# Normative vs. Positive Models: Choice under Uncertainty 

## E. Maskin

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 May 13, 2015- Modern theory of choice dates from von Neumann and Morgenstern (1944)
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- precursors date from $18^{\text {th }}$ century (D. Bernoulli)
- In von Neumann-Morgenstern model, choices made according to expected utility ( $E U$ ) maximization
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- justification is axiomatic
- rather than just assuming EU maximization, vN-M showed that if decision maker (DM) satisfies basic, rather compelling assumptions, must act as though maximizing EU
- One virtue of axiomatic approach:
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- can understand complicated (and seemingly arbitrary) phenomenon (e.g., EU maximization) as implication of simple and less-arbitrary assumptions


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- how should rational DM behave under conditions of uncertainty
- turned out to be positive too
- explained much investment behavior
- explained insurance markets well
- Of course, not all people are rational (nobody fully rational)
- Of course, not all people are rational (nobody fully rational)
- and even fairly rational people make mistakes
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- will discuss paradoxes of Allais, Ellsberg,

Kahneman-Tversky
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-\ell=\left\{p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}\right\}, \quad p_{i}=\text { prob of } x_{i}
$$

- DM chooses among lotteries
- DM has preferences over lotteries
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- from (1), can assume $x_{1} \succ x_{2} \succ \ldots \succ x_{n}$ (labeling)
(2) $\succsim$ satisfies continuity:
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(3) $\succsim$ satisfies monotonicity:

if and only if $p \geq p^{\prime}$
(4) $\succsim$ satisfies independence:
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- suppose $\ell \succsim \ell^{\prime}$
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- only difference between two lotteries is: on right side, $\ell$ replaced by $\ell^{\prime}$


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- so DM chooses lottery that maximizes EU


## Proof:

- let $u\left(x_{1}\right)=1, u\left(x_{n}\right)=0$


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- let $u\left(x_{1}\right)=1, u\left(x_{n}\right)=0$
- from continuity, for every $x_{i}$, there exists probability $u\left(x_{i}\right)$ such that


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\left\{p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}\right\} \quad \succsim \quad\left\{p_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, p_{n}^{\prime}\right\}
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independence

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# independence 

$\leftrightarrow$

addition and multiplication

$$
\left\{p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}\right\} \quad \succsim \quad\left\{p_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, p_{n}^{\prime}\right\}
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$\leftrightarrow$

independence
$\leftrightarrow$

addition and multiplication
$\leftrightarrow$
$\sum p_{i} u\left(x_{i}\right) \quad \geq \quad \sum p_{i}^{\prime} u\left(x_{i}\right) \quad$ monotonicity

- DM is risk averse if
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- prefers $p x_{i}+(1-p) x_{j}$
to
lottery with
probability $p$ of $x_{i}$ probability 1- $p$ of $x_{j}$
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- risk aversion $\leftrightarrow$ utility function $u$ concave
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- How much would DM be willing to pay for lottery?
- If monetary outcomes are unboundedly large
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- expected value:

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\begin{array}{r}
\frac{1}{2} \cdot 1+\frac{1}{4} \cdot 2+\frac{1}{8} \cdot 4+\ldots \\
=\infty!
\end{array}
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- so DM's utility function must be concave eventually
- Example called St. Petersburg Paradox
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- resolved by Bernoulli (1738)
- vN-M model applies very widely
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- one pointed out by Allais (1953)
- Suppose DM offered choice between
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- $£ 1$ million for sure
(A)
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(A) and
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- $£ 1$ million for sure
(A)
and
- lottery

(B)
- Suppose DM offered choice between
- $£ 1$ million for sure
and
- lottery

(B)
- most people choose A
- Now, suppose DM offered choice between

(C)
- Now, suppose DM offered choice between

(C)
and
- Now, suppose DM offered choice between

(C)
and

(D)
- Now, suppose DM offered choice between

(C)
and

(D)
- most people choose D
- Now, suppose DM offered choice between

(C)
and

(D)
- most people choose D
- but choices A and D together violate EU!
- A can be rewritten as

- A can be rewritten as

- B can be rewritten

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- but if $\mathrm{A} \succ \mathrm{B}$, then independence axiom implies

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- so $\mathrm{C} \succ \mathrm{D}$
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- Savage (1954) reformulates vN-M axioms so that apply to case of subjective probability
- Independence axiom becomes:
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- if $\ell \succsim \ell^{\prime}$
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- then for all events $E$ and all $\hat{\ell}$



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\sum_{E} p(E) u\left(x_{\ell E}\right) \geq \sum_{E} p(E) u\left(x_{\ell^{\prime} E}\right),
$$

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- $\ell \succsim \ell^{\prime} \leftrightarrow$
$\sum_{E} p(E) u\left(x_{\ell E}\right) \geq \sum_{E} p(E) u\left(x_{\ell^{\prime} E}\right)$,
- where $x_{\ell E}=$ outcome of lottery $\ell$ in state $E$

$$
x_{\ell^{\prime} E}=\text { outcome of lottery } \ell^{\prime} \text { in state } E
$$

- Famous violation of Savage's axioms due to D. Ellsberg
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- same Ellsberg who leaked "Pentagon Paper" to press


## Closed box containing 90 colored balls

|  | 30 <br> red | black | yellow |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\ell_{1}$ | $£ 100$ | 0 | 0 |
| $\ell_{2}$ | 0 | $£ 100$ | 0 |
| $\ell_{3}$ | $£ 100$ | 0 | $£ 100$ |
| $\ell_{4}$ | 0 | $£ 100$ | $£ 100$ |

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| $\ell_{2}$ | byy <br> $\ell_{3}$ | $£ 100$ | 0 |
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- most people prefer $\ell_{1}$ to $\ell_{2}$


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- most people prefer $\ell_{4}$ to $\ell_{3}$

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|  | 0 | 0 |  |
| $\ell_{2}$ | 0 | $£ 100$ | 0 |
| $\ell_{3}$ | $£ 100$ | 0 | $£ 100$ |
| $\ell_{4}$ | 0 | $£ 100$ | $£ 100$ |

- most people prefer $\ell_{1}$ to $\ell_{2}$
- most people prefer $\ell_{4}$ to $\ell_{3}$
- violates Savage

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| $\ell_{2}$ | 0 | 0 |  |
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| $\ell_{4}$ | $£ 100$ | 0 | $£ 100$ |
| 0 | $£ 100$ | $£ 100$ |  |

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- $\quad \ell_{1} \succ \ell_{2} \rightarrow p($ red $)>p($ black $)$

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- most people prefer $\ell_{1}$ to $\ell_{2}$
- most people prefer $\ell_{4}$ to $\ell_{3}$
- violates Savage
- $\ell_{1} \succ \ell_{2} \rightarrow p($ red $)>p($ black $)$
- $\ell_{4} \succ \ell_{3} \rightarrow p($ black $)+p($ yellow $)>p($ red $)+p($ yellow $)$

Kahneman-Tversky (1981)

Kahneman-Tversky (1981)

- casts doubt on whether can represent lottery unambiguously as $\ell=\left(p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}\right)$

600 citizens exposed to deadly disease

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- treatment A: saves 200 lives

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- most people choose A over B

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- treatment C: 400 die

600 citizens exposed to deadly disease

- treatment A: saves 200 lives
- treatment B:

- most people choose A over B
- treatment C: 400 die
- treatment D:


600 citizens exposed to deadly disease

- treatment A: saves 200 lives
- treatment B:

- most people choose A over B
- treatment C: 400 die
- treatment D:

- most people choose D over C

600 citizens exposed to deadly disease

- treatment A: saves 200 lives
- treatment B:

- most people choose A over B
- treatment C: 400 die
- treatment D:

- most people choose D over C
- but A equivalent to $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{B}$ equivalent to D !
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- Allais
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- Ellsberg
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- by contrast in early days of decision theory, just one model
- challenge: to unify the 12

