

WP2 - 2019/02

Asymmetric information on the market for energy efficiency: Insights from the credence goods literature

**Bruno Lanz
Evert Reins**

July 2019

This research project is part of the Swiss Competence Center for Energy Research SCCER
CREST of the Swiss Innovation Agency Innosuisse.

Asymmetric information on the market for energy efficiency: Insights from the credence goods literature*

Bruno Lanz[†]

Evert Reins[‡]

This version: July 2019

Abstract

Imperfect information is widely acknowledged to hamper the adoption of energy efficient technologies. In this paper, we study supply-side implications of the associated incentive structure. We build on existing evidence suggesting that energy efficiency owns a credence component, whereby the supply side of the market has more information about what technology is best for consumers. The literature on credence goods markets suggests that informational advantage by an expert-seller leads to market inefficiencies, including low trade volume. We start by developing a simple framework to study supply-side incentives related to the provision of energy efficient technologies. We then document inefficiencies and potential remedies by discussing linkages between an empirical literature on credence goods and that on the market for energy efficiency. Doing so, we identify policy implications and research gaps that are relevant for the adoption of energy efficiency technologies.

Keywords: Energy efficiency; Asymmetric information; Credence goods; Energy policy; Environmental externalities; Technology adoption.

JEL Codes: D18; D82; H23; Q41.

*We would like to thank Winand Emons, Mehdi Farsi, Serhiy Kandul, François Maréchal and Philippe Thalmann for useful comments and discussions. Financial support from the Swiss National Science Foundation under grant PYAPP1_173650 is gratefully acknowledged. This research is part of the activities of SCCER CREST (Swiss Competence Center for Energy Research), which is financially supported by the Swiss Commission for Technology and Innovation (CTI) under Grant No. KTI. 1155000154. Any errors or omissions are ours.

[†]University of Neuchâtel, Department of Economics and Business, Switzerland.

[‡]Corresponding author. University of Neuchâtel, Department of Economics and Business, Switzerland. Mail: A.-L. Breguet 2, CH-2000 Neuchâtel, Switzerland; Tel: +41 32 718 1638; email: evert.reins@unine.ch.

1 Introduction

Energy is consumed for the services it provides, and consumers need a technology to transform energy into these services. Energy efficiency measures how much of these valuable services can be obtained for a given unit of energy input. It follows that, by adopting more efficient energy-transforming technologies, consumers can potentially lower energy use without affecting the amount of services they consume.¹ Because of externalities associated with energy use, and in particular fossil resources that contribute to both local (e.g. airborne particulate matter) and global (e.g. carbon dioxide) emissions, many countries actively promote the adoption of energy efficient technologies in order to reduce energy consumption (Gillingham et al., 2016). As highlighted by Allcott and Greenstone (2012), these policies ought to target inefficiencies on the market for energy technologies. The existing literature emphasizes informational failure that affect investment behavior, including imperfect information about and inattention to future energy savings (see also Gerarden et al., 2017).

We argue that the supply-side of the market for energy technology holds relevant information and may have little incentives to share it with consumers. Based on this observation, this paper focuses on supply-side incentives associated with the asymmetric information on the market for energy technologies and implied market inefficiencies. As initially put forward by Sorrell (2004) and recently discussed by Giraudet (2018) and Plambeck and Taylor (2019), consumers do not directly observe the level of energy efficiency of alternative technologies. They are therefore unable to gauge whether a technology meets their needs both before and after the purchase/installation. One implication is that consumers need to rely on information provided by the supply-side of the market in order to identify which option is best suited for their needs. In turn, the fact that the supply-side of the market possesses an informational advantage implies

¹ Note that energy efficiency improvements reduce the relative price of energy services, which may lead to an increase in the demand for these services. Therefore, improving energy efficiency does not imply a one-to-one reduction of energy consumption (see Chan and Gillingham, 2015).

that the market for energy efficient technologies inherits the properties and inefficiencies of markets for credence good.²

In Section 2 we start by considering energy efficiency investment decisions in relation to the basic credence goods model of Dulleck and Kerschbamer (2006). This framework allows us to identify sources of inefficiencies associated with credence goods, and discuss “baseline” results from the seminal implementation of credence goods markets in the laboratory by Dulleck et al. (2011). In the next step, we relate the framework of Dulleck and Kerschbamer (2006) to the simple model for energy efficiency investments by Allcott and Greenstone (2012), clarifying which aspects of investment decisions are likely to be affected by informational asymmetries. This delivers the main contribution of this work, namely identifying how inefficiencies studied in the credence goods literature translate in the context of energy efficiency investment decisions, and how the credence component of energy-using technologies can affect market efficiency.

Conceptually, the credence goods framework provides a supply-side perspective on the observed tendency of consumers invest “too little” in energy efficiency, seemingly failing to realize financial benefits from energy savings (the energy efficiency gap, see Jaffe and Stavins, 1994a). Indeed, theoretical studies on credence goods such as Emons (1997) and Dulleck and Kerschbamer (2006) suggest that asymmetric information induces a reduction in trade volume on credence goods market. The necessity to trust expert-sellers comes from the possibility of inefficient supply-side behavior, which can be classified in three possible outcomes: (i) expert-sellers supply a lower quality than what the consumer needs (undertreatment), (ii) the quality supplied is higher than what is needed (overtreatment), and (iii) expert-sellers charge for good or services that are of higher quality than what is actually supplied (overpricing). While asymmetric information is only one of the factors affecting the energy efficiency gap, understanding

² Energy transforming technologies may require an installation (e.g. heating systems) or can directly be used by consumers (e.g. technologies such as a fridge or a car). As we discuss below, the quality of both the technology and of the installation affect realized energy savings and can give rise to information asymmetry.

how the market fails in relation to supply-side incentives is important for the design of public policies.³

Dulleck and Kerschbamer (2006) suggests two institutional features of credence goods markets that can potentially restore market efficiency without external intervention. First, *verifiability* refers to a case in which consumers are able to verify the characteristics of the product after installation. Second, *liability* represents a case in which expert-sellers are liable to solve the consumers' problem. Under specific conditions, which we discuss below, either verifiability or liability leads to efficient trade in markets for credence goods. In the context of energy efficiency investments, however, neither verifiability nor liability are likely to solve the informational problem. The key reason is the impossibility to ascertain, for each possible technology available on the market, actual energy savings that will be achieved. Also ex-post, after purchase and/or installation, measuring energy use per unit of service and defining a valid counterfactual remain a costly and challenging endeavor (see e.g. Joskow and Marron, 1992; Burlig et al., 2017). Realized energy savings are influenced by exogenous factors (e.g. the weather) and endogenous factors (e.g. changes in the demand for energy services). This leads us to discuss energy performance contracting as a way to align supply- and demand-side interests (see e.g. Sorrell, 2007; Klinke, 2018). However, insights from the credence goods literature suggest that the difficulty to credibly quantify energy savings for many relevant energy-transforming technologies limits the range of applications of performance contracting.

In Section 3, we turn to a review of the empirical evidence from the credence goods literature, building on the work of Kerschbamer and Sutter (2017). This part of the paper overviews results from experimental markets for credence goods, as well as field

³ Gerarden et al. (2017) distinguish between three categories of factors explaining an energy efficiency gap: market failures (including asymmetric information), deviations from the canonical behavioral framework (e.g. loss aversion), and flaws in the modeling framework such as incorrect cost calculations for some of the options. As we discuss in the text below, some behavioral and modeling flaws can be seen as originating from the credence component of energy technologies.

evidence for products such as car repairs, taxi rides, and medical treatments.⁴ This affords the second main contribution of our paper, namely drawing implications of the credence goods literature for the design of policies targeting the adoption of energy-efficient technologies. Our objective is to use the drivers of market inefficiencies identified in the credence goods literature to organize and discuss selected contributions to the energy efficiency literature. Put another way, our work provides a novel perspective on empirical evidence derived in the context of energy efficiency.

Concretely, we consider four important characteristics that affect supply-side behavior in markets for credence goods. First, we discuss the degree of informational asymmetry between consumers and expert-sellers, and the conditions under which mitigating the information gap reduces market inefficiency. Experimental evidence by Balafoutas et al. (2013) suggests that consumers who signal to be informed about the characteristics of a credence good are more likely to receive a correct treatment. In the context of energy efficiency, informing consumers is directly related to the use of energy efficiency labels and certification (see e.g. Newell and Siikamäki, 2014). Our reading of the literature leads us to emphasize the trust component in energy efficiency labels, and the role for independent third parties (or competing experts) to test whether the actual energy intensity of technologies corresponds to the certified energy efficiency. Moreover, in an effort to enforce trust on the market for energy efficiency, we highlight the need to make suppliers liable to deliver products that are in line with the certification.

The second dimension of credence goods markets we consider is the necessity to carry out a diagnostic, and the ensuing possibility to separate diagnostic from treatment. In the context of energy efficiency, this can take the form of independent energy audits. Supply-driven inefficiencies are expected to decrease if one expert is paid to perform the diagnostic and another expert is paid to perform the treatment, as the di-

⁴ In our view, laboratory experiments and field studies provide complementary evidence. The former allows to systematically vary selected institutional aspects of decisions in a controlled environment, while the latter quantifies the magnitude of inefficiencies for real-world decisions.

agnosing expert has no incentives to recommend inappropriate products. The literature on credence goods, however, suggests that separate diagnostic can also worsen inefficiencies because it introduces an additional cost to market participation (Greiner et al., 2017; Mimra et al., 2016). We further discuss the possibility of ex-post auditing (Allcott and Greenstone, 2017) as another approach to improve market efficiency in a credence goods framework. Policies that lower the cost of third party audits, both before and after purchase/installation can mitigate the credence component of energy technologies and favor trust in the behavior of expert-sellers.

Third, we discuss how third party reimbursement reduces market efficiency in credence goods markets (e.g. Kerschbamer et al., 2016; Balafoutas et al., 2017). In particular, empirical evidence shows that experts are inclined to overtreat and overprice consumers whenever a third party (e.g. an insurance) covers the cost of the treatment. The use of subsidies for energy efficient technologies makes these results highly relevant for the design of energy and environmental policy. We relate results from credence goods markets to empirical evidence on consumer subsidies and sales incentives by Allcott and Sweeney (2017). Overall, this suggests that the presence of asymmetric information diminishes the effectiveness of subsidies in the adoption of energy efficient technologies, although further research on how subsidies affect pricing behavior by expert-sellers is needed.

Finally, we examine the role of reputation and repeated interactions in the context of credence goods in general and energy efficiency in particular. The basic credence goods model suggests that honest expert-sellers will be driven out of the market, which is reminiscent of the lemons problem discussed in Akerlof (1970). Providing mechanisms for expert-sellers to signal their trustworthiness, such as neutral third parties publishing credible information about quality of service received, can contribute to help expert-sellers establish a good reputation. We emphasize, however, that the difficulty to quantify energy savings is again crucial for reputation-building by expert-sellers and whether consumers trust reputation information (see Gillingham and Tsvetanov, 2018).

The paper concludes in Section 4 by summarizing policy implications of our work and bringing together suggestions for future research.

2 Credence goods and energy efficiency

This section discusses the relationship between credence goods and energy efficiency. First, we briefly describe information asymmetries associated with credence goods and implied market inefficiencies using the general framework of Dulleck and Kerschbamer (2006) and the related experimental procedure by Dulleck et al. (2011). Second, we present a simple representation of decisions to invest in energy efficiency and clarify the sources of asymmetric information on the market for energy efficiency. Finally, we discuss verifiability and liability in the context of energy efficiency investments, as well as the role of energy performance contracting.

2.1 Credence goods and market inefficiencies

As in Dulleck and Kerschbamer (2006), consider a consumer with a problem that can be either minor or severe. The consumer, however, does not know which of the two conditions he faces, and hence whether an expensive treatment q_h or a cheap treatment q_l is needed. This classification mirrors a setting in medical treatments or car repairs, but it can also be interpreted more broadly as representing preferences of a consumer for a particular product or service. What sets credence goods apart from other goods is incomplete knowledge about own needs, both before and after treatment (Emons, 1997). To assess which good q_h or q_l is needed, the consumer relies on an expert-seller to perform a diagnostic. The expert-seller then recommends either q_h or q_l , supplies the good, and charges either p_h or p_l (with $p_h > p_l$). Note that, since the consumer does not observe his condition after treatment, either price can be charged regardless of the good supplied.

This simple setting is the basis of the experimental market for credence goods stud-

ied in Dulleck et al. (2011) and implemented as a stage game in which one consumer interacts with one expert-seller. Throughout the game, each consumer only knows that q_h is needed with probability h and q_l with probability $1 - h$ (h is set to 0.5). The expert-seller faces a cost for performing high vs. low treatments, with $c_h > c_l$, and these costs are common knowledge. One implication is that, by observing prices, the consumer can determine markups and hence incentives for expert-sellers to supply either goods.

In the first stage, the expert-seller posts prices p_h and p_l , and the consumer decides whether he wants to participate in the market or not. If the consumer opts out, the stage game stops and both participants receive an outside option $o > 0$. If the consumer opts in, the game moves on to a second stage in which the expert-seller learns about the severity of the consumers problem (akin to a diagnostic), elects to supply either q_h or q_l , and charges either p_h or p_l (independently of the treatment performed). At the end of the stage game, the payoffs for expert-sellers is the difference between the price charged and the cost of the good supplied: $\pi_s = p_{charged} - c_{supplied}$. For the consumer, if the problem is solved ($q_{supplied} \geq q_{needed}$), the payoff is $\pi_c = v - p_{charged}$, where $v > 0$. If instead $q_{supplied} < q_{needed}$, $v = 0$ and the consumer gets $\pi_c = -p_{charged}$.

In this setting, market efficiency requires that the sum of surpluses is maximized. With the baseline parametrization, this occurs when the consumer opts into the market, and the expert-sellers recommends the appropriate treatment. However, asymmetric information gives rise to three types of supply-side behavior that lowers trades and reduce market efficiency. First, *undertreatment* occurs if the consumer needs q_h , but the expert-seller supplies q_l . This implies that the problem of the consumer is not solved, hence $v = 0$. Second, *overtreatment* occurs when the consumer needs q_l but receives q_h . In this case the problem is solved ($v > 0$), but some of the tasks performed by the expert-seller are unnecessary. Third, *overpricing* is a situation in which the consumer receives q_l and is charged p_h , so that the consumer pays for a good that he did not receive.

A purely selfish expert-seller who maximizes own surplus always supplies q_l and

charges p_h (i.e. $\pi_s = p_h - c_l$). For consumers who need q_l this implies overpricing, while for those needing q_h both overpricing and undertreatment occur simultaneously. Experimental results by Dulleck et al. (2011) show that 88 percent of consumers in the q_l condition are subject to overpricing, and 53 percent of consumers in the q_h condition are undertreated. By contrast, overtreatment is only observed in 6 percent of all interactions, as it is always dominated by overpricing ($p_h - c_l > p_h - c_h$).⁵

Similar to the lemons problem in Akerlof (1970), profit maximizing expert-sellers who undertreat and overprice drive out of the market those who install adequate quality and charge adequate prices. Moreover, consumers who expect selfish behavior by expert-sellers are better off opting out of the market ($\pi_c = 0$), leading to a collapse of the market. In Dulleck et al. (2011), the share of consumers who opt out increases from around 40 percent in the first period to about 80 percent in the last period. Furthermore, consumers who are undertreated in period $t - 1$ are significantly more likely to opt out of the market in period t . While complete market breakdown does not occur, mainly because some expert-sellers display other-regarding preferences and do not undertreat (see also Kerschbamer et al., 2017), the low level of trades is associated with significant market inefficiencies.⁶

2.2 Energy efficiency as a credence good: A simple framework

We now turn to energy-transforming technologies, which include heating and/or cooling systems, vehicles, lighting equipments, and electric appliances such as fridges or freezers. For all these products, alternatives available on the market are typically differentiated with respect to their energy efficiency (among other things). In the following,

⁵ This is a results of the parametrization of the experiment. In real world markets for credence goods, overtreatment is frequently observed (see e.g. Rasch and Waibel, 2017; Baniamin and Jamil, 2018; Gottschalk et al., 2017). Moreover, Emons (1997) shows that experts who are capacity constrained have incentives to overtreat if they do not face enough consumers. We come back to this below.

⁶ Beck et al. (2014) replicate this experimental design with car mechanics instead of a students subject pool, with comparable results. A key difference is that mechanics are found to be more likely to overtreat, although the difference declines as the game is repeated.

we discuss the credence nature of energy efficient technologies in the context of a simple model, combining the representation of energy efficiency investment decisions by Allcott and Greenstone (2012) with the primitives of credence goods model by Dulleck and Kerschbamer (2006) discussed above.

Consider two different versions of an energy-transforming technology, namely an energy efficient version q_h and an energy inefficient version q_l . The upfront price for each option p_h and p_l covers the technology and its installation, and subsequently consumers pay the energy cost associated with the quantity of energy services consumed, denoted m_i .⁷ As per Dulleck et al. (2011), consumers can be of either one of two types, a high usage type m_h and a low usage type m_l , with $m_h > m_l$. The type of consumers in turn determines the cost-minimizing technology: for m_h the more efficient version q_h is cost minimizing, whereas for m_l technology q_l is cost minimizing.

Formally, q_h is cost-minimizing for consumer i whenever the following inequality holds:

$$\frac{p_e m_i (e_l - e_h)}{1 + r} > p_h - p_l, \quad (1)$$

where p_e is the private unit cost of energy, e_l and e_h represent energy intensity of each technology (with $e_l > e_h$), and $r > 0$ is a risk adjusted discount rate.⁸ However, the consumer cannot know whether the inequality holds, and hence whether he needs q_h or q_l . First, energy efficiency as measured by e_l and e_h cannot be directly observed by consumers. Instead, consumers need to rely on external information in the form of engineering or sales agent expertise (unless there is some certification, something we discuss below). Second, the consumer typically only imperfectly observes m_i , and there is potentially some cost to ascertain it. By contrast, an expert-seller knows both e_l and

⁷ The framework can easily accommodate a situation in which the inefficient option is the status quo, as in Allcott and Greenstone (2012), by setting $p_l = 0$. Considering instead a replacement decision is closer to the setting of Dulleck et al. (2011) in which the consumer faces a problem and seeks a solution.

⁸ For simplicity, usage-rate m_i is assumed to be unaffected by the type of technology installed. This abstracts from a rebound effect and is in line with Allcott and Greenstone (2012).

e_h , and can perform a diagnostic to quantify m_i (e.g. by estimating energy consumption behavior or predicting it based on individual characteristics such as household size and habits).

A crucial component of this framework is energy savings ($m_i(e_l - e_h)$), which determine which technology is cost-minimizing, and asymmetric information on both e_i and m_i can give rise to market inefficiencies and low trade volume inherent to credence goods. In particular, while we discuss evidence on supply-side inefficiencies in detail below, possible outcomes identified in the credence goods literature can be summarized as follows. First, undertreatment occurs when the energy efficient technology q_h is cost-minimizing, but the energy inefficient technology q_l is supplied.⁹ Second, overtreatment implies that q_l is cost-minimizing for the consumer (i.e. the consumer is of type m_l), but the expert-seller supplies q_h . Third, overpricing corresponds to a case in which q_l is installed but the price of q_h is charged.

It follows from this framework that energy efficiency investment decisions involve a component of trust, which is independent from perceived risks associated with energy efficient technologies (Gillingham and Palmer, 2014). In turn, this may lead consumers to stay out of the market, thereby contributing to the energy efficiency gap. Based on this, we proceed with a discussion of how properties of credence good markets contribute to the extent of market inefficiencies, and relate these to energy efficiency investment decisions and policies affecting these.

2.3 Verifiability, liability, and energy contracting

Dulleck and Kerschbamer (2006) highlights two features of credence good markets that can restore market efficiency without external intervention, namely verifiability and

⁹ Intuitively, for high usage m_h consumers, savings on energy expenditures associated with the energy efficient technology more than compensate higher investment costs. In our setup, it does not matter whether the appropriate quality is recommended by the expert and then inappropriately installed or whether inappropriate quality is recommended in the first place. In both cases, the consumer ends up being undertreated.

liability. In the following, we discuss both institutional features in the context of energy efficient technologies. This leads us to consider energy performance contracting as a response to the credence component of energy efficiency investments.

2.3.1 Verifiability and energy efficiency

Under verifiability, consumers are able to identify, after treatment, whether the expert-seller has installed q_h or q_l . As a consequence, verifiability rules out the possibility of overpricing, and the expert will supply the treatment that maximizes his profits. In the context of Dulleck and Kerschbamer (2006), where consumers know c_i , expert-sellers can only attract consumers under equal markups: $p_h - c_h = p_l - c_l$.¹⁰ Together with an assumption that expert-sellers install the appropriate quality whenever they are indifferent, this leads to an efficient outcome (see Emons, 1997, for a similar result).

Experimental results from Dulleck et al. (2011) indicate, however, that verifiability does not increase market efficiency compared to the baseline. There are two main reasons for this. First, equal markup prices are posted in only four percent of interactions, which gives rise to incentives to overtreat or undertreat. Second, some expert-sellers display antisocial preferences, leading them to supply the inappropriate treatment even if it generates lower profits (see Kerschbamer et al., 2017, for further evidence on this). The impact of verifiability on market efficiency in experimental credence goods markets is therefore limited.

In the context of energy efficiency, verifiability requires that consumers are able to observe whether technology q_h or q_l is operating, which implies measuring (verifying) energy savings $m_i(e_l - e_h)$ after purchase/installation. One empirical challenge to verifiability is the definition of a valid counterfactual for energy consumption (e.g. with an inefficient technology, see Joskow and Marron, 1992). In fact a branch of the literature on energy efficiency is dedicated to the estimation of energy savings achieved by improv-

¹⁰ If the markup associated with one of the treatments is higher, the associated product can be expected to be supplied independently of the actual condition faced by the consumer.

ing energy efficiency in buildings. For example, Dubin et al. (1986) and Fowlie et al. (2018) use randomized control trials to estimate counterfactual energy consumption of renovated buildings, while Burlig et al. (2017) employ machine learning techniques to predict energy use in the absence of energy retrofits. However, for individual investors the difficulty to quantify realized energy savings remains, so that the ex-post quality of the installation remains unobserved.

An absence of variability creates incentives for expert-sellers to overstate the quality of their product, as measured by e_i , a form of undertreatment. Therefore, the framework suggests that energy technologies are prone to a difference between ex-ante values for e_i , which may be used by expert-sellers to market their products, and realized values for e_i measured in the field. In line with this, early empirical evidence from a meta-analysis by Nadel and Keating (1991) suggests a systematic upward bias in ex-ante predictions, while Davis et al. (2014) estimates that program to replace inefficient refrigerators in Mexico achieved only a quarter of predicted savings. The above-cited studies on buildings retrofits also confirm that realized energy savings tend to be systematically below ex-ante estimates.

In sum, verifiability is both difficult and costly, which can explain differences in measures of e_i and energy savings before and after purchase/installation. In turn, the credence goods model suggests that this may lead consumers to stay out of the market, reducing participation on the market for energy efficiency. From a policy perspective, this may instead induce policy-makers to target measures that are not cost-effective (Fowlie et al., 2018).

2.3.2 Liability and contracting for energy efficiency

Under liability the expert is made liable for supplying an appropriate treatment. In the setup of Dulleck and Kerschbamer (2006) and Dulleck et al. (2011) a liable expert does not have the possibility to install q_l if the consumer needs q_h , ruling out undertreatment. Experimental results suggest that the associated reduction in the expected

loss by consumers nearly doubles market participation, as measured by the number of trades. Market efficiency is, however, hampered by overpricing, which is observed in 75 percent of trades.

While liability can easily be introduced in a laboratory environment, in the field it may not be feasible to rule out undertreatment (e.g. through fines). In the case of energy efficiency, quality control is difficult to enforce (Gerarden et al., 2017), incentivizing expert-sellers to cut down costs at the installation stage and undertreat consumers. For example, Giraudet et al. (2018) provide evidence that energy savings achieved by attic insulation and duct sealing interventions are lower when installed on a Friday, and interpret this as a change in labor costs before the weekend. Despite this realization of undertreatment, it is difficult to enforce penalties for relatively low energy savings, as energy savings are affected by energy consumption which may fluctuate for exogenous reasons.

One approach to enforce liability is energy performance contracting, whereby an expert-seller selects and installs a technology, and is subsequently entitled to a share of the financial gains associated with realized energy savings. The structure of the contract should be such that expert-sellers maximize profits by installing the cost minimizing technology (Tietenberg, 2009). Energy performance contracts would therefore make undertreatment unattractive, as expert-sellers would forgo profits associated with energy savings. Similarly, installation costs are borne by expert-sellers, which prevents overpricing. The contract may also contain incentives for expert-sellers to maintain or improve energy savings (see Sorrell, 2007).¹¹

In practice, however, getting consumers and expert-sellers to contract on energy technology faces a number of barriers. First, the difficulty to define a baseline and estimate realized energy savings remains. While this has led the contracting industry to

¹¹ Importantly, performance contracting can also be applied in the context of other credence, and Bester and Dahm (2017) discuss the possibility to spread payments to healthcare providers in the future conditional on patients' satisfaction with the treatment.

design standardized estimation procedure, essentially a before/after comparison with ad-hoc adjustments for the consumption of energy services (see Efficiency Valuation Organization, 2018), it can only be applied to specific investments. Second, Klinke (2018) provides survey evidence that economic viability is a significant barrier, mainly because of the risk associated with future energy savings. For example, external factors such as the weather may affect realized energy savings and induce a risk that the supply-side may not be willing to hold.

We conclude that liability can improve market efficiency for a limited number of energy-transforming technologies, either through regulation and fines or through energy performance contracting. However, in many cases, exogenous and endogenous variability in realized energy savings hampers the possibility to make expert-sellers liable for failure to deliver energy savings in line with ex-ante projections.

3 Empirical evidence from credence goods markets: Implications for energy efficiency policies

In this section we review existing empirical evidence on credence goods markets and link it to the literature on energy efficiency. The structure of our argument broadly follows Kerschbamer and Sutter (2017), and we focus on four institutional features that are relevant for energy efficiency: (i) the degree of information asymmetry and the role of certification; (ii) separation between diagnostic and treatment in relation to energy audits; (iii) third party reimbursement and subsidies to energy efficient technologies; and (iv) reputation and repeated interactions in a market for emerging technologies.

3.1 Informing consumers and certification

Market inefficiencies associated with credence goods stem from an informational advantage held by the supply-side of the market. Therefore, a natural approach to improve market efficiency is to inform consumers. Indeed, as initially put forward by Darby and

Karni (1973), market inefficiencies are proportional to differences in information. Imperfect information on the market for energy efficient technologies has been identified as an important driver of market inefficiencies (e.g. Allcott and Wozny, 2014; Jacobsen, 2015). For consumers, information on e_l , e_h and m_i (from energy labels or any other sources) would transform energy efficiency in a search good, thus reducing a key source of market inefficiencies.

Field experimental evidence in the context of taxi rides reported by Balafoutas et al. (2013) quantifies how the supply-side of the market exploits the degree of asymmetric information. The authors find that taxi drivers (expert-sellers of cab rides) are more likely to overtreat consumers who explicitly state that they are unfamiliar with the city by taking them on a detour. Moreover, when a consumer signals to be a foreigner, the probability of that the driver applies a false tariff and charges extra fees increases, and these are both instances of overpricing. By contrast, consumers who use their smartphone to suggest directions to the driver, thereby signaling some degree of expertise, are less subject to overtreatment and overpricing.¹²

Labels for energy-using technologies inform consumers about energy consumption and have been introduced in many countries (e.g. U.S. Federal Trade Commission, 1979; European Commission, 2013, for the United States and the EU respectively). Empirical evidence suggests that the information transmitted on labels helps consumers to make cost efficient decisions. For example, Newell and Siikamäki (2014) test alternative designs for information contained in energy labels and emphasize the importance of information on financial savings. A closely related research by Davis and Metcalf (2016) shows that providing tailored information on usage rates (m_i) results in more cost efficient choices of air conditioners.

However, supply-side incentives associated with the credence nature of energy ef-

¹² Similarly, in the medical domain, Gruber et al. (1999) and Gruber and Owings (1996) study the frequency of natural births and cesarean deliveries as a function of the physicians' incentives. They report evidence that the probability of cesarean delivery is different if women have a physician in their family, which presumably reflects lower informational asymmetry.

efficiency may compromise trustworthiness of labels. Goeschl (2018) finds systematic discrepancies between self-declared and verified energy efficiency ratings of refrigerators sold in the EU market, and recent manipulation of fuel consumption and emissions information in the car making industry (e.g. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2018) suggest that labels are not sufficient to ensure that consumers use it as a trustworthy source of information. Following the credence goods framework, this can be related to evidence that consumers remain at least partly inattentive to this information (Sallee, 2014; Allcott and Knittel, 2017).

Trust in certification can potentially be addressed by competitor testing, whereby competing expert-sellers verify information about products of competitors. Plambeck and Taylor (2019) show that when violations of certification lead to fines or restricted market access, competitor testing can be more effective in enforcing certification as compared to a regulator. However, entry of non-compliant firms with low-quality products is still possible when the market share of these low quality products is not sufficient to draw competitors to test the products.

Therefore, even if competitor testing is allowed, the need for a regulator to punish violation of product certification remains. Related to this, a regulator may also introduce minimum efficiency standards in order to avoid low-quality products entering the market. Brucal and Roberts (2019) and Houde and Spurlock (2015) analyze a change on minimum energy efficiency standards for several technologies, reporting evidence that prices of the remaining products decline, while quality and consumer welfare increase. These results suggest that removing highly inefficient technologies from the market can increase overall consumer welfare.

Certification in the context of credence goods may induce expert-sellers to increase markups associated with energy efficient products. Houde (2018) studies pricing behavior for suppliers of refrigerators who have lost their energy certification, and

estimates that certification increases the price of products by 2 to 5 percent.¹³ This suggests that certification on markets for credence goods can lead expert-sellers to partially appropriate expected benefits associated with lower energy consumption.¹⁴

Finally, we note that information may also come in the form of general recommendations such as web-based guidelines provided by the U.S. Department of Energy on how consumers can perform energy audits themselves or estimate their energy use for certain services.¹⁵ This may reduce the degree of asymmetric information when a diagnostic is performed and can be used to signal knowledge about personal needs. However, Gottschalk et al. (2017) reports field evidence in the context of dental care that such information does not necessarily increase market efficiency. In particular, the authors find that patients who signal knowledge obtained from an internet dentist platform, which provides information on diagnostics, do not benefit from a lower probability of overtreatment.

3.2 Separating diagnostic from treatment and independent energy audits

Energy audits provide information on the appropriate (cost-minimizing) treatment for consumers. However, if it is performed by an expert who also supplies the treatment to the consumer, supply-side incentives may cause a problem of supply-induced demand (e.g. for whichever option affords higher markups).¹⁶ This issue can be addressed by

¹³ A related paper by Fisher (2010) shows that vehicle manufacturers strategically select fuel efficiency of vehicles to extract surplus from consumers with alternative tastes for this characteristic of vehicles.

¹⁴ Note that when costs are unobserved, consumers are unable to determine whether higher prices reflect higher cost or surplus appropriation by the expert-seller. This possibility is ruled out in the setup studied in Dulleck et al. (2011).

¹⁵ See for example the Energy Saver Program of the U.S. Department of Energy (2018). By contrast, the National Energy Audit Tool (U.S. Department of Energy, 2012) is designed for experts on the supply side (utility companies, residential energy professionals, auditors, energy consultants and analysts), rather than for untaught consumers.

¹⁶ Similarly, Causholli et al. (2013) and Knechel (2013) discuss how auditing services (e.g. in the context of accounting) share the characteristics of credence goods when the audit and the treatment is performed by the same agent. They show that auditors may have incentives to under- or over-audit.

separating the diagnostic from the treatment, so that the expert performs the diagnostic while a seller supplies a treatment. While this reduces the scope to exploit asymmetric information, the consumer may have to pay for a diagnostic separately. This creates an additional barrier to the provision of a credence good.

Greiner et al. (2017) studies the separation of diagnostic and treatment experimentally in the context of a physician-patient relationship. When the diagnostic is free, consumers are more likely to seek one and treatment take-up increases. However, even though the seller is forced to stick to the diagnostic provided by the expert, overtreatment still occurs in 20 percent of all transactions (51 percent in the baseline), and undertreatment increases from 7 to 24 percent.¹⁷ These results presumably reflect spiteful behavior by experts since they earn no diagnosis fee. However, when the diagnostic is costly, fewer patients seek a diagnostic and market efficiency declines. These effects are confirmed in an experiment by Mimra et al. (2016), which shows that the possibility for consumers to obtain multiple diagnostics before they interact with an expert-seller lowers the probability of overtreatment, whereas diagnostic fees again reduce overall welfare.

In the context of energy efficiency investments, Anderson and Newell (2004) discuss the role of energy audits and emphasize the distinction between the independent auditor providing a diagnostic and the contractor who provides the service. Fleiter et al. (2012) study subsidized energy audits by independent contractors for small and medium companies. Survey evidence suggests that “consultants neutrality” was an important component of the program, which again highlights the importance of trust in this market generally and in the measures recommended by the expert in particular. However, empirical evidence reported in Fowlie et al. (2015) and Fowlie et al. (2018) suggests that the demand for energy audits by households is small, with few households

¹⁷ Note that the consumer can opt out of the market after a diagnostic, and the parameters of the experiment implies that both consumers and sellers benefit more from solving the high condition, so that overtreatment is expected. By contrast, in Dulleck et al. (2011) equal markups implies that overpricing dominates overtreatment.

signing up for highly subsidized energy audits. In turn, such strategies have limited effect on energy efficiency investments (see also Abrahamse et al., 2005).

A related intervention is that of ex-post auditing, discussed in the field study by Allcott and Greenstone (2017). In a first step, an independent state-certified auditor performs a free diagnostic to assess the consumer situation (m_i) and recommends the level of energy efficiency. In a second step, a certified contractor installs the technology (insulation, heating, cooling). After the work is completed the independent contractor returns to verify that the technology has been installed adequately. Allcott and Greenstone (2017) find that the sequence of audits increases the willingness to pay for unobserved (non-monetary) benefits associated with energy efficiency, leading 20 to 50 percent of consumers to install a technology with negative financial returns. A combination of ex-ante and ex-post auditing may therefore act as a safeguard to supply side inefficiencies arising from credence component of energy technology, although the cost of these audits may significantly increase the barrier to energy efficient technology adoption.

3.3 Third party reimbursement, subsidies and markups

Third party reimbursement represents a situation in which an expert-seller knows that the price charged will at least partly be borne by a third party, such as an insurer or an employer. Both theoretical predictions and empirical evidence shows that this leads expert-sellers to overtreat and overprice consumers, and increase market inefficiencies. We argue that this line of research is relevant for the design of energy efficiency policy, in which subsidies often play an important role. In particular, subsidizing credence goods is likely to affect pricing behavior or induce subsidy manipulation, and in turn the incentives of an expert-seller to provide adequate services provision.

Kerschbamer et al. (2016) provides field evidence on third party reimbursement in the market for computer repairs. When an expert-seller knows that the consumers is insured, the average bill for a pre-specified problem is EUR 129, as compared to EUR

59 when the consumer bears the full cost of the reparation. About one third of the difference is due to overtreatment (performing unnecessary repairs), the rest being explained by overpricing (charging for services which were not provided). Similar results for taxi rides are reported in Balafoutas et al. (2017), as passengers who state that their expenses are reimbursed are more likely to be taken on a detour. In the healthcare context, field evidence shows that physicians are more likely to overtreat when patients are insured (Iizuka, 2007, 2012; Lu, 2014), and Huck et al. (2016) replicate this finding in a laboratory experiment.¹⁸

In our framework, third-party reimbursement is akin to a situation where part of p_h and p_l is not borne by the consumer. By contrast, subsidizing the energy efficient technology implies that part of p_h is not borne by the consumer, which makes it more likely that q_h is cost-effective for a given m_i . Therefore the traditional view is that subsidizing energy efficient technologies accelerates their adoption (Jaffe and Stavins, 1994b; Comstock and Boedecker, 2011). However, results from the credence goods literature indicate that expert-sellers are prone to manipulate both diagnostic and delivery to appropriate (part of) the subsidy. For example, Iizuka (2007) shows that physicians who can directly sell drugs to patients are more likely to prescribe those that afford higher markups.

Subsidies may therefore affect supply-side incentives, notably through markups. While evidence on how subsidies affect prices market dynamics for energy efficient technologies,¹⁹ Allcott and Sweeney (2017) provide experimentally controlled evidence on how subsidies and markups affect expert-sellers behavior and the demand for water heaters. They study the behavior of sales agents in a call center, who cannot manipulating prices and instead rely on sales incentives, finding a strong complementarity

¹⁸ In addition to supply-side moral hazard, the authors also find evidence of demand side moral hazard, as insured patients tend to consult physicians more often.

¹⁹ Evidence by Pless and van Benthem (2017) in the context of electricity-generating technologies suggest that sellers of solar panels are indeed prone to price manipulation. See also Aldy et al. (2018) and De Groote and Verboven (2019) for a discussion of subsidies on investment costs or on electricity output.

between financial incentives for the seller and those for consumers. In particular, such joint incentives increase both the probability that the seller mentions financial savings associated with the energy efficient water heater and the number of sales of the more energy efficient technology. By contrast, a consumer rebate without sales incentives does not lead the seller to disclose information about financial savings associated with the energy efficient technologies, strategically marketing the energy efficient version to a small minority of responsive consumers which ultimately results in undertreatment of high usage consumers.

In sum, subsidies for energy efficiency interact with supply-side incentives, and given the lack of verifiability and liability on the market for energy efficiency this may favor strategic pricing and information disclosure. In turn, further research should be directed at the design of subsidies in a market for credence goods and their impacts on prices.

3.4 Reputation and repeated interactions

In a context where trust matters, expectations about repeated interactions between expert-sellers and consumers may encourage honest behavior. In line with this, Dulleck et al. (2011) find that providing consumers with information about interactions in previous rounds reduces overpricing, and increases the number of trades. Reputational concerns can potentially be relevant in the market for energy efficiency, for example by providing trustworthy information about past behavior.²⁰

Field evidence from car repairs by Rasch and Waibel (2017) suggests that garages in vicinity of a highway, and who are presumably less orientated towards repeated business, overprice more frequently. Similarly, Schneider (2012) finds that diagnosis fee for car repairs is significantly higher if consumer signals a one-shot interaction (stating to be moving away after the service and having moving boxes in the trunk). Note, however, that Schneider (2012) finds no evidence that signaling repeated business opportuni-

²⁰ One example where bilateral feedback systems have successfully enforced trust are online markets for search goods (Tadelis, 2016).

ties affect the quality of service, as undertreatment occurs with similar frequencies for consumers who signal single or multiple interactions.

In the context of energy efficiency, investment decisions are infrequent, and at the individual level it is difficult to leverage reputational concerns to induce honest behavior. Nevertheless, the literature suggests that consumer learning and reputation building by expert-sellers matters for investment decisions. In the market for cars, where consumers can learn about unobserved quality attributes through the experience of other consumers (e.g. through press reports), Heutel and Muehlegger (2015) show that adoption of high quality hybrid vehicles (the Toyota Prius) propagated a signal of high quality and increased the market share of all other models of hybrids. Conversely, the Honda Insight was perceived to be of lower quality, and its adoption had a negative impact on trust for that technology, leading to lower adoption rate for all other hybrid vehicles.

In the absence of verifiability, however, ex-post quality assessment for households is costly (e.g. by an independent auditor), which implies that bilateral feedback schemes are likely to be driven by subjective assessments and herding effects. Instead, what is needed is a credible measures of the quality of expert-sellers, such as monetary and energy savings realized after the installation of energy efficient technologies. In line with this, Gillingham and Tsvetanov (2018) study a program in which households interested in performing an energy audit of their dwelling are provided with information on realized monetary and energy savings measured for other audited households. This provides credible information about the trustworthiness of the expert-seller. In turn, households who have access to such information are more likely to carry out an audit themselves.

4 Conclusion

In this paper, we have investigated the credence component of energy-transforming technologies, arguing that the credence goods framework can be useful to further our

understanding of the adoption of energy efficient technologies and the associated energy efficiency gap. Starting from a basic model of energy efficiency investments, we identify how asymmetric information can lead to three types of supply side inefficiencies discussed in the credence goods literature, as well as low market participation. We highlight the difficulty to quantify energy savings, the associated failure of both verifiability and liability, and the often observed discrepancy between ex-ante and ex-post energy savings. Taken together, this suggests that insights about inefficiencies inherent to credence goods, such as the baseline experiment of Dulleck et al. (2011), are useful to inform the market for energy efficiency.

We then survey lab and field evidence on credence goods and relate key empirical findings to the literature on the adoption of energy efficient technologies. We can summarize the implications of our work for energy efficiency policies as follows. First, while informing consumers is important, a lack of verifiability of energy savings can induce supply-side incentives to manipulate information. Therefore, certification schemes and labels involve a trust component, which implies that third party verification of information credibility is necessary, and requires some form of supply-side liability for the level of efficiency delivered. Second, in the presence of credence goods, access to independent diagnostic services helps consumers receive appropriate evaluations of their problem, and can be used to mitigate supply-induced inefficiencies. However, empirical evidence suggests substantial transaction costs associated energy audits. It follows that policies facilitating independent *ex-post* audits, together with platforms to allow expert-sellers to build up a reputation for trustful behavior, provide an alternative approach to mitigate supply-induced inefficiencies. Third, the credence component of energy efficiency also has implications for the design of subsidies. Expert-sellers may partly capture these through pricing behavior, including overpricing, and overtreatment may raise the cost of replacing existing technologies, and in turn reduce the demand. Understanding pricing behavior is therefore an important component in the design of subsidies.

Based on our discussion on the credence component of energy efficiency, we close with two relevant domains for further research. First, energy performance contracting may theoretically solve supply side inefficiencies arising from asymmetric information on energy efficiency. While there exists some studies of contracting in the domain of energy efficiency, tackling contracting in the context of credence goods is an important research endeavor. Second, while research on energy labels is large and growing, evidence on the role of the trustworthiness of these labels is sparse. Given the importance of the credence component for energy technology, understanding the role of trust in energy certification also constitutes an important area for future research.

References

- Abrahamse, W., L. Steg, C. Vlek, and T. Rothengatter (2005) "A review of intervention studies aimed at household energy consumption," *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 25, pp. 273–291.
- Akerlof, G. A. (1970) "The market for "lemons": Quality uncertainty and the market mechanism," *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 84, 3, pp. 488–500.
- Aldy, J. E., T. D. Gerarden, and R. L. Sweeney (2018) "Investment versus output subsidies: Implications of alternative incentives for wind energy." NBER Working Paper No. 24378.
- Allcott, H. and M. Greenstone (2012) "Is there an energy efficiency gap?" *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 26, 1, pp. 3–28.
- (2017) "Measuring the welfare effects of residential energy efficiency programs." NBER Working Paper No. 23386.
- Allcott, H. and C. Knittel (2017) "Are consumers poorly-informed about fuel economy? Evidence from two experiments." NBER Working Paper No. 23076.
- Allcott, H. and R. L. Sweeney (2017) "The role of sales agents in information disclosure: Evidence from a field experiment," *Management Science*, 63, 1, pp. 21–39.
- Allcott, H. and N. Wozny (2014) "Gasoline prices, fuel economy, and the energy paradox," *Review of Economics and Statistics*, 96, 5, pp. 779–795.
- Anderson, S. T. and R. G. Newell (2004) "Information programs for technology adoption: The case of energy-efficiency audits," *Resource and Energy Economics*, 26, 1, pp. 27 – 50.
- Balafoutas, L., A. Beck, R. Kerschbamer, and M. Sutter (2013) "What drives taxi drivers? A field experiment on fraud in a market for credence goods," *Review of Economic Studies*, 80, 3, pp. 876–891.
- Balafoutas, L., R. Kerschbamer, and M. Sutter (2017) "Second-degree moral hazard in a real-world credence goods market," *The Economic Journal*, 127, 599, pp. 1–18.
- Baniamin, H. M. and I. Jamil (2018) "Institutional design for credence goods: Can the existence of financial incentive be problematic? Evidences from childbirth system of bangladesh," *International Journal of Public Administration*, 41, 14, pp. 1192–1203.
- Beck, A., R. Kerschbamer, J. Qiu, and M. Sutter (2014) "Car mechanics in the lab—-investigating the behavior of real experts on experimental markets for credence goods," *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 108, pp. 166–173.
- Bester, H. and M. Dahm (2017) "Credence Goods, Costly Diagnosis and Subjective Evaluation," *The Economic Journal*, 128, 611, pp. 1367–1394, 07.

- Brucal, A. and M. J. Roberts (2019) “Do energy efficiency standards hurt consumers? evidence from household appliance sales,” *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, 96, pp. 88 – 107.
- Burlig, F., C. Knittel, D. Rapson, M. Reguant, and C. Wolfram (2017) “Machine learning from schools about energy efficiency.” NBER Working Paper No. 23908.
- Causholli, M., W. R. Knechel, H. Lin, and D. E. M. Sappington (2013) “Competitive procurement of auditing services with limited information,” *European Accounting Review*, 22, 3, pp. 573–605.
- Chan, N. W. and K. Gillingham (2015) “The microeconomic theory of the rebound effect and its welfare implications,” *Journal of the Association of Environmental and Resource Economists*, 2, 1, pp. 133–159.
- Comstock, O. and E. Boedeker (2011) “Energy and emissions in the building sector: A comparison of three policies and their combinations,” *The Energy Journal*, 32, pp. 23–41.
- Darby, M. R. and E. Karni (1973) “Free competition and the optimal amount of fraud,” *The Journal of law and economics*, 16, 1, pp. 67–88.
- Davis, L. W., A. Fuchs, and P. Gertler (2014) “Cash for coolers: Evaluating a large-scale appliance replacement program in Mexico,” *American Economic Journal: Economic Policy*, 6, 4, pp. 207–238.
- Davis, L. W. and G. E. Metcalf (2016) “Does better information lead to better choices? Evidence from energy-efficiency labels,” *Journal of the Association of Environmental and Resource Economists*, 3, 3, pp. 589–625.
- De Groote, O. and F. Verboven (2019) “Subsidies and time discounting in new technology adoption: Evidence from solar photovoltaic systems,” *American Economic Review*, 109, 6, pp. 2137–72, June.
- Dubin, J. A., A. K. Miedema, and R. V. Chandran (1986) “Price effects of energy-efficient technologies: A study of residential demand for heating and cooling,” *The RAND Journal of Economics*, 17, 3, pp. 310–325.
- Dulleck, U., R. Kerschbamer, and M. Sutter (2011) “The economics of credence goods: An experiment on the role of liability, verifiability, reputation, and competition,” *The American Economic Review*, 101, 2, pp. 526–555.
- Dulleck, U. and R. Kerschbamer (2006) “On doctors, mechanics, and computer specialists: The economics of credence goods,” *Journal of Economic literature*, 44, 1, pp. 5–42.
- Efficiency Valuation Organization (2018) “International performance measurement and verification protocol (ipmvp).” Efficiency Valuation Organization, Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

- Emons, W. (1997) “Credence goods and fraudulent experts,” *The RAND Journal of Economics*, pp. 107–119.
- European Commission (2013) “Commission delegated regulation (EU) no 811/2013.” Brussels, Belgium.
- Fisher, C. (2010) “Imperfect competition, consumer behavior, and the provision of fuel efficiency in light-duty vehicles.” Resources for the future working paper.
- Fleiter, T., J. Schleich, and P. Ravivanpong (2012) “Adoption of energy-efficiency measures in SME’s: An empirical analysis based on energy audit data from Germany,” *Energy Policy*, 51, pp. 863 – 875.
- Fowlie, M., M. Greenstone, and C. Wolfram (2015) “Are the non-monetary costs of energy efficiency investments large? Understanding low take-up of a free energy efficiency program,” *American Economic Review*, 105, 5, pp. 201–04, May.
- (2018) “Do energy efficiency investments deliver? Evidence from the weatherization assistance program,” *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 133, 3, pp. 1597–1644.
- Gerarden, T. D., R. G. Newell, and R. N. Stavins (2017) “Assessing the energy-efficiency gap,” *Journal of Economic Literature*, 55, 4, pp. 1486–1525.
- Gillingham, K., D. Rapson, and G. Wagner (2016) “The rebound effect and energy efficiency policy,” *Review of Environmental Economics and Policy*, 10, 1, pp. 68–88.
- Gillingham, K. and K. Palmer (2014) “Bridging the energy efficiency gap: Policy insights from economic theory and empirical evidence,” *Review of Environmental Economics and Policy*, 81, pp. 18–38.
- Gillingham, K. and T. Tsvetanov (2018) “Nudging energy efficiency audits: Evidence from a field experiment,” *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, 90, pp. 303 – 316.
- Giraudet, L.-G. (2018) “Energy efficiency as a credence good: A review of informational barriers to building energy savings.” FAERE Working Paper, 2018.07.
- Giraudet, L.-G., S. Houde, and J. Maher (2018) “Moral hazard and the energy efficiency gap: Theory and evidence,” *Journal of the Association of Environmental and Resource Economists*, 5, 4, pp. 755–790.
- Goeschl, T. (2018) “Cold case: The forensic economics of energy efficiency labels for domestic refrigeration appliances.” mimeo.
- Gottschalk, F., W. Mimra, and C. Waibel (2017) “Health services as credence goods: A field experiment.” Working paper.
- Greiner, B., L. Zhang, and C. Tang (2017) “Separation of prescription and treatment in health care markets: A laboratory experiment,” *Health Economics*, 26, S3, pp. 21–35.

- Gruber, J., J. Kim, and D. Mayzlin (1999) “Physician fees and procedure intensity: The case of Cesarean delivery,” *Journal of Health Economics*, 18, pp. 473–490.
- Gruber, J. and M. Owings (1996) “Physician financial incentives and Cesarean section delivery,” *RAND Journal of Economics*, 27, pp. 99–123.
- Heutel, G. and E. Muehlegger (2015) “Consumer learning and hybrid vehicle adoption,” *Environmental and Resource Economics*, 61 (1), pp. 125–161.
- Houde, S. (2018) “Bunching with the stars: How firms respond to environmental certification.” ETH Zurich Working Paper Series.
- Houde, S. and C. A. Spurlock (2015) “Do energy efficiency standards improve quality? evidence from a revealed preference approach.” Working Paper, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory.
- Huck, S., G. Lünser, F. Spitzer, and J.-R. Tyran (2016) “Medical insurance and free choice of physician shape patient overtreatment: A laboratory experiment,” *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 131, pp. 78–105.
- Iizuka, T. (2007) “Experts’ agency problem: Evidence from the prescription drug market in Japan,” *RAND Journal of Economics*, 38, pp. 844–862.
- (2012) “Physician agency and adoption of generic pharmaceuticals,” *American Economic Review*, 102, pp. 2826–2858.
- Jacobsen, G. D. (2015) “Do energy prices influence investment in energy efficiency? Evidence from energy star appliances,” *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, 74, pp. 94–106.
- Jaffe, A. B. and R. N. Stavins (1994a) “The energy-efficiency gap what does it mean?” *Energy Policy*, 22, 10, pp. 804 – 810.
- (1994b) “Energy-efficiency investments and public policy,” *The Energy Journal*, 15, 2, pp. 43–65.
- Joskow, P. L. and D. B. Marron (1992) “What does a negawatt really cost? Evidence from utility conservation programs,” *The Energy Journal*, 13, 4, pp. 41–74.
- Kerschbamer, R., D. Neururer, and M. Sutter (2016) “Insurance coverage of customers induces dishonesty of sellers in markets for credence goods,” *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 113, 27, pp. 7454–7458.
- Kerschbamer, R., M. Sutter, and U. Dulleck (2017) “How social preferences shape incentives in (experimental) markets for credence goods,” *The Economic Journal*, 127, 600, pp. 393–416.
- Kerschbamer, R. and M. Sutter (2017) “The economics of credence goods – a survey of recent lab and field experiments,” *CESifo Economic Studies*, 63, 1, pp. 1–23.
- Klinke, S. (2018) “The determinants for adoption of energy supply contracting: Empirical evidence from the swiss market,” *Energy Policy*, 118, pp. 221–231.

- Knechel, W. R. (2013) “Do auditing standards matter?” *Current Issues in Auditing*, 7, 2, pp. A1–A16.
- Lu, F. (2014) “Insurance coverage and agency problems in doctor prescriptions: evidence from a field experiment in china,” *Journal of Development Economics*, 106, pp. 156–167.
- Mimra, W., A. Rasch, and C. Waibel (2016) “Second opinions in markets for expert services: Experimental evidence,” *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 131, pp. 106–125.
- Nadel, S. and K. Keating (1991) “Engineering estimates vs. impact evaluation results: How do they compare and why?”. American council for an energy-efficient economy research report 915.
- Newell, R. G. and J. Siikamäki (2014) “Nudging energy efficiency behavior: The role of information labels,” *Journal of the Association of Environmental and Resource Economists*, 1, 4, pp. 555–598.
- Plambeck, E. L. and T. A. Taylor (2019) “Testing by competitors in enforcement of product standards,” *Management Science*, 65, 4, pp. 1455–1947.
- Pless, J. and A. A. van Benthem (2017) “The surprising pass-through of solar subsidies.” NBER Working Paper No. 23260.
- Rasch, A. and C. Waibel (2017) “What drives fraud in a credence goods market? Evidence from a field study,” *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 80, 3, pp. 605–624.
- Sallee, J. (2014) “Rational inattention and energy efficiency,” *Journal of Law and Economics*, 57(3), pp. 781–820.
- Schneider, H. S. (2012) “Agency problems and reputation in expert services: Evidence from auto repair,” *The Journal of Industrial Economics*, 60, 3, pp. 406–433.
- Sorrell, S. (2004) “Understanding barriers to energy efficiency,” in S. Sorrell, E. O’Malley, J. Schleich, and S. Scott eds. *The Economics of Energy Efficiency: Barriers to Cost-Effective Investment*, Cheltenham: Edward Elger, Chap. 2, pp. 25–93.
- (2007) “The economics of energy service contracts,” *Energy Policy*, 35 (1), pp. 507–521.
- Tadelis, S. (2016) “Reputation and feedback systems in online platform markets,” *Annual Review of Economics*, 8, 1, pp. 321–340.
- Tietenberg, T. (2009) “Reflections-energy efficiency policy: Pipe dream or pipeline to the future?” *Review of Environmental Economics and Policy*, 3, 2, pp. 304–320.
- U.S. Department of Energy (2012) “National energy audit tool (neat).” Weatherization Assistance Program, Washington D.C., U.S.A.

——— (2018) “Energy saver program.” Office of Energy Efficiency and Renewable Energy, Washington D.C., U.S.A.

U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (2018) “Emission standards reference guide.” U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington D.C., U.S.A.

U.S. Federal Trade Commission (1979) “Federal register: 44 fed. reg. 66466. monday, 1979.” National Archives and Records Administration, Washington D.C., U.S.A.