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# ECON4260 Behavioral Economics

## 2<sup>nd</sup> lecture

Cumulative Prospect Theory

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## Expected utility

- This is a theory for ranking lotteries
  - Can be seen as normative: This is how I wish my preferences looked like
  - Or descriptive: This is how people actually choose between lotteries
- A little note showing some basic ideas of a proof will be provided, but I will here only:
  - Explain what expected utility is
  - Discuss the basic axiom – the independence axiom
  - The note try to present the basic intuition on why expected utility follows from this axiom

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## What is a lottery?

- A list of possible outcome:  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$
- Associated probabilities  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$ 
  - Probabilities add to one.
- Example1: 100 kroner with 40% probability and -20 koner with 60% probability
- A lottery can have only one outcome:
  - 70 kroner with 100% probability – that is 70 kroner for sure.

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## Notation

- $(x_1, p_1; \dots; x_n, p_n)$  means
  - $x_1$  with probability  $p_1$ ;
  - ... and
  - $x_n$  with probability  $p_n$
- Null outcomes not listed:
  - $(x_1, p_1)$  means  $x_1$  with probability  $p_1$  and 0 with probability  $1-p_1$
- $(x)$  means  $x$  with certainty.

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## As usual – a utility function can represent reasonable preferences

- Consider lotteries with only three outcomes
  - $x_1, x_2, x_3$
- Now we may simplify
  - Write  $(x_1, p_1; x_2, p_2; x_3, p_3)$  as  $(p_1, p_2, p_3)$
  - Since  $p_3 = 1 - p_1 - p_2$  we only need to state  $(p_1, p_2)$
- Preferences over these lotteries can be represented by the utility function  $U(p_1, p_2)$

- Expected utility claim that the utility function has a particular form, it is **linear in probabilities**

$$U = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i u(x_i)$$

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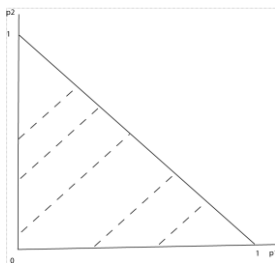
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## Expected utility: Linear & parallel indifference curves




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## Positive linear transforms - we may choose $u(0)=0$

- Consider two utility functions  $u$  and  $v$  such that
  - $v(x) = au(x) + b, \quad a > 0$
- They yield the same ranking of lotteries:
 
$$E v(x) = \sum p_i v(x_i)$$

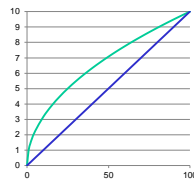
$$= \sum p_i a u(x_i) + \sum p_i b = a E u(x) + b$$
- Maximizing  $E v$  is equivalent to maximizing  $E u$
- Start with any  $u(x)$  and use  $v(x) = u(x) - u(0)$ 
  - Note that  $v(0) = 0$

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## Risk aversion

- $u(x) = \sqrt{x}$
- Two lotteries with the same expectation
  - Lottery A: 0 or 100 Kr equal probability
  - Lottery B: 50 Kr
- Expected utility – read off from 50
  - A: the blue line
  - B: The green
- Risk aversion: Concave utility function.



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## Independence Axiom

- Consider a lottery,  $L_X$ , where you get something,  $X$ , with probability  $p$  and 0 otherwise (probability  $1-p$ )
- Suppose that there are two lotteries, call them A and B that are equally good:  $A \sim B$ 
  - Now it will not matter if  $X$  is lottery A or B
  - That is  $L_A \sim L_B$
- Why is this called independence?
  - The ranking of A and B is independent of context. If they are equally good when they stand alone they are equally good inside a lottery.

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## The independence axiom in action

- Consider the lotteries
  - A: 3000 for sure
  - B: 4000 with 80% probability
  - C: 3000 with 25% probability
  - D: 4000 with 20% probability
- If A is better than B, then C is better than D
- Why?
  - Let L be the lottery X with 25% probability and 0 otherwise
  - If  $X=A$  we get C
  - If  $X=B$  we get D

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## A theorem proven by von Neuman and Morgenstern (1944)

- Take the independence axiom
- Add continuity:
  - if  $B(\text{est}) > x > W(\text{orst})$  then there is a probability  $p$  such that  $(B, p; W, 1-p) \sim (x)$
- Standard assumptions like complete and transitive.
- It follows that lotteries should be ranked according to Expected utility
  - $\text{Max } \sum p_i u(x_i)$
- In the following we will focus on alternative theories
  - And the evidence for these

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## Prospect theory

- Loss and gains
  - Value  $v(x-r)$  rather than utility  $u(x)$  where  $r$  is a reference point.
- Decisions weights replace probabilities
  - $\text{Max } \sum \pi_i v(x_i-r)$
  - (Replaces  $\text{Max } \sum p_i u(x_i)$ )

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## Evidence; Decision weights

- Problem 3
  - A: (4 000, 0.80) or B: (3 000)
  - N=95 [20] [80]\*
- Problem 4
  - C: (4 000, 0.20) or D: (3 000, 0.25)
  - N=95 [65]\* [35]
- Violates expected utility
  - B better than A :  $u(3000) > 0.8 u(4000)$
  - C better than D:  $0.25u(3000) > 0.20 u(4000)$
- Perception is relative:
  - 100% is more different from 95% than 25% is from 20%

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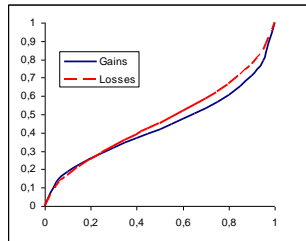


## Suggested approximation (See Benartzi and Thaler, 1995)

$$w(p) = \frac{p^\gamma}{(p^\gamma + (1-p)^\gamma)^{1/\gamma}}$$

$\gamma = 0.61$  for gains

$\gamma = 0.69$  for losses




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## Lotto

- 50% of the money that people spend on Lotto is paid out as winning prices
- Stylized:
  - Spend 10 kroner
  - Win 1 million kroner with probability 1 to 200 000
- Would a risk averse expected utility maximizer play Lotto?
  - Is Lotto participation a challenge to expected utility?
- Can prospect theory explain why people participate in Lotto?
- What is maximum willingness to pay for this winning prospect, for an
  - Risk averse expected utility maximizer?
  - A person acting according to prospect theory?

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## Suggested answer

- A risk neutral expected utility maximizer will value the winning prospect to the expected value
  - 1 million kroner\* (1/200 000) = 5 kroner
  - WTP for a risk averse person < 5 kroner
- Prospect theory
  - $\pi = w(1/200\ 000) \approx 0.0002$
  - $v(1\ \text{million}) = (1\ 000\ 000)^{0.88} \approx 190\ 000$
  - WTP = x where:  $2.25(x)^{0.88} \approx 190\ 000 * 0.0002$
  - Solution: WTP  $\approx 27.5$  kroner
  - Would buy Lotto even with only 2 kroner expected value for each 10 kroner spent. (5 kroner/2.7)
- Some people do NOT buy Lotto tickets
  - Is that a challenge to CPT?




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## The reference point

- Problem 11: In addition to whatever you own, you have been given 1 000. You are now asked to choose between:
  - A: (1 000, 0.50) or B: (500)
  - N=95 [16] [84]\*
- Problem 12: In addition to whatever you own, you have been given 2 000. You are now asked to choose between:
  - A: (-1 000, 0.50) or B: (-500)
  - N=95 [69]\* [31]
- Both equivalent according to EU, but the initial instruction affect the reference point.




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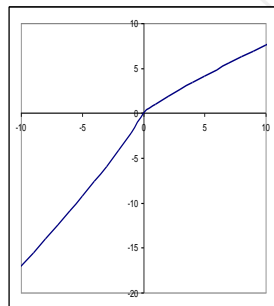
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## The value function (see Benartzi and Thaler, 1995)

$$v(x) = \begin{cases} x^\alpha & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ -\lambda(-x)^\beta & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

- $\alpha = \beta = 0.88$
- $\lambda = 2.25$




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## Why not make the distinction of losses and gains in expected utility?

- A person participate in a lottery (-1000,50%)
  - If he loses his budget set will be
    - All consumption bundles such that  $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i p_i \leq W - 1000$
    - $W - 1000 > 0$
  - If he not lose his budget set will be
    - All consumption bundles such that  $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i p_i \leq W$
  - Indirect utility  $u(W)$  or  $u(W-1000)$
- Standard economics see lotteries as adding uncertainty to overall income/wealth
- We derive utility from commodities not money
- This is not an implication of the independence axiom

## Value function Reflection effect

- Problem 3
  - A: (4 000, 0.80) or B: (3 000)
  - N=95 [20] [80]\*
- Problem 3'
  - A: (-4 000, 0.80) or B: (-3 000)
  - N=95 [92]\* [8]
- Ranking reverses with different sign (Table 1)
- Concave (risk aversion) for gains and
- Convex (risk lover) for losses

## Isolation Effect (recall the independence axiom)

"In order to simplify the choice between alternatives, people often disregard components that the alternatives share and focus on the components that distinguishes them"

- Problem 10:
 

Consider the two-stage game. The first stage is (2. stage, 0.25; 0, 0.75) (proceed to stage 2 with 25% probability. If you reach the second stage you have the choice between A: (4000, 0.80) and B (3000) [78%]. Your choice must be made before the game starts.
- The choice in 10 is equivalent to.
 

A': (4000, 0.20) [65%] and B': (3000, 0.25)



The editing phase  
Finding the reference point

- Combination  
 $(200, 0.25, 200, 0.25) = (200, 0.5)$
- Segregation  
 $(300, 0.8; 200, 0.2) = 200 + (100, 0.8)$
- Cancellation  
 $(200, 0.2; 100, 0.5; -50, 0.3) \text{ vv } (200, 0.2; 150, 0.5; -100, 0.3)$   
Can be seen as a choice between  
 $(100, 0.5; -50, 0.3) \text{ vv } (150, 0.5; -100, 0.3)$
- Simplifications
  - $(500, 0.2 ; 99, 0.49)$  dominates  $(500, 0.15; 101, 0.51)$  if the last part is simplified to  $(... ; 100, 0.50)$



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Stochastic dominance

Lottery A (58%)	White	red	green	yellow
Probability %	90	6	1	3
Price	0	45	30	-15

Lottery B (42%)	White	red	green	yellow
Probability %	90	7	1	2
Price	0	45	-10	-15

	White	red	green	blue	yellow
Prob. %	90	6	1	1	2
Lottery C (A)	0	45	30	-15	-15
Lottery D (B)	0	45	45	-10	-15



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The status of cumulative  
prospect theory  
(See Starmer 2000)

- Explains data much better than alternative theories.
  - Rank dependent utility, does a fair job but not as good
- Starmer claim a limited impact on economic theory
  - But loss aversion is increasingly referred to
- But, some very interesting application
  - We will use it to understand equity return
- See Camerer 2000 for other examples.



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## Rabin's Theorem

### A teaser

- How many of you would participate in the following lotteries (the alternative is (0)).
  - A: (-100, 33 %, +100, 67 %)
  - B: (-100, 45 %, +100, 55 %)
  - C: (-100, 85 %, +10 billions, 15%)
  - D: (-100, 50 %, +10 billions, 50%)
- Would changes in wealth ( $\pm 10\,000$  kroner) affect your preferences?




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## Main difference: CPT - EU

- Loss aversion
  - Marginal utility twice as large for losses compared to gains
  - Requires an editing phase
- Decision weights
  - 100% is distinctively different from 99%
  - 0.1% is also distinctively different from 0%
  - 49% is about the same as 50% (also: *Simplifications*)
- Reflection
  - Risk seeking for losses
  - Risk aversion form gains.
  - Most risk averse when both losses and gains.




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## Decision weights

- Suggested by Allais (1953).
- Originally a function of probability
 
$$\pi_i = f(p_i)$$
- This formulation violates stochastic dominance and are difficult to generalize to lotteries with many outcomes ( $p_i \rightarrow 0$ )
- The standard is thus to use cumulative prospect theory




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## Violation of Stochastic dominance

- An urn contains 500 balls, numbered: 1,2,3,...
- Which of the following lottery do you prefer?
  - A: You win 1000 kroner for sure
  - B: You win  $(1000 - 0.01 \cdot x)$  kroner, where  $x$  is the ball number.
- Prospect theory yields:
  - A:  $v(1000)$
  - B:  $V(999.99) w(0.002) + V(999.98) w(0.002) + \dots$
  - $> V(995) (500 w(0.002))$
  - $- 500 w(0.002)$  is much larger than 1
- Prospect theory will violate stochastic dominance in some such cases.




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## Rank dependent weights

- Order the outcome such that

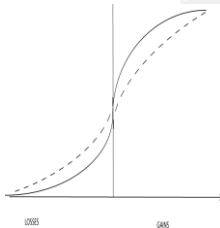
$$x_1 > x_2 > \dots > x_k > 0 > x_{k+1} > \dots > x_n$$

- Decision weights for gains

$$\pi_j = w^+ \left( \sum_{i=1}^j p_i \right) - w^+ \left( \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} p_i \right) \text{ for all } j \leq k$$

- Decision weights for losses

$$\pi_j = w^- \left( \sum_{i=j}^n p_i \right) - w^- \left( \sum_{i=j+1}^n p_i \right) \text{ for all } j > k$$




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## Why rank dependence avoids problems of stochastic dominance

- Reconsider the urn with numbered balls
- Prospect theory yields:
  - A:  $v(1000)$
  - B:  $V(999.99) w(0.002)$
  - $+ V(999.98) [w(0.004) - w(0.002)]$
  - $+ V(999.97) [w(0.006) - w(0.004)]$
  - $\dots$
  - $< V(1000)$
  - All weights now adds to one
- A person acting consistent with cumulative prospect theory will choose A over B.




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