

Chapter 38

Asymmetric Information

Information in Competitive Markets

- In purely competitive markets all agents are fully informed about traded commodities and other aspects of the market.
- What about markets for medical services, or insurance, or used cars?

Asymmetric Information in Markets

- A doctor knows more about medical services than does the buyer.
- An insurance buyer knows more about his riskiness than does the seller.
- A used car's owner knows more about it than does a potential buyer.

Asymmetric Information in Markets

- Markets with one side or the other imperfectly informed are markets with imperfect information.
- Imperfectly informed markets with one side better informed than the other are markets with asymmetric information.

Asymmetric Information in Markets

- In what ways can asymmetric information affect the functioning of a market?
- Four applications will be considered:
 - adverse selection
 - signaling
 - moral hazard
 - incentives contracting.

- Consider a used car market.
- Two types of cars; "lemons" and "peaches".
- Each lemon seller will accept \$1,000; a buyer will pay at most \$1,200.
- Each peach seller will accept \$2,000; a buyer will pay at most \$2,400.

- If every buyer can tell a peach from a lemon, then lemons sell for between \$1,000 and \$1,200, and peaches sell for between \$2,000 and \$2,400.
- Gains-to-trade are generated when buyers are well informed.

- Suppose no buyer can tell a peach from a lemon before buying.
- What is the most a buyer will pay for any car?

◆ Let q be the fraction of peaches.
◆ 1 - q is the fraction of lemons.
◆ Expected value to a buyer of any car is at most \$\$\\$\\$\\$1200(1 - q) + \$\$2400q.

◆ Suppose EV > \$2000.

- Every seller can negotiate a price between \$2000 and \$EV (no matter if the car is a lemon or a peach).
- All sellers gain from being in the market.

- ♦ Suppose EV < \$2000.
- A peach seller cannot negotiate a price above \$2000 and will exit the market.
- So all buyers know that remaining sellers own lemons only.
- Buyers will pay at most \$1200 and only lemons are sold.

- Hence "too many" lemons "crowd out" the peaches from the market.
- Gains-to-trade are reduced since no peaches are traded.
- The presence of the lemons inflicts an external cost on buyers and peach owners.

- How many lemons can be in the market without crowding out the peaches?
- Buyers will pay \$2000 for a car only if

 $E V = \$ 1 2 0 0 (1 - q) + \$ 2 4 0 0 q \ge \$ 2 0 0 0$

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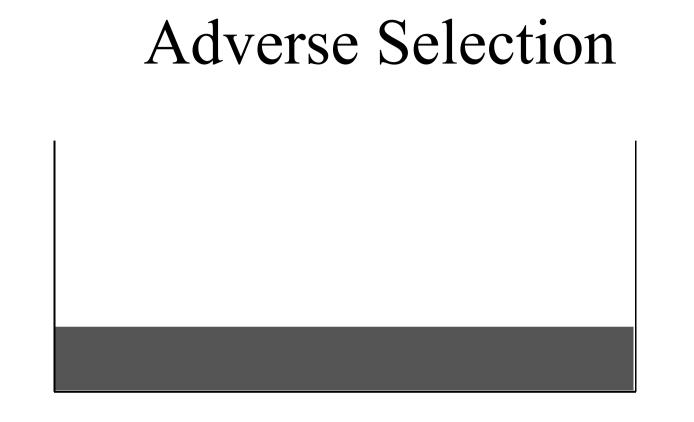
$$E V = \$ 1 2 0 0 (1 - q) + \$ 2 4 0 0 q \ge \$ 2 0 0 0$$

$$\Rightarrow q \ge \frac{2}{3}.$$

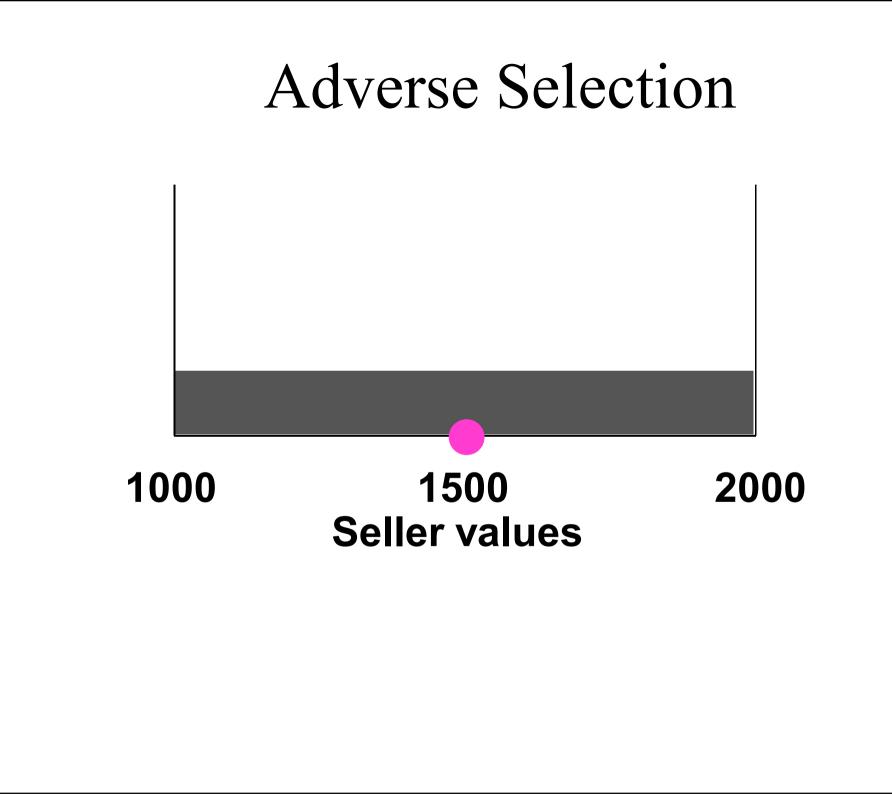
So if over one-third of all cars are lemons, then only lemons are traded.

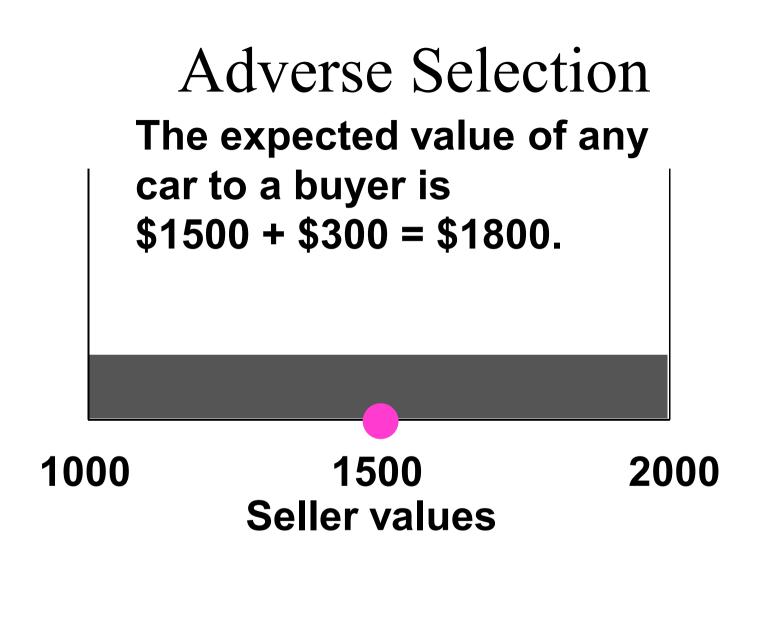
- A market equilibrium in which both types of cars are traded and cannot be distinguished by the buyers is a pooling equilibrium.
- A market equilibrium in which only one of the two types of cars is traded, or both are traded but can be distinguished by the buyers, is a separating equilibrium.

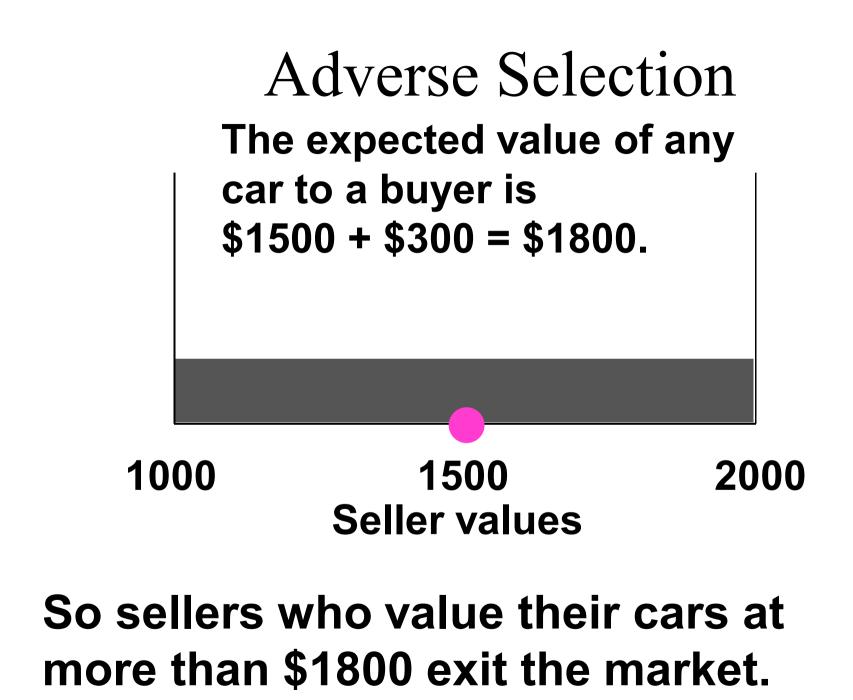
- What if there is more than two types of cars?
- Suppose that
 - car quality is Uniformly distributed between \$1000 and \$2000
 - any car that a seller values at \$x is valued by a buyer at \$(x+300).
- Which cars will be traded?

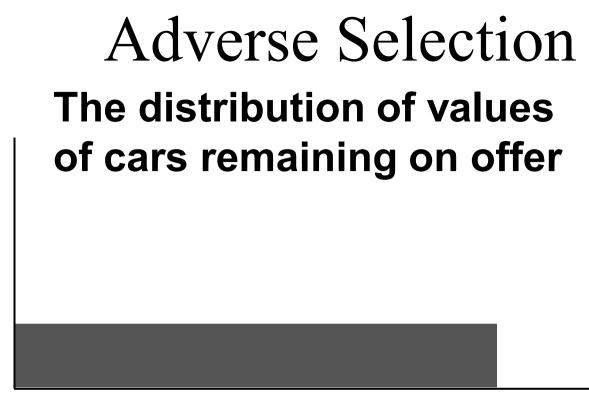


Seller values

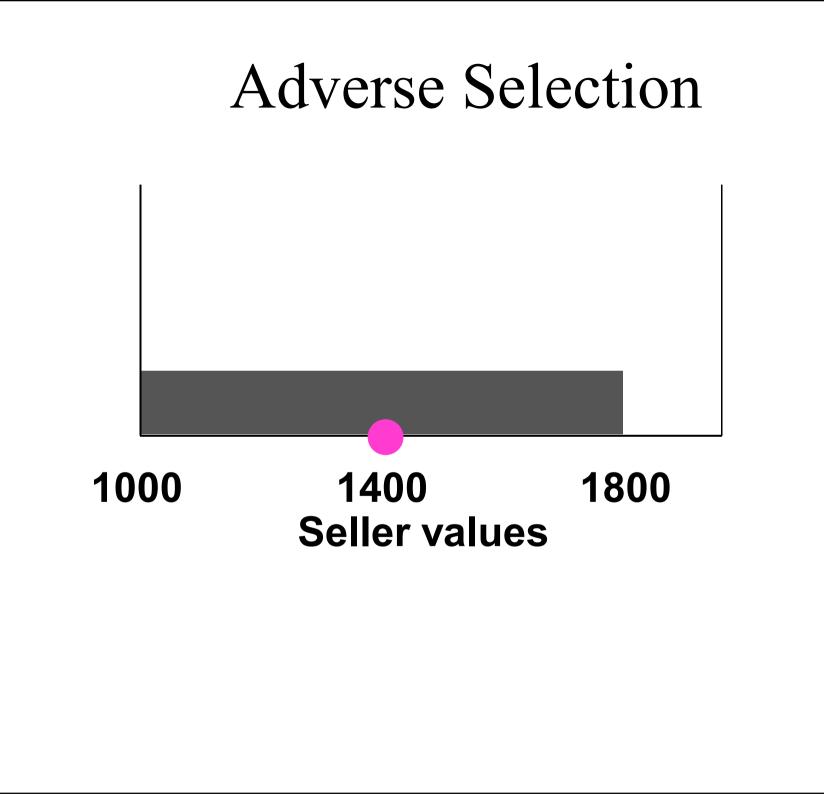


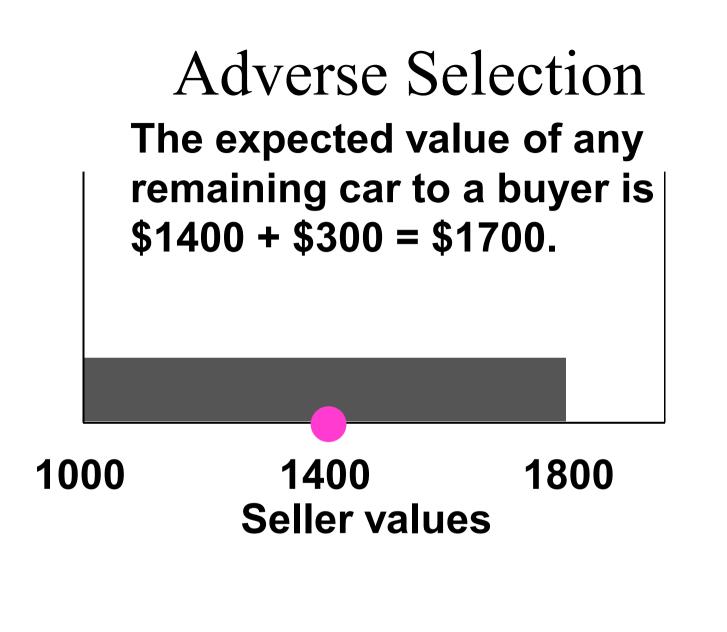


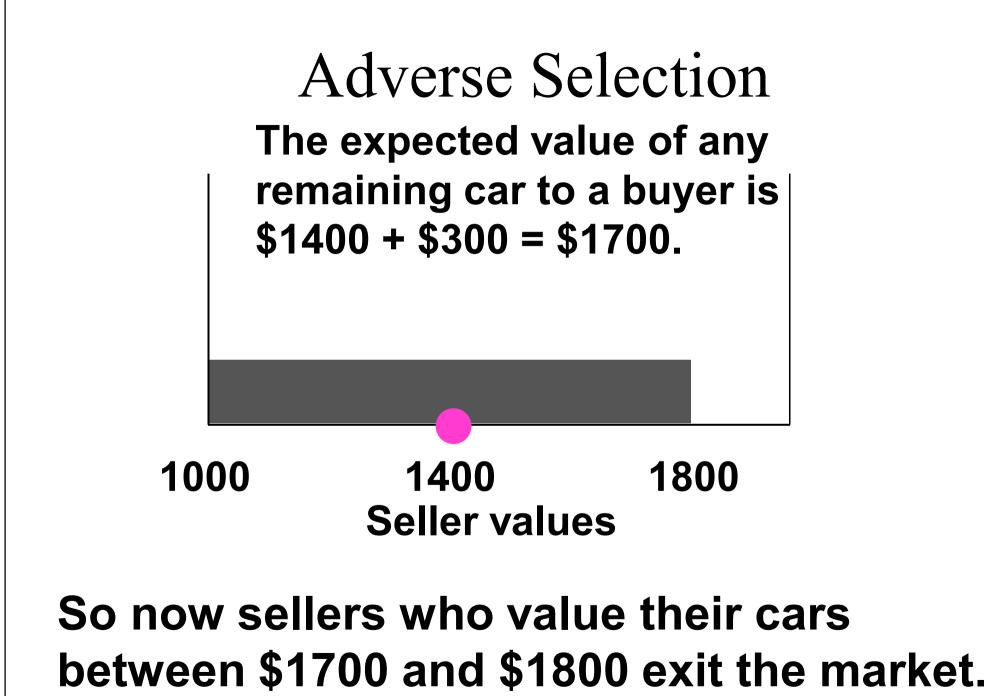




Seller values







- Where does this unraveling of the market end?
- Let v_H be the highest seller value of any car remaining in the market.
- The expected seller value of a car is $\frac{1}{2} \times 1000 + \frac{1}{2} \times v_{H}$.

• So a buyer will pay at most $\frac{1}{2} \times 1000 + \frac{1}{2} \times v_{H} + 300.$

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◆ This must be the price which the seller of the highest value car remaining in the market will just accept; i.e. $\frac{1}{2} \times 1000 + \frac{1}{2} \times v_{H} + 300 = v_{H}$.

Adverse Selection

$$\frac{1}{2} \times 1000 + \frac{1}{2} \times v_{H} + 300 = v_{H}$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{H} = \$1600.$$

Adverse selection drives out all cars valued by sellers at more than \$1600.

- Now each seller can choose the quality, or value, of her product.
- Two umbrellas; high-quality and lowquality.
- Which will be manufactured and sold?

- Buyers value a high-quality umbrella at \$14 and a low-quality umbrella at \$8.
- Before buying, no buyer can tell quality.
- Marginal production cost of a highquality umbrella is \$11.
- Marginal production cost of a lowquality umbrella is \$10.

- Suppose every seller makes only highquality umbrellas.
- Every buyer pays \$14 and sellers' profit per umbrella is \$14 - \$11 = \$3.

 But then a seller can make low-quality umbrellas for which buyers still pay \$14, so increasing profit to \$14 - \$10 = \$4.

There is no market equilibrium in which only high-quality umbrellas are traded.

Is there a market equilibrium in which only low-quality umbrellas are traded?

- All sellers make only low-quality umbrellas.
- Buyers pay at most \$8 for an umbrella, while marginal production cost is \$10.
- There is no market equilibrium in which only low-quality umbrellas are traded.

- Now we know there is no market equilibrium in which only one type of umbrella is manufactured.
- Is there an equilibrium in which both types of umbrella are manufactured?

- A fraction q of sellers make highquality umbrellas; 0 < q < 1.</p>
- Buyers' expected value of an umbrella is

$$\mathsf{EV} = 14q + 8(1 - q) = 8 + 6q.$$

♦ High-quality manufacturers must recover the manufacturing cost, $EV = 8 + 6q \ge 11 \implies q \ge 1/2.$

- So at least half of the sellers must make high-quality umbrellas for there to be a pooling market equilibrium.
- But then a high-quality seller can switch to making low-quality and increase profit by \$1 on each umbrella sold.

- Since all sellers reason this way, the fraction of high-quality sellers will shrink towards zero -- but then buyers will pay only \$8.
- So there is no equilibrium in which both umbrella types are traded.

The market has no equilibrium

- with just one umbrella type traded
- with both umbrella types traded

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- so the market has no equilibrium at all.
- Adverse selection has destroyed the entire market!

- Adverse selection is an outcome of an informational deficiency.
- What if information can be improved by high-quality sellers signaling credibly that they are high-quality?
- E.g. warranties, professional credentials, references from previous clients etc.

- A labor market has two types of workers; high-ability and low-ability.
- A high-ability worker's marginal product is a_H.
- A low-ability worker's marginal product is a_L.

 $\bullet a_{\rm L} < a_{\rm H}$.

- A fraction h of all workers are highability.
- 1 h is the fraction of low-ability workers.

- Each worker is paid his expected marginal product.
- If firms knew each worker's type they would
 - pay each high-ability worker w_H = a_H
 - pay each low-ability worker $w_{L} = a_{L}$.

If firms cannot tell workers' types then every worker is paid the (pooling) wage rate; i.e. the expected marginal product w_P = (1 - h)a₁ + ha_H.

- ♦ w_P = (1 h)a_L + ha_H < a_H, the wage rate paid when the firm knows a worker really is high-ability.
- So high-ability workers have an incentive to find a credible signal.

- ◆ Workers can acquire "education".
- Education costs a high-ability worker
 c_H per unit
- and costs a low-ability worker c_L per unit.

$\diamond c_{\rm L} > c_{\rm H}$.

Suppose that education has no effect on workers' productivities; i.e., the cost of education is a deadweight loss.

- High-ability workers will acquire e_H education units if
 (i) w_H w_L = a_H a_L > c_He_H, and
 - (ii) $w_{\rm H} w_{\rm L} = a_{\rm H} a_{\rm L} < c_{\rm L}e_{\rm H}$.

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- (i) says acquiring e_H units of education benefits high-ability workers.
- (ii) says acquiring e_H education units hurts low-ability workers.

 $a_{\rm H} - a_{\rm L} > c_{\rm H} e_{\rm H}$ and $a_{\rm H} - a_{\rm L} < c_{\rm L} e_{\rm H}$ together require

$$\frac{a_{\mathrm{H}} - a_{\mathrm{L}}}{c_{\mathrm{L}}} < e_{\mathrm{H}} < \frac{a_{\mathrm{H}} - a_{\mathrm{L}}}{c_{\mathrm{H}}}.$$

Acquiring such an education level credibly signals high-ability, allowing high-ability workers to separate themselves from low-ability workers.

Q: Given that high-ability workers acquire e_H units of education, how much education should low-ability workers acquire?

- Q: Given that high-ability workers acquire e_H units of education, how much education should low-ability workers acquire?
- ♦ A: Zero. Low-ability workers will be paid $w_L = a_L$ so long as they do not have e_H units of education and they are still worse off if they do.

- Signaling can improve information in the market.
- But, total output did not change and education was costly so signaling worsened the market's efficiency.
- So improved information need not improve gains-to-trade.

Moral Hazard

- If you have full car insurance are you more likely to leave your car unlocked?
- Moral hazard is a reaction to incentives to increase the risk of a loss
- and is a consequence of asymmetric information.

Moral Hazard

- If an insurer knows the exact risk from insuring an individual, then a contract specific to that person can be written.
- If all people look alike to the insurer, then one contract will be offered to all insurees; high-risk and low-risk types are then pooled, causing lowrisks to subsidize high-risks.

Moral Hazard

- Examples of efforts to avoid moral hazard by using signals are:
 - higher life and medical insurance premiums for smokers or heavy drinkers of alcohol
 - lower car insurance premiums for contracts with higher deductibles or for drivers with histories of safe driving.

- A worker is hired by a principal to do a task.
- Only the worker knows the effort she exerts (asymmetric information).
- The effort exerted affects the principal's payoff.

The principal's problem: design an incentives contract that induces the worker to exert the amount of effort that maximizes the principal's payoff.

e is the agent's effort.
Principal's reward is y = f(e).
An incentive contract is a function s(y) specifying the worker's payment when the principal's reward is y. The principal's profit is thus

$$\Pi_{p} = y - s(y) = f(e) - s(f(e)).$$

- Let ^{*i*} be the worker's (reservation) utility of not working.
- To get the worker's participation, the contract must offer the worker a utility of at least
- The worker's utility cost of an effort level e is c(e).

So the principal's problem is choose e to

 $m a x \Pi_{p} = f(e) - s(f(e))$

subject to $s(f(e)) - c(e) \ge \tilde{u}$. (participation constraint)

To maximize his profit the principal designs the contract to provide the worker with her reservation utility level. That is, ...

the principal's problem is to

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The principal's profit is maximized when f'(e) = c'(e).

Incentives Contracting $f'(e) = c'(e) \Rightarrow e = e^*$.

The contract that maximizes the principal's profit insists upon the worker effort level e* that equalizes the worker's marginal effort cost to the principal's marginal payoff from worker effort.

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The contract that maximizes the principal's profit insists upon the worker effort level e* that equalizes the worker's marginal effort cost to the principal's marginal payoff from worker effort. How can the principal induce the worker to choose $e = e^*$?

e = e* must be most preferred by the worker.

- e = e* must be most preferred by the worker.
- ◆ So the contract s(y) must satisfy the incentive-compatibility constraint;
 s(f(e*)) c(e*) ≥ s(f(e)) c(e), for all e ≥ 0.

Rental Contracting

- ♦ Examples of incentives contracts: (i) Rental contracts: The principal keeps a lump-sum R for himself and the worker gets all profit above R; i.e.
 s(f(e)) = f(e) - R.
- Why does this contract maximize the principal's profit?

Rental Contracting

♦ Given the contract s(f(e)) = f(e) - R the worker's payoff is s(f(e)) - c(e) = f(e) - R - c(e)and to maximize this the worker
should choose the effort level for
which f'(e) = c'(e); that is, $e = e^*$.

Rental Contracting

- How large should be the principal's rental fee R?
- ◆ The principal should extract as much rent as possible without causing the worker not to participate, so R should satisfy s(f(e*)) c(e*) R = ũ;
 i.e. R = s(f(e*)) c(e*) ũ.

Other Incentives Contracts

- (ii) Wages contracts: In a wages contract the payment to the worker is
 s(e) = w e + K.
 - *w* is the wage per unit of effort. *K* is a lump-sum payment.

Other Incentives Contracts

- (iii) Take-it-or-leave-it: Choose e = e* and be paid a lump-sum L, or choose e ≠ e* and be paid zero.
- ◆ The worker's utility from choosing e ≠ e* is - c(e), so the worker will choose e = e*.
- L is chosen to make the worker indifferent between participating and not participating.

Incentives Contracts in General

- The common feature of all efficient incentive contracts is that they make the worker the full residual claimant on profits.
- I.e. the last part of profit earned must accrue entirely to the worker.