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# **Behavioural Economics**

### PSYC3310: Specialist Topics In Psychology

Mark Hurlstone Univeristy of Western Australia

### Seminar 3: Decision Making under Certainty



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# **Decision making under certainty**

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- The standard model under the microscope
  - focus on rational choice under certainty
- Decision making under certainty
  - examine violations of rational choice theory:
    - opportunity costs
    - the decoy effect
    - speaker 1: sunk costs
    - speaker 2: loss aversion and the endowment effect

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• speaker 3: anchoring and adjustment

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# **Definitions**

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# **Definitions: Preferences**

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 Standard model assumes choice alternatives can be ranked according to desirability

### Strong preference relation

- X is "definitely preferred" to Y
- can be stated as:  $X \succ Y$

### Weak preference relation

- X is "at least as good as" Y
- can be stated as:  $X \succeq Y$

### Indifference

- X is "as good as" Y
- can be stated as: X ~ Y

### Key point:

• Standard model assumes that preferences are stable

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# **Definitions: Utility**

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- Utility is an index or measure of preference
- We can express a person's preference ordering over a set of options numerically by assigning larger numerical values to more preferred options
- Suppose you prefer Coke (C) to Fanta (F), and Fanta to Sprite (S)
- We can express this preference ordering as a **utility function** which associates each alternative with a number
- *u*(C) = 3; *u*(F) = 2; *u*(S) = 1; yielding the sequence (1,2,3)

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- A utility function must satisfy two properties
  - assign a value to each alternative (ties are admitted)
  - larger values should be assigned to more preferd alternatives
- This view of utility is known as **ordinal utility** because it enables you to order preferences
- Other interpretations of utility are possible (we won't bother ourselves with them for now)

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Next ...

- This involves making a decision between two or more alternatives
- In the standard model, choice is assumed to be **revealed preference**
- Given the alternatives, *X* and *Y*, if you choose *X* then this "reveals" that your prefer it to *Y*
- Preferences and choices are assumed to be identical in the standard model

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# The standard model: Formal specification

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According to the standard model, individual *i* at time t = 0 maximises expected utility subject to a probability distribution p(s) of the states of the world  $s \in S$ :

$$\max_{x_i^t \in X_i} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \delta^t \sum_{s_t \in S_t} p(s_t) U(x_i^t | s_t)$$

- *U*(*x*|*s*) is the utility function, defined over the payoff *x*<sup>*t*</sup><sub>*i*</sub> of individual *i*
- Future utility is discounted with a time-consistent discount factor  $\boldsymbol{\delta}$

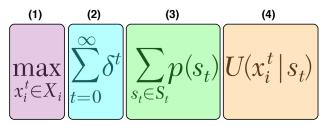
# The standard model: Assumptions by components

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- 1. Individuals maximize expected utility (1), (3), and (4)
- 2. An individual's utility is governed by entirely selfish concerns (4)
- 3. Individuals are Bayesian probability estimators (3)
- 4. Individuals have consistent time preferences (2)
- 5. All income and assets are completely fungible (4)

# The standard model: Components by seminars

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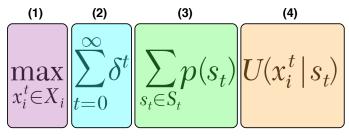
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- 1. Preferences (4) and choice (1) = Seminars 3, 6, and 8
- 2. Belief formation (3) = Seminar 4
- 3. Expected Utility Theory (1), (3), and (4) = Seminar 5
- 4. Temporal Discounting (2) = Seminar 7

# The standard model: Aspects of decision making

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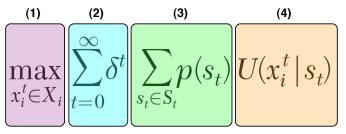
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Next ...



 Preferences - the rankings people have over a set of options based on their attitudes and values towards their outcomes (4)
Beliefs - the probabilities people associate with various outcomes occurring (3)

3. Rationality (1), (2), (3), and (4)

People's preferences based on attitudes and values (4) People modify beliefs in face of new evidence (3) People discount future outcomes (2) People make optimal choices (1)

# The standard model: An example

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Next ...

Suppose you have to choose between two 3310 topics:

- (1) Behavioural Economics (BE)
- (2) Cognition and Emotion (CE)

Choice	State of world $s \in S$	Probability $p(s)$	Utility $U(x s)$
BE	Exciting	0.8	60
	Dull	0.2	30
CE	Exciting	0.05	60
	Dull	0.95	30

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 $U(BE) = (0.8 \times 60) + (0.2 \times 30) = 54$  $U(CE) = (0.05 \times 60) + (0.95 \times 30) = 31.5$ 

# The Standard Model: Axioms and principles

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• Standard model explains preferences—component 4 in the earlier equation—using a set of axioms and principles

### Axioms

- basic propositions that cannot be proven and must be taken for granted
- fundamental to the model

### Principles

- auxiliary assumptions of the model
- relevance varies depending on circumstance
- Distinction between axioms and principles is important for evaluating shortcomings of the standard model

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# Transitivity

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- Given three alternatives *X*, *Y* and *Z*, if an individual prefers *X* to *Y* and *Y* to *Z* then they should also prefer *X* to *Z*
- This can be expressed as:

• *if* 
$$X \succeq Y$$
 and  $Y \succeq Z$ , then  $X \succeq Z$ 

- Similarly, if an individual is indifferent between *X* and *Y* and *Y* and *Z*, they must also be indifferent between *X* and *Z*
- This can be expressed as:
  - *if*  $X \sim Y$  and  $Y \sim Z$ , then  $X \sim Z$

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# Completeness

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When a person compares two alternatives *X* and *Y* this must lead to one of three mutually exclusive outcomes:

• The individual prefers X to Y

•  $X \succeq Y$ 

- The individual prefers Y to X
  - $Y \succeq X$
- The individual is indifferent between *X* and *Y* 
  - $X \backsim Y$

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# Reflexivity

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• This axiom follows from the completeness axiom and states that an option is at least as good as itself

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- $X \succeq X$
- This axiom is generally regarded as trivial

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# **Revealed preference**

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- If an individual chooses *X* over *Y* then it is assumed that *X* is preferred to *Y*—known as revealed preference
- This axiom states that if *X* is revealed as directly/indirectly preferred to *Y*—and the two goods are not the same—then *Y* cannot be revealed as directly/indirectly preferable to *X*

# **The Standard Model: Principles**

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# **The Standard Model: Principles**

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# Cancellation

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- Any state of the world that results in the same outcome, regardless of ones choice, can be discarded or ignored
- If you prefer the prospect *q* = (\$3000, 1) to the prospect *r* = (\$4000, 0.8) ...
- ... you should prefer the prospect *q*' = (\$3000, 0.25) to the prospect *r*' = (\$4000, 0.2)
- The final two prospects have 25% of the probabilities of the first two prospects
- These should cancel one another out

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# Dominance

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- If option X is better than option Y in one state of the world and at least as good in all other states then X is dominant over Y and should be preferred
  - if Behavioural Economics (X) is more "exciting" than Cognition and Emotion (Y) and both are of "moderate" difficulty, then Behavioural Economics should be preferred
- Related to the reflexivity axiom
- A simpler and therefore stronger assumption than cancellation/independence

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# Extensionality

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- People should have the same attitude toward an object irrespective of how it is described
- Describing a packet of mince meat as 5% fat or 95% fat free should not influence your attitude towards it or your valuation of it
- Related—like the dominance principle—to the reflexivity axiom

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# Invariance

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- Most important principle and essential for any normative theory
- States that different representations of the same choice problem should not yield different preferences
- Preferences should be:
  - description invariant: unaffected by the description of the choice options
  - procedure invariant: unaffected by the procedure used to elicit a person's preferences

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- "framing effects" should not happen
- Violations of this principle = bad news for standard model

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- Invariance
- Utility maximisation

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# **Utility maximisation**

### Behavioural Economics

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## Outline

Definitions Preference Utility Choice

### The Standard Model Axioms

Transitivity Completenes

Reflexivity

Preference

Principles

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Dominance

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- Decision makers maximise expected utilities
- Taken as a **descriptive** and **normative** statement:
  - viz.—people *do* behave in this way, and *ought* to behave in this way in order to maximise welfare
- This normative aspect is related to the concept of rationality

# Next ... departures from rationality in choice under certainty

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- Opportunity costs
- Decoy effect
- Sunk costs (Speaker 1)
- Endowment effects and loss aversion (Speaker 2)
- Anchoring and adjustment (Speaker 3)

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- An **opportunity cost** is the cost you pay when you forego one course of action in favour of another
- Suppose you invest some money in a high interest savings account with your bank
- At the end of the year, you earn \$900 in interest
- However, you forwent the opportunity to invest your money in a better savings account with another bank which would have earned \$1,400 in interest
- The opportunity cost—or **implicit cost**—is \$1,400 with an economic loss of \$900 \$1,400 = -\$500

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- Opportunity costs are pervasive—whenever we make a choice we forego another at some cost:
  - you can't watch The Bachelor and Q&A at the same time
  - you can't simultaneously be in a monogamous relationship with two different people (unless you're The Bachelor)
  - you can't read about behavioural economics at the same times as reading about fly fishing
  - you can't support both The Eagles and the Freo Dockers (you can only rationally support the latter)
- We can think of opportunity costs in terms of decision trees ...



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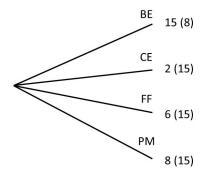
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Next ..



Decision Tree With utilities and opportunity costs (in

**brackets).** BE = behavioural economics; CE = cognition & emotion; FF = fascinated by faces; PM = performance monitoring and cognitive control

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- Opportunity costs are irrational according to the standard model—you should never choose an alternative whose opportunity cost is higher than its utility
- This is a demanding condition
- Think of rationally choosing the person you will marry:
  - you must have complete and transitive preferences over all alternatives—about half the world's population!
  - you must make sure your choice of spouse is not inferior to any other choice
  - in short, you would need a great deal of computational and reasoning power

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- When people must choose between two alternatives—target vs. competitor—the addition of a third alternative—known as the decoy—that is inferior to the target, but not the competitor, increases preference for the target (e.g. Huber et al., 1982, 1983)
- Known variously as the decoy effect, attraction effect, and asymmetric dominance effect
- The effect is an example of preference reversal

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- You are an avid reader of *The Economist* magazine and are faced with the following subscription dilemma:
  - 1-year online subscription for \$59
  - 2 1-year print subscription for \$125
  - 3 1-year online and print subscription for \$125
- Which option would you choose?

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  - 1-year online subscription for \$59
    - 2 1-year print subscription for \$125
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- Which option would you choose?
  - When presented with options 1 and 3, 32% choose option 3
  - When presented with all three options, 84% choose option 3
- Option 2 is merely a decoy ...

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- The decoy effect violates an assumption of the standard economic model know as the **independence of irrelevant** alternatives:
  - suppose you prefer option *x* over option *y* on a menu containing two options
  - adding a third option *z* to the menu should not change your preference for *x* over *y*
  - you might reasonably prefer *z* over *x* but you cannot suddenly prefer *y* over *x* simply because there is another item on the menu
- The decoy effect provides evidence of the instability of preferences, which is at variance with the standard economic model

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Next.

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