Introduction to Financial Models Lecture 03: Surprises & Paradoxes III

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- If people maximize expected value, they should be willing to pay any finite amount to play

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ullet This amounts to E U(X) pprox \$1.39, explaining why people would only pay a small amount

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The agent prefers the r.v. X to r.v. Y if and only if E U(X) > E U(Y), where $U : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is the agent's utility function.

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 - Subjective valuation (utility) of those outcomes

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- \bullet The parameter γ reflects the degree of risk aversion
- \bullet For power utility, $\gamma=1$ corresponds to logarithmic utility (by L'Hôpital's rule)

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 - The **risk premium** π is the maximum amount they would pay:

$$U(w-\pi) = \mathsf{E}\,U(w+\widetilde{X})\tag{1}$$

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• Substitute into the risk premium formula (1) $U(w-\pi)=\mathsf{E}\ U(w+\widetilde{X})$,

$$U(w) - \pi U'(w) = U(w) + \frac{1}{2}U''(w)\operatorname{var}\widetilde{X} \implies \pi = \frac{1}{2}\left(-\frac{U''(w)}{U'(w)}\right)\operatorname{var}\widetilde{X}$$

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• The independence axiom is particularly important and controversial

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 - Independence: For any lotteries L_1 , L_2 , L_3 and any probability $p \in (0, 1]$, $L_1 \succeq L_2$ if and only if $pL_1 + (1-p)L_3 \succeq pL_2 + (1-p)L_3$
- These axioms lead to the expected utility representation:

$$L_1 \succeq L_2 \iff \mathsf{E}_{L_1}[U(x)] \geqslant \mathsf{E}_{L_2}[U(x)]$$

- The independence axiom is particularly important and controversial
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- John von Neumann and Oskar Morgenstern (1947) provided axioms for expected utility
- Four key axioms:
 - Completeness: For any lotteries L_1 and L_2 , either $L_1 \succeq L_2$ or $L_2 \succeq L_1$ or both
 - Transitivity: If $L_1 \succeq L_2$ and $L_2 \succeq L_3$, then $L_1 \succeq L_3$
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- The independence axiom is particularly important and controversial
 - It states that preferences between lotteries should not be affected by mixing them with a third lottery
 - This axiom is violated in several famous paradoxes

Allais Paradox

Game A

$$X = \begin{cases} 101 & \text{prob. } 0.33 \\ 100 & \text{prob. } 0.66 \\ 0 & \text{prob. } 0.01 \end{cases} Y = 100 \text{ with prob. } 1$$

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$$\frac{2}{3} \cdot U(100) + \frac{1}{3} \cdot U(0) > (1 - p) \cdot U(100) + p \cdot U(0)$$

$$\implies (\frac{1}{3} - p) \cdot U(0) > (\frac{1}{3} - p) \cdot U(100) \quad (5)$$

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- Won the Nobel Prize in Economics in 2002 (Kahneman; Tversky had passed away)

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- Mathematical representation:

$$V(\mathsf{prospect}) = \sum_i \pi(p_i) \cdot v(x_i)$$

where v(x) is the value function and $\pi(p)$ is the probability weighting function

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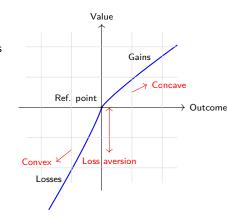
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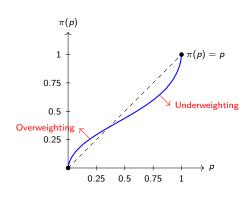
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 - Programs A and C are identical in outcomes, as are B and D
 - The shift in preferences demonstrates that people are risk-averse for gains (saving lives) but risk-seeking for losses (avoiding deaths)

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C: (-4,000,0.80) vs. D: (-3,000,1.00)

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Result: 83% chose C, 17% chose D

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- Mathematical violation of independence: If $B \succ A$, then $B' \succ A'$ for any mixture

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A: (6,000,0.45) vs. B: (3,000,0.90)

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C: (6,000,0.001) vs. D: (3,000,0.002)

Result: 73% chose C, 27% chose D

• Both problems have identical ratios of probabilities (0.45/0.90 = 0.001/0.002 = 1/2)

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- \bullet This violation supports the inverse S-shaped probability weighting function $_{20\,/\,40}$

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 - Selling prices approximately double buying prices
 - Choosers behaved like buyers, not sellers
 - Rules out alternative explanations (income effects, transaction costs)

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 - Not found in cultures with limited private ownership (Apicella et al., 2014)

Experimental Evidence: Framing Effects

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 - Result: 68% would travel to save \$5
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 - Result: Only 29% would travel to save \$5
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