

Chapter 8 Further Topics in Moral Hazard

8.1 Efficiency Wages

- ◆ The aim of an incentive contract is to create a difference between the agent's expected payoff from right and wrong actions.
 - Either with the stick of punishment or the carrot of reward

- ◆ The Lucky Executive Game
 - Players
 - ✓ a corporation (the principal) and an executive (the agent)

- The order of play
 - 1 The corporation offers the executive a contract which pays $w(q) \geq 0$ depending on profit, q .
 - 2 The executive decides whether to accept or reject the contract.
 - 3 If the executive accepts, he exerts effort e of either 0 or 10.
 - 4 Nature chooses profit according to the table below.

- Payoffs
 - ✓ Both players are risk neutral.
 - ✓ If the executive rejects the contract, then $\pi_{agent} = \bar{U} = 5$ and $\pi_{principal} = 0$.
 - ✓ If the executive accepts the contract, then $\pi_{agent} = U(e, w(q)) = w(q) - e$ and $\pi_{principal} = q - w(q)$.

✓ Probabilities of Profits in the Lucky Executive Game

	<i>Low profit ($q = 0$)</i>	<i>High profit ($q = 400$)</i>
<i>Low effort ($e = 0$)</i>	0.5	0.5
<i>High effort ($e = 10$)</i>	0.1	0.9

- ◆ Optimal contracts when the principal and the agent have the same information set and all variables are contractible

- ✓ The principal can observe effort.

- The optimal effort level

- ✓ $e^* = 10$

- Wage w^*

- ✓ $0.1U(e^*, w^*) + 0.9U(e^*, w^*) = \bar{U}$

- $0.1(w^* - 10) + 0.9(w^* - 10) = 5$

- $w^* = 15$

- Payoffs π_{agent}^* and $\pi_{principal}^*$

- ✓ $\pi_{agent}^* = 5$

- ✓ $\pi_{principal}^* = 0.1(0 - 15) + 0.9(400 - 15) = 345$

- Contracts

◆ Is a first-best contract feasible?

○ The participation constraint

✓ $\pi_{agent}(\text{High effort}) = 0.1\{w(0) - 10\} + 0.9\{w(400) - 10\} \geq \bar{U}$

✓ The agent's expected wage must equal 15.

$$0.1w(0) + 0.9w(400) = 15$$

○ The incentive compatibility constraint

✓ $\pi_{agent}(\text{High effort}) \geq \pi_{agent}(\text{Low effort})$

$$0.1\{w(0) - 10\} + 0.9\{w(400) - 10\} \geq 0.5w(0) + 0.5w(400)$$

$$w(400) - w(0) \geq 25$$

- ✓ The gap between the agent's wage for high profit and low profit must equal at least 25.
- A contract that satisfies both constraints is $\{w(0) = -345, w(400) = 55\}$.
 - ✓ The agent exerts high effort: $e = 10$.
 - ✓ The agent's expected wage is 15.
 - ✓ The agent's expected payoff (or utility) is 5.
 - ✓ The principal's expected payoff is 345.
 - ✓ The first-best can be achieved by selling the store, putting the entire risk on the agent.

- But this contract is not feasible, because the game requires $w(q) \geq 0$.
- ✓ This is an example of the common and realistic bankruptcy constraint.
- ✓ The principal cannot punish the agent by taking away more than the agent owns in the first place – zero in the Lucky Executive Game.

- ◆ What can be done is to use the carrot instead of the stick and abandon satisfying the participation constraint as an equality.
 - The incentive compatibility constraint
 - √ $\pi_{agent} (High\ effort) \geq \pi_{agent} (Low\ effort)$
 $w(400) - w(0) \geq 25$
 - The principal can use the contract $\{w(0) = 0, w(400) = 25\}$ and induce high effort.
 - The agent's expected utility is 12.5, more than double his reservation utility of 5.

- The principal's expected payoff is 337.5.
 - ✓ If the principal paid a lower expected wage, then the agent would exert low effort, and the principal would get 195.

- Since high enough punishments are infeasible, the principal has to use higher rewards.
 - ✓ The principal is willing to abandon a tight participation constraint.

- ◆ The two parts of the idea of the efficiency wage
 - The employer pays a wage higher than that needed to attract workers.
 - Workers are willing to be unemployed in order to get a chance at the efficiency-wage job.

8.2 Tournaments

- ◆ Games in which relative performance is important are called tournaments.
 - Like auctions, tournaments are especially useful when the principal wants to elicit information from the agents.
 - A principal-designed tournament is sometimes called a yardstick competition because the agents provide the measure for their wages.

- ◆ Farrell (2001) makes a subtler point:

Although the shareholders of a monopoly maximize profit, the managers maximize their own utility, and moral hazard is severe without the benchmark of other firms' performances.

◆ The Firm Apex Game

○ Players

✓ the shareholders (the principal) and the manager (the agent)

○ The order of play

1 The shareholders offer the manager a contract which pays $w(c)$ depending on production cost, c .

2 The manager decides whether to accept or reject the contract.

3 The firm has two possible production techniques, *Fast* and *Careful*.

Nature chooses production cost according to the table below.

- 4 If the manager accepts the contract, he chooses a technique without investigating the costs of both techniques or does so after investigating them at a utility cost to himself of α .
- 5 The shareholders can observe the production technique chosen by the manager and the resulting production cost, but not whether the manager investigates.

○ Payoffs

- ✓ If the manager rejects the contract, then $\pi_{agent} = \bar{U} = \log \bar{w}$ and $\pi_{principal} = 0$.
- ✓ If the manager accepts the contract,

$$\pi_{agent} = \begin{cases} \log w(c) & \text{if he does not investigate} \\ \log w(c) - \alpha & \text{if he investigates} \end{cases}$$

$$\pi_{principal} = ? - w(c)$$

✓ Probabilities of Production Costs in the Firm Apex Game

	<i>Low cost ($c = 1$)</i>	<i>High cost ($c = 2$)</i>
<i>Fast technique</i>	θ	$1 - \theta$
<i>Careful technique</i>	θ	$1 - \theta$

- ◆ The contract must satisfy the incentive compatibility constraint and the participation constraint.

- $w_1 \equiv w(1)$ and $w_2 \equiv w(2)$

- The incentive compatibility constraint

- ✓ $\pi_{agent}(\textit{Investigate}) \geq \pi_{agent}(\textit{Not investigate})$

$$\{1 - (1 - \theta)^2\} \{\log w_1 - \alpha\} + (1 - \theta)^2 \{\log w_2 - \alpha\}$$

$$\geq \theta \log w_1 + (1 - \theta) \log w_2$$

- ✓ It is binding since the shareholders want to keep the manager's compensation to a minimum.

$$\theta(1 - \theta) \log (w_1/w_2) = \alpha$$

- The participation constraint

- ✓ $\pi_{agent}(\text{Investigate}) = \bar{U}$

- $$\{1 - (1 - \theta)^2\} \log w_1 + (1 - \theta)^2 \log w_2 = \log \bar{w}$$

- ✓ It is binding.

- The contract that satisfies both constraints is

- $$w_1^0 = \bar{w} \exp(\alpha/\theta)$$

- and

- $$w_2^0 = \bar{w} \exp\{-\alpha/(1 - \theta)\}.$$

- The expected cost to the firm is

$$\{1 - (1 - \theta)^2\} w_1^0 + (1 - \theta)^2 w_2^0.$$

- ✓ Assume that $\theta = 0.1$, $\alpha = 1$, and $\bar{w} = 1$.

Then the rounded values are $w_1^0 = 22.026$ and $w_2^0 = 0.33$.

- ✓ The expected cost to the firm is 4.185.
- ✓ Quite possibly, the shareholders decide it is not worth making the manager investigate.

◆ The Apex and Brydox Game

- The shareholders of each firm can threaten to boil their manager in oil if the other firm adopts a low-cost technology and their firm does not.

- Apex's forcing contract specifies

$w_1 = w_2$ to fully insure the manager,

and

boiling-in-oil if Brydox has lower costs than Apex.

- ✓ The contract need satisfy only the participation constraint that

$$\log w - \alpha = \bar{U} = \log \bar{w}.$$

✓ Assume that $\theta = 0.1$, $\alpha = 1$, and $\bar{w} = 1$.

Then $w = 2.72$, and

Apex's cost of extracting the manager's information is only 2.72, not 4.185.

- Competition raises efficiency, not through the threat of firms going bankrupt but through the threat of managers being fired.

◆ Tournaments

- Situations where competition between two agents can be used to simplify the optimal contract

8.3 Institutions and Agency Problems

◆ Ways to Alleviate Agency Problems

✓ When agents are risk averse, the first-best cannot be achieved.

- Reputation
- Risk-sharing contracts
- Boiling in oil
- Selling the store
- Efficiency wages
- Tournaments

- Monitoring
- Repetition
- Changing the type of the agent

- ◆ Government Institutions and Agency Problems
 - Who should bear the cost of an accident, the pedestrian or the driver?
 - ✓ Who has the most severe moral hazard?
 - ✓ the least-cost avoider principle
 - Criminal law is also concerned with tradeoffs between incentives and insurance.

◆ Private Institutions and Agency Problems

- Agency theory also helps explain the development of many curious private institutions.
- Having a zero marginal cost of computer time is a way around the moral hazard of slacking on research.
- Longterm contracts are an important occasion for moral hazard, since so many variables are unforeseen, and hence noncontractible.
 - ✓ The term opportunism has been used to describe the behavior of agents who take advantage of noncontractibility to increase their payoff at the expense of the principal.
 - ✓ hold-up potential

◆ It should be clear from the variety of these examples that moral hazard is a common problem.

8.4 Renegotiation: The Repossession Game

- ◆ The players have signed a binding contract, but in a subsequent subgame, both might agree to scrap the old contract and write a new one, using the old contract as a starting point in their negotiations.

- ◆ Here we use a model of hidden actions to illustrate renegotiation, a model in which a bank that wants to lend money to a consumer to buy a car must worry about whether he will work hard enough to repay the loan.
 - As we will see, the outcome is Pareto superior if renegotiation is not possible.

◆ Repossession Game I

○ Players

✓ a bank and a consumer

○ The order of play

- 1 The bank can do nothing or it can at cost 11 offer the consumer an auto loan which allows him to buy a car that costs 11, but requires him to pay back L or lose possession of the car to the bank.
- 2 The consumer accepts the loan and buys the car, or rejects it.
- 3 The consumer chooses to *Work*, for an income of 15, or *Play*, for an income of 8. The disutility of work is 5.

4 The consumer repays the loan or defaults.

5 If the bank has not been paid L , it repossesses the car.

○ Payoffs

✓ If the consumer chooses *Work*,
his income is $W = 15$ and his disutility of effort is $D = 5$.

✓ If the consumer chooses *Play*, then $W = 8$ and $D = 0$.

✓ If the bank does not make any loan or the consumer rejects it,
the bank's payoff is zero and the consumer's payoff is $W - D$.

✓ The value of the car is 12 to the consumer and 7 to the bank,
so the bank's payoff if the loan is made is

$$\pi_{bank} = \begin{array}{ll} L - 11 & \text{if the loan is repaid} \\ 7 - 11 & \text{if the car is repossessed.} \end{array}$$

✓ The consumer's payoff is

$$\pi_{consumer} = \begin{array}{ll} W + 12 - L - D & \text{if the loan is repaid} \\ W - D & \text{if the car is repossessed.} \end{array}$$

- The model allows commitment in the sense of legally binding agreements over transfers of money and wealth but it does not allow the consumer to commit directly to *Work*.
- It does not allow renegotiation.

◆ In equilibrium

- The bank's strategy is to offer $L = 12$.
- The consumer's strategy
 - ✓ *Accept* if $L \leq 12$
 - ✓ *Work* if $L \leq 12$ and he has accepted the loan or if he has rejected the loan (or if the bank does not make any loan)
 - ✓ *Repay* if $W + 12 - L - D \geq W - D$
- The equilibrium outcome is that the bank offers $L = 12$, the consumer accepts, he works, and he repays the loan.

- The bank's equilibrium payoff is 1.
- This outcome is efficient because the consumer does buy the car, which he values at more than its cost to the car dealer.
- The bank ends up with the surplus, because of our assumption that the bank has all the bargaining power over the terms of the loan.

◆ Repossession Game II

○ Players

✓ a bank and a consumer

○ The order of play

- 1 The bank can do nothing or it can at cost 11 offer the consumer an auto loan which allows him to buy a car that costs 11, but requires him to pay back L or lose possession of the car to the bank.
- 2 The consumer accepts the loan and buys the car, or rejects it.
- 3 The consumer chooses to *Work*, for an income of 15, or *Play*, for an income of 8. The disutility of work is 5.

- 4 The consumer repays the loan or defaults.
 - 4a The bank offers to settle for an amount S and leave possession of the car to the consumer.
 - 4b The consumer accepts or rejects the settlement S .
- 5 If the bank has not been paid L or S , it repossesses the car.

- Payoffs

- ✓ If the consumer chooses *Work*, his income is $W = 15$ and his disutility of effort is $D = 5$.
- ✓ If the consumer chooses *Play*, then $W = 8$ and $D = 0$.
- ✓ If the bank does not make any loan or the consumer rejects it, the bank's payoff is zero and the consumer's payoff is $W - D$.

- ✓ The value of the car is 12 to the consumer and 7 to the bank, so the bank's payoff if the loan is made is

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_{bank} = & L - 11 && \text{if the original loan is repaid} \\ & S - 11 && \text{if a settlement is made} \\ & 7 - 11 && \text{if the car is repossessed.}\end{aligned}$$

- ✓ The consumer's payoff is

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_{consumer} = & W + 12 - L - D && \text{if the original loan is repaid} \\ & W + 12 - S - D && \text{if a settlement is made} \\ & W - D && \text{if the car is repossessed.}\end{aligned}$$

- The model does allow renegotiation.

- ◆ In equilibrium
 - The equilibrium in Repossession Game I breaks down in Repossession Game II.
 - ✓ The consumer would deviate by choosing *Play*.
 - ✓ The bank chooses to renegotiate and offer $S = 8$.
 - ✓ The offer is accepted by the consumer.
 - ✓ Looking ahead to this, the bank refuses to make the loan.

- The bank's strategy in equilibrium
 - ✓ It does not offer a loan at all.
 - ✓ If it did offer a loan and the consumer accepted and defaulted, then it offers

$S = 12$ if the consumer chose *Work*

and

$S = 8$ if the consumer chose *Play*.

- The consumer's strategy in equilibrium
 - ✓ *Accept* any loan made, whatever the value of L
 - ✓ *Work* if he rejected the loan
(or if the bank does not make any loan)
 - Play and Default* otherwise
 - ✓ *Accept* a settlement offer of
 - $S = 12$ if he chose *Work*
 - and
 - $S = 8$ if he chose *Play*

- The equilibrium outcome is that the bank does not offer a loan and the consumer chooses *Work*.

- Renegotiation turns out to be harmful, because it results in an equilibrium in which the bank refuses to make the loan, reducing the payoffs of the bank and the consumer to $(0,10)$ instead of $(1,10)$.

✓ The gains from trade vanish.

◆ Renegotiation is paradoxical.

- In the subgame starting with consumer default, it increases efficiency, by allowing the players to make a Pareto improvement over an inefficient punishment.
- In the game as a whole, however, it reduces efficiency by preventing players from using punishments to deter inefficient actions.

- ◆ The Repossession Game illustrates other ideas too.
 - It is a game of perfect information, but it has the feel of a game of moral hazard with hidden actions.
 - This is because it has an implicit bankruptcy constraint, so that the contract cannot sufficiently punish the consumer for an inefficient choice of effort.
 - Restricting the strategy space has the same effect as restricting the information available to a player.
 - It is another example of the distinction between observability and contractibility.

8.5 State-Space Diagrams: Insurance Games I and II

- ◆ Suppose Smith (the agent) is considering buying theft insurance for a car with a value of 12.

- ◆ A state-space diagram
 - A diagram whose axes measure the values of one variable in two different states of the world

 - His endowment is $\omega = (12, 0)$.

- ◆ Insurance Game I: Observable Care
 - Players
 - ✓ Smith and two insurance companies

- The order of play

- 1 Smith chooses to be either *Careful* or *Careless*, observed by the insurance company.
- 2 Insurance company 1 offers a contract (x, y) , in which Smith pays premium x and receives compensation y if there is a theft.
- 3 Insurance company 2 also offers a contract of the form (x, y) .
- 4 Smith picks a contract.
- 5 Nature chooses whether there is a theft, with probability 0.5 if Smith is *Careful* or 0.75 if Smith is *Careless*.

- Payoffs

- ✓ Smith is risk-averse and the insurance companies are risk-neutral.

- ✓ The insurance company not picked by Smith has a payoff of zero.

- ✓ Smith's utility function U is such that $U' > 0$ and $U'' < 0$.

- ✓ If Smith chooses *Careful*, the payoffs are

$$\pi_{Smith} = 0.5U(12 - x) + 0.5U(0 + y - x)$$

and

$$\pi_{company} = 0.5x + 0.5(x - y) \quad \text{for his insurer.}$$

- ✓ If Smith chooses *Careless*, the payoffs are

$$\pi_{Smith} = 0.25U(12 - x) + 0.75U(0 + y - x) + \epsilon$$

and

$$\pi_{company} = 0.25x + 0.75(x - y) \quad \text{for his insurer.}$$

- ◆ The optimal contract with only the *Careful* type
 - If the insurance company can require Smith to park carefully, it offers him insurance at a premium of 6, with a payout of 12 if theft occurs, leaving him with an allocation of $C_1 = (6, 6)$.
 - ✓ $(x, y) = (6, 12)$
 - This satisfies the competition constraint because it is the most attractive contract any company can offer without making losses.
 - ✓ An insurance policy (x, y) is actuarially fair if the cost of the policy is precisely its expected value.
 - ✓ $x = 0.5y$
 - Smith is fully insured.
 - ✓ His allocation is 6 no matter what happens.

◆ In equilibrium

- Smith chooses to be *Careful* because he foresees that otherwise his insurance will be more expensive.
- Edgeworth box
- The company is risk-neutral, so its indifference curves are straight lines with a slope of -1 .
- Smith is risk-averse, so (if he is *Careful*) his indifference curves are closest to the origin on the 45° line, where his wealth in the two states is equal.

- The equilibrium contract is C_1 .
 - ✓ It satisfies the competition constraint by generating the highest expected utility for Smith.
 - ✓ It allows nonnegative profits to the company.

- ◆ Insurance Game I is a game of symmetric information.

- ◆ Suppose that Smith's action is a noncontractible variable.
 - We model the situation by putting Smith's move second.

◆ Insurance Game II: Unobservable Care

○ Players

✓ Smith and two insurance companies

○ The order of play

- 1 Insurance company 1 offers a contract of form (x, y) , under which Smith pays premium x and receives compensation y if there is a theft.
- 2 Insurance company 2 offers a contract of form (x, y) .
- 3 Smith picks a contract.
- 4 Smith chooses either *Careful* or *Careless*.

5 Nature chooses whether there is a theft, with probability 0.5 if Smith is *Careful* or 0.75 if Smith is *Careless*.

○ Payoffs

- ✓ Smith is risk-averse and the insurance companies are risk-neutral.
- ✓ The insurance company not picked by Smith has a payoff of zero.
- ✓ Smith's utility function U is such that $U' > 0$ and $U'' < 0$.

- ✓ If Smith chooses *Careful*, the payoffs are

$$\pi_{Smith} = 0.5U(12 - x) + 0.5U(0 + y - x)$$

and

$$\pi_{company} = 0.5x + 0.5(x - y) \quad \text{for his insurer.}$$

- ✓ If Smith chooses *Careless*, the payoffs are

$$\pi_{Smith} = 0.25U(12 - x) + 0.75U(0 + y - x) + \epsilon$$

and

$$\pi_{company} = 0.25x + 0.75(x - y) \quad \text{for his insurer.}$$

- ◆ No full-insurance contract will be offered.
 - If Smith is fully insured, his dominant strategy is Careless.
 - The company knows the probability of a theft is 0.75.
 - The insurance company must offer a contract with a premium of 9 and a payout of 12 to prevent losses, which leaves Smith with an allocation $C_2 = (3, 3)$.
 - The insurance company's isoprofit curve swivels around ω because that is the point at which the company's profit is independent of how probable it is that Smith's car will be stolen.
 - ✓ At point ω , the company is not insuring him at all.

- Smith's indifference curve swivels around the intersection of the $\pi_s = 66$ curve with the 45° line, because on that line the probability of theft does not affect his payoff.

- Smith would like to commit himself to being careful, but he cannot make his commitment credible.

- ◆ The outlook is bright because Smith chooses Careful if he only has partial insurance, as with contract C_3 .
 - The moral hazard is "small" in the sense that Smith barely prefers Careless.
 - Deductibles and coinsurance
 - The solution of full insurance is "almost" reached.

- ◆ Even when the ideal of full insurance and efficient effort cannot be reached, there exists some best choice like C_5 in the set of feasible contracts, a second-best insurance contract that recognizes the constraints of informational asymmetry.

8.6 Joint Production by Many Agents: The Holmstrom Teams Model

- ◆ The existence of a group of agents results in destroying the effectiveness of the individual risk-sharing contracts, because observed output is a joint function of the unobserved effort of many agents.
- ◆ The actions of a group of players produce a joint output, and each player wishes that the others would carry out the costly actions.
- ◆ A team is a group of agents who independently choose effort levels that result in a single output for the entire group.

◆ Teams

○ Players

- ✓ a principal and n agents

○ The order of play

- 1 The principal offers a contract to each agent i of the form $w_i(q)$, where q is total output.
- 2 The agents decide whether or not to accept the contract.
- 3 The agents simultaneously pick effort levels e_i , ($i = 1, \dots, n$).
- 4 Output is $q(e_1, \dots, e_n)$.

○ Payoffs

- ✓ If any agent rejects the contract, all payoffs equal zero.
- ✓ Otherwise,

$$\pi_{principal} = q - \sum_{i=1}^n w_i$$

and

$$\pi_i = w_i - v_i(e_i), \text{ where } v_i' > 0 \text{ and } v_i'' > 0.$$

- The principal can observe output.
- The team's problem is cooperation between agents.

◆ Efficient contracts

- Denote the efficient vector of actions by e^* .
- An efficient contract is

$$w_i(q) = \begin{cases} b_i & \text{if } q \geq q(e^*) \\ 0 & \text{if } q < q(e^*), \end{cases} \quad (8.9)$$

where $\sum_{i=1}^n b_i = q(e^*)$ and $b_i > v_i(e_i^*)$.

- The teams model gives one reason to have a principal:
he is the residual claimant who keeps the forfeited output.

◆ Budget balancing and Proposition 8.1

- The budget-balancing constraint
 - ✓ The sum of the wages exactly equal the output.
- If there is a budget-balancing constraint,
no differentiable wage contract $w_i(q)$ generates
an efficient Nash equilibrium.

- ✓ Agent i 's problem is

$$\underset{e_i}{\text{Maximize}} \quad w_i(q(e)) - v_i(e_i).$$

His first-order condition is

$$(dw_i/dq) (\partial q/\partial e_i) - dv_i/de_i = 0.$$

- ✓ The Pareto optimum solves

$$\text{Maximize}_{e_1, \dots, e_n} \quad q(e) - \sum_{i=1}^n v_i(e_i).$$

The first-order condition is that the marginal dollar contribution equal the marginal disutility of effort:

$$\partial q / \partial e_i - dv_i / de_i = 0.$$

- ✓ $dw_i / dq \neq 1$

Under budget balancing, not every agent can receive the entire marginal increase in output.

- ✓ Because each agent bears the entire burden of his marginal effort and only part of the benefit, the contract does not achieve the first-best.

- ◆ Without budget balancing,
if the agent shirked a little he would gain the entire leisure benefit from shirking, but he would lose his entire wage under the optimal contract in equation (8.9).

- ◆ With budget balancing and a linear utility function,
the Pareto optimum maximizes the sum of utilities.
 - A Pareto efficient allocation is one where consumer 1 is as well-off as possible given consumer 2's level of utility.
 - ✓ Fix the utility of consumer 2 at \bar{u}_2 .

- *Maximize* $w_1(q(e)) - v_1(e_1)$
 e_1, e_2
 subject to
 $w_2(q(e)) - v_2(e_2) \geq \bar{u}_2$
 and
 $w_1(q(e)) + w_2(q(e)) = q(e)$

- *Maximize* $w_1(q(e)) - v_1(e_1)$
 e_1, e_2
 subject to
 $q(e) - v_2(e_2) - \bar{u}_2 = w_1(q(e))$

- *Maximize* $q(e) - (v_1(e_1) + v_2(e_2)) - \bar{u}_2$
 e_1, e_2

◆ Discontinuities in Public Good Payoffs

- There is a free rider problem
if several players each pick a level of effort which increases the level of some public good whose benefits they share.
 - ✓ Noncooperatively, they choose effort levels lower than if they could make binding promises.

- Consider a situation in which n identical risk-neutral players produce a public good by expending their effort.
 - ✓ Let e_i represent player i 's effort level, and let $q(e_1, \dots, e_n)$ the amount of the public good produced, where q is a continuous function.

- ✓ Player i 's problem is

$$\underset{e_i}{\text{Maximize}} \quad q(e_1, \dots, e_n) - e_i.$$

His first-order condition is

$$\partial q / \partial e_i - 1 = 0.$$

- ✓ The greater, first-best n -tuple vector of effort levels e^* is characterized by

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (\partial q / \partial e_i) - 1 = 0.$$

- If the function q were discontinuous at e^* (for example, $q = 0$ if $e_i < e_i^*$ and $q = e_i$ if $e_i \geq e_i^*$ for any i), the strategy profile e^* could be a Nash equilibrium.

- The first-best can be achieved because the discontinuity at e^* makes every player the marginal, decisive player.
 - ✓ If he shirks a little, output falls drastically and with certainty.

- Either of the following two modifications restores the free rider problem and induces shirking:
 - ✓ Let q be a function not only of effort but of random noise.
Nature moves after the players.
Uncertainty makes the expected output a continuous function of effort.

 - ✓ Let players have incomplete information about the critical value.
Nature moves before the players and chooses e^* .
Incomplete information makes the estimated output a continuous function of effort.

- ◆ The discontinuity phenomenon is common.

Examples include:

- Effort in teams
(Holmstrom [1982], Rasmusen [1987])
- Entry deterrence by an oligopoly
(Bernheim [1984b], Waldman [1987])
- Output in oligopolies with trigger strategies
(Porter [1983a])
- Patent races
- Tendering shares in a takeover
(Grossman & Hart [1980])
- Preferences for levels of a public good.

◆ Pareto optimum

○ *Maximize* $q(e_1, e_2) - e_1$
 e_1, e_2

subject to

$$q(e_1, e_2) - e_2 = \bar{u}_2$$

- To solve the maximization problem,
we set up the Lagrangian function:

$$L = q(e_1, e_2) - e_1 - \lambda\{q(e_1, e_2) - e_2 - \bar{u}_2\}.$$

We have the following set of simultaneous equations:

$$\partial L / \partial \lambda = - \{ q(e_1, e_2) - e_2 - \bar{u}_2 \} = 0$$

$$\partial L / \partial e_1 = \partial q / \partial e_1 - 1 - \lambda \partial q / \partial e_1 = 0 \quad (\text{A1})$$

$$\partial L / \partial e_2 = \partial q / \partial e_2 - \lambda (\partial q / \partial e_2 - 1) = 0. \quad (\text{A2})$$

Using expressions (A1) and (A2), we obtain

$$(1 - \lambda) \sum_{i=1}^2 (\partial q / \partial e_i) = 1 - \lambda,$$

which leads to
$$\sum_{i=1}^2 (\partial q / \partial e_i) - 1 = 0.$$

8.7 The Multitask Agency Problem

- ◆ Holmstrom and Milgrom (1991)
 - Often the principal wants the agent to split his time among several tasks, each with a separate output, rather than just working on one of them.
 - If the principal uses one of the incentive contracts to incentivize just one of the tasks, this "high-powered incentive" can result in the agent completely neglecting his other tasks and leave the principal worse off than under a flat wage.

◆ Multitasking I: Two Tasks, No Leisure

○ Players

✓ a principal and an agent

○ The order of play

- 1 The principal offers the agent either an incentive contract of the form $w(q_1)$ or a monitoring contract that pays m under which he pays the agent m_1 if he observes the agent working on Task 1 and m_2 if he observes the agent working on Task 2.
- 2 The agent decides whether or not to accept the contract.
- 3 The agent picks effort levels e_1 and e_2 for the two tasks such that $e_1 + e_2 = 1$, where 1 denotes the total time available.
- 4 Outputs are $q_1(e_1)$ and $q_2(e_2)$, where $dq_1/de_1 > 0$ and $dq_2/de_2 > 0$ but we do not require decreasing returns to effort.

- Payoffs

- ✓ If the agent rejects the contract, all payoffs equal zero.

- ✓ Otherwise,

$$\pi_{principal} = q_1 + \beta q_2 - m - w - C$$

and

$$\pi_{agent} = m + w - e_1^2 - e_2^2,$$

where C , the cost of monitoring, is \bar{C} if a monitoring contract is used and zero otherwise.

- ✓ β is a measure of the relative value of Task 2.

- The principal can observe the output from one of the agent's tasks (q_1) but not from the other (q_2).

- ◆ The first best can be found by choosing e_1 and e_2 (subject to $e_1 + e_2 = 1$) and C to maximize the sum of the payoffs.

- *Maximize* $\pi_{principal} = q_1(e_1) + \beta q_2(e_2) - m - w - C$
 e_1, e_2, C

subject to

$$\pi_{agent} = m + w - e_1^2 - e_2^2 \geq \bar{U} = 0$$

and

$$e_1 + e_2 = 1$$

- *Maximize* $\pi_{principal} + \pi_{agent} - \bar{U}$
 e_1, e_2, C

subject to

$$e_1 + e_2 = 1$$

- The first-best levels of the variables

- ✓ $C^* = 0$

- ✓ $e_1^* = 0.5 + 0.25\{dq_1/de_1 - \beta(dq_2/de_2)\}$ (8.19)

- ✓ $e_2^* = 0.5 - 0.25\{dq_1/de_1 - \beta(dq_2/de_2)\}$

- ✓ $q_i^* \equiv q_i(e_i^*)$

- ✓ Define the minimum wage payment that would induce the agent to accept a contract requiring the first-best effort levels as

- $w^* \equiv (e_1^*)^2 + (e_2^*)^2.$

- ◆ Can an incentive contract achieve the first best?
 - A profit-maximizing flat-wage contract
 - ✓ $w(q_1) = w^0$ or the monitoring contract $\{w^0, w^0\}$
 - ✓ The agent chooses $e_1^0 = e_2^0 = 0.5$.
 - ✓ $w^0 = 0.5$ satisfies the participation constraint.
 - A sharing-rule incentive contract
 - ✓ $dw/dq_1 > 0$
 - ✓ The greater the agent's effort on Task 1, the less will be his effort on Task 2.
 - ✓ Even if extra effort on Task 1 could be achieved for free, the principal might not want it – and, in fact, he might be willing to pay to stop it.

○ The simplest sharing-rule (incentive) contract

✓ the linear contract

$$w(q_1) = a + bq_1$$

✓ The agent will pick e_1 and e_2 to maximize

$$\pi_{agent} = a + bq_1(e_1) - e_1^2 - e_2^2$$

subject to $e_1 + e_2 = 1$.

✓ $e_1^0 = 0.5 + 0.25b(dq_1/de_1)$ (8.23)

✓ If $e_1^* \geq 0.5$, the linear contract will work just fine.

The contract parameters a and b can be chosen so that the linear-contract effort level in equation (8.23) is the same as the first-best effort level in equation (8.19), with a taking a value to extract all the surplus so the participation constraint is barely satisfied.

- ✓ If $e_1^* < 0.5$, the linear contract cannot achieve the first best with a positive value for b .

The contract must actually punish the agent for high output!

- In equilibrium, the principal chooses some contract that elicits the first-best effort e^* , such as the forcing contract,

$$w(q_1 = q_1^*) = w^*$$

and

$$w(q_1 = q_1^*) = 0.$$

◆ A monitoring contract

- The cost \bar{C} of monitoring is incurred.
- The agent will pick e_1 and e_2 to maximize

$$\pi_{agent} = e_1 m_1 + e_2 m_2 - e_1^2 - e_2^2$$

subject to $e_1 + e_2 = 1$.

- ✓ The principal finds the agent working on Task i with probability e_i .

- ✓ $\pi_{agent} = e_1 m_1 + (1 - e_1) m_2 - e_1^2 - (1 - e_1)^2$

- ✓ $d\pi_{agent}/de_1 = m_1 - m_2 - 2e_1 + 2(1 - e_1) = 0$

- If the principal wants the agent to pick e_1^* , he should choose m_1^* and m_2^* so that

$$m_1^* = 4e_1^* + m_2^* - 2.$$

- ✓ the binding participation constraint

$$e_1^* m_1^* + (1 - e_1^*) m_2^* - (e_1^*)^2 - (1 - e_1^*)^2 = 0$$

- $m_1^* = 4e_1^* - 2(e_1^*)^2 - 1$

$$m_2^* = 1 - 2(e_1^*)^2$$

- ✓ $e_1^* > e_2^* \Rightarrow m_1^* > m_2^*$

- ✓ $dm_1^*/de_1^* > 0$

- ✓ $dm_2^*/de_1^* < 0$

◆ Multitasking II: Two Tasks Plus Leisure

○ Players

✓ a principal and an agent

○ The order of play

- 1 The principal offers the agent either an incentive contract of the form $w(q_1)$ or a monitoring contract that pays m under which he pays the agent a base wage of \bar{m} plus m_1 if he observes the agent working on Task 1 and m_2 if he observes the agent working on Task 2.
- 2 The agent decides whether or not to accept the contract.
- 3 The agent picks effort levels e_1 and e_2 for the two tasks.
- 4 Outputs are $q_1(e_1)$ and $q_2(e_2)$, where $dq_1/de_1 > 0$ and $dq_2/de_2 > 0$ but we do not require decreasing returns to effort.

- Payoffs

- ✓ If the agent rejects the contract, all payoffs equal zero.

- ✓ Otherwise,

$$\pi_{principal} = q_1 + \beta q_2 - m - w - C$$

and

$$\pi_{agent} = m + w - e_1^2 - e_2^2,$$

where C , the cost of monitoring, is \bar{C} if a monitoring contract is used and zero otherwise.

- ✓ β is a measure of the relative value of Task 2.

- The principal can observe the output from one of the agent's tasks (q_1) but not from the other (q_2).

- $e_1 + e_2 \leq 1$

- ✓ The amount $(1 - e_1 - e_2)$ represents leisure, whose value we set equal to zero in the agent's utility function.
- ✓ Here leisure represents not time off the job, but time on the job spent shirking rather than working.

- ◆ The first-best can be found by choosing e_1 , e_2 , and C to maximize the sum of the payoffs.

- *Maximize* $\pi_{principal} = q_1(e_1) + \beta q_2(e_2) - m - w - C$
 e_1, e_2, C

subject to

$$\pi_{agent} = m + w - e_1^2 - e_2^2 \geq 0$$

and

$$e_1 + e_2 \leq 1$$

- *Maximize* $q_1(e_1) + \beta q_2(e_2) - C - e_1^2 - e_2^2$
 e_1, e_2, C

subject to

$$e_1 + e_2 \leq 1$$

- The first-best levels of the variables

- ✓ $C^{**} = 0$

- ✓ $e_1^{**} = ?$

- ✓ $e_2^{**} = ?$

- ✓ $q_i^{**} \equiv q_i(e_i^{**})$

- ✓ Define the minimum wage payment that would induce the agent to accept a contract requiring the first-best effort levels as

- $w^{**} \equiv (e_1^{**})^2 + (e_2^{**})^2.$

- ✓ Positive leisure for the agent in the first-best is a realistic case.

- ◆ Can an incentive contract achieve the first best?
 - A flat-wage contract
 - ✓ $w(q_1) = w^{00}$ or the monitoring contract $\{w^{00}, w^{00}\}$
 - ✓ The agent chooses $e_1^{00} = e_2^{00} = 0$.
 - ✓ A low-powered incentive contract is disastrous, because pulling the agent away from high effort on Task I does not leave him working harder on Task 2.

- A high-powered sharing-rule incentive contract
 - ✓ $dw/dq_1 > 0$
 - ✓ The first-best is unreachable since $e_2^{oo} = 0$.
 - ✓ The combination ($e_1^{oo} = e_1^{**}$, $e_2^{oo} = 0$) is the second-best incentive-contract solution, since at e_1^{**} the marginal disutility of effort equals the marginal utility of the marginal product of effort.
 - ✓ In that case, in the second-best the principal would push e_1^{oo} above the first-best level.

- ◆ The agent does not substitute between the task with easy-to-measure output and the task with hard-to-measure output, but between each task and leisure.

- The best the principal can do may be to ignore the multitasking feature of the problem and just get the incentives right for the task whose output he can measure.

◆ A monitoring contract

- The first-best effort levels can be attained.
- The monitoring contract might not even be superior to the second-best incentive contract if the monitoring cost \bar{C} were too big.
 - ✓ But monitoring can induce any level of e_2 the principal desires.
- The base wage may even be negative, which can be interpreted
 - ✓ as a bond for good effort posted by the agent or
 - ✓ as a fee he pays for the privilege of filling the job and possibly earning m_1 or m_2 .

- The agent will choose e_1 and e_2 to maximize

$$\pi_{agent} = \bar{m} + e_1 m_1 + e_2 m_2 - e_1^2 - e_2^2$$

subject to $e_1 + e_2 \leq 1$.

- ✓ The principal finds the agent working on Task i with probability e_i .

- ✓ $\partial \pi_{agent} / \partial e_1 = m_1 - 2e_1 = 0$

$$\partial \pi_{agent} / \partial e_2 = m_2 - 2e_2 = 0$$

- The principal will pick m_1^{**} and m_2^{**} to induce the agent to choose e_1^{**} and e_2^{**} .

- ✓ $m_1^{**} = 2e_1^{**}$

- $m_2^{**} = 2e_2^{**}$

- The base wage \bar{m}

- ✓ the binding participation constraint

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_{agent} &= \bar{m} + e_1^{**}m_1^{**} + e_2^{**}m_2^{**} - (e_1^{**})^2 - (e_2^{**})^2 \\ &= \bar{m} + 2w^{**} - w^{**} = 0\end{aligned}$$

- ✓ $\bar{m} = -w^{**}$
- ✓ If the principal finds the agent shirking when he monitors, he will pay the agent an amount of $-w^{**}$.
- ✓ In the case where $e_1^{**} + e_2^{**} < 1$, the result is surprising because the principal wants the agent to take some leisure in equilibrium.
- ✓ In the case where $e_1^{**} + e_2^{**} = 1$, the result is intuitive.
- ✓ The key is that the base wage is important only for inducing the agent to take the job and has no influence whatsoever on the agent's choice of effort.