# 305 Lecture 9.6 - Allais Paradox

Brian Weatherson

#### Plan

 In this lecture we'll talk about a famous puzzle for the story I've been telling you about the relationship between utility and money: the Allais paradox.



Odds and Ends, section 13.1.

## **Sure Thing Principle**

Assume two bets A and B have the following characteristic.

• For some proposition p, A and B have the exact same return.

### **Sure Thing Principle**

Assume two bets A and B have the following characteristic.

• For some proposition p, A and B have the exact same return.

Then the Sure Thing Principle says the following.

 Changing what that return is won't change your preference between A and B.

### **Intuitive Example**

Assume that B is a **conditional bet** - a bet on q that only takes place if something is true. So if you take the bet, the following things happen.

- So if the condition, and q is true, you win, let's say, \$10.
- If the condition, and q is false, you lose \$10.
- But if the condition is not met, then the bet is called off.

E.g., you might bet a friend that if the Rose Bowl is played this year, Michigan will win it. The bet is simply called off if the Rose Bowl doesn't happen. Let A be the action of simply not taking this bet, and staying at the status quo. And let p be that the Rose Bowl doesn't happen. So A and B have the same payoff if p, since then the bet is called off.

#### A Change

You find out, apparently because you've been doing more gambling in your spare time than is good for you, that you have another bet that wins 5 dollars if p, i.e., if the Rose Bowl doesn't happen, and returns nothing otherwise.

· Could this change your preferences over A vs B?

### The Argument for No

#### Either p is true or it isn't.

- If it is, then whether you would have got \$5 if it were not doesn't make a difference to whether you prefer A or B.
- If it is not, then you should still be indifferent between A and B.
- And this doesn't look like it just applies to this case.
- It looks like a perfectly general weak dominance argument.

### **Expected Utility Theory and Constraints on Choice**

- Orthodox expected utility theory, the theory that says you should maximise expected utility, puts very few constraints on individual choices.
- · But it puts quite striking constraints on sets of choices.
- It says you can't prefer A to B, and B to C, and C to A, for example.
- And it says that the Sure Thing Principle, a principle about what changes in payouts licence a change of preferences, holds.

#### **Allais**

Maurice Allais (1911-2010) developed the most famous objection to the Sure Thing Principle.

- It is a pair of two-way choices, and an intuitively rational pair of preferences among them.
- Expected utility can make sense of either one of the pair, but not both.

#### **Allais - First Part**

You have a choice between:

A. A 10% chance of \$5,000,000.

B. An 11% chance of \$1,000,000.

What do you choose?

#### **Allais - Second Part**

That was a hypothetical. Now for real you have a choice between:

- C. A 10% chance of \$5,000,000, an 89% chance of \$1,000,000, and a 1% chance of nothing.
- D. \$1,000,000.

What do you choose?

## **Allais's Argument**

• It is rational to prefer A to B, and D to C.

### **Allais's Argument**

- It is rational to prefer A to B, and D to C.
- Expected utility theory says that you can't prefer both A to B, and D to C.

### **Allais's Argument**

- It is rational to prefer A to B, and D to C.
- Expected utility theory says that you can't prefer both A to B, and D to C.
- So expected utility theory is false.

#### **Allais Table**

Imagine you have 10 blue marbles in an urn, 89 maize marbles, and 1 scarlet marble.

	Blue	Maize	Scarlet
Α	5M	0	0
В	1M	0	1M
С	5M	1M	0
D	1M	1M	1M

All that changed from AB to CD was that we changed how much the payout was if Maize, without changing the fact that it was equal.

# Why Expected Utility Theory Can't Handle This

Let u(5M) = x and u(1M) = y.

 If A is preferred to B, then 0.1x > 0.11y, since those are the expected utilities of A and B.

# Why Expected Utility Theory Can't Handle This

Let u(5M) = x and u(1M) = y.

- If A is preferred to B, then 0.1x > 0.11y, since those are the expected utilities of A and B.
- So adding 0.89y to both sides, we get 0.1x + 0.89y > y.

# Why Expected Utility Theory Can't Handle This

Let u(5M) = x and u(1M) = y.

- If A is preferred to B, then 0.1x > 0.11y, since those are the expected utilities of A and B.
- So adding 0.89y to both sides, we get 0.1x + 0.89y > y.
- But those just are the expected utilities of C and D.
- So if A is preferred to B, then C is preferred to D.

#### An argument against Allais

Assume you'll find out, both in the AB case and the CD case, whether the marble was maize, or not-maize before you are told its color.

At that point, in the AB case, what will you wish you'd chosen?

### An argument against Allais

Assume you'll find out, both in the AB case and the CD case, whether the marble was maize, or not-maize before you are told its color.

- At that point, in the AB case, what will you wish you'd chosen?
- If B, or you are indifferent, then you shouldn't have preferred A
  in the first place.

### An argument against Allais

Assume you'll find out, both in the AB case and the CD case, whether the marble was maize, or not-maize before you are told its color.

- At that point, in the AB case, what will you wish you'd chosen?
- If B, or you are indifferent, then you shouldn't have preferred A
  in the first place.
- If A, then do the same thing in the CD case.
- If you find out the marble is maize, you don't care.
- If you find out it's not maize, then you're back in the exact same puzzle, so you should prefer C to D.
- So by weak dominance, you should prefer C to D overall.

## **Decision Theory for Allais Agents**

- This was originally developed by the Australian economist John Quiggin, and recently expanded by the American philosopher Lara Buchak.
- Very roughly, you replace the Pr in expected utility theory with some function f(Pr) where f measures the agent's attitude to risk.
- If f(x) < x, the agent is risk averse, if f(x) > x they are risk seeking.
- If you let  $f(x) = x^2$ , it's easy to model the Allais preferences.



 We will move on to thinking about how to use probability in learning about the world.