belief generated by this belief are the extreme points of this triangle, γ_{HLO} . By LIP this means for all interim belief $\mu \in \text{int}(\triangle HLO)$ the posterior belief thus generated is admissible and hence for all such beliefs, the optimal posterior would be generated by the same set of posteriors, namely the extreme points of $\triangle HLO$.

Since all beliefs in the interior of $\triangle HLO$ generate the same optimal posterior, we can find the extreme points of $\triangle HLO$ by assuming all three actions have equal unconditional choice probabilities. The rest of the proof shows, using LIP, a similar concavification argument is applicable for all beliefs in the interior of the triangle HLO , including the one that generates equal ex-ante choice probabilities. Also, for any belief on the boundary of $\triangle HLO$ or outside, at least one action is chosen with zero probability, generating the consideration set for all three actions.

Using similar logic we identify the consideration set for every pair of actions and residually identify the consideration set for single actions as well. Note that, the consideration sets need not be symmetric since the payoff structure is not symmetric. The process of generating the consideration set is general and can be applied to any finite

set of states. Also, the consideration set that we identify here coincides with the description given in Caplin, Dean, and Leahy (2018), but our method is computationally easier.

For the rest of the paper, let us assume the common prior $\mu_0 \in \Delta HLO$, i.e., in absence of the planner’s recommendation the agent will choose all actions with positive probability. The model can solve all other cases, but this would be the most interesting case.

4.1.2 Planner’s Learning Problem

Given the learning strategy of the agent for a given interim belief $\mu : \sigma(\mu) \rightarrow \Delta(\Omega)$, we can solve for the planner’s optimal learning strategy and the optimal recommendation strategy. We first show that learning is not optimal for the planner if the level of externality is substantially low.

Lemma 2. *Given any $\nu > 0$ there exists a $\lambda(\nu) > 0$ such that learning is preferred to not learning for $\lambda \leq \lambda(\nu)$, i.e., cost of learning is sufficiently small.*

The proof of the lemma is given in the appendix. For the rest of the paper, we will assume that for any ν , $\lambda \leq \lambda(\nu)$ such that learning is preferable by the planner.

4.2 Non-Strategic Communication

4.2.1 Optimal Strategy under Compliance

The following lemma shows that under misalignment of preferences, complete compliance is not possible. Complete compliance refers to a strategy where the planner learns about each state and truthfully recommends the appropriate action. Following this recommendation, the agent chooses the recommended action without further learning. For example, if the planner’s posterior belief suggests a_0 is the optimal action, he will recommend a_0 and the agent will choose a_0 without further learning.

Lemma 3. *Complete compliance cannot be an equilibrium strategy.*

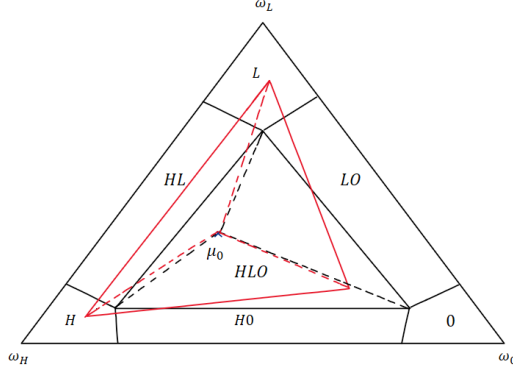


Figure 3: Planner’s problem: consideration set (in red) under complete compliance

The proof of the lemma is given in the appendix, here we explain the main intuition using figure 3. Since the learning technology for the planner and the agents are identical, we can solve the planner’s problem using a similar technique as described in lemma 1. But due to the misalignment of preferences, the consideration set is different for the planner, i.e., for certain beliefs when the agent prefers to choose action a_j the planner may not recommend choosing action a_j .

In figure 3 the red triangle denotes the consideration set for all three actions for the planner under complete compliance. As can be seen from the diagram, if the planner truthfully reveals the state, the intermediate belief of the agent would be such that following a_H or a_L recommendation the belief would lie in the consideration of H or L alone, resp. But for the recommendation of a_0 , the optimal posterior belief lies outside the set $\square 0$, i.e., of choosing a_0 with probability 1, the agent will choose to learn, following a_0 recommendation. Thus complete compliance cannot be an equilibrium here.

4.2.2 Optimal Strategy under Truth-telling

Before we solve the optimal strategy for the planner, let us consider the restricted strategy space for the planner. Suppose the planner is forced to truthfully communicate the optimal action in each state. As shown in the previous section complete compliance is not possible for the recommendation of a_0 . To find the equilibrium under truthful communication the planner incorporates this into his strategy.

Note that the restriction is imposed on the communication strategy, not the learning strategy of the planner. Thus it is possible for the planner to not learn at all and recommend all actions with probability μ_0 . This would be an uninformative equilibrium since the communication would not affect the intermediate belief of the agent. We assume away from such equilibrium and only concentrate on informative equilibrium, i.e, where $\mu(a_i) \neq \mu_0$ for any recommendation a_i .

The following lemma incorporates the insight from the previous section and shows that even under truthful communication the planner would not choose an informative enough learning strategy that ensures no learning by the agent.

Lemma 4. *Under the assumption of truthful communication, every informative equilibrium induces learning by the agent following only the recommendation a_0 .*

Proof of the lemma is given in the appendix. The main intuition is as follows: the equilibrium under truthful communication can take one of three forms. In all cases, the agent follows recommendation of a_H and a_L and the planner chooses the learning strategy such that $\mu(a_H) \in \square H$, $\mu(a_L) \in \square L$. But for a_0 , there are three feasible strategies, either $\mu(a_0) \in \triangle HLL$ and agents consider all three action with positive probability when learning, or $\mu(a_0) \in \square L0$ and agents choose a_H with probability 0 following recommendation of a_0 or $\mu(a_0) \in \square H0$ and agents choose a_L with probability 0 following recommendation of a_0 . We show that each strategy generates fixed point mapping making them equilibrium strategies as well.

4.3 Strategic Communication

In this section, we consider the optimal strategy of a persuasive planner under commitment. We maintain our assumption that any recommendation can be costlessly verified but hiding information is possible. Thus the commitment in this framework reduces to committing to a mixed strategy under no recommendation since no verification is feasible in that case.

We find that under commitment the planner never optimally mixes a_H with a_0 but mixing a_L and a_0 can be optimal. Before we explore the optimal strategy of the planner let us write the expected payoff of the planner under commitment. Given $p \in [0, 1]$ and actions $a_i, a_j \in A$ let $\gamma_{p,ij}, \sigma_{p,ij}$ denote a strategy whereupon observing signals other than a_i or a_j the agent complies, but under no recommendation the agent's belief would be such that the planner has observed a_i with probability p , and a_j with probability $1 - p$. Let

$$V(\gamma_{p,ij}, \sigma_{p,ij}) = \max_{\gamma_{p,ij}, \sigma_{p,ij}} v(P(a, \omega), \omega | \gamma_{p,ij}) - K(\lambda, \mu_0)$$

denote the expected social welfare following $\gamma_{p,ij}, \sigma_{p,ij}$. The following theorem outlines the structure of the equilibrium under commitment.

Theorem 1. *Under commitment, in equilibrium the planner*

1. *Recommend a_H upon observing signal a_H*
2. *Recommend a_L upon observing signal a_L with probability $\hat{q} \in (0, 1)$*

3. No recommendation otherwise.

Following this the agent optimally chooses

1. Follow recommendation for both a_H and a_L
2. Given no recommendation, update his belief to $\gamma_{\hat{p},L0}$ and learn using the consideration set $\square L0$.

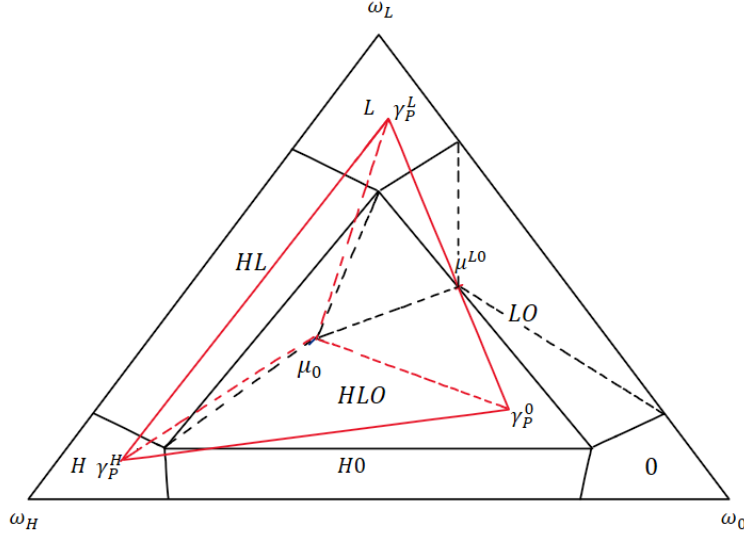


Figure 4: Equilibrium under Commitment

The proof of the proposition is given in the appendix. Here we explain the main intuition of the result using figure 4. The truthful communication shows that compliance does not occur only for a_0 , thus in any equilibrium, under compliance, the planner would try to improve the payoff for a_0 signal. Since the learning and the communication strategy can be separated (through no recommendation), given commitment, the planner can be better off by mixing a_0 with either a_L .

To show that such an equilibrium exists, we assume that for any $q \in (0, 1)$ a posterior distribution γ_P with the above structure exists. We use this belief to find the optimal learning choice of the agent and plug this into the planner's learning strategy. This formalizes as a fixed point problem for the planner's strategy γ . We find sufficient conditions in terms of q such that a fixed point exists. The optimal choice \hat{q} maximizes the payoff for the planner.

4.4 Discussion of Assumptions

The crucial assumption in our model is that there is no *real* asymmetry of information since all DMs in the economy can learn about the underlying state if they pay the cost of learning.

We introduce a standard RI cost function, given by Shannon mutual entropy in an otherwise standard information design framework with three actions and three states. The characterization of the optimal policy relies heavily on the form of the cost function chosen here. However, the intuition behind the consideration set does not rely on the specific form of the cost function. As shown in lemma 1, we derive the consideration sets using the LIP property, which identifies a much larger set of cost functions, namely the UPS cost function, of which Shannon entropy is one example only. The concavification argument applies to any cost function in this class of functions.

But without the explicit form of the cost function, we would not be able to identify the extreme points of the consideration sets, even though we can show the existence of such points. Earlier papers in the literature (Kamenica and Gentzkow(2014), Matyskova (2018), Bloedel, and Segal (2018)) have used the Shannon entropy function for obtaining closed-form analytical solutions. The properties of Shannon cost functions make it suitable for integrating the information design framework.

We continue with the assumption of commitment as is standard in the persuasion literature however, we weaken it by only considering commitment only applies for no recommendation. This requires assuming a negligible cost of verification, which may not be realistic in all cases. However, solving the optimization problem is significantly more difficult than verifying whether a solution is optimal, our assumption holds in most cases.

In this paper, we assume that both sides face the same cost of learning. If we compare this model with one where only the agent faces costs of learning, the planner will optimally choose the extreme points of the consideration set and ensure that the agent never learns (see Matyskova, 2018).

Whereas if the agent does not have access to learning and the planner faces a cost of learning, then the optimal strategy would be given by the planner’s consideration sets and complete compliance under commitment. Failure of compliance is suboptimal in this model since the posterior generated by the planner’s learning is more informative than the prior and the agent does not have access to information.

Thus the both-sided cost is crucial in our framework and we find that even in this case the planner can manipulate the action of the agent by strategically choosing the consideration set for the agent.

5 Scientific Learning

In this section, we explore the role of strategic communication in scientific learning by the planner. For this, we will compare the learning outcome under two regimes, one under strategic communication and the other under full compliance. Our objective is

to explore whether the planner would learn *more* under full compliance than under truthful communication.

Note that learning outcomes are captured by a distribution of posterior beliefs over $\Delta(\Omega)$. To be able to compare different learning strategies we thus would need a measure over this set. Since Blackwell ordering is a partial order we consider a different measure that is relevant for our context.

Let us define the mistake in learning as state ω_i to be

$$P_M(\omega_i) \equiv \sum_{j \in A \setminus \{i\}} P(a_j, \omega_i)$$

where a_i denote the optimal action in state ω_i under full information and $P(a_j, \omega_i)$ denote the probability of choosing action a_j in state ω_i . Thus for a given learning strategy γ we can denote the vector of learning mistake as $(P_M(\omega_H), P_M(\omega_L), P_M(\omega_0))$. Since the cost of making mistakes is not the same across different states, this measure captures the state specific learning mistakes the planner would make under the two different regimes.

Since making mistakes is not equally costly in each state, let us define *crucial state* for any set of parameters. State ω_i is a crucial state if $\min_{j \neq i} \{v(a_i, \omega_i) - v(a_j, \omega_i)\}$, where a_i is the optimal action in ω_i , is highest in state ω_i . Thus in the crucial state making a mistake is most costly. Our main result in this section is given by the following theorem,

Theorem 2. *The planner makes more learning mistakes in crucial states under strategic communication than under full compliance.*

The proof of the theorem is in the appendix. The main intuition behind the proof is as follows: under strategic communication the payoff from making mistake changes for actions a_L and a_0 since no communication mixes the two. This reduces the cost of making mistakes in different states. Since the learning strategy is responsive to change in payoff difference the two learning strategies are different. We conclude the proof by showing that in the crucial state the change in the payoff is more prominent, thus learning reduces more in those states.

The main implication of this result is that strategic communication can hinder scientific learning, especially when it is more costly to make learning mistakes. Under strategic communication, the planner cannot truthfully communicate the state which affects their learning communication and learning strategies. To ensure the agents choose the socially optimal action the planner sacrifices learning by themselves and let the agent learn on their own.

6 Conclusion

We study a model of strategic communication between a planner and agents in an economy in presence of externality. Under the assumption that learning is costly, we solve for the optimal information policy of the planner. We find that the planner truthfully reveals the signal when the action is less preferred by him. Otherwise, he strategically manipulates the consideration set of agents leading to welfare improvement.

Our results lie on the assumption of the Shannon entropy cost function. One future direction would be to relax this assumption and study the optimal policy of the planner for a larger set of cost functions.

Also, we assume that the agents in this model do not face any cost of verification following any recommendation. It would be interesting to explore what would happen if we relax the assumption and assume that the agent pays a small cost of verification, smaller than the cost of learning.

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A Appendix: Proofs

A.1 Proof of Lemma 1

Proof. To prove the lemma let us first note some important properties of the cost function. The cost function $K(\cdot)$ is proportional to the Shannon mutual entropy cost function, which belongs to the class of uniform posterior separable (UPS) cost functions, as defined in Caplin, Dean, and Leahy (2017). The UPS cost functions are described as follows:

$$K(\mu, Q) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma(Q)} Q(\gamma)T(\gamma) - T(\mu)$$

where $T(\cdot)$ is convex. In the case of the Shannon cost function, the convex function is given by the Shannon entropy function. The defining characteristic for UPS cost functions is the Likelihood Invariant Posterior (LIP) property. LIP implies that for a given decision problem (μ, A) a posterior distribution $\gamma \in \Delta(\Delta(\Omega))$ is obtained as the optimal learning strategy then it will remain an optimal posterior for any μ' such that γ is admissible under μ' using Bayes law.

Using the LIP property we want to argue that we can divide the simplex over the state space $\Delta(\Omega)$ into the consideration set. A consideration set for action i here defines a set of possible prior beliefs where only action i is chosen. In our 3-action example, we can thus find 7 consideration sets.

Let us start with the consideration set where all three actions are chosen. One member of such a consideration set would be a belief, say μ_{HLO} such that $P(a_H) = P(a_L) = P(a_0) = 1/3$, i.e., ex-ante all actions are chosen with equal probabilities. Plugging these values in [logisticsolution](#) we get,

$$P(a, \omega) = \frac{z(a, \omega)}{\sum_k z(a_k, \omega)},$$

This implies for an agent with prior μ_{HLO} it is optimal to choose a learning strategy where upon observing signal i the agent will choose action i and the probability of obtaining signal i is state ω (this is equivalent to the probability of choosing action i in state ω) is described by the above equation. Note that, $\mu_{HLO} \neq \mu_0$, thus to find the μ_{HLO} that generates an equal probability of choosing any action we solve the following

set of three equations,

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_{HLO}(\omega_0)P(a_0, \omega_0) + \mu_{HLO}(\omega_L)P(a_0, \omega_L) + \mu_{HLO}(\omega_H)P(a_0, \omega_H) &= P(a_0) = 1/3 \\ \mu_{HLO}(\omega_0)P(a_L, \omega_0) + \mu_{HLO}(\omega_L)P(a_L, \omega_L) + \mu_{HLO}(\omega_H)P(a_L, \omega_H) &= P(a_L) = 1/3 \\ \mu_{HLO}(\omega_0)P(a_H, \omega_0) + \mu_{HLO}(\omega_L)P(a_H, \omega_L) + \mu_{HLO}(\omega_H)P(a_H, \omega_H) &= P(a_H) = 1/3\end{aligned}$$

Plugging in the values of $P(a, \omega)$ we solve for μ_{HLO} . Given μ_{HLO} we can find the posterior belief upon observing signal i as follows,

$$\gamma_{HLO}^i(\omega_j) = \frac{P(a_i, \omega_j)\mu_{HLO}(\omega_j)}{\sum_k P(a_i, \omega_k)\mu_{HLO}(\omega_k)}.$$

This would be the optimal strategy of the DM only if the prior μ_0 makes the γ_{HLO} admissible. To prove that let us consider the convex set generated by the three posterior beliefs γ_{HLO}^k for $k = H, L$, and 0 . This forms a triangle within the simplex $\Delta(\Omega)$, which we will denote as ΔHLO . Consider any arbitrary prior belief $\mu' \in \text{int}(\Delta HLO)$. For any such μ' the posteriors γ_{HLO}^i are feasible, i.e., can be obtained using the Bayes rule for some unconditional choice probability distribution $P(a_i)$.

Furthermore, since μ_{HLO} can be written as a convex combination of γ_{HLO}^k we know that $\mu_{HLO} \in \text{int}(\Delta HLO)$. Hence, for all $\mu' \in \text{int}(\Delta HLO)$ the optimal learning strategy is given by γ_{HLO}^k . Thus ΔHLO generates the consideration set of all three actions. If the common prior $\mu_0 \notin \text{int}(\Delta HLO)$, then μ_0 cannot be written as a convex combination of γ^i . But this would imply at μ_0 at least one action is chosen with zero probability, contradicting our assumption that at μ_0 all three actions are chosen with strictly positive probability.

Next, we consider the consideration set for two actions only. WLOG let us investigate the consideration set for actions a_H and a_L , this includes all prior beliefs μ' where $P(a_0) = 0$. To construct this set let us start with the extreme points of ΔHLO . Consider prior beliefs $\mu_1 = \gamma_{HLO}^H$ and $\mu_2 = \gamma_{HLO}^L$. We know the agents choose a_H with probability 1 if his belief is at μ_1 and similarly a_L with probability 1 for μ_2 . Thus for any arbitrary belief $\mu' \in \text{int}(\overline{\gamma_{HLO}^H \gamma_{HLO}^L})$ would belong to the consideration set of a_H and a_L only.

Note that, if $P(a_0) = 0$ then the DM only obtains two signals a_H and a_L . Thus the resultant posterior belief over states would have only two beliefs in the support, one for each signal a_H and a_L . Both these two belief would assign a probability of zero to state ω_0 since $P(a_0, \omega_H) = P(a_0, \omega_L) = 0$. Thus we can conclude that the optimal posterior belief would lie on the boundary of the simplex where $\mu(\omega_0) = 0$, where $P(a_0) = 0$.

On this line segment, we can find the posterior beliefs for choosing only a_H and

a_L using the same method as before and assuming $P(a_H) = P(a_L) = 1/2$. This generates the other boundary of the consideration set for a_H and a_L . Joining the two sets of extreme points we find the consideration set HL which takes the shape of a trapezoid. Similarly, we find the consideration set of all other sets of two actions. The consideration sets for single actions can then be characterized residually defined by the boundary of the two-action consideration sets.

Caplin, Dean, and Leahy found that the consideration set can be characterized by finding the convex set at the intersection of a set of linear equations. For example, to find γ_{HLO}^H we need to consider the intersection of the two following equations,

$$f(\gamma, a_H, a_L) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad f(\gamma, a_H, a_0) = 1$$

where

$$f(\gamma, a, b) = \sum_{\omega} \frac{z(b, \omega)}{z(a, \omega)} \gamma(\omega).$$

It is straightforward to verify that at γ_{HLO}^H indeed $f(\gamma, a_H, a_L) = f(\gamma, a_H, a_0) = 1$. Thus both the methods generate the same set of consideration sets but instead of using a set of linear equations we derive the extreme points of the consideration by applying LIP and solving for the optimal posterior when all actions are chosen with equal probabilities. \square

A.2 Proof of Lemma 2

For any $\nu > 0$ if $\lambda \rightarrow 0$, learning is not costly and by learning the planner can get a better payoff. The net payoff function under learning is given by,

$$V_L = E\hat{u}(P(a, \omega)|\mu_0) - K(\lambda, \mu_0)$$

As λ increases since $K(\cdot) = \lambda D(P(a, \omega)||P(a))$, the cost of learning increases. Also, as λ increases the probability of mismatching state increases, which implies $E\hat{u}(P(a, \omega)|\mu_0)$ decreases with λ . However, for high λ the benefit from not learning and leaving it on the agent is also smaller since the agent doesn't learn as much as well. This implies, that there exists λ sufficiently small such that learning is better than not learning for the planner.

A.3 Proof of Lemma 3

Proof. Let us consider the learning problem of the planner under complete compliance, i.e., the agents obediently follow the recommendation of the planner. Complete

compliance thus implies if the planner recommends a_i the agents will choose a_i with probability 1. The learning problem of the planner and the agents is identical except $z(a, \omega)$. Let us denote $z_C(a, \omega) = \exp(v(a, \omega)/\lambda)$, i.e., the $z(\cdot)$ counterpart for the planner under compliance. Since there is no strategic interaction, the planner always recommends the signal he obtains, and the optimal posterior belief distribution is given by,

$$\gamma_C(a_i, \omega_j) = \frac{z_C(a_i, \omega_j)\mu(\omega_j)}{P_C(a_h)z_P(a_H, \omega_j) + P_C(a_L)z_P(a_L, \omega_j) + P_C(a_0)z_P(a_0, \omega_j)}$$

If complete compliance is an equilibrium then we will get,

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma_C^H &= (\gamma_C(a_H, \omega_0), \gamma_C(a_H, \omega_L), \gamma_C(a_H, \omega_0)) \in \square H \\ \gamma_C^L &= (\gamma_C(a_L, \omega_0), \gamma_C(a_L, \omega_L), \gamma_C(a_L, \omega_0)) \in \square L \\ \gamma_C^0 &= (\gamma_C(a_0, \omega_0), \gamma_C(a_0, \omega_L), \gamma_C(a_0, \omega_0)) \in \square 0\end{aligned}$$

If any belief $\gamma \in \square H$ then γ will satisfy the following two inequalities that outline the boundary of $\square H$,

$$\begin{aligned}f(\gamma^H, a_H, a_L) &\leq 1 \\ f(\gamma^H, a_H, a_0) &\leq 1\end{aligned}$$

where

$$f(\gamma, a, b) = \sum_{\omega} \frac{z(a, \omega)}{z(b, \omega)} \gamma(\omega).$$

We can rewrite the above inequalities as follows,

$$\begin{aligned}f(\gamma_C^H, a_H, a_L) &= \frac{z(a_L, \omega_0)}{z(a_H, \omega_0)} \frac{z_C(a_H, \omega_0)\mu(\omega_0)}{\sum_{a \in A} P(a)z_C(a, \omega_0)} + \frac{z(a_L, \omega_L)}{z(a_H, \omega_L)} \frac{z_C(a_H, \omega_L)\mu(\omega_0)}{\sum_{a \in A} P(a)z_C(a, \omega_L)} \\ &\quad + \frac{z(a_L, \omega_H)}{z(a_H, \omega_H)} \frac{z_C(a_H, \omega_H)\mu(\omega_H)}{\sum_{a \in A} P(a)z_C(a, \omega_H)} \leq 1 \\ f(\gamma_C^H, a_H, a_0) &= \frac{z(a_0, \omega_0)}{z(a_H, \omega_0)} \frac{z_C(a_H, \omega_0)\mu(\omega_0)}{\sum_{a \in A} P(a)z_C(a, \omega_0)} + \frac{z(a_0, \omega_L)}{z(a_H, \omega_L)} \frac{z_C(a_H, \omega_L)\mu(\omega_0)}{\sum_{a \in A} P(a)z_C(a, \omega_L)} \\ &\quad + \frac{z(a_0, \omega_H)}{z(a_H, \omega_H)} \frac{z_C(a_H, \omega_H)\mu(\omega_H)}{\sum_{a \in A} P(a)z_C(a, \omega_H)} \leq 1\end{aligned}$$

Rearranging terms we get,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{z(a_L, \omega)}{z(a_H, \omega)} \frac{z_C(a_H, \omega)\mu(\omega)}{\sum_{a \in A} P(a)z_C(a, \omega)} &= \frac{z_C(a_H, \omega)}{z(a_H, \omega)} \frac{z(a_L, \omega)}{z_C(a_L, \omega)} \frac{z_C(a_L, \omega)\mu(\omega)}{\sum_{a \in A} P(a)z_C(a, \omega)} \\ &= \frac{z_C(a_H, \omega)}{z(a_H, \omega)} \frac{z(a_L, \omega)}{z_C(a_L, \omega)} \gamma_C(a_L, \omega) \end{aligned}$$

This implies,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_C^H, a_H, a_L) &= \exp \frac{-\nu}{\lambda} \exp \frac{\nu}{\lambda} \gamma_C(a_L, \omega_0) + \exp \frac{-i\nu}{\lambda} \exp \frac{i\nu}{\lambda} \gamma_C(a_L, \omega_L) + \gamma_C(a_L, \omega_H) \\ &= \gamma_C(a_L, \omega_0) + \gamma_C(a_L, \omega_L) + \gamma_C(a_L, \omega_H) = 1, \end{aligned}$$

hence, the first inequality is satisfied. Similarly, we can show,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{z(a_0, \omega)}{z(a_H, \omega)} \frac{z_C(a_H, \omega)\mu(\omega)}{\sum_{a \in A} P(a)z_C(a, \omega)} &= \frac{z_C(a_H, \omega)}{z(a_H, \omega)} \frac{z(a_0, \omega)}{z_C(a_0, \omega)} \frac{z_C(a_0, \omega)\mu(\omega)}{\sum_{a \in A} P(a)z_C(a, \omega)} \\ &= \frac{z_C(a_H, \omega)}{z(a_H, \omega)} \gamma_C(a_0, \omega) \end{aligned}$$

since $z(a_0, \omega) = z_C(a_0, \omega) = 1$. This implies

$$f(\gamma_C^H, a_H, a_0) = \exp \frac{-\nu}{\lambda} \gamma_C(a_0, \omega_0) + \exp \frac{-i\nu}{\lambda} \gamma_C(a_0, \omega_L) + \gamma_C(a_0, \omega_H) < 1$$

since $\nu > 0$ and $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \gamma_P(a_0, \omega) = 1$. Thus $\gamma_P^H \in \square H$.

Next, we consider γ_P^L which will lie in $\square L$ if

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_C^L, a_L, a_H) &\leq 1 \\ f(\gamma_C^L, a_L, a_0) &\leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

Using similar adjustments we can write,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_C^L, a_L, a_H) &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z_C(a_L, \omega)}{z(a_L, \omega)} \frac{z(a_H, \omega)}{z_C(a_H, \omega)} \frac{z_C(a_H, \omega)\mu(\omega)}{\sum_{a \in A} P(a)z_P(a, \omega)} \\ &= \exp \frac{-\nu}{\lambda} \exp \frac{\nu}{\lambda} \gamma_C(a_H, \omega_0) + \exp \frac{-i\nu}{\lambda} \exp \frac{i\nu}{\lambda} \gamma_P(a_H, \omega_L) + \gamma_C(a_H, \omega_H) \\ &= \gamma_C(a_H, \omega_0) + \gamma_C(a_H, \omega_L) + \gamma_C(a_H, \omega_H) = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Comparing a_L and a_0 we get,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_C^L, a_L, a_0) &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z_C(a_L, \omega)}{z(a_L, \omega)} \frac{z_C(a_0, \omega)\mu(\omega)}{\sum_{a \in A} P(a)z_C(a, \omega)} \\ &= \exp \frac{-\nu}{\lambda} \gamma_C(a_0, \omega_0) + \exp \frac{-i\nu}{\lambda} \gamma_C(a_0, \omega_L) + \gamma_C(a_0, \omega_H) < 1 \end{aligned}$$

since $\nu > 0$ and $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \gamma_C(a_0, \omega) = 1$. This implies $\gamma_C^L \in \square L$.

Now we consider γ_P^0 which will lie in $\square 0$ if

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_C^0, a_0, a_H) &\leq 1 \\ f(\gamma_C^0, a_0, a_L) &\leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

Using similar adjustments as before we get,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_C^0, a_0, a_H) &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z(a_H, \omega)}{z_C(a_H, \omega)} \gamma_C(a_H, \omega) \\ &= \exp \frac{\nu}{\lambda} \gamma_C(a_H, \omega_0) + \exp \frac{i\nu}{\lambda} \gamma_C(a_H, \omega_L) + \gamma_C(a_H, \omega_H) > 1 \end{aligned}$$

since $\nu, i > 0$ and $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \gamma_C(a_H, \omega) = 1$. Also,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_C^0, a_0, a_L) &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z(a_L, \omega)}{z_C(a_L, \omega)} \gamma_C(a_L, \omega) \\ &= \exp \frac{\nu}{\lambda} \gamma_C(a_L, \omega_0) + \exp \frac{i\nu}{\lambda} \gamma_C(a_L, \omega_L) + \gamma_C(a_L, \omega_H) > 1 \end{aligned}$$

since $\nu, i > 0$ and $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \gamma_C(a_L, \omega) = 1$. Thus $\gamma_C^0 \notin \square 0$. This implies if the planner communicates the signal truthfully the agent will be better off by deviating and learning to follow a_0 recommendation. Hence, proved. \square

A.4 Proof of lemma 4

Proof. In this lemma, we explore whether the agent chooses to learn when the planner truthfully recommends the action based on the observed signal. Since learning is costly for the agent, he only chooses to learn by himself if his interim belief is not in a consideration set that contains only one action, e.g, $\square L$. The previous lemma shows even when agents perfectly comply with the planner's recommendation planner chooses a learning strategy such that the posterior belief following the recommendation of a_H and a_L would lie in $\square H$ and $\square L$ respectively, i.e., the agent would not have any incentive to learn further. However, the posterior belief following the recommendation of a_0 does not lie in $\square 0$, where the agent would optimally choose to learn.

Under truthful communication, since the agent has the opportunity to learn after the recommendation, it would always be optimal for the planner to choose a learning strategy such that the posterior belief following a_H or a_L lies in $\square H$ and $\square L$ respectively. We would show the following strategy would be the optimal strategy under truthful communication:

- agent complies with a_H and a_L

- agent does not comply with a_0 recommendation

Let us consider a strategy as described above. Let v_T denote the expected payoff of the planner under truthful communication. Since following a_0 the agent learns by himself, the planner's payoff needs to incorporate the agent's choice. Suppose post learning the agent's belief belongs to the consideration set $CS(JK)$, then the agent's optimal posterior is given by the extreme points of the consideration sets, i.e.,

$$v_T(a, \omega) = P_{JK}(a_J)v(a_J, \omega) + P_{JK}(a_K)v(a_K, \omega)$$

where $P_{JK}(a)$ is unconditional probability of choosing action a_J in consideration set $CS(JK)$ given interim belief $\mu(\omega)$ is equal to planner's optimal posterior choice γ_T .

Under the strategy of compliance in a_H and a_L only, we will consider four possible strategies, namely,

- $\gamma_T^0 \in \triangle HLO$
- $\gamma_T^0 \in \square L0$
- $\gamma_T^0 \in \square H0$
- $\gamma_T^0 \in \square 0$

where γ_T^i denote the posterior belief of the planner following a signal a_i in the truthful communication game. We will show that only the first three are feasible strategies and will characterize the equilibrium strategy.

Let us consider the following strategy where a_H and a_L recommendations are followed but after a_0 the interim belief lies in $\triangle HLO$. Under this strategy γ_T , $v_T(a_H, \omega) = v(a_H, \omega)$ and $v_T(a_L, \omega) = v(a_L, \omega)$ for any $\omega \in \Omega$ but

$$v_T(a_0, \omega) = P_{HLO}(a_0)v(a_0, \omega) + P_{HLO}(a_L)v(a_L, \omega) + P_{HLO}(a_H)v(a_H, \omega) \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega.$$

where $P(a)_{HLO}$ denotes the probability of action a being chosen following a recommendation of a_0 and it is a function of γ_T . Following a similar exercise as of lemma 1, we can find the optimal learning strategy $\hat{\gamma}_T$ given $v_T(a, \omega)$ and prior belief μ_0 . To show this is a feasible strategy, we will first check indeed $\gamma_T^H \in \square H$, $\gamma_T^L \in \square L$ and $\gamma_T^0 \in \triangle HLO$.

The necessary and sufficient condition for $\gamma_T^H \in \square H$ is given as follows

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_T^H, a_H, a_L) &\leq 1 \\ f(\gamma_T^H, a_H, a_0) &\leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

Using similar rearrangement of terms as in lemma 3 we get,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_T^H, a_H, a_L) &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z_T(a_H, \omega)}{z(a_H, \omega)} \frac{z(a_L, \omega)}{z_T(a_L, \omega)} \gamma_T(a_L, \omega) \\ &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \gamma_T(a_L, \omega) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

and,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_T^H, a_H, a_0) &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z_T(a_H, \omega)}{z(a_H, \omega)} \frac{1}{z_T(a_0, \omega)} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega) \\ &= \exp \frac{-\nu - P_{HL0}(a_H)(\alpha_H - \beta_H - \nu) - P_{HL0}(a_L)(\alpha_L - \beta_L - \nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_0) \\ &\quad + \exp \frac{-i\nu - P_{HL0}(a_H)(\alpha_H - i\beta_H - i\nu) - P_{HL0}(a_L)(\alpha_L - i\beta_L - i\nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_L) \\ &\quad + \exp \frac{-P_{HL0}(a_H)\alpha_H - P_{HL0}(a_L)\alpha_L}{\lambda} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_H) \end{aligned}$$

Note that, $\lim_{P_{HL0}(a_0)} f(\gamma_T^H, a_H, a_0) < 1$ and $f'(\gamma_T^H, a_H, a_L) > 0$ in $P_{HL0}(a_0)$. This implies the planner can choose a learning strategy such that $\gamma_T^H \square H$. It can be shown, under this condition $\gamma_T^L \in \square L$ and $\gamma_T^0 \in \triangle HL0$

Similarly, for $\gamma_T^L \in \square L$ the necessary and sufficient condition is

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_T^L, a_L, a_0) &\leq 1 \\ f(\gamma_T^L, a_L, a_H) &\leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

Using similar rearrangement of terms we get,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_T^L, a_L, a_H) &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z_T(a_L, \omega)}{z(a_L, \omega)} \frac{z(a_H, \omega)}{z_T(a_H, \omega)} \gamma_T(a_L, \omega) \\ &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \gamma_T(a_L, \omega) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_T^L, a_L, a_0) &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z_T(a_L, \omega)}{z(a_L, \omega)} \frac{1}{z_T(a_0, \omega)} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega) \\ &= \exp \frac{-\nu - P_{HL0}(a_H)(\alpha_H - \beta_H - \nu) - P_{HL0}(a_L)(\alpha_L - \beta_L - \nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_0) \\ &\quad + \exp \frac{-i\nu - P_{HL0}(a_H)(\alpha_H - i\beta_H - i\nu) - P_{HL0}(a_L)(\alpha_L - i\beta_L - i\nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_L) \\ &\quad + \exp \frac{-P_{HL0}(a_H)\alpha_H - P_{HL0}(a_L)\alpha_L}{\lambda} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_H) \end{aligned}$$

which will also be less than 1 if $\gamma_T^H \in \square H$.

Finally we consider if $\gamma_T^0 \in \Delta H L 0$. However, there is no necessary and sufficient condition based on $f(x, a, b)$. This is why we start with the necessary condition, $f(x, a, b) > 1$ for all $a, b \in A$ and $x = \gamma_T^0$.

$$f(\gamma_T^0, a_0, a_H) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} z_T(a_0, \omega) \frac{z(a_H, \omega)}{z_T(a_H, \omega)} \gamma_T(a_H, \omega) > 1$$

since $f(\gamma_T^H, a_H, a_0) < 1$. By similar logic $f(\gamma_T^0, a_0, a_L) > 1$. Additionally,

$$f(\gamma_T^0, a_H, a_0) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z(a_0, \omega)}{z(a_H, \omega)} \frac{z_T(a_0, \omega)}{z_T(a_H, \omega)} \gamma_T(a_H, \omega) > 1$$

since $f(\gamma_T^H, a_H, a_0) < 1$. By similar logic $f(\gamma_T^0, a_L, a_0) > 1$.

$$f(\gamma_T^0, a_H, a_L) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z(a_H, \omega)}{z_T(a_H, \omega)} \frac{z_T(a_0, \omega)}{z(a_L, \omega)} \gamma_T(a_H, \omega) > 1$$

since $f(\gamma_T^H, a_H, a_0) < 1$. By similar logic $f(\gamma_T^0, a_L, a_H) > 1$. However, since this is not the sufficient condition, we need to check if $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_L) > t\gamma(a_0, \omega_L) + (1-t)\gamma(a_H, \omega_L)$ for any $t \in [0, 1]$, i.e., γ^0 lies above \overline{BC} , $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_H) > t\gamma(a_0, \omega_H) + (1-t)\gamma(a_L, \omega_H)$ for any $t \in [0, 1]$, i.e., γ^0 lies to the left of \overline{AB} , and $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_0) > t\gamma(a_H, \omega_H) + (1-t)\gamma(a_L, \omega_H)$ for any $t \in [0, 1]$, i.e., γ^0 lies to the right of \overline{AC} . To determine this let us compare γ and γ_T . To begin with,

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_L) &= \frac{z_T(a_0, \omega_L)\mu(\omega_L)}{P_T(a_H)z_T(a_H, \omega_L) + P_T(a_L)z_T(a_L, \omega_L) + P_T(a_0)z_T(a_0, \omega_L)} \\ \gamma(a_0, \omega_L) &= \frac{z(a_0, \omega_L)\mu(\omega_L)}{P(a_H)z(a_H, \omega_L) + P(a_L)z(a_L, \omega_L) + P(a_0)z(a_0, \omega_L)} \\ \gamma(a_H, \omega_L) &= \frac{z(a_H, \omega_L)\mu(\omega_L)}{P(a_H)z(a_H, \omega_L) + P(a_L)z(a_L, \omega_L) + P(a_0)z(a_0, \omega_L)}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $z_T(a_0, \omega_L) > z(a_0, \omega_L)$, $z_T(a_H, \omega_L) < z(a_H, \omega_L)$, $z_T(a_L, \omega_L) < z(a_L, \omega_L)$ and $P_T(a_0) < 1$ we get $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_L) > \gamma(a_0, \omega_L)$. Since $z_T(a_0, \omega_L) > z(a_H, \omega_L)$, we also get $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_L) > \gamma(a_H, \omega_L)$, which implies $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_L) > t\gamma(a_0, \omega_L) + (1-t)\gamma(a_H, \omega_L)$ for any $t \in [0, 1]$. Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_H) &= \frac{z_T(a_0, \omega_H)\mu(\omega_H)}{P_T(a_H)z_T(a_H, \omega_H) + P_T(a_L)z_T(a_L, \omega_H) + P_T(a_0)z_T(a_0, \omega_H)} \\ \gamma(a_0, \omega_H) &= \frac{z(a_0, \omega_H)\mu(\omega_H)}{P(a_H)z(a_H, \omega_H) + P(a_L)z(a_L, \omega_H) + P(a_0)z(a_0, \omega_H)} \\ \gamma(a_L, \omega_H) &= \frac{z(a_L, \omega_H)\mu(\omega_L)}{P(a_H)z(a_H, \omega_H) + P(a_L)z(a_L, \omega_H) + P(a_0)z(a_0, \omega_H)}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $z_T(a_0, \omega_H) > z(a_0, \omega_H)$, $z_T(a_H, \omega_H) = z(a_H, \omega_L)$, $z_T(a_L, \omega_H) = z(a_L, \omega_H)$ and

$P_T(a_0) < 1$ we get $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_H) > \gamma(a_0, \omega_L)$. Since $z_T(a_0, \omega_H) > z(a_L, \omega_H)$, we also get $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_H) > \gamma(a_L, \omega_H)$, which implies $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_H) > t\gamma(a_0, \omega_H) + (1-t)\gamma(a_L, \omega_H)$ for any $t \in [0, 1]$. Finally,

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_0) &= \frac{z_T(a_0, \omega_0)\mu(\omega_0)}{P_T(a_H)z_T(a_H, \omega_0) + P_T(a_L)z_T(a_L, \omega_0) + P_T(a_0)z_T(a_0, \omega_0)} \\ \gamma(a_H, \omega_0) &= \frac{z(a_H, \omega_0)\mu(\omega_0)}{P(a_H)z(a_H, \omega_0) + P(a_L)z(a_L, \omega_0) + P(a_0)z(a_0, \omega_0)} \\ \gamma(a_L, \omega_0) &= \frac{z(a_L, \omega_0)\mu(\omega_0)}{P(a_H)z(a_H, \omega_0) + P(a_L)z(a_L, \omega_0) + P(a_0)z(a_0, \omega_0)}.\end{aligned}$$

Since $z_T(a_0, \omega_0) > z(a_H, \omega_0)$, $z_T(a_H, \omega_0) < z(a_H, \omega_0)$, $z_T(a_L, \omega_0) < z(a_L, \omega_0)$ and $P_T(a_0) < 1$ we get $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_0) > \gamma(a_L, \omega_0)$. Since $z_T(a_0, \omega_0) > z(a_H, \omega_0)$, we also get $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_0) > \gamma(a_H, \omega_0)$, which implies $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_0) > t\gamma(a_L, \omega_0) + (1-t)\gamma(a_H, \omega_0)$ for any $t \in [0, 1]$. Thus $\gamma_T^0 \in \Delta H L 0$ and does not lie on either of the boundaries.

To show this strategy can be an equilibrium strategy, we need to check whether there exists any $\gamma_T^0 \in \Delta H L 0$ such that it is consistent with the learning strategy of the agent given in the lemma 1. The following equation denotes the relationship between any interim belief $\mu' \in \Delta H L 0$ and $P(a)$

$$\gamma(a_0, \omega) = \frac{P'(a, \omega)}{P'(a)}\mu'(\omega)$$

where $P'(a, \omega)$ and $P'(a)$ denote the conditional and unconditional probabilities resp. for belief, $\mu' \in \Delta H L 0$ and γ denote the optimal choice of the agent characterized in lemma 1. Thus $P(a)$ is a continuous function of μ' , let us denote this function as g_1 . Also, γ_T^0 is a continuous function in $P(a)$ for $\gamma_T^0 \in \Delta H L 0$ since all three actions are chosen with strictly positive probability. Let us denote this function as g_2 . The function $g_1 \circ g_2 : \text{int}(\Delta H L 0) \rightarrow \text{int}(\Delta H L 0)$ and is continuous. Note that, we can use the $\text{int}(\Delta H L 0)$ because the boundary points of $\Delta H L 0$ are not contained in the consideration set of $H L 0$ and we have already shown γ_T^0 does not lie on any boundary of $\Delta H L 0$. This implies there exists a fixed point of the composite mapping $g_1 \circ g_2$ which would be the equilibrium belief γ_T^0 .

Using similar arguments we can show that there exists an equilibrium where $\gamma_T^H \in \square H$, $\gamma_T^L \in \square L$ and $\gamma_T^0 \in \square L 0$. The updated payoff function, in this case, would be,

$$v_T(a_0, \omega) = P_{L0}(a_0)v(a_0, \omega) + P_{L0}(a_L)v(a_L, \omega)$$

and the necessary and sufficient condition would be,

$$f(\gamma_T^H, a_H, a_0) = \exp \frac{-\nu - P_{L0}(\alpha_L)(\alpha_L - \beta_L - \nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_0) \\ + \exp \frac{-i\nu - P_{L0}(\alpha_L)(\alpha_L - i\beta_L - i\nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_L) + \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_H) \leq 1.$$

Similarly one can show there exists an equilibrium where $\gamma_T^H \in \square H$, $\gamma_T^L \in \square L$ and $\gamma_T^0 \in \square H0$. The updated payoff function, in this case, would be,

$$v_T(a_0, \omega) = P_{H0}(a_0)v(a_0, \omega) + P_{H0}(a_H)v(a_H, \omega)$$

and the necessary and sufficient condition would be,

$$f(\gamma_T^H, a_H, a_0) = \exp \frac{-\nu - P_{H0}(\alpha_H)(\alpha_H - \beta_H - \nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_0) \\ + \exp \frac{-i\nu - P_{H0}(\alpha_H)(\alpha_H - i\beta_H - i\nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_L) + \gamma_T(a_0, \omega_H) \leq 1.$$

Finally, we consider the strategy $\gamma_T^H \in \square H$, $\gamma_T^L \in \square L$ and $\gamma_T^0 \in \square 0$ the payoff function becomes,

$$v_T(a_0, \omega) = v(a_0, \omega).$$

By lemma 2, $\gamma_T^0 \notin \square 0$, thus such an equilibrium cannot exist.

Hence, proved. □

A.5 Proof of Theorem 1

Proof. Lemma 4 has established there are three types of equilibrium when the planner truthfully communicates the obtained signal. They are as follows

- Strategy $HL0$: $\gamma_P^H \in \square H$, $\gamma_P^L \in \square L$, and $\gamma_P^H \in \Delta HL0$
- Strategy $L0$: $\gamma_P^H \in \square H$, $\gamma_P^L \in \square L$, and $\gamma_P^H \in \square L0$
- Strategy $H0$: $\gamma_P^H \in \square H$, $\gamma_P^L \in \square L$, and $\gamma_P^H \in \square H0$,

where the subscript P denotes the planner's choice. Since the least amount of learning is needed for strategy $HL0$, this would be the cheapest strategy to implement. Also, since $\alpha_H - \beta_H < \alpha_L - \beta_L$, strategy $L0$ yields the highest expected gross payoff. In this strategic communication environment, we want to find a strategy such that the learning strategy resembles strategy $HL0$ but the communication strategy improves it to something akin to strategy $L0$.

Consider the following strategy. The planner's learning strategy is such that $\gamma_P^H \in \square H$, $\gamma_P^L \in \square L$, and $\gamma_P^H \in \Delta H L 0$. However, the planner does not always truthfully recommend it. The communication strategy is as follows:

- Recommend a_H following signal a_H
- Recommend a_L with probability q following a_L
- No recommendation otherwise

The expected payoff of the planner following this strategy would be given by,

$$\begin{aligned} v_q(a_H, \omega) &= v(a_H, \omega) \\ v_q(a_0, \omega) &= P_q(a_L)v(a_L, \omega) + P_q(a_0)v(a_0, \omega) \\ v_q(a_L, \omega) &= qv(a_L, \omega) + (1 - q)P_q(a_L)v(a_L, \omega) + P_q(a_0)v(a_0, \omega) \end{aligned}$$

where $P_q(a)$ denote the unconditional probability of choosing a following no recommendation. Let p denote the posterior probability that the no recommendation message is derived from the a_L signal. Then we can write,

$$p = \frac{(1 - q)P_P(a_L)}{(1 - q)P_P(a_L) + P_P(a_0)}.$$

Let $\mu_{p,\emptyset} \in \Delta(\Omega)$ denote the interim belief of the agent following no recommendation. Then,

$$\mu_{p,\emptyset}(\omega) = p\gamma_P(a_L, \omega) + (1 - p)\gamma_P(a_0, \omega)$$

The proof comprises the following steps:

- Step 1: verify $\gamma_P^H \in \square H$, $\gamma_P^L \in \square L$, and $\gamma_P^H \in \Delta H L 0$ and $\mu_{p,\emptyset}(\omega) \in \square L 0$.
- Step 2: the composite function that maps any interim belief following no recommendation into $\mu_{p,\emptyset}(\omega)$ has a fixed point
- Step 3: q is chosen optimally.

As before, the following conditions are necessary and sufficient for $\gamma_P^H \in \square H$,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_P^H, a_H, a_0) &\leq 1 \\ f(\gamma_P^H, a_H, a_L) &\leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

By rearranging terms we get,

$$\begin{aligned}
f(\gamma_P^H, a_H, a_0) &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z_P(a_H, \omega)}{z(a_H, \omega)} \frac{1}{z_P(a_0, \omega)} \gamma_P(a_0, \omega) \\
&= \exp \frac{-\nu - P_q(a_L)(\alpha_L - \beta_L - \nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_P(a_0, \omega_0) \\
&\quad + \exp \frac{-i\nu - P_q(a_L)(\alpha_L - i\beta_L - i\nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_P(a_0, \omega_L) + \exp \frac{-P_q(a_L)\alpha_L}{\lambda} \gamma_P(a_0, \omega_H).
\end{aligned}$$

For $P_q(a_0) \rightarrow 1$ we get $f(\gamma_P^H, a_H, a_0) < 1$ and also at $P_q(a_0) = 0$ the inequality holds by lemma 3. Thus this inequality always holds. Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned}
f(\gamma_P^H, a_H, a_L) &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z_P(a_H, \omega)}{z(a_H, \omega)} \frac{z(a_L, \omega)}{z_P(a_L, \omega)} \gamma_P(a_L, \omega) \\
&= \exp \frac{(1-q)(1-P_q(a_L))(\alpha_L - \beta_L - \nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_P(a_L, \omega_0) \\
&\quad + \exp \frac{(1-q)(1-P_q(a_L))(\alpha_L - i\beta_L - i\nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_P(a_L, \omega_L) \\
&\quad + \exp \frac{(1-q)(1-P_q(a_L))(\alpha_L)}{\lambda} \gamma_P(a_L, \omega_H)
\end{aligned}$$

Let us note that as $q \rightarrow 1$ we have $f(\gamma_P^H, a_H, a_L) = 1$ and

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial \gamma_P(a_L, \omega_0)}{\partial q} &< 0 \\
\frac{\partial \gamma_P(a_L, \omega_L)}{\partial q} &> 0 \\
\frac{\partial \gamma_P(a_L, \omega_H)}{\partial q} &\geq 0.
\end{aligned}$$

At $q = 0$, we have

$$\gamma_P(a_L, \omega_0) > \gamma_P(a_L, \omega_L) > \gamma_P(a_L, \omega_H)$$

since $z_P(a_L, \omega) = z_P(a_0, \omega)$ for all $\omega \in \Omega$ in this case but at $q = 1$

$$\gamma_P(a_L, \omega_0) < \gamma_P(a_L, \omega_H) < \gamma_P(a_L, \omega_L).$$

This implies as q decreases from 1, $f(\gamma_P^H, a_H, a_L)$ initially decreases ($\gamma_P(a_L, \omega_0)$ dominates and $\alpha_L - \beta_L - \nu < 0$), then increases ($\gamma_P(a_L, \omega_L)$ dominates and $\alpha_L - \beta_L - i\nu > 0$). This implies there exists a q small enough such that $f(\gamma_P^L, a_H, a_L) \leq 1$. This generates a lower bound on q , say, $q \leq q_1 \leq 1$ where the inequality holds.

The necessary and sufficient condition for $\gamma_P^L \in \square L$ would be

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_P^L, a_L, a_0) &\leq 1 \\ f(\gamma_P^H, a_H, a_L) &\leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

This can be written as,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_P^L, a_L, a_0) &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z_P(a_L, \omega)}{z(a_L, \omega)} \frac{1}{z_P(a_0, \omega)} \gamma_T(a_0, \omega) \\ &= \exp \frac{-((1-q)(1-P_q(a_L)) + P_q(a_L))(\alpha_L - \beta_L - \nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_P(a_0, \omega_0) \\ &+ \exp \frac{-((1-q)(1-P_q(a_L)) + P_q(a_L))(\alpha_L - i\beta_L - i\nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_P(a_0, \omega_L) \\ &+ \exp \frac{-((1-q)(1-P_q(a_L)) + P_q(a_L))\alpha_L}{\lambda} \gamma_P(a_0, \omega_H) \end{aligned}$$

Similar to the last inequality at $q = 1$ we get $f(\gamma_P^L, a_L, a_0) < 1$ and $f'(\gamma_P^L, a_L, a_0) < 0$ in q . This implies for sufficiently large q the inequality holds. This generates a lower bound, say $q \geq q_2 \geq 0$ where the inequality holds. . Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\gamma_P^L, a_L, a_H) &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z_P(a_L, \omega)}{z(a_L, \omega)} \frac{z(a_H, \omega)}{z_P(a_H, \omega)} \gamma_P(a_H, \omega) \\ &= \exp \frac{-(1-q)(1-P_q(a_L))(\alpha_L - \beta_L - \nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_P(a_H, \omega_0) \\ &+ \exp \frac{-(1-q)(1-P_q(a_L))(\alpha_L - i\beta_L - i\nu)}{\lambda} \gamma_P(a_H, \omega_L) \\ &+ \exp \frac{-(1-q)(1-P_q(a_L))\alpha_L}{\lambda} \gamma_P(a_H, \omega_H) \leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

for $q \geq q_2$ this inequality. We can verify that since $\gamma_P(a_L, \omega_0)$ decreases and $\gamma_P(a_0, \omega_0)$ increases in q , we get, $q_2 \leq q_1$. Thus there exists $q \in [q_2, q_1]$ such that all the necessary and sufficient conditions hold.

Finally, for γ_P^0 we check,

$$f(\gamma_P^0, a_0, a_H) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} z_P(a_0, \omega) \frac{z(a_H, \omega)}{z_P(a_H, \omega)} \gamma_P(a_H, \omega) > 1$$

since $f(\gamma_P^0, a_H, a_0) < 1$. By similar logic $f(\gamma_P^0, a_0, a_L) > 1$. Additionally,

$$f(\gamma_P^0, a_H, a_0) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z(a_0, \omega)}{z(a_H, \omega)} \frac{z_P(a_0, \omega)}{z_P(a_H, \omega)} \gamma_T(a_H, \omega) > 1$$

by lemma 4. By similar logic $f(\gamma_T^0, a_L, a_0) > 1$.

$$f(\gamma_P^0, a_H, a_L) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \frac{z(a_H, \omega)}{z_P(a_H, \omega)} \frac{z_T(a_0, \omega)}{z(a_L, \omega)} \gamma_P(a_H, \omega) > 1$$

since $f(\gamma_P^H, a_H, a_0) < 1$. Also, since $z_P(a_0, \omega_L) > z(a_0, \omega_L)$, $z_P(a_H, \omega_L) < z(a_H, \omega_L)$, $z_P(a_L, \omega_L) < z(a_L, \omega_L)$ and $P_q(a_0) < 1$ we get $\gamma_P(a_0, \omega_L) > \gamma(a_0, \omega_L)$. Since $z_P(a_0, \omega_L) > z(a_H, \omega_L)$, we also get $\gamma_P(a_0, \omega_L) > \gamma(a_H, \omega_L)$, which implies $\gamma_P(a_0, \omega_L) > t\gamma(a_0, \omega_L) + (1-t)\gamma(a_H, \omega_L)$ for any $t \in [0, 1]$.

Furthermore, since $z_P(a_0, \omega_0) > z(a_H, \omega_0)$, $z_P(a_H, \omega_0) < z(a_H, \omega_0)$ but $z_P(a_L, \omega_0) \leq z(a_L, \omega_0)$ but the difference in numerator dominates, hence we get $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_0) > \gamma(a_L, \omega_0)$. Since $z_P(a_0, \omega_0) > z(a_H, \omega_0)$, we also get $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_0) > \gamma(a_H, \omega_0)$, which implies $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_0) > t\gamma(a_L, \omega_0) + (1-t)\gamma(a_H, \omega_0)$ for any $t \in [0, 1]$.

Finally, since $z_P(a_0, \omega_H) > z(a_0, \omega_H)$, $z_P(a_H, \omega_H) = z(a_H, \omega_L)$, $z_T(a_L, \omega_H) < z(a_L, \omega_H)$ and $P_T(a_0) < 1$ we get $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_H) > \gamma(a_0, \omega_H)$. But $z_P(a_0, \omega_H) < z(a_L, \omega_H)$ and $z_P(a_L, \omega_L) < z(a_L, \omega_L)$, we get $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_H) < \gamma(a_L, \omega_H)$, which implies for every q there exists a t' such that $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_H) > t\gamma(a_0, \omega_H) + (1-t)\gamma(a_L, \omega_H)$ for all $t > t'$.

Moreover and higher q induces a higher t but a higher q also implies $\gamma_T(a_0, \omega_H) \approx \gamma(a_0, \omega_H)$. Combine this with the observation that a higher q implies $\mu_{p,\emptyset}$ would more likely be inside $\triangle HLL0$ and the distance between $\mu_{p,\emptyset}$ and γ_P^0 increases with q . At $q = 1$ both $\gamma_P^0, \mu_{p,\emptyset} \in \triangle HLL0$ and at $q = 0$, $\gamma_P^0 \in \triangle HLL0$ but $\mu_{p,\emptyset} \in \square L0$. This implies there exists $q \geq q_3$ such that all the conditions hold. Note that, since $\gamma_P(a_L, \omega | \gamma^0 \in \triangle HLL0) < \gamma_P(a_L, \omega | \gamma^0 \in \square L0)$ we also get $q_3 < q_1$. Thus there exists $q \in [\min\{q_2, q_3\}, q_1]$ such that $\gamma_P^0 \in \triangle HLL0$ and $\mu_{p,\emptyset} \in \square L0$.

Consider the following mapping g_1 that maps $q \in (\min\{q_2, q_3\}, q_1)$ to an interim belief $\mu \in \text{int}(\square L0)$. This mapping would be continuous in q by Bayes Law. Consider the mapping g_2 that takes interim belief $\mu \in \text{int}(\square L0)$ to a unconditional probability distribution $P_p(a)$. This mapping is continuous in μ by lemma 4. Consider the mapping g_3 that maps $P(a_p)(a)$ to a learning strategy γ_P^0 , which is also continuous in $P_p(a)$ by lemma 4. Consider a final mapping g_4 from γ_P^0 to $q \in (\min\{q_2, q_3\}, q_1)$ such that $\mu_{p,\emptyset} \in \square L0$. This mapping will also be continuous in γ_P^0 by Bayes law. Thus $g_1 \circ g_2 \circ g_3 \circ g_4$ is continuous and a fixed point exists by Brouwer's FP theorem. In the case where $(\min\{q_2, q_3\}, q_1)$ is an empty set, we get $q_2 = q_1$. Setting $q = q_1 = q_2$ would generate an equilibrium value of q .

To find the equilibrium under this strategy we need to solve for the optimal q . Let us rewrite the expected payoff of the planner in terms of q as follows:

$$V(q) = E_{\mu_0}(v(a, \omega, q)) - K(\lambda, \mu_0, q)$$

Thus $V(q)$ is twice continuously differentiable and bounded for all $q \in [\min\{q_2, q_3\}, q_1]$. As q increases two opposing effect takes place, namely, the expected payoff from a_L increases, increasing V but the cost of learning for a_0 also increases, decreasing V . Given λ , if either effect dominates for the entire range of q then we obtain a corner solution, if not there exists an interior \hat{q} that maximizes $V(q)$.

Hence, proved. □

A.6 Proof of Theorem 2

Proof. We will prove the theorem in three steps. First, we will compare the payoff function of the planner under strategic communication and full compliance. Second, we will rewrite the relationship between posterior probability and payoff function. Third, we will consider various possible cases under different parameters and show in which state the planner is more likely to make mistakes under strategic communication.

Step 1: Let us rewrite the payoff of the planner under strategic communication and compare it with the full compliance payoff. Under full compliance, the payoff of the planner is given by the planner's utility function $v(a, \omega)$ since there is no distortion due to the agent's action. However, under strategic communication when the planner does not send any recommendation the agent learns on their own which changes the planner's payoff. The following denotes the payoff of the planner under strategic communication,

$$\begin{aligned} v_S(a_H, \omega) &= v(a_H, \omega); \\ v_S(a_L, \omega) &= qv(a_L, \omega); \quad \text{where } q = \hat{q} + (1 - \hat{q})q' \\ v_S(a_0, \omega) &= q'v(a_L, \omega) \end{aligned}$$

where q' denotes the unconditional probability with which the agent chooses a_L following no recommendation.

Since, strategic communication does not change the payoff from choosing action a_H in any state, the only two differences we will study are $\Delta_0 = v(a_0, \omega_0) - v(a_L, \omega_0)$ and $\Delta_L = v(a_L, \omega_L) - v(a_0, \omega_L)$.

Step 2: Let $P_S(a, \omega)$ and $P_C(a, \omega)$ denote the conditional probability of choosing a in state ω under strategic communication and full compliance resp. We can write them as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{P_S(a_i, \omega)}{1 - P_S(a_i, \omega)} &= \frac{P_S(a_i)z_S(a_i, \omega)}{\sum_{j \neq i} P_S(a_j)z_S(a_j, \omega)}; \quad z_S(a_i, \omega) = \exp(v_S(a_i, \omega)/\lambda); \\ \frac{P_C(a_i, \omega)}{1 - P_C(a_i, \omega)} &= \frac{P_C(a_i)z_C(a_i, \omega)}{\sum_{j \neq i} P_C(a_j)z_C(a_j, \omega)}; \quad z_C(a_i, \omega) = \exp(v(a_i, \omega)/\lambda). \end{aligned}$$

Note that,

$$z_S(a_0, \omega_0) < z_C(a_0, \omega_0); z_S(a_0, \omega_L) > z_C(a_0, \omega_L); z_S(a_0, \omega_H) > z_C(a_0, \omega_H); \quad \forall q' \in (0, 1)$$

$$z_S(a_L, \omega_L) < z_C(a_L, \omega_L); z_S(a_L, \omega_0) > z_C(a_L, \omega_0); z_S(a_L, \omega_H) < z_C(a_L, \omega_H); \quad \forall q \in (0, 1)$$

But,

$$z_S(a_H, \omega) = z_C(a_H, \omega) \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega$$

Step 3: Let us consider possible values of \hat{q} and q' that determine the learning strategy under strategic communication. Let μ_N denote the intermediate belief following no recommendation. A higher q' is generated by higher $P(a_L|\mu_N)$, which can happen if Δ_0 is sufficiently low and Δ_L is sufficiently high, i.e., the mistake from choosing a_0 in ω_L outweighs the mistake of choosing a_L in ω_0 . Also, a higher \hat{q} reduces $P(a_l|\mu_N)$, since it denotes a lower probability of the optimal action being a_L following no recommendation. Combining these two we explore the following possibilities.

Case 1: $P_S(a_0) > P_C(a_0)$ and $P_S(a_L) > P_C(a_L)$ such that,

$$\frac{P_S(a_0, \omega_0)}{1 - P_S(a_0, \omega_0)} > \frac{P_C(a_0, \omega_0)}{1 - P_C(a_0, \omega_0)}; \frac{P_S(a_L, \omega_L)}{1 - P_S(a_L, \omega_L)} > \frac{P_C(a_L, \omega_0)}{1 - P_C(a_L, \omega_0)}.$$

The first inequality implies $z_S(a_0, \omega_L) \gg z_C(a_0, \omega_L)$, and $z_S(a_0, \omega_H) \gg z_C(a_0, \omega_H)$. The second inequality implies $z_S(a_L, \omega_0) \gg z_C(a_L, \omega_0)$. These two conditions together imply high q' and low q , which cannot be true.

Case 2: $P_S(a_0) < P_C(a_0)$ and $P_S(a_L) < P_C(a_L)$ such that,

$$\frac{P_S(a_0, \omega_0)}{1 - P_S(a_0, \omega_0)} < \frac{P_C(a_0, \omega_0)}{1 - P_C(a_0, \omega_0)}; \frac{P_S(a_L, \omega_L)}{1 - P_S(a_L, \omega_L)} < \frac{P_C(a_L, \omega_0)}{1 - P_C(a_L, \omega_0)}.$$

This first inequality implies $z_S(a_0, \omega_L) \approx z_C(a_0, \omega_L)$ and $z_S(a_0, \omega_H) \approx z_C(a_0, \omega_H)$. The second inequality implies $z_S(a_L, \omega_0) \approx z_C(a_L, \omega_0)$. These two conditions together imply low q' and high q , which can be achieved with high \hat{q} . In this case, strategic communication generates more mistakes in learning in both ω_0 and ω_L .

Case 3: $P_S(a_0) > P_C(a_0)$ and $P_S(a_L) \cong P_C(a_L)$ such that

$$\frac{P_S(a_0, \omega_0)}{1 - P_S(a_0, \omega_0)} \geq \frac{P_C(a_0, \omega_0)}{1 - P_C(a_0, \omega_0)}; \frac{P_S(a_L, \omega_L)}{1 - P_S(a_L, \omega_L)} < \frac{P_C(a_L, \omega_0)}{1 - P_C(a_L, \omega_0)}.$$

This first inequality implies $z_S(a_0, \omega_L) \gg z_C(a_0, \omega_L)$, and $z_S(a_0, \omega_H) \gg z_C(a_0, \omega_H)$. The second inequality implies $z_S(a_L, \omega_0) \geq z_C(a_L, \omega_0)$. These two conditions together imply high q' and intermediate q , which can be achieved by a sufficiently high \hat{q} . This

implies $\Delta_L \gg \Delta_0$, i.e., it is more costly to make mistake in ω_L than in ω_0 . In this case under strategic communication, the planner makes more mistakes in state ω_L .

Case 4: $P_S(a_0) \gtrless P_C(a_0)$ and $P_S(a_L) > P_C(a_L)$ such that

$$\frac{P_S(a_0, \omega_0)}{1 - P_S(a_0, \omega_0)} < \frac{P_C(a_0, \omega_0)}{1 - P_C(a_0, \omega_0)}, \frac{P_S(a_L, \omega_L)}{1 - P_S(a_L, \omega_L)} \geq \frac{P_C(a_L, \omega_0)}{1 - P_C(a_L, \omega_0)}.$$

The first inequality requires $z_S(a_0, \omega_L) \geq z_C(a_0, \omega_L)$ and $z_S(a_0, \omega_H) \geq z_C(a_0, \omega_H)$. The second inequality requires $z_S(a_L, \omega_0) \gg z_C(a_L, \omega_0)$. These two conditions together imply intermediate q' and low q , which can be achieved with low \hat{q} . This implies $\Delta_L \ll \Delta_0$, i.e., it is more costly to make mistake in ω_0 than in ω_L . In this case under strategic communication, the planner makes more mistakes in state ω_0 .

Hence, proved. □