Descriptive theory

Violations of normative principles systematic

Data driven

Once the systematic biases were identified, a theory was constructed in order to explain/justify/describe those violations

3 types of Utility

Experienced utility

The experience itself

Predicted utility

Predictive judgment about the experience (based on memory)

Decision utility

The utility that is inferred from choices

→ They can conflict





3 types of Utility

Experienced utility
The experience itself

Predicted utility

Predictive judgment about the experience based on memory

Decision utility

The utility that is inferred from choices

→ We make very inaccurate predictions

- Unrepresentative memories
- ❖ Too essentialized
- **❖** Decontextualized
- Too abbreviated

3 types of Utility

The experience itself

(ideally your decisions should agree with your experienced utility)

Predicted utility

Predictive judgment about the experience based on memory

Decision utility

The utility that is inferred from choices

Inconsistencies among these three types of utility

Systematic violations of the normative theory

Large use of hypothetical decisions

Situation X	Amount	Prob
Option 1	1.000	1.00
Option 2	1.000 5.000	.89 .10
	0	.01

Situation Y	Amount	Prob
Option 3	1.000	.11 .89
Option 4	5.000 0	.10 .90

Situation X	Amount	Prob
Option 1	1.000	1.00
Option 2	1.000 5.000 0	.89 .10 .01

Situation Y	Amount	Prob
Option 3	1.000	.11 .89
Option 4	5.000 0	.10 .90

dox	\rightarrow
paradox	
llais	

	Ball numbers		
	(p = .01)	2-11 (p = .10)	12-100 (p = .89)
Situation X	,		
Option 1	1.000	1.000	1.000
Option 2	0	5.000	1.000
Situation Y			
Option 3	1.000	1.000	0
Option 4	0	5.000	0

	Ball numbers		
	1	2-11	12-100
	(p = .01)	(p = .10)	(p = .89)
Situation X			
Option 1	1.000	1.000	
Option 2	0	5.000	
Situation Y			
Option 3	1.000	1.000	
Option 4	0	5.000	

Allais paradox

ure-thing princi

Ball numbers

Allais paradox

	Ball numbers		
	1	2-11	12-100
Situation X			
Option 1	1.000	1.000	1.000
Option 2	0	5.000	1.000
Situation Y			
Option 3	1.000	1.000	0
Option 4	0	5.000	0

They cannot be both true

$$.01 \ u(1.000) + .10 \ u(1.000) > .01 \ u(0) + .10 \ u(5.000)$$

$$.01\ u(1.000) + .10\ u(1.000) < .01\ u(0) + .10\ u(5.000)$$

Create your own version of the Allais paradox

Kahneman & Tversky (1979)

Descriptive theory of decisions under uncertainty

How and why our choices deviate from the normative model of expected-utility theory

- Probability x utility (as in expected-utility theory)
- Probabilities are distorted
- Utility is considered as change from a reference point

PROBABILITY

We do not treat probabilities as they are stated But we distort them according to a particular function " π function"

$$u(30) > .80 \ u(45)$$
 They cannot be both true $.25 \ u(30) < .20 \ u(45)$

$$.25 \ u(30) > .25 \ .80 \ u(45)$$
 ? $.25 \ u(30) < .20 \ u(45)$

PROBABILITY

We do not treat probabilities as they are stated But we distort them according to a particular function " π function"

→
30€ 1.0

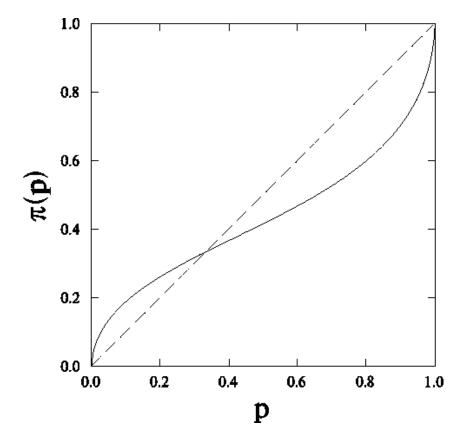
45€ .80
30€ .25

CERTAINTY EFFECT

People's preferences are attracted by absolute certainty

PROBABILITY

" π function"



People are more sensitive to changes in p near to natural borders (0 and 1)

From 0 to 0.1 > from 0.3 to 0.4

From 0.9 to 1 > from 0.3 to 0.4

PROBABILITY

Lottery with 10 tickets – prize 1.000€

How much would you pay for having 1 ticket?

... for a fourth ticket when you have already 3?

... and for the last one since you already have 9?

PROBABILITY

This is why we buy lottery tickets and flight insurance

Would you pay $1 \in to$ buy a lottery ticket with a probability of .001 of winning 1.000€?

$$\pi(p) \ u(1.000) > 1 \in$$

$$p \ u(1.000) < 1 \in$$

$$0.001 * 31.6 = .0316$$

PROBABILITY

There is a threshold ... extremely low probabilities are not considered at all



Would you wear seat belts? Schwalm & Slovic (1982)

.00000025 of being killed in a car accident

10%

.01 of being killed in a car accident during the life time

39%

Kahneman & Tversky (1979)

Descriptive theory of decisions under uncertainty

How and why our choices deviate from the normative model of expected-utility theory

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- Utility is considered as change from a reference point

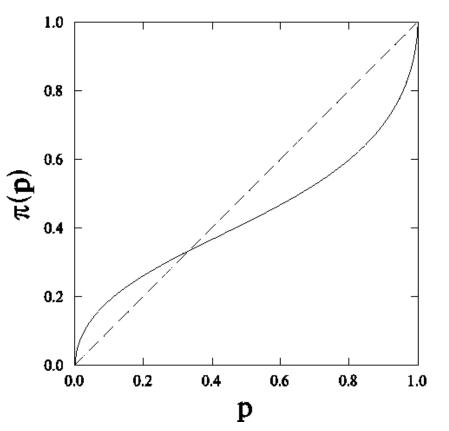
Kahneman & Tversky (1979)

Descriptive theory of decisions under uncertainty

How and why our choices deviate from the normative model of expected-utility theory

- Probability x utility (as in expected-utility theory)
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differences from expected-utility theory



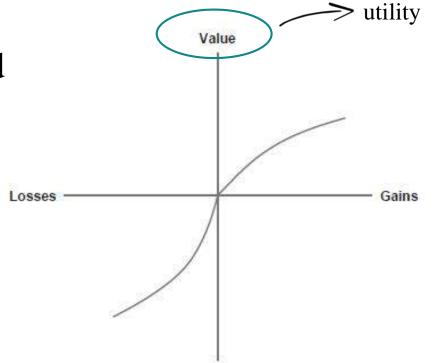
Probability

UTILITY

Changes from a reference point (usually the current state)

Gains and losses are evaluated without regard to our total wealth

Losses are more serious than equivalent gains



LOSS AVERSION

$$G_1$$
 [.5, +10] vs. [.5, -10]

$$G_2$$
 [.5, +15] vs. [.5, -10]

$$G_3$$
 [.5, +20] vs. [.5, -10]

UTILITY

Changes from a reference point (usually the current state)

-10€ vs. (.5,-20€) $\pi(1.00)v(-10) < \pi(.5) \text{ } v(-20)$ $\frac{\text{Concave for gains}}{\text{Risk averse}}$ 10€ vs. (.5,20€) $\frac{\text{Convex for losses}}{\text{Risk seeking}}$ $\pi(1.00)v(10) > \pi(.5) \text{ } v(20)$

UTILITY

Changes from a reference point

If the description changes the reference point, the decision may change

UTILITY

Imagine that the US is preparing for the outbreak of an unusual Asian disease, which is expected to kill 600 people. Two alternative programs to combat the disease have been proposed. Assume that the exact scientific estimate of the consequences of the programs are as follows:

Program A: 200 saved

Program B: 600 saved, .33

UTILITY

Imagine that the US is preparing for the outbreak of an unusual Asian disease, which is expected to kill 600 people. Two alternative programs to combat the disease have been proposed. Assume that the exact scientific estimate of the consequences of the programs are as follows:

Program A: 400 die

Program B: 600 die, .67

UTILITY

Classical example of framing effect – violation of the invariance principle

Imagine that the US is preparing for the outbreak of an unusual Asian disease, which is expected to kill 600 people. Two alternative programs to combat the disease have been proposed. Assume that the exact scientific estimate of the consequences of the programs are as follows:

Program A: 200 saved

GAINS

Program B: 600 saved, .33

 $\pi(1)V(200) > \pi(.33)V(600)$

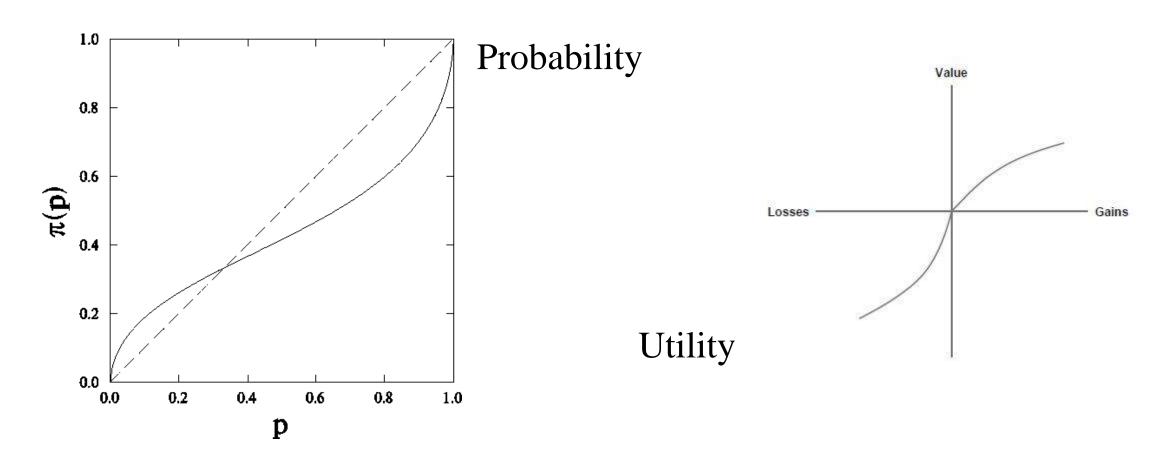
Program A: 400 die

LOSSES

Program B: 600 die, .67

 $\pi(1)V(400) < \pi(.67)V(600)$

differences from expected-utility theory



Consider the following gambles

Gamble 1 Gamble 2 Gamble 3 Gamble 4
$$(30€)$$
 $(60€, .60)$ $(75€, .30)$ $(100€, .60)$

... and rank them from the "best" to the "worst" one

Calculate the expected utility of these gambles according to Expected Utility Theory

$$u(X) = \sqrt{X}$$

 $(30 \in)$ $(60 \in, .60)$ $(75 \in, .30)$ $(100 \in, .60)$

... and rank them from the "best" to the "worst" one

Calculate the expected value of these gambles according to Prospect theory

$$\pi$$
 function Value function
$$p=0 \quad \pi(p)=0 \qquad \qquad X \geq 0, \ v(X)=\sqrt{X}$$

$$p=1 \quad \pi(p)=1 \qquad \qquad X < 0, \ v(X)=-2\sqrt{(X)}$$

$$0$$

$$(-30 \in)$$
 $(-60 \in, .60)$ $(-75 \in, .30)$ $(-100 \in, .60)$

... and rank them from the "best" to the "worst" one

Generate 2 gambles

with the same expected value according the Expected Utility Theory

that largely differ in their EV according to the Prospect Theory

Generate 2 gambles

with the same expected value according the Expected Utility Theory

that DO NOT largely differ in their EV according to the Prospect Theory