

# 14.03/14.003 Recitation 10

## Final Review

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# Agenda

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- Externalities
- Expected Utility and Insurance
- Signaling Games

# Externalities: Basic Concepts

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- Individual actions create an effect to agents that *external* to the decision;
- *Positive* if the effect increases others' utility, *negative* otherwise;
- Policy criterion: we use additive welfare, sum of all agents' utilities;
- Policy issue: if agents decide *in isolation*, the supply of the good in question is sub-optimal:
  - ◇ Negative externality: excess supply. Example: pollution; an individual firm might pollute so much that the individual gains in terms of profits are outweighed by *collective losses*;
  - ◇ Positive externality: insufficient supply. Example: R&D; an individual firms' research can benefit other firms. *Collective benefits* are larger than private in isolation.
- Remedies:
  - ◇ Coase theorem: define property rights, but need *costless bargaining*;
  - ◇ Impose quotas: always feasible, but need a lot of info;
  - ◇ Pigouvian taxation: tax negative ext. goods, subsidize positive ext. goods.

# Pollution example (negative externality)

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A firm produces  $x$  polluting goods, maximizing profits:

$$\Pi(x) = x - b \cdot x^2 \Rightarrow x^* = \frac{1}{2b}$$

However, for the community there is the following loss from pollution:

$$C(x) = -c \cdot x^2.$$

Social (utilitarian/additive) welfare, maximized by social planner:

$$W(x) = \Pi(x) + C(x) = x - b \cdot x^2 - c \cdot x^2 \Rightarrow x^{\text{pl}} = \frac{1}{2(b+c)}.$$

There is over-supply of polluting goods since  $x^{\text{pl}} < x^*$ .

# Solving Externalities

The aim is to make the firm *internalize* the negative effects. Three ways to go about it:

- ① Coase theorem: give property rights to the community, firm has to pay  $p^x$  to the community in order to produce each unit of  $x$ . If actually no bargaining (one consumer) community sets:

$$U(x) = C(x) + p^x x = 0 \rightarrow p^x = cx.$$

- ② Impose a cap: the planner directly sets cap  $\bar{x} = x^{\text{pl}}$ ;
- ③ Pigouvian tax: impose a tax  $\tau^x$  per unit of  $x$  such that  $\Pi(x) - \tau^x \cdot x = W(x)$ . Solution:  $\tau^x = cx$  (like in Coase case).

General Steps:

- Set up individual problem (like  $\Pi(x)$  in example) and optimal quantities  $x^*$ ;
- Set up the planner problem. Write down *social welfare*,  $W(x)$  as sum of individual utilities of *entire society*, solve for quantity that maximizes *social welfare*. This is the planner's solution  $x^{\text{pl}}$ ;
- Find *policy instrument* to make  $x^* = x^{\text{pl}}$ . With this instrument, the individual function of whoever is choosing  $x$  must coincide with social welfare  $W(x)$ .

# Expected Utility: Basic Concepts

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- Agents now evaluate different risky scenarios, choosing *lotteries* instead of goods;
- Recall: lotteries  $L$  are a set of *probabilities* with associated payoffs, e.g.:

$$L = \begin{cases} x_1 & \text{w.p. } p_1 \\ x_2 & \text{w.p. } p_2 \end{cases}.$$

- VnM theorem tells us that—subject to assumptions—agents evaluate lotteries using the *expected utility of outcome  $x$* :

$$U(L) = \sum_{j=1}^n p_j u(x_j) \equiv E[u(x)].$$

# Insurance

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Define the *expected outcome* as the expectation of  $x$  (average  $x$  that agent gets):

$$E(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n p_j x_j.$$

This yields utility  $u(E(x))$ . We can then define the *certainty equivalent* corresponding to the lottery, as  $CE(L)$  such that:

$$u(CE(L)) = E[u(x)].$$

This gives how much the agent is *willing to pay* in order to avoid risk and be indifferent to the situation with risk. Three cases with associated convexities (comes from Jensen's inequality):

- $CE(L) > E[x]$ : risk-averse IFF  $E[u(x)] < u(E[x])$  IFF  $u(x)$  is concave;
- $CE(L) = E[x]$ : risk-neutral IFF  $E[u(x)] = u(E[x])$  IFF  $u(x)$  is linear;
- $CE(L) < E[x]$ : risk-loving IFF  $E[u(x)] > u(E[x])$  IFF  $u(x)$  is convex.

Risk-averse individuals will want to *pay* (reduce their expected wealth) to avoid risk, generating *demand for insurance*.

# How much insurance?

General form: agents pay a premium  $p$  per unit of money received in a certain state and a fixed fee  $F$  to buy into insurance. Both are paid *regardless of the state that occurs*.

Suppose there are two states, good, and bad (where insurance pays). Utility without insurance (w.p of good event  $\pi^G$ ):

$$E(u(x)) = \pi^G u(x^G) + (1 - \pi^G) u(x^B).$$

Utility with insurance  $I$ :

$$E(u(x)) = \max_{I \geq 0} \pi^G u[x^G - p \cdot I - F \cdot \mathbf{1}(I > 0)] + (1 - \pi^G) u[x^B - p \cdot I + I - F \cdot \mathbf{1}(I > 0)].$$

Split into two parts:

- ① Assuming I take positive insurance and pay  $F$ , what  $I$  would I set? Maximize expected utility in  $I$  and find solution  $I^*$ .
- ② If I found the  $I^* > 0$ , is the expected utility with insurance and fee  $F$  at least as large as the utility without? If yes, I will purchase insurance  $I^* > 0$ , otherwise no insurance.



# Example

$$x = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{w.p. } \pi \\ 2 & \text{w.p. } (1 - \pi) \end{cases}.$$

Insurance available at cost  $p$  per unit insured and fee  $F$ , utility is  $u(x) = \sqrt{x}$ . Suppose I buy  $I^* > 0$

$$E[u(x)] = \max_{I > 0} \pi \sqrt{(1 + (1 - p)I - F)} + (1 - \pi) \sqrt{(2 - pI - F)}.$$

Suppose insurance is *actuarially fair*, that is insurance company does not make profits in expectation:

$$\pi(1 - p) = (1 - \pi)p \Rightarrow \frac{p}{1 - p} = \frac{\pi}{1 - \pi} \Rightarrow c = p.$$

Then, FOC:

$$\pi(1 - \pi) \sqrt{(1 + (1 - \pi)I - F)} = \pi(1 - \pi) \sqrt{(2 - \pi I - F)} \Rightarrow 1 + (1 - \pi)I - F = 2 - \pi I - F$$

Which implies  $I^* = 1$ , **full insurance**.

## Example cont.

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We found:

$$F^* = 1.$$

Regardless of  $F$ . Now we have to figure out whether the agent will purchase it. Note that, with full insurance, the agent now gets a fixed wealth  $2 - p - F$  regardless of the state!

Purchase will then occur if and only if:

$$2 - \pi - F \geq CE \text{ s.t. } u(CE) = E[u(x)].$$

Find CE:

$$\sqrt{CE} = \pi\sqrt{1} + (1 - \pi)\sqrt{2} \Rightarrow CE = (\pi + (1 - \pi)\sqrt{2})^2$$

So we obtain:

$$F \leq 2 - \pi - CE = 2 - \pi - (\pi + (1 - \pi)\sqrt{2})^2$$

In words: the agent is willing to pay all the expected wealth in excess of the certainty equivalent!

# Insurance Recap

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- If insurance is *actuarially fair* (no profits from *premium part* of the insurance), a risk averse agent will buy **full insurance**, conditional on fee not being too high.
- If full insurance is purchased, wealth is fixed at some level  $\bar{I}^{\text{ins}}$ .
- Insurance can charge a fee  $F = x^{\text{ins}} - CE$ , where  $x^{\text{ins}}$  is the certain wealth that the agent has with insurance.
- Intuition: by definition, the agent is indifference between the lottery *without insurance* and receiving CE w.p. 1.
- Thus, the insurance can capture all the surplus that the agent is getting from the insurance contract, by giving the agent their certainty equivalent on average.

# Games: Nash Equilibrium

Basic concept of equilibrium: we are in an equilibrium if no agent would be better off changing their action, given what the other agent does. Simple example:

Agent 1/Agent 2	Action 1	Action 2
Action 1	0,0	1,-1
Action 2	-1,1	-1, -1

Choose an action without knowing what the other agent does, so I have to define a policy *conditional on each of the actions*. Suppose I am agent 1.

- If Agent 2 chooses Action 1, I would want to choose Action 1;
- If Agent 2 chooses Action 2, I would want to choose Action 1 again.

In light of my choices, what will agent 2 do? She knows that:

- If she chooses Action 1, she gets 0;
- If she chooses Action 2, she gets  $-1$ .

Thus, what is an equilibrium? It is the pair (Action 1, Action 1). Why? Nobody wants to deviate from their policies.

# Signaling Games

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- Same concept of equilibrium: everybody is choosing their *optimal response* to what everybody else is doing (no-deviation principle);
- But actions are now *a signal acquisition* for the *sender* and a *screening rule* for the receiver;
- Education example: *senders* are the types, who can acquire the costly education signal; *receivers* are the employers who have to choose a *wage rule* to maximize their profits given the signal they observe.
- Equilibrium in education:
  - ① amount of education is consistent *with the screening policy of the employer*: no agent wants a different amount of education than what they are acquiring;
  - ② policy of the employer is consistent with *the signals acquired by the market*: if employer is giving a different wage according to the signal, she does not want to switch to a flat wage, and vice versa.

# Equilibrium in Signaling Games

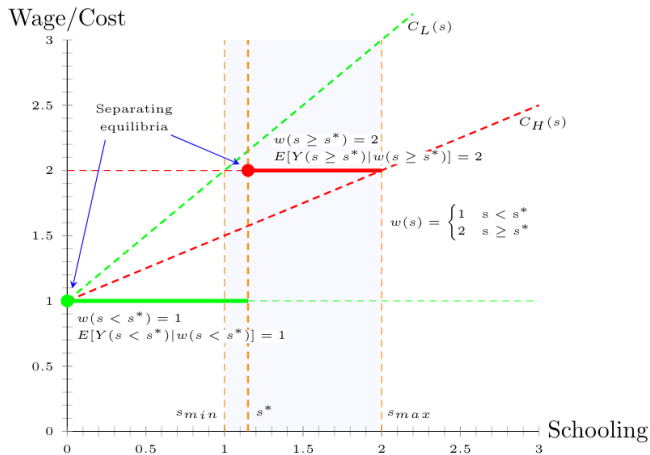
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- Two *types* of equilibria:
  - ① Pooling: everyone does the same thing;
  - ② Separating: agents choose signals that *separate* them into groups, so at least one agent does something differently from the others.
- Pooling in education: employer must not attach value to the education that workers would find convenient to attain (we will discuss this below). Simplest case:
  - ① Employer offers wage = average productivity in population. Outside option is getting 0 profits;
  - ② Nobody acquires education because it is costly and not valued;
  - ③ Given that nobody acquires 0 education, the employer will hire random workers and on average make
$$\text{profits} = \text{average productivity} - \text{wage} = 0.$$
  - ④ This makes sense, the employer makes profits equal to the outside option. Since nobody acquires education, she does not want to offer a wage that depends on education.

# Separating: all you need is this graph

Recall:  $\lambda$  is the share of agents with productivity  $Y=2$ , others have  $Y=1$ .

Figure 1 : Potential Separating Equilibria with  $\lambda = 0.5$



# Market for lemons

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Idea is the same as before, however now the signal is the **price** and it is *costless to acquire*, so the only equilibrium is a **pooling equilibrium**:

- Buyer offer the same price to all sellers;
- Sellers charge the same price.

Equilibrium has to satisfy two conditions:

- ① Demand equals supply at equilibrium price;
- ② Price is such that consumer gets the average value of good supplied and sellers actually want to supply goods with that average quality.

Separating alternative: Full disclosure, i.e. everyone reveals their quality. Only if:

- the signal is credible;
- the signal is costless.

If either fails, you will have at least some extent of pooling.



# Market Unraveling

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With this term, we indicate a case where:

- *a pooling equilibrium cannot be supported by any price;*
- therefore, only bad-quality good will be sold in equilibrium.

Example: quality can be 1 or 0, with equal probability. Price if both are supplied: .5.  
A zero-quality good has supply

$$Q_0(p) = p - .2 \rightarrow Q(.5) = .3,$$

while a one-quality good has supply

$$Q_1(p) = p - .5. \rightarrow Q_1(.5) = 0.$$

But then the only price that makes sense is 0 (only zero-quality goods are supplied). The market unravels completely (in this case to the point of not existing, nobody sells or buys anything).

# Econometric Methods

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- Instrumental variables (Feyrer, 2009; Autor et al., 2013).
  - ◇ Idea: solve endogeneity issues by using a variable  $Z$  that does not affect the outcome  $Y$  directly, but only shifts the endogenous variable interest  $X$ ;
  - ◇ Assumption:  $Z$  only affects  $Y$  *through its effect on  $X$* , and *no other channels*.
- Regression discontinuity (Tyler et al., 2000), assumption is very similar to an instrumental variable:
  - ◇ Idea: solve endogeneity issues by using a *running* variable  $Z$  that, around a specific cutoff  $\bar{Z}$  (GED score), does not affect the outcome  $Y$  directly, but only shifts the endogenous variable interest  $X$  (GED acquired);
  - ◇ Assumption 1: if  $\bar{Z}$  was not chosen to be a cutoff, units with  $Z$  in a close neighborhood of the cutoff would be indistinguishable in their outcomes  $Y$  and other covariates (no other effect of  $Z > \bar{Z}$  on  $Y$  other than change in  $X$ );
  - ◇ Assumption 2: units cannot self-select on either side of the cutoff (also no other effect of  $Z > \bar{Z}$  on  $Y$  other than change in  $X$ ; if people could choose, the outcomes  $Y$  would likely change discretely around the cutoff).

Cool visualizations (website is old but gold):

<http://www.nickchk.com/causalgraphs.html>