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Abstract

Investors who maximize subjective expected utility will generally trade in an asset unless the market price exactly equals the expected return, but few people participate in the stock market. [Dow and da Costa Werlang, *Econometrica* 1992] show that an ambiguity averse decision maker might abstain from trading in an asset for a wide interval of prices and use this fact to explain the lack of participation in the stock market. We show that when markets operate via limit orders, all investment behavior will be observationally equivalent to maximizing subjective expected utility; ambiguity aversion has no additional explanatory power.

Introduction

Consider a decision maker who can buy or (short) sell an asset. If the decision maker acts according to the [Gilboa and Schmeidler \(1989\)](#) multiple prior

*Examples similar to our motivating example have been studied by Dominique Paper and Peter Habiger in their respective master theses written under the supervision of Christoph Kuzmics. We are grateful to both as well as Patrick Beissner, Frank Riedel, Jan Werner, and Michael Zierhut as well as seminar audiences at the University of Bielefeld, Caltech, UC Irvine, University of Minnesota, Vienna University of Business and Economics, and participants of the VII Hurwicz workshop in Warsaw for valuable comments and suggestions.

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model, different probabilities will, in general, be used to calculate the gains from buying and selling, respectively, and the resulting wedge in expected returns can allow for both buying and selling to be worse than abstaining from any trade. There can be nontrivial intervals of prices at which the decision maker is not willing to trade. This cannot happen with a standard subjective expected utility maximizer. [Dow and da Costa Werlang \(1992\)](#) have argued that ambiguity aversion¹ can, therefore, explain why many people refrain from trading stocks.

We show that this result hinges on how exactly trading is modeled. If decision makers submit (generalized) limit orders, no behavior can arise in standard models of ambiguity averse decision makers that cannot occur under subjective expected utility maximization. We only rely on the requirement, satisfied by all decision theories satisfying a weak monotonicity condition, that a decision maker makes no strictly dominated choices.²

The model of [Dow and da Costa Werlang \(1992\)](#) is given as the leading example in [Gilboa, Postlewaite, and Schmeidler \(2008\)](#) and [Gilboa and Marinacci \(2013\)](#) for why the [Gilboa and Schmeidler \(1989\)](#) multiple prior model leads to economically significantly different behavior than any subjective expected utility model. [Easley and O'Hara \(2009\)](#) examine the consequences for a number of issues arising in the regulation of financial markets.

The portfolio inertia implicit in the [Dow and da Costa Werlang \(1992\)](#) model also appears in the dynamic asset pricing model of [Epstein and Wang \(1994\)](#). An important implication for equilibrium theory is that supporting prices are robustly not unique and therefore equilibria locally indeterminate. [Rigotti and Shannon \(2012\)](#) show, however, that equilibria in such general equilibrium models with both risk and uncertainty are generically

¹Not all models of ambiguity averse decision making will give rise to this form of non-participation; see the discussion in [Epstein and Schneider \(2010\)](#).

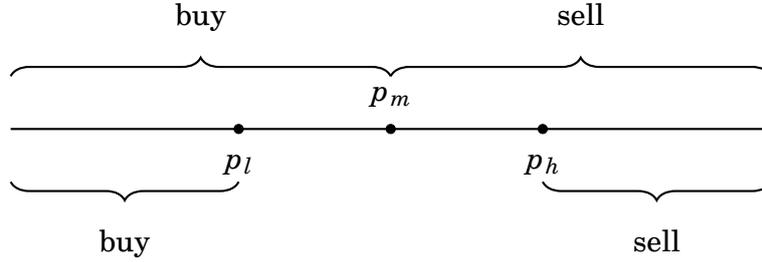
²These include, among others, the maxmin expected utility model of [Gilboa and Schmeidler \(1989\)](#), the Choquet expected utility model of [Schmeidler \(1989\)](#), the smooth ambiguity model of [Klibanoff et al. \(2005\)](#), the variational and multiplier preference models of [Maccheroni et al. \(2006\)](#) and [Hansen and Sargent \(2001\)](#), confidence function preferences of [Chateauneuf and Faro \(2009\)](#), uncertainty aversion preferences of [Cerreia-Vioglio, Maccheroni, Marinacci, and Montrucchio \(2011\)](#), and the incomplete preference model of [Bewley \(2002\)](#).

determinate. However indeterminacy is robust if preferences are of the [Be-wley \(2002\)](#) incomplete type, see [Rigotti and Shannon \(2005\)](#), or there is uncertainty in the price system as in [Beissner and Riedel \(2019\)](#).

Motivating Example

We illustrate our central point in terms of the leading example of [Dow and da Costa Werlang \(1992\)](#). There is one asset whose future value can be either -1 or 1 . A risk-neutral decision-maker is faced with a price of p and asked to either buy one unit of the asset, (short) sell one unit of the asset, or not trade at all. If the decision maker maximizes subjective expected utility with respect to some belief ρ on the value being 1 , not trading can only be optimal if $\rho 1 + (1 - \rho)(-1) = p$. Suppose now that the decision maker behaves according to the multiple prior model of [Gilboa and Schmeidler \(1989\)](#) and has two priors $\rho_l < \rho_h$ in their set of priors. There is a whole interval at which it is optimal not to trade; buying is only optimal, if $\rho_l - (1 - \rho_l) \geq p$ and selling is only optimal if $\rho_h - (1 - \rho_h) \leq p$.

We now consider a situation in which the decision maker has to submit a (generalized) limit order before prices realize. To mimic the economic behavior from before, the decision maker must choose a limit order such that for some $p_l < p_h$ the limit order prescribes buying for prices below p_l , selling for prices above p_h , and not trading for prices in between. To evaluate the returns from such a limit order, the decision maker needs a model of price formation. Sticking closely to the example of [Dow and da Costa Werlang \(1992\)](#), we assume that prices are not informative regarding the future value of the asset. Prices are distributed according to a full support distribution without mass points on the real line. We show that the mentioned limit order is always strictly dominated by a simple threshold limit order that prescribes selling above a given price p_m and buying below this price. To do so, take p_m to be the unique point between p_l and p_h such that the probability of prices being in the intervals $[p_l, p_m]$ and $[p_m, p_h]$ is the same; in other words p_m is the median price conditional on the price falling in the interval $[p_l, p_h]$.



Any payoff difference comes from how the limit orders behave in the interval $[p_l, p_h]$. The original limit order generates an expected return of zero on this interval under both priors. The new threshold limit order will, conditional on the price being in the interval $[p_l, p_h]$, buy with probability $1/2$ at the comparatively low prices between p_l and p_m and with probability $1/2$ sell at the comparatively high price between p_m and p_h . This leads to an additional positive return that is independent of the priors; the original limit order is strictly dominated. Another way to see this is to consider the possibility that the decision maker can randomize and buy and sell with probability $1/2$ each for each price in $[p_l, p_h]$. The expected surplus would still be zero in the interval independent of the prior. But the threshold limit order we constructed also buys and sells with probability $1/2$ in the interval but buys when prices are low and sells when prices are high. This generates an additional expected return and requires no randomization. While our argument here only shows that a certain interval limit order is dominated, it follows from Theorem 3 below that only threshold limit orders are undominated in this example.

A peculiar, and somewhat unrealistic, property of the example above is that prices are not informative about the value of the asset. If the decision maker has some models in mind of how prices and values are (stochastically) related, not trading can even be optimal for someone maximizing subjective expected utility. This is the case if and only if the expected value at a price, averaged over all models according to a probabilistic belief, equals that price. At this price the market is efficient in this averaged model. Ambiguity aversion cannot supply additional reasons for nonparticipation; this

is the content of Theorem 2.

The key insight needed to prove Theorems 2 and 3 is this. Every limit order that cannot be rationalized as subjective expected utility maximization must be strictly dominated; this is the content of Lemma 1. Moreover, and crucially, it must be strictly dominated by a non-randomized limit order; this follows from Theorem 1. This difference matters. Indeed, Raiffa (1961) already pointed out that in the thought experiments of Ellsberg (1961), ambiguity avoiding choices are strictly dominated by behavior that conditions on randomization devices such as coins. This insight holds outside the thought experiments of Ellsberg: As a consequence of standard dominance characterizations that have roots in classical decision theory Kuzmics (2017) has recently shown in the Anscombe and Aumann (1963) framework that any choices that cannot be rationalized as subjective expected utility maximization must be strictly dominated by a randomized choice.³ Our Lemma 1 is a version of the same result in our setting.

While according to most standard (normative) decision theories (all that satisfy a weak monotonicity condition; see Footnote 2), a decision maker cannot make a choice that is dominated by a deterministic choice, it is less clear whether such a decision maker can make a choice that is dominated only by a random choice. After having thrown a coin, a decision-maker is in the same situation as before, only one coin flip richer. In order to use randomization, an ambiguity averse decision maker needs a way to commit to randomization.⁴ In the more special setting of our model, randomization by limit orders can be approximated by deterministic limit orders. If a limit order is dominated by some randomized limit order, there must be a deterministic limit order close by in an appropriate topology that also dominates the initial limit order. For this reason, not being dominated by a deterministic limit order is the same as not being dominated by a randomized limit

³See, among others, Wald (1947), Pearce (1984), and Battigalli et al. (2016) for characterizations of dominance.

⁴In the absence of commitment Saito (2015) and Ke and Zhang (2017) discuss possible ways of evaluating random choices. A discussion of this issue has also led to the preference model in Seo (2009). See also Battigalli, Cerreia-Vioglio, Maccheroni, and Marinacci (2017), Eichberger, Grant, and Kelsey (2016) and Kuzmics (2017) for a discussion of this commitment issue.

order; this is our Theorem 1. So standard models of ambiguity aversion do not allow for choices of limit orders that are dominated by deterministic limit orders and subjective expected utility maximizers only exclude limit orders dominated by randomized limit orders. In our setting, there is no difference between these forms of domination, so only choices compatible with subjective expected utility maximization are possible.

Model and Results

The decision maker faces uncertainty over which probabilistic model best describes the relationship between the market price of an asset and its payoff. These probabilistic models are given by a family of density functions, parametrized by a space Y . More precisely, we assume there is a compact metrizable parameter set Y and a bounded nonnegative measurable function $h : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times Y$ continuous in Y such that

$$\int \int h(p, x, y) \, dp \, dx = 1$$

for all $y \in Y$ and that there is a nonnegative measurable function $d : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying $\int \int d \, dp \, dx < \infty$ such that

$$|p - x| h(p, x, y) \leq d(p, x)$$

for all $p, x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $y \in Y$.⁵ The main restriction imposed by the existence of the dominating integrable function d is that the tails of all distributions vanish sufficiently fast in a uniform way. For example, h could be the density of a bivariate normal distribution or bivariate t-distribution with degrees of freedom $2 + \epsilon$ (with $\epsilon > 0$ arbitrarily small), and Y a compact set of pairs of means and invertible covariance matrices.⁶ A possible choice of the bound-

⁵The double integrals on $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ are taken with respect to two-dimensional Lebesgue measure, but our proofs shows that we could use any product of σ -finite measures as long as the first factor is nonatomic. All measurability conditions are with respect to the respective Borel σ -algebras.

⁶These examples include therefore bivariate distributions with existing means and variance but not necessarily existing kurtosis. In other words, these examples include bivariate

ing function d for all these cases would be a scaled up joint density of two independent t-distributions with degree of freedom strictly between 1 and $1 + \epsilon$.

In contrast to [Dow and da Costa Werlang \(1992\)](#), we assume the decision maker acts before prices are known and chooses a limit order. A *limit order* is a measurable function from \mathbb{R} into the set $A = \{b, s, n\}$ (buy, sell, do nothing.) More precisely, limit orders are taken to be equivalence classes of measurable functions from \mathbb{R} to A with two such functions being equivalent if they agree outside a set of measure zero. We denote the set of limit orders by L and endow it with the topology of convergence in measure.⁷ We embed L in the space of *mixed limit orders* $\Delta(L)$ via point masses. We generally allow our decision maker to choose mixed limit orders, but an essential part of our argument is that this really makes no difference. There is a payoff function $v : \mathbb{R} \times A \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$v(p, a, x) = \begin{cases} x - p & \text{for } a = b, \\ p - x & \text{for } a = s \\ 0 & \text{for } a = n. \end{cases}$$

The expected payoff from $\mu \in \Delta(L)$ if the parameter is y is

$$V(\mu, y) = \int \int \int v(p, l(p), x) h(x, p, y) dp dx d\mu(l).$$

The restrictions to risk neutrality and the limited trading options are inessential to our argument; see our discussion at the end. If we take the state space to be Y and the set of outcomes to be the financial gains in \mathbb{R} , each limit order l defines an Anscombe-Aumann act that maps the state y distributions with very heavy tails.

⁷Since we are working with Lebesgue measure and not a probability measure, we define convergence in measure so that a sequence of limit orders converges in measure to a limit order l if every subsequence has a further subsequence converging almost everywhere to the limit order l . This topology depends only on which sets have measure zero. The resulting topology on L is Polish. Indeed, it follows [Dudley \(2002, Theorems 9.2.1 to 9.2.3\)](#) that this defines a completely metrizable space. Let \mathcal{C} be a countable algebra generating the Borel σ -algebra on \mathbb{R} . The countable family of \mathcal{C} -measurable limit orders is a countable dense subset of L , so L is separable.

to the probability distribution on \mathbb{R} that assigns to each Borel set $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ the probability

$$\int \int 1_{\{(p,x)|v(p,l(p),x) \in B\}} h(p,x,y) dp dx.$$

Our setting, therefore, fits within the usual Anscombe-Aumann framework that forms the basis for the development of most models of ambiguity aversion.

We say that $\mu' \in \Delta(L)$ *strictly dominates* $\mu \in \Delta(L)$ if $V(\mu', y) > V(\mu, y)$ for all $y \in Y$. A mixed limit order that is not strictly dominated by another mixed limit order is *undominated*. A mixed limit order that is not strictly dominated by a (nonrandomized) limit order is *deterministically undominated*. The following lemma gives a version of the familiar characterization of undominated choices from statistical decision theory and game theory.

Lemma 1. *A mixed limit order μ is undominated if and only if there exists a probability distribution $\rho \in \Delta(Y)$ such that μ is a maximizer of $\int V(\cdot, y) d\rho(y)$.*

As discussed before, ambiguity aversion generates a demand for a commitment to randomization. But in the present setting, commitment to approximate randomization is always possible and we can use this to show that a mixed limit order dominated by another mixed limit order must already be dominated by a deterministic limit order.

Theorem 1. *A mixed limit order μ is undominated if and only if it is deterministically undominated.*

Theorem 1 is our central conceptual result. Next, we use it to show that one can rationalize nonparticipation with ambiguity averse preferences only if one can already rationalize nonparticipation for a subjective expected utility maximizer. A subjective expected utility maximizer will in general only abstain from trading if they believe that, on average over the models considered, the expected payoff equals the price. This is slightly more general than saying that each model (each distribution induced by some $y \in Y$) satisfies the efficient market hypothesis at that price.

For each $\rho \in \Delta(Y)$, we let ρ_P be the marginal with respect to the first coordinate of the probability measure on $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times Y$ with density h under $\lambda \otimes$

$\lambda \otimes \rho$ with λ being Lebesgue measure. We call

$$M_\rho = \left\{ p \in \mathbb{R} \mid \int \int |p - x| h(p, x, y) \, dx \, d\rho(y) = 0 \right\}$$

the *martingale part* of ρ .

Theorem 2. *Let μ be an undominated mixed limit order. Then there exists $\rho \in \Delta(Y)$ such that $\rho_P(l^{-1}(n) \setminus M_\rho) = 0$ for μ almost all l .*

The belief ρ is exactly a belief a subjective expected utility maximizer might hold to justify nonparticipation.

Implicit in the setting of [Dow and da Costa Werlang \(1992\)](#) is that prices are not informative in terms of payoffs. To represent this, we now assume that prices are not a signal of payoffs or models. In that case, we recover the insight from our example that all trading behavior must be determined by a threshold. A *threshold limit order* is a limit order l such that for some threshold $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $l(p) = b$ if $p \leq t$ and $l(p) = s$ if $p > t$.

Theorem 3. *Suppose there exists a strictly positive measurable function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a measurable function $g : \mathbb{R} \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $h(p, x, y) = f(p)g(x, y)$ for all p, x, y . Then every undominated mixed limit order is a threshold limit order.*

The strict positivity of f in [Theorem 3](#) guarantees that we introduce no new null sets in the price distribution.

Discussion

The most obvious restrictions are that our decision maker is risk neutral and can trade at most one unit of the asset. The argument is essentially unchanged if the decision maker is weakly risk-averse and at a wealth level at which the felicity function is differentiable (almost every wealth level will do by Rademacher's theorem). The decision maker is then locally risk neutral. The set of trading opportunities need not be finite but should be a compact

interval. If there are limits to borrowing and short-selling, this will automatically be satisfied. In particular, nothing in the proofs of Lemma 1 and Theorem 1 depends on A being finite; they only depend on A being compact metrizable and v being continuous. The remaining proofs require only straightforward modifications.

The formalism we use deserves some discussion. For the proof of Lemma 1, we need expected payoffs to be jointly continuous in mixed limit orders and beliefs over Y . Without some restriction of the dependence between the distributions of prices and payoffs, this will generally not be possible. The approach we have taken is inspired by the existence results for Bayesian games of Milgrom and Weber (1985) and Balder (1988). Stinchcombe (2011) discusses discontinuities that can arise when one disposes of the “diffuseness condition” that we employ implicitly by requiring the joint distribution of prices and payoffs to be absolutely continuous with respect to a product measure.

Our formalism uses randomized limit orders. The commonly employed simplification of the approach of Anscombe and Aumann (1963) due to Fishburn (1970) does not allow for randomization over “acts.” However, Theorem 1 shows that we do not need any randomization over limit orders. Mixed limit orders can be taken to be ancillary mathematical objects; they are not essential to the main conclusion.

In general, there are problems with randomizing over measurable functions as Aumann (1961) showed. The problem there is that pointwise evaluation of measurable functions is in general not measurable, no matter the σ -algebra one puts on the space of measurable functions. But limit orders are really equivalence classes of measurable functions that are not evaluated pointwise but by integration. The problems Aumann (1961) raised do, therefore, not affect our arguments.

Proofs

In what follows, we replace the product Lebesgue measure $\lambda \otimes \lambda$ on $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ by the product of two probability measures $\pi \otimes \xi$ that are both mutu-

ally absolutely continuous with respect to λ . As we will, see all we really need is that π is atomless. The change of the underlying measures will not affect the validity of our assumptions. Let r_π be a nonnegative Radon-Nikodym derivative of λ with respect to π and r_ξ be a nonnegative Radon-Nikodym derivative of λ with respect to ξ . Let $d' : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by $d'(p, x) = d(p, x)r_\pi(p)r_\xi(x)$ and let $h' : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by $h'(p, x, y) = h(p, x, y)r_\pi(p)r_\xi(x)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int \int d(p, x) \, d\pi \, dx &= \int d(p, x) \, d\lambda \otimes \lambda(p, x) = \int r_\pi(p) \int d(p, x)r_\xi(x) \, d\xi(x) \, d\pi(p) \\ &= \int r_\pi(p)r_\xi(p)d(p, x) \, d\pi \otimes \xi = \int d' \, d\pi \otimes \xi(p, x), \end{aligned}$$

so d' is $\pi \otimes \xi$ -integrable. Clearly, $h'(p, x, y) \leq d'(p, x)$ for all $y \in Y$. Also, we have by a similar argument that $\int h'(p, x, y) \, \pi \otimes \xi(p, x) = \int h(p, x, y) \, d\lambda \otimes \lambda(p, x)$ for all $y \in Y$. So we can assume without loss of generality that our assumptions hold for the product of two probability measures.

Proof of Lemma 1. Let $\Delta_\pi(\mathbb{R} \times A)$ be the space of Borel probability measures on $\mathbb{R} \times A$ with \mathbb{R} -marginal π . We define $\phi : \Delta(L) \rightarrow \Delta_\pi(\mathbb{R} \times A)$ by

$$\phi_\mu(B) = \int \int 1_B(p, l(p)) \, d\pi(p) \, d\mu(l)$$

for each Borel set $B \subseteq \mathbb{R} \times A$. It follows from [Balder \(1981, Theorem 7.1\)](#) or the results in [Ghoussoub \(1982, Section I\)](#) that ϕ is a surjection. Moreover,

$$\begin{aligned} V(\mu, y) &= \int \int v(p, l(p), x)h(p, x, y) \, d\pi \otimes \xi(p, x) \, d\mu(l) \\ &= \int \int \int v(p, l(p), x)h(p, x, y) \, d\pi(p) \, d\mu(l) \, d\xi(x) \\ &= \int \int v(p, a, x)h(p, x, y) \, d\phi_\mu(p, a) \, d\xi(x), \end{aligned}$$

so we can study undominated mixed limit orders in terms of $\Delta_\pi(\mathbb{R} \times A)$. We can identify $\Delta_\pi(\mathbb{R} \times A)$ with a convex and compact subset of a locally convex Hausdorff topological vector space as in [Balder \(1988\)](#) by endowing $\Delta_\pi(\mathbb{R} \times A)$ with the narrow topology on Young measures. It follows from the Scorza-

Dragoni Theorem, see [Denkowski, Migórski, and Papageorgiou \(2003, Theorem 2.5.19\)](#), that this topology coincides with the usual topology of weak convergence of measures.

We can then, abusing notation a bit, treat V as a continuous function $V : \Delta_\pi(\mathbb{R} \times A) \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We can also identify Y homeomorphically with a closed subset of the weak*-compact set $\Delta(Y)$ via the embedding $y \mapsto \delta_y$. Abusing notation a bit more, we can extend V to a bilinear function $V : \Delta_\pi(\mathbb{R} \times A) \times \Delta(Y)$. V thus extended is continuous by [Balder \(1988, Theorem 2.5\)](#). By [Phelps \(2001, Proposition 1.2\)](#), $\Delta(Y)$ is, under the embedding, the closed convex hull of Y . So by [Battigalli, Cerreia-Vioglio, Maccheroni, and Marinacci \(2016, Lemma 1\)](#), an element τ of $\Delta_\pi(\mathbb{R} \times A)$ is undominated if and only if $\tau \in \operatorname{argmax} V(\cdot, \rho)$ for some $\rho \in \Delta(Y)$. \square

Proof of Proposition 1. One direction is trivial. For the other direction, assume that μ' strictly dominates μ . By the Berge maximum theorem, the function $\kappa \mapsto \min_y V(\kappa, y) - V(\mu, y)$ is continuous. By assumption, it achieves a strictly positive value at μ' . To finish the proof, we make use of the fact that the set of deterministic limit orders, embedded via the function $l \mapsto \phi_{\delta_l}$, is dense in $\Delta_\pi(\mathbb{R} \times A)$ when π is nonatomic. This denseness is familiar from the optimal control literature, the classic reference being [Warga \(1972, Theorem IV.2.6; 6\)](#). By this denseness, there exists a deterministic limit order l such that $\min_y V(l, y) - V(\mu, y) > 0$. Then μ is dominated by the deterministic limit order l . \square

Proof of Theorem 2. Let μ be undominated. By Proposition 1, there exists $\rho \in \Delta(Y)$ such that μ is a maximizer of $\int V(\cdot, y) d\rho(y)$. For this to be possible, μ almost all l must be maximizers of $\int V(\cdot, y) d\rho(y)$. Such l must prescribe a conditional best response at ρ_P -almost every price p . If $\int \int h(p, x, y) d\xi(x) d\rho(y) < p$, the unique best response is s and if $\int \int h(p, x, y) d\xi(x) d\rho(y) > p$, the unique best response is b . \square

Proof of Theorem 3. Let $\mu \in \Delta(L)$ be undominated. Since μ is undominated there must be, by Lemma 1, some $\rho \in \Delta(Y)$ such that μ maximizes

$\int V(\cdot, y) d\rho(y)$. Now

$$\begin{aligned}\int V(\mu, y) d\rho(y) &= \int \int \int v(p, l(p), x) h(p, x, y) d\pi \otimes \xi(p, x) d\mu(l) d\rho(y) \\ &= \int \int \int \int v(p, l(p), x) f(p) g(x, y) d\xi(x) d\rho(y) d\pi(p) d\mu(l).\end{aligned}$$

By a standard argument, for this to be maximal l must maximize

$$\begin{aligned}&\int \int \int v(p, l(p), x) f(p) g(x, y) d\xi(x) d\rho(y) d\pi(p) \\ &= \int f(p) \int \int v(p, l(p), x) g(x, y) d\xi(x) d\rho(y) d\pi(p)\end{aligned}$$

for μ -almost all l and for such l , for similar reasons, $l(p)$ must then maximize

$$\int \int v(p, l(p), x) f(p) g(x, y) d\xi(x) d\rho(y)$$

for π -almost all p . But this can be checked by going through the cases, the value of the double integral is

$$\int \int x \cdot g(x, y) d\xi(x) d\rho(y) - p$$

for $l(p) = b$,

$$p - \int \int x \cdot g(x, y) d\xi(x) d\rho(y)$$

for $l(p) = s$, and 0 for $l(p) = n$. But this forces l to be the threshold limit order with threshold $\int \int x \cdot g(x, y) d\xi(x) d\rho(y)$. In particular, μ must choose the limit order l with probability one and therefore be the threshold limit order with threshold $\int \int x \cdot g(x, y) d\xi(x) d\rho(y)$. \square

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