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# MIT 14.123 (2009) by Peter Eso

## Lecture 6: Beyond EU

1. State-Dependent EU
2. Subjective EU and Ellsberg's Paradox
3. Rabin's Puzzle & Measuring riskiness

Read: Finish MWG Chapter 6, assigned readings.



# Expanding Expected Utility

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- In many applications the “choice over objective-probs lotteries” framework is not appropriate.
  - It may matter what causes the payoff, not just its level and probability. State-of-Nature Representation of Uncertainty.
  - Choices may be given without explicit probabilities of the outcomes. Subjective Probabilities.
- Examples:
  - Insurance: Suppose the probability of an accident is 1%. “\$100 with 1% chance”  $\Leftrightarrow$  “\$100 if accident happens”.
  - Betting on the Winner of the 2009 Champions’ League (or next year’s Super Bowl, or Best Actress at the Oscars...).

# State Dependent EU

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- Suppose there is a (finite) set of states,  $S$ .  
Each state  $s \in S$  has probability  $\pi_s$  which is known (for now).
- In each state, the outcome belongs to a (finite) set  $X$ .
- The set of alternatives is a vector of objective lotteries over  $X$  in each state,  $\Delta^{|S|}$ , where  $\Delta$  is the  $(|X|-1)$  dimensional simplex.
- Compound lotteries are reduced to simple ones in each state.
- However, lotteries are not reduced further by aggregating the probability of a given outcome across states in which it occurs.

E.g.,  $X = \{a, b\}$ ,  $S = \{s_1, s_2, s_3\}$  each state has 1/3 chance.

Lottery  $(a, a, b)$  is not reduced to  $2/3 \cdot a + 1/3 \cdot b$ , because payoff  $a$  in state  $s_1$  is not the same as payoff  $a$  in state  $s_2$ .

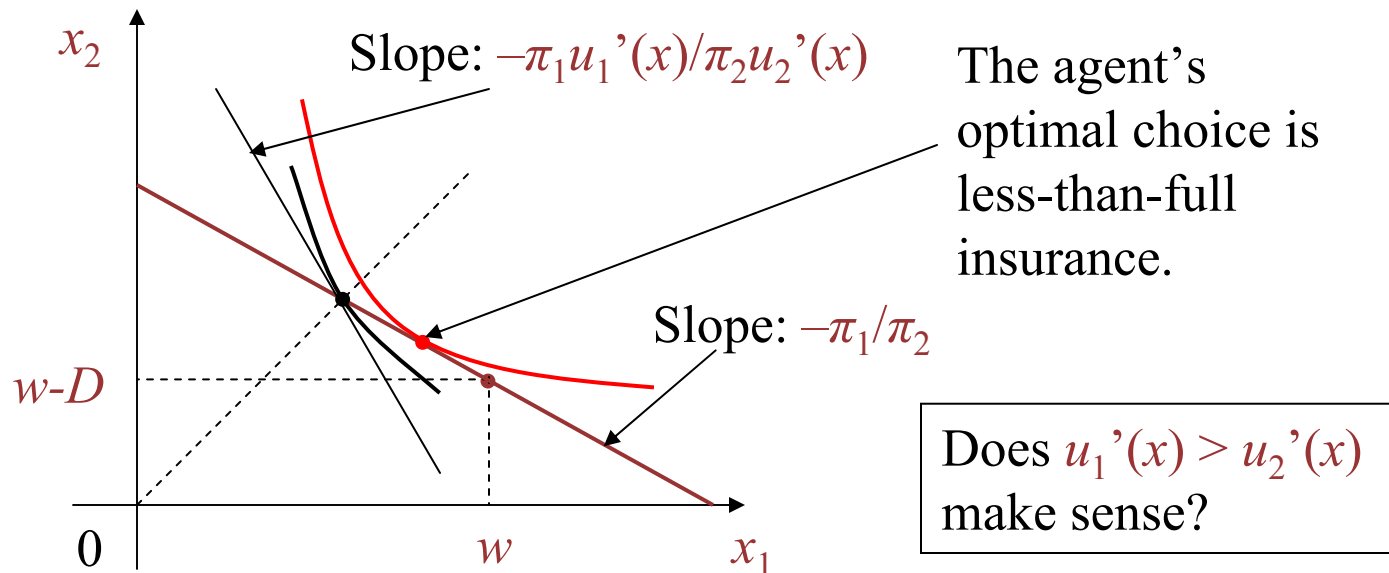
# State Dependent EU

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- THM: If a preference relation  $\succsim$  over  $\Delta^{|\mathcal{S}|}$  is continuous, complete, transitive, and satisfies the Independence Axiom, then it can be represented by a state-dependent expected utility function.  
A degenerate lottery  $(x_1, \dots, x_S)$  is evaluated by  $\sum_s \pi_s u_s(x_s)$ .
- This result follows directly from the EU Theorem. Instead of a single utility index  $u$  on  $X$ , here we determine a vector of utilities,  $(u_1, \dots, u_{|\mathcal{S}|})$ . Each payoff  $x_i \in X$  may have a different utility index in each state (they are treated as different outcomes).
- This theorem is not particularly deep.

# Application: Insurance

- Two states,  $S = \{\text{"no accident"}, \text{"accident"}\}$ , probs  $\pi_1, \pi_2$ , resp. W/o insurance, the outcome is  $(w, w-D)$ , where  $w$  is the initial wealth,  $D$  the damage. Let  $u_1(0) = u_2(0) = 0$ ,  $u_1'(x) > u_2'(x) \forall x > 0$ ; and both  $u_i'$  are decreasing. Fair insurance is available.



# A Subjective Framework

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- In many decision problems with uncertainty, the “lotteries” we choose from do not come with objectively defined probabilities.
- Example: Bet on the winner of Best Actress at the Oscars. Five nominees (ex ante), people may disagree on the odds. They still have preferences over bets on the winner.
- Framework: There are “states of nature” ( “The winner is X”). A “gamble” is a set of objective lotteries, each one corresponding to a state. Two sources of uncertainty: (a) risk within a state; (b) uncertainty over which state will occur.
- Set of alternatives:  $\Delta^{|S|}$  = set of objective lotteries in each state. Lotteries are reduced in each state, but not across states.

# Utility Representations

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- Fix a preference relation  $\succsim$  on  $\Delta^{|S|}$  and assume it is continuous, complete, transitive, and satisfies the Independence Axiom.
- Suppose, for a moment, that the probability of state  $s$  is  $\pi_s$ .  
→  $\succsim$  has a state-dependent expected utility representation:  
$$(x_1, \dots, x_{|S|}) \succsim (y_1, \dots, y_{|S|}) \text{ iff } \sum_s \pi_s u_s(x_s) \geq \sum_s \pi_s u_s(y_s).$$
- Now suppose that each state has probability  $\pi_s' = 1/|S|$ . The same preference  $\succsim$  (which is given without reference to the probabilities of the states) is represented by  $V(x) = \sum_s v_s(x_s)$ ; s.t.  $v_s(x_s) \equiv \pi_s u_s(x_s)$ .
- The modeler does not know the decision-maker's assessment of the  $\pi_s$ 's. But the decision-maker's behavior may reveal that assessment.



# Subjective Expected Utility

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- How can the modeler “tease out” the decision maker’s (agent’s) subjective probability assessment regarding the states?
- If the decision-maker really has state-dependent expected utility, then there is no way.

Example: If  $(\$1,0) \succeq (0,\$1)$  then either the agent thinks state  $s_1$  is more likely than state  $s_2$ , or the agent’s marginal utility for money is greater in  $s_1$  than  $s_2$ , or both.

- Subjective EU Idea: Assume that the decision-maker has state-independent risk-preferences. His vNM utility function can be determined by how he evaluates objective lotteries (useful we kept them in the model). Then, get subjective  $\pi_s$ ’s from the preferences.



# Subjective Expected Utility

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- **DEF:** Given  $\succsim$  with utility-representation  $(u_1, \dots, u_{|S|})$ , the induced state-contingent preference relation is  $\succsim_s$  such that for  $p, q \in \Delta$ ,  $p \succsim_s q$  iff  $\sum_{x \in X} p_s(x) u_s(x) \geq \sum_{x \in X} q_s(x) u_s(x)$ .
- **DEF:**  $\succsim$  is state-uniform if  $\succsim_s = \succsim_{s'}$ , for all  $s, s' \in S$ .
- **THM:** Suppose that the set of alternatives is  $\Delta^{|S|}$ , where  $S$  is a finite set of states. If  $\succsim$  is continuous, complete, transitive, state-uniform and satisfies the Independence Axiom, then there exist probability weights  $(\pi_1, \dots, \pi_{|S|})$  and utility function  $u$  such that
$$(x_1, \dots, x_{|S|}) \succsim (y_1, \dots, y_{|S|}) \text{ iff } \sum_s \pi_s u(x_s) \geq \sum_s \pi_s u(y_s).$$
- Richer model, more assumptions; probabilities from preferences.

# Ellsberg's Paradox

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- Two bags, each has two balls. The “\$20 gamble” pays \$20 if you guess the color of a randomly-selected ball correctly.
- Bag *A* contains 1 red and 1 green ball. How much would you pay for the “\$20 gamble”? Average = \$9.74, Fox and Tversky (1995).
- Bag *B* also contains two balls, but the color mix is not specified. How much would you pay for the “\$20 gamble”? Avg = \$8.53.
- Subjective EU  $\Rightarrow$  The agent has a probability assessment  $\pi_R = \text{Pr}(\text{Red})$  for each bag. No matter what  $\pi_R$  is for Bag *B*, one cannot do worse guessing the color of the ball in Bag *B* than guessing it in Bag *A*. Behavior is inconsistent with Subjective EU.

# Ellsberg's Paradox

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- Proposed Solution: Ambiguity Aversion.
- The bet on Bag B is “ambiguous”: the probabilities are not given. The decision-maker cannot rule out any distribution (prior). Perhaps s/he evaluates a gamble as its minimum expected utility over all possible distributions.
- Idea dates back to Wald (1950), *Statistical decision functions*.
- Gilboa and Schmeidler (JME 1989), using subjective framework, give a set of axioms for an agent's preferences to be represented by a vNM utility function  $u$  and a set of priors  $P$  such that
$$V(x) = \min_{\pi \in P} \sum_s \pi_s u(x_s).$$
- The set of priors captures the extent of ambiguity aversion.

# Ellsberg's Paradox

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- More recently, Klibanoff et al. (2005, ECMA) axiomatize:  
EU preferences over lotteries, subjective EU over second-order lotteries. Representation:  $V(x) = E_{\mu}[\phi(\sum_s \pi_s u(x_s))]$ , where  $\mu$  is a (subjective) distribution of prob. weights  $\pi$  that the agent considers possible, and  $\phi$  is increasing, concave.
- Bag  $A$ : Two states (ball is  $R$  or  $G$ ),  $\mu$  puts prob. 1 on  $\pi_R = 1/2$ .  
Bag  $B$ :  $\mu$  might put positive prob on a range of  $\pi_R$ 's.  
Prefer the “\$20 gamble” with Bag  $A$  if  $\phi$  is concave.
- But: In Fox-Tversky experiment, ambiguity aversion is found only if the subject is asked both questions (in comparison), not when s/he only faces the “\$20 gamble” with either Bag  $A$  or Bag  $B$ .  
The agent is suspicious that the experimenter is an adversary?

# Final Comments on EU Models

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- The Expected Utility model of preferences over risky lotteries builds on compelling axioms and admits a simple representation. Framework can have objective or subjective probabilities.
- Models with risk and risk aversion explain a variety of observed phenomena. Many strange effects can be accommodated by taking into account background risk or state-dependent utility.
- There are few paradoxes that raise fundamental questions about framing and how people understand choice problems (ambiguity).
- Apparent violations of rational choice models inspired work in Behavioral Economics (from Rabin to Gül & Pesendorfer) and Decision Theory (Machina, Epstein, recently Klibanoff et al, ...).



# Rabin's Puzzle

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- Suppose we flip a fair coin; you win \$100 if  $H$ , lose \$90 if  $T$ .
- Do you take this bet given your current wealth? Higher wealth?
- Repeating the experiment with different wealth levels and stakes should calibrate your risk aversion – if your behavior is consistent with some vNM utility function.
- THM (Rabin, 2000 ECMA): An agent that has concave vNM utility and turns down a bet to win \$100 or lose \$90 with equal probabilities at all wealth levels should also turn down a bet to win \$ $x$  or lose \$800 with equal probabilities for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

# \*Proof (Recitation)

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- $u'' \leq 0 \Rightarrow [u(w+100) - u(w+10)]/90 \leq [u(w+100) - u(w)]/100$ , so
$$u(w+100) - u(w+10) \leq .9 [u(w+100) - u(w)]. \quad (*)$$
- Agent turns down the gamble at  $w+100$ , hence
$$[u(w+200) + u(w+10)]/2 \leq u(w+100), \text{ or}$$
$$u(w+200) - u(w+100) \leq u(w+100) - u(w+10).$$
- $(*) \Rightarrow u(w+200) - u(w+10) \leq .9 [u(w+100) - u(w)]$ .  
Induction:  $u(w+100k) - u(w+100(k-1)) \leq .9^{k-1} [u(w+100) - u(w)]$ .
- Gain  $u(x) - u(w) \leq \sum_{k \geq 1} u(w+100k) - u(w+100(k-1))$ 
$$\leq (1 + .9 + .9^2 + \dots) [u(w+100) - u(w)] \leq 10 [u(w+100) - u(w)].$$
- Loss:  $u(w) - u(w-800) = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq 8} u(w-100(k-1)) - u(w-100k)$ 
$$\geq (1 + \dots + (10/9)^8) [u(w+100) - u(w)] > 10 [u(w+100) - u(w)]. \quad \blacksquare$$



# Insight from the Puzzle

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- As we increase  $w$  by \$100, if the agent keeps turning down the gamble (+\$100, -\$90 with equal probs) then his utility increment declines by a constant factor (that is, exponentially).  
This is why he does not take the second bet for any large  $x$ .
- Possible answers:
  - (1) Is there anybody who turns down that gamble with any  $w$ ?  
(I became risk neutral to small bets as soon as I got a job.)
  - (2) Initial wealth as a “mental state”?
- We pursue answer (1) next.

# Measuring Riskiness

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Dean Foster and Sergiu Hart, “An Operational Measure of Riskiness”, working paper, 2008.

- Measure the riskiness of a gamble without a detailed model of decision making (e.g., no utility fcn, no expected utility).
- Idea: Calculate the “critical level of wealth” at which it is “safe” to accept a gamble (bet).
- Gambles: Positive expected value random variables that have negative realizations.
- When is it “safe” to accept a gamble? The decision maker with a given initial wealth wants to avoid bankruptcy.

# Setup

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- A gamble  $g$  is a random variable with finitely many possible outcomes,  $x_1, \dots, x_m$ , each with positive probability  $p_i$ ,  $i=1, \dots, m$ .
- Assume that the expected value of  $g$  is positive,  $\sum_i p_i x_i > 0$ .
- Denote the maximal loss of  $g$  by  $L(g) = -\min\{x_i\}$ , and assume  $L(g) > 0$ . (There is a negative outcome).
- Denote the set of all such gambles by  $G$ .
- Let the decision maker's initial wealth be  $W_1$ . In a static setup, the way to avoid bankruptcy is not to take any  $g$  with  $L(g) > W_1$ .
- The paper's approach is more sophisticated: dynamic setup, potentially unknown process  $(g_t)_{t \geq 1}$ , nature as "adversary".
- Avoid bankruptcy:  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} W_t = W_\infty > 0$ .



# An Example

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- Suppose  $g$  is the 50-50% gamble, win \$100 or lose \$90. (Recall Rabin's puzzle.)
- Suppose that the decision maker faces an iid sequence of such gambles. (Main results will not assume the process is known.)
- Suppose that in period  $t = 1, 2, \dots$ , the decision maker can take on any proportion of the gamble, i.e.,  $\alpha_t g$  in period  $t$ ,  $\alpha_t \in [0, 1]$ .
- Assume that the agent uses a “simple proportional strategy”: Computes a number  $Q$ , called “critical wealth” for gamble  $g$ , and with wealth  $W_t$  in period  $t$ , he chooses  $\alpha_t = \max\{W_t/Q, 1\}$ .

Interpretation: If  $W_t$  is greater than the critical wealth  $Q$ , then take the whole gamble, if not, take a portion of it.



# An Example, cont'd

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- How will  $W_t$  evolve, given  $g$  and strategy corresponding to  $Q$  ?
- $$W_T = W_{T-1} + \alpha_{T-1} g_{T-1} = W_{T-1} + (W_{T-1}/Q)g_{T-1} = W_{T-1} (1+g_{T-1}/Q)$$
$$= W_1 \prod_{t \leq T} (1+g_t/Q).$$
- Suppose, for instance, that  $Q = 500$  for the gamble 50-50% chance of +100 and -90. Then,  $1+g_t/Q = 1.2$  and  $0.82$  with equal probabilities; i.e., the returns in each period are +20% or -18%. In the long run, by the Law of Large Numbers, the average wealth change per period is  $\sqrt{1.2*0.82} = 0.992$ . Almost surely,  $W_t \rightarrow 0$ .
- If  $Q = 1000$ , then  $1+g_t/Q \in \{1.1, 0.91\}$ , the long-run average per-period wealth growth is  $\sqrt{1.1*0.91} = 1.005$ , so  $W_t \rightarrow \infty$ .
- At  $Q = 900$ , the long-run average growth is exactly unity.

# More Generally

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- Suppose that  $g_t$  is iid, and the agent uses the “simple proportional strategy” described above, with critical wealth  $Q$ .
- THM: Let  $R$  solve  $E[\ln(1+g/R)] = 0$ .  
If  $Q > R$  then  $W_t \rightarrow \infty$ ; while if  $Q < R$  then  $W_t \rightarrow 0$ , almost surely.
  - By compounding returns and using the Law of Large Numbers as we did in the example. ■
- Note: For any  $g$ , there is a unique solution  $R$  to  $E[\ln(1+g/R)] = 0$ . This needs a little proof.
- If the gamble is 50-50% chance of gain  $a$  and loss  $b$ ,  $0 < b < a$ , then  $R = ab/(a-b)$ .
- We may call  $R$  an objective measure of riskiness.

# Going Full Tilt

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- Relax the iid assumption and assume instead that  $(g_t)_{t \geq 1}$  is any process where each  $g_t$  belongs to a finite cone  $G$ .
- Indeed, assume that the process is generated by an adversary – Nature picks the gambles to maximize the chance of bankruptcy given the agent’s strategy.
- Let  $\alpha_t \in \{0,1\}$  instead of  $[0,1]$ . (Nature can scale up/down bets.)
- THM:  $\forall g$ , let  $R(g)$  be the unique solution to  $E[ \ln(1+g/R(g)) ] = 0$ .  
If a strategy rejects  $g$  at  $W < R(g)$  then it avoids bankruptcy, i.e.,  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} W_t > 0$  for any sequence  $(g_t)_{t \geq 1}$  and any initial wealth  $W_1$ .
  - Proof is similar to calculations in the example; uses martingale convergence theorem in the general case.■

# Properties of Riskiness $R$

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- THM: For all gambles  $g, h \in G$ ,
  - (1) If  $g$  and  $h$  have the same distribution, then  $R(g) = R(h)$ .
  - (2) Homogeneity:  $R(\lambda g) = \lambda R(g)$ .
  - (3) Riskiness exceeds maximal loss:  $R(g) > L(g)$ .
  - (4) Sub-additivity:  $R(g+h) \leq R(g) + R(h)$ .
  - (5) Convexity:  $\forall \lambda \in (0,1), R(\lambda g + (1-\lambda)h) \leq \lambda R(g) + (1-\lambda)R(h)$ .
  - (6) Independent gambles: For independent random vars  $g$  and  $h$ ,
$$\min\{R(g), R(h)\} < R(g+h) < R(g) + R(h).$$
    - All follow from the formula. ■



# Connections

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- Agent with vNM utility  $u$  rejects gamble  $g$  at initial wealth  $W$  iff  $E[u(W+g)] < u(W)$ .

For  $u(x) = \ln(x)$ , reject  $g$  iff  $E[\ln(1+g/W)] < 0$ , i.e.,  $W < R(g)$ .

*To avoid bankruptcy, reject any gamble that log-utility rejects.*

Or: CRRA( $\rho$ ) utility guarantees no-bankruptcy if  $\rho \geq 1$ .

- Rabin's puzzle: "Reject a gamble at all wealth levels  $W$ " ?  
Is  $W$  total current wealth (including value of all future earnings, human capital etc.), or gambling wealth (amount ready to lose).
- Compare with riskiness measures used in finance, like VaR (value at risk). Those are even more ad hoc, this is at least motivated with a good story.