

Econ 219B
Psychology and Economics: Applications
(Lecture 10)

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Outline

1. Attention: Taxes
2. Attention: Left Digits
3. Attention: Financial Markets
4. Methodology: Portfolio Methodology
5. Attention: Financial Markets II
6. Framing
7. Menu Effects: Introduction
8. Menu Effects: Choice Avoidance
9. Menu Effects: Preference for Familiar
10. Menu Effects: Preference for Salient

1 Attention: Taxes

- **Chetty et al. (AER, 2009):** Taxes not featured in price likely to be ignored
- Use data on the demand for items in a grocery store.
- Demand D is a function of:
 - visible part of the value v , including the price p
 - less visible part o (state tax $-tp$)
 - $D = D[v - (1 - \theta)tp]$
- Variation: Make tax fully salient ($s = 1$)

- Linearization: change in log-demand

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta \log D &= \log D [v - tp] - \log D [v - (1 - \theta) tp] = \\ &= -\theta tp * D' [v - (1 - \theta) tp] / D [v - (1 - \theta) tp] \\ &= -\theta t * \eta_{D,p}\end{aligned}$$

- $\eta_{D,p}$ is the price elasticity of demand
- $\Delta \log D = 0$ for fully attentive consumers ($\theta = 0$)
- This implies $\theta = -\Delta \log D / (t * \eta_{D,p})$

- **Part I: field experiment**

- Three-week period: price tags of certain items make salient after-tax price (in addition to pre-tax price).



- Compare sales D to:
 - previous-week sales for the same item
 - sales for items for which tax was not made salient
 - sales in control stores
 - Hence, D-D-D design (pre-post, by-item, by-store)
- Result: average quantity sold decreases (significantly) by 2.20 units relative to a baseline level of 25, an 8.8 percent decline

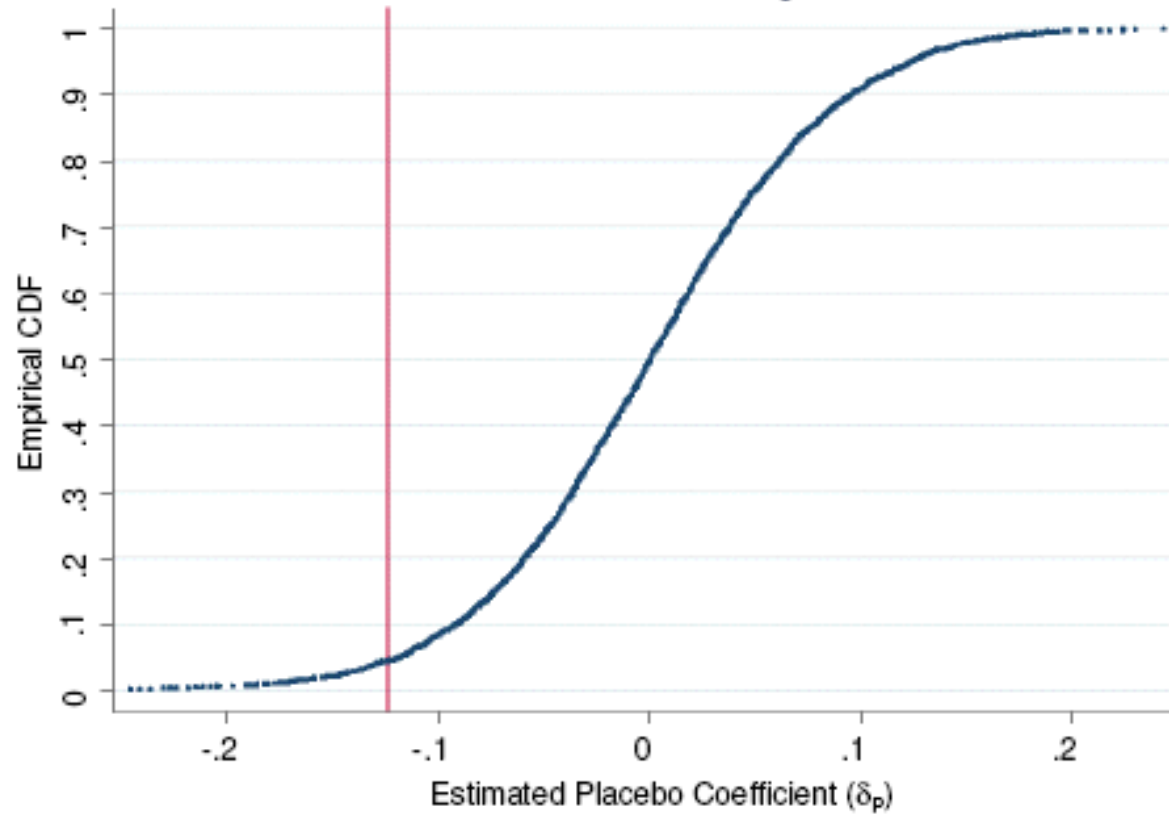
TABLE 3
DDD Analysis of Means: Weekly Quantity by Category

<u>TREATMENT STORE</u>			
<u>Period</u>	<u>Control Categories</u>	<u>Treated Categories</u>	<u>Difference</u>
Baseline (2005:1- 2006:6)	26.48 (0.22) [5510]	25.17 (0.37) [754]	-1.31 (0.43) [6264]
Experiment (2006: 8- 2006:10)	27.32 (0.87) [285]	23.87 (1.02) [39]	-3.45 (0.64) [324]
Difference over time	0.84 (0.75) [5795]	-1.30 (0.92) [793]	DD_{Ts} = -2.14 (0.64) [6588]
<u>CONTROL STORES</u>			
<u>Period</u>	<u>Control Categories</u>	<u>Treated Categories</u>	<u>Difference</u>
Baseline (2005:1- 2006:6)	30.57 (0.24) [11020]	27.94 (0.30) [1508]	-2.63 (0.32) [12528]
Experiment (2006: 8- 2006:10)	30.76 (0.72) [570]	28.19 (1.06) [78]	-2.57 (1.09) [648]
Difference over time	0.19 (0.64) [11590]	0.25 (0.92) [1586]	DD_{CS} = 0.06 (0.90) [13176]
		DDD Estimate	-2.20 (0.58) [19764]

Notes: Each cell shows mean number of units sold per category per week, for various subsets of the sample. Standard errors (clustered by week) in parentheses, number of observations in square

- Compute inattention:
 - Estimates of price elasticity $\eta_{D,p}$: -1.59
 - Tax is $.07375$
 - $\hat{\theta} = -(-.088)/(-1.59 * .07375) \approx .75$
- Additional check of randomization:
 - Generate placebo changes over time in sales
 - Compare to observed differences
 - Use Log Revenue and Log Quantity

Figure 1a
Distribution of Placebo Estimates: Log Revenue



- Non-parametric p-value of about 5 percent

- **Part II: Panel Variation**

- Compare more and less salient tax on beer consumption
- Excise tax included in the price
- Sales tax is added at the register
- Panel identification: across States and over time
- Indeed, elasticity to excise taxes substantially larger \rightarrow estimate of the inattention parameter of $\hat{\theta} = .94$

- Substantial consumer inattention to non-transparent taxes

TABLE 7
Effect of Excise and Sales Taxes on Beer Consumption

Dependent Variable: Change in Log(per capita beer consumption)

	Baseline (1)	Bus Cycle (2)	Bus Cycle Lags (3)	Alc Regulations (4)
$\Delta\text{Log}(1+\text{Excise Tax Rate})$	-0.87 (0.17) ^{***}	-0.91 (0.17) ^{***}	-0.86 (0.17) ^{***}	-0.89 (0.17) ^{***}
$\Delta\text{Log}(1+\text{Sales Tax Rate})$	-0.20 (0.30)	-0.00 (0.30)	0.03 (0.30)	-0.02 (0.30)
$\Delta\text{Log}(\text{Population})$	0.03 (0.06)	-0.07 (0.07)	0.05 (0.19)	-0.07 (0.07)
$\Delta\text{Log}(\text{Income per Capita})$		0.22 (0.05) ^{***}	0.18 (0.05) ^{***}	0.22 (0.05) ^{***}
$\Delta\text{Log}(\text{Unemployment Rate})$		-0.01 (0.01) ^{**}	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01) ^{**}
Lag Bus. Cycle Controls			x	
Alcohol Regulation Controls				x
Year Fixed Effects	x	x	x	x
F-Test for Equality of Tax Variables (Prob>F)	0.05	0.01	0.01	0.01
Sample Size	1607	1487	1440	1487

Notes: Standard errors, clustered by state, in parentheses: * significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%. All specifications include year fixed effects and log state population. Column 2 controls for log state personal income per capita and log state unemployment rate (unavailable in some states in the early 1970s). Column 3 adds one year lags of personal income per capita and unemployment rate variables. Column 4 controls for changes in alcohol policy by including three separate indicators for whether the state implemented per se drunk driving standards, administrative license revocation laws, or zero tolerance youth drunk driving laws, and the change in the minimum drinking age (measured in years).

2 Attention: Left Digits

- Are consumers paying attention to full numbers, or only to more salient digits?
- Classical example: $X = \$5.99$ vs. $Y = \$6.00$
- Consumer inattentive to digits other than first, perceive

$$X = 5 + (1 - \theta) .99$$

$$Y = 6$$

$$Y - X = .01 + .\theta99$$

- Optimal Pricing at 99 cents
- Indeed, evidence of 99 cents effect in pricing at stores

- **Shlain and Brot-Goldberg (2014):**
- Write down predicted pricing with left-digit inattention
 - Not only bunching at 99 cents
 - Also no pricing at 0, 10 cents
 - Pricing at 49 cents, 59 cents, etc.
- Examine a change in Israel which eliminates the second digit
 - Most prices switch to 90 cents as model predicts
 - Some prices switch to 0 cents – a puzzle!
 - Over time, the 0 cents disappear... a victory for the model

- **Ashton (2014):** Re-analysis of Chetty et al. data
 - Show that effect on sales is concentrated to cases in which first digit changes
 - * Not much effect if adding tax raises price from 3.50 to 3.80
 - * Effect is adding tax raises price from 3.99 to 4.30
 - Compute DDD for Shifting digit and Rigid digit
 - Effect is entirely due to Shifting Digit

Table 4: Comparison of Means.

		<i>Sensitive dollar-value prices</i>			<i>Rigid dollar-value prices</i>			
		Control Stores	Treated Store	<i>Diff (stores)</i>	Control Stores	Treated Store	<i>Diff (stores)</i>	
Treated Categories	Baseline Period	12.297 (0.187) [1612]	10.769 (0.187) [806]	$D_{CT} = -1.528$ (0.206) [2418]	15.514 (0.237) [1612]	14.356 (0.283) [806]	$D_{CT} = -1.158$ (0.224) [2418]	
	Experimental Period	13.744 (0.499) [78]	10.949 (0.431) [39]	$D_{TT} = -2.795$ (0.811) [117]	14.449 (1.068) [78]	12.923 (0.823) [39]	$D_{TT} = -1.526$ (0.962) [117]	
	<i>Diff (time)</i>	$D_{CS} = 1.447$ (0.452) [1690]	$D_{TS} = 0.180$ (0.401) [845]	$DD_{TC} = -1.267$ (0.696) [2535]	$D_{CS} = -1.066$ (0.910) [1690]	$D_{TS} = -1.433$ (0.734) [845]	$DD_{TC} = -0.367$ (0.820) [2535]	
Control Categories	Baseline Period	18.540 (0.170) [11842]	16.541 (0.151) [5890]	$D_{CT} = -2.000$ (0.137) [17732]	13.458 (0.151) [10491]	11.513 (0.137) [5134]	$D_{CT} = -1.945$ (0.130) [15625]	
	Experimental Period	17.733 (0.494) [573]	16.488 (0.707) [285]	$D_{TT} = -1.245$ (0.467) [858]	14.427 (0.510) [511]	12.258 (0.573) [252]	$D_{TT} = -2.169$ (0.269) [763]	
	<i>Diff (time)</i>	$D_{CS} = -0.807$ (0.441) [12415]	$D_{TS} = -0.053$ (0.601) [6175]	$DD_{CC} = 0.754$ (0.408) [18590]	$D_{CS} = 0.969$ (0.446) [11002]	$D_{TS} = 0.745$ (0.491) [5386]	$DD_{CC} = -0.224$ (0.257) [16388]	
				$DDD = -2.021$ (0.979) [21125]				
					$DDD = -0.143$ (0.984) [18923]			

Notes: Standard deviations are reported in parentheses below the means. Number of observations are reported in square brackets below the standard errors. See Appendix 3 for description of treated and control categories. Statistics are computed using the full sample.

- **Lacetera, Pope, and Sydnor (AER 2012). Inattention in Car Sales**

- Sales of used cars –Odometer is important measure of value of car

- Suppose perceived value \hat{V} of car is

$$\hat{V} = K - \alpha \hat{m}$$

- Perceived mileage is

$$\hat{m} = \text{floor}(m, 10k) + (1 - \theta) \text{mod}(m, 10k)$$

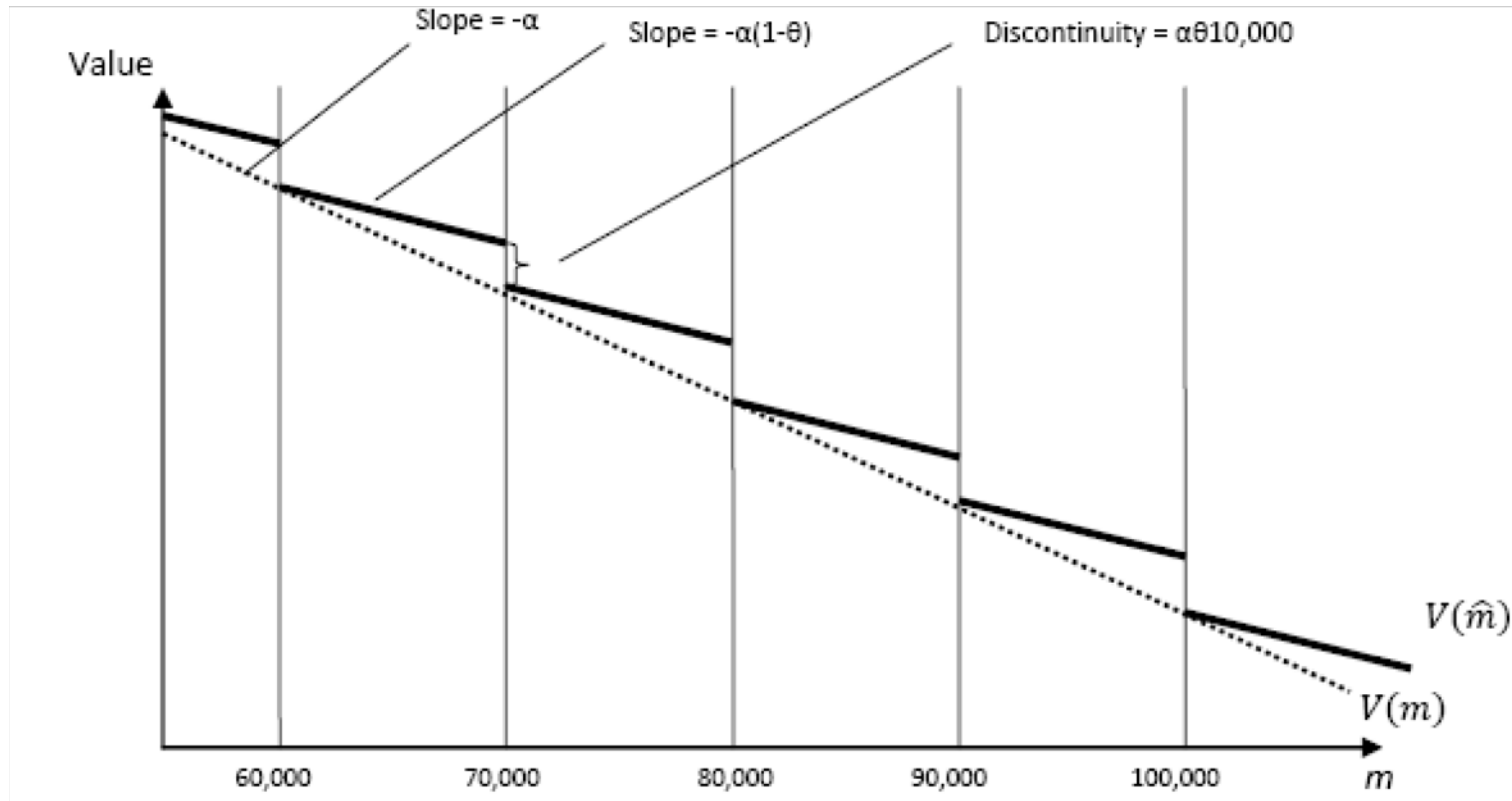
- Model predicts jump in value \hat{V} at 10k discontinuity of

$$-\alpha\theta 10k$$

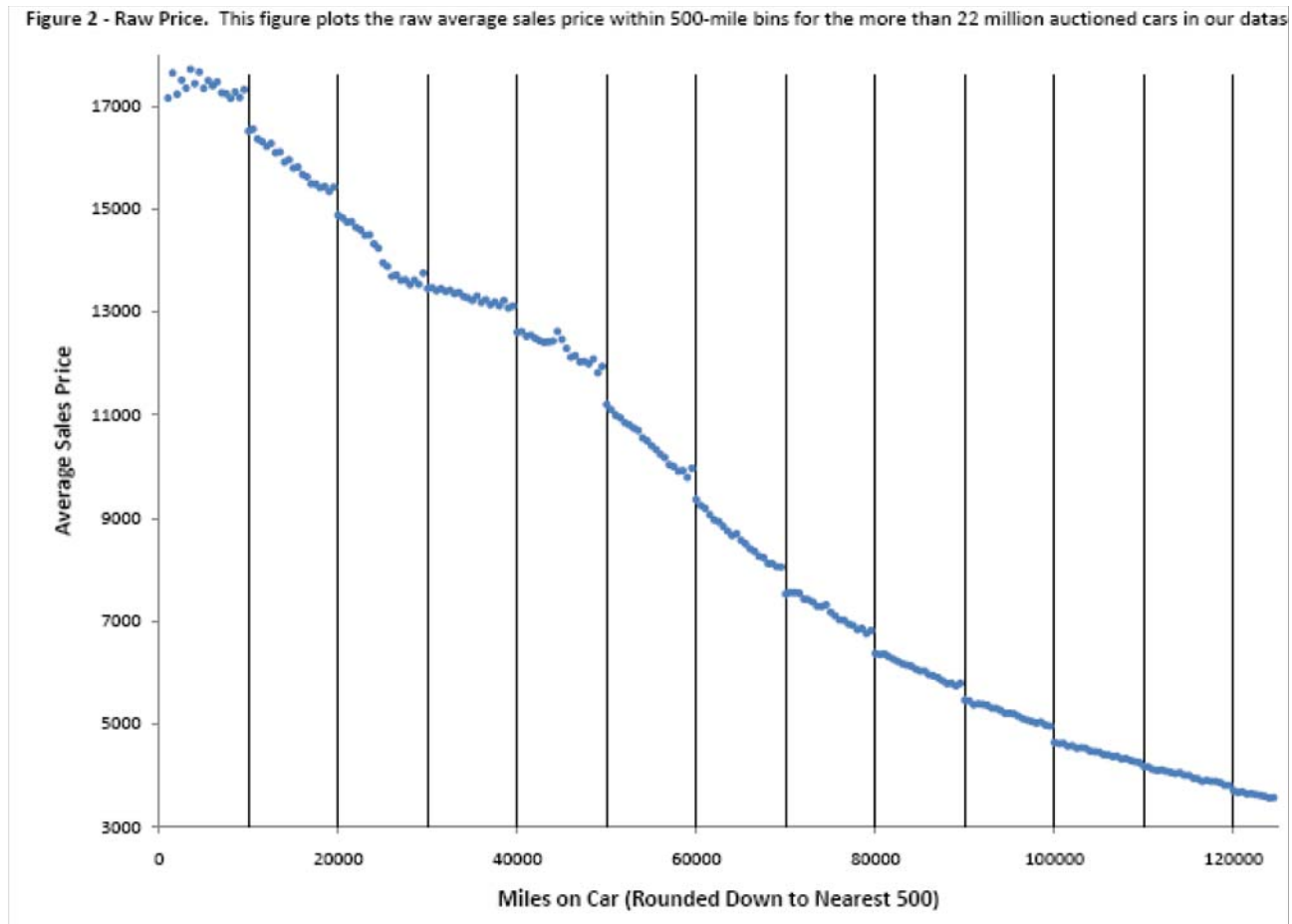
while slope is

$$-\alpha(1 - \theta)$$

- Can estimate inattention parameter θ : Jump/Slope gives $\theta / (1 - \theta)$



- Data set
 - 27 million wholesale used car auctions
 - January 2002 to September 2008
 - Buyer: Used car dealer
 - Seller: car dealer or fleet/lease
 - Continuous mileage displayed prominently on auction floor
- Result: Amazing resemblance of data to theory-predicted patterns: jump at 10k mark
 - Sizeable magnitudes: \$200



- If discontinuity, expect smaller jumps also at 1k mileage points

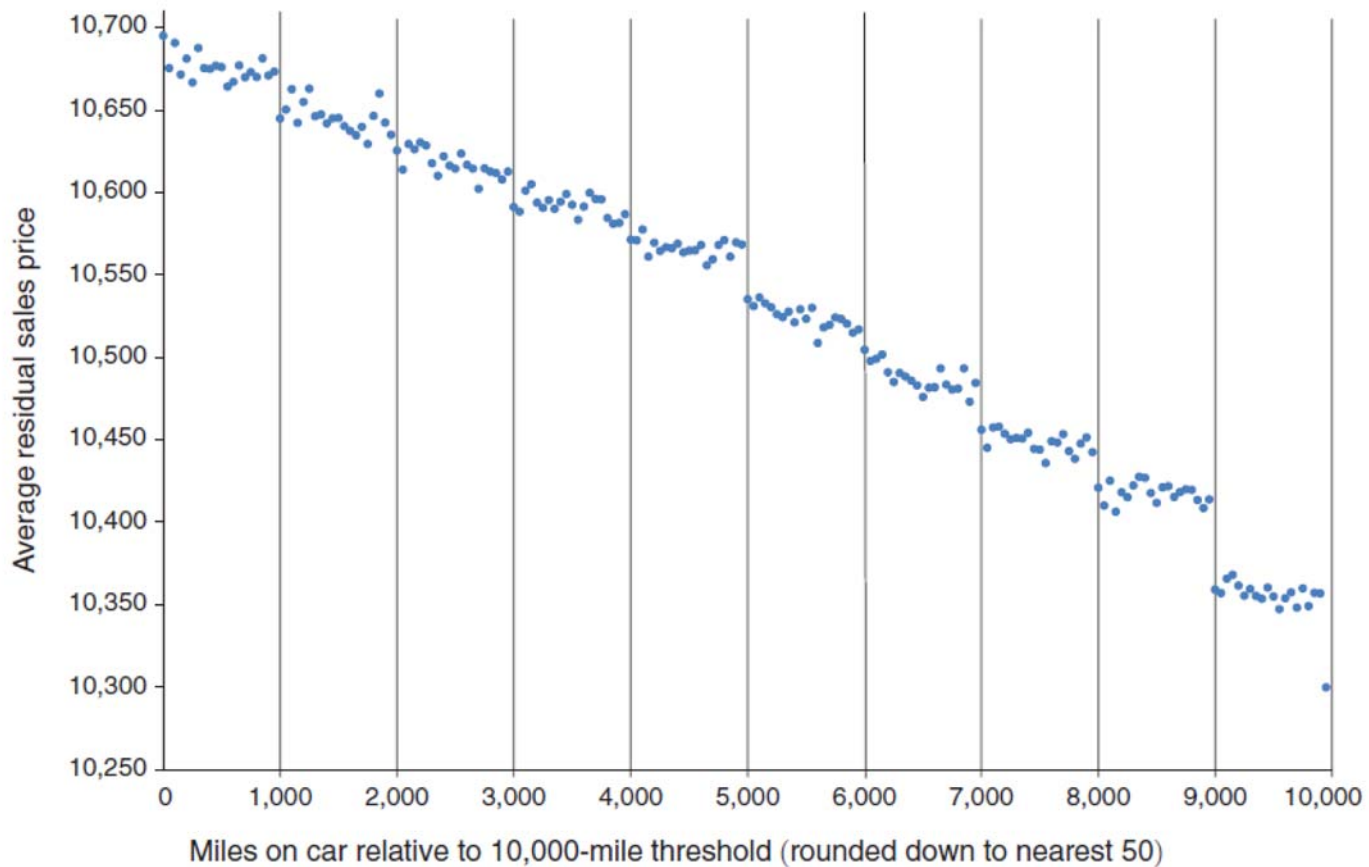


FIGURE 9. 1,000-MILE DISCONTINUITIES

Notes: This figure plots the average residual sales price within 50-mile bins for all cars in our dataset. To decrease noise, the data were stacked so that each dot is the average residual for cars in the same bin relative to a 10,000-mile threshold. For example, the very first dot represents the average residual value of all cars whose mileage falls between 10,000–10,050, 20,000–20,050, 30,000–30,050, ..., or 110,000–110,050.

- Structural estimation of limited attention parameter can be done with Delta method or with NLS
 - Structural estimation can be from OLS
 - Estimate $\hat{\theta} = 0.33$ (0.01) for dealers, $\hat{\theta} = 0.22$ (0.01) for lease
 - Remarkable precision in the estimate of inattention
 - Consistent with other evidence, but much more precise
- Who does this inattention refer to?
 1. Auction buyers are biased \rightarrow But these are used car re-sellers
 2. Ultimate car buyers are biased \rightarrow Auction buyers incorporate it in bids
- Provide some evidence on experience of used car buyers:
 1. Hyp. 1 implies more experienced buyers will not buy at 19,990
 2. Hyp. 2 implies more experienced buyers will indeed buy at 19,990

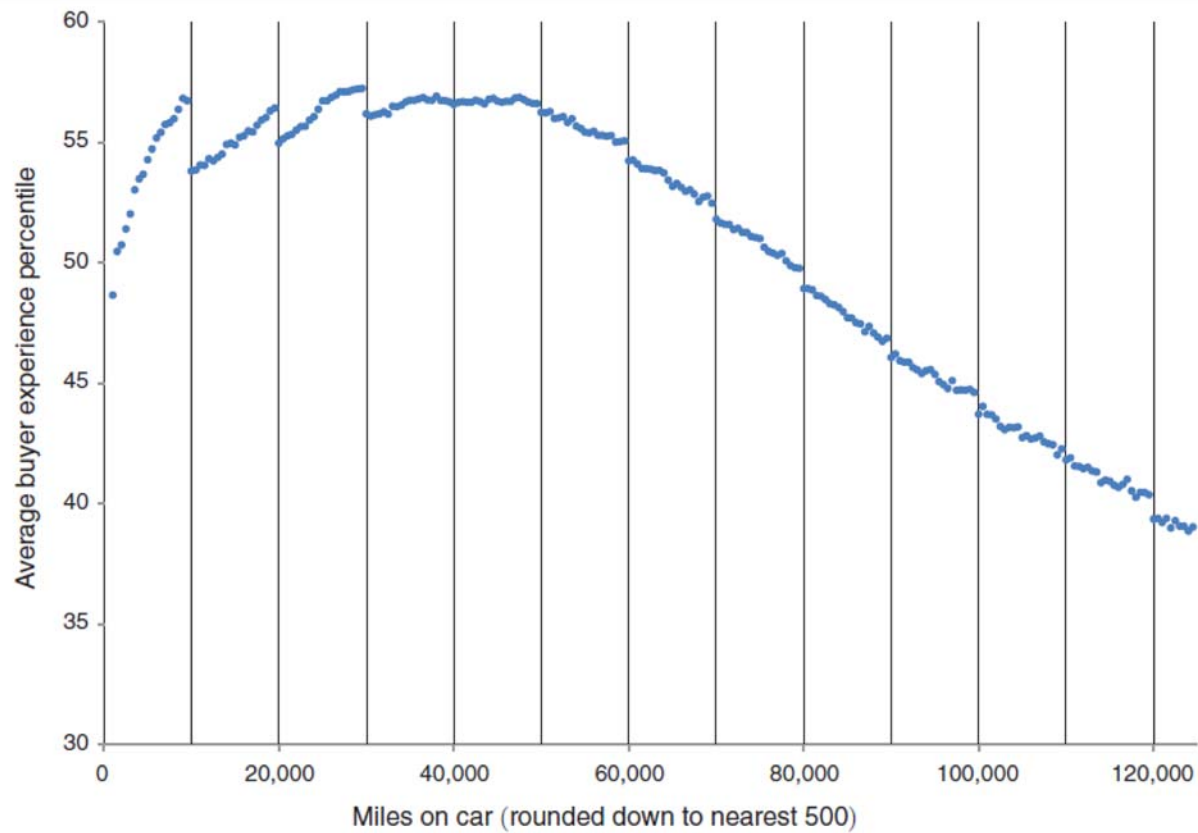


FIGURE 11. EXPERIENCE PERCENTILE

Notes: Each buyer in the dataset is given an experience percentile rating based on total volume of purchases (the 1 percent of buyers with the highest volume receive a percentile score of 99 percent). This figure plots the average buyer experience percentile for each 500-mile bin.

- Behavioral IO:
 - Biases of consumers
 - Rational firms respond to it, altering transaction price
- Would like more direct evidence: Do ultimate car buyers display bias?
- **Busse, Lacetera, Pope, Silva-Risso, Sydnor (AER P&P 2013)**
 - Data from 16m transaction of used cars
 - Information on sale price
 - Same time period
 - Is there similar pattern? Yes

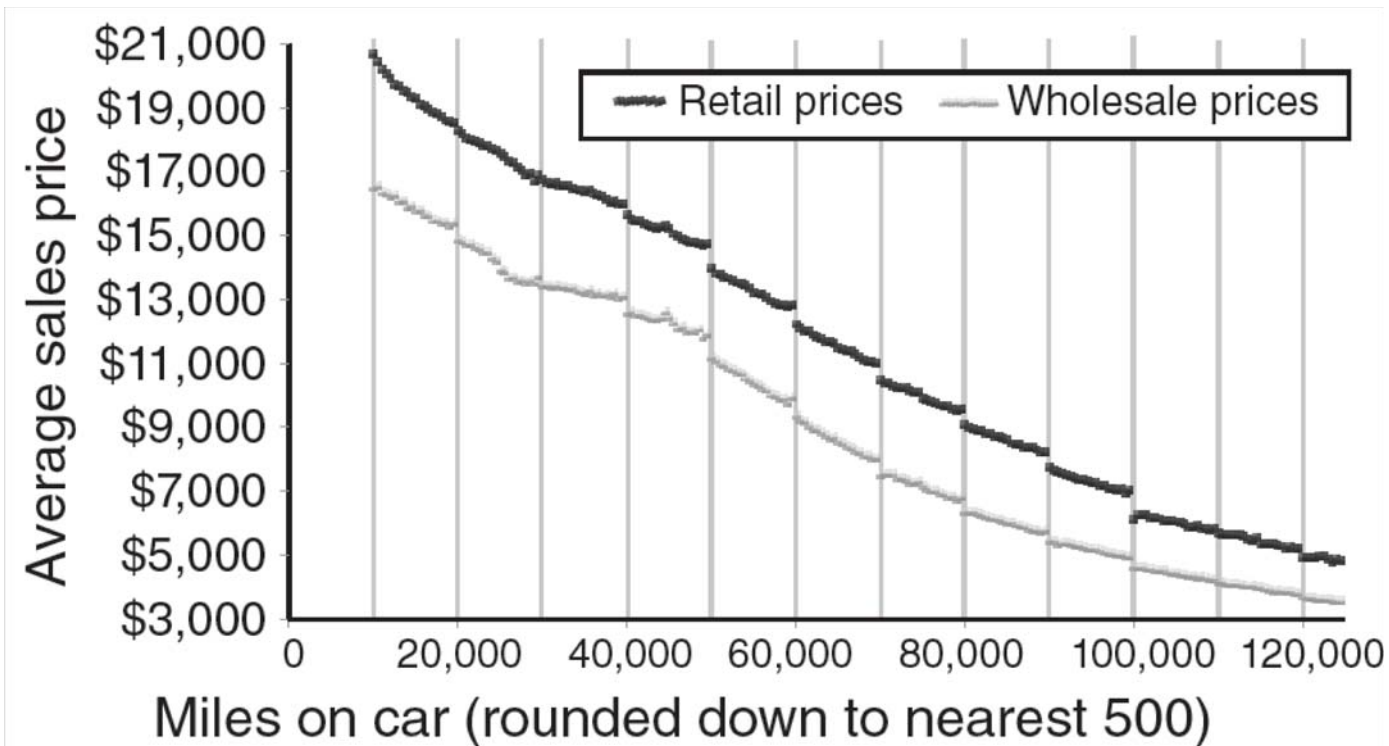


FIGURE 1. AVERAGE PRICE BY MILEAGE

- Similar estimate of inattention for auction buyers and ultimate buyers

TABLE 1—STRUCTURAL MODEL ESTIMATES

Sample	30K	40K	50K	60K	70K	80K	90K	100K
<i>Retail—all</i>								
Discontinuity (\$)	240	167	310	317	365	324	366	402
Mileage depreciation rate (α)	0.135	0.125	0.131	0.123	0.118	0.098	0.102	0.086
Inattention parameter (θ)	0.178 (0.006)	0.134 (0.007)	0.237 (0.008)	0.258 (0.009)	0.308 (0.011)	0.329 (0.015)	0.360 (0.017)	0.467 (0.024)
<i>Wholesale</i>								
Discontinuity (\$)	172	196	283	236	227	214	177	180
Mileage depreciation rate (α)	0.060	0.074	0.081	0.066	0.059	0.047	0.042	0.039
Inattention parameter (θ)	0.285 (0.0171)	0.266 (0.0154)	0.348 (0.016)	0.360 (0.0209)	0.387 (0.0235)	0.451 (0.0288)	0.425 (0.0317)	0.461 (0.0346)

- Heterogeneity by income (at ZIP level)? Some

<i>Retail—low income</i>								
Discontinuity (\$)	248	162	305	311	379	295	361	381
Mileage depreciation rate (α)	0.126	0.116	0.120	0.115	0.113	0.098	0.099	0.086
Inattention parameter (θ)	0.197 (0.008)	0.139 (0.010)	0.255 (0.012)	0.270 (0.014)	0.336 (0.016)	0.303 (0.021)	0.364 (0.024)	0.443 (0.033)
<i>Retail—high income</i>								
Discontinuity (\$)	235	169	296	318	342	353	352	401
Mileage depreciation rate (α)	0.145	0.133	0.142	0.130	0.121	0.096	0.102	0.087
Inattention parameter (θ)	0.163 (0.008)	0.127 (0.009)	0.209 (0.011)	0.245 (0.013)	0.282 (0.016)	0.367 (0.024)	0.344 (0.026)	0.460 (0.038)

3 Attention: Financial Markets I

- Is inattention limited to consumers?
- Finance: examine response of asset prices to release of quarterly earnings news
- Setting:
 - Announcement a time t
 - v is known information about cash-flows of the company
 - o is new information in earnings announcement
 - Day $t - 1$: company price is $P_{t-1} = v$
 - Day t :
 - * company value is $v + o$

- * Inattentive investors: asset price P_t responds only partially to the new information: $P_t = v + (1 - \theta) o$.
- Day $t + 60$: Over time, price incorporates full value: $P_{t+60} = v + o$
- Implication about returns:
 - Short-run stock return r_{SR} equals $r_{SR} = (1 - \theta) o/v$
 - Long-run stock return r_{LR} , instead, equals $r_{LR} = o/v$
 - Measure of investor attention: $(\partial r_{SR}/\partial o)/(\partial r_{LR}/\partial o) = (1 - \theta) \rightarrow$
Test: Is this smaller than 1?
 - (Similar results after allowing for uncertainty and arbitrage, as long as limits to arbitrage — see final lectures)
- Indeed: Post-earnings announcement drift (**Bernard-Thomas, 1989**): Stock price keeps moving after initial signal

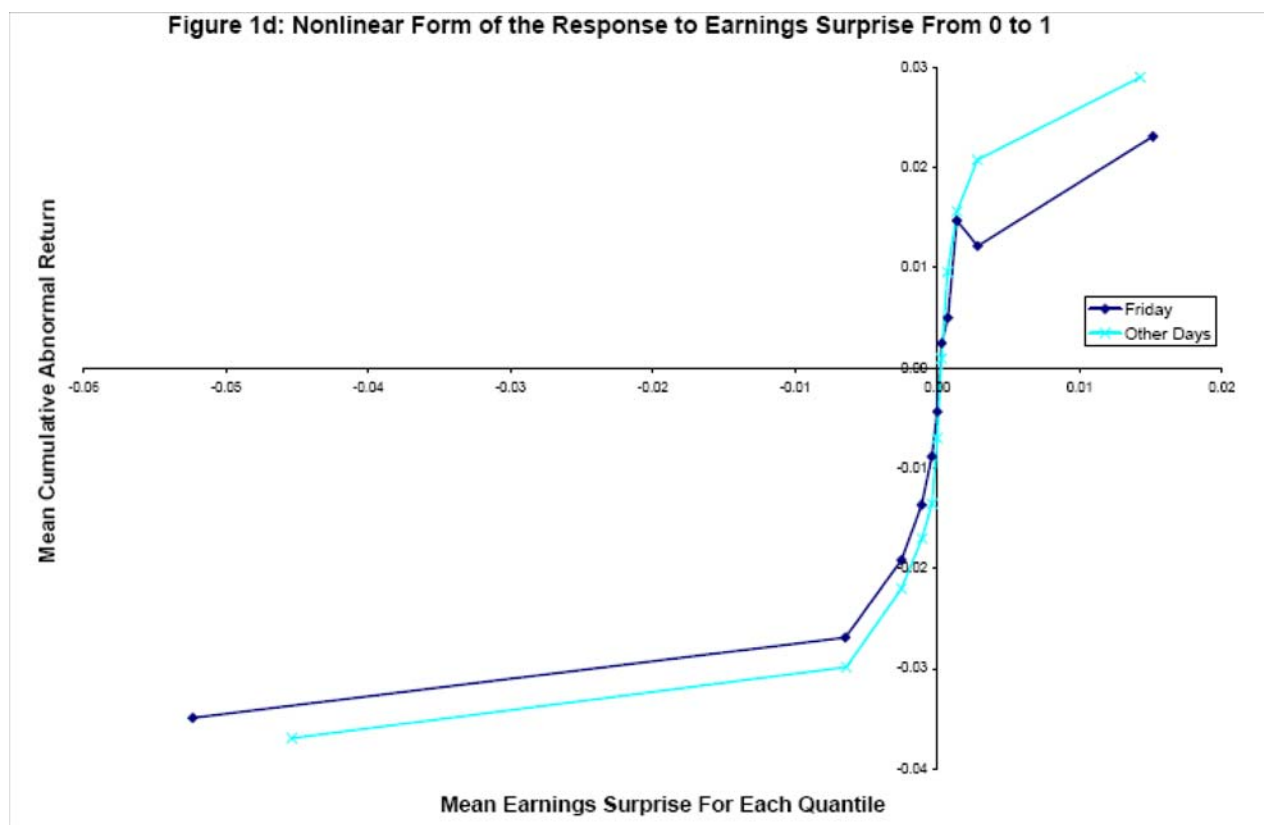
- Inattention leads to delayed absorption of information.
- **DellaVigna-Pollet (JF 2009)**
 - Estimate $(\partial r_{SR}/\partial o)/(\partial r_{LR}/\partial o)$ using the response of returns r to the earnings surprise o
 - r_{SR} : returns in 2 days surrounding an announcement
 - r_{LR} : returns over 75 trading days from an announcement
- Measure earnings news o_t :

$$o_t = \frac{e_t - \hat{e}_t}{p_{t-1}}$$

- Difference between earnings announcement e_t and consensus earnings forecast by analysts in 30 previous days
- Divide by (lagged) price p_{t-1} to renormalize

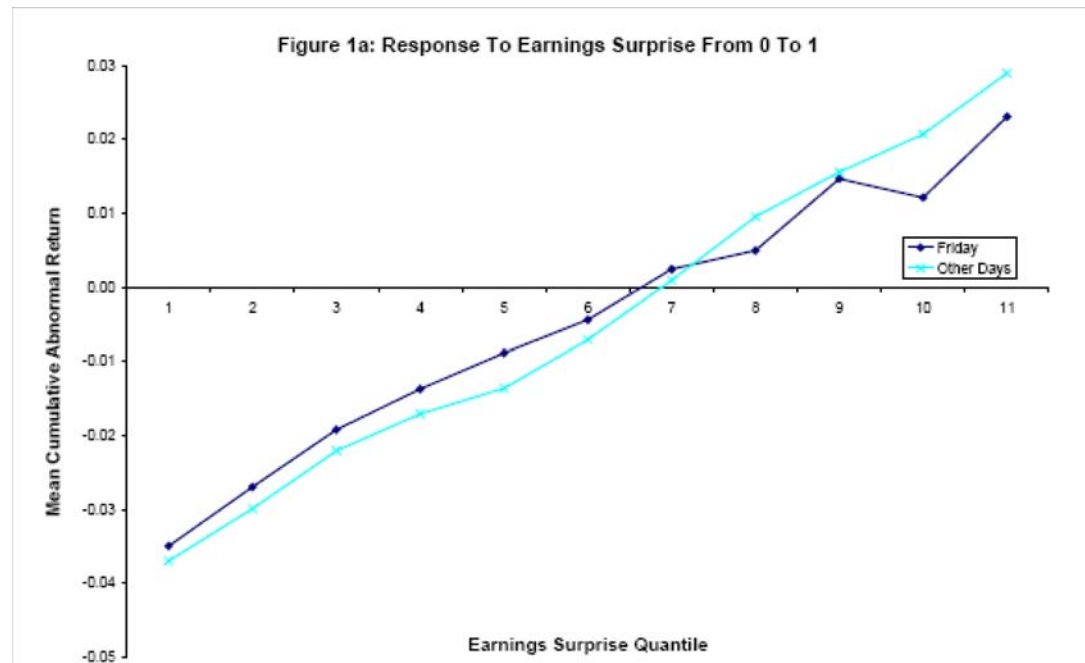
- Next step: estimate $\partial r_{SR}/\partial o$
- Problem: Response of stock returns r to information o is highly non-linear
- How to evaluate derivative?

4 Methodology: Portfolio Methodology

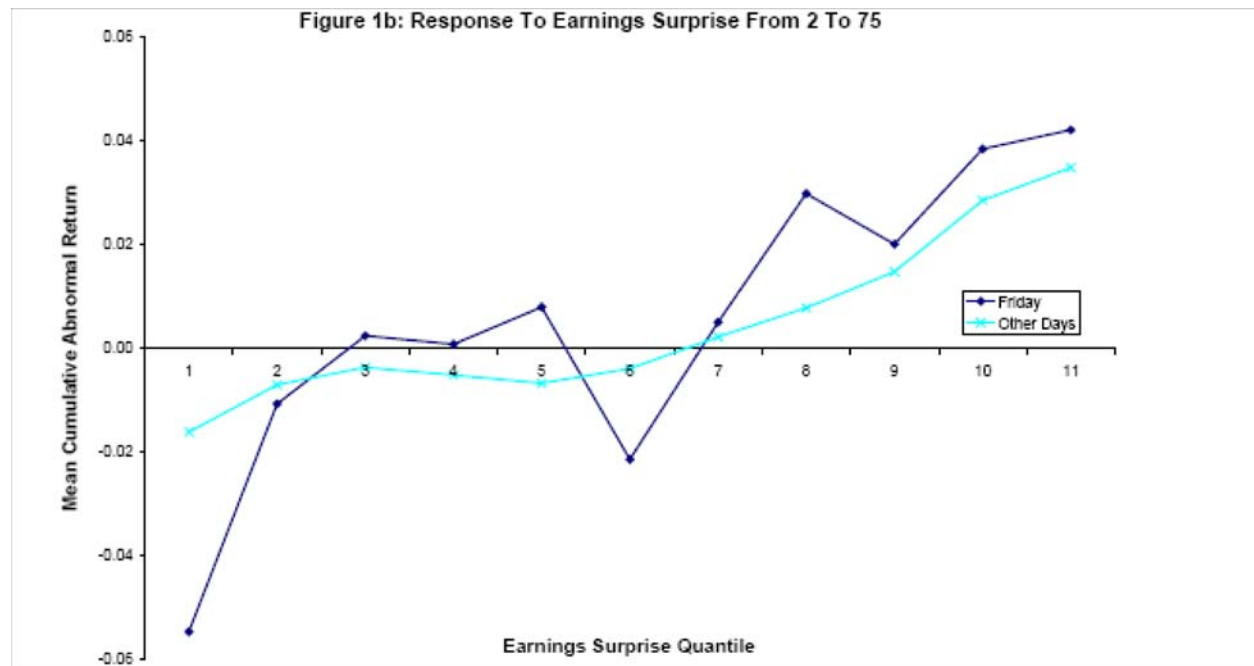


- Economists' approach:
 - Make assumptions about functional form → Arctan for example
 - Do non-parametric estimate → kernel regressions
- Finance: Use of quantiles and portfolios (explained in the context of DellaVigna-Pollet (JF 2009))
- First methodology: *Quantiles*
 - Sort data using underlying variable (in this case earnings surprise o_t)
 - Divide data into n equal-spaced quantiles: $n = 10$ (deciles), $n = 5$ (quintiles), etc
 - Evaluate difference in returns between top quantiles and bottom quantiles: $Er_n - Er_1$

- This paper:
 - Quantiles 7-11. Divide all positive surprises
 - Quantiles 6. Zero surprise (15-20 percent of sample)
 - Quantiles 1-5. Divide all negative surprise



- Notice: Use of quantiles "linearizes" the function
- Delayed response $r_{LR} - r_{SR}$ (post-earnings announcement drift)



- Inattention:

- To compute $\partial r_{SR}/\partial o$, use $Er_{SR}^{11} - Er_{SR}^1 = 0.0659$ (on non-Fridays)
- To compute $\partial r_{LR}/\partial o$, use $Er_{LR}^{11} - Er_{LR}^1 = 0.1210$ (on non-Fridays)
- Implied investor inattention: $(\partial r_{SR}/\partial o)/(\partial r_{LR}/\partial o) = (1 - \theta) = .544 \rightarrow$ Inattention $\theta = .456$

- Is inattention larger when more distraction?

- Weekend as proxy of investor distraction.

- Announcements made on Friday: $(\partial r_{SR}/\partial o)/(\partial r_{LR}/\partial o)$ is 41 percent $\rightarrow \hat{\theta} \approx .59$

- Second methodology: *Portfolios*

- Instead of using individual data, pool all data for a given time period t into a 'portfolio'

- Compute average return r_t^P for portfolio t over time
- Control for Fama-French ‘factors’:
 - * Market return r_t^m
 - * Size r_r^S
 - * Book-to-Market r_t^{BM}
 - * Momentum r_t^M
 - * (Download all of these from Kenneth French’s website)
- Regression:

$$r_t^P = \alpha + BR_t^{Factors} + \varepsilon_t$$

- Test: Is α significantly different from zero?
- Example in DellaVigna-Pollet (2009)

- Each month t portfolio formed as follows: $(r_F^{11} - r_F^1) - (r_{Non-F}^{11} - r_{Non-F}^1)$
- Returns r_{Drift} (3-75) -Differential drift between Fridays and non-Fridays
- Intercept $\hat{\alpha} = .0384$: monthly returns of 3.84 percent from this strategy

	Dependent Variable: Monthly Return on the Zero-Investment Portfolio					
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Constant	0.0384 (0.0134)***	0.0462 (0.0139)***	0.0584 (0.0220)***	0.0218 (0.0079)***	0.0232 (0.0086)***	0.0277 (0.0091)***
VW Index Excess Return (VWRF)	-0.2742 (0.3090)	-0.6419 (0.2778)**	-0.0968 (0.4262)	-0.1842 (0.1865)	-0.1068 (0.2301)	-0.4580 (0.1937)**
Size Factor Return (SMB)		0.2344 (0.4195)	0.5644 (0.6227)	-0.0390 (0.2484)	0.0701 (0.2930)	-0.0137 (0.2438)
Value Factor Return (HML)		-0.4607 (0.6143)	-1.5568 (0.7277)**	0.0762 (0.3329)	-0.3264 (0.2840)	-0.2094 (0.3820)
Momentum Factor Return (UMD)		-0.3994 (0.2632)	-1.1817 (0.6559)*	-0.0696 (0.1740)	-0.0410 (0.2206)	-0.3454 (0.1940)*
One month holding period	X	X	X	X		X
Two month holding period					X	
Top minus bottom quantile	X	X	X		X	
Matched sample			X			
Top two minus bottom two quantiles				X		
Top minus bottom decile						X
R ²	0.0073	0.0385	0.1736	0.0152	0.0153	0.0398
N	N = 125	N = 125	N = 124	N = 130	N = 138	N = 127

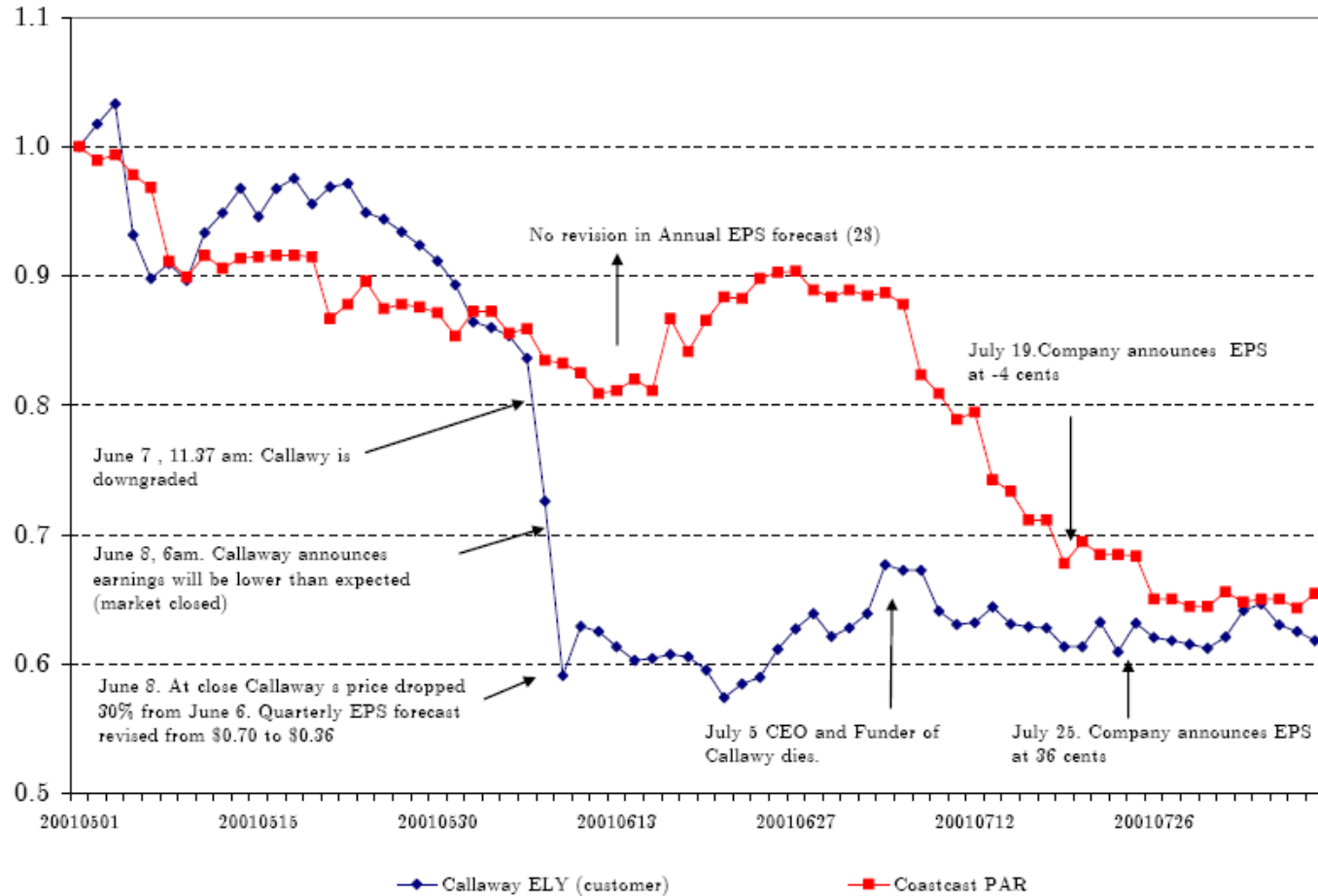
* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

5 Attention: Financial Markets II

- **Cohen-Frazzini (JF 2011) – Inattention to subtle links**
- Suppose that you are a investor following company A
- Are you missing more subtle news about Company A?
- Example: Huberman and Regev (2001) – Missing the *Science* article
- Cohen-Frazzini (2011) – Missing the news about your main customer:
 - Coastcoast Co. is leading manufacturer of golf club heads
 - Callaway Golf Co. is leading retail company for golf equipment
 - What happens after shock to Callaway Co.?

Figure 1: Coastcast Corporation and Callaway Golf Corporation

This figure plots the stock prices of Coastcast Corporation (ticker = PAR) and Callaway Golf Corporation (ticker = ELY) between May and August 2001. Prices are normalized (05/01/2001 = 1).



- Data:
 - Customer- Supplier network – Compustat Segment files (Regulation SFAS 131)
 - 11,484 supplier-customer relationships over 1980-2004
- Preliminary test:
 - Are returns correlated between suppliers and customers?
 - Correlation 0.122 at monthly level

- Computation of long-short returns

- Sort into 5 quintiles by returns in month t of principal customers, r_t^C
- By quintile, compute average return in month $t + 1$ for portfolio of suppliers r_{t+1}^S : $r_{1,t+1}^S, r_{2,t+1}^S, r_{3,t+1}^S, r_{4,t+1}^S, r_{5,t+1}^S$
- By quintile q , run regression

$$r_{q,t+1}^S = \alpha_q + \beta_q X_{t+1} + \varepsilon_{q,t+1}$$

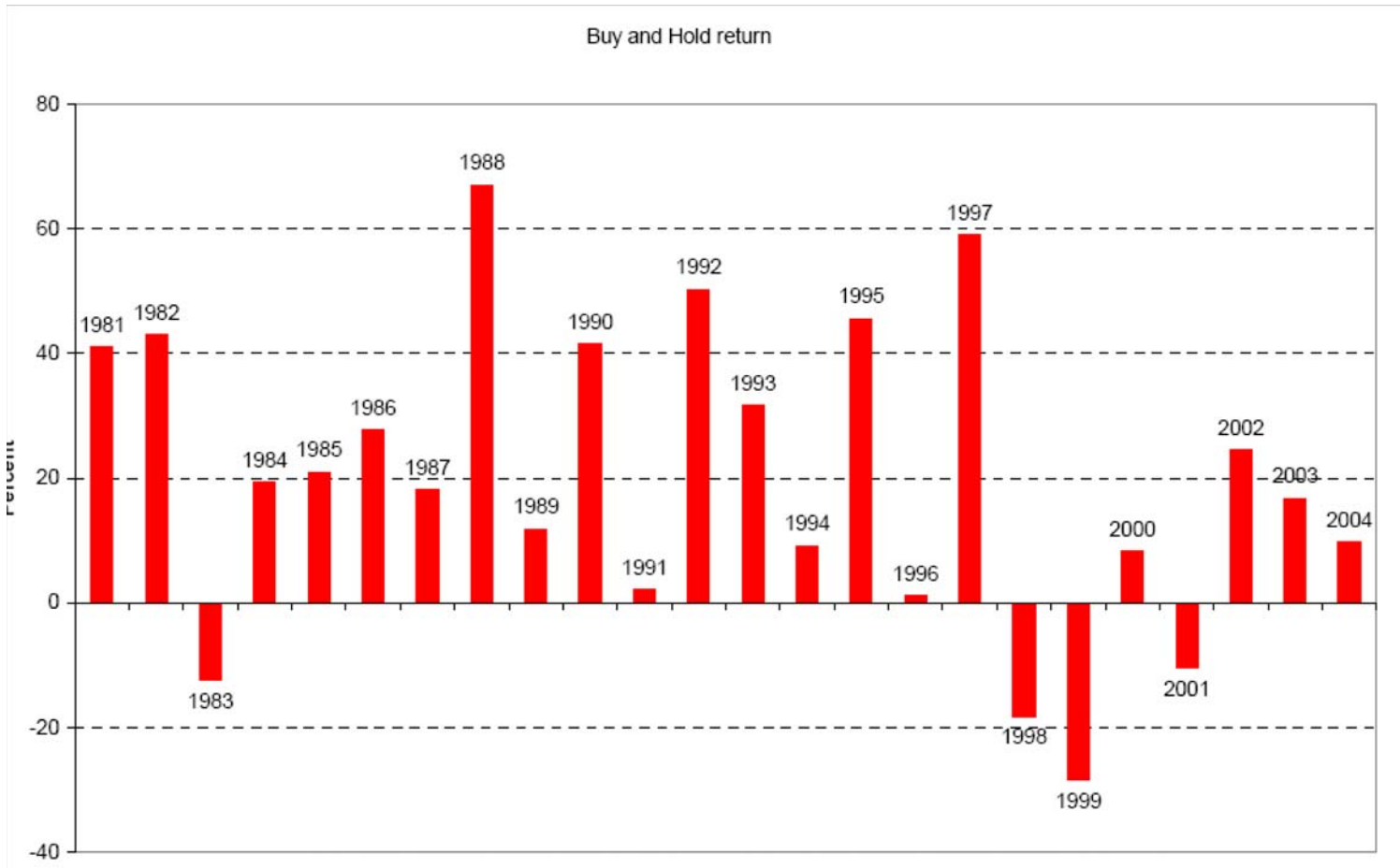
- X_{t+1} are the so-called factors: market return, size, book-to-market, and momentum (Fama-French Factors)
- Estimate $\hat{\alpha}_q$ gives the monthly average performance of a portfolio in quintile q
- Long-Short portfolio: $\hat{\alpha}_5 - \hat{\alpha}_1$

- Results in Table III: *Monthly* abnormal returns of 1.2-1.5 percent (huge)

Panel A: value weights	Q1(low)	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5(high)	L/S
Excess returns	-0.596 [-1.42]	-0.157 [-0.41]	0.125 [0.32]	0.313 [0.79]	0.982 [2.14]	1.578 [3.79]
3-factor alpha	-1.062 [-3.78]	-0.796 [-3.61]	-0.541 [-2.15]	-0.227 [-0.87]	0.493 [1.98]	1.555 [3.60]
4-factor alpha	-0.821 [-2.93]	-0.741 [-3.28]	-0.488 [-1.89]	-0.193 [-0.72]	0.556 [1.99]	1.376 [3.13]
5-factor alpha	-0.797 [-2.87]	-0.737 [-3.04]	-0.493 [-1.94]	-0.019 [-0.07]	0.440 [1.60]	1.237 [2.99]

- Information contained in the customer returns not fully incorporated into supplier returns

- Returns of this strategy are remarkably stable over time

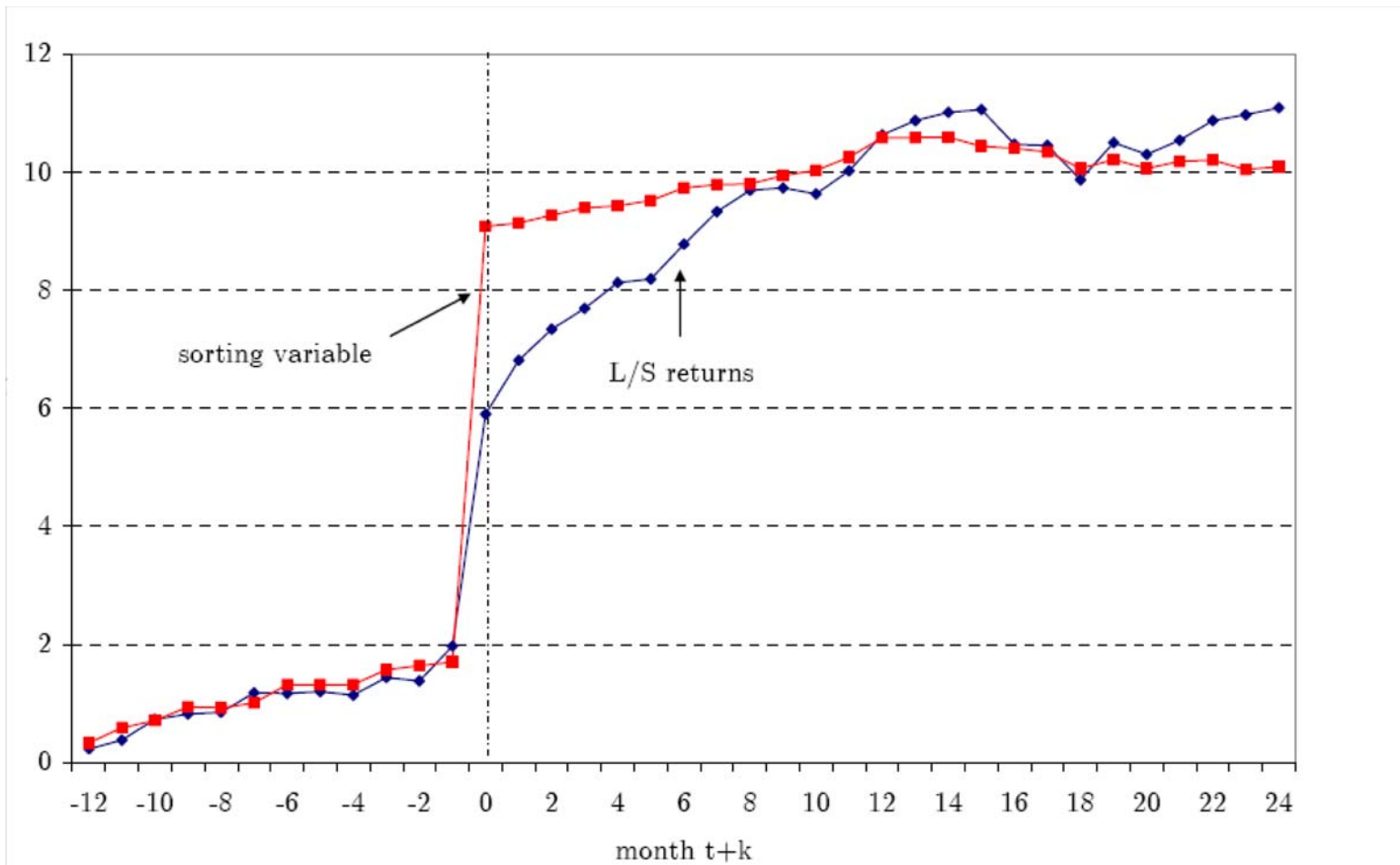


- Can run similar regression to test how quickly the information is incorporated
 - Sort into 5 quintiles by returns in month t of principal customers, r_t^C
 - Compute cumulative return up to month k ahead, that is, $r_{q,t \rightarrow t+k}^S$
 - By quintile q , run regression of returns of Supplier:

$$r_{q,t \rightarrow t+k}^S = \alpha_q + \beta_q X_{t+k} + \varepsilon_{q,t+1}$$

- For comparison, run regression of returns of Customer:

$$r_{q,t \rightarrow t+k}^C = \alpha_q + \beta_q X_{t+k} + \varepsilon_{q,t+1}$$



- For further test of inattention, examine cases where inattention is more likely
- Measure what share of mutual funds own both companies: COMOWN
- Median Split into High and Low COMOWN (Table IX)

	At least 20 mutual funds holding the stock									
	All stocks		All stocks		At least 10 common funds		Larger firms (CRSP median)		Larger firms (NYSE median)	
	EW	VW	EW	VW	EW	VW	EW	VW	EW	VW
Weight										
Low COMOWN	1.653	2.301	1.659	2.306	1.469	1.889	1.572	2.288	2.703	2.852
Lower percent of common ownership	[5.46]	[5.24]	[2.96]	[3.64]	[1.75]	[2.08]	[2.82]	[3.60]	[3.49]	[3.55]
High COMOWN	0.750	1.098	0.528	0.736	0.532	0.835	0.407	0.732	0.611	1.278
Higher percent of common ownership	[1.97]	[2.17]	[0.98]	[1.23]	[0.85]	[1.21]	[0.75]	[1.22]	[1.05]	[2.11]
High-Low	-0.903	-1.203	-1.131	-1.571	-0.937	-1.054	-1.165	-1.557	-2.093	-1.575
	[-2.08]	[-1.99]	[-1.60]	[-1.98]	[-0.92]	[-0.95]	[-1.66]	[-1.96]	[-2.42]	[-1.71]

6 Framing

- Tenet of psychology: context and framing matter
- Classical example (Tversky and Kahneman, 1981 in version of Rabin and Weizsäcker, 2009): Subjects asked to consider a pair of 'concurrent decisions. [...]'
 - **Decision 1.** Choose between: A. a sure gain of €2.40 and B. a 25% chance to gain €10.00 and a 75% chance to gain €0.00.
 - **Decision 2.** Choose between: C. a sure loss of €7.50 and D. a 75% chance to lose €10.00 and a 25% chance to lose €0.00.'
 - Of 53 participants playing for money, 49 percent chooses A over B and 68 percent chooses D over C
 - 28 percent of the subjects chooses the combination of A and D
 - * This lottery is a 75% chance to lose €7.60 and a 25% chance to gain €2.40

- * Dominated by combined lottery of B and C: 75% chance to lose €7.50 and a 25% chance to gain €2.50
- Separate group of 45 subjects presented same choice in broad framing (they are shown the distribution of outcomes induced by the four options)
 - * None of these subjects chooses the A and D combination

- Interpret this with reference-dependent utility function with narrow framing.
 - Approximately risk-neutral over gains \rightarrow 49 percent choosing A over B
 - Risk-seeking over losses \rightarrow 68 percent choosing D over C.
 - Key point: Individuals accept the framing induced by the experimenter and do not aggregate the lotteries
- General feature of human decisions:
 - judgments are comparative
 - changes in the framing can affect a decision if they change the nature of the comparison

- Presentation format can affect preferences even aside from reference points
- **Benartzi and Thaler (JF 2002): Impact on savings plan choices:**
 - Survey 157 UCLA employees participating in a 403(b) plan
 - Ask them to rate three plans (labelled plans A, B, and C):
 - * Their own portfolio
 - * Average portfolio
 - * Median portfolio
 - For each portfolio, employees see the 5th, 50th, and 95th percentile of the projected retirement income from the portfolio (using Financial Engines retirement calculator)
 - Revealed preferences → expect individuals on average to prefer their own plan to the other plans

- Results:
 - Own portfolio rating (3.07)
 - Average portfolio rating (3.05)
 - Median portfolio rating (3.86)
 - 62 percent of employees give higher rating to median portfolio than to own portfolio
- Key component: Re-framing the decision in terms of ultimate outcomes affects preferences substantially
- Alternative interpretation: Employees never considered the median portfolio in their retirement savings decision → would have chosen it had it been offered
- Survey 351 participants in a different retirement plan

- These employees were explicitly offered a customized portfolio and actively opted out of it
- Rate:
 - * Own portfolio
 - * Average portfolio
 - * Customized portfolio
- Portfolios re-framed in terms of ultimate income
- 61 percent of employees prefers customized portfolio to own portfolio
- Choice of retirement savings depends on format of the choices presented
- Open question: Why this *particular* framing effect?
- Presumably because of fees:

- Consumers put too little weight on factors that determine ultimate returns, such as fees → Unless they are shown the ultimate projected returns
- Or consumers do not appreciate the riskiness of their investments → Unless they are shown returns

- Framing also can focus attention on different aspects of the options
- **Duflo, Gale, Liebman, Orszag, and Saez (QJE 2006):** Field Experiment with H&R Block
 - Examine participation in IRAs for low- and middle-income households
 - Estimate impact of a match
- Field experiment:
 - Random sub-sample of H&R Block customers are offered one of 3 options:
 - * No match
 - * 20 percent match
 - * 50 percent match

- Match refers to first \$1,000 contributed to an IRA
- Effect on take-up rate:
 - * No match (2.9 percent)
 - * 20 percent match (7.7 percent)
 - * 50 percent match (14.0 percent)
- Match rates have substantial impact

- Framing aspect: Compare response to explicit match to response to a comparable match induced by tax credits in the Saver's Tax Credit program
 - Effective match rate for IRA contributions decreases from 100 percent to 25 percent at the \$30,000 household income threshold
 - Compare IRA participation for
 - * Households slightly below the threshold (\$27,500-\$30,000)
 - * Households slight above the threshold (\$30,000-\$32,500)
 - Estimate difference-in-difference relative to households in the same income groups that are ineligible for program
 - Result: Difference in match rate lowers contributions by only 1.3 percentage points → Much smaller than in H&R Block field experiment
- Why framing difference? Simplicity of H&R Block match → Attention
- Implication: Consider behavioral factors in design of public policy

7 Menu Effects: Introduction

- Summary of Limited Attention:
 - Too little weight on opaque dimension (*Science* article, shipping cost, posted price, right digits, news to customers, indirect link, distant future)
 - Too much weight on salient dimension (*NYT* article, auction price, left digits, recent returns or volume)
- Any other examples?

- We now consider a specific context: **Choice from Menu N** (typically, **with large N**)
 - Health insurance plans
 - Savings plans
 - Politicians on a ballot
 - Stocks or mutual funds
 - Type of Contract (Ex: no. of minutes per month for cell phones)
 - Classes
 - Charities
 - ...

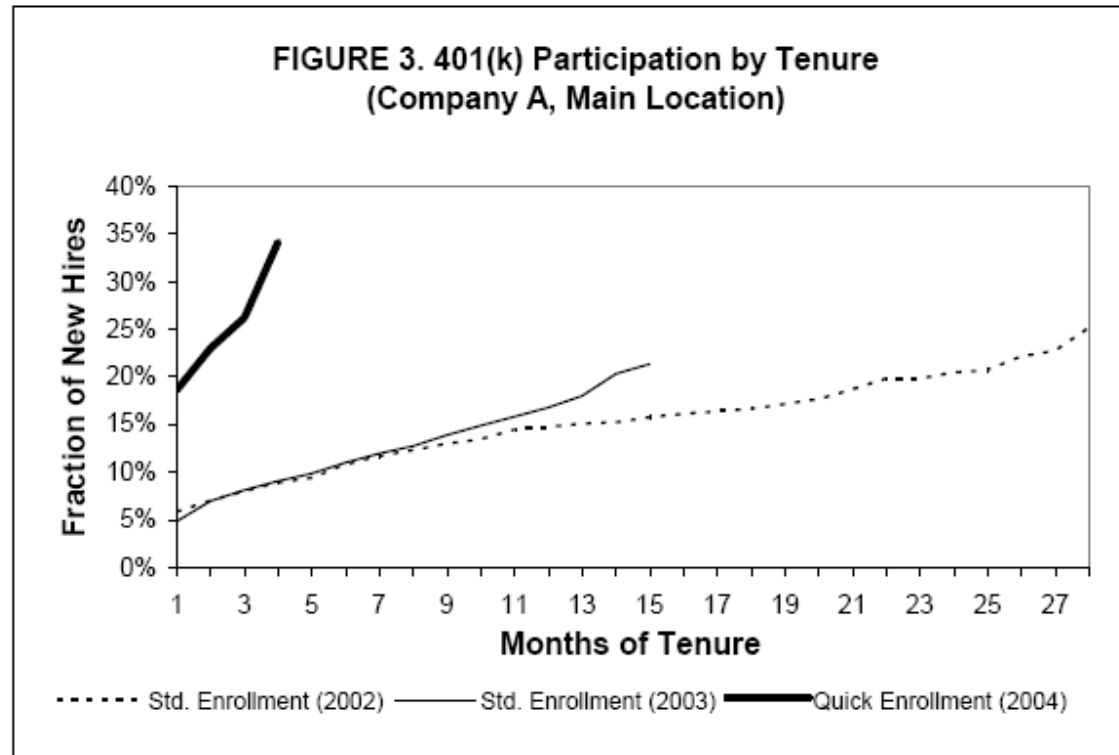
- We explore 4 +1 (non-rational) heuristics
 1. Excess Diversification (EXTRA material)
 2. Choice Avoidance
 3. Preference for Familiar
 4. Preference for Salient
 5. Confusion
- Heuristics 1-4 deal with difficulty of choice in menu
 - Related to bounded rationality: Cannot process complex choice → Find heuristic solution
- Heuristic 5 – Random confusion in choice from menu

8 Menu Effects: Choice Avoidance

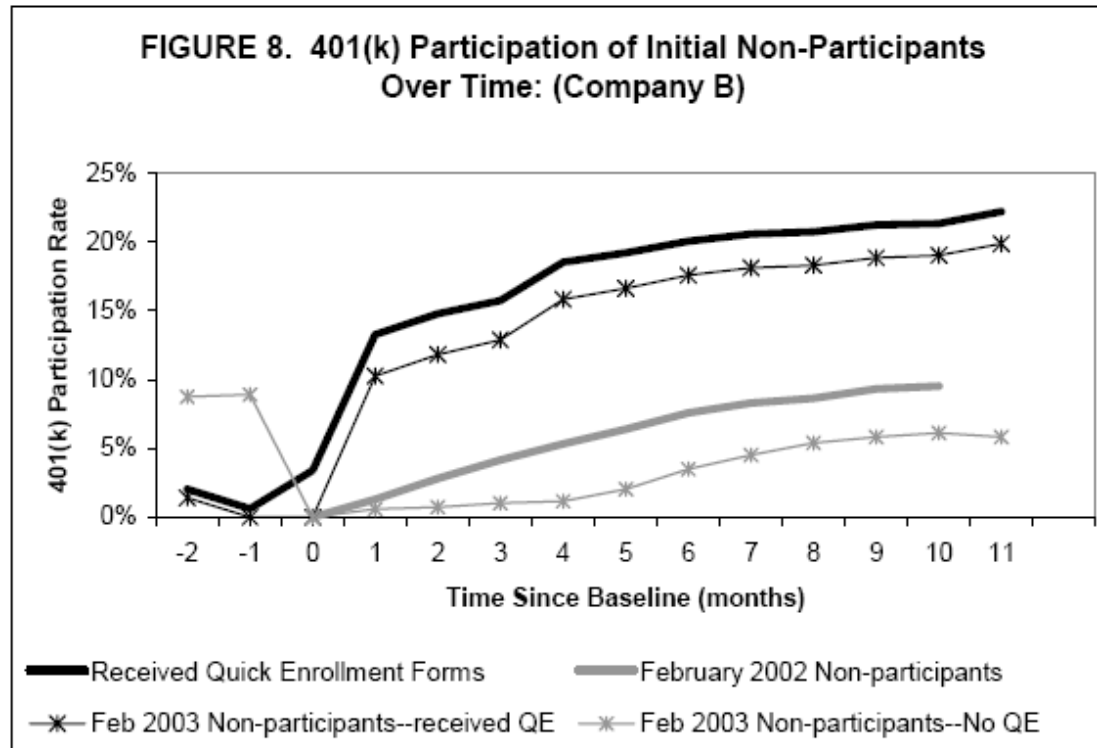
- Heuristic: Refusal to choose with choice overload
- **Choice Avoidance.** Classical Experiment (**Yiengar-Lepper, JPSP 2000**)
 - Up-scale grocery store in Palo Alto
 - Randomization across time of day of number of jams displayed for taste
 - * Small number: 6 jams
 - * Large number: 24 jams
 - Results:
 - * More consumers sample with Large no. of jams (145 vs. 104 customers)
 - * *Fewer* consumers buy with Large no. of jams (4 vs. 31 customers)

- Field evidence 2: **Choi-Laibson-Madrian (2006)**: Natural experiment
- Introduce in company A of Quick Enrollment
 - Previously: Default no savings
 - 7/2003: Quick Enrollment Card:
 - * Simplified investment choice: 1 Savings Plan
 - * Deadline of 2 weeks
 - In practice: Examine from 2/2004

- Company B:
 - Previously: Default no savings
 - 1/2003: Quick Enrollment Card
- Notice: This affects
 - Simplicity of choice
 - But also cost of investing + deadline (self-control)



- 15 to 20 percentage point increase in participation – Large effect
- Increase in participation all on opt-in plan



- Very similar effect for Company B

- What is the effect due to?
- Increase may be due to a reminder effect of the card
- However, in other settings, reminders are not very powerful.
- Example: Choi-Laibson-Madrian (2005):
 - Sent a survey including 5 questions on the benefits of employer match
 - Treatment group: 345 employees that were not taking advantage of the match
 - Control group: 344 employees received the same survey except for the 5 specific questions.
 - Treatment had no significant effect on the savings rate.

- Field Evidence 2: **Bertrand, Karlan, Mullainathan, Shafir, Zinman (QJE 2010)**
- Field Experiment in South Africa
 - South African lender sends 50,000 letters with offers of credit
 - Randomization of interest rate (economic variable)
 - Randomization of psychological variables
 - Crossed Randomization: Randomize independently on each of the n dimensions
 - * Plus: Use most efficiently data
 - * Minus: Can easily lose control of randomization

Table 2
Summary of Randomized Interventions^a

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Sample:	All	Customers who did not take up	Customers who took up	“High attention” customer	“Low attention” customer
September wave	0.395 (0.49)	0.394 (0.49)	0.401 (0.49)	0.398 (0.49)	0.393 (0.49)
October wave	0.605 (0.49)	0.606 (0.49)	0.599 (0.49)	0.602 (0.49)	0.607 (0.49)
Offer Interest Rate	7.929 (2.42)	7.985 (2.42)	7.233 (2.31)	6.970 (2.11)	8.384 (2.43)
Small option table	0.432 (0.50)	0.438 (0.50)	0.349 (0.48)	0.250 (0.43)	0.518 (0.50)
No comparison to competitor	0.200 (0.40)	0.200 (0.40)	0.200 (0.40)	0.202 (0.40)	0.199 (0.40)
comparison expressed as a gain	0.401 (0.49)	0.400 (0.49)	0.408 (0.49)	0.397 (0.49)	0.403 (0.49)
No photo on mailing	0.202 (0.40)	0.202 (0.40)	0.206 (0.40)	0.198 (0.40)	0.204 (0.40)
Black photo	0.477 (0.50)	0.477 (0.50)	0.476 (0.50)	0.488 (0.50)	0.472 (0.50)
Coloured photo	0.071 (0.26)	0.071 (0.26)	0.071 (0.26)	0.072 (0.26)	0.071 (0.26)
Indian photo	0.125 (0.33)	0.125 (0.33)	0.122 (0.33)	0.123 (0.33)	0.126 (0.33)
White photo	0.124 (0.33)	0.124 (0.33)	0.125 (0.33)	0.120 (0.32)	0.127 (0.33)
Female photo	0.399 (0.49)	0.398 (0.49)	0.411 (0.49)	0.398 (0.49)	0.399 (0.49)
Male photo	0.399 (0.49)	0.400 (0.49)	0.383 (0.49)	0.404 (0.49)	0.397 (0.49)
Photo matches customer’s race?	0.534 (0.50)	0.535 (0.50)	0.531 (0.50)	0.537 (0.50)	0.533 (0.50)
Photo matches customer’s gender?	0.401 (0.49)	0.402 (0.49)	0.388 (0.49)	0.403 (0.49)	0.400 (0.49)
Promotional lottery	0.250 (0.43)	0.251 (0.43)	0.246 (0.43)	0.250 (0.43)	0.251 (0.43)
Suggestion call	0.003 (0.05)	0.003 (0.05)	0.005 (0.07)	0.003 (0.05)	0.003 (0.05)
Sample	53194	49250	3944	17108	36086

- Manipulation of interest here:
 - Vary number of options of repayment presented
 - * Small Table: Single Repayment option
 - * Big Table 1: 4 loan sizes, 4 Repayment options, 1 interest rate
 - * Big Table 2: 4 loan sizes, 4 Repayment options, 3 interest rates
 - * Explicit statement that “other loan sizes and terms were available”
 - Compare Small Table to other Table sizes
 - Small Table increases Take-Up Rate by .603 percent
 - One additional point of (monthly) interest rate decreases take-up by .258

**Table 3 Effect of Simplicity
of Offer Description on Take-Up^a**

Dependent Variable: Take-Up Dummy			
Sample:	All	High attention	Low attention
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Small option table	0.603 (0.239)	1.146 (0.674)	0.407 (0.219)
Δ interest rate equivalent	[2.337]	[3.570]	[1.887]
Interest rate	-0.258 (0.049)	-0.321 (0.145)	-0.215 (0.044)
Risk category F.E.?	yes	yes	yes
Experimental wave F.E.?	yes	yes	yes
Sample size	53194	17108	36086

- Small-option Table increases take-up by equivalent of 2.33 pct. interest

- Strong effect of behavioral factor, compared with effect of interest rate
- Effect larger for 'High-Attention' group (borrow at least twice in the past, once within 8 months)
- Authors also consider effect of a number of other psychological variables:
 - Content of photo (large effect of female photo on male take-up)
 - Promotional lottery (no effect)
 - Deadline for loan (reduces take-up)

9 Menu Effects: Preference for Familiar

- Third Heuristic: Preference for items that are more familiar
- Choice of stocks by individual investors (**French-Poterba, AER 1991**)
 - Allocation in domestic equity: Investors in the USA: 94%
 - Explanation 1: US equity market is reasonably close to world equity market
 - BUT: Japan allocation: 98%
 - BUT: UK allocation: 82%
- Explanation 2: Preference for own-country equity may be due to costs of investments in foreign assets

- Test: Examine within-country investment: **Huberman (RFS, 2001)**
 - Geographical distribution of shareholders of Regional Bell companies
 - Companies formed by separating the Bell monopoly
 - Fraction invested in the own-state Regional Bell is 82 percent higher than the fraction invested in the next Regional Bell company

- Third, extreme case: Preference for own-company stock
 - On average, employees invest 20-30 percent of their discretionary funds in employer stocks (**Benartzi JF, 2001**)

Number of plans	78	58	136
Mean: equally weighted	18	29	23
Mean: weighted by employee contributions	21	33	24
Mean: weighted by the number of active participants	21	31	24

- – Notice: This occurs despite the fact that the employees' human capital is already invested in their company
 - Also: This choice does not reflect private information about future performance
 - Companies where a higher proportion of employees invest in employer stock have lower subsequent one-year returns, compared to companies with a lower proportion of employee investment

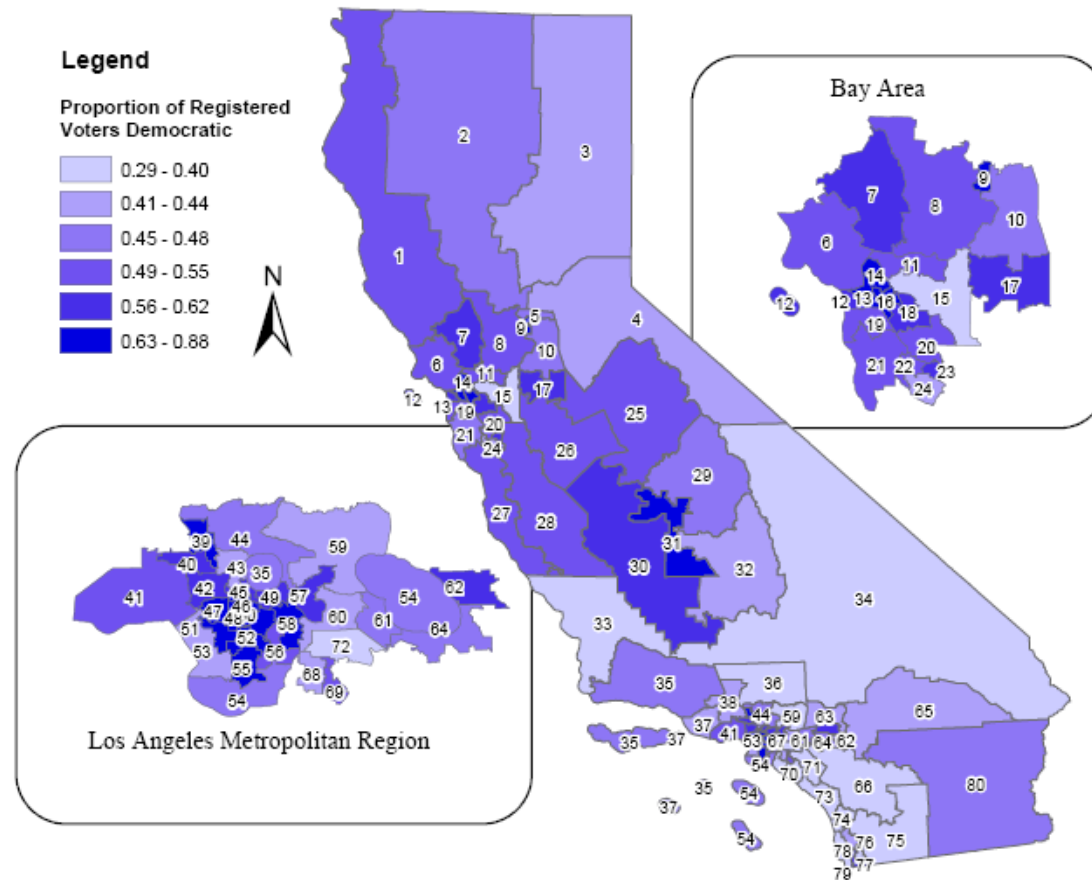
	Allocation to Company Stock					Observed Difference (5 - 1)
	(Low) 1	2	3	4	5 (High)	
Allocation to company stock as a percentage of discretionary contributions	4.59%	12.19%	19.34%	31.85%	53.90%	49.41%
One-year returns	6.64	6.55	1.27	-1.03	0.13	-6.77
Two-year returns	43.69	40.78	38.24	43.33	31.92	-11.77

- Possible Explanation? Ambiguity aversion
 - **Ellsberg (1961)** paradox:
 - Investors that are ambiguity-averse prefer:
 - * Investment with known distribution of returns
 - * To investment with unknown distribution
 - This occurs even if the average returns are the same for the two investments, and despite the benefits of diversification.

10 Menu Effects: Preference for Salient

- What happens with large set of options if decision-maker uninformed?
- Possibly use of irrelevant, but salient, information to choose
- **Ho-Imai (2004)**. Order of candidates on a ballot
 - Exploit randomization of ballot order in California
 - Years: 1978-2002, Data: 80 Assembly Districts
- Notice: Similar studies go back to **Bain-Hecock (1957)**

- Areas of randomization



- Use of randomized alphabet to determine first candidate on ballot

Year Election	Randomized Alphabet
1982 Primary	S C X D Q G W R V Y U A N H L P B K J I E T O M F Z
General	L S N D X A M W V T O F I B K Y U P E Q C J Z H R G
1983 Consolidated	L C P K I A U G Z O N B X D W H E M F V R S T Y Q J
1984 Primary	W M F B Q Y T D J U O V I K R H S N P C A E L Z G X
General	V W I H R Q G J O M T S Y C A F U X K B P E Z N D L
1986 General	Q N H U B J E G M V L W X C K O F D Z R Y I T S P A
1988 Primary	W O K N Q A V T H J F Z L B U D Y M I R G C E S X P
General	S W F M K J U Y A T V G O N Q B D E P L Z C I X R H
1990 Primary	E J B Y Q F K M O V X L N Z C W A P R D G T H I S U
General	W F C L D I N J H V K O S A R E Q B T M Y U G Z X P
1992 Primary	U R F A J C D N M K P Z Y X G W O H E B I S V L Q T
General	F Y U A J S B Z G O E Q R L I M H V N T P D K X C W
1994 Primary	K J H G A M I Q U N C Z S W V R P Y B L O T D F E X
General	V I A E M S O K L B G N W Y D P U F Z Q J X C R H T
1996 Primary	G E F C Y P D B Z I V A U S M L H K N T O J Q R X W
General	J Y E P A U S Q B H T R K N L X F D O G M W I Z C V
1998 Primary	L W U J X K C N D O Q A P T Z R Y F E V B H G I M S
General	W K D N V A G P Y C Z I S T L J X Q O F H R B U M E
2000 Primary	O P C Y I H X Z V R S Q E K L G D W J U T M B F A N
General	I T F G J S W R N M K U Y L D C Q A H X O E B V P Z
2002 Primary	W I Z C O M A Q U K X E B Y N P T R L V S J H D F G
General	H M V P E B Q U G N D K X Z J A W Y C O S F I T R L
2003 Recall	R W Q O J M V A H B S G Z X N T C I E K U P D Y F L

Table 1: Randomized Alphabets Used for the California Statewide Elections Since 1982.

- Observe each candidate in different orders in different districts
- Compute absolute vote (Y) gain

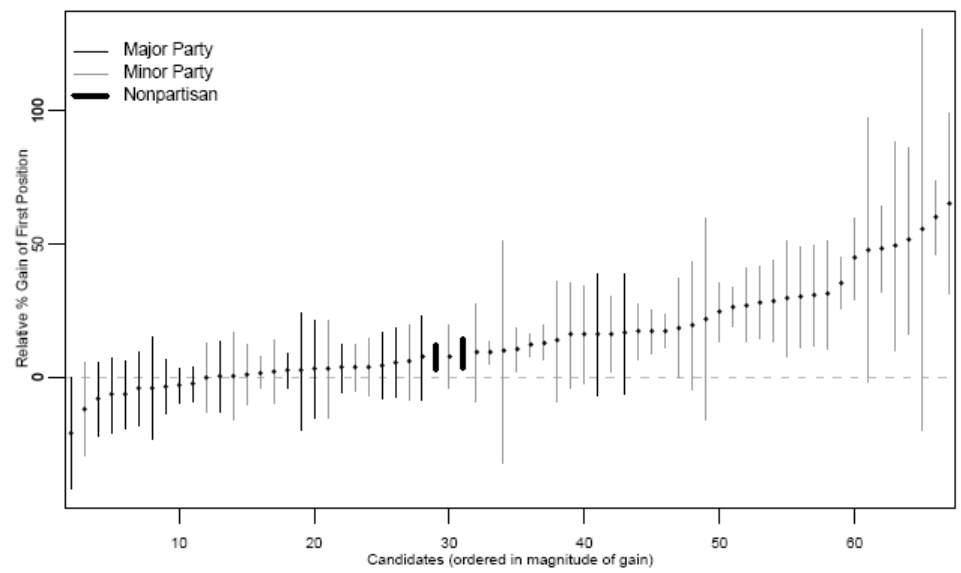
$$E [Y (i = 1) - Y (i \neq 1)]$$

and percentage vote gain

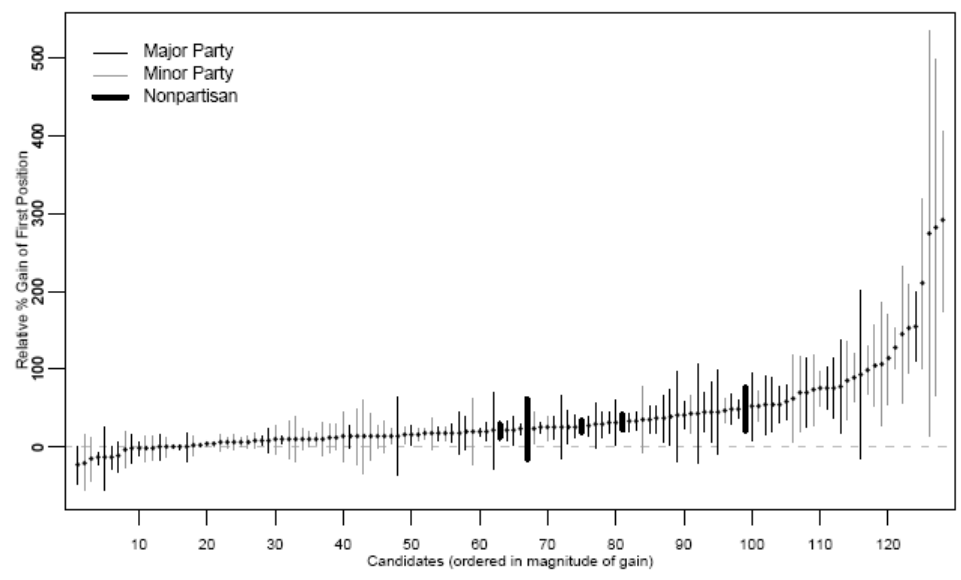
$$E [Y (i = 1) - Y (i \neq 1)] / E [Y (i \neq 1)]$$

- Result:
 - Small to no effect for major candidates
 - Large effects on minor candidates

General Election 1998 & 2000



Primary Elections, 1998 & 2000



	General				Primary			
	Absolute		Relative		Absolute		Relative	
	ATE	SE	ATE	SE	ATE	SE	ATE	SE
Democratic	0.05	0.46	0.25	0.90	1.89	0.32	43.58	5.53
Republican	-0.06	0.53	-0.43	1.29	2.16	0.46	33.62	5.91
American Independent	0.16	0.02	20.83	1.39	2.33	0.15	26.76	3.55
Green	0.56	0.17	21.18	5.82	3.15	1.16	6.24	3.54
Libertarian	0.23	0.02	14.56	1.03	6.59	1.42	71.92	13.55
Natural Law	0.31	0.06	26.13	2.85	0.40	0.08	44.78	5.45
Peace and Freedom	0.28	0.03	25.49	2.15	6.31	0.53	14.75	1.43
Reform	0.26	0.07	19.57	2.23	4.11	1.56	48.45	9.66
Nonpartisan	1.95	0.30	9.21	3.31	3.44	0.78	19.42	4.05

Table 3: Party-Specific Average Causal Effects of Being Listed in First Position on Ballots Using All Races from 1978 to 2002. ATE and SE represent the average causal effects and their standard errors, respectively. For general and primary elections, the left two columns present the estimates of average absolute gains in terms of the total or party vote, respectively, while the right two columns show those of average relative gains. Each candidate-specific effect is averaged over different races to obtain the overall average effect for each party. In general elections, only minor party and nonpartisan candidates are affected by the ballot order. In primaries, however, the candidates of all parties are affected. The largest effects are found for nonpartisan candidates.

- **Barber-Odean (2008)**. Investor with limited attention
 - Stocks in portfolio: Monitor continuously
 - Other stocks: Monitor extreme deviations (*saliency*)
- Which stocks to purchase? High-attention (salient) stocks. On days of high attention, stocks have
 - Demand increase
 - No supply increase
 - Increase in net demand

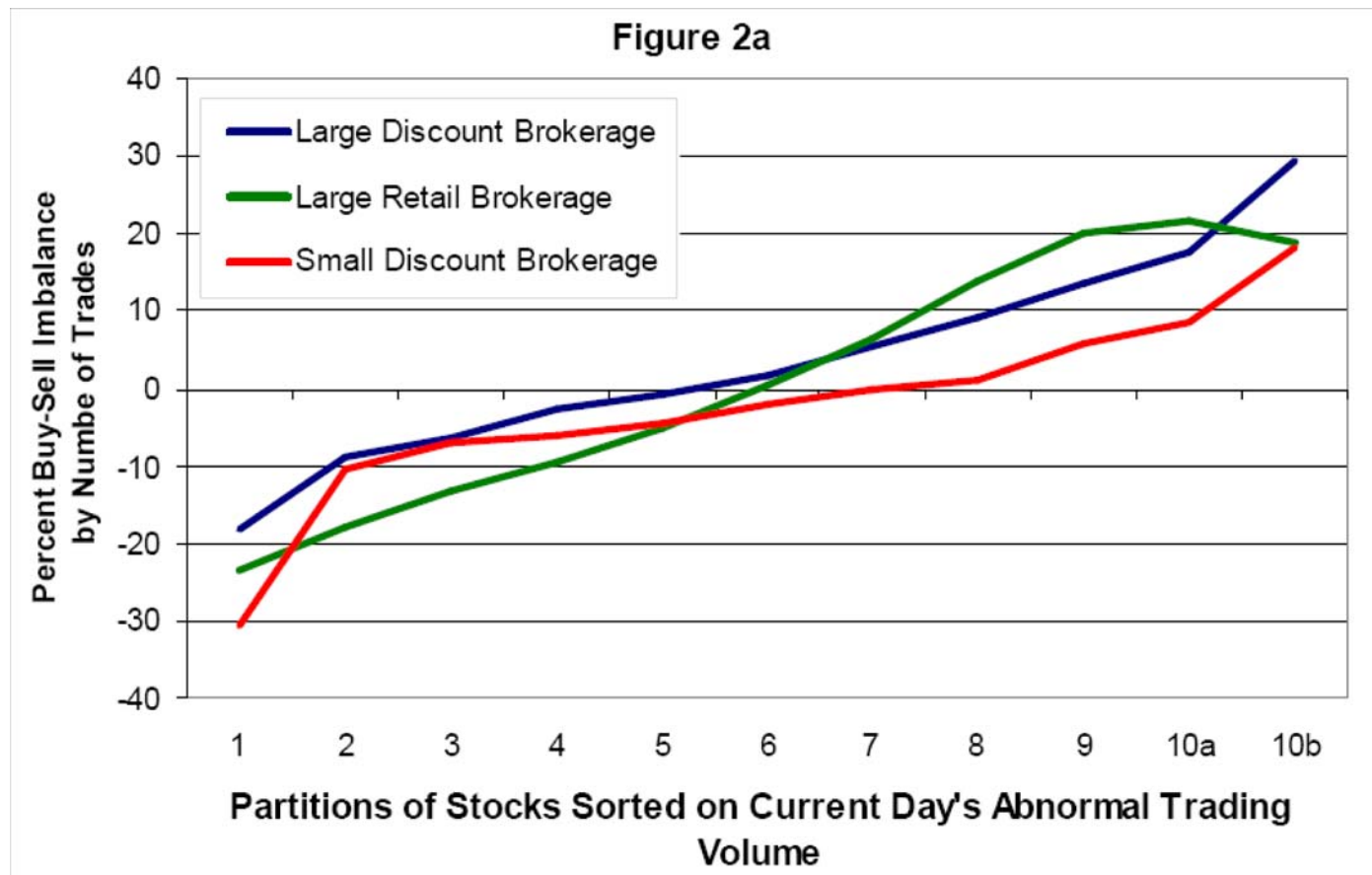
- Heterogeneity:
 - Small investors with limited attention attracted to salient stocks
 - Institutional investors less prone to limited attention
- Market interaction: Small investors are:
 - Net buyers of high-attention stocks
 - Net sellers of low-attention stocks.
- Measure of net buying is Buy-Sell Imbalance:

$$BSI_t = 100 * \frac{\sum_i NetBuy_{i,t} - \sum_i NetSell_{i,t}}{\sum_i NetBuy_{i,t} + \sum_i NetSell_{i,t}}$$

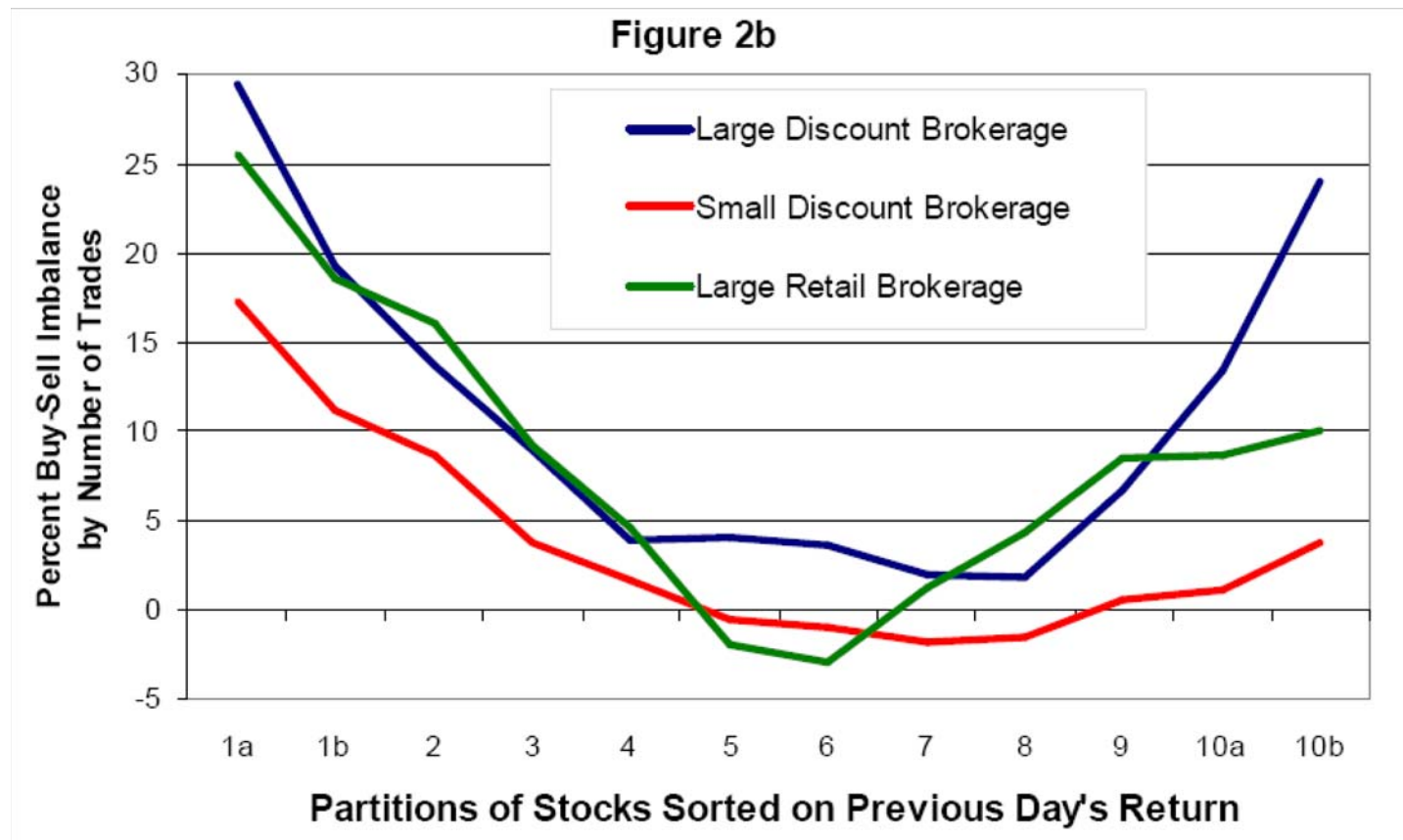
- Notice: Unlike in most financial data sets, here use of individual trading data
- In fact: No obvious prediction on prices
- Measures of attention:
 - same-day (abnormal) volume V_t
 - previous-day return r_{t-1}
 - stock in the news (Using Dow Jones news service)

- Use of sorting methodology
 - Sort variable (V_t, r_{t-1}) and separate into equal-sized bins (in this case, deciles)
 - * Example: $V_t^1, V_t^2, V_t^3, \dots, V_t^{10a}, V_t^{10b}$
 - * (Finer sorting at the top to capture top 5 percent)
 - Classical approach in finance
 - Benefit: Measures variables in a non-parametric way
 - Cost: Loses some information and magnitude of variable

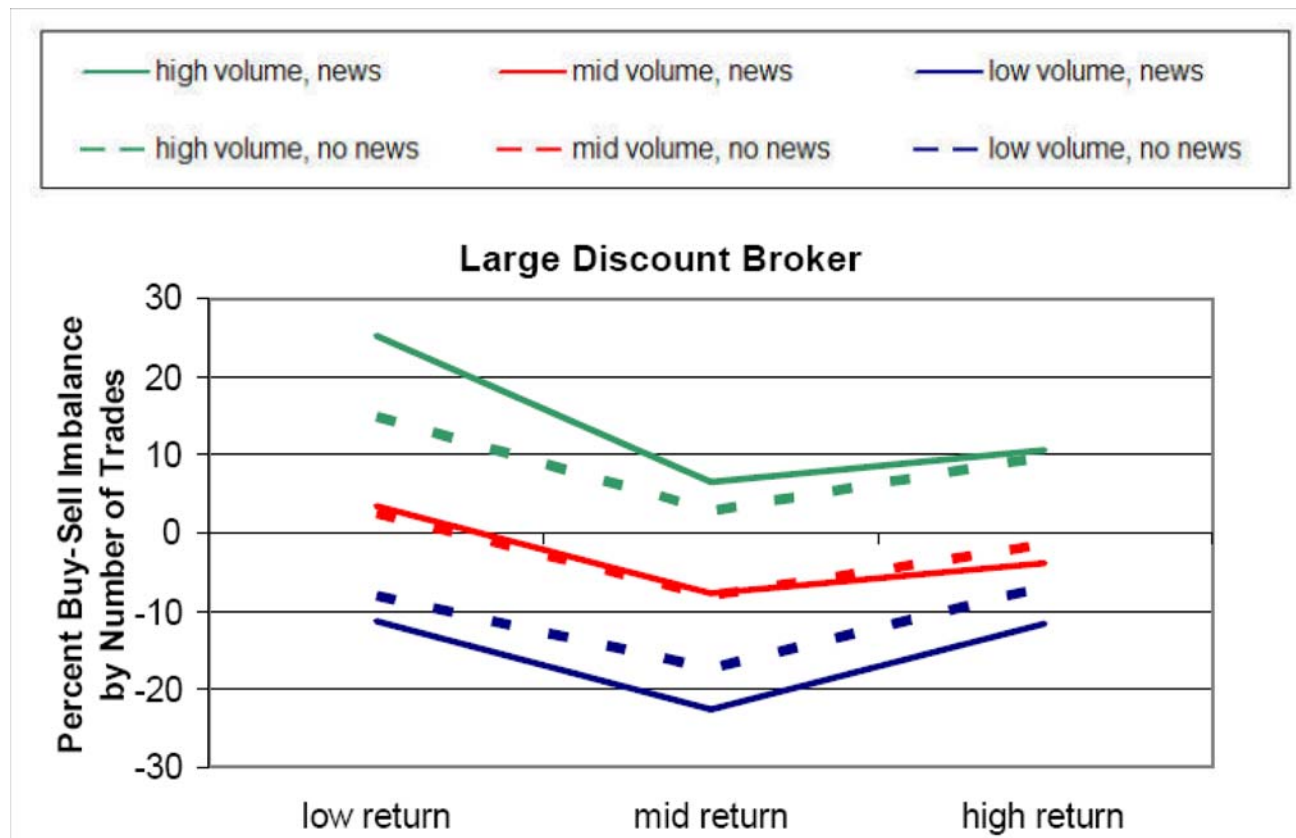
- Effect of same-day (abnormal) volume V_t monotonic (Volume captures 'attention')



- Effect of previous-day return r_{t-1} U-shaped
(Large returns—positive or negative—attract attention)



- Notice: Pattern is consistent across different data sets of investor trading
- Figures 2a and 2b are 'univariate' — Figure 3 is 'multivariate'



- Patterns are the opposite for institutional investors (Fund managers)

Figure 2b

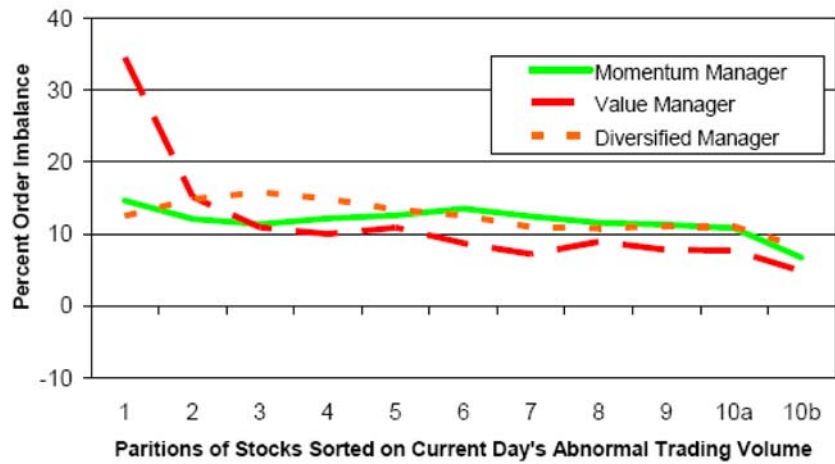
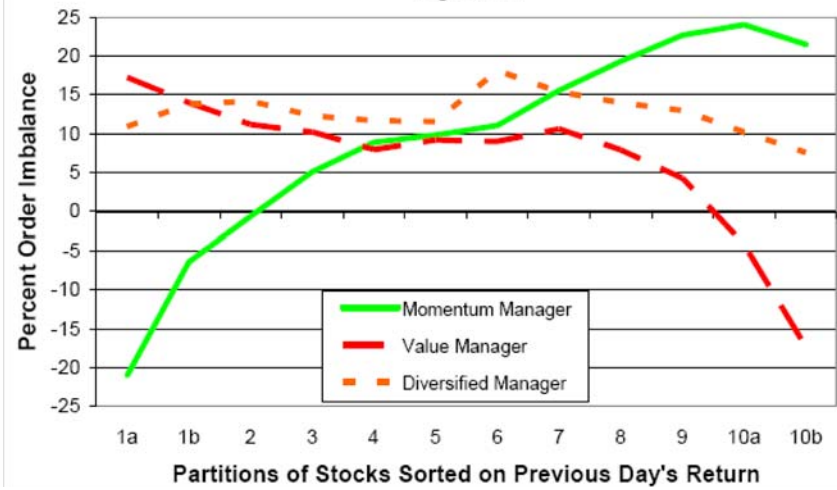


Figure 3b



- Alternative interpretations of results:
- Small investors own few stocks, face short-selling constraints
- (To sell a stock you do not own you need to borrow it first, then you sell it, and then you need to buy it back at end of lending period)
- If new information about the stock:
 - buy if positive news
 - do nothing otherwise
- If no new information about the stock:
 - no trade
- Large investors are not constrained

- Study pattern for stocks that investors already own

Panel A: Buy-sell imbalance for Stocks Already Owned Sorted on Current Day's Abnormal Trading Volume.

Decile	Large Discount Brokerage		Large Retail Brokerage		Small Discount Brokerage	
	Number Imbalance	Value Imbalance	Number Imbalance	Value Imbalance	Number Imbalance	Value Imbalance
1 (lowest volume)	-54.22 (1.43)	-55.64 (1.89)	-28.74 (1.42)	-33.99 (1.84)	-24.25 (6.28)	-33.22 (7.58)
2	-51.13 (0.78)	-53.20 (1.07)	-29.46 (1.09)	-34.09 (1.36)	-33.80 (3.18)	-29.67 (4.47)
3	-48.27 (0.64)	-49.69 (0.95)	-29.54 (1.04)	-31.25 (1.31)	-31.76 (1.71)	-30.05 (2.44)
4	-47.19 (0.56)	-49.51 (0.88)	-28.69 (0.94)	-32.96 (1.11)	-35.65 (1.26)	-33.93 (1.96)
5	-45.95 (0.53)	-47.59 (0.81)	-26.71 (0.90)	-31.04 (1.07)	-32.34 (1.12)	-30.01 (1.63)
6	-45.01 (0.49)	-48.65 (0.71)	-24.32 (0.90)	-29.71 (1.04)	-30.00 (0.97)	-26.50 (1.42)
7	-42.36 (0.50)	-45.85 (0.71)	-21.83 (0.84)	-30.29 (0.89)	-29.85 (0.95)	-26.21 (1.33)
8	-39.43 (0.51)	-43.75 (0.71)	-18.72 (0.81)	-27.21 (0.87)	-28.20 (0.87)	-26.23 (1.22)
9	-35.64 (0.52)	-40.68 (0.70)	-15.45 (0.78)	-21.79 (0.91)	-27.07 (0.85)	-24.99 (1.21)
10a	-33.03 (0.63)	-39.31 (0.85)	-12.27 (0.97)	-19.97 (1.12)	-26.81 (1.06)	-27.99 (1.42)
10b (highest volume)	-24.97 (0.69)	-32.82 (0.92)	-15.01 (1.04)	-20.04 (1.19)	-17.32 (0.98)	-19.38 (1.42)

11 Next Lecture

- Menu Effects:
 - Confusion
- Persuasion
- Emotions: Mood