Theory of Risky Choice

Joseph Tao-yi Wang 2009/12/18

(Lecture 15, Micro Theory I)

Theory of Risky Choice



- We analyzed preferences, utility and choices
- Apply them to study risk and uncertainty
 - Preference for probabilities
 - Expected Utility
- Discuss Experimental Anomalies
 - Allais paradox and Ellsberg paradox
 - Bayes' Rule paradoxes: Soft vs. Hard probability, Game show paradox (Monty Hall problem)
 - Rabin paradox

States and Probabilities

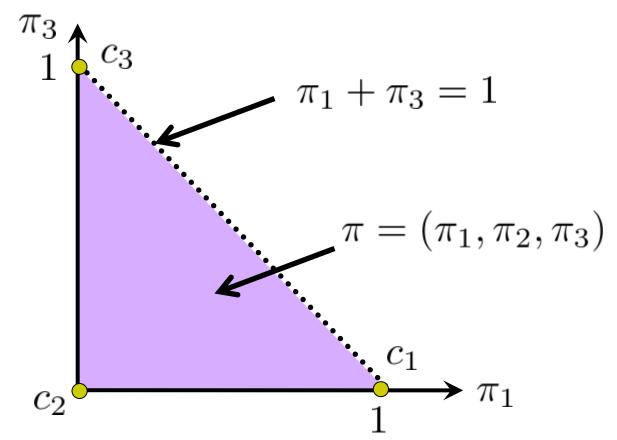


- Consequence c_s happens in state $s = 1, \cdots, S$
- Assign (subjective) probability π_s to state s
- A prospect $(\pi; c) = ((\pi_1, \cdots, \pi_S); (c_1, \cdots, c_S)))$
 - People have preferences for these prospects
- Under the Axioms of Consumer Choice, exists continuous $U(\pi; c)$ representing these pref.
- If we fix consequences; focus on probabilities $U(\pi;c) = U(\pi) = U(\pi_1,\pi_2,\pi_3)$

States and Probabilities



• Assume $c_1 \succ c_2 \succ c_3$, show all possible probabilities on 2D: $\pi = (\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3)$



Compound Prospect (Compound Lottery)

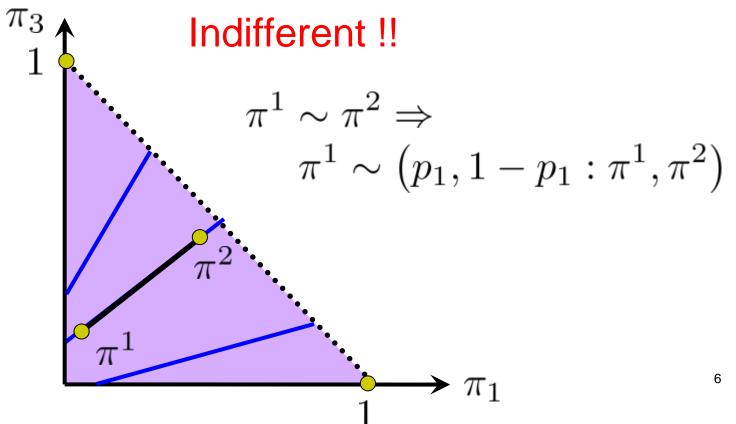


• If I offer you $\pi^1 = (\pi_1^1, \pi_2^1, \pi_3^1)$ with prob. p_1 , and • $\pi^2 = (\pi_1^2, \pi_2^2, \pi_3^2)$ with probability $p_2 = 1 - p_1$ $\pi_3 \uparrow$ Compound Prospect: $\hat{\pi} = (p_1, p_2 : \pi^1, \pi^2)$ $= p_1 \pi^1 + (1 - p_1) \pi^2$ 5

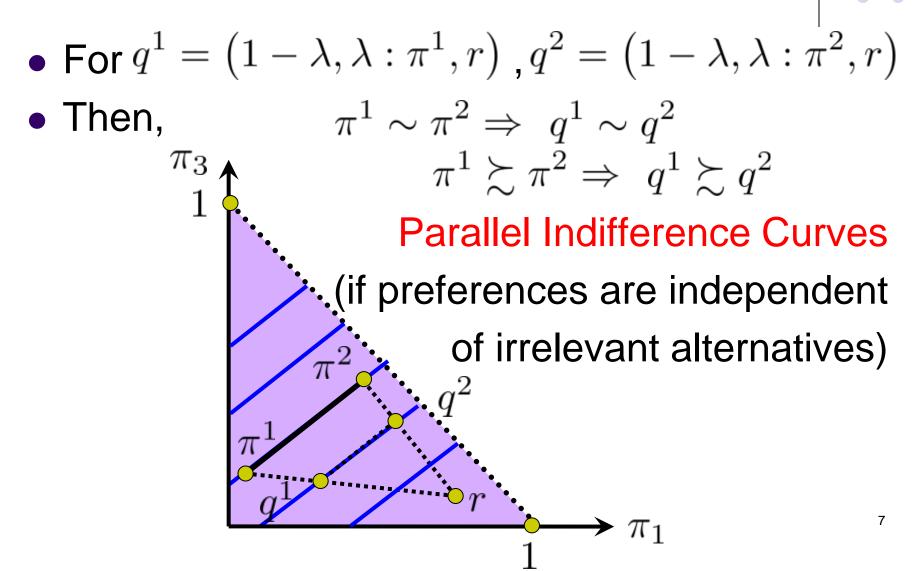
Linear Indifference Curves



- If you are indifferent between π^1 and π^2
- How would you feel about randomizing them?



When Would Indifference Curves Become Parallel?



Independence Axiom(s)



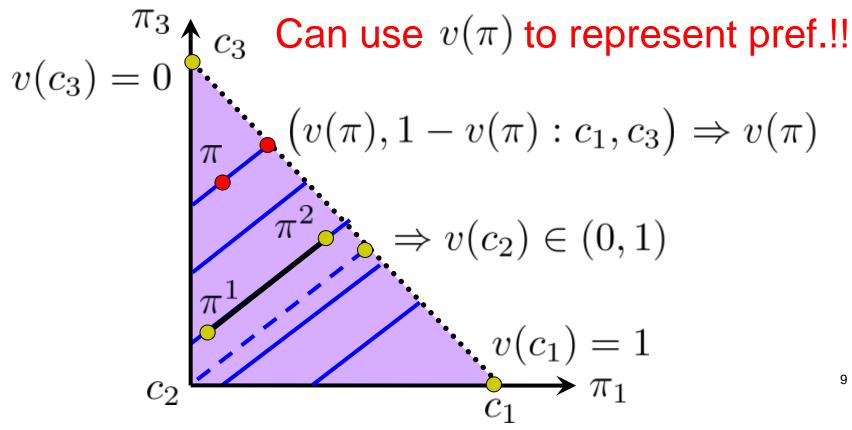
- (IA) If $\pi^1 \succeq \pi^2$, then for any prospect r and probabilities $p_1, p_2 > 0, p_1 + p_2 = 1$ $q^1 = (p_1, p_2 : \pi^1, r) \succeq (p_1, p_2 : \pi^2, r) = q^2$
- (IA') If $\pi^m \succeq \hat{\pi}^m, m = 1, \cdots, M$, then for any probability vector $p = (p_1, \cdots, p_M)$ $(p_1, \cdots, p_M : \pi^1, \cdots, \pi^M)$

$$\succeq \left(p_1, \cdots, p_M : \hat{\pi}^1, \cdots, \hat{\pi}^M\right)$$

Expected Utility



- For any prospect π , consider (on $\pi_1 + \pi_3 = 1$):
- Extreme lottery $(v(\pi), 0, 1 v(\pi)) \sim \pi$



Expected Utility



- In general, for any prospect $p = (p_1, \cdots, p_S)$
- The consumer is indifferent between *p* and playing the extreme lottery

$$\sum_{s=1}^{S} p_s v(c_s) \ 0, \cdots, 0, 1 - \sum_{s=1}^{S} p_s v(c_s) \right)$$

- Hence, we can represent her preferences with the above expected win probabilities
 - Expected Utility!!

Expected Utility Rule

- Assume (IA'), then
- Preferences over prospects

$$(p;c) = (p_1, \cdots, p_S; c_1, \cdots, c_S)$$

 Can be represented by the Von Neumann-Morgenstern utility function

$$u(p,c) = \sum_{s=1}^{S} p_s v(c_s)$$



Expected Utility Rule



- Proof: S consequences, best is c^* , worse is c_*
- Can assign probability for extreme lotteries:

$$e^s \equiv \left(v(c_s), 1 - v(c_s) : c^*, c_* \right) \sim c_s$$

- (IA') implies $(p; c) \sim (p_1, \cdots, p_S : e_1, \cdots, e_S)$ $\sim (u(p, c), 1 - u(p, c) : c^*, c_*)$ where $u(p, c) = \sum_{s=1}^{S} p_s v(c_s)$
- (by reducing compound prospects)



Experimental Anomalies

- Allais Paradox
- Ellsberg Paradox
- Bayes' Rule Paradoxes
 - Soft vs. Hard Probabilities
 - Game Show Paradox
- Rabin Paradox

Allais Paradox



- Consider four prospects:
- A. \$1 million for sure
- B. 90% chance \$5 million (& 10% chance zero)
- c. 10% chance \$1 million (& 90% chance zero)
- D. 9% chance \$5 million (& 91% chance zero)
- Among A and B, you choose...
- Among C and D, you choose...
- Is this consistent with Expected Utility???

Allais Paradox



- state 1: \$5 million; state 2: \$1 million; state 3: zero
- The four prospects become:
- A. \$1 million for sure -(0, 1, 0)
- в. 90% chance \$5 million (0.90, 0, 0.10)
- c. 10% chance \$1 million (0, 0.10, 0.90)
- D. 9% chance \$5 million -(0.09, 0, 0.91)
- (IA) suggests you should order "A and B" the same as "C and D". Did you?

Allais Paradox * 1,000

- A. \$1 billion for sure
- B. 90% chance \$5 billion (& 10% chance zero)
- c. 10% chance \$1 billion (& 90% chance zero)
- D. 9% chance \$5 billion (& 91% chance zero)
- Among A and B, you choose...
- Among C and D, you choose...
- Are your answers (still) consistent with Expected Utility? Why or why not?

Ellsberg Paradox



- One urn: 30 Black balls, and 60 "other balls"
 - Other balls could be either Red or Green
- One ball is drawn. You win \$100 if the ball is (a) Black or (b) Green. You pick...?
- Now you win \$50 if the ball is "either Red or another color you choose." Would you choose (a) Black or (b) Green?
- What did you choose? Did it violate EU?

Ellsberg Paradox



- 1. One ball is drawn. You win \$100 if the ball is (a) Black or (b) Green.
- Picking Black = Believe <30 Green balls
- Now you win if "either Red or another color." You choose (a) Black or (b) Green?
- Picking Green = Believe >30 Green balls
- Since it is the same urn, this is inconsistent!
 - Can this be due to hedging (risk aversion)?
 - Maybe, but can fix this by paying only 1 round...

Bayes' Rule Paradoxes: Soft vs. Hard Probabilities

- Two urns, each contain 100 balls.
- 1. Urn 1 has 60 Yellow balls.
- 2. Urn 2 has 75 or 25 Yellow balls with equal chance.
- You win a prize if you draw a Yellow ball.
- A ball is drawn from Urn 2 and it is Yellow.
- Which Urn should you choose?
- Did you do Bayesian updating correctly?

Bayes' Rule Paradoxes: Soft vs. Hard Probabilities

- Prior to draw, Pr (draw a Υ) = 0.5. After:
- Pr(Y | 75-Y) = 0.75, Pr(Y | 25-Y) = 0.25.
- Pr(75-Y | Y) = 0.5 * 0.75 / 0.5 = 0.75
- Pr (25-Y | Y) = 1- 0.75 = 0.25
- Pr (draw another Y | Y) =
 Pr(75-Y | Y) * Pr(Y | 75-Y) +
 Pr(25-Y | Y) * Pr(Y | 75-Y)
 - = 0.75 * 0.75 + 0.25 * 0.25 = 0.625 > 0.6
- So you should pick Urn 2!! (Did you do that?)



Bayes' Rule Paradoxes: Game Show Paradox





One door hides the prize (a car). Remaining two doors hides a goat (non-prize).

Suppose you choose door number 1...

Game Show Paradox (Monty Hall Problem)







Door 3 is opened for you... Obviously the car is not behind door 3... Would you want to switch to door 2?

Depends on how door is opened...



• Rule to open one door:

The Host must open one "other" door without the prize. If he has a choice between more than one door, he will randomly open one of the possible (goat) doors.

 The Game Show Paradox is also known as the Monty Hall Problem, named after the name of the TV show host "Monty Hall"

Game Show Paradox Plus: The (Generalized) Monty Hall Problem





One door hides the prize (a car). Remaining two doors hides a goat (non-prize). Door 3 is transparent (and you see the goat) Suppose you choose door number 1...

Game Show Paradox Plus: The (Generalized) Monty Hall Problem





Door 3 is opened for you... Obviously the car is not behind door 3 (and you knew that already)... Would you want to switch to door 2?



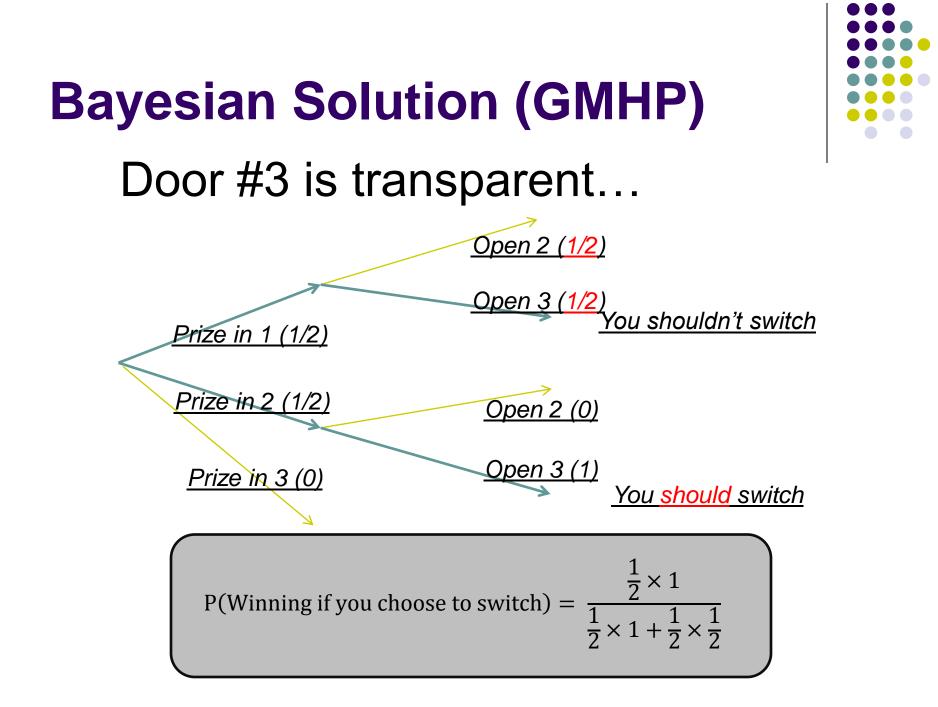
Host randomizes between door 2 and 3 (50-50) If host opens door 2... (Prob.=50%*50%) You should definitely not switch!



Host randomizes between door 2 and 3 If host opens door 3... (Prob=50%*50%) You should still not switch (but you don't know)



Host cannot open door 2 (contains car) See host opening door 3... (Prob.=50%*100%) You should switch (but you don't know)



Rabin Paradox: Which Cells Will You Accept?



Payoff if Green Ball	Number of Green Balls (out of 100)					Payoff if Red Ball
100	52	55	60	66	70	-100
1000	13	20	33	46	57	-100
5000	7	18	33	46	57	-100
25000	7	18	33	46	57	-100

Summary of 7.1



- Preferences over prospects
- Indifference Curves
 - Linear: "Reduction of Compound Lotteries"
 - Parallel: "Independent of Irrelevant Alternatives"
- Expected Utility
- Anomalies: Allais paradox, Ellsberg paradox, Bayes' Rule paradoxes (Soft vs. Hard prob. and Monty Hall Problem) and Rabin paradox
- Homework: Riley Exercise 7.1-2~4