# Lecture 1: Risk and Uncertainty

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#### Introduction

- In Econ 11, we mostly assumed things were certain.
  - ► **Example:** Walrasian Eq. where Rosy has apples and Jamie has oranges and they each sell at a price. Everyone knows exactly how much they will enjoy apples or oranges.
- But in reality many objects are not like this.
  - ► Example: Used cars, insurance (I don't know if I will get into a car accident), lottery tickets, investments.
- Our goal is to extend our toolbox so we can work with objects that are uncertain.
- Practical Applications: These tools are used broadly in finance, actuarial science and business.

### Notation, Terms, Definitions

#### In this class:

- I denote lottery/gamble a as  $X_a$ , where  $X_a$  is a random variable with a pmf or pdf giving the probability of receiving different amounts of money
- $E[X_a]$  always means expectation of  $X_a$ .
- $Var(X_a)$  always means variance of  $X_a$ .
  - ▶ It is often useful to recall this alternative formula for variance:  $Var(X_a) = E[X_a^2] E[X_a]^2$ .
- log always means natural log (base e).

# A Survey

Suppose you could enter one of three lotteries for free:

- a.  $X_a$ : \$100 with probability 50%, \$0 with probability 50%.
- b.  $X_b$ : \$49 with probability 100%
- c.  $X_c$ : \$200 with probability 24%, \$0 with probability 76%.

Which would you choose? (Answer in the survey)

#### Risk Attitudes

- Before looking at the results, notice some facts:
  - ▶ b has lower expectation than a:  $E[X_a] = 50 > 49 = E[X_b]$ .
  - ▶ But a has higher variance than b:  $Var(X_a) = 2500 > 0 = Var(X_b)$ .
  - ► So if you dislike variance or uncertainty, you will prefer a.
  - $E[X_c] = 48 < 49 < 50$ . So in terms of expected money, c is worse than both a and b.
  - ▶ However, the variance of c is higher:  $Var(X_c) \approx 7296 > 2500 > 0$ .
  - You will only choose c if you like uncertainty/risk.
- A rough interpretation of the results:
  - If you chose b you are risk averse: you dislike uncertainty/risk, and are willing to pay to reduce it.
  - ▶ If you chose a you are either *risk neutral* or slightly *risk loving*.
  - ▶ If you chose c you are *risk loving*.
- We can take these concepts and use a new tool to analyze them.

# **Expected Utility Theory**

- We analyze uncertainty using a **Expected utility Theory.**
- Basically two things matter for decisions: **preferences** and **risk attitudes.**
- Main theorem:

#### Theorem 1

Under a set of axioms (which you do not need to know), we can represent an individual's risk attitudes and preferences using an expected utility function u such that:

$$E[u(X_a)] \ge E[u(X_b)]$$
 if and only if  $X_a$  is preferred to  $X_b$ 

Main idea: We can represent risk attitudes using a utility function over money. This
utility function is actually uniquely defined up to a constant.

## Example

Consider a person with expected utility function u(x) = log(x + 1).

- Given utility function we can compare any two lotteries over money by comparing  $E[u(X_a)]$  and  $E[u(X_b)]$ .
- If a discrete random variable,  $E[X_A] = \sum_i f(x_i)x_i$  for pmf f.
- If continuous,  $E[X_A] = \int x f(x) dx$  for pdf f.
- Exercise: Let's rank the lotteries from the example.

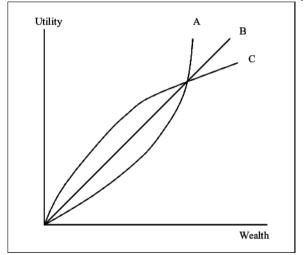
### Risk Attitudes As Functions

A person with expected utility function u is...

- **risk averse** if *u* is concave.
- risk neutral if u is linear.
- **risk loving** if *u* is convex.

### Risk Attitudes As Functions

Which function is risk averse? Answer in the survey.



Source: Fleming et. al. (2003)

## Certainty Equivalent

 We often want to rank lotteries/gambles. The following concept is useful for ranking lotteries:

#### Definition 2

The amount of money for sure a decision maker is willing to pay for lottery a is the **certainty** equivalent  $(d_a)$ . Mathematically:

$$u(d_a) = E[u(X_a)]$$

- Given a lottery that gives me d dollars for sure and  $X_a$ , it is the value of d where I am indifferent.
- ullet We can use this to rank lotteries. if  $d_a>d_b$  then the decision maker prefers lottery a.
- We can also use this to calculate the willingness to pay for insurance.

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- We can also use this to calculate the willingness to pay for insurance.
- Gut check: What is the certainty equivalent of a lottery a with  $E[X_a] = 10$  when the decision maker is risk neutral?

# Certainty Equivalents and Risk Attitudes

Question: Given a lottery X, what can we say about the certainty equivalent of X relative to E[X] for a risk neutral person? A risk averse person? A risk loving person?

Consider a driver who faces monetary damages from driving given by a random variable X. The driver has wealth given by w and has expected utility function u(x).

• We can think of these damages as a lottery X. Then the driver faces uncertain future wealth of w-X (wealth less damages). This is the lottery they care about.

Suppose there is an insurance company which is risk neutral. This is reasonable because:

- Insurance company cares about profits.
- Company will have many customers, so it cares about the average rather than the risk.
- If you recall from Econ 41, by law of Large Numbers sample average converges to expectation:  $n^{-1} \sum_i X_i \to E[X]$

**Question:** Suppose u(x) = log(x), w = \$10,000, and the probability of an accident is 10%. if an accident happens, the driver incurs \$5,000 in damages. What is the certainty equivalent of the lottery the driver faces without insurance?

- 1. **Define the problem.** The lottery w X is \$10,000 with probability 90% and 10,000 5,000 = \$5,000 with probability 10%.
- 2. The certainty equivalent is the amount the driver would take for sure that makes them indifferent between w-X. Call it d. d solves:

$$E[u(w-X)] = u(d)$$

3. Solving:

$$E[log(w - X)] = 0.1log(5000) + 0.9log(10000) = log(d)$$
$$e^{9.1410} = 9,330 = d$$

**Question:** Keep the same utility function and damage lottery. How much of a premium is the driver willing to pay for full insurance, where full insurance is defined as paying all the damages if there is an accident and 0 if there is no accident.

- 1. **Define the problem.** Full insurance means that there is no uncertainty: wealth is constant in all states of the world, accident or not.
- 2. Write it in math. Call the maximum premium  $\tilde{p}$ . The maximum premium the driver will pay is:

$$u(1000 - \tilde{p}) = E[u(w - X)]$$

3. **Notice something clever.** Note that  $1000 - \tilde{p}$  is equal to the certainty equivalent. So we can either redo our work, or just solve:

$$1000 - \tilde{p} = 9330 \implies \tilde{p} = 670$$

4. Try the long way for yourself to verify you get the same answer! Also feel free to do this again by switching up X or the utility function.

**Question:** Keep the same utility function and damage lottery. Think about the insurance company now. Define the actuarially fair premium to be the premium  $p^*$  which makes expected profit 0 from full insurance. How much is the actuarially fair premium? What are the range of premiums under which both parties are willing to participate?

1. **Define the problem.** Profit is p - X. We want to find  $p^*$  that solves:

$$E[\pi] = E[p - X] = 0$$

2. Working it out:

$$E[p-X] = 0.1(p^* - 5000) + 0.9p^* = p^* - 500 = 0 \implies p^* = 500$$

3. The driver says yes when the premium is less than the  $\tilde{p}$  we derived before. The insurance company says yes when the premium is above  $p^*$ . This gives a range of premiums which generate gains from trade:

$$500 = p^*$$

# **Exponential Utility**

In many settings, it is convenient to use exponential utility because it makes analysis easier. Exponential utility takes the form:

$$u(x) = \frac{1 - e^{-\theta x}}{\theta}$$

where  $\theta$  is a parameter capturing risk aversion. When a lottery X is normally distributed with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$  it can be shown that:

$$E[u(X)] = \theta^{-1} \left( 1 - e^{-\theta\mu + \theta^2\sigma^2/2} \right)$$

you can verify this but it will not ever be tested. The proof is mainly just calculus and algebra.

# **Exponential Utility - Questions**

1. What is the certainty equivalent of X?

$$u(d) = E[u(X)] \implies \frac{1 - e^{-\theta d}}{\theta} = \theta^{-1} \left( 1 - e^{-\theta \mu + \theta^2 \sigma^2 / 2} \right)$$
$$\implies e^{-\theta d} = e^{-\theta \mu + \theta^2 \sigma^2 / 2} \implies d = \mu - \theta \sigma^2 / 2$$

So utility depends simply on mean and variance. Nice for finance, empirical economic research.

2. What happens when  $\theta \to 0$ ? Hint: use L'Hopsital's rule. Interpret.

$$\lim_{\theta \to 0} \frac{1 - e^{-\theta x}}{\theta} = x$$

This is risk neutrality.

#### Normal Random Variables

Suppose we have two normal independent lotteries,  $X_a, X_b$  with means  $\mu_a, \mu_b$  and variances  $\sigma_a^2, \sigma_b^2$ . Suppose we have \$1 to invest total. Let a be the amount we put in a and a be the amount we put in a. It is always true that:

$$\mu_{portfolio} \sim N(a\mu_a + (1-a)\mu_b, a^2\sigma_a^2 + (1-a)^2\sigma_b^2)$$

that is the resulting portfolio is normal.

## Application: Diversification

We will now use exponential utility with normal lotteries to see why you should "diversify your portfolio." Suppose you have two independent assets a,b where  $\mu_a=\mu_b,\sigma_a^2=\sigma_b^2$ . What is the optimal amount you should invest in each asset?

# Application: Diversification

- **Define the question.** We want to maximize the certainty equivalent with respect to a.
- Write in math.

$$\max_{a} \mu_{portfolio} - \theta \sigma_{portfolio}^2 / 2$$

• Simplify and plug in  $\mu_{portfolio} = \mu_a$  and  $\sigma^2_{portfolio} = (1 - 2a + 2a^2)\sigma^2_1$ :

$$\max_{a} \mu_{a} - \theta(1 - 2a + 2a^{2})\sigma_{1}^{2}$$

Take FOC:

$$-\theta \sigma_1^2(-2+4a) = 0 \implies a = 1/2$$

Note that this is ONLY valid if  $\theta > 0$ , that is the person is risk averse.

• Challenge: What is the optimal weighting if a person is risk neutral?