# 14.13 Economics and Psychology (Lecture 4) 

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## 1 Prospect Theory value of the game

Consider gambles with two outcomes: $x$ with probability $p$, and $y$ with probability $1-p$ where $x \geq 0 \geq y$.

The PT value of the game is

$$
V=\pi(p) u(x)+\pi(1-p) u(y)
$$

- In prospect theory the probability weighting $\pi$ is concave first and then convex, e.g.

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

for some $\beta \in(0,1)$. In the figure below $p$ is on the horizontal axis and $\pi(p)$ on the vertical one.


- A useful parametrization of the PT value function is a power law function

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u(x)=|x|^{\alpha} \text { for } x \geq 0 \\
& u(x)=-\lambda|x|^{\alpha} \text { for } x \leq 0
\end{aligned}
$$



Meaning - Fourfold pattern of risk aversion $u$

- Risk aversion in the domain of likely gains
- Risk seeking in the domain of unlikely gains
- Risk seeking in the domain of likely losses
- Risk aversion in the domain of unlikely losses

See tables on next page.

| Positive Prospects |  | Negative Prospects |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Problem 3: $(4,000, .80)$ | < (3000). | Problem 3': $(-4,000, .80)$ | $>$ (-3000). |
| $N=95 \quad[20]$ | [80]* | N=95 [92]* | [8] |
| Problem 4: $(4,000, .20)$ | $>(3,000, .25)$. | Problem 4': $(-4,000, .20)$ | $<(-3,000, .25)$ |
| $N=95 \quad[65] *$ | [35] | $N=95 \quad[42]$ | [58] |
| Problem 7: $(3,000, .90)$ | $>(6,000, .45)$. | Problem 7': $(-3,000, .90)$ | $<(-6,000, .45)$. |
| $N=66 \quad[86] *$ | [14] | $N=66 \quad$ [8] | [92]* |
| Problem 8: $(3,000, .002)$ | < (6,000, .001). | Problem 8': $(-3,000, .002)$ | $>$ (-6,000, .001). |
| $N=66 \quad[27]$ | [73]* | $N=66 \quad[70]^{*}$ | [30] |


| Subject | Percentage of Risk-Seeking Choices |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Gain |  | Loss |  |
|  | $p \leq .1$ | $p \geq .5$ | $p \leq .1$ | $p \geq .5$ |
| 1 | 100 | 38 | 30 | 100 |
| 2 | 85 | 33 | 20 | 75 |
| 3 | 100 | 10 | 0 | 93 |
| 4 | 71 | 0 | 30 | 58 |
| 5 | 83 | 0 | 20 | 100 |
| 6 | 100 | 5 | 0 | 100 |
| 7 | 100 | 10 | 30 | 86 |
| 8 | 87 | 0 | 10 | 100 |
| 9 | 16 | 0 | 80 | 100 |
| 10 | 83 | 0 | 0 | 93 |
| 11 | 100 | 26 | 0 | 100 |
| 12 | 100 | 16 | 10 | 100 |
| 13 | 87 | 0 | 10 | 94 |
| 14 | 100 | 21 | 30 | 100 |
| 15 | 66 | 0 | 30 | 100 |
| 16 | 60 | 5 | 10 | 100 |
| 17 | 100 | 15 | 20 | 100 |
| 18 | 100 | 22 | 10 | 93 |
| 19 | 60 | 10 | 60 | 63 |
| 20 | 100 | 5 | 0 | 81 |
| 21 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 100 |
| 22 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 92 |
| 23 | 100 | 31 | 0 | 100 |
| 24 | 71 | 0 | 80 | 100 |
| 25 | 100 | 0 | 10 | 87 |
| Risk seeking | $78^{\text {a }}$ | 10 | 20 | $87^{\text {a }}$ |
| Risk neutral | 12 | 2 | 0 | 7 |
| Risk averse | 10 | $88^{\text {a }}$ | $80^{\text {a }}$ | 6 |

a Values that correspond to the fourfold pattern.
Note: The percentage of risk-seeking choices is given for low ( $p \leq .1$ ) and high ( $\mathrm{p} \geq .5$ ) probabilities of gain and loss for each subject (riskneutral choices were excluded). The overall percentage of risk-seeking, risk-neutral, and risk-averse choices for each type of prospect appears at the bottom of the table.

## Properties of power law PT value functions

- they are scale invariant, i.e. for any $k>0$

Consider a gamble and the same gamble scaled up by $k$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
g= \begin{cases}x & \text { with prob } p \\
y & \text { with prob } 1-p\end{cases} \\
k g= \begin{cases}k x & \text { with prob } p \\
k y & \text { with prob } 1-p\end{cases}
\end{gathered}
$$

then

$$
V^{P T}(k g)=k^{\alpha} V^{P T}(g)
$$

- if someone prefers $g$ to $g^{\prime}$ then he will prefer $k g$ to $k g^{\prime}$ for $k>0$
- if $x, y \geq 0, V(-g)=-\lambda V(g)$
- if $x^{\prime}, y^{\prime} \geq 0$ and someone prefers $g$ to $g^{\prime}$ then he will prefer $-g^{\prime}$ to $-g$


## 2 How robust are the results?

- Very robust: loss aversion at the reference point, $\lambda>1$
- Medium robust: convexity of $u$ for $x<0$
- Slightly robust: underweighting and overweighting of probabilities $\pi(p) \gtrless$ p

3 In applications we often use a simplified PT
(prospect theory):

$$
\pi(p)=p
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u(x)=x \text { for } x \geq 0 \\
& u(x)=\lambda x \text { for } x \leq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

## 4 Second order risk aversion of EU

- Consider a gamble $\sigma$ and $-\sigma$ with 50 : 50 chances.
- Question: what risk premium $\Pi$ would people pay to avoid the small risk $\sigma$ ?
- We will show that as $\sigma \rightarrow 0$ this premium is $O\left(\sigma^{2}\right)$. This is called second order risk aversion.
- In fact we will show that for twice continuously differentiable utilities:

$$
\Pi(\sigma) \cong \frac{\rho}{2} \sigma^{2},
$$

where $\rho$ is the curvature of $u$ at 0 that is $\rho=-\frac{u^{\prime \prime}}{u^{\prime}}$.

- Let's generalize and consider an agent starting with wealth $x$. The agent takes the gamble iff:

$$
B(\Pi)=\frac{1}{2} u(x+\Pi+\sigma)+\frac{1}{2} u(x+\Pi-\sigma) \geq u(x)
$$

i.e. $\Pi \geq \Pi^{*}$ where:

$$
B\left(\Pi^{*}\right)=u(x)
$$

- Assume that $u$ is twice differentiable and take the Taylor expansion of $B(\Pi)$ for small $\sigma$ and $\Pi$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u(x+\Pi+\sigma)=u(x)+u^{\prime}(x)(\Pi+\sigma)+\frac{1}{2} u^{\prime \prime}(x)(\Pi+\sigma)^{2}+o(\Pi+\sigma)^{2} \\
& u(x+\Pi-\sigma)=u(x)+u^{\prime}(x)(\Pi-\sigma)+\frac{1}{2} u^{\prime \prime}(x)(\Pi-\sigma)^{2}+o(\Pi-\sigma)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

hence

$$
B(\Pi)=u(x)+u^{\prime}(x) \Pi+\frac{1}{2} u^{\prime \prime}(x)\left[\sigma^{2}+\Pi^{2}\right]+o\left(\sigma^{2}+\Pi^{2}\right)
$$

Then use the definition $B\left(\Pi^{*}\right)=u(x)$ to get

$$
\Pi^{*}=\frac{\rho}{2}\left[\sigma^{2}+\Pi^{* 2}\right]+o\left(\sigma^{2}+\Pi^{* 2}\right)
$$

- to solve : $\Pi^{*}=\frac{\rho}{2}\left[\sigma^{2}+\Pi^{* 2}\right]$ for small $\sigma$, call $\rho^{\prime}=\rho / 2$.
- Barbaric way:
- find the roots of $\Pi^{* 2}-\frac{1}{\rho^{\prime}} \Pi^{*}+\sigma^{2}=0$.
* compute the discriminant

$$
\Delta=\frac{1}{\rho^{\prime 2}}-4 \sigma^{2}
$$

$*$ the roots are $\Pi^{*}=\frac{1}{2 \rho^{\prime}} \pm \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{\rho^{\prime 2}}-4 \sigma^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$

$$
\Pi^{*}=\frac{1}{2 \rho^{\prime}} \pm \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{\rho^{\prime 2}}-4 \sigma^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$

* as when there is no risk, the risk premium should be 0 , then the
relevant root is:

$$
\Pi^{*}=\frac{1}{2 \rho^{\prime}}-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{\rho^{\prime 2}}-4 \sigma^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$

- take the Taylor expansion for small $\sigma$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Pi^{*} & =\frac{1}{2 \rho^{\prime}}-\frac{1}{2 \rho^{\prime}}\left(1-4 \rho^{\prime 2} \sigma^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\
& =\frac{1}{2 \rho^{\prime}}-\frac{1}{2 \rho^{\prime}}\left(1-\frac{1}{2} 4 \rho^{\prime 2} \sigma^{2}+o\left(\sigma^{2}\right)\right) \\
& =\rho^{\prime} \sigma^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

- then remember that $\rho^{\prime}=\rho / 2$ :

$$
\Pi^{*}=\frac{\rho}{2} \sigma^{2}
$$

