CHAPTER 8 ADVERSE SELECTION

The health insurance market: an example

Table 1. Seller Cost and Buyer Value in Part 1

| | Type 1 Buyer | Type 2 Buyer |
|----------------|--------------|--------------|
| Cost to seller | \$40 | \$70 |
| Value to buyer | \$50 | \$90 |

The health insurance market

- Insurance companies (IC) can accurately assess the each customer's risk-type.
- Customers (C) are willing to pay for the insurance according to their type (expected healthcare costs).
- Symmetric information: IC and C have symmetric info about C's risk-type.

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The health insurance market

- Pareto-improving transaction: a transaction that leaves all parties at least no worse off
- One goal of a market is to make sure all Paretoimproving transactions take place
- In the market we have described, there is nothing to stop all Pareto-improving transactions from taking place
- All costumers buy an insurance and if in perfect competition the premium is equal to the cost

Asymmetric information

- Definition: a situation in which agents in a potential economic transaction do not have the same information about the characteristics of the good being transacted
- Assumption: C know their type but IC does not.C look identical to IC
- □ The policy is offered at a given price (as in case of community rating).

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Seller Cost and Buyer Value in Part 1

| | Type 1 Buyer | Type 2 Buyer |
|----------------|--------------|--------------|
| Cost to seller | \$40 | \$70 |
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- 100 individuals: 50 type 1 and 50 type 2
- IC expected cost for a policy sold to C of «unknown» type:

40x0.5 + 70x0.5 = 55 > 50

- In perfect competition this would be the (fair) premium offered
- →Only risky type 2 are willing to buy the policy and Low risk type 1 leave the market.

This is an example of adverse selection Health Economics

Adverse selection

- Definition: Due to asymmetric information, participants who know they are high-risk are more likely to buy health insurance(<u>self-select</u> into the market), while low-risk participants withdraw
- Adverse selection arises from asymmetric information, and it can lead to inefficient market outcomes (market failures)

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Uniform distribution of types

- Types are identified by their (expected) healthcare expenditure (HCE).
- □ (Expected) healthcare expenditure *X* is uniformly distributed between 0 and 100
- □ C are equally likely to be of any given type i.e. to have any level of HCE between 0 and 100

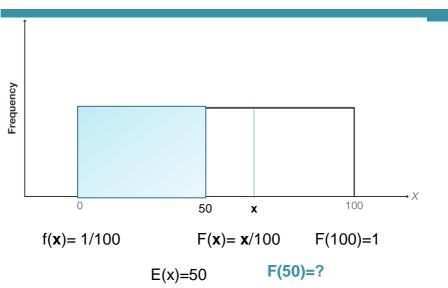


Random variables

- □ x is a random variable in [a, b]
- □ Discrete (x1, x2, ... xn)
 - □ (p1, p2,pn)
 - $\square \sum x_i p_i$
- Continuous
 - \blacksquare f(x) density function: f(x)=prob(x=x)
 - F(x) cumulative distribution function: F(x)=prob(x<x) F(a)=0 F(b)=1, why?
 - $\blacksquare E(x) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

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The uniform distribution in [0, 100]



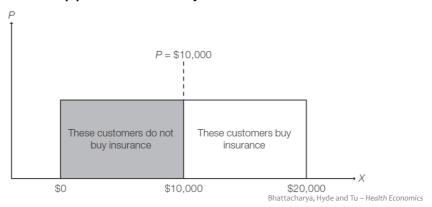
Conditional expectation

- Conditional expectation: expected value of the random variable, given that a certain condition occurs
- x is HCE
- p is the premium
- □ E(x/p) = expected HCE knowing that the premium is p.
 - Only C with HCE higher than p will buy → the expected HCE given the premium is (100+p)/2

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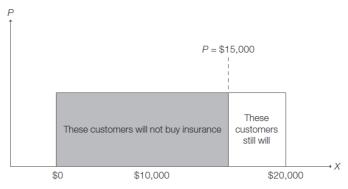
Health insurance market

- □ 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.



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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.

Akerlof market for "lemons"

- 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.
- Outcome: each car sells for a different price, depending on its quality

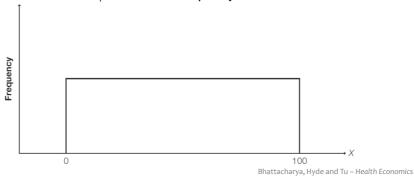
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Asymmetric information

- 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
- Outcome: only the lower-quality cars stay on the market: adverse selection

Distribution of car quality

- □ Car quality X is uniformly distributed between o and 100
- Cars are equally likely to have any quality level between o 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, π , 54.2828 or any real number between 0 and 100
- \Box We use the term X_i to denote the quality of car i



Seller and buyer (linear) utility functions

- Risk neutrality
- 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)
- \square X_i = quality of the *j*th car owned
- M = utility from other goods

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

$$U_{S} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} X_{j} + M$$

$$U_{B} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{3}{2} X_{j} + M$$

Information assumptions

 Buyers do not know the true quality of a particular car, but they know the <u>utility function</u> of the sellers and know the <u>distribution</u> of cars available for sale.

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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 $P > X_i$



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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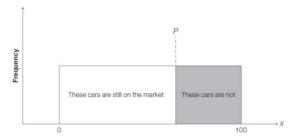
When will buyers buy?

- 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:

$$\frac{3}{2}E\left[X_{i}\right] \geq P$$

When will buyers buy?

- \square 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:

- 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.

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 ½ P
 - Buyers do not like cars enough to buy a car of quality
 ½ 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?

- The health insurance market is similar to the used-cars market:
 - 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.

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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WHEN CAN THE MARKET FOR LEMONS WORK?

Ch 8 | Adverse Selection: Akerlof's Market for Lemons

What if buyers value cars very highly?

Let's assume new utility functions:

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

$$U_B = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{5}{2} X_i + M$$

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:

$$\frac{5}{2}\mathrm{E}\left[X_{n+1}\right] \ge P$$

- □ 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.

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 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:

□ Buyers will buy if the price is below \$30.

Conclusion

- 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.