Summary behavioral Economics

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1 Standard Model + Methods

Individual i at time t = 0 maximizes expected life-time utility

$$\max_{x_i^t \in X_i} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \delta^t \sum_{s_t \in S_t} p(s_t) U(x_i^t | S_t)$$
(1)

- X_i is the set of "life-time strategies"
- x_i^t is the payoff of individual i at time t given strategy X_i
- S_t is the set of all relevant states (s_t) that can happen at time t
- $p(s_t)$ are rational beliefs
- \bullet δ is a time-consistent discount factor
- $U(x_i^t|s_t)$ is the utility of individual i, from payoff x, at time t, in state s

Rewrite equation 1 in four parts

(i)
$$\max_{x_i^t \in X_i} (ii) \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \delta^t (iii) \sum_{s_t \in S_t} p(s_t) (iv) U(x_i^t | S_t)$$

- Assumption 1
 - Economic agents act as expected utility maximizers (part i, iii an iv)
- Assumption 2
 - There are no interdependencies, that is, an agent's utility is governed by own payoffs and he or she does not take into consideration the payoff of others (part iv)
- Assumption 3
 - Agents are Bayesian probability operators, that is, they form subjective (unbiased)
 priors and update these priors according to Bayes rule (part iii)
- Assumption 4
 - Agents have consistent time preference according to the discounted utility model (part ii)

Components of a "good" Model

- 1. Parsimony
- 2. Tractability
- 3. Conceptual insightfulness

- 4. Generalizability
- 5. Falsifiability
- 6. Empirical accuracy
- 7. Predictive precision

Extensions of standard model

- 1. Non-standard preference
- 2. Non-standard beliefs
- 3. Non-standard decision making

Experimental methods

What to consider when doing a randomized experiment

- 1. Population of interest
- 2. Method of randomization
 - within (all subjects are both; control and treatment)
 - between (all subjects are either control or treatment)
- 3. Unit of randomization
- 4. Power
- 5. Ethical concerns

2 Intertemporal Choice

Definition:

Intertemporal choice = decisions where negative payoffs (costs > benefits) and positive payoffs (costs < benefits) occur in different time periods

- Two types of intertemporal goods
 - Investment goods
 - $b_1 < 0 \& b_2 > 0$
 - leisure goods
 - $b_1 > 0 \& b_2 < 0$
 - is its a leisure good or investment good can be different from individual to individual

Definition:

time preference = describes how the same instantaneous utility may generate different levels of life-time utility depending on when the instantaneous utility is experienced (everything else fixed)

- **2.1** $\beta \delta model$
 - Simplification: no uncertainty (different States are ruled out)
 - First Period out of the sum

$$\max_{x_i^t \in X_i} u(X_i^0) + \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \beta \delta^t U(x_i^t)$$

• discount function becomes:

$$1 + \beta \delta + \beta \delta^2 + \beta \delta^3$$

- the discount factor between two consecutive periods vary depending on which two periods we consider:
 - $-\beta\delta$ between any current t and the period after (t+1)
 - $-\delta$ between any two consecutive periods in the future
- if $\beta = 1 \Rightarrow$ discount as in the standard models
- if $\beta < 1 \Rightarrow$ discount higher when comparing present and the period after as two periode further in the future
- Naive model:
 - wrong beliefs about β
 - $-\hat{\beta} \neq \beta$
 - * the belief about the discount in Period t is $1 + \hat{\beta}\delta + \hat{\beta}\delta^2 + \hat{\beta}\delta^3 + ...$
 - * if there in Period t they discount with β
- different Types due to β
 - "rationalëx
ponential discounters: $\hat{\beta}=\beta=1$
 - Naive: $\hat{\beta} = 1 \; \boldsymbol{BUT} \; \beta < 1$
 - Sophisticated: $\hat{\beta} = \beta < 1$
 - Partially naive: $1 > \hat{\beta} < \beta$

2.2 Empirical Evidence

Paying not to go to the Gym (self-control problems and investment goods)

- Different contracts available
 - Monthly
 - Yearly
 - Pay-per-visit
- Chooses in the standard Model
 - calculate unbiased estimation of expected number of visits per month
 - monthly contract if: $\frac{\text{monthly Fee}}{E(visit)} < \text{price per visit}$
 - $\ \, \text{break even:} \ \, \frac{\text{monthly Fee}}{\text{price per visit}} < E(\text{visit})$

Findings

Paying Not to go to the Gym

- 1. average price per attendance 17.27 \$ > (pay-per-visit 10 \$)
 - Explanations
 - Standard model
 - * risk preference
 - $-\beta\delta$ -model
 - * Naive: Overestimate future usage
 - * Sophisticated: better then not go (encouragement; dont have to pay every time; no decision between money and visit each time)
 - Other
 - * Distaste to pay per usage
 - * Persuasion
- 2. Are people naive or sophisticated
 - **predict**: 9.5 monthly visits
 - actual: 4.17 monthly visits
 - evidence of naive
 - but if there were asked people still would keep the monthly contract
- 3. Interval between last attendance and termination of contract = 2.3 month
 - evidence for naive
 - other explanations
 - people forget

- pressure
- 4. Person with monthly contract 17 % more likely to be member after 14 months
 - despite less attendance on average
 - despite monthly contract is more expensive
- 5. decreasing average attendance in monthly contract
- 6. The higher price per visit the longer people wait to cancel their contract
 - the monthly members who attend relatively seldom take longer time to cancel membership
 - suggest that overestimation in one domain correlates with overestimation in another

Tying Odysseus to the Mast

Commitment = Takes action in advance that restricts future action

- The commitment device
 - A commitment saving account called SEED with limited withdrawal and the same interest rate as a full-flexible account
- Experiment
 - Sample = 4001 current or previous clients
 - These clients were randomly assigned to
 - * Commitment Treatment(T) 50 %
 - * Marketing Treatment (M) 25 %
 - * Control group (c) 25 %
 - 1777 clients were found by the survey team (focus)
- Timeline
 - First step: Survey for time preference
 - second step: one month later T and M were informed and T got additionally the offer wit the commitment
- results
 - 202 clients signed up for the SEED account
 - * 28 % has preferred for commitment if available
 - having answered the survey increased the probability to sign up for SEED account by 12.5 %
 - We can only measure the effect of being OFFERED the commitment account on future savings
 - highly significant

Temptation Bundling

- investment good and leisure good combined
- Results
 - Full treatment group with the highest visits
 - intermediate treatment group better then the control group
- WTP
 - 61 % would pay up to 1 \$ for device
 - -32% would pay up to 10 \$ for device
 - -10% would pay up to 20 \$ for device

2.3 Market Implication

- Evidence suggest existence of naive and sophisticated agents
- rational firms want to offer a menu of contracts that maximize payoffs
- the menu they present will depend on the types of consumers they face
 - rational and sophisticated agents have rational beliefs
 - * "rational": price = marginal cost
 - * Bophisticated"
 - · investment good: price < marginal cost
 - \cdot leisure good: price > marginal cost
 - · Intuition: the firms offer a perfect commitment device
 - not the case for naive agents
 - * Investment good: price < marginal cost
 - * leisure good: price > marginal cost
 - * same as for sophisticated but different intuition
 - * **Intuition:** the firm takes advantage of consumer overestimation (underestimation) of the consumption of future **investment goods** (leisure goods)
 - Same conclusion in terms of pricing for both naive and sophisticated types

2.4 Policy

- with rationality or rational beliefs there is no need for political actions
- supply commitments devices when markets are not available
- Examples
 - Taxes on leisure goods
 - Subsidizes fees for investment goods
 - Reduce flexibility
 - Consumer protection

3 Reference-dependent Preference

Basic Framework: Expected Utility Theory (EUT)

• Expectation Principal:

$$-U(x_1, p_1; \dots; x_n, p_n) = p_1 u(x_1) + \dots + p_n u(x_n)$$

- Asset Integration:
 - $-(x_1, p_1; \ldots; x_n, p_n)$ is acceptable at asset position wif $U(w+x_1, p_1; \ldots; w+x_n, p_n) > U(w)$
- Risk aversion:
 - -u is concave (u" < 0)

3.1 Prospect Theory

• evaluate prospect as follows

$$V(x_1, p_1; x_2, p_2) = \pi(p_1)v(x_1) + \pi(p_2)v(x_2)$$

- two basic difference
 - $-\pi(p) \neq p$ non-standard beliefs
 - $-v(x) \neq u(x)$ the value people assign are differ from the standard model
- mostly the simplified version without π are used

$$-V(x_1, p_1; x_2, p_2) = p_1 v(x_1) + p_2 v(x_2)$$

- two value functions; one over prospect and one over payoffs
- value function over payoffs

$$v(x) \begin{cases} (x-r)^{\alpha} & \text{if } x \ge r \\ \lambda (x-r)^{\beta} & \text{if } x \le r \end{cases}$$

- r = reference point
- $-\lambda = \text{coefficient of loss aversion}$ ($\lambda \geq 1, \lambda = 1 \text{ no loss aversion}$)
- $-\alpha$ = diminishing marginal sensitivity for **gains** ($\alpha \le 1$)
- $-\beta = \text{diminishing marginal sensitivity for losses } (\beta \le 1)$
- graphically the loss aversions is shown with a kink
- $\lambda = 2.25$ in Kahneman and Tversky (1992)
- the location of the **reference point** is crucial for the computation
 - Kahneman & Tversky say in there paper that it is given
 - rational expectation as reference point (Köszegi and Rabin (2006))

Applications

- Finance Odean (1998)
 - disposition effect = tendency to sell "winnersänd hold on to "losers"
 - Prospect Theory as an explanation
 - * the concavity over gains induces less risk taking for winner stocks (more sales of winner)
 - * the convexity over losses induces more risk taking for loser stocks (more purchases of losers)
- Labor supply Cramer et al. (1997)
 - upward sloping in the standard model
 - Results
 - * Increases in the daily wage (per hour), leads to a decrease in the number of hours worked
 - * downward sloping
 - * rejects the standard model
 - * support of a reference-dependent model (daily income targets)

Endowment effect

- your selling price is higher when you have the object as your offer to purchase the object
 - clearly linked to loss aversion and Prospect Theory

Does Experience eliminate Market Anomalies

- sports card fair
 - two types of people (low and high experience players)
 - cards have the same value
 - expectation is that 5 % trade their cards
 - Result
 - * 6.8 % trade for low experience types
 - * 46.7 % trade for high experience types
 - Problems
 - * selection effect
 - $*\ low\ n$

Selling your Apartment

• A home owner choose sales price P to maximize

$$U = p(P)u(P) + (1 - p(P))\bar{U}$$

- -u(P) utility from selling the apartment at Price P
- -p(P) is the probability to sell at price P
- \bar{U} is the reservation utility received if not selling
- Properties
 - * u(P) is increasing in P(u'(P) > 0)
 - * p(P) is decreasing in P(p'(P) < 0)
- optimal Price*

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial P} = p'(P)u(P) + p(P)u'(P) - p'(P)\bar{U} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow p(P)u'(P) = p'(P)(\bar{U} - u(P))$$

- Marginal gain of higher price equals marginal cost
 - marginal gain: p(P)u'(P)
 - marginal cost: $p'(P)(\bar{U} u(P))$
- Prospect Theory

$$u(P) = v(P) = \begin{cases} (P - P_0) & \text{if } P \ge P_0\\ \lambda(P - P_0) & \text{if } P \le P_0 \end{cases}$$

- When $P > P_0$, $p(P) = p'(P)(\bar{U} (P P_0))$
- When $P < P_0$, $p(P)\lambda = p'(P)\left[\bar{U} \lambda(P P_0)\right]$

Playing Golf

Family Violence