

# Lecture 2g: Choice over Time Projection Bias

EC 404: Behavioral Economics  
Professor: Ben Bushong

March 24, 2022

# “Projection Bias”

Introduced by Loewenstein, O'Donoghue, & Rabin (*QJE* 2003)

“Projection Bias”:

- ▶ People understand qualitatively the directions in which their tastes change, but they systematically underappreciate the magnitudes of these changes.

# “Projection Bias”

Introduced by Loewenstein, O'Donoghue, & Rabin (*QJE* 2003)

“Projection Bias”:

- ▶ People understand qualitatively the directions in which their tastes change, but they systematically underappreciate the magnitudes of these changes.

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 1: A Model of Changing Tastes

To describe changes in tastes, we use “state-dependent utility”:

- ▶ The instantaneous utility in period  $t$  is  $u(c_t, s_t)$ , where  $c_t$  is period- $t$  consumption and  $s_t$  is the period- $t$  “state”.

Two examples:

- ▶  $u(\text{pie}, \text{hungry}) > u(\text{pie}, \text{full})$
- ▶  $u(\text{coat}, \text{cold}) > u(\text{coat}, \text{warm})$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 1: A Model of Changing Tastes

To describe changes in tastes, we use “state-dependent utility”:

- ▶ The instantaneous utility in period  $t$  is  $u(c_t, s_t)$ , where  $c_t$  is period- $t$  consumption and  $s_t$  is the period- $t$  “state”.

Two examples:

- ▶  $u(\text{pie}, \text{hungry}) > u(\text{pie}, \text{full})$
- ▶  $u(\text{coat}, \text{cold}) > u(\text{coat}, \text{warm})$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 1: A Model of Changing Tastes

To describe changes in tastes, we use “state-dependent utility”:

- ▶ The instantaneous utility in period  $t$  is  $u(c_t, s_t)$ , where  $c_t$  is period- $t$  consumption and  $s_t$  is the period- $t$  “state”.

Two examples:

- ▶  $u(\text{pie}, \text{hungry}) > u(\text{pie}, \text{full})$
- ▶  $u(\text{coat}, \text{cold}) > u(\text{coat}, \text{warm})$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 1: A Model of Changing Tastes

To describe changes in tastes, we use “state-dependent utility”:

- ▶ The instantaneous utility in period  $t$  is  $u(c_t, s_t)$ , where  $c_t$  is period- $t$  consumption and  $s_t$  is the period- $t$  “state”.

Two examples:

- ▶  $u(\text{pie}, \text{hungry}) > u(\text{pie}, \text{full})$
- ▶  $u(\text{coat}, \text{cold}) > u(\text{coat}, \text{warm})$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes

Suppose you're predicting tastes given future state  $s$ , but this prediction is potentially contaminated by your current state  $s'$ .

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(c, s)$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(c, s')$ .
- ▶ Let  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  denote the prediction.

Example: Suppose you're predicting what your utility from a slice of pie will be when you're full, but this prediction is potentially contaminated by the fact that you're currently hungry.

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(\text{pie}, \text{full})$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(\text{pie}, \text{hungry})$ .
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie}, \text{full}|\text{hungry})$  denotes your prediction.



# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes

Suppose you're predicting tastes given future state  $s$ , but this prediction is potentially contaminated by your current state  $s'$ .

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(c, s)$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(c, s')$ .
- ▶ Let  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  denote the prediction.

Example: Suppose you're predicting what your utility from a slice of pie will be when you're full, but this prediction is potentially contaminated by the fact that you're currently hungry.

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(\text{pie}, \text{full})$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(\text{pie}, \text{hungry})$ .
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie}, \text{full}|\text{hungry})$  denotes your prediction.

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes

Suppose you're predicting tastes given future state  $s$ , but this prediction is potentially contaminated by your current state  $s'$ .

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(c, s)$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(c, s')$ .
- ▶ Let  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  denote the prediction.

Example: Suppose you're predicting what your utility from a slice of pie will be when you're full, but this prediction is potentially contaminated by the fact that you're currently hungry.

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(\text{pie}, \text{full})$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(\text{pie}, \text{hungry})$ .
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie}, \text{full}|\text{hungry})$  denotes your prediction.

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes

Suppose you're predicting tastes given future state  $s$ , but this prediction is potentially contaminated by your current state  $s'$ .

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(c, s)$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(c, s')$ .
- ▶ Let  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  denote the prediction.

Example: Suppose you're predicting what your utility from a slice of pie will be when you're full, but this prediction is potentially contaminated by the fact that you're currently hungry.

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(\text{pie}, \text{full})$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(\text{pie}, \text{hungry})$ .
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie}, \text{full}|\text{hungry})$  denotes your prediction.

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes

Suppose you're predicting tastes given future state  $s$ , but this prediction is potentially contaminated by your current state  $s'$ .

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(c, s)$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(c, s')$ .
- ▶ Let  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  denote the prediction.

Example: Suppose you're predicting what your utility from a slice of pie will be when you're full, but this prediction is potentially contaminated by the fact that you're currently hungry.

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(\text{pie}, \text{full})$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(\text{pie}, \text{hungry})$ .
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie}, \text{full}|\text{hungry})$  denotes your prediction.

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes

Suppose you're predicting tastes given future state  $s$ , but this prediction is potentially contaminated by your current state  $s'$ .

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(c, s)$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(c, s')$ .
- ▶ Let  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  denote the prediction.

Example: Suppose you're predicting what your utility from a slice of pie will be when you're full, but this prediction is potentially contaminated by the fact that you're currently hungry.

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(\text{pie}, \text{full})$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(\text{pie}, \text{hungry})$ .
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie}, \text{full}|\text{hungry})$  denotes your prediction.

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes

Suppose you're predicting tastes given future state  $s$ , but this prediction is potentially contaminated by your current state  $s'$ .

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(c, s)$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(c, s')$ .
- ▶ Let  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  denote the prediction.

Example: Suppose you're predicting what your utility from a slice of pie will be when you're full, but this prediction is potentially contaminated by the fact that you're currently hungry.

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(\text{pie}, \text{full})$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(\text{pie}, \text{hungry})$ .
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie}, \text{full}|\text{hungry})$  denotes your prediction.

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes

Suppose you're predicting tastes given future state  $s$ , but this prediction is potentially contaminated by your current state  $s'$ .

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(c, s)$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(c, s')$ .
- ▶ Let  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  denote the prediction.

Example: Suppose you're predicting what your utility from a slice of pie will be when you're full, but this prediction is potentially contaminated by the fact that you're currently hungry.

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(\text{pie}, \text{full})$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(\text{pie}, \text{hungry})$ .
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie}, \text{full}|\text{hungry})$  denotes your prediction.

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes

Suppose you're predicting tastes given future state  $s$ , but this prediction is potentially contaminated by your current state  $s'$ .

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(c, s)$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(c, s')$ .
- ▶ Let  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  denote the prediction.

Example: Suppose you're predicting what your utility from a slice of pie will be when you're full, but this prediction is potentially contaminated by the fact that you're currently hungry.

- ▶ True tastes will be  $u(\text{pie}, \text{full})$ .
- ▶ Current tastes are  $u(\text{pie}, \text{hungry})$ .
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie}, \text{full}|\text{hungry})$  denotes your prediction.



# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes (cont)

Standard model:  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = u(c, s)$ .

- ▶ The standard economic assumption is that people's predictions are accurate.

Two examples:

- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = u(\text{pie, full})$
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = u(\text{coat, warm})$

---

“Projection bias” means  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  in between  $u(c, s)$  &  $u(c, s')$ .

Two examples:

- ▶  $u(\text{pie, full}) < \tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) < u(\text{pie, hungry})$
- ▶  $u(\text{coat, warm}) < \tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) < u(\text{coat, cold})$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes (cont)

Standard model:  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = u(c, s)$ .

- ▶ The standard economic assumption is that people's predictions are accurate.

Two examples:

- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = u(\text{pie, full})$
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = u(\text{coat, warm})$

---

“Projection bias” means  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  in between  $u(c, s)$  &  $u(c, s')$ .

Two examples:

- ▶  $u(\text{pie, full}) < \tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) < u(\text{pie, hungry})$
- ▶  $u(\text{coat, warm}) < \tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) < u(\text{coat, cold})$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes (cont)

Standard model:  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = u(c, s)$ .

- ▶ The standard economic assumption is that people's predictions are accurate.

Two examples:

- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = u(\text{pie, full})$
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = u(\text{coat, warm})$

---

“Projection bias” means  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  in between  $u(c, s)$  &  $u(c, s')$ .

Two examples:

- ▶  $u(\text{pie, full}) < \tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) < u(\text{pie, hungry})$
- ▶  $u(\text{coat, warm}) < \tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) < u(\text{coat, cold})$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes (cont)

Standard model:  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = u(c, s)$ .

- ▶ The standard economic assumption is that people's predictions are accurate.

Two examples:

- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = u(\text{pie, full})$
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = u(\text{coat, warm})$

---

“Projection bias” means  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  in between  $u(c, s)$  &  $u(c, s')$ .

Two examples:

- ▶  $u(\text{pie, full}) < \tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) < u(\text{pie, hungry})$
- ▶  $u(\text{coat, warm}) < \tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) < u(\text{coat, cold})$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes (cont)

Standard model:  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = u(c, s)$ .

- ▶ The standard economic assumption is that people's predictions are accurate.

Two examples:

- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = u(\text{pie, full})$
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = u(\text{coat, warm})$

---

“Projection bias” means  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  in between  $u(c, s)$  &  $u(c, s')$ .

Two examples:

- ▶  $u(\text{pie, full}) < \tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) < u(\text{pie, hungry})$
- ▶  $u(\text{coat, warm}) < \tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) < u(\text{coat, cold})$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes (cont)

Standard model:  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = u(c, s)$ .

- ▶ The standard economic assumption is that people's predictions are accurate.

Two examples:

- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = u(\text{pie, full})$
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = u(\text{coat, warm})$

---

“Projection bias” means  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  in between  $u(c, s)$  &  $u(c, s')$ .

Two examples:

- ▶  $u(\text{pie, full}) < \tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) < u(\text{pie, hungry})$
- ▶  $u(\text{coat, warm}) < \tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) < u(\text{coat, cold})$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes (cont)

Standard model:  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = u(c, s)$ .

- ▶ The standard economic assumption is that people's predictions are accurate.

Two examples:

- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = u(\text{pie, full})$
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = u(\text{coat, warm})$

---

“Projection bias” means  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  in between  $u(c, s)$  &  $u(c, s')$ .

Two examples:

- ▶  $u(\text{pie, full}) < \tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) < u(\text{pie, hungry})$
- ▶  $u(\text{coat, warm}) < \tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) < u(\text{coat, cold})$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes (cont)

Standard model:  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = u(c, s)$ .

- ▶ The standard economic assumption is that people's predictions are accurate.

Two examples:

- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = u(\text{pie, full})$
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = u(\text{coat, warm})$

---

“Projection bias” means  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  in between  $u(c, s)$  &  $u(c, s')$ .

Two examples:

- ▶  $u(\text{pie, full}) < \tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) < u(\text{pie, hungry})$
- ▶  $u(\text{coat, warm}) < \tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) < u(\text{coat, cold})$



# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 2: Predictions of Future Tastes (cont)

Standard model:  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = u(c, s)$ .

- ▶ The standard economic assumption is that people's predictions are accurate.

Two examples:

- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = u(\text{pie, full})$
- ▶  $\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = u(\text{coat, warm})$

---

“Projection bias” means  $\tilde{u}(c, s|s')$  in between  $u(c, s)$  &  $u(c, s')$ .

Two examples:

- ▶  $u(\text{pie, full}) < \tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) < u(\text{pie, hungry})$
- ▶  $u(\text{coat, warm}) < \tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) < u(\text{coat, cold})$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 3: A Simple Formulation

A person has “simple projection bias” if

$$\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = (1 - \alpha) * u(c, s) + \alpha * u(c, s').$$

- ▶  $\alpha = 0 \iff$  No Projection Bias
- ▶  $\alpha \in (0, 1) \iff$  Projection Bias

Examples:

$$\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = (1 - \alpha) * u(\text{pie, full}) + \alpha * u(\text{pie, hungry})$$

$$\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = (1 - \alpha) * u(\text{coat, warm}) + \alpha * u(\text{coat, cold})$$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 3: A Simple Formulation

A person has “simple projection bias” if

$$\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = (1 - \alpha) * u(c, s) + \alpha * u(c, s').$$

►  $\alpha = 0 \iff$  No Projection Bias

►  $\alpha \in (0, 1) \iff$  Projection Bias

Examples:

$$\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = (1 - \alpha) * u(\text{pie, full}) + \alpha * u(\text{pie, hungry})$$

$$\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = (1 - \alpha) * u(\text{coat, warm}) + \alpha * u(\text{coat, cold})$$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 3: A Simple Formulation

A person has “simple projection bias” if

$$\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = (1 - \alpha) * u(c, s) + \alpha * u(c, s').$$

- ▶  $\alpha = 0 \iff$  No Projection Bias
- ▶  $\alpha \in (0, 1) \iff$  Projection Bias

Examples:

$$\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = (1 - \alpha) * u(\text{pie, full}) + \alpha * u(\text{pie, hungry})$$

$$\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = (1 - \alpha) * u(\text{coat, warm}) + \alpha * u(\text{coat, cold})$$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 3: A Simple Formulation

A person has “simple projection bias” if

$$\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = (1 - \alpha) * u(c, s) + \alpha * u(c, s').$$

- ▶  $\alpha = 0 \iff$  No Projection Bias
- ▶  $\alpha \in (0, 1) \iff$  Projection Bias

Examples:

$$\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = (1 - \alpha) * u(\text{pie, full}) + \alpha * u(\text{pie, hungry})$$

$$\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = (1 - \alpha) * u(\text{coat, warm}) + \alpha * u(\text{coat, cold})$$

# A Model of Projection Bias

## Step 3: A Simple Formulation

A person has “simple projection bias” if

$$\tilde{u}(c, s|s') = (1 - \alpha) * u(c, s) + \alpha * u(c, s').$$

- ▶  $\alpha = 0 \iff$  No Projection Bias
- ▶  $\alpha \in (0, 1) \iff$  Projection Bias

Examples:

$$\tilde{u}(\text{pie, full}|\text{hungry}) = (1 - \alpha) * u(\text{pie, full}) + \alpha * u(\text{pie, hungry})$$

$$\tilde{u}(\text{coat, warm}|\text{cold}) = (1 - \alpha) * u(\text{coat, warm}) + \alpha * u(\text{coat, cold})$$

# A Model of Projection Bias

Two other issues:

- ▶ The person is not aware of the bias (otherwise she could just correct for it).
- ▶ Except for these mispredictions, the person's intertemporal preferences are as in discounted utility model (for ease, think  $\delta^x$ .)

# A Model of Projection Bias

Two other issues:

- ▶ The person is not aware of the bias (otherwise she could just correct for it).
- ▶ Except for these mispredictions, the person's intertemporal preferences are as in discounted utility model (for ease, think  $\delta^x$ .)



# Evidence of Projection Bias

A first type of evidence: underappreciation of the endowment effect.

Loewenstein & Adler (*EJ* 1995)

Subjects: 27 CMU undergrads & 39 Pittsburgh MBA's.

Procedure:

- ▶ All subjects shown a mug, told they'll get one and have the opportunity to sell it for money.
- ▶ Half of the subjects predict how much they'd sell it for.
- ▶ After a delay, all subjects are given a mug and an opportunity to sell

# Evidence of Projection Bias

A first type of evidence: underappreciation of the endowment effect.

Loewenstein & Adler (*EJ* 1995)

Subjects: 27 CMU undergrads & 39 Pittsburgh MBA's.

Procedure:

- ▶ All subjects shown a mug, told they'll get one and have the opportunity to sell it for money.
- ▶ Half of the subjects predict how much they'd sell it for.
- ▶ After a delay, all subjects are given a mug and an opportunity to sell

# Evidence of Projection Bias

A first type of evidence: underappreciation of the endowment effect.

Loewenstein & Adler (*EJ* 1995)

Subjects: 27 CMU undergrads & 39 Pittsburgh MBA's.

Procedure:

- ▶ All subjects shown a mug, told they'll get one and have the opportunity to sell it for money.
- ▶ Half of the subjects predict how much they'd sell it for.
- ▶ After a delay, all subjects are given a mug and an opportunity to sell

# Evidence of Projection Bias

A first type of evidence: underappreciation of the endowment effect.

Loewenstein & Adler (*EJ* 1995)

Subjects: 27 CMU undergrads & 39 Pittsburgh MBA's.

Procedure:

- ▶ All subjects shown a mug, told they'll get one and have the opportunity to sell it for money.
- ▶ Half of the subjects predict how much they'd sell it for.
- ▶ After a delay, all subjects are given a mug and an opportunity to sell

# Evidence of Projection Bias

A first type of evidence: underappreciation of the endowment effect.

Loewenstein & Adler (*EJ* 1995)

Subjects: 27 CMU undergrads & 39 Pittsburgh MBA's.

Procedure:

- ▶ All subjects shown a mug, told they'll get one and have the opportunity to sell it for money.
- ▶ Half of the subjects predict how much they'd sell it for.
- ▶ After a delay, all subjects are given a mug and an opportunity to sell

# Evidence of Projection Bias

Loewenstein & Adler (*EJ* 1995)

Results:

		<u>Prediction</u>	<u>Actual</u>
CMU:	Prediction	\$3.73	\$5.40
	Control	—	\$6.46
Pittsburgh:	Prediction	\$3.27	\$4.56
	Control	—	\$4.98

# Evidence of Projection Bias

Loewenstein & Adler (*EJ* 1995)

Results:

		<u>Prediction</u>	<u>Actual</u>
CMU:	Prediction	\$3.73	\$5.40
	Control	—	\$6.46
Pittsburgh:	Prediction	\$3.27	\$4.56
	Control	—	\$4.98

# Evidence of Projection Bias

Loewenstein & Adler (*EJ* 1995)

Results:

		<u>Prediction</u>	<u>Actual</u>
CMU:	Prediction	\$3.73	\$5.40
	Control	—	\$6.46
Pittsburgh:	Prediction	\$3.27	\$4.56
	Control	—	\$4.98



# Evidence of Projection Bias

VanBoven, Dunning, & Loewenstein (*JPSP* 2000)

**Study 2:** Subjects were 43 Cornell undergraduates.

19 subjects randomly chosen to be “sellers”.

24 subjects randomly chosen to be “buyers”.

Each seller given a coffee mug.

Each buyer shown a coffee mug.

Two tasks:

- ▶ Elicit people's reservation prices.
- ▶ Ask buyers to predict average reservation price of sellers, and ask sellers to predict average reservation price of buyers.

# Evidence of Projection Bias

VanBoven, Dunning, & Loewenstein (*JPSP* 2000)

**Study 2:** Subjects were 43 Cornell undergraduates.

19 subjects randomly chosen to be “sellers”.

24 subjects randomly chosen to be “buyers”.

Each seller given a coffee mug.

Each buyer shown a coffee mug.

Two tasks:

- ▶ Elicit people's reservation prices.
- ▶ Ask buyers to predict average reservation price of sellers, and ask sellers to predict average reservation price of buyers.

# Evidence of Projection Bias

VanBoven, Dunning, & Loewenstein (*JPSP* 2000)

**Study 2:** Subjects were 43 Cornell undergraduates.

19 subjects randomly chosen to be “sellers”.

24 subjects randomly chosen to be “buyers”.

Each seller given a coffee mug.

Each buyer shown a coffee mug.

Two tasks:

- ▶ Elicit people's reservation prices.
- ▶ Ask buyers to predict average reservation price of sellers, and ask sellers to predict average reservation price of buyers.

# Evidence of Projection Bias

VanBoven, Dunning, & Loewenstein (*JPSP* 2000)

**Study 2:** Subjects were 43 Cornell undergraduates.

19 subjects randomly chosen to be “sellers”.

24 subjects randomly chosen to be “buyers”.

Each seller given a coffee mug.

Each buyer shown a coffee mug.

Two tasks:

- ▶ Elicit people's reservation prices.
- ▶ Ask buyers to predict average reservation price of sellers, and ask sellers to predict average reservation price of buyers.

# Evidence of Projection Bias

VanBoven, Dunning, & Loewenstein (*JPSP* 2000)

**Study 2:** Subjects were 43 Cornell undergraduates.

19 subjects randomly chosen to be “sellers”.

24 subjects randomly chosen to be “buyers”.

Each seller given a coffee mug.

Each buyer shown a coffee mug.

Two tasks:

- ▶ Elicit people's reservation prices.
- ▶ Ask buyers to predict average reservation price of sellers, and ask sellers to predict average reservation price of buyers.

# Evidence of Projection Bias

VanBoven, Dunning, & Loewenstein (*JPSP* 2000)

**Study 2:** Subjects were 43 Cornell undergraduates.

19 subjects randomly chosen to be “sellers”.

24 subjects randomly chosen to be “buyers”.

Each seller given a coffee mug.

Each buyer shown a coffee mug.

Two tasks:

- ▶ Elicit people's reservation prices.
- ▶ Ask buyers to predict average reservation price of sellers, and ask sellers to predict average reservation price of buyers.

# Evidence of Projection Bias

VanBoven, Dunning, & Loewenstein (*JPSP* 2000)

Results:

	<u>Reservation Price</u>	<u>Prediction for Other Group</u>
Sellers:	\$6.37	\$3.93
Buyers:	\$1.85	\$4.39

# Evidence of Projection Bias

VanBoven, Dunning, & Loewenstein (*JPSP* 2000)

Results:

	<u>Reservation Price</u>	<u>Prediction for Other Group</u>
Sellers:	\$6.37	\$3.93
Buyers:	\$1.85	\$4.39



# Evidence of Projection Bias

VanBoven, Dunning, & Loewenstein (*JPSP* 2000)

Results:

	<u>Reservation Price</u>	<u>Prediction for Other Group</u>
Sellers:	\$6.37	\$3.93
Buyers:	\$1.85	\$4.39

# Evidence of Projection Bias

A second type of evidence: underappreciation of the effects of hunger.

Read & van Leeuwen (*OBHDP* 1998)

Subjects were 200 employees at several firms in Amsterdam.

Procedure:

- ▶ Each subject asked to choose between a healthy vs. unhealthy snack to be received in one week.
- ▶ They varied subjects' expected future hunger and their current hunger.

# Evidence of Projection Bias

A second type of evidence: underappreciation of the effects of hunger.

Read & van Leeuwen (*OBHDP* 1998)

Subjects were 200 employees at several firms in Amsterdam.

Procedure:

- ▶ Each subject asked to choose between a healthy vs. unhealthy snack to be received in one week.
- ▶ They varied subjects' expected future hunger and their current hunger.

# Evidence of Projection Bias

A second type of evidence: underappreciation of the effects of hunger.

Read & van Leeuwen (*OBHDP* 1998)

Subjects were 200 employees at several firms in Amsterdam.

Procedure:

- ▶ Each subject asked to choose between a healthy vs. unhealthy snack to be received in one week.
- ▶ They varied subjects' expected future hunger and their current hunger.

# Evidence of Projection Bias

A second type of evidence: underappreciation of the effects of hunger.

Read & van Leeuwen (*OBHDP* 1998)

Subjects were 200 employees at several firms in Amsterdam.

Procedure:

- ▶ Each subject asked to choose between a healthy vs. unhealthy snack to be received in one week.
- ▶ They varied subjects' expected future hunger and their current hunger.

# Evidence of Projection Bias

A second type of evidence: underappreciation of the effects of hunger.

Read & van Leeuwen (*OBHDP* 1998)

Subjects were 200 employees at several firms in Amsterdam.

Procedure:

- ▶ Each subject asked to choose between a healthy vs. unhealthy snack to be received in one week.
- ▶ They varied subjects' expected future hunger and their current hunger.

# Evidence of Projection Bias

Read & van Leeuwen (*OBHDP* 1998)

Results: % of Subjects Choosing Unhealthy Snack

		Future Hunger	
		Hungry	Satiated
Current Hunger	Hungry	78%	42%
	Satiated	56%	26%

# Evidence of Projection Bias

Read & van Leeuwen (*OBHDP* 1998)

Results: % of Subjects Choosing Unhealthy Snack

		Future Hunger	
		Hungry	Satiated
Current Hunger	Hungry	78%	42%
	Satiated	56%	26%



# Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

Let's use the model of the endowment effect that we used earlier this semester (based on loss aversion).

$$\triangleright (\text{Total Utility}) = (\text{Mug Utility}) + (\text{Money Utility})$$

$$\triangleright (\text{Total Utility}) = u(c, r) + m$$

Mug utility is  $u(c, r) = w(c) + v(c - r)$ , where

$$w(c) = \mu * c \quad \text{and} \quad v(x) = \begin{cases} \phi x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ \lambda \phi x & \text{if } x \leq 0. \end{cases}$$

# Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

Let's use the model of the endowment effect that we used earlier this semester (based on loss aversion).

► (Total Utility) = (Mug Utility) + (Money Utility)

► (Total Utility) =  $u(c, r)$  +  $m$

Mug utility is  $u(c, r) = w(c) + v(c - r)$ , where

$$w(c) = \mu * c \quad \text{and} \quad v(x) = \begin{cases} \phi x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ \lambda \phi x & \text{if } x \leq 0. \end{cases}$$

# Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

Let's use the model of the endowment effect that we used earlier this semester (based on loss aversion).

- ▶ (Total Utility) = (Mug Utility) + (Money Utility)
- ▶ (Total Utility) =  $u(c, r)$  +  $m$

Mug utility is  $u(c, r) = w(c) + v(c - r)$ , where

$$w(c) = \mu * c \quad \text{and} \quad v(x) = \begin{cases} \phi x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ \lambda \phi x & \text{if } x \leq 0. \end{cases}$$

# Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

Let's use the model of the endowment effect that we used earlier this semester (based on loss aversion).

- ▶ (Total Utility) = (Mug Utility) + (Money Utility)
- ▶ (Total Utility) =  $u(c, r)$  +  $m$

Mug utility is  $u(c, r) = w(c) + v(c - r)$ , where

$$w(c) = \mu * c \quad \text{and} \quad v(x) = \begin{cases} \phi x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ \lambda \phi x & \text{if } x \leq 0. \end{cases}$$

# Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

Suppose buy/sell the mug in period 1, and (possibly) consume the mug in periods 1 & 2.

Consumption is:

- ▶  $c_1 = c_2 = 1$  if buy or keep.
- ▶  $c_1 = c_2 = 0$  if don't buy or sell.

Initial reference point is exogenous:

- ▶  $r_1 = 0 \iff$  unendowed (buyers).
- ▶  $r_1 = 1 \iff$  endowed (sellers).

Assume  $r_2 = c_1$

# Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

Suppose buy/sell the mug in period 1, and (possibly) consume the mug in periods 1 & 2.

Consumption is:

- ▶  $c_1 = c_2 = 1$  if buy or keep.
- ▶  $c_1 = c_2 = 0$  if don't buy or sell.

Initial reference point is exogenous:

- ▶  $r_1 = 0 \iff$  unendowed (buyers).
- ▶  $r_1 = 1 \iff$  endowed (sellers).

Assume  $r_2 = c_1$

# Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

Suppose buy/sell the mug in period 1, and (possibly) consume the mug in periods 1 & 2.

Consumption is:

- ▶  $c_1 = c_2 = 1$  if buy or keep.
- ▶  $c_1 = c_2 = 0$  if don't buy or sell.

Initial reference point is exogenous:

- ▶  $r_1 = 0 \iff$  unendowed (buyers).
- ▶  $r_1 = 1 \iff$  endowed (sellers).

Assume  $r_2 = c_1$

# Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

Suppose buy/sell the mug in period 1, and (possibly) consume the mug in periods 1 & 2.

Consumption is:

- ▶  $c_1 = c_2 = 1$  if buy or keep.
- ▶  $c_1 = c_2 = 0$  if don't buy or sell.

Initial reference point is exogenous:

- ▶  $r_1 = 0 \iff$  unendowed (buyers).
- ▶  $r_1 = 1 \iff$  endowed (sellers).

Assume  $r_2 = c_1$



# Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

Suppose buy/sell the mug in period 1, and (possibly) consume the mug in periods 1 & 2.

Consumption is:

- ▶  $c_1 = c_2 = 1$  if buy or keep.
- ▶  $c_1 = c_2 = 0$  if don't buy or sell.

Initial reference point is exogenous:

- ▶  $r_1 = 0 \iff$  unendowed (buyers).
- ▶  $r_1 = 1 \iff$  endowed (sellers).

Assume  $r_2 = c_1$

# Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

One can show:

- ▶ Sellers should sell iff  $P \geq P_S^* \equiv$
- ▶ Sellers actually sell iff  $P \geq P_S^A \equiv$
- ▶ Buyers should buy iff  $P \leq P_B^* \equiv$
- ▶ Buyers actually buy iff  $P \leq P_B^A \equiv$

# Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

## Some Results:

(1)  $p_S^A > p_S^*$  &  $p_B^A > p_B^*$ .

- People are over-prone to consume goods to which they become accustomed because they underappreciate how they'll adapt — and more generally can lead to incorrect intertemporal utility maximization.

(2)  $p_S^A - p_B^A > p_S^* - p_B^*$ .

- Projection bias magnifies the endowment effect — and more generally can magnify features of true tastes.

# Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

## Some Results:

$$(1) p_S^A > p_S^* \text{ \& } p_B^A > p_B^*.$$

- People are over-prone to consume goods to which they become accustomed because they underappreciate how they'll adapt — and more generally can lead to incorrect intertemporal utility maximization.

$$(2) p_S^A - p_B^A > p_S^* - p_B^*.$$

- Projection bias magnifies the endowment effect — and more generally can magnify features of true tastes.

## Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

(3)  $\hat{p}_S^A < p_S^A$  &  $\hat{p}_B^A > p_B^A$ , where

$\hat{p}_S^A \equiv$  unendowed person's predicted selling price

$\hat{p}_B^A \equiv$  endowed person's predicted buying price

- Consistent with the evidence on underappreciation of the endowment effect — and more generally can lead people to make plans that they don't carry out.

# Application: Projection Bias & The Endowment Effect

(3)  $\hat{p}_S^A < p_S^A$  &  $\hat{p}_B^A > p_B^A$ , where

$\hat{p}_S^A \equiv$  unendowed person's predicted selling price

$\hat{p}_B^A \equiv$  endowed person's predicted buying price

- Consistent with the evidence on underappreciation of the endowment effect — and more generally can lead people to make plans that they don't carry out.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

(Discussion courtesy of O'Donoghue)

Underlying environment:

- ▶ A durable good — e.g., a winter coat — yields a utility stream

$$\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_T.$$

- ▶ These  $\mu$ 's typically vary from day to day in a somewhat random way — for simplicity, let's assume that for all days the expected value of  $\mu_t$  is  $\bar{\mu}$ .

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

(Discussion courtesy of O'Donoghue)

Underlying environment:

- ▶ A durable good — e.g., a winter coat — yields a utility stream

$$\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_T.$$

- ▶ These  $\mu$ 's typically vary from day to day in a somewhat random way — for simplicity, let's assume that for all days the expected value of  $\mu_t$  is  $\bar{\mu}$ .



# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

(Discussion courtesy of O'Donoghue)

Underlying environment:

- ▶ A durable good — e.g., a winter coat — yields a utility stream

$$\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_T.$$

- ▶ These  $\mu$ 's typically vary from day to day in a somewhat random way — for simplicity, let's assume that for all days the expected value of  $\mu_t$  is  $\bar{\mu}$ .

## Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

On Day 1, when a person knows  $\mu_1$  but not the future  $\mu_t$ 's, how much is the person willing to pay for this durable good (assuming no discounting)?

- Optimal:

$$WTP = \mu_1 + (T - 1)\bar{\mu}$$

- With Projection bias:

$$\begin{aligned} WTP &= \mu_1 + (T - 1)[(1 - \alpha)\bar{\mu} + \alpha\mu_1] \\ &= \mu_1 + (T - 1)[\bar{\mu} + \alpha(\mu_1 - \bar{\mu})] \end{aligned}$$

Hence: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.  
If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

## Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

On Day 1, when a person knows  $\mu_1$  but not the future  $\mu_t$ 's, how much is the person willing to pay for this durable good (assuming no discounting)?

- Optimal:

$$WTP = \mu_1 + (T - 1)\bar{\mu}$$

- With Projection bias:

$$\begin{aligned} WTP &= \mu_1 + (T - 1)[(1 - \alpha)\bar{\mu} + \alpha\mu_1] \\ &= \mu_1 + (T - 1)[\bar{\mu} + \alpha(\mu_1 - \bar{\mu})] \end{aligned}$$

Hence: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.  
If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

## Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

On Day 1, when a person knows  $\mu_1$  but not the future  $\mu_t$ 's, how much is the person willing to pay for this durable good (assuming no discounting)?

- Optimal:

$$WTP = \mu_1 + (T - 1)\bar{\mu}$$

- With Projection bias:

$$WTP = \mu_1 + (T - 1)[(1 - \alpha)\bar{\mu} + \alpha\mu_1]$$

$$= \mu_1 + (T - 1)[\bar{\mu} + \alpha(\mu_1 - \bar{\mu})]$$

Hence: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.

If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

## Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

On Day 1, when a person knows  $\mu_1$  but not the future  $\mu_t$ 's, how much is the person willing to pay for this durable good (assuming no discounting)?

- Optimal:

$$WTP = \mu_1 + (T - 1)\bar{\mu}$$

- With Projection bias:

$$WTP = \mu_1 + (T - 1)[(1 - \alpha)\bar{\mu} + \alpha\mu_1]$$

$$= \mu_1 + (T - 1)[\bar{\mu} + \alpha(\mu_1 - \bar{\mu})]$$

Hence: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.

If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

## Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

On Day 1, when a person knows  $\mu_1$  but not the future  $\mu_t$ 's, how much is the person willing to pay for this durable good (assuming no discounting)?

- Optimal:

$$WTP = \mu_1 + (T - 1)\bar{\mu}$$

- With Projection bias:

$$WTP = \mu_1 + (T - 1)[(1 - \alpha)\bar{\mu} + \alpha\mu_1]$$

$$= \mu_1 + (T - 1)[\bar{\mu} + \alpha(\mu_1 - \bar{\mu})]$$

Hence: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.

If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Recall: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.  
If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

One extension: Suppose that you have multiple opportunities to buy the durable good (and suppose that there are limits on your ability to return the good).

Case 1: Suppose  $P < T\bar{\mu}$ , so you SHOULD buy the good.

- ▶ You end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
 $\implies$  Under-buying is very unlikely.

Case 2: Suppose  $P > T\bar{\mu}$ , so you should NOT buy the good.

- ▶ Again, you end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
 $\implies$  Over-buying is very LIKELY.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Recall: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.  
If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

One extension: Suppose that you have multiple opportunities to buy the durable good (and suppose that there are limits on your ability to return the good).

Case 1: Suppose  $P < T\bar{\mu}$ , so you SHOULD buy the good.

- ▶ You end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
 $\implies$  Under-buying is very unlikely.

Case 2: Suppose  $P > T\bar{\mu}$ , so you should NOT buy the good.

- ▶ Again, you end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
 $\implies$  Over-buying is very LIKELY.



# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Recall: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.  
If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

One extension: Suppose that you have multiple opportunities to buy the durable good (and suppose that there are limits on your ability to return the good).

Case 1: Suppose  $P < T\bar{\mu}$ , so you SHOULD buy the good.

- ▶ You end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
 $\implies$  Under-buying is very unlikely.

Case 2: Suppose  $P > T\bar{\mu}$ , so you should NOT buy the good.

- ▶ Again, you end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
 $\implies$  Over-buying is very LIKELY.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Recall: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.  
If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

One extension: Suppose that you have multiple opportunities to buy the durable good (and suppose that there are limits on your ability to return the good).

Case 1: Suppose  $P < T\bar{\mu}$ , so you SHOULD buy the good.

- You end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
⇒ Under-buying is very unlikely.

Case 2: Suppose  $P > T\bar{\mu}$ , so you should NOT buy the good.

- Again, you end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
⇒ Over-buying is very LIKELY.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Recall: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.  
If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

One extension: Suppose that you have multiple opportunities to buy the durable good (and suppose that there are limits on your ability to return the good).

Case 1: Suppose  $P < T\bar{\mu}$ , so you SHOULD buy the good.

- ▶ You end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
⇒ Under-buying is very unlikely.

Case 2: Suppose  $P > T\bar{\mu}$ , so you should NOT buy the good.

- ▶ Again, you end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
⇒ Over-buying is very LIKELY.

## Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Recall: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.  
If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

One extension: Suppose that you have multiple opportunities to buy the durable good (and suppose that there are limits on your ability to return the good).

Case 1: Suppose  $P < T\bar{\mu}$ , so you SHOULD buy the good.

- ▶ You end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
⇒ Under-buying is very unlikely.

Case 2: Suppose  $P > T\bar{\mu}$ , so you should NOT buy the good.

- ▶ Again, you end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
⇒ Over-buying is very LIKELY.

## Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Recall: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.  
If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

One extension: Suppose that you have multiple opportunities to buy the durable good (and suppose that there are limits on your ability to return the good).

Case 1: Suppose  $P < T\bar{\mu}$ , so you SHOULD buy the good.

- You end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
⇒ Under-buying is very unlikely.

Case 2: Suppose  $P > T\bar{\mu}$ , so you should NOT buy the good.

- Again, you end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
⇒ Over-buying is very **LIKELY**.

## Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Recall: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.

If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

One extension: Suppose that you have multiple opportunities to buy the durable good (and suppose that there are limits on your ability to return the good).

Case 1: Suppose  $P < T\bar{\mu}$ , so you SHOULD buy the good.

- ▶ You end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
 $\implies$  Under-buying is very unlikely.

Case 2: Suppose  $P > T\bar{\mu}$ , so you should NOT buy the good.

- ▶ Again, you end up buying it as long as  $\mu_t \geq \bar{\mu}$  on at least one occasion, which is quite likely.  
 $\implies$  Over-buying is very LIKELY.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Recall: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.  
If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

Second extension: Suppose returns are easy — perhaps we can use returns to test for projection bias in field data.

- ▶ If  $\mu_t$  is large, more “over-buying”, thus many returns.
- ▶ If  $\mu_t$  is small, more “under-buying”, thus few returns.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Recall: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.  
If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

Second extension: Suppose returns are easy — perhaps we can use returns to test for projection bias in field data.

- ▶ If  $\mu_t$  is large, more “over-buying”, thus many returns.
- ▶ If  $\mu_t$  is small, more “under-buying”, thus few returns.



# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Recall: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.  
If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

Second extension: Suppose returns are easy — perhaps we can use returns to test for projection bias in field data.

- ▶ If  $\mu_t$  is large, more “over-buying”, thus many returns.
- ▶ If  $\mu_t$  is small, more “under-buying”, thus few returns.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Recall: If  $\mu_1 > \bar{\mu}$  then overprone to buy.  
If  $\mu_1 < \bar{\mu}$  then underprone to buy.

Second extension: Suppose returns are easy — perhaps we can use returns to test for projection bias in field data.

- ▶ If  $\mu_t$  is large, more “over-buying”, thus many returns.
- ▶ If  $\mu_t$  is small, more “under-buying”, thus few returns.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Conlin, O'Donoghue & Vogelsang (AER 2007)

Look at catalog orders — very easy to return!

Prediction: More returns for orders made on high-valuation days than for orders made on low-valuation days.

Big question: How can we assess whether a person orders on a high-valuation day vs. a low-valuation day?

Our answer: look at orders of winter-clothing items as a function of the weather.

- ▶ If order on a cold day, it's likely a high-valuation day.
- ▶ If order on a warm day, it's likely a low-valuation day.

Authors conduct precisely this test, and indeed find that the colder the temperature on the day a person orders a winter-clothing item, the more likely the person is to return that item.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Conlin, O'Donoghue & Vogelsang (*AER* 2007)

Look at catalog orders — very easy to return!

Prediction: More returns for orders made on high-valuation days than for orders made on low-valuation days.

Big question: How can we assess whether a person orders on a high-valuation day vs. a low-valuation day?

Our answer: look at orders of winter-clothing items as a function of the weather.

- ▶ If order on a cold day, it's likely a high-valuation day.
- ▶ If order on a warm day, it's likely a low-valuation day.

Authors conduct precisely this test, and indeed find that the colder the temperature on the day a person orders a winter-clothing item, the more likely the person is to return that item.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Conlin, O'Donoghue & Vogelsang (*AER* 2007)

Look at catalog orders — very easy to return!

Prediction: More returns for orders made on high-valuation days than for orders made on low-valuation days.

Big question: How can we assess whether a person orders on a high-valuation day vs. a low-valuation day?

Our answer: look at orders of winter-clothing items as a function of the weather.

- ▶ If order on a cold day, it's likely a high-valuation day.
- ▶ If order on a warm day, it's likely a low-valuation day.

Authors conduct precisely this test, and indeed find that the colder the temperature on the day a person orders a winter-clothing item, the more likely the person is to return that item.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Conlin, O'Donoghue & Vogelsang (*AER* 2007)

Look at catalog orders — very easy to return!

Prediction: More returns for orders made on high-valuation days than for orders made on low-valuation days.

Big question: How can we assess whether a person orders on a high-valuation day vs. a low-valuation day?

Our answer: look at orders of winter-clothing items as a function of the weather.

- ▶ If order on a cold day, it's likely a high-valuation day.
- ▶ If order on a warm day, it's likely a low-valuation day.

Authors conduct precisely this test, and indeed find that the colder the temperature on the day a person orders a winter-clothing item, the more likely the person is to return that item.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Conlin, O'Donoghue & Vogelsang (*AER* 2007)

Look at catalog orders — very easy to return!

Prediction: More returns for orders made on high-valuation days than for orders made on low-valuation days.

Big question: How can we assess whether a person orders on a high-valuation day vs. a low-valuation day?

Our answer: look at orders of winter-clothing items as a function of the weather.

- ▶ If order on a cold day, it's likely a high-valuation day.
- ▶ If order on a warm day, it's likely a low-valuation day.

Authors conduct precisely this test, and indeed find that the colder the temperature on the day a person orders a winter-clothing item, the more likely the person is to return that item.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Conlin, O'Donoghue & Vogelsang (*AER* 2007)

Look at catalog orders — very easy to return!

Prediction: More returns for orders made on high-valuation days than for orders made on low-valuation days.

Big question: How can we assess whether a person orders on a high-valuation day vs. a low-valuation day?

Our answer: look at orders of winter-clothing items as a function of the weather.

- ▶ If order on a cold day, it's likely a high-valuation day.
- ▶ If order on a warm day, it's likely a low-valuation day.

Authors conduct precisely this test, and indeed find that the colder the temperature on the day a person orders a winter-clothing item, the more likely the person is to return that item.



# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Conlin, O'Donoghue & Vogelsang (*AER* 2007)

Look at catalog orders — very easy to return!

Prediction: More returns for orders made on high-valuation days than for orders made on low-valuation days.

Big question: How can we assess whether a person orders on a high-valuation day vs. a low-valuation day?

Our answer: look at orders of winter-clothing items as a function of the weather.

- ▶ If order on a cold day, it's likely a high-valuation day.
- ▶ If order on a warm day, it's likely a low-valuation day.

Authors conduct precisely this test, and indeed find that the colder the temperature on the day a person orders a winter-clothing item, the more likely the person is to return that item.

# Application: Projection Bias and Durable Goods

Conlin, O'Donoghue & Vogelsang (*AER* 2007)

Look at catalog orders — very easy to return!

Prediction: More returns for orders made on high-valuation days than for orders made on low-valuation days.

Big question: How can we assess whether a person orders on a high-valuation day vs. a low-valuation day?

Our answer: look at orders of winter-clothing items as a function of the weather.

- ▶ If order on a cold day, it's likely a high-valuation day.
- ▶ If order on a warm day, it's likely a low-valuation day.

Authors conduct precisely this test, and indeed find that the colder the temperature on the day a person orders a winter-clothing item, the more likely the person is to return that item.