

## CHAPTER 8

# ADVERSE SELECTION: AKERLOF'S MARKET FOR LEMONS

## Intro

- A man walks into the office of a life insurance company.
  - ▣ He wants to buy a \$1 million life insurance policy for a term of one day. Your company will have to pay \$1 million to his heirs if and only if he dies tomorrow.
  - ▣ You know nothing else about this man.
  - ▣ How much do you charge?

## Asymmetric information

- **Definition:** a situation in which agents in a potential economic transaction do not have the same information about the quality of the good being transacted
- *A major theme of this course, and the source of many problems in health insurance markets*

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### THE INTUITION BEHIND THE MARKET FOR LEMONS

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## First: symmetric information

- Imagine a well-functioning used car market
- Sellers advertise cars, and buyers can accurately assess the condition of each car for sale
- Some buyers will be willing to pay more for cars in good condition; others are happy to get a deal
- Symmetric information: buyers and sellers have symmetric info about car quality. This is crucial.
- **Outcome:** *each car sells for a different price, depending on its quality*

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## First: symmetric information

- **Pareto-improving transaction:** a transaction that leaves all parties at least no worse off
- One goal of a market is to make sure all Pareto-improving transactions take place
- In the market we have described, there is nothing to stop all Pareto-improving transactions from taking place
- All the cars end up with the people who value them the most

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## An example

- 100 cars: 50 high quality and 50 «lemons»

	High quality	Lemons
Sellers' price	2000	1000
Buyers price	2400	1200

- There are pareto-improving exchanges
- Willingness to pay for a car of unknown quality (average):  

$$2400 \times 0.5 + 1200 \times 0.5 = 1800 < 2000$$
- Only «lemons» will be sold at a price between 1000 and 1200.
- Market for good quality cars disappears

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## Next: asymmetric information

- New assumption: sellers can determine car quality, *but buyers cannot*
- All cars look identically good to the buyers
- This market will look different from the previous one in several ways:
  - ▣ *any cars that sell, sell for the same price*
  - ▣ *The best cars will not be offered on the market*
  - ▣ *It is possible that the cars will not end up with the people who value them most (buyers)*

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## Why is there only one price?

- Imagine that two cars are offered for different prices in this market:  $P$  and  $P' > P$
- No buyer will want to buy the expensive car, because both cars will seem the same
- All sellers will have to lower their prices to match the lowest price on the market

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## Why are some cars not offered?

- We know the market has one price  $P$
- Consider the seller who owns the nicest car on the market – it is probably worth way more than  $P$ 
  - ▣ That seller has no reason to remain in the market
  - ▣ Why doesn't he advertise the high quality of his vehicle and charge a higher price?
    - Remember, buyers can't "see" quality
- **Outcome:** only the lower-quality cars stay on the market. This is our first example of ***adverse selection***.

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## Adverse selection

- **Definition:** *the oversupply of low-quality goods, products, or contracts that results when there is asymmetric information.*
  
- This is one of the most important ideas in health economics.

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## What happens to our market?

- Recap
  - Cars only sell at one price
  - As a result, the best cars leave the market
- What do buyers do?
  - They know the average car remaining on the market is of low quality.
  - Unless buyers value cars very highly, they will not want to buy these cars.
- The market unravels, and potential Pareto-improving transactions do not occur. This is a market failure.

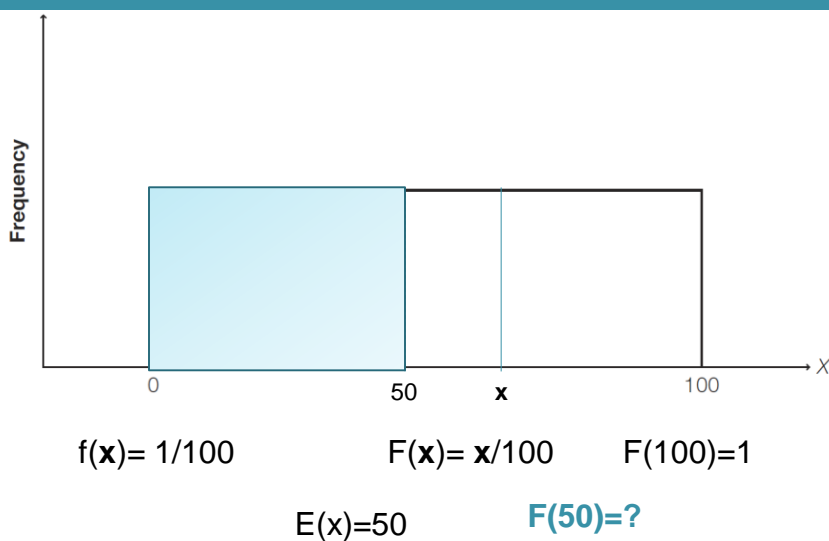
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## Random variables

- $x$  is a random variable in  $[a, b]$
- Discrete ( $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ )
  - ▣  $(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n)$
  - ▣  $\sum x_i p_i$
- Continuous
  - ▣  $f(x)$  density function:  $f(x) = \text{prob}(x=x)$
  - ▣  $F(x)$  cumulative distribution function:  $F(x) = \text{prob}(x < x)$   $F(a)=0$   $F(b)=1$ , why?
  - ▣  $E(x) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

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## The uniform distribution in $[0, 100]$



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## Conditional expectation

- Conditional expectation: expected value of the random variable, given that a certain condition occurs
- $x$  is quality
- $p$  is the price
- $E(x/p)$  = expected quality knowing that the price is  $p$ .
  - ▣ Only cars with quality less than  $p$  will be offered → the expected quality given the price  $p$  is  $p/2$

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## A FORMAL STATEMENT OF THE AKERLOF MODEL

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## A formal treatment

- We will introduce a formal model of the market we discussed in the previous slides.
- We will present explicit utility functions and a specific distribution of car quality to make the argument more concrete.
- But remember – the logic of the argument is the same as what we just saw.

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## Seller and buyer utility functions

- Sellers and buyers derive utility from the cars they own and other goods
- Buyers value cars 50% more than sellers (that's why they are buyers in the first place)
- $X_j$  = quality of the  $j$ th car owned
- $M$  = utility from other goods

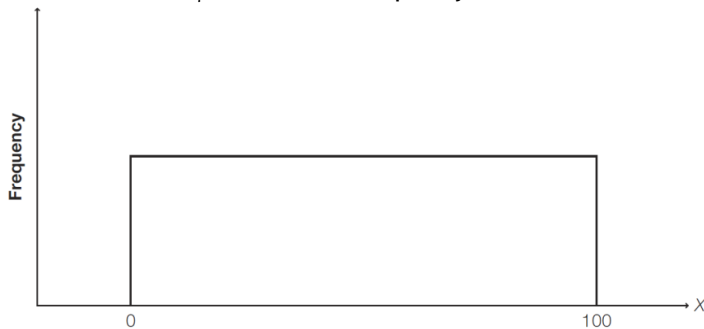
$$U_S = \sum_{j=1}^n X_j + M$$

$$U_B = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{3}{2} X_j + M$$

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## Distribution of car quality

- Car quality  $X$  is uniformly distributed between 0 and 100
- Cars are equally likely to have any quality level between 0 and 100
  - ▣ You are equally likely to have a car of quality level 50 as you are to have a car of quality 96, 17,  $\pi$ , 54.2828 or any real number between 0 and 100
- We use the term  $X_i$  to denote the quality of car  $i$



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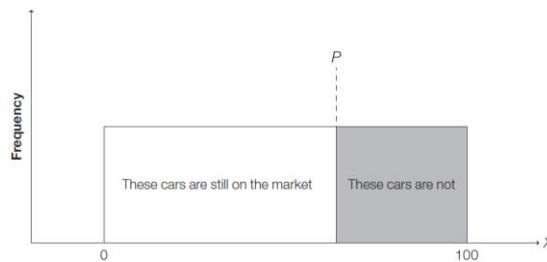
## Information assumptions

- Buyers do not know the true quality of a particular car, but they do know a lot.
- Buyers know the *utility function of the sellers* and know the *distribution of cars available for sale*
- They also understand that sellers will withdraw highest-quality cars if the price does not justify selling.

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## Which cars will sellers offer?

- A seller will put a car on the market if selling it will increase his utility.
- If a seller sells his car of quality  $X$  for  $P$  dollars, he loses  $X$  units of utility but gains  $P$  dollars
- Hence, he will only put car  $j$  on the market if  $P > X_j$



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## When will buyers buy?

- Figuring out when buyers buy is trickier due to uncertainty.
- Like sellers, buyers are trying to maximize utility. But think about a buyer who is considering buying a car of uncertain quality. How does she know what will happen to her utility?
- Buyers have to think in terms of *expected utility*.

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## When will buyers buy?

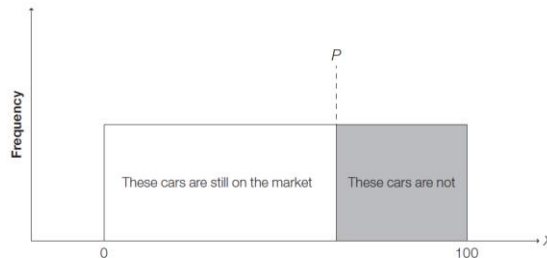
- Suppose a buyer buys a car in this market.
- She pays  $P$  dollars and thus loses  $P$  units of utility.
- She gains a car with expected value  $E[X|P]$ , so she gains  $3/2 E[X|P]$  units of utility.
  - ▣ Remember,  $E[X|P]$  means “expectation of  $X$  conditional on  $P$ .” We need to think about  $P$  because it affects sellers’ decisions, and hence affects the distribution of quality  $X$ .
- Hence, buyers will buy if:

$$\frac{3}{2}E[X_i] \geq P$$

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## When will buyers buy?

- We need to find  $E[X|P]$  to decide if buyers will buy
- Remember the distribution of cars now:



- The formula for expectation for a uniform distribution is simply the average of the endpoints. So  $E[X|P] = \frac{1}{2} P$

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## When will buyers buy?

- We found  $E[X|P] = \frac{1}{2} P$
- We plug that into our condition for buying:
 
$$\frac{3}{2} E[X|P] > P$$

$$\frac{3}{2} * \frac{1}{2} P > P$$

$$\frac{3}{4} P > P$$
- This is impossible; hence **buyers will not buy for any  $P$ !**
- No cars sell, no Pareto-improving trades take place, the cars stay with sellers (who do not want them as much as the buyers do). The market unravels.

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## What just happened?

- To review:
  - A single price  $P$  is somehow established in the market
  - Sellers remove all cars of quality greater than  $P$
  - Of the cars that remain, the average quality ( $E[X|P]$ ) is only  $\frac{1}{2} P$
  - Buyers do not like cars enough to buy a car of quality  $\frac{1}{2} P$  for a price of  $P$
  - No cars sell, even though buyers like cars better than sellers and all the cars “should” end up with buyers.

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## What does this used car market have to do with health insurance?

- Let's imagine a health insurance market that is similar to the market we just discussed:
  - ▣ Each customer  $i$  has an expected amount of health care costs over the course of the year  $X_i$ .
  - ▣ An insurance company offers a single policy with an annual premium  $P$ . This full insurance policy covers all health care costs incurred during the year.
  - ▣ Customers are risk-neutral. Customer  $i$  will purchase insurance if and only if  $P$  is less than his expected health care costs  $X_i$ .
  - ▣ The insurers cannot distinguish healthy and sick customers
  - ▣ Expected customer health care costs  $X_i$  are distributed uniformly in the population between \$0 and \$20,000.

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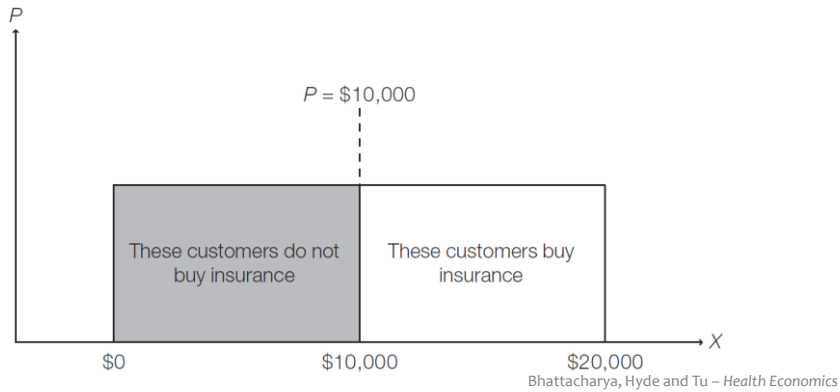
## What does this used car market have to do with health insurance?

- Analogy between these two markets
  - ▣ The “cars” are customers' bodies
  - ▣ The “sellers” are customers
  - ▣ The “buyers” are insurance companies
  - ▣ The sellers try to convince the buyers that the “cars” are healthy; just as a high-quality car is worth a lot to buyers, a healthy customer is worth a lot to insurers
  - ▣ Just like high-quality cars leave the market when a universal price is set, high-quality bodies will leave the market when a universal premium is set.

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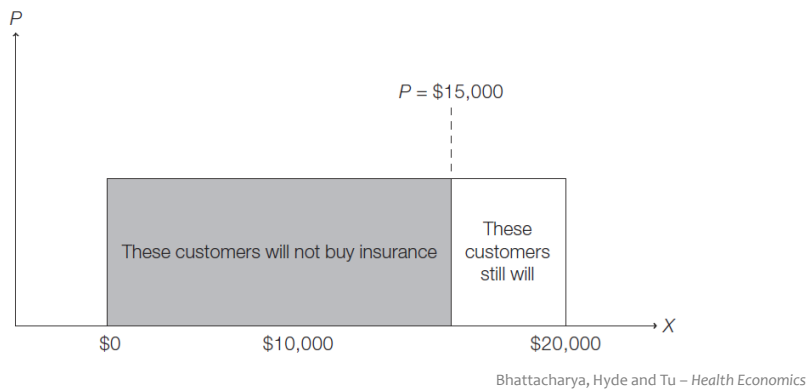
## Health insurance market

- Suppose the insurer offers a contract with premium \$10,000 for the year.
- What happens? Who stays in the market?



## Health insurance market

- Only the least healthy people buy insurance; their average health expenditures are \$15,000.
- The insurer raises premiums to \$15,000 the next year.



## Adverse selection death spiral

- There is nothing to stop this cycle, which is called an *adverse selection death spiral*.
- **Definition:** successive rounds of adverse selection that destroy an insurance market.
- The heart of the problem is adverse selection: only the worst customers stay in the market when the insurer sets the premium.
- No way for the insurer to turn a profit in this very simple model.

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## WHEN CAN THE MARKET FOR LEMONS WORK?

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## What if buyers value cars very highly?

- Let's assume new utility functions:

$$U_S = \sum_{j=1}^n X_j + M$$

$$U_B = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{5}{2} X_j + M$$

- Now buyers value cars much more than sellers. Will this fix the market?

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## What if buyers value cars very highly?

- We need a new condition for buyers:

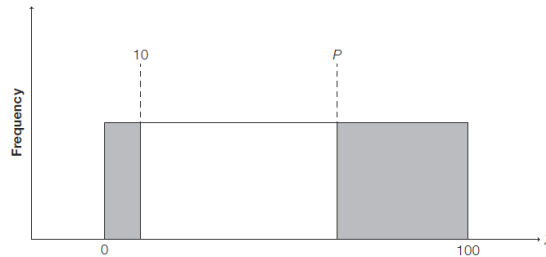
$$\frac{5}{2} E[X_{n+1}] \geq P$$

- Recall that  $E[X|P] = \frac{1}{2} P$ . This is unaffected by the buyers' utility function – why?
- The condition now holds: buyers will be willing to buy cars at price  $P$ . They know the remaining cars are bad but they value them highly enough to pay  $P$  for them.

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## What if there is a minimum guaranteed car quality?

- The condition for buyers is as it was before, but now  $E[X|P]$  will be different because a different subset of cars is on the market.



- This is promising: the worst cars were forced off the market, so the remaining cars are better.

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## What if there is a minimum guaranteed car quality?

- When do buyers buy?
  - ▣ If  $\frac{3}{2} E[X|P] > P$
- What is  $E[X|P]$ 
  - ▣ Based on the formula for the expectation of a uniform distribution,  $E[X|P] = \frac{1}{2} * (P + 10)$
- Buyers buy if:
 
$$\frac{3}{2} E[X|P] > P$$

$$\frac{3}{2} * \frac{1}{2} * (P + 10) > P$$

$$\frac{3}{4} P + \frac{15}{2} > P$$
- Buyers will buy if the price is below \$30.

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## Conclusion

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- Asymmetric information causes parties to misrepresent themselves
- Adverse selection removes high-quality goods from the market, leaving only low-quality
- Generally, the market will unravel unless:
  - ▣ Someone values a product highly enough to have a positive change in utility
  - ▣ Government regulation through a price floor promotes a minimum standard of quality
- One major concept has been missing in this whole analysis: *risk aversion*.
- The Rothschild-Stiglitz model combines asymmetric information and risk aversion.

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