

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

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Mathematical Formulation

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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 - 1 Probabilities of different outcomes
 - 2 Subjective valuation (utility) of those outcomes

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- 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:

$$U(w - \pi) = E U(w + \tilde{X}) \quad (1)$$

Risk Aversion and Risk Premium II

- For small risks, we can use Taylor expansion

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

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

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 - This axiom is violated in several famous paradoxes

Allais Paradox

- Game A

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- A single ball is drawn from the urn

Ellsberg Paradox (Cont'd)

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

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- Mathematical representation:

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

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

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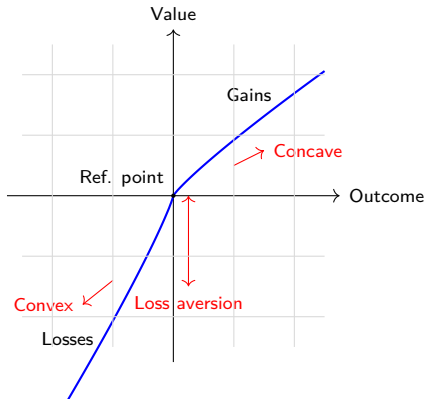
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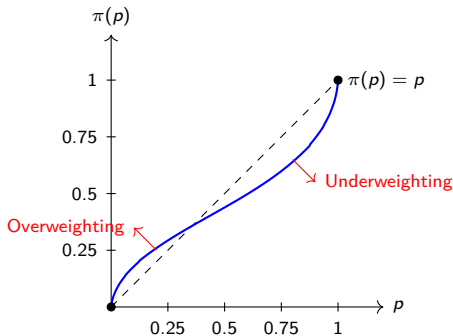
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- Tversky and Kahneman's (1992) formulation:

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

- Typical parameter value: $\gamma \approx 0.65$



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 - 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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 - Mathematical demonstration of nonlinear probability weighting:

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(0.001) &> \pi(0.000) + \pi(0.001) - \pi(0.000) \cdot \pi(0.01) \\ &\approx \pi(0.000) + \pi(0.001) \cdot (1 - \pi(0.01))\end{aligned}$$

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 - Scenario: Regular insurance costs \$200 to protect against 0.1% risk of \$100,000 loss
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 - Would need 95% discount (not 50%) to make people indifferent
 - Mathematical demonstration of nonlinear probability weighting:

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- Real-world applications:

Key Findings: Probabilistic Insurance

- Probabilistic Insurance experiment (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979)
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 - People pay significant premium for "peace of mind" (certainty)

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 - Rules out alternative explanations (income effects, transaction costs)

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

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 - Ground beef labeled "75% lean" rated higher than "25% fat"
 - Product evaluations:
 - "75% lean" rated 5.8/7 on quality scale
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Experimental Evidence: Framing Effects

- Framing Effects: Same information presented differently leads to different decisions
 - Framing systematically affects preferences across numerous domains
 - Violates description invariance principle of rational choice
 - Demonstrates reference-dependence of value function
- Medical Treatment Frames (McNeil et al., 1982):
 - Physicians and patients chose between surgery and radiation therapy
 - Survival frame: "Surgery has 90% survival rate"
 - Mortality frame: "Surgery has 10% mortality rate"
 - Results:
 - Survival frame: 84% chose surgery
 - Mortality frame: Only 50% chose surgery
 - Same statistical information led to dramatically different choices
 - Professional physicians showed similar biases as patients
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 - "75% lean" rated 5.8/7 on quality scale
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 - Effect persisted even after consumers tasted the identical product

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 - Only applies when gamble offers possibility of complete recovery
 - Otherwise, prior losses typically increase risk aversion ("snake-bit" effect)

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 - Questions: Who is doing better economically? Who is happier?

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 - Results: Estimates primarily based on how stereotypically "engineer-like" the description was
 - Prior probabilities (base rates) of 30/70 largely ignored

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 - Results: Group 1 far more likely to keep inherited investments
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 - When enrollment is opt-in, participation 40%
 - When enrollment is opt-out (automatic), participation 90%
 - Same options available, dramatically different outcomes
 - Related to loss aversion, endowment effect, and regret avoidance
- Present Bias: Overweighting immediate outcomes (O'Donoghue & Rabin, 1999)
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 - Risk aversion for gains (from 0.7 to 0.9)
 - Risk seeking for losses (from 0.7 to 0.9)
 - Probability weighting parameter (from 0.5 to 0.8)
 - Parameter stability questionable across domains and contexts
 - Harrison & Rutström (2009): Parameter estimates highly sensitive to experimental design
 - Birnbaum (2008): Different elicitation methods yield different parameters for same individuals
- Descriptive vs. Normative Limitations:
 - Prospect Theory deliberately descriptive, not normative
 - Unlike Expected Utility Theory, not axiomatically derived from "rational" principles
 - Creates tension for applications: Should we design policies that accommodate or correct biases?
 - No clear guidance on debiasing techniques
 - Raises philosophical questions about nature of rational choice
 - Difficult to distinguish "errors" from legitimate preferences

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