

# Prospect Theory

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# Outline

- Expected Utility Theory
- Phenomena Violating EXU Theory
- Solving the inconsistencies
- Theory of Prospect Theory
- Some Evidence That support Prospect Theory

# The EXU Theory

- **Expectation:**  $U(X,P) = u(X) \cdot P$ , where  $X$  is the vector of the outcomes and  $P$  is the corresponding probabilities
- **Acceptable asset position:**  $U(X + w, p) > u(w) = U(w)$ ; the domain of the utility function is final states rather than gains or losses
- **Risk aversion:**  $u$  is concave,  $u'' < 0$

# Phenomena Violating The EXU Theory

- **Violation of the substitution/independence axiom**
- **The isolation effect:** discarding components that are shared by all prospects.
- **Framing effects**
- **Nonlinear preferences:** nonlinearity of preferences in probability
- **Source dependence**
- **Risk seeking:** a gain with small probability but a loss with large probability
- **Loss aversion:** losses loom larger than gains





# The isolation effect

PROBLEM 10: Consider the following two-stage game. In the first stage, there is a probability of .75 to end the game without winning anything, and a probability of .25 to move into the second stage. If you reach the second stage you have a choice between

$(4,000, .80)$  and  $(3,000)$ .

Your choice must be made before the game starts, i.e., before the outcome of the first stage is known.

# A schematic view of the problem 10

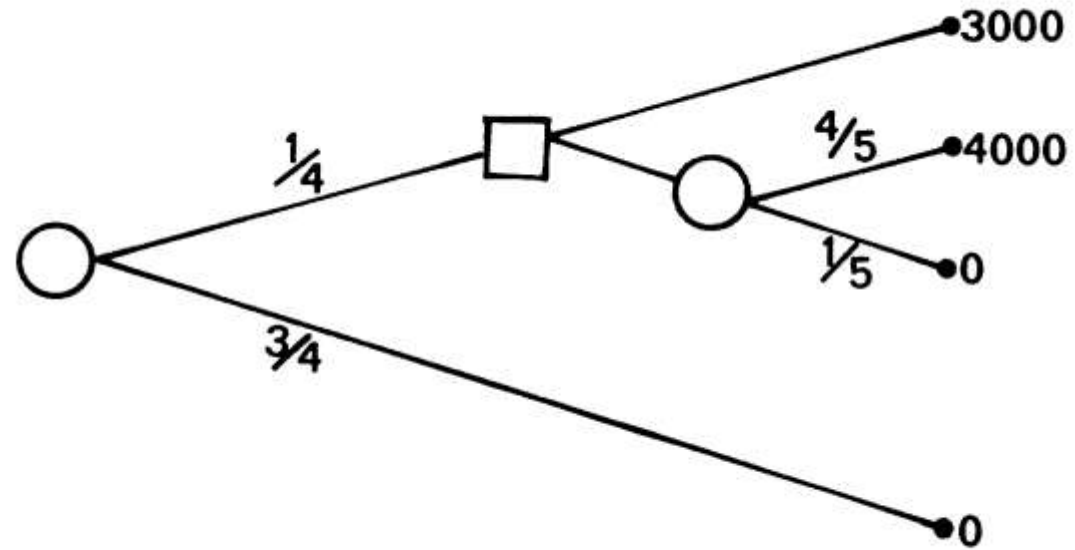


FIGURE 2.—The representation of Problem 10 as a decision tree (sequential formulation).



# Framing effect

TABLE I  
PREFERENCES BETWEEN POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE PROSPECTS

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

# Does varying the outcomes of a prospect have an impact on preference as well?

PROBLEM 11: In addition to whatever you own, you have been given 1,000. You are now asked to choose between

A: (1,000, .50),      and      B: (500).

$N = 70$  [16]

[84]\*

PROBLEM 12: In addition to whatever you own, you have been given 2,000. You are now asked to choose between

C: (-1,000, .50),      and      D: (-500).

$N = 68$  [69\*]

[31]

# How to solve these inconsistencies

- Assigning value to gains and losses rather than to final assets
- Replacing probabilities by decision weights

# Prospect Theory

A choice is made in a two phase process:

- **Editing phase:** a preliminary analysis of the offered prospects yielding a simpler representation of these prospects.
- **Evaluation phase:** the prospect of highest value is chosen.

# Editing phase

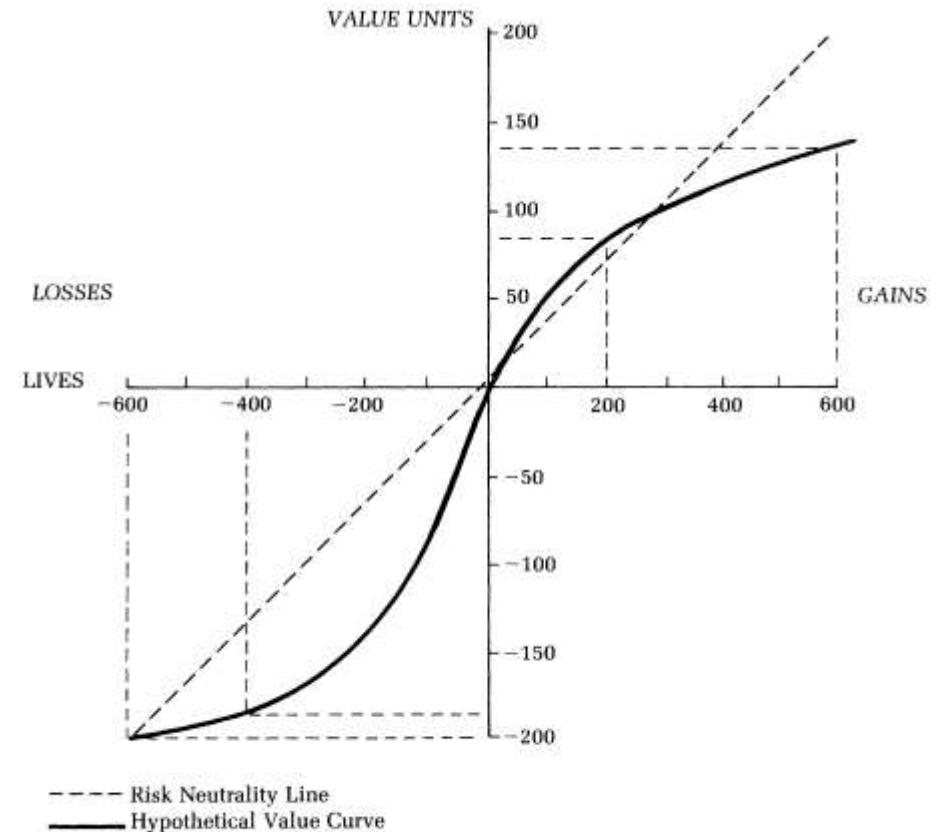
- **Coding:** viewing the prospect as gain or loss
- **Combination:** simplifying the prospect by combining the probabilities associated with identical outcomes
- **Segregation:** segregating risky and riskless components of the prospect
- **Cancellation:** the discarding of common constituents, i.e., outcome-probability pairs.
- **Simplification:** rounding probabilities and outcomes.  $(101, .49) \rightarrow (100, .50)$
- **Dominance:** the scanning of offered prospects to detect dominated alternatives

# Evaluation Phase

- Prospect theory distinguishes between evaluation of strictly positive/negative and regular prospects.
- A regular prospect is defined as  $p + q < 1$  or  $x \geq 0 \geq y$  or  $x \leq 0 \leq y$ ; and the corresponding evaluation is  $V(x, p; y, q) = \Pi(p)v(x) + \Pi(q)v(y)$ .
- A strictly positive/negative prospect is defined as  $p + q = 1$  and either  $x > y > 0$  or  $x < y < 0$ ; and the corresponding evaluation is  $v(y) + \Pi(p)[v(x) - v(y)]$ .
- if  $\Pi(p) + \Pi(1 - p) = 1 \rightarrow$  both evaluation are the same.
- What are the properties of  $v(\cdot)$  and  $\Pi(\cdot)$ ?

# The value function $v(\cdot)$

- The carriers of value are changes in wealth or welfare, rather than final states.
- $v(\cdot)$  is concave for gains and convex for losses
- $v(-y) - v(-x) > v(x) - v(y)$ : loss looms larger!



Note: Modified from Kahneman and Tversky (1979)

# Evidence for concavity of $v(\cdot)$

PROBLEM 13:

$(6,000, .25)$ , or  $(4,000, .25; 2,000, .25)$ .  
 $N = 68$  [18] [82]\*

PROBLEM 13':

$(-6,000, .25)$ , or  $(-4,000, .25; -2,000, .25)$ .  
 $N = 64$  [70]\* [30]

Applying equation 1 to the modal preference in these problems yields

$$\pi(.25)v(6,000) < \pi(.25)[v(4,000) + v(2,000)] \quad \text{and}$$
$$\pi(.25)v(-6,000) > \pi(.25)[v(-4,000) + v(-2,000)].$$



# The weighting function $\pi(\cdot)$

- $\pi$  is an increasing of  $p$ , with  $\pi(0) = 0$  and  $\pi(1) = 1$ .
- For small values of  $p$ ,  $\pi$  is a sub-additive function of  $p$ , i.e.,  $\pi(rp) > r\pi(p)$  for  $0 < r < 1$ .
- For small  $p$ ,  $\pi(p) > p$ ; small probabilities are overweighted.
- There is evidence that for all  $0 < p < 1$ ,  $\pi(p) + \pi(1 - p) < 1$ .

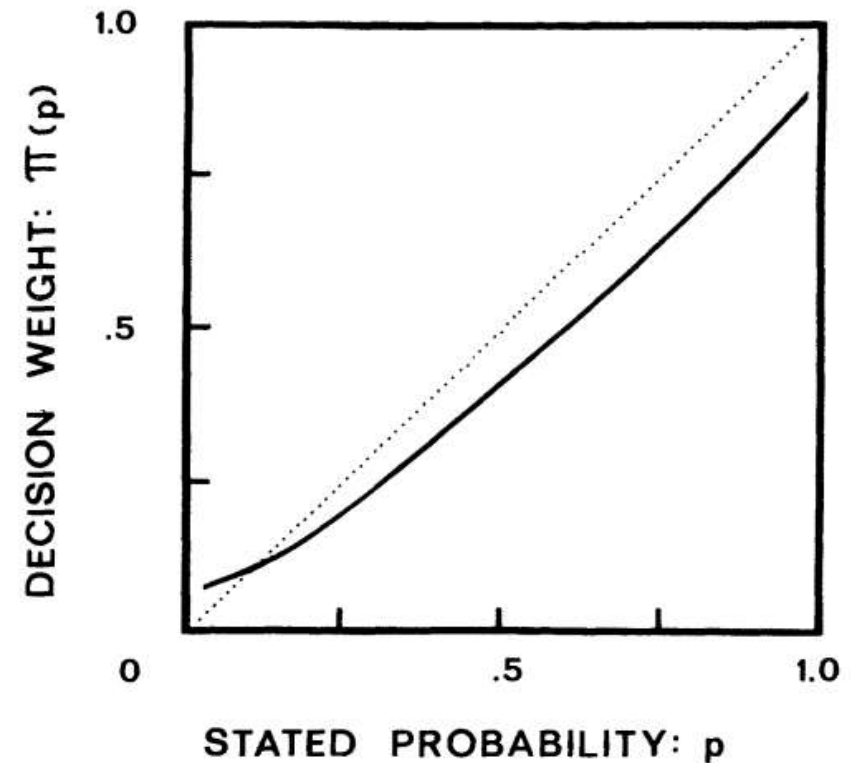


FIGURE 4.—A hypothetical weighting function.

# Evidence for overweighting small probability

PROBLEM 14:

$(5,000, .001)$ , or  $(5)$ .  
 $N = 72$  [72]\* [28]  $\pi (.001)v(5,000) > v(5) \rightarrow \pi (.001) > v(5)/v(5,000) > .001$

PROBLEM 14':

$(-5,000, .001)$ , or  $(-5)$ .  
 $N = 72$  [17] [83]\*