

Knightian Uncertainty in Economics and Finance

22nd Winter School on Mathematical Finance
January 20-22, 2025
Soesterberg

Frank Riedel

Bielefeld University

Knightian Uncertainty in Economics and Finance

22nd Winter School on Mathematical Finance
January 20-22, 2025
Soesterberg

Frank Riedel

Bielefeld University

- Frank Knight and the Discovery of Uncertainty as a Relevant Economic Factor

- Frank Knight and the Discovery of Uncertainty as a Relevant Economic Factor
- Re-Thinking Economics under the new Paradigm

- Frank Knight and the Discovery of Uncertainty as a Relevant Economic Factor
- Re-Thinking Economics under the new Paradigm
 - Preferences and Decisions under Uncertainty

- Frank Knight and the Discovery of Uncertainty as a Relevant Economic Factor
- Re-Thinking Economics under the new Paradigm
 - Preferences and Decisions under Uncertainty
 - Optimal Choice and Investment

- Frank Knight and the Discovery of Uncertainty as a Relevant Economic Factor
- Re-Thinking Economics under the new Paradigm
 - Preferences and Decisions under Uncertainty
 - Optimal Choice and Investment
 - Interactions: Equilibrium in Markets

- Frank Knight and the Discovery of Uncertainty as a Relevant Economic Factor
- Re-Thinking Economics under the new Paradigm
 - Preferences and Decisions under Uncertainty
 - Optimal Choice and Investment
 - Interactions: Equilibrium in Markets
- Re-Thinking Finance under the New Paradigm

- Frank Knight and the Discovery of Uncertainty as a Relevant Economic Factor
- Re-Thinking Economics under the new Paradigm
 - Preferences and Decisions under Uncertainty
 - Optimal Choice and Investment
 - Interactions: Equilibrium in Markets
- Re-Thinking Finance under the New Paradigm
 - Arbitrage and Equilibrium

- Frank Knight and the Discovery of Uncertainty as a Relevant Economic Factor
- Re-Thinking Economics under the new Paradigm
 - Preferences and Decisions under Uncertainty
 - Optimal Choice and Investment
 - Interactions: Equilibrium in Markets
- Re-Thinking Finance under the New Paradigm
 - Arbitrage and Equilibrium
 - Robust Finance

Frank Knight, Risk, Uncertainty, and Profit, 1921

Frank Knight, Risk, Uncertainty, and Profit, 1921

- Frank Knight (1885 - 1972) is a Chicago economist, one of the founders of the so-called “Chicago School”

Frank Knight, Risk, Uncertainty, and Profit, 1921

- Frank Knight (1885 - 1972) is a Chicago economist, one of the founders of the so-called “Chicago School”
- Knight is motivated by the question how profit can emerge under conditions of competition

Frank Knight, Risk, Uncertainty, and Profit, 1921

- Frank Knight (1885 - 1972) is a Chicago economist, one of the founders of the so-called “Chicago School”
- Knight is motivated by the question how profit can emerge under conditions of competition
- Without uncertainty, profits are zero when firms have positively homogeneous technologies

Frank Knight, Risk, Uncertainty, and Profit, 1921

- Frank Knight (1885 - 1972) is a Chicago economist, one of the founders of the so-called “Chicago School”
- Knight is motivated by the question how profit can emerge under conditions of competition
- Without uncertainty, profits are zero when firms have positively homogeneous technologies
- in general, “in ideal exchange, the quantities exchanged are equal **in value terms**, and there is no chance for anything like “profit” to arise” (p.86). *Marginal utilities and profits are equal in equilibrium.*

Frank Knight, Risk, Uncertainty, and Profit, 1921

- Frank Knight (1885 - 1972) is a Chicago economist, one of the founders of the so-called “Chicago School”
- Knight is motivated by the question how profit can emerge under conditions of competition
- Without uncertainty, profits are zero when firms have positively homogeneous technologies
- in general, “in ideal exchange, the quantities exchanged are equal **in value terms**, and there is no chance for anything like “profit” to arise” (p.86). *Marginal utilities and profits are equal in equilibrium.*
- Knight claims that the same conclusion holds true under “risk”, i.e. in an environment where the probabilities are perfectly known to each competitor

Frank Knight, Risk, Uncertainty, and Profit, 1921

- Frank Knight (1885 - 1972) is a Chicago economist, one of the founders of the so-called “Chicago School”
- Knight is motivated by the question how profit can emerge under conditions of competition
- Without uncertainty, profits are zero when firms have positively homogeneous technologies
- in general, “in ideal exchange, the quantities exchanged are equal **in value terms**, and there is no chance for anything like “profit” to arise” (p.86). *Marginal utilities and profits are equal in equilibrium.*
- Knight claims that the same conclusion holds true under “risk”, i.e. in an environment where the probabilities are perfectly known to each competitor
- Knight identifies “proper uncertainty” as a source of profit

Frank Knight, Chapter 7

Frank Knight, Chapter 7

- the basic theory of utility and profit maximization applies in small environments when everything is perfectly known

Frank Knight, Chapter 7

- the basic theory of utility and profit maximization applies in small environments when everything is perfectly known
- for sophisticated people, even situations of risk can be dealt with: “the bursting of bottles does not introduce any uncertainty or hazard into the business of producing champagne. Each single bottle bursts at random. But by the law of large numbers, the total number of burst bottles is known and becomes a fixed and known cost for the firm.” (p.213)

Frank Knight, Chapter 7

- the basic theory of utility and profit maximization applies in small environments when everything is perfectly known
- for sophisticated people, even situations of risk can be dealt with: “the bursting of bottles does not introduce any uncertainty or hazard into the business of producing champagne. Each single bottle bursts at random. But by the law of large numbers, the total number of burst bottles is known and becomes a fixed and known cost for the firm.” (p.213)
- markets can perfectly price such randomness (insurance)

Frank Knight, Chapter 7

- the basic theory of utility and profit maximization applies in small environments when everything is perfectly known
- for sophisticated people, even situations of risk can be dealt with: “the bursting of bottles does not introduce any uncertainty or hazard into the business of producing champagne. Each single bottle bursts at random. But by the law of large numbers, the total number of burst bottles is known and becomes a fixed and known cost for the firm.” (p.213)
- markets can perfectly price such randomness (insurance)
- “The mathematical type of probability is practically never met with in business.” (p.215)

Frank Knight, Chapter 7

- the basic theory of utility and profit maximization applies in small environments when everything is perfectly known
- for sophisticated people, even situations of risk can be dealt with: “the bursting of bottles does not introduce any uncertainty or hazard into the business of producing champagne. Each single bottle bursts at random. But by the law of large numbers, the total number of burst bottles is known and becomes a fixed and known cost for the firm.” (p.213)
- markets can perfectly price such randomness (insurance)
- “The mathematical type of probability is practically never met with in business.” (p.215)
- In business, no law of large numbers that allows to estimate the probability of success with accuracy.

Frank Knight, Chapter 8: Uncertainty explains excess profit

Frank Knight, Chapter 8: Uncertainty explains excess profit

- Knight distinguishes risk (measurable uncertainty) from uncertainty (unmeasurable uncertainty)

Frank Knight, Chapter 8: Uncertainty explains excess profit

- Knight distinguishes risk (measurable uncertainty) from uncertainty (unmeasurable uncertainty)
- “the income of an entrepreneur is larger ... as there is a scarcity of self-confidence in society combined with the power to make effective guarantees to employees.” (p.283)

Frank Knight, Chapter 8: Uncertainty explains excess profit

- Knight distinguishes risk (measurable uncertainty) from uncertainty (unmeasurable uncertainty)
- “the income of an entrepreneur is larger ... as there is a scarcity of self-confidence in society combined with the power to make effective guarantees to employees.” (p.283)
- excess profit is the result of confronting **uninsurable uncertainty**

The Bayesian Paradigm

The Bayesian Paradigm

- One can replace the “accurate estimate” by a “subjective belief”, an idea that goes back to *Irving Fisher*, *The Nature of Capital and Income*, p.266

The Bayesian Paradigm

- One can replace the “accurate estimate” by a “subjective belief”, an idea that goes back to *Irving Fisher*, *The Nature of Capital and Income*, p.266
- this approach has become the standard approach in economics (*Savage*, *Anscombe-Aumann*, “subjective expected utility theory”) as we discuss below

The Bayesian Paradigm

- One can replace the “accurate estimate” by a “subjective belief”, an idea that goes back to *Irving Fisher*, *The Nature of Capital and Income*, p.266
- this approach has become the standard approach in economics (*Savage*, *Anscombe-Aumann*, “subjective expected utility theory”) as we discuss below
- but was this way the right way to go, and if not, what other options do we have?

A Taxonomy of Uncertainty

1. Complete Certainty: past and future perfectly known like in classical physics

A Taxonomy of Uncertainty

1. Complete Certainty: past and future perfectly known like in classical physics
2. Risk - objective probabilities - the realm of probability theory

A Taxonomy of Uncertainty

1. Complete Certainty: past and future perfectly known like in classical physics
2. Risk - objective probabilities - the realm of probability theory
3. Fully Reducible Uncertainty: probabilities are not known, but can be estimated with a high degree of accuracy, law of large numbers, ergodicity, life insurance Statistics reduces uncertainty to risk

A Taxonomy of Uncertainty

1. Complete Certainty: past and future perfectly known like in classical physics
2. Risk - objective probabilities - the realm of probability theory
3. Fully Reducible Uncertainty: probabilities are not known, but can be estimated with a high degree of accuracy, law of large numbers, ergodicity, life insurance Statistics reduces uncertainty to risk
4. Imprecise Probabilistic Information: irreducible uncertainty
Research of the last 20 years allows to deal with that -- Our lecture series

Knightian Uncertainty as Imprecise Probabilistic Information

1. stochastic or time-varying parameters that vary too frequently to be estimated accurately;

Knightian Uncertainty as Imprecise Probabilistic Information

1. stochastic or time-varying parameters that vary too frequently to be estimated accurately;
2. nonlinearities too complex to be captured by existing models, techniques, and datasets;

Knightian Uncertainty as Imprecise Probabilistic Information

1. stochastic or time-varying parameters that vary too frequently to be estimated accurately;
2. nonlinearities too complex to be captured by existing models, techniques, and datasets;
3. non- stationarities and non-ergodicities that render useless the Law of Large Numbers, Central Limit Theorem, and other methods of statistical inference and approximation;

Knightian Uncertainty as Imprecise Probabilistic Information

1. stochastic or time-varying parameters that vary too frequently to be estimated accurately;
2. nonlinearities too complex to be captured by existing models, techniques, and datasets;
3. non-stationarities and non-ergodicities that render useless the Law of Large Numbers, Central Limit Theorem, and other methods of statistical inference and approximation;
4. the dependence on relevant but unknown and unknowable conditioning information.

Knighitian Uncertainty as Imprecise Probabilistic Information

1. stochastic or time-varying parameters that vary too frequently to be estimated accurately;
2. nonlinearities too complex to be captured by existing models, techniques, and datasets;
3. non- stationarities and non-ergodicities that render useless the Law of Large Numbers, Central Limit Theorem, and other methods of statistical inference and approximation;
4. the dependence on relevant but unknown and unknowable conditioning information.
5. see *Lo, Mueller*, Journal of Investment Management, 2010

- The last 20 years have seen a huge development in economics, finance, and mathematics

Knightian Uncertainty as a new paradigm

- The last 20 years have seen a huge development in economics, finance, and mathematics
- Knightian uncertainty (microeconomics), model uncertainty (finance), robustness (macroeconomics)

Knightian Uncertainty as a new paradigm

- The last 20 years have seen a huge development in economics, finance, and mathematics
- Knightian uncertainty (microeconomics), model uncertainty (finance), robustness (macroeconomics)
- we next consider the basic paradigmatic decision situations under Knightian uncertainty

Decision Situations under Risk: Roulette

Roulette Bets: You win 1 Euro if

- 'Rouge'
- 'Manque' (1-18)
- 'Colonne 34' (1, 4, 7, ..., 34)
- 'Plein' (one particular number)

'Almost' everyone agrees that

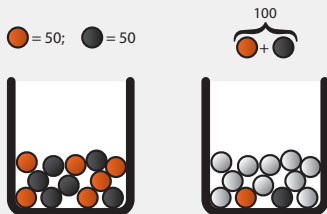
Rouge \sim Manque \succ Colonne 34 \succ Plein

with \sim meaning "I am indifferent", \succ meaning "I prefer"

		0				
PASSE	1	2	3	MANQUE		
	4	5	6			
	7	8	9			
	10	11	12			
PAIR	13	14	15	IMPAIR		
	16	17	18			
	19	20	21			
	22	23	24			
	25	26	27			
◆	28	29	30	◆		
	31	32	33			
	34	35	36			
12 ⁰	12 ¹	12 ²		12 ⁰	12 ¹	12 ²

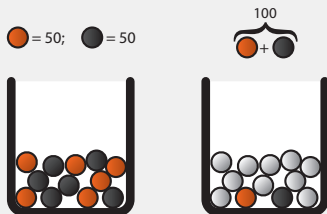
Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 1



Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

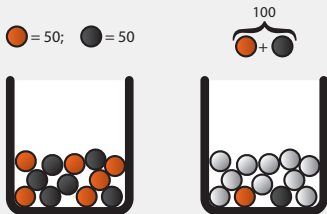
Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 1



Literature

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 1



Literature

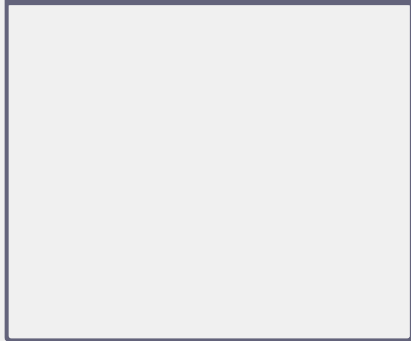
- *Daniel Ellsberg*, Risk, Ambiguity, and the Savage Axioms, Quarterly Journal of Economics, 1961

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg Bets: You win 1 Euro if



Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg Bets: You win 1 Euro if

- red ball is drawn in Urn 1, R1

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg Bets: You win 1 Euro if

- red ball is drawn in Urn 1, R1
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B1,

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg Bets: You win 1 Euro if

- red ball is drawn in Urn 1, R1
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B1,
- red ball is drawn in Urn 2, R2,

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg Bets: You win 1 Euro if

- red ball is drawn in Urn 1, R1
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B1,
- red ball is drawn in Urn 2, R2,
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B2

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg Bets: You win 1 Euro if

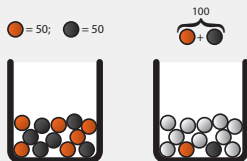
- red ball is drawn in Urn 1, R1
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B1,
- red ball is drawn in Urn 2, R2,
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B2

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg Bets: You win 1 Euro if

- red ball is drawn in Urn 1, R1
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B1,
- red ball is drawn in Urn 2, R2,
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B2

Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 1

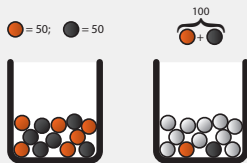


Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg Bets: You win 1 Euro if

- red ball is drawn in Urn 1, R1
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B1,
- red ball is drawn in Urn 2, R2,
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B2

Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 1



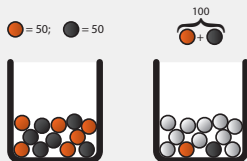
Vote

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg Bets: You win 1 Euro if

- red ball is drawn in Urn 1, R1
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B1,
- red ball is drawn in Urn 2, R2,
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B2

Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 1



Vote

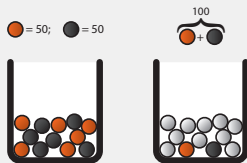
- R1 or B1 ?

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg Bets: You win 1 Euro if

- red ball is drawn in Urn 1, R1
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B1,
- red ball is drawn in Urn 2, R2,
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B2

Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 1



Vote

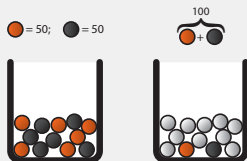
- R1 or B1 ?
- R2 or B2 ?

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg Bets: You win 1 Euro if

- red ball is drawn in Urn 1, R1
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B1,
- red ball is drawn in Urn 2, R2,
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B2

Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 1



Vote

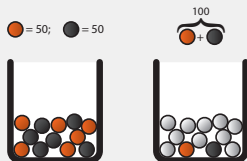
- R1 or B1 ?
- R2 or B2 ?
- R1 or R2 ?

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg Bets: You win 1 Euro if

- red ball is drawn in Urn 1, R1
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B1,
- red ball is drawn in Urn 2, R2,
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B2

Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 1

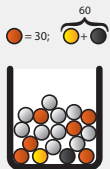


Vote

- R1 or B1 ?
- R2 or B2 ?
- R1 or R2 ?
- B1 or B2 ?

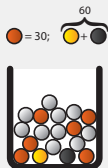
Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 2



Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

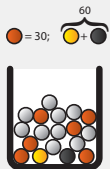
Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 2



Vote

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 2

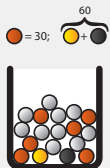


Vote

- 'Red' or 'Black' ?

Decision Situations under Uncertainty I: Ellsberg's Experiments

Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 2



Vote

- 'Red' or 'Black' ?
- 'Red or Yellow' or 'Black or Yellow' ?

Complex Decision Situations under Uncertainty: The Real World

- Will the next US president be a Democrat? (USD)
Probability estimate

Complex Decision Situations under Uncertainty: The Real World

- Will the next US president be a Democrat? (USD)
Probability estimate
- Will Germany win the next World Cup in soccer? (GWC)

Complex Decision Situations under Uncertainty: The Real World

- Will the next US president be a Democrat? (USD)
Probability estimate
- Will Germany win the next World Cup in soccer? (GWC)
- Will the interest rate on ten year Euro bonds be above 2 % on January 31, 2025? (EUR)

Complex Decision Situations under Uncertainty: The Real World

- Will the next US president be a Democrat? (USD)
Probability estimate
- Will Germany win the next World Cup in soccer? (GWC)
- Will the interest rate on ten year Euro bonds be above 2 % on January 31, 2025? (EUR)
- How to price a bond of a 'BB'-rated company? (BB)

Complex Decision Situations under Uncertainty: The Real World

- Will the next US president be a Democrat? (USD)
Probability estimate
- Will Germany win the next World Cup in soccer? (GWC)
- Will the interest rate on ten year Euro bonds be above 2 % on January 31, 2025? (EUR)
- How to price a bond of a 'BB'-rated company? (BB)

Complex Decision Situations under Uncertainty: The Real World

- Will the next US president be a Democrat? (USD)
Probability estimate
- Will Germany win the next World Cup in soccer? (GWC)
- Will the interest rate on ten year Euro bonds be above 2 % on January 31, 2025? (EUR)
- How to price a bond of a 'BB'-rated company? (BB)

Order the bets according to your beliefs! Do you know the probabilities? Do you think it is possible to know the probabilities or to obtain estimates?

Analysis of Roulette

- In Roulette, one can compare bets by counting the number of favorable outcomes

Analysis of Roulette

- In Roulette, one can compare bets by counting the number of favorable outcomes
- 'Rouge' and 'Manque' have 18 favorable outcomes, 'Colonne 34' has 12, 'Plein' has one

Analysis of Roulette

- In Roulette, one can compare bets by counting the number of favorable outcomes
- 'Rouge' and 'Manque' have 18 favorable outcomes, 'Colonne 34' has 12, 'Plein' has one
- every 37 outcomes have equal frequency

Analysis of Roulette

- In Roulette, one can compare bets by counting the number of favorable outcomes
- 'Rouge' and 'Manque' have 18 favorable outcomes, 'Colonne 34' has 12, 'Plein' has one
- every 37 outcomes have equal frequency
- different runs are independent experiments

Analysis of Roulette

- In Roulette, one can compare bets by counting the number of favorable outcomes
- 'Rouge' and 'Manque' have 18 favorable outcomes, 'Colonne 34' has 12, 'Plein' has one
- every 37 outcomes have equal frequency
- different runs are independent experiments
- the laws of probability apply: Independent, identical experiments, law of large numbers, central limit theorem

Analysis of Roulette

- In Roulette, one can compare bets by counting the number of favorable outcomes
- 'Rouge' and 'Manque' have 18 favorable outcomes, 'Colonne 34' has 12, 'Plein' has one
- every 37 outcomes have equal frequency
- different runs are independent experiments
- the laws of probability apply: Independent, identical experiments, law of large numbers, central limit theorem
- there is a reason why the odds are 1 : 1 for 'Rouge' and 1 : 2 for 'Colonne 34'

Analysis of Roulette

- In Roulette, one can compare bets by counting the number of favorable outcomes
- 'Rouge' and 'Manque' have 18 favorable outcomes, 'Colonne 34' has 12, 'Plein' has one
- every 37 outcomes have equal frequency
- different runs are independent experiments
- the laws of probability apply: Independent, identical experiments, law of large numbers, central limit theorem
- there is a reason why the odds are 1 : 1 for 'Rouge' and 1 : 2 for 'Colonne 34'
- if someone does not agree with the ordering

Rouge \succ Colonne 34

we can offer him bets and make money in the long run
(whiteboard)

Consequences for Rational Choice

Probabilistic Model of Lotteries

Probabilistic Model of Lotteries

- Ω set of states of the world, ($\Omega = \{0, 1, \dots, 36\}$)

Probabilistic Model of Lotteries

- Ω set of states of the world, ($\Omega = \{0, 1, \dots, 36\}$)
- \mathcal{F} σ -field of possible events, (power set of Ω)

Probabilistic Model of Lotteries

- Ω set of states of the world, ($\Omega = \{0, 1, \dots, 36\}$)
- \mathcal{F} σ -field of possible events, (power set of Ω)
- P commonly agreed upon probability on the measurable space (Ω, \mathcal{F}) (uniform probability)

Probabilistic Model of Lotteries

- Ω set of states of the world, ($\Omega = \{0, 1, \dots, 36\}$)
- \mathcal{F} σ -field of possible events, (power set of Ω)
- P commonly agreed upon probability on the measurable space (Ω, \mathcal{F}) (uniform probability)
- Bets can be described by 'acts', measurable functions from the state space to some set of prizes \mathcal{X} , $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$, ($f(\omega) = 1$ if $\omega \leq 18$ for 'manque')

Probabilistic Model of Lotteries

- Ω set of states of the world, ($\Omega = \{0, 1, \dots, 36\}$)
- \mathcal{F} σ -field of possible events, (power set of Ω)
- P commonly agreed upon probability on the measurable space (Ω, \mathcal{F}) (uniform probability)
- Bets can be described by ‘acts’, measurable functions from the state space to some set of prizes \mathcal{X} , $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$, ($f(\omega) = 1$ if $\omega \leq 18$ for ‘manque’)
- Only the distribution $P^f(x) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega : f(\omega) = x\})$ of bets matters

Probabilistic Model of Lotteries

- Ω set of states of the world, ($\Omega = \{0, 1, \dots, 36\}$)
- \mathcal{F} σ -field of possible events, (power set of Ω)
- P commonly agreed upon probability on the measurable space (Ω, \mathcal{F}) (uniform probability)
- Bets can be described by ‘acts’, measurable functions from the state space to some set of prizes \mathcal{X} , $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$, ($f(\omega) = 1$ if $\omega \leq 18$ for ‘manque’)
- Only the distribution $P^f(x) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega : f(\omega) = x\})$ of bets matters
- it is sufficient to know how to order probability distributions on \mathcal{X} ; we write $\Delta = \Delta\mathcal{X}$ for the set of all probability distributions on \mathcal{X}

Probabilistic Model of Lotteries

- Ω set of states of the world, ($\Omega = \{0, 1, \dots, 36\}$)
- \mathcal{F} σ -field of possible events, (power set of Ω)
- P commonly agreed upon probability on the measurable space (Ω, \mathcal{F}) (uniform probability)
- Bets can be described by ‘acts’, measurable functions from the state space to some set of prizes \mathcal{X} , $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$, ($f(\omega) = 1$ if $\omega \leq 18$ for ‘manque’)
- Only the distribution $P^f(x) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega : f(\omega) = x\})$ of bets matters
- it is sufficient to know how to order probability distributions on \mathcal{X} ; we write $\Delta = \Delta\mathcal{X}$ for the set of all probability distributions on \mathcal{X}
- we call such acts with known probabilities **lotteries**

Literature

Literature

- *John von Neumann, Oscar Morgenstern*, Theory of Games and Economic Behavior, 1944

Literature

- *John von Neumann, Oscar Morgenstern*, Theory of Games and Economic Behavior, 1944
- *John von Neumann*, Zur Theorie der Gesellschaftsspiele, Math. Annalen 1928

Literature

- *John von Neumann, Oscar Morgenstern*, Theory of Games and Economic Behavior, 1944
- *John von Neumann*, Zur Theorie der Gesellschaftsspiele, Math. Annalen 1928

Basic Assumption

Literature

- *John von Neumann, Oscar Morgenstern*, Theory of Games and Economic Behavior, 1944
- *John von Neumann*, Zur Theorie der Gesellschaftsspiele, Math. Annalen 1928

Basic Assumption

- In the probabilistic world, a 'rational' man orders lotteries $P, Q \in \Delta$ over some set of outcomes \mathcal{X} with the help of a **complete and transitive** ordering \succeq , a preference relation

Literature

- *John von Neumann, Oscar Morgenstern*, Theory of Games and Economic Behavior, 1944
- *John von Neumann*, Zur Theorie der Gesellschaftsspiele, Math. Annalen 1928

Basic Assumption

- In the probabilistic world, a 'rational' man orders lotteries $P, Q \in \Delta$ over some set of outcomes \mathcal{X} with the help of a **complete and transitive** ordering \succeq , a preference relation
- **that satisfies the linear rules of mixing lotteries (independence)**

Literature

- *John von Neumann, Oscar Morgenstern*, Theory of Games and Economic Behavior, 1944
- *John von Neumann*, Zur Theorie der Gesellschaftsspiele, Math. Annalen 1928

Basic Assumption

- In the probabilistic world, a 'rational' man orders lotteries $P, Q \in \Delta$ over some set of outcomes \mathcal{X} with the help of a **complete and transitive** ordering \succeq , a preference relation
- **that satisfies the linear rules of mixing lotteries (independence)**
- and that is continuous

Zur Theorie der Gesellschaftsspiele¹⁾.

Von

J. v. Neumann in Berlin.

Einleitung.

I. Die Frage, deren Beantwortung die vorliegende Arbeit anstrebt, ist die folgende:

n Spieler, S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n , spielen ein gegebenes Gesellschaftsspiel \mathcal{G} . Wie muß einer dieser Spieler, S_m , spielen, um dabei ein möglichst günstiges Resultat zu erzielen?

Die Fragestellung ist allgemein bekannt, und es gibt wohl kaum eine Frage des täglichen Lebens, in die dieses Problem nicht hineinspielte; trotzdem ist der Sinn dieser Frage kein eindeutig klarer. Denn sobald $n > 1$ ist (d. h. ein eigentliches Spiel vorliegt), hängt das Schicksal eines jeden Spielers außer von seinen eigenen Handlungen auch noch von denen seiner Mitspieler ab; und deren Benehmen ist von genau denselben egoistischen Motiven beherrscht, die wir beim ersten Spieler bestimmen möchten. Man fühlt, daß ein gewisser Zirkel im Wesen der Sache liegt.

Wir müssen also versuchen, zu einer klaren Fragestellung zu kommen. Was ist zunächst ein Gesellschaftsspiel? Es fallen unter diesen Begriff sehr viele, recht verschiedenartige Dinge: von der Roulette bis zum Schach, vom Bakkarat bis zum Bridge liegen ganz verschiedene Varianten des Sammelbegriffes „Gesellschaftsspiel“ vor. Und letzten Endes kann auch irgend ein Ereignis, mit gegebenen äußeren Bedingungen und gegebenen Handelnden (den absolut freien Willen der letzteren vorausgesetzt), als Gesellschaftsspiel angesehen werden, wenn man seine Rückwirkungen auf die in ihm handelnden Personen betrachtet²⁾. Was ist nun das gemeinsame Merkmal aller dieser Dinge?

¹⁾ Der Inhalt dieser Arbeit ist (mit einigen Kürzungen) am 7. XII. 1926 der Göttinger Math. Ges. vorgelesen worden.

²⁾ Es ist das Hauptproblem der klassischen Nationalökonomie: was wird, unter gegebenen äußeren Umständen, der absolut egoistische „homo oeconomicus“ tun?

Axiom (Independence Axiom)

The ordering \succeq is linear, i.e. for all probability distributions P, Q, R on \mathcal{X} and for all $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ we have

$$P \succeq Q \iff \alpha P + (1 - \alpha)R \succeq \alpha Q + (1 - \alpha)R$$

Axiom (Independence Axiom)

The ordering \succeq is linear, i.e. for all probability distributions P, Q, R on \mathcal{X} and for all $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ we have

$$P \succeq Q \iff \alpha P + (1 - \alpha)R \succeq \alpha Q + (1 - \alpha)R$$

Exercise

Define the strict relations \succ and \prec and the indifference relation \sim . Show that \succ and \sim satisfy the independence axiom as well.

Axiom (Archimedean Continuity Axiom)

The ordering \succeq is continuous; for all probability distributions P, Q, R on \mathcal{X} we have the following. If $P \succ Q \succ R$, then there exist $\alpha, \beta \in (0, 1)$ with

$$\alpha P + (1 - \alpha)R \succ Q \succ \beta P + (1 - \beta)R$$

Axiom (Archimedean Continuity Axiom)

The ordering \succeq is continuous; for all probability distributions P, Q, R on \mathcal{X} we have the following. If $P \succ Q \succ R$, then there exist $\alpha, \beta \in (0, 1)$ with

$$\alpha P + (1 - \alpha)R \succ Q \succ \beta P + (1 - \beta)R$$

Example

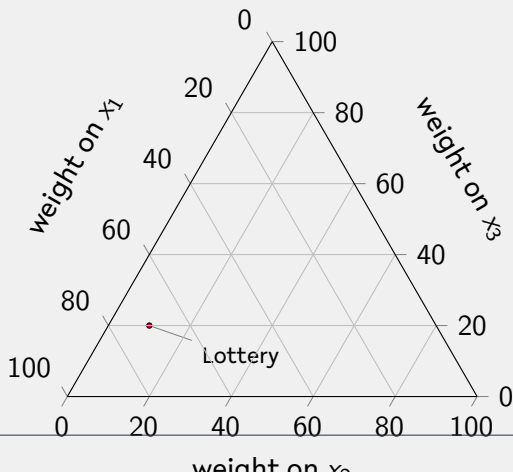
Continuity implies the following: if you prefer 100 Euro over 10 Euro over -10000 Euro, then you also prefer the lottery that yields 100 Euro with, say, 99 %, and -10000 Euro with 1 % to 10 Euro for sure.

One could argue against continuity. “Lexicographic preferences” violate continuity.

Graphical Representations

When there are only three possible outcomes, $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$, one can represent lotteries $p = (p_1, p_2, p_3)$ as points in the simplex $\Delta = \{(p_1, p_2, p_3) \in \mathbb{R}_+^3 : p_1 + p_2 + p_3 = 1\}$.

Barycentric Representation



Exercise

The independence axiom implies that indifference curves over the simplex are linear.

Definition

Let Δ be the set of all probability measures over \mathcal{X} . We say that a function $U : \Delta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a utility function for \succeq if we have

$$P \succeq Q \iff U(P) \geq U(Q)$$

for all $P, Q \in \Delta$.

Definition

Let Δ be the set of all probability measures over \mathcal{X} . We say that a function $U : \Delta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a utility function for \succeq if we have

$$P \succeq Q \iff U(P) \geq U(Q)$$

for all $P, Q \in \Delta$.

Theorem (Expected Utility Theorem, von Neumann-Morgenstern)

A preference relation over Δ that satisfies the independence and continuity axiom admits a utility function U of the form

$$U(P) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} u(x)P(x)$$

for some *Bernoulli utility function* $u : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Proof of the vNM-Theorem by Experiment

Experiment 1

Experiment 1

- We assume that there are three outcomes $x_1 = 100$, $x_2 = 50$, $x_3 = 0$.

Experiment 1

- We assume that there are three outcomes $x_1 = 100$, $x_2 = 50$, $x_3 = 0$.
- Clearly, $(1, 0, 0) \succ (0, 1, 0) \succ (0, 0, 1)$

Experiment 1

- We assume that there are three outcomes $x_1 = 100$, $x_2 = 50$, $x_3 = 0$.
- Clearly, $(1, 0, 0) \succ (0, 1, 0) \succ (0, 0, 1)$
- Make a list of lotteries $(0.9, 0, 0.1)$, $(0.8, 0, 0.2)$, ..., $(0.1, 0, 0.9)$ and compare them to $(0, 1, 0)$!

Experiment 1

- We assume that there are three outcomes $x_1 = 100$, $x_2 = 50$, $x_3 = 0$.
- Clearly, $(1, 0, 0) \succ (0, 1, 0) \succ (0, 0, 1)$
- Make a list of lotteries $(0.9, 0, 0.1)$, $(0.8, 0, 0.2)$, ..., $(0.1, 0, 0.9)$ and compare them to $(0, 1, 0)$!

Sketch of Proof for the EU Theorem

The utility assigns values 1 and 0 to the best resp. worst outcome. The utility $u(x)$ is an **indifference probability**.
 $u(x)(1, 0, \dots, 0) + (1 - u(x))(0, 0, \dots, 1) \sim x$ for sure

Experiment 2

EXCEL-File Erwartungsnutzenbestimmen.xls

Uniqueness of Bernoulli Utility and Cardinality

Theorem

Suppose that the preference relation \succeq admits an expected utility function of the form

$$U(P) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} u(x)P(x)$$

for some Bernoulli utility function $u : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Suppose that

$$V(P) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} v(x)P(x)$$

is another expected utility function for \succeq . Then there is a number $\lambda > 0$ and a number $m \in \mathbb{R}$ such that for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ we have

$$v(x) = \lambda u(x) + m.$$

Bernoulli utility functions are unique up to affine transformations.

Remark

Expected utility theory is cardinal - the Bernoulli utilities have a “measurable” meaning.

Generalization: Mixture Space Theorem

A mixture space is a set with an operation that allows you to take convex combinations.

Definition

Let \mathcal{Z} be a nonempty set and let \oplus be an operation that maps $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ and $y, z \in \mathcal{Z}$ to an element in \mathcal{Z} such that for all $\alpha, \beta \in [0, 1]$ and $y, z \in \mathcal{Z}$

$$1 \cdot y \oplus 0 \cdot z = y \quad \text{(sure mix)}$$

$$\alpha y \oplus (1 - \alpha)z = (1 - \alpha)z \oplus \alpha y \quad \text{(commutativity)}$$

$$\alpha(\beta y + (1 - \beta)z) \oplus (1 - \alpha)z = \alpha\beta y \oplus (\dots)z \quad \text{(distributivity)}$$

Generalization: Mixture Space Theorem

A mixture space is a set with an operation that allows you to take convex combinations.

Definition

Let \mathcal{Z} be a nonempty set and let \oplus be an operation that maps $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ and $y, z \in \mathcal{Z}$ to an element in \mathcal{Z} such that for all $\alpha, \beta \in [0, 1]$ and $y, z \in \mathcal{Z}$

$$1 \cdot y \oplus 0 \cdot z = y \quad \text{(sure mix)}$$

$$\alpha y \oplus (1 - \alpha)z = (1 - \alpha)z \oplus \alpha y \quad \text{(commutativity)}$$

$$\alpha(\beta y + (1 - \beta)z) \oplus (1 - \alpha)z = \alpha\beta y \oplus (\dots)z \quad \text{(distributivity)}$$

Example

Generalization: Mixture Space Theorem

A mixture space is a set with an operation that allows you to take convex combinations.

Definition

Let \mathcal{Z} be a nonempty set and let \oplus be an operation that maps $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ and $y, z \in \mathcal{Z}$ to an element in \mathcal{Z} such that for all $\alpha, \beta \in [0, 1]$ and $y, z \in \mathcal{Z}$

$$1 \cdot y \oplus 0 \cdot z = y \quad \text{(sure mix)}$$

$$\alpha y \oplus (1 - \alpha)z = (1 - \alpha)z \oplus \alpha y \quad \text{(commutativity)}$$

$$\alpha(\beta y + (1 - \beta)z) \oplus (1 - \alpha)z = \alpha\beta y \oplus (\dots)z \quad \text{(distributivity)}$$

Example

- The set of all lotteries Δ is a mixture space

Generalization: Mixture Space Theorem

A mixture space is a set with an operation that allows you to take convex combinations.

Definition

Let \mathcal{Z} be a nonempty set and let \oplus be an operation that maps $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ and $y, z \in \mathcal{Z}$ to an element in \mathcal{Z} such that for all $\alpha, \beta \in [0, 1]$ and $y, z \in \mathcal{Z}$

$$1 \cdot y \oplus 0 \cdot z = y \quad \text{(sure mix)}$$

$$\alpha y \oplus (1 - \alpha)z = (1 - \alpha)z \oplus \alpha y \quad \text{(commutativity)}$$

$$\alpha(\beta y + (1 - \beta)z) \oplus (1 - \alpha)z = \alpha\beta y \oplus (\dots)z \quad \text{(distributivity)}$$

Example

- The set of all lotteries Δ is a mixture space
- Convex subsets of vector spaces are mixture spaces

Generalization: Mixture Space Theorem

A mixture space is a set with an operation that allows you to take convex combinations.

Definition

Let \mathcal{Z} be a nonempty set and let \oplus be an operation that maps $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ and $y, z \in \mathcal{Z}$ to an element in \mathcal{Z} such that for all $\alpha, \beta \in [0, 1]$ and $y, z \in \mathcal{Z}$

$$1 \cdot y \oplus 0 \cdot z = y \quad \text{(sure mix)}$$

$$\alpha y \oplus (1 - \alpha)z = (1 - \alpha)z \oplus \alpha y \quad \text{(commutativity)}$$

$$\alpha(\beta y + (1 - \beta)z) \oplus (1 - \alpha)z = \alpha\beta y \oplus (\dots)z \quad \text{(distributivity)}$$

Example

- The set of all lotteries Δ is a mixture space
- Convex subsets of vector spaces are mixture spaces
- non-convex mixture spaces (*Mongin*, Dec. Econ. Fin. 2000)

Axiom (Mixture Space Continuity Axiom)

For all $a, b, c \in \mathcal{Z}$, the sets $\{\mu \in [0, 1] : \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b \succeq c\}$ and $\{\mu \in [0, 1] : c \preceq \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b\}$ are closed.

Axiom (Mixture Space Continuity Axiom)

For all $a, b, c \in \mathcal{Z}$, the sets $\{\mu \in [0, 1] : \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b \succeq c\}$ and $\{\mu \in [0, 1] : c \preceq \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b\}$ are closed.

Remark

Axiom (Mixture Space Continuity Axiom)

For all $a, b, c \in \mathcal{Z}$, the sets $\{\mu \in [0, 1] : \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b \succeq c\}$ and $\{\mu \in [0, 1] : c \preceq \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b\}$ are closed.

Remark

- *Mixture Space Continuity implies Archimedean Continuity.*

Axiom (Mixture Space Continuity Axiom)

For all $a, b, c \in \mathcal{Z}$, the sets $\{\mu \in [0, 1] : \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b \succeq c\}$ and $\{\mu \in [0, 1] : c \preceq \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b\}$ are closed.

Remark

- *Mixture Space Continuity implies Archimedean Continuity.*
- *The Archimedean continuity axiom and the independence axiom over lotteries of finite prizes imply the mixture space continuity axiom.*

Axiom (Mixture Space Independence Axiom)

For all $a, b, c \in \mathcal{Z}$ and all $\mu \in (0, 1)$ we have

$$a \succeq b \iff \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot c \succeq \mu \cdot b \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot c.$$

Theorem (Herstein, Milnor 1953)

A preference relation \succeq on a mixture space \mathcal{Z} satisfies the mixture space continuity and the mixture space independence axiom if and only if it admits a linear utility function U .

Theorem (Herstein, Milnor 1953)

A preference relation \succeq on a mixture space \mathcal{Z} satisfies the mixture space continuity and the mixture space independence axiom if and only if it admits a linear utility function U .

Exercise

Derive the von Neumann--Morgenstern theorem from the mixture space theorem.

The proof uses the same idea that we encountered in our small experiment.

- Fix two elements $a, b \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $a \succ b$.

Mixture Space Theorem: Proof Idea

The proof uses the same idea that we encountered in our small experiment.

- Fix two elements $a, b \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $a \succ b$.
- For any c with $a \succeq c \succeq b$, there is a unique (!) number $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ with $\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim c$.

Mixture Space Theorem: Proof Idea

The proof uses the same idea that we encountered in our small experiment.

- Fix two elements $a, b \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $a \succ b$.
- For any c with $a \succeq c \succeq b$, there is a unique (!) number $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ with $\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim c$.
- For existence, we need the continuity axiom.

The proof uses the same idea that we encountered in our small experiment.

- Fix two elements $a, b \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $a \succ b$.
- For any c with $a \succeq c \succeq b$, there is a unique (!) number $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ with $\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim c$.
- For existence, we need the continuity axiom.
- For uniqueness, the independence axiom.

Mixture Space Theorem: Proof Idea

The proof uses the same idea that we encountered in our small experiment.

- Fix two elements $a, b \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $a \succ b$.
- For any c with $a \succeq c \succeq b$, there is a unique (!) number $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ with $\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim c$.
- For existence, we need the continuity axiom.
- For uniqueness, the independence axiom.
- We define $U(c) = \lambda$. λ is called **indifference probability**.

Mixture Space Theorem: Proof Idea

The proof uses the same idea that we encountered in our small experiment.

- Fix two elements $a, b \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $a \succ b$.
- For any c with $a \succeq c \succeq b$, there is a unique (!) number $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ with $\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim c$.
- For existence, we need the continuity axiom.
- For uniqueness, the independence axiom.
- We define $U(c) = \lambda$. λ is called **indifference probability**.
- We then extend linearly to the whole set \mathcal{Z} .

Mixture Space Theorem: Proof

In the following, fix $a, b \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $a \succ b$.

Lemma

For each $c \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $a \succeq c \succeq b$, there is a unique number $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ with $\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim c$.

Mixture Space Theorem: Proof

In the following, fix $a, b \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $a \succ b$.

Lemma

For each $c \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $a \succeq c \succeq b$, there is a unique number $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ with $\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim c$.

Proof.

We first show existence: Let $T = \{\lambda \in [0, 1] : \lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \succeq c\}$ and $W = \{\lambda \in [0, 1] : \lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \preceq c\}$.

As \succeq is complete, we have $T \cup W = [0, 1]$. By the mixture continuity axiom, T and W are closed. T and W are nonempty because $1 \in T$ and $0 \in W$. As $[0, 1]$ is connected, it cannot be decomposed into two nonempty, disjoint closed sets. So $W \cap T \neq \emptyset$. For $\lambda \in T \cap W$, we have $\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim c$. \square

For uniqueness, we need to work a little bit more. We first show that the independence axiom implies a certain monotonicity of preferences: higher probabilities on good outcomes are preferred.

Lemma

We have $1 \geq \lambda > \mu \geq 0$ if and only if $\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \succ \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b$.

This lemma yields uniqueness (why?)

Mixture Space Theorem: Proof of Monotonicity Lemma

We start with $1 \geq \lambda > \mu \geq 0$. In this case, the independence axiom yields

$$c := \lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \succ \lambda \cdot b \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b = b.$$

Now let $\gamma = \mu/\lambda \in [0, 1)$. We apply the independence axiom again and use the mixture space rules:

$$c \succ \gamma \cdot c \oplus (1 - \gamma) \cdot b = \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b.$$

Mixture Space Theorem: Proof of Monotonicity Lemma

Now we do the reverse direction. Suppose that $\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \succ \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b$. We need to show that $\lambda > \mu$. Suppose that $\lambda < \mu$. Then we could apply the first part of the proof to conclude $\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \prec \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b$, a contradiction. On the other hand, $\lambda = \mu$ is also impossible because then $\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b$.

Mixture Space Theorem: Definition of Utility

1. If $a \succeq c \succeq b$, we set $U(c) = \lambda$ with $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ satisfying

$$\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim c.$$

Exercise: check that U is linear!

Mixture Space Theorem: Definition of Utility

1. If $a \succ c \succ b$, we set $U(c) = \lambda$ with $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ satisfying

$$\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim c.$$

2. If $c \succ a$, there exists $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ with

$$\gamma \cdot c \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim a.$$

(Exchange the roles of c and a .) We set $U(c) = 1/\gamma$.

Exercise: check that U is linear!

Mixture Space Theorem: Definition of Utility

1. If $a \succeq c \succeq b$, we set $U(c) = \lambda$ with $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ satisfying

$$\lambda \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim c.$$

2. If $c \succ a$, there exists $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ with

$$\gamma \cdot c \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot b \sim a.$$

(Exchange the roles of c and a .) We set $U(c) = 1/\gamma$.

3. For $b \succ c$, there exists $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ with

$$\gamma \cdot a \oplus (1 - \lambda) \cdot c \sim b.$$

Set $U(c) = -\gamma/(1 + \gamma)$.

Exercise: check that U is linear!

It remains to be shown that U is indeed a linear utility function for \succeq . We do this for the case in which a is maximal and b is minimal in \mathcal{Z} , i.e.

$$\mathcal{Z} = \{c \in \mathcal{Z} : a \succeq c \succeq b\}.$$

Whiteboard.

In applications the set \mathcal{X} is usually not finite. For example, we could have $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$. In this case, $\mathcal{Z} = \Delta\mathcal{X}$ consists of all (Borel) probability measures on the real line. In this case, we have to strengthen the topological requirements to obtain a similar theorem.

For details, see *Föllmer, Schied*, Stochastic Finance, Chapter 2.2.

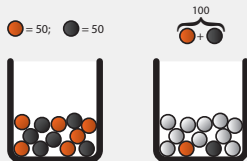
We now understand the structure of linear preferences. Our next aim is to try to understand if we can deal with the Ellsberg experiments.

Ellsberg Experiment 1

Ellsberg Bets: You win 1 Euro if

- red ball is drawn in Urn 1, R1
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B1,
- red ball is drawn in Urn 2, R2,
- black ball is drawn in Urn 1, B2

Ellsberg's Thought Experiment 1



Vote

- R1 or B1 ?
- R2 or B2 ?
- R1 or R2 ?
- B1 or B2 ?

- It is **not irrational** to order bets as follows in Experiment 1:

- It is **not irrational** to order bets as follows in Experiment 1:
- $R1 \sim B1, R2 \sim B2, R1 \succ R2, B1 \succ B2$

Bayesian Subjective EU Approach

Bayesian Subjective EU Approach

- A 'rational' man's betting should reflect his beliefs for 'red' or 'black'

Bayesian Subjective EU Approach

- A 'rational' man's betting should reflect his beliefs for 'red' or 'black'
- Urn 1: clearly 50 % (objective probability, not a belief)

Bayesian Subjective EU Approach

- A 'rational' man's betting should reflect his beliefs for 'red' or 'black'
- Urn 1: clearly 50 % (objective probability, not a belief)
- Urn 2: beliefs for red, black, yellow

Bayesian Subjective EU Approach

- A 'rational' man's betting should reflect his beliefs for 'red' or 'black'
- Urn 1: clearly 50 % (objective probability, not a belief)
- Urn 2: beliefs for red, black, yellow
- for example, by Laplace's principle of insufficient reason, $p_R = .5$ in first experiment. In this case, we would have $R1 \sim B1 \sim R2 \sim B2$

Bayesian Subjective EU Approach

- A 'rational' man's betting should reflect his beliefs for 'red' or 'black'
- Urn 1: clearly 50 % (objective probability, not a belief)
- Urn 2: beliefs for red, black, yellow
- for example, by Laplace's principle of insufficient reason, $p_R = .5$ in first experiment. In this case, we would have $R1 \sim B1 \sim R2 \sim B2$
- if $p < .5$, then we would have $R1 \succ R2, B1 \prec B2$.

Bayesian Subjective EU Approach

- A 'rational' man's betting should reflect his beliefs for 'red' or 'black'
- Urn 1: clearly 50 % (objective probability, not a belief)
- Urn 2: beliefs for red, black, yellow
- for example, by Laplace's principle of insufficient reason, $p_R = .5$ in first experiment. In this case, we would have $R1 \sim B1 \sim R2 \sim B2$
- if $p < .5$, then we would have $R1 \succ R2, B1 \prec B2$.
- the Bayesian approach would yield opposite orderings as those that we considered to be rational. It does not capture the aversion of not knowing the probabilities (because it simply assumes that you have a subjective probability for the second urn).

Sophisticated Maxmin Approach

Sophisticated Maxmin Approach

- Given objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent chooses a set $\phi(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{P}$ of subjective priors

Sophisticated Maxmin Approach

- Given objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent chooses a set $\phi(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{P}$ of subjective priors
- Utility is evaluated as ‘worst case expected utility’

Sophisticated Maxmin Approach

- Given objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent chooses a set $\phi(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{P}$ of subjective priors
- Utility is evaluated as ‘worst case expected utility’
-

$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) = \inf_{P \in \phi(\mathcal{P})} E^P u(f)$$

Sophisticated Maxmin Approach

- Given objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent chooses a set $\phi(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{P}$ of subjective priors
- Utility is evaluated as ‘worst case expected utility’



$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) = \inf_{P \in \phi(\mathcal{P})} E^P u(f)$$

- Ellsberg choices are rational within this model (board!)

Sophisticated Maxmin Approach

- Given objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent chooses a set $\phi(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{P}$ of subjective priors
- Utility is evaluated as ‘worst case expected utility’



$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) = \inf_{P \in \phi(\mathcal{P})} E^P u(f)$$

- Ellsberg choices are rational within this model (board!)

Literature

Sophisticated Maxmin Approach

- Given objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent chooses a set $\phi(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{P}$ of subjective priors
- Utility is evaluated as ‘worst case expected utility’



$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) = \inf_{P \in \phi(\mathcal{P})} E^P u(f)$$

- Ellsberg choices are rational within this model (board!)

Literature

- *Gilboa, Schmeidler*, Maxmin Expected Utility with Non-Unique Prior, Journal of Mathematical Economics, 1989

Sophisticated Maxmin Approach

- Given objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent chooses a set $\phi(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{P}$ of subjective priors
- Utility is evaluated as ‘worst case expected utility’

$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) = \inf_{P \in \phi(\mathcal{P})} E^P u(f)$$

- Ellsberg choices are rational within this model (board!)

Literature

- *Gilboa, Schmeidler*, Maxmin Expected Utility with Non-Unique Prior, Journal of Mathematical Economics, 1989
- *Gajdos, Hayashi, Tallon, Vergnaud*, Attitude toward Imprecise Information, Journal of Economic Theory, 2008

Ambiguity-Averse Bayesian Approach: Smooth Model

Second-order Bayesian plus ambiguity aversion

Second-order Bayesian plus ambiguity aversion

- Given imprecise probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent forms a second order prior μ

Second-order Bayesian plus ambiguity aversion

- Given imprecise probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent forms a second order prior μ
- Ambiguity aversion is modeled by a concave function ψ

Second-order Bayesian plus ambiguity aversion

- Given imprecise probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent forms a second order prior μ
- Ambiguity aversion is modeled by a concave function ψ



$$U(f) = \int_{\mathcal{P}} \psi (E^P u(f)) \mu(dP)$$

Second-order Bayesian plus ambiguity aversion

- Given imprecise probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent forms a second order prior μ
- Ambiguity aversion is modeled by a concave function ψ



$$U(f) = \int_{\mathcal{P}} \psi (E^P u(f)) \mu(dP)$$

- the function ψ measures ambiguity aversion (in the same way as u measures risk aversion)

Second-order Bayesian plus ambiguity aversion

- Given imprecise probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent forms a second order prior μ
- Ambiguity aversion is modeled by a concave function ψ



$$U(f) = \int_{\mathcal{P}} \psi (E^P u(f)) \mu(dP)$$

- the function ψ measures ambiguity aversion (in the same way as u measures risk aversion)
- if $\psi(x) = x$, we are back to subjective expected utility

Second-order Bayesian plus ambiguity aversion

- Given imprecise probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent forms a second order prior μ
- Ambiguity aversion is modeled by a concave function ψ

$$U(f) = \int_{\mathcal{P}} \psi (E^P u(f)) \mu(dP)$$

- the function ψ measures ambiguity aversion (in the same way as u measures risk aversion)
- if $\psi(x) = x$, we are back to subjective expected utility
- if ambiguity aversion $-\frac{\psi''(x)}{\psi'(x)} \rightarrow \infty$, the smooth model converges to the maxmin model [Exercise!!](#)

Second-order Bayesian plus ambiguity aversion

- Given imprecise probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent forms a second order prior μ
- Ambiguity aversion is modeled by a concave function ψ

$$U(f) = \int_{\mathcal{P}} \psi (E^P u(f)) \mu(dP)$$

- the function ψ measures ambiguity aversion (in the same way as u measures risk aversion)
- if $\psi(x) = x$, we are back to subjective expected utility
- if ambiguity aversion $-\frac{\psi''(x)}{\psi'(x)} \rightarrow \infty$, the smooth model converges to the maxmin model [Exercise!!](#)
- *Klibanoff, Marinacci, Mukerji*, A Smooth Model of Decision Making under Ambiguity, *Econometrica* 2005

Penalization Approach to Model Plausibility

Penalization Approach to Model Plausibility

- Given an objective probabilistic information $\mathcal{P} \subset \Delta\mathcal{X}$ and a convex penalty function $\alpha(P) \in [0, \infty]$, utility is given by

Penalization Approach to Model Plausibility

- Given an objective probabilistic information $\mathcal{P} \subset \Delta\mathcal{X}$ and a convex penalty function $\alpha(P) \in [0, \infty]$, utility is given by



$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}} E^P u(f) + \alpha(P)$$

Penalization Approach to Model Plausibility

- Given an objective probabilistic information $\mathcal{P} \subset \Delta\mathcal{X}$ and a convex penalty function $\alpha(P) \in [0, \infty]$, utility is given by



$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}} E^P u(f) + \alpha(P)$$

- generalizes maxmin and many other models

Penalization Approach to Model Plausibility

- Given an objective probabilistic information $\mathcal{P} \subset \Delta\mathcal{X}$ and a convex penalty function $\alpha(P) \in [0, \infty]$, utility is given by



$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}} E^P u(f) + \alpha(P)$$

- generalizes maxmin and many other models

Literature

Penalization Approach to Model Plausibility

- Given an objective probabilistic information $\mathcal{P} \subset \Delta\mathcal{X}$ and a convex penalty function $\alpha(P) \in [0, \infty]$, utility is given by



$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}} E^P u(f) + \alpha(P)$$

- generalizes maxmin and many other models

Literature

- Maccheroni, Marinacci, Rustichini*, Ambiguity Aversion, Robustness, and the Robust Representation of Preferences, *Econometrica* 2006

Incompleteness and Inertia

Incompleteness and Inertia

- Given an objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent refrains from ordering all acts

Incompleteness and Inertia

- Given an objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent refrains from ordering all acts
- incomplete partial ordering

Incompleteness and Inertia

- Given an objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent refrains from ordering all acts
- incomplete partial ordering
- plus **inertia**

Incompleteness and Inertia

- Given an objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent refrains from ordering all acts
- incomplete partial ordering
- plus **inertia**
- the agent moves away from status quo only if he is sure to be better off under all models

Incompleteness and Inertia

- Given an objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent refrains from ordering all acts
- incomplete partial ordering
- plus **inertia**
- the agent moves away from status quo only if he is sure to be better off under all models
- only partially consistent with Ellsberg choices

Incompleteness and Inertia

- Given an objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent refrains from ordering all acts
- incomplete partial ordering
- plus **inertia**
- the agent moves away from status quo only if he is sure to be better off under all models
- only partially consistent with Ellsberg choices

Literature

Incompleteness and Inertia

- Given an objective probabilistic information \mathcal{P} , the agent refrains from ordering all acts
- incomplete partial ordering
- plus **inertia**
- the agent moves away from status quo only if he is sure to be better off under all models
- only partially consistent with Ellsberg choices

Literature

- **Bewley**, Knightian Decision Theory, Decisions in Economics and Finance, 2002

Subjective Expected Utility

We now consider a situation of (Knightian) uncertainty in which no probabilities are given. Preferences are defined over **acts**: horse races with lottery payoffs.

Subjective Expected Utility

We now consider a situation of (Knightian) uncertainty in which no probabilities are given. Preferences are defined over **acts**: horse races with lottery payoffs.

Subjective Expected Utility

We now consider a situation of (Knightian) uncertainty in which no probabilities are given. Preferences are defined over **acts**: horse races with lottery payoffs.

- set of outcomes (or prizes)

$$\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$$

Subjective Expected Utility

We now consider a situation of (Knightian) uncertainty in which no probabilities are given. Preferences are defined over **acts**: horse races with lottery payoffs.

- set of outcomes (or prizes)
 $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$
- set of lotteries over prizes
 Δ

Subjective Expected Utility

We now consider a situation of (Knightian) uncertainty in which no probabilities are given. Preferences are defined over **acts**: horse races with lottery payoffs.

- set of outcomes (or prizes)

$$\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$$

- set of lotteries over prizes

$$\Delta$$

- set of states

$$\Omega = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n\}$$

Subjective Expected Utility

We now consider a situation of (Knightian) uncertainty in which no probabilities are given. Preferences are defined over **acts**: horse races with lottery payoffs.

- set of outcomes (or prizes)
 $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$
- set of lotteries over prizes
 Δ
- set of states
 $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n\}$
- An (Anscombe--Aumann)
act is a mapping $f : \Omega \rightarrow \Delta$

Subjective Expected Utility

We now consider a situation of (Knightian) uncertainty in which no probabilities are given. Preferences are defined over **acts**: horse races with lottery payoffs.

- set of outcomes (or prizes)
 $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$
- set of lotteries over prizes
 Δ
- set of states
 $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n\}$
- An (Anscombe--Aumann)
act is a mapping $f : \Omega \rightarrow \Delta$
- we write \mathcal{Z} for the set of all
acts, \mathcal{Z}_0 for all
non-randomized acts, i.e.
mappings $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$.

Subjective Expected Utility

We now consider a situation of (Knightian) uncertainty in which no probabilities are given. Preferences are defined over **acts**: horse races with lottery payoffs.

- set of outcomes (or prizes)
 $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$
- set of lotteries over prizes
 Δ
- set of states
 $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n\}$
- An (Anscombe--Aumann) act is a mapping $f : \Omega \rightarrow \Delta$
- we write \mathcal{Z} for the set of all acts, \mathcal{Z}_0 for all non-randomized acts, i.e. mappings $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$.



- we now add an additional layer to the analysis (recall our taxonomy!)

- we now add an additional layer to the analysis (recall our taxonomy!)
- world 1: the deterministic prizes \mathcal{X}

- we now add an additional layer to the analysis (recall our taxonomy!)
- world 1: the deterministic prizes \mathcal{X}
- world 2: objective lotteries on \mathcal{X} where probabilities are known and the laws of probability apply, $\Delta\mathcal{X} = \Delta_{\text{roulette}}$

- we now add an additional layer to the analysis (recall our taxonomy!)
- world 1: the deterministic prizes \mathcal{X}
- world 2: objective lotteries on \mathcal{X} where probabilities are known and the laws of probability apply, $\Delta\mathcal{X} = \Delta_{\text{roulette}}$
- world 4: uncertainty about the world is modeled by Ω where no probabilities are given ex ante horse race

- we now add an additional layer to the analysis (recall our taxonomy!)
- world 1: the deterministic prizes \mathcal{X}
- world 2: objective lotteries on \mathcal{X} where probabilities are known and the laws of probability apply, $\Delta\mathcal{X} = \Delta_{\text{roulette}}$
- world 4: uncertainty about the world is modeled by Ω where no probabilities are given ex ante horse race
- (we jump the world 3 of statistics)

- we now add an additional layer to the analysis (recall our taxonomy!)
- world 1: the deterministic prizes \mathcal{X}
- world 2: objective lotteries on \mathcal{X} where probabilities are known and the laws of probability apply, $\Delta\mathcal{X} = \Delta_{\text{roulette}}$
- world 4: uncertainty about the world is modeled by Ω where no probabilities are given ex ante horse race
- (we jump the world 3 of statistics)
- we allow that horse races pay off in terms of lottery tickets

Ellsberg Experiment 1 in the Anscombe-Aumann Framework

- state of the worlds = number of red balls in urn 2
 $\Omega = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 100\}$

Ellsberg Experiment 1 in the Anscombe-Aumann Framework

- state of the worlds = number of red balls in urn 2
 $\Omega = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 100\}$
- prizes = monetary gains, $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$, i.e $\Delta = [0, 1]$,
probability of winning 1 Euro

Ellsberg Experiment 1 in the Anscombe-Aumann Framework

- state of the worlds = number of red balls in urn 2
 $\Omega = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 100\}$
- prizes = monetary gains, $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$, i.e $\Delta = [0, 1]$, probability of winning 1 Euro
- the different bets translate to the following acts

Ellsberg Experiment 1 in the Anscombe-Aumann Framework

- state of the worlds = number of red balls in urn 2
 $\Omega = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 100\}$
- prizes = monetary gains, $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$, i.e $\Delta = [0, 1]$, probability of winning 1 Euro
- the different bets translate to the following acts
 - R1 : the probability of winning does not depend on the number of red balls in urn 2, so $r_1(\omega) = 1/2$ for all ω

Ellsberg Experiment 1 in the Anscombe-Aumann Framework

- state of the worlds = number of red balls in urn 2
 $\Omega = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 100\}$
- prizes = monetary gains, $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$, i.e $\Delta = [0, 1]$, probability of winning 1 Euro
- the different bets translate to the following acts
 - R1 : the probability of winning does not depend on the number of red balls in urn 2, so $r_1(\omega) = 1/2$ for all ω
 - B1: $b_1(\omega) = 1/2$ for all ω

Ellsberg Experiment 1 in the Anscombe-Aumann Framework

- state of the worlds = number of red balls in urn 2
 $\Omega = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 100\}$
- prizes = monetary gains, $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$, i.e $\Delta = [0, 1]$, probability of winning 1 Euro
- the different bets translate to the following acts
 - R1 : the probability of winning does not depend on the number of red balls in urn 2, so $r_1(\omega) = 1/2$ for all ω
 - B1: $b_1(\omega) = 1/2$ for all ω
 - R2: $r_2(\omega) = \omega/100$

Ellsberg Experiment 1 in the Anscombe-Aumann Framework

- state of the worlds = number of red balls in urn 2
 $\Omega = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 100\}$
- prizes = monetary gains, $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$, i.e $\Delta = [0, 1]$, probability of winning 1 Euro
- the different bets translate to the following acts
 - R1 : the probability of winning does not depend on the number of red balls in urn 2, so $r_1(\omega) = 1/2$ for all ω
 - B1: $b_1(\omega) = 1/2$ for all ω
 - R2: $r_2(\omega) = \omega/100$
 - B2: $b_2(\omega) = 1 - \omega/100$

Another Modeling of the Ellsberg Experiment

- We work with a product space $\Omega = \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2$. Let $\Omega_i = \{red, black\}$.

Another Modeling of the Ellsberg Experiment

- We work with a product space $\Omega = \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2$. Let $\Omega_i = \{red, black\}$.
- Let P_1 be the uniform probability on Ω_1 . Imprecise probabilistic information is modeled via

$$\mathcal{P} = P_1 \otimes \Delta\Omega_2.$$

We know the probabilities for urn 1, we do not know them for urn 2.

Another Modeling of the Ellsberg Experiment

- We work with a product space $\Omega = \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2$. Let $\Omega_i = \{red, black\}$.
- Let P_1 be the uniform probability on Ω_1 . Imprecise probabilistic information is modeled via

$$\mathcal{P} = P_1 \otimes \Delta\Omega_2.$$

We know the probabilities for urn 1, we do not know them for urn 2.

- The bets are defined as follows:

$$r_1(\omega) = 1 \quad \text{if } \omega_1 = red$$

$$b_1(\omega) = 1 \quad \text{if } \omega_1 = black$$

$$r_2(\omega) = 1 \quad \text{if } \omega_2 = red$$

$$b_2(\omega) = 1 \quad \text{if } \omega_2 = black$$

We define the operation \oplus pointwise for acts.

$$(\alpha f \oplus (1 - \alpha)g)(\omega) = \alpha f(\omega) + (1 - \alpha)g(\omega)$$

Lemma

The set of acts \mathcal{Z} with the operation \oplus is a mixture space.

The preference ordering \succeq is defined over acts in \mathcal{Z}

Axiom (Independence Axiom)

The ordering \succeq is linear, i.e. for all acts $f, g, h \in \mathcal{Z}$ we have for all $\alpha \in (0, 1)$

$$f \succeq g \iff \alpha f \oplus (1 - \alpha)h \succeq \alpha g \oplus (1 - \alpha)h$$

Axiom (Mixture Space Continuity Axiom)

For all $a, b, c \in \mathcal{Z}$, the sets $\{\mu \in [0, 1] : \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b \succeq c\}$ and $\{\mu \in [0, 1] : c \preceq \mu \cdot a \oplus (1 - \mu) \cdot b\}$ are closed.

Theorem

If \succeq satisfies the Independence and (Mixture Space) Continuity Axiom, then for every state $\omega \in \Omega$ there exist a Bernoulli utility function $u_\omega : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$U(f) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} u_\omega(x) f(\omega)(x)$$

is a utility function for \succeq .

Proof. Mixture Theorem. Linear functions look like that!

Definition

Let $P \in \Delta$ be given. For an act $f : \Omega \rightarrow \Delta$, and state $\omega_k \in \Omega$, we define $f_k^P(\omega_k) = P$ and $f_k^P(\omega_l) = f(\omega_l)$ for $l \neq k$.

Definition

Let $P \in \Delta$ be given. For an act $f : \Omega \rightarrow \Delta$, and state $\omega_k \in \Omega$, we define $f_k^P(\omega_k) = P$ and $f_k^P(\omega_l) = f(\omega_l)$ for $l \neq k$.

Axiom

For all $P, Q \in \Delta$, all acts f , and all states ω_k, ω_l we have

$$f_k^P \succeq f_k^Q \text{ iff } f_l^P \succeq f_l^Q.$$

State--Independent Tastes

If we are willing to assume **state--independent tastes**, we get more:

Theorem

*If \succeq satisfies the Independence and Continuity Axiom, and if \succeq has state--independent tastes, then there exists a **probability measure** μ over Ω and a Bernoulli utility function $u : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that*

$$U(f) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \left(\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} u(x) h(\omega)(x) \right) \mu(\omega)$$

is a utility function for \succeq .

- Probabilities are now part of the preferences, μ is the subjective belief of the agent

- Probabilities are now part of the preferences, μ is the subjective belief of the agent
- they are endogenous, derived objects, not given

- Probabilities are now part of the preferences, μ is the subjective belief of the agent
- they are endogenous, derived objects, not given
- the theorem is the master piece of decision theory

- Probabilities are now part of the preferences, μ is the subjective belief of the agent
- they are endogenous, derived objects, not given
- the theorem is the master piece of decision theory
- yet, it imposes a lot of assumptions on the “rational man”

- Probabilities are now part of the preferences, μ is the subjective belief of the agent
- they are endogenous, derived objects, not given
- the theorem is the master piece of decision theory
- yet, it imposes a lot of assumptions on the “rational man”
- even from a rational point of view, the Ellsberg experiments suggest that rational decisions need not be based on subjective beliefs

What is wrong with the Independence Axiom in Ellsberg's Experiments?

We agreed that it can be rational to have the following (Ellsberg) preferences: $r_1 \succ r_2$ and $b_1 \succ b_2$.

- The meaning of **mixing** is different when you have acts as when you mix lotteries compared to when you mix acts

What is wrong with the Independence Axiom in Ellsberg's Experiments?

We agreed that it can be rational to have the following (Ellsberg) preferences: $r_1 \succ r_2$ and $b_1 \succ b_2$.

- The meaning of **mixing** is different when you have acts as when you mix lotteries compared to when you mix acts
- for lotteries p and q , the mixed lottery $1/2 \cdot p \oplus 1/2 \cdot q$ can be interpreted as a compound lottery where first, you throw a fair coin and then, you perform either lottery p or q

What is wrong with the Independence Axiom in Ellsberg's Experiments?

We agreed that it can be rational to have the following (Ellsberg) preferences: $r_1 \succ r_2$ and $b_1 \succ b_2$.

- The meaning of **mixing** is different when you have acts as when you mix lotteries compared to when you mix acts
- for lotteries p and q , the mixed lottery $1/2 \cdot p \oplus 1/2 \cdot q$ can be interpreted as a compound lottery where first, you throw a fair coin and then, you perform either lottery p or q
- for acts, mixing is more like splitting your money on two different tickets

What is wrong with the Independence Axiom in Ellsberg's Experiments?

We agreed that it can be rational to have the following (Ellsberg) preferences: $r_1 \succ r_2$ and $b_1 \succ b_2$.

- The meaning of **mixing** is different when you have acts as when you mix lotteries compared to when you mix acts
- for lotteries p and q , the mixed lottery $1/2 \cdot p \oplus 1/2 \cdot q$ can be interpreted as a compound lottery where first, you throw a fair coin and then, you perform either lottery p or q
- for acts, mixing is more like splitting your money on two different tickets
- for example $(1/2 \cdot r_2 \oplus 1/2 \cdot b_2)(\omega) = 1/2 = r_1$; putting half of your money on betting red and putting the other half on betting black **hedges** the uncertainty of urn 2 --- the Knightian uncertainty is gone

What is wrong with the Independence Axiom in Ellsberg's Experiments?

If you have $r_1 \succ r_2$, then the independence axiom implies

$$(1/2 \cdot r_1 \oplus 1/2b_2) \succ (1/2 \cdot r_2 \oplus 1/2b_2) = r_1$$

So

$$(1/2 \cdot r_1 \oplus 1/2b_2) \succ (1/2 \cdot r_1 \oplus 1/2r_1)$$

We apply the independence axiom again and get

$$b_2 \succ r_1 \sim b_1$$

in contradiction to the Ellsberg ordering.

Anscombe--Aumann's Crucial Axioms

How to get the other utility representations? We need to relax one of the crucial axioms in Anscombe--Aumann.

1. Completeness: either $f \succ g$ or $f \prec g$ or $f \sim g$

One of the axioms needs to be relaxed if we want to allow Ellsberg choices

Anscombe--Aumann's Crucial Axioms

How to get the other utility representations? We need to relax one of the crucial axioms in Anscombe--Aumann.

1. Completeness: either $f \succ g$ or $f \prec g$ or $f \sim g$
2. if we give up completeness, we get Bewley's incomplete EU theory

One of the axioms needs to be relaxed if we want to allow Ellsberg choices

Anscombe--Aumann's Crucial Axioms

How to get the other utility representations? We need to relax one of the crucial axioms in Anscombe--Aumann.

1. Completeness: either $f \succ g$ or $f \prec g$ or $f \sim g$
2. if we give up completeness, we get Bewley's incomplete EU theory
3. Independence Axiom

One of the axioms needs to be relaxed if we want to allow Ellsberg choices

Anscombe--Aumann's Crucial Axioms

How to get the other utility representations? We need to relax one of the crucial axioms in Anscombe--Aumann.

1. Completeness: either $f \succ g$ or $f \prec g$ or $f \sim g$
2. if we give up completeness, we get Bewley's incomplete EU theory
3. Independence Axiom
4. if we weaken the independence axiom, we get the maxmin or smooth or variational model, depending on how we replace it

One of the axioms needs to be relaxed if we want to allow Ellsberg choices

Replace the independence axiom by the following two axioms.

Axiom (Uncertainty aversion, Preference for Hedging)

$f \sim g$ implies for all $\alpha \in (0, 1)$

$$\alpha f \oplus (1 - \alpha)g \succeq g.$$

Replace the independence axiom by the following two axioms.

Axiom (Uncertainty aversion, Preference for Hedging)

$f \sim g$ implies for all $\alpha \in (0, 1)$

$$\alpha f \oplus (1 - \alpha)g \succeq g.$$

Axiom (Certainty Independence)

Let $P \in \Delta$ be a lottery and f, g be acts. $f \succeq g$ implies for all $\alpha \in (0, 1)$

$$\alpha f \oplus (1 - \alpha)P \succeq \alpha g \oplus (1 - \alpha)P$$

and vice versa.

In the following, we assume that prizes are monetary, i.e.
 $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}$.

Axiom (Monotonicity)

In the following, we assume that prizes are monetary, i.e. $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}$.

Axiom (Monotonicity)

- *If we have $f(\omega) \succeq g(\omega)$ for all $\omega \in \Omega$, then also $f \succeq g$.*

In the following, we assume that prizes are monetary, i.e. $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}$.

Axiom (Monotonicity)

- If we have $f(\omega) \succeq g(\omega)$ for all $\omega \in \Omega$, then also $f \succeq g$.
- For $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ with $x > y$, we have $\delta_x \succ \delta_y$.

Theorem

Let \succeq be a preference relation over acts that is (mixture)--continuous and satisfies the axioms of monotonicity, uncertainty aversion, and certainty independence. Then there exists a Bernoulli utility function $u : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a **set of probability measures** \mathcal{M} on Ω such that \succeq is represented by the utility function

$$U(f) = \min_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} E^{\mu} u(f)$$

with

$$u(f(\omega)) = \sum_{k=1}^m u(x_k) f_k(\omega).$$

Gilboa--Schmeidler Theorem: Proof

- the preference relation \succsim induces a preference relation \succsim_0 over lotteries; for a lottery $P \in \Delta$, let id^P denote the constant act $id^P(\omega) = P$. Set

$$P \succsim_0 Q \text{ iff } id^P \succsim id^Q.$$

Gilboa--Schmeidler Theorem: Proof

- the preference relation \succsim induces a preference relation \succsim_0 over lotteries; for a lottery $P \in \Delta$, let id^P denote the constant act $id^P(\omega) = P$. Set

$$P \succsim_0 Q \text{ iff } id^P \succsim id^Q.$$

- the certainty independence axiom says that \succsim_0 satisfies the independence axiom over lotteries. The von Neumann-Morgenstern theorem thus gives us a Bernoulli utility function u .

Gilboa--Schmeidler Theorem: Proof

- the preference relation \succeq induces a preference relation \succeq_0 over lotteries; for a lottery $P \in \Delta$, let id^P denote the constant act $id^P(\omega) = P$. Set

$$P \succeq_0 Q \text{ iff } id^P \succeq id^Q.$$

- the certainty independence axiom says that \succeq_0 satisfies the independence axiom over lotteries. The von Neumann-Morgenstern theorem thus gives us a Bernoulli utility function u .
- Due to the monotonicity axiom, u is strictly increasing.

Gilboa--Schmeidler Theorem: Proof

- the preference relation \succeq induces a preference relation \succeq_0 over lotteries; for a lottery $P \in \Delta$, let id^P denote the constant act $id^P(\omega) = P$. Set

$$P \succeq_0 Q \text{ iff } id^P \succeq id^Q.$$

- the certainty independence axiom says that \succeq_0 satisfies the independence axiom over lotteries. The von Neumann-Morgenstern theorem thus gives us a Bernoulli utility function u .
- Due to the monotonicity axiom, u is strictly increasing.
- We can thus define the certainty equivalent of a lottery $P \in \Delta$:

$$c(P) = u^{-1} \left(\sum_x u(x)P(x) \right).$$

Gilboa--Schmeidler Theorem: Proof

- the preference relation \succeq induces a preference relation \succeq_0 over lotteries; for a lottery $P \in \Delta$, let id^P denote the constant act $id^P(\omega) = P$. Set

$$P \succeq_0 Q \text{ iff } id^P \succeq id^Q.$$

- the certainty independence axiom says that \succeq_0 satisfies the independence axiom over lotteries. The von Neumann-Morgenstern theorem thus gives us a Bernoulli utility function u .
- Due to the monotonicity axiom, u is strictly increasing.
- We can thus define the certainty equivalent of a lottery $P \in \Delta$:

$$c(P) = u^{-1} \left(\sum_x u(x)P(x) \right).$$

- We have $P \sim \delta_{c(P)}$.

- Now let f be an act, i.e. $f : \Omega \rightarrow \Delta$. We construct a non-randomized act $g : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ with $f \sim g$. Let $g(\omega) = c(f(\omega))$. By the monotonicity axiom, $g \sim f$.

Lemma

There exists a utility function of the form

$$U(f) = J \left(\sum_x u(x) f(\omega)(x) \right)$$

for some function $J : \mathcal{Z}_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

J is a *superlinear expectation*, i.e. it is

The representation theorem for nonlinear expectations then finishes the proof.

Lemma

There exists a utility function of the form

$$U(f) = J \left(\sum_x u(x) f(\omega)(x) \right)$$

for some function $J : \mathcal{Z}_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

J is a *superlinear expectation*, i.e. it is

- *monotone*

The representation theorem for nonlinear expectations then finishes the proof.

Lemma

There exists a utility function of the form

$$U(f) = J \left(\sum_x u(x) f(\omega)(x) \right)$$

for some function $J : \mathcal{Z}_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

J is a *superlinear expectation*, i.e. it is

- *monotone*
- *concave*

The representation theorem for nonlinear expectations then finishes the proof.

Lemma

There exists a utility function of the form

$$U(f) = J \left(\sum_x u(x) f(\omega)(x) \right)$$

for some function $J : \mathcal{Z}_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

J is a *superlinear expectation*, i.e. it is

- *monotone*
- *concave*
- *positively homogenous*

The representation theorem for nonlinear expectations then finishes the proof.

Lemma

There exists a utility function of the form

$$U(f) = J \left(\sum_x u(x) f(\omega)(x) \right)$$

for some function $J : \mathcal{Z}_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

J is a *superlinear expectation*, i.e. it is

- *monotone*
- *concave*
- *positively homogenous*
- *cash invariant.*

The representation theorem for nonlinear expectations then finishes the proof.

Proof of the Lemma

- wlog $0 \in \mathcal{X}$ and $u(0) = 0$. Let $g \in \mathcal{Z}_0$ and $\lambda \in (0, 1)$. We want to show $J(\lambda g) = \lambda J(g)$. Choose $g_0 \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $u(g_0) = g$.

- wlog $0 \in \mathcal{X}$ and $u(0) = 0$. Let $g \in \mathcal{Z}_0$ and $\lambda \in (0, 1)$. We want to show $J(\lambda g) = \lambda J(g)$. Choose $g_0 \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $u(g_0) = g$.
- Let

$$\begin{aligned}h(\omega) &= u^{-1}(\lambda g(\omega)) \\ &= u^{-1}(\lambda u(g_0(\omega))) = u^{-1}(\lambda u(g_0(\omega)) + (1 - \lambda)u(0)) \\ &= c(\lambda \delta_{g_0(\omega)} + (1 - \lambda)\delta_0).\end{aligned}$$

- wlog $0 \in \mathcal{X}$ and $u(0) = 0$. Let $g \in \mathcal{Z}_0$ and $\lambda \in (0, 1)$. We want to show $J(\lambda g) = \lambda J(g)$. Choose $g_0 \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $u(g_0) = g$.
- Let

$$\begin{aligned}h(\omega) &= u^{-1}(\lambda g(\omega)) \\ &= u^{-1}(\lambda u(g_0(\omega))) = u^{-1}(\lambda u(g_0(\omega)) + (1 - \lambda)u(0)) \\ &= c(\lambda \delta_{g_0(\omega)} + (1 - \lambda)\delta_0).\end{aligned}$$

- By monotonicity axiom, $h \sim f$ with

$$f(\omega) = \lambda \delta_{g_0(\omega)} + (1 - \lambda)\delta_0.$$

- wlog $0 \in \mathcal{X}$ and $u(0) = 0$. Let $g \in \mathcal{Z}_0$ and $\lambda \in (0, 1)$. We want to show $J(\lambda g) = \lambda J(g)$. Choose $g_0 \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $u(g_0) = g$.
- Let

$$\begin{aligned}h(\omega) &= u^{-1}(\lambda g(\omega)) \\ &= u^{-1}(\lambda u(g_0(\omega))) = u^{-1}(\lambda u(g_0(\omega)) + (1 - \lambda)u(0)) \\ &= c(\lambda \delta_{g_0(\omega)} + (1 - \lambda)\delta_0).\end{aligned}$$

- By monotonicity axiom, $h \sim f$ with

$$f(\omega) = \lambda \delta_{g_0(\omega)} + (1 - \lambda)\delta_0.$$

- Hence, $U(h) = U(f)$, or $J(u(h)) = J(u(f))$, or $J(\lambda g) = J(u(f))$.

- Continuity and Monotonicity allow to find a lottery $P \in \Delta$ with $P \sim \delta_{g_0}$

- Continuity and Monotonicity allow to find a lottery $P \in \Delta$ with $P \sim \delta_{g_0}$
- By certainty independence,

$$f \sim \lambda P + (1 - \lambda)\delta_0$$

- Continuity and Monotonicity allow to find a lottery $P \in \Delta$ with $P \sim \delta_{g_0}$
- By certainty independence,

$$f \sim \lambda P + (1 - \lambda)\delta_0$$

- Hence,

$$J(u(f)) = U(f) = U(\lambda P + (1 - \lambda)\delta_0) = \lambda u(P) = \lambda J(g)$$

$$U(f) = \int_{\mathcal{P}} \psi \left(E^P u(f) \right) \mu(dP)$$

- The smooth model corresponds to a double Bayesian approach with an uncertainty-averse twist

$$U(f) = \int_{\mathcal{P}} \psi \left(E^P u(f) \right) \mu(dP)$$

- The smooth model corresponds to a double Bayesian approach with an uncertainty-averse twist
- We have expected utility over lotteries; this yields the Bernoulli utility u

$$U(f) = \int_{\mathcal{P}} \psi \left(E^P u(f) \right) \mu(dP)$$

- The smooth model corresponds to a double Bayesian approach with an uncertainty-averse twist
- We have expected utility over lotteries; this yields the Bernoulli utility u
- we have subjective expected utility over “second-order acts” (bets on models); this yields the second-order Bernoulli utility function ϕ

- Many economic decisions involve time

- Many economic decisions involve time
- time can be modeled in discrete steps, $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, or as continuous time, $t \in [0, T]$ for a fixed horizon T , or $t \in [0, \infty[$, infinite horizon

- Many economic decisions involve time
- time can be modeled in discrete steps, $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, or as continuous time, $t \in [0, T]$ for a fixed horizon T , or $t \in [0, \infty[$, infinite horizon
- if there is uncertainty given by a measurable space (Ω, \mathcal{F}) , the evolution of information about the state of the world is typically modeled by a filtration (\mathcal{F}_t)

- World 1: a consumption plan is a sequence $c = (c_t)_{t=0,1,2,\dots}$ of nonnegative numbers, or a mapping $c : [0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$

- World 1: a consumption plan is a sequence $c = (c_t)_{t=0,1,2,\dots}$ of nonnegative numbers, or a mapping $c : [0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$
- world 2-4: an adapted sequence or stochastic process $c = (c_t)$

Additively Separable Expected Utility

Samuelson, 1937, A Note on the Measurement of Utility,
Review of Economic Studies

Additively Separable Expected Utility

Samuelson, 1937, A Note on the Measurement of Utility, Review of Economic Studies

- For the first time, the additively separable model appears, i.e.

$$U(c) = \sum_{t=0}^T \delta^t u(c_t)$$

or

$$U(c) = \int_0^T e^{-\rho t} u(c_t) dt$$

Additively Separable Expected Utility

Samuelson, 1937, A Note on the Measurement of Utility, Review of Economic Studies

- For the first time, the additively separable model appears, i.e.

$$U(c) = \sum_{t=0}^T \delta^t u(c_t)$$

or

$$U(c) = \int_0^T e^{-\rho t} u(c_t) dt$$

- $\delta \in (0, 1)$ is the subjective discount factor, ρ the subjective discount rate

Additively Separable Expected Utility

Samuelson, 1937, A Note on the Measurement of Utility, Review of Economic Studies

- For the first time, the additively separable model appears, i.e.

$$U(c) = \sum_{t=0}^T \delta^t u(c_t)$$

or

$$U(c) = \int_0^T e^{-\rho t} u(c_t) dt$$

- $\delta \in (0, 1)$ is the subjective discount factor, ρ the subjective discount rate
- $u : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ the **period utility function**

Additively Separable Expected Utility

Samuelson, 1937, A Note on the Measurement of Utility, Review of Economic Studies

- For the first time, the additively separable model appears, i.e.

$$U(c) = \sum_{t=0}^T \delta^t u(c_t)$$

or

$$U(c) = \int_0^T e^{-\rho t} u(c_t) dt$$

- $\delta \in (0, 1)$ is the subjective discount factor, ρ the subjective discount rate
- $u : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ the **period utility function**
- analogy to expected utility: independence and stationarity (*Koopmans* 1960, Stationary Ordinal Utility

A B(S)DE for Additively Separable Expected Utility

- Let us denote by

$$V_t = V_t(c) = \int_t^T \exp(-\rho(s-t))u(c_s)ds$$

the continuation utility at time t .

A B(S)DE for Additively Separable Expected Utility

- Let us denote by

$$V_t = V_t(c) = \int_t^T \exp(-\rho(s-t))u(c_s)ds$$

the continuation utility at time t .

- Then we have

$$-V'_t = u(c_t) - \rho V_t, V_T = 0$$

A B(S)DE for Additively Separable Expected Utility

- Let us denote by

$$V_t = V_t(c) = \int_t^T \exp(-\rho(s-t))u(c_s)ds$$

the continuation utility at time t .

- Then we have

$$-V'_t = u(c_t) - \rho V_t, V_T = 0$$

- This is a description of utility in the form of a backward differential equation

A BSDE for Additively Separable Expected Utility

- Let us denote by

$$V_t = V_t(c) = \int_t^T \exp(-\rho(s-t))u(c_s)ds$$

the continuation utility at time t .

- Then we have

$$-V'_t = u(c_t) - \rho V_t, V_T = 0$$

- This is a description of utility in the form of a backward differential equation
- Under risk, (conditional) expected continuation utility takes the form

$$V_t = \mathbb{E}^P \left[\int_t^T \exp(-\rho(s-t))u(c_s)ds \mid \mathcal{F}_t \right]$$

that solves the BSDE

A BSDE for Additively Separable Expected Utility

- Let us denote by

$$V_t = V_t(c) = \int_t^T \exp(-\rho(s-t)) u(c_s) ds$$

the continuation utility at time t .

- Then we have

$$-V'_t = u(c_t) - \rho V_t, V_T = 0$$

- This is a description of utility in the form of a backward differential equation
- Under risk, (conditional) expected continuation utility takes the form

$$V_t = \mathbb{E}^P \left[\int_t^T \exp(-\rho(s-t)) u(c_s) ds \mid \mathcal{F}_t \right]$$

that solves the BSDE

- $-dV_t = (u(c_t) - \rho V_t) dt - dM_t, V_T = 0$ for some

- *Epstein, Zin*, Econometrica 1989 generalize to recursive utility of the form

$$-V'_t = g(c_t, V_t), V_T = 0$$

for an aggregator g

- *Epstein, Zin*, Econometrica 1989 generalize to recursive utility of the form

$$-V'_t = g(c_t, V_t), V_T = 0$$

for an aggregator g

- much wider flexibility, allows to model various intertemporal aspects of behavior

- *Epstein, Zin*, Econometrica 1989 generalize to **recursive utility** of the form

$$-V'_t = g(c_t, V_t), V_T = 0$$

for an aggregator g

- much wider flexibility, allows to model various intertemporal aspects of behavior
 - additively separable case: $g(c, v) = u(c) - \rho v$

- *Epstein, Zin*, Econometrica 1989 generalize to recursive utility of the form

$$-V'_t = g(c_t, V_t), V_T = 0$$

for an aggregator g

- much wider flexibility, allows to model various intertemporal aspects of behavior
 - additively separable case: $g(c, v) = u(c) - \rho v$
 - Kreps-Porteus choice: $g(c, v) = \frac{\beta(c^\rho - v^\rho)}{\rho y^{\rho-1}}$

- *Epstein, Zin*, Econometrica 1989 generalize to recursive utility of the form

$$-V'_t = g(c_t, V_t), V_T = 0$$

for an aggregator g

- much wider flexibility, allows to model various intertemporal aspects of behavior
 - additively separable case: $g(c, v) = u(c) - \rho v$
 - Kreps-Porteus choice: $g(c, v) = \frac{\beta(c^\rho - v^\rho)}{\rho \gamma^{\rho-1}}$
 - *Kreps, Porteus*, Econometrica 1978, Temporal Resolution of Uncertainty and Dynamic Choice Theory

- *Duffie, Epstein*, Econometrica 1992 generalize to stochastic differential utility of the form

$$-dV_t = g(c_t, V_t)dt - Z_t dW_t, V_T = 0$$

for an aggregator g , a Brownian motion W

- *Duffie, Epstein*, Econometrica 1992 generalize to stochastic differential utility of the form

$$-dV_t = g(c_t, V_t)dt - Z_t dW_t, V_T = 0$$

for an aggregator g , a Brownian motion W

- utility is the solution of a backward stochastic differential equation

- *Duffie, Epstein*, Econometrica 1992 generalize to stochastic differential utility of the form

$$-dV_t = g(c_t, V_t)dt - Z_t dW_t, V_T = 0$$

for an aggregator g , a Brownian motion W

- utility is the solution of a backward stochastic differential equation
- See *El Karoui, Peng, Quenez*, Backward Stochastic Differential Equations in Finance, Mathematical Finance 1997

- In the light of Gilboa-Schmeidler utility and the usual additively separable intertemporal utility, it is natural to write down the following version of utility under Knightian uncertainty

$$V_t = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \mathbb{E}^P \left[\int_t^T \exp(-\rho(s-t)) u(c_s) ds \mid \mathcal{F}_t \right]$$

for a class of probability measures \mathcal{P}

- In the light of Gilboa-Schmeidler utility and the usual additively separable intertemporal utility, it is natural to write down the following version of utility under Knightian uncertainty

$$V_t = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \mathbb{E}^P \left[\int_t^T \exp(-\rho(s-t)) u(c_s) ds \mid \mathcal{F}_t \right]$$

for a class of probability measures \mathcal{P}

- This approach works well if the class of probability measures is **rectangular** or **stable under pasting**

- In the light of Gilboa-Schmeidler utility and the usual additively separable intertemporal utility, it is natural to write down the following version of utility under Knightian uncertainty

$$V_t = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \mathbb{E}^P \left[\int_t^T \exp(-\rho(s-t)) u(c_s) ds \mid \mathcal{F}_t \right]$$

for a class of probability measures \mathcal{P}

- This approach works well if the class of probability measures is **rectangular** or **stable under pasting**
- *Epstein, Schneider*, Journal of Economic Theory 2003, *Riedel*, Stochastic Processes and Their Applications, 2004

Intertemporal Utility under Drift Uncertainty

Chen, Epstein, Econometrica 2002

Chen, Epstein, Econometrica 2002

- Let W be a d -dimensional Brownian motion on the standard filtered probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}, (\mathcal{F}_t))$

Chen, Epstein, Econometrica 2002

- Let W be a d -dimensional Brownian motion on the standard filtered probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}, (\mathcal{F}_t))$
- Let $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be compact and convex, $0 \in \Theta$

Chen, Epstein, Econometrica 2002

- Let W be a d -dimensional Brownian motion on the standard filtered probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}, (\mathcal{F}_t))$
- Let $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be compact and convex, $0 \in \Theta$
- Let Θ be the set of adapted stochastic processes with values in \mathcal{K}

Intertemporal Utility under Drift Uncertainty

Chen, Epstein, *Econometrica* 2002

- Let W be a d -dimensional Brownian motion on the standard filtered probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}, (\mathcal{F}_t))$
- Let $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be compact and convex, $0 \in \Theta$
- Let Θ be the set of adapted stochastic processes with values in \mathcal{K}
- For a process $\theta \in \Theta$, let \mathbb{P}^θ be the probability measure generated by the Girsanov density

$$z_t^\theta = \exp \left(- \int_0^t \theta_s dW_s - \frac{1}{2} \|\theta_s\|^2 ds \right)$$

Chen, Epstein, Econometrica 2002

- Let W be a d -dimensional Brownian motion on the standard filtered probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}, (\mathcal{F}_t))$
- Let $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be compact and convex, $0 \in \Theta$
- Let Θ be the set of adapted stochastic processes with values in \mathcal{K}
- For a process $\theta \in \Theta$, let \mathbb{P}^θ be the probability measure generated by the Girsanov density

$$z_t^\theta = \exp \left(- \int_0^t \theta_s dW_s - \frac{1}{2} \|\theta_s\|^2 ds \right)$$

- Let \mathcal{P} be the set of probability measures generated in this way

Chen, Epstein, Econometrica 2002

Chen, Epstein, Econometrica 2002

- The Chen-Epstein model describes Knightian uncertainty about the drift of the Brownian motion by Girsanov's theorem

Chen, Epstein, *Econometrica* 2002

- The Chen-Epstein model describes Knightian uncertainty about the drift of the Brownian motion by Girsanov's theorem



$$V_t = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \mathbb{E}^P \left[\int_t^T \exp(-\rho(s-t)) u(c_s) ds \mid \mathcal{F}_t \right]$$

solves the BSDE

$$-dV_t = \left(u(c_t) - \rho V_t - \max_{\theta \in \mathcal{K}} \theta \cdot Z_t \right) dt - Z_t dW_t$$

for some (endogenous) volatility process Z

Epstein, Ji, Review of Financial Studies 2013

Epstein, Ji, Review of Financial Studies 2013

- uses *Shige Peng*'s theory of **G--Brownian motion** to model recursive utility when **volatility** is unknown

Epstein, Ji, Review of Financial Studies 2013

- uses *Shige Peng*'s theory of **G--Brownian motion** to model recursive utility when **volatility** is unknown



$$V_t = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \mathbb{E}^P \left[\int_t^T \exp(-\rho(s-t)) u(c_s) ds \mid \mathcal{F}_t \right]$$

Epstein, Ji, Review of Financial Studies 2013

- uses *Shige Peng*'s theory of **G--Brownian motion** to model recursive utility when **volatility** is unknown



$$V_t = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \mathbb{E}^P \left[\int_t^T \exp(-\rho(s-t)) u(c_s) ds \mid \mathcal{F}_t \right]$$

- but now the set of priors contains mutually singular probability measures, so we need quasi--sure analysis, see *Denis, Hu, Peng*, Potential Analysis 2011