

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?

- \blacklozenge Let q be the fraction of peaches.
- \bigstar 1 q is the fraction of lemons.
- ♦ Expected value to a buyer of any car is at meg = \$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

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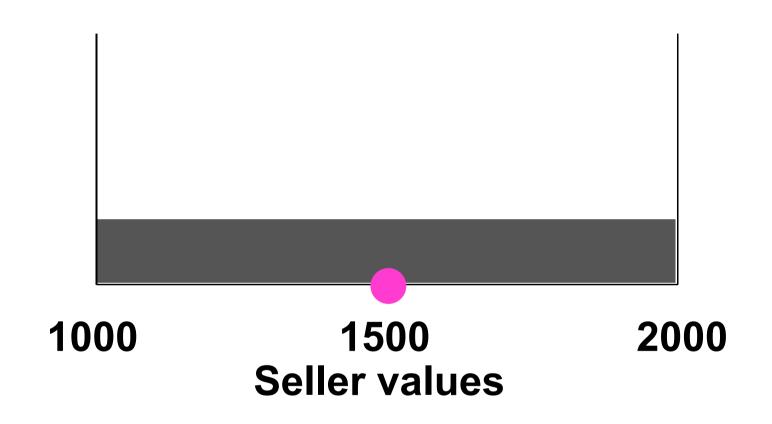
 $\Rightarrow q \ge \frac{2}{3}$.

♦ 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?





The expected value of any car to a buyer is \$1500 + \$300 = \$1800.

1000 1500 2000 Seller values

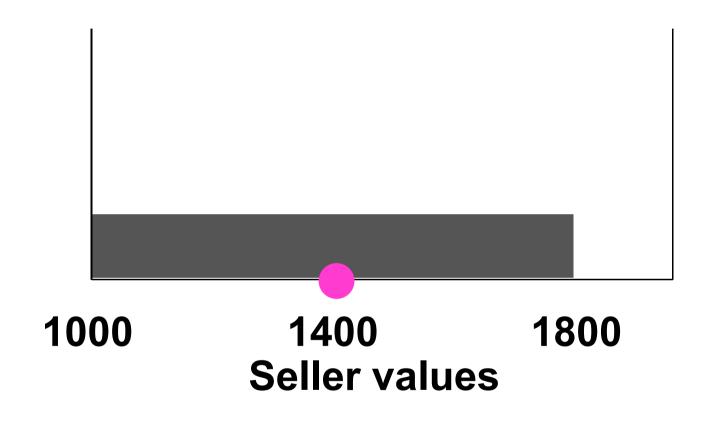
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So sellers who value their cars at more than \$1800 exit the market.

Adverse Selection The distribution of values of cars remaining on offer

1000 1800 Seller values



The expected value of any remaining car to a buyer is \$1400 + \$300 = \$1700.

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So now sellers who value their cars between \$1700 and \$1800 exit the market.

- ♦ 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. 1

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$$\Rightarrow v_H = \$1600.$$

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

$$EV = 14q + 8(1 - q) = 8 + 6q.$$

♦ High-quality manufacturers must recover the manufacturing cost,

$$\mathsf{EV} = 8 + 6q \ge 11 \implies q \ge 1/2.$$

- ◆ 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.

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- ◆ 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.
- $\bullet a_{\mathsf{L}} < a_{\mathsf{H}}$.

- ◆ 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 $w_P = (1 - h)a_1 + ha_H$.

- ♦ $w_P = (1 h)a_L + ha_H < a_H$, 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.
- $\diamond c_{\mathsf{L}} > c_{\mathsf{H}}$.

◆ 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)
$$w_H - w_L = a_H - a_L > c_H e_H$$
, and

(ii)
$$W_{H} - W_{L} = a_{H} - a_{L} < c_{L}e_{H}$$
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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.

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- ♦ 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.
- lacktriangle 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 \tilde{u} 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 \tilde{u} .
- ◆ The worker's utility cost of an effort level e is c(e).

So the principal's problem is choose e to

$$\max \Pi_p = f(e) - s(f(e))$$

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, ...

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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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How can the principal induce the worker to choose e = e*?

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

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- ♦ So the contract s(y) must satisfy the incentive-compatibility constraint; $s(f(e^*)) c(e^*) \ge s(f(e)) c(e)$, for all $e \ge 0$.

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 $s(f(e^*))-c(e^*)-R=\widetilde{u};$ i.e. $R=s(f(e^*))-c(e^*)-\widetilde{u}.$

Other Incentives Contracts

• (ii) Wages contracts: In a wages contract the payment to the worker is s(e) = we + K.

w is the wage per unit of effort.K is a lump-sum payment.

• $w = f'(e^*)$ and K makes the worker just indifferent between participating and not participating.

Other Incentives Contracts

- ♦ (iii) Take-it-or-leave-it: Choose $e = e^*$ and be paid a lump-sum L, or choose $e \neq e^*$ and be paid zero.
- **♦** The worker's utility from choosing $e \neq e^*$ 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.