Chapter 2

How Does a Natural Disaster Affect People's Preference? The Case of a Large Scale Flood in the Philippines Using the Convex Time Budget Experiments

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CHAPTER 2

How Does a Natural Disaster Affect People's Preference? The Case of a Large Scale Flood in the Philippines Using the Convex Time Budget Experiments

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This paper is an attempt to contribute to the literature on individual preferences and disasters by investigating the impact of a natural disaster on present bias, time discount, and risk aversion parameters, which are elicited by using a new experimental technique called the Convex Time Budget (CTB) experiments, developed by Andreoni and Sprenger (2012), as well as a more common method called the Double Multiple Price List (DMPL) experiments of Andersen, Harrison, Lau and Rutström (2009). We also conducted canonical dictator games to elicit degree of altruism, one of the most widely analysed social preferences. Based on these methods, we employed a unique experimental data set collected from a village in the Philippines, which was hit by a strong flood in 2012. Our focus is on the overall impact of the flood on preferences and decisions. We found the following three empirical results: First, the CTB experiments offer reasonable levels of time discounting, curvature and quasi-hyperbolic discounting in the whole sample. Second, this quasi-hyperbolic discounting in a Filipino village is contrasted with the dynamically consistent time preferences in the United States found by Andreoni and Sprenger. Finally, we found that being hit by the flood made individuals significantly more present-biased than those who were unaffected by the flood.

Keywords: Convex Time Budget experiment, Natural Disaster, Risk and Time Preference

JEL Classification: C93,D81,O12

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1. Introduction

Recently, a number of devastating natural disasters have hit both developed and developing countries. Hundreds of thousands of lives were lost in the 2013 Typhoon Haiyan (Yolanda) in the Philippines, the 3/11 compounded disaster in Tohoku, Japan in 2011, and the 2008 Sichuan earthquake in China. In 2011, the floods in Thailand involved relatively few human casualties, but caused USD 45.7 billion in damage, mainly to the manufacturing sector, as seven major industrial estates were inundated by floods. Disasters can have serious negative effects not only in terms of lives lost, but also on the livelihoods of survivors in the aftermath of the disaster.

In preparation for and response to the wide variety of shocks caused by natural disasters, people can adopt market insurance mechanisms, make use of government ex ante and ex post support, and use informal mutual insurance mechanisms in their community. To improve complementarities among these market, state, and community insurance mechanisms, we need to understand the roles of individual decisions and behaviours. In particular, we need to examine how individual and social preferences—the foundations of decision-making—are affected by disasters.

In economics, individual preference parameters have long been treated as "deep parameters," i.e., as given and thus constant over time (e.g., Stigler and Becker, 1977). Moreover, the pro-social behaviours or social preferences of individuals, usually modeled as a deviation from Nash equilibrium, have been regarded as "irrational" decisions. Studies on endogenous formation of individual and social preferences have only recently started to emerge, finding that they are not constant over time and that they change under some circumstances (Fehr and Hoff, 2011). As natural disasters and manmade disasters are traumatic events, they are likely to affect an individual's behaviour in the short term and possibly in the long term. Notable examples of such studies, on the Indian Ocean tsunami in 2004, are Cameron and Shah (2011) and Cassar, *et al.* (2011), as well as Callen, *et al.* (2014) on Afganistan, and Voors, *et al.* (2012) on Burundi. Cameron and Shah (2012) found that, in Indonesia, individuals who suffered a flood or earthquake in the past three years are more risk averse than those who did not. Cassar, *et al.* (2011)

showed that after the tsunami in Thailand, individuals who were affected by the disaster were substantially more trusting, risk averse and trustworthy. They found that individual-level welfare and aggregate growth-level are affected by changes in these social preferences. Callen, *et al.* (2014) investigated the relationship between violence and economic risk preferences in Afghanistan, finding a strong preference for certainty and violation of the expected utility framework. Most importantly, Voors, *et al.* (2012) used a series of field experiments in rural Burundi to find that individuals exposed to violence display more altruistic behaviour towards their neighbors and are more risk seeking. The results indicate that large shocks can have long-term consequences for non-market insurance mechanisms. While there have been developed empirical studies on household behaviour toward risks in developing countries, changes in individual parameters and behaviours by disasters still have remained to be largely identified.

In this paper we investigate the impact of a natural disaster on present bias, time discount, and risk aversion parameters, which are elicited by a new experimental technique called the Convex Time Budget (CTB) experiments, developed by Andreoni and Sprenger (2012) as well as the canonical experiments called the Double Multiple Price List (DMPL) experiments of Andersen, *et al.* (2008), in an integrated manner. We employ a unique experimental data set collected from a village in the Philippines, which was hit by a strong flood in 2012. Our focus is on the overall impact of the flood on preferences and decisions. Indeed, the Philippines suffers from tropical depression and typhoons nearly every year the country experiences about 20 tropical storms on average every year, usually occurring during the monsoon season from June to December.

2. Data

We studied residents in East Laguna village, which is located in the Pila municipality of Laguna province, approximately 80 kilometers south of Metro Manila, facing the east coast of Laguna de Bay. Its proximity to the International Rice Research Institute (IRRI), which is located in Los Baños and 20 kilometers away from the village, has enabled researchers to conduct surveys in cooperation with IRRI. The earliest documented survey carried out

in the village dates back to 1966, when a Japanese geographer, Hiromitsu Umehara (1967), conducted and reported the results of a total enumeration survey. After Umehara's first survey, 18 rounds of household surveys were conducted from 1974 to 2007 in collaboration with IRRI (Sawada, et al., 2012). Surveys in the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s were organised predominantly by Professor Yujiro Hayami and Professor Masao Kikuchi, who made numerous international academic contributions (Hayami and Kikuchi, 2000). They found that due to the increase in rice production and the fall in the price of rice, both of which were to some extent induced by the Green Revolution and land reform implementation, the income of agricultural households and food consumption of poor households increased significantly. They also found that a boost in non-agricultural income was a result of investment in education financed by the increased income from agricultural activities. In the 2000s, five further rounds of surveys were conducted by other researchers (Fuwa, et al., 2006; Kajisa, 2007; Sawada, et al., 2012). Due to these numerous surveys, a lot of benchmark information on the village has been collected, compiled, and carefully analysed.

In August 2012, the village was hit by serious flooding due to the southwest monsoon rains, also known as "habagat" in Tagalog. It had started with an eight-day period of torrential rains and thunderstorms in the Philippines from August 1st to August 8th. Its effects centered on Metro Manila, the surrounding provinces of the CALABARZON Region (Quezon, Cavite, Laguna and Rizal provinces) and the provinces of Region 3 (Bulacan, Pampanga and Bataan Provinces). Not a typhoon in its own right, the storm was a strong movement of the southwest monsoon "habagat" caused by the pull of Typhoon Saola (Gener) from August 1-3, strengthened by Typhoon Haikui. It caused typhoon-like damage such as river overflow and landslides to the region. In Laguna province, where East Laguna Village is located, "habagat" spawned flooding that submerged low-lying villages in 19 towns and cities including the village, destroying PhP 410.3 million worth of agriculture products. The damaged crops were planted in about 11,000 hectares of inundated farmlands of rice, corn and crops, and affected some 6,000 farmers. More than a half of the village area was submerged by floodwater, causing great damage to rice paddies.

We employ survey and experimental data collected exclusively for this study. The subjects were selected from the farmers in East Laguna village and surrounding villages. A total of 161 farmers participated in our field experiments on March 20th (34 participants), March 21st (32 participants), March 22nd (38 participants), March 23rd (40 participants), and March 24th (17 participants) in 2014.

3. Estimation Models

We carefully design and conduct two types of experiments to elicit present bias, time discount, and risk aversion parameters: First, we adopt a new experimental technique called the Convex Time Budget (CTB) experiments developed by Andreoni and Sprenger (2012); and second, we employ the canonical experiments called the Double Multiple Price List (DMPL) experiments of Andersen, *et al.* (2008). The data collected by both the CTB and DMPL experiments in the village are used to separately identify the three key parameters of the utility function: risk aversion parameter, 1- α ; time discounting parameter, δ ; and present bias parameter, β .

For the CTB and the DMPL, we assume a quasi-hyperbolic discounting structure for discounting and the preferences described by:

$$U(x) = x_t^{\alpha} + \beta \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \delta^k x_{t+k}^{\alpha}, \tag{1}$$

where the parameter δ captures standard long-run exponential discounting, and the parameter β captures a specific preference towards payments in the present, t=0. While present bias is associated with $\beta<1$, $\beta=1$ corresponds to the case of standard exponential discounting. Also, 1- α represents the coefficient of relative risk aversion.

3.1. The Convex Time Budget (CTB) Experiment

In the CTB experiment of Andreoni, *et al.* (2013), subjects are given the choice of (X, 0), (0, Y) or anywhere along the intertemporal budget constraint connecting these points, such that $Px_t + x_{t+k} = Y$, where $P = \frac{Y}{X}$ is the gross interest rate. In this setting, we can maintain a standard intertemporal Euler

equation:

$$MRS = \frac{x_t^{\alpha - 1}}{\beta^{1\{t = t_0\}} \delta^k x_{t+k}^{\alpha - 1}} = P$$

where t_0 is an indicator for whether t = 0. This can be rearranged to be linear in t, k, and P,

$$ln(\frac{x_t}{x_{t+k}}) = \frac{ln(\beta)}{\alpha - 1}t_0 + \frac{ln(\delta)}{\alpha - 1}k + \frac{1}{\alpha - 1}ln(P)$$
(3)

Assuming an additive error structure, this is estimable at either the whole group or individual level.

However, the allocation ratio $ln(\frac{x_t}{x_{t+k}})$ is not well defined at corner solutions. To address this problem, we can use the demand function to generate a non-linear regression equation based on

$$x_{t} = \frac{400(\beta^{t_{0}}\delta^{k}P)^{\frac{1}{\alpha-1}}}{1 + P(\beta^{t_{0}}\delta^{k}P)^{\frac{1}{\alpha-1}}}$$
(4)

which avoids the problem of the logarithmic transformation in (2).

3.2. The Double Multiple Price List (DMPL) Experiment

The DMPL consists of two stages (Andersen, et al., 2008). The first stage is designed to identify discounting. The second stage is designed to unconfound the first stage by providing information on utility function curvature through risky choice.

3.2.1. The Multiple Price List (MPL) Experiment

In the Multiple Price List (MPL) experiment, individuals make a series of binary choices between smaller sooner payments X and larger later payments

Y. The point in each price list where an individual switches from preferring the smaller sooner payment to the larger later payment carries interval information on discounting. In MPL, we assume $\alpha = 1$. Then, from Andersen, et al. (2008), the probability of choosing the smaller sooner payments X can be formalised as:

$$Pr(Choice = X) = \frac{(\beta^{t_0} \delta^k X)^{\frac{1}{v}}}{(\beta^{t_0} \delta^k X)^{\frac{1}{v}} + (\beta^{t_0} \delta^k Y)^{\frac{1}{v}}}$$
(5)

where v represents stochastic decision error. On the other hand, the probability of choosing the larger later payment is

$$Pr(Choice = Y) = \frac{(\beta^{t_0} \delta^k Y)^{\frac{1}{V}}}{(\beta^{t_0} \delta^k X)^{\frac{1}{V}} + (\beta^{t_0} \delta^k Y)^{\frac{1}{V}}}$$
(6)

In order to estimate parameters, β , δ , and ν , we can maximise the following conditional log-likelihood function:

$$lnL(\beta,\delta,\nu;X,Y) = \sum_{i} \mathbf{1}\{Choice = X\} ln(Pr(Choice = X) + \mathbf{1}\{Choice = Y\} ln(Pr(Choice = Y) + \mathbf{1}\{Choice = Y\} ln(Pr($$

3.2.2 The Holt and Laury (2002) Experiment

The Holt and Laury (2002) experiment is one of the most popular experiments to elicit an individual's attitude toward risks. In the Holt and Laury (2002) experiment, subjects face a series of decisions between a safe and risky binary (gamble) choice. The probability of the high outcome in each gamble increases as one proceeds through the task, such that where a subject switches from the safe to the risky gamble carries information on risk attitudes. In Holt and Laury, there are two options, A and B. For each outcome of each option A and B, the probability $p(M_{ij})$ is assigned by the experimenter. Then, the expected utility for lottery i (i

= A or B) is

$$EU_i = \sum_{j=1,2} (p(M_{ij}) \times M_{ij}^{\alpha})$$
(8)

The probability of choosing the safe binary gamble, the option A, is

$$Pr(Choice = A) = \frac{EU_A^{\frac{1}{\mu}}}{EU_A^{\frac{1}{\mu}} + EU_B^{\frac{1}{\mu}}}$$
 (9)

where μ represents stochastic decision error. On the other hand, the probability of choosing the risky binary gamble, option B, is

$$Pr(Choice = B) = \frac{EU_B^{\frac{1}{\mu}}}{EU_A^{\frac{1}{\mu}} + EU_B^{\frac{1}{\mu}}}$$
(10)

Then the conditional log-likelihood function to estimate parameters, α and μ , is

$$lnL(\alpha,\mu;A,B) = \sum_{i} \mathbf{1}\{Choice = A\}ln(Pr(Choice = A) + \mathbf{1}\{Choice = B\}ln(Pr(Choice = B))\}$$
(11)

3.2.3. The Double Multiple Price List (DMPL) Experiment

Combining the two multiple price list experiments shown above, in the double multiple price list (DMPL) experiments, the joint likelihood of the curvature and discount rate becomes:

$$lnL(\beta, \delta, \alpha, \mu, \nu; X, Y, A, B) = lnL^{RA} + lnL^{DR}$$
(12)

which is maximised using standard numerical methods.

4. Results

4.1. The Convex Time Budget (CTB) Experiment

Table 2.1 shows the estimation results of the curvature parameter, α , which is associated with risk aversion parameter, 1- α ; time discounting parameter, δ ; and present bias parameter, β . The first two columns report the estimated parameter based on equation (4) using non-linear least squares (NLS) and the last column shows results based on equation (3) using ordinary least squares (OLS). In all specifications, the estimated present bias parameter falls significantly below one, indicating substantial quasi-hyperbolic discounting in the whole sample. Time discount and risk aversion parameters are within a reasonable range.

Table 2.1: The Results of Aggregate CTB

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	NLS	NLS	OLS
β	0.827***	0.827***	0.788***
	(0.0166)	(0.0204)	(0.0266)
δ	0.993***	0.993***	0.992***
	(0.000272)	(0.000639)	(0.000868)
α	0.738***	0.738***	0.854***
	(0.0130)	(0.0200)	(0.0134)
Clustered SE's	No	Yes	Yes
N	2880	2880	2880

Standard errors in parentheses

In order to examine the impact of disasters, we re-estimate the model allowing for a heterogenous risk aversion associated parameter, α ; time discounting parameter, δ ; and present bias parameter, β , depending on the seven damage types: (1) overall damage; (2) house damage; (3) farm damage; (4) asset damage; (5) income loss; (6) increasing in debt; and (7) sickness or injury. The results are shown in Table 2.2 where subscript "zero" and "one" indicate "without damage" and "with damage," respectively. In this table, we can verify that the disaster affected the present bias parameter negatively

⁺ p < 0.10, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

though not necessarily significantly. Only house damage caused negative and significant impact on the present bias parameter.

Table 2.2.: The Effect of Habagat on Deep Parameters in CTB

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	None	House	Farm	Assets	Income	Debt	Sick or Injured	Day = 3 or 4
β ₀	0.878***	0.814***	0.773***	0.792***	0.837***	0.802***	0.796***	0.824***
	(0.0783)	(0.0286)	(0.0647)	(0.0283)	(0.0520)	(0.0308)	(0.0284)	(0.0366)
β_1	0.784***	0.698***	0.791***	0.745***	0.775***	0.771***	0.721***	0.749***
	(0.0275)	(0.0633)	(0.0290)	(0.0703)	(0.0307)	(0.0455)	(0.0756)	(0.0377)
δ_0	0.993***	0.992***	0.992***	0.992***	0.991***	0.993***	0.992***	0.991***
	(0.00269)	(0.000857)	(0.00182)	(0.000907)	(0.00246)	(0.000963)	(0.000874)	(0.00117)
δ_1	0.992***	0.989***	0.991***	0.990***	0.992***	0.990***	0.990***	0.992***
	(0.000901)	(0.00264)	(0.000988)	(0.00286)	(0.000893)	(0.00153)	(0.00371)	(0.00130)
α_0	0.883***	0.862***	0.849***	0.854***	0.818***	0.865***	0.854***	0.852***
	(0.0345)	(0.0143)	(0.0279)	(0.0141)	(0.0371)	(0.0166)	(0.0141)	(0.0196)
α_0	0.852***	0.825***	0.855***	0.854***	0.863***	0.839***	0.850***	0.855***
	(0.0140)	(0.0346)	(0.0152)	(0.0444)	(0.0139)	(0.0218)	(0.0433)	(0.0181)
$\beta_0 = \beta_1$	0.25	0.09	0.79	0.54	0.30	0.58	0.35	0.15
$\delta_0 = \delta_1$	0.65	0.20	0.74	0.46	0.60	0.13	0.56	0.75
$\alpha_0 = \alpha_1$	0.41	0.32	0.84	0.98	0.25	0.34	0.93	0.91
Clustered SE's	Yes	Yes						
N	2880	2880	2880	2880	2880	2880	2880	2880

Standard errors in parentheses

Figure 2.1 and Table 2.3 show the distribution of the incidence of damage caused by the flood. By using this damage information, we can construct a damage variable, which takes one if the incidence of damage is three or more; and takes zero if the incidence of damage is either one or two. We then allow the three deep parameters to differ depending on the damage status. The results are presented in Table 2.4 where subscript "zero" indicates "without damage" and "one" indicates "with damage." These estimation results indicate that individuals hit by the flood became significantly more present-biased than those unaffected by the flood.

⁺ p < 0.10, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Figure 2.1: Damage Levels by Habagat

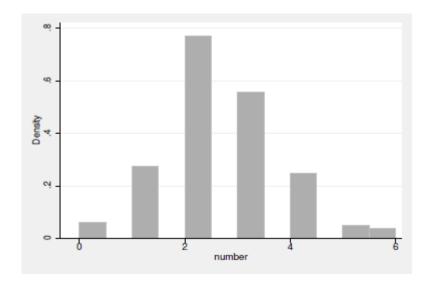


Table 2.3: The Number of the Damages

Item	Number	Per cent
0	5	3
1	22	14
2	62	39
3	45	28
4	20	12
5	4	2
6	3	2
Total	161	100

Source:Data_ExperimentGame_PilaMarch2014

Table 2.4: The Number of the Damages= 0/1 vs 4/5 or 0/1 vs 3/4/5/6

	(1)	(2)
	Severeness	Severeness1
β_0	0.861***	0.811***
	(0.0495)	(0.0317)
β_1	0.640***	0.640***
	(0.0802)	(0.0796)
δ_0	0.992***	0.993***
	(0.00190)	(0.000959)
δ_1	0.989***	0.989***
	(0.00320)	(0.00318)
α_0	0.834***	0.864***
	(0.0397)	(0.0158)
$\alpha_{ m l}$	0.822***	0.822***
	(0.0455)	(0.0452)
$\beta_0 = \beta_1$	0.023	0.049
$\delta_0 = \delta_1$	0.358	0.233
$\alpha_0 = \alpha_1$	0.841	0.384
N	1080	2112

4.2 The Double Multiple Price List (DMPL) Experiment

Table 2.5 shows estimation results of the three parameters, together with error parameters, using the double multiple price list (DMPL) experiments. Again, we can verify substantial present- bias. Yet, risk aversion parameters are unreasonably high, which may be an artifact of the experimental data treatment: For the results shown in Table 2.5, we treat the multiple switchers in the Hold and Laury experiment as single switchers by considering the first switching point only. Naturally, this may cause upward bias of the estimated risk attitude parameter, making utility function convex rather than concave. To verify this reasoning, we split our sample into the individuals without multiple switching and with switching. As we can see from Table 2.7, the risk preference parameter is substantially smaller if we use the non-switching samples only. This result supports the upward bias of the estimated risk preference parameter we had already found.

p < 0.10, p < 0.05, p < 0.01, p < 0.01, p < 0.001

Table 2.5: The Results in Aggregate DMPL

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	DMPL	HL	MPL
β	0.516***		0.608***
	(0.062)		(0.057)
δ	0.970***		0.974***
	(00025)		(0.002)
α	1.254***	1.255***	
	(0.158)	(0.082)	
v	0.383***		0.363***
	(0.062)		(0.030)
μ	0.554***	0.553***	
	(0.060)	(0.049)	
Clustered SE's	Yes	Yes	Yes
N	17268	16692	3862

Table 2.6: The Dummy Variable of Switching (Holt Laury)

Item	Number	Per cent
NO Switching	85	53
Switching	76	47
Total	161	100

Table 2.7: DMPL considering Switching

	(1)	(2)
	No Switching	Switching
δ	0.965***	0.975***
	(0.00348)	(0.00349)
ν	0.0906**	0.961***
	(0.0314)	(0.183)
β	0.404***	0.697***
	(0.0718)	(0.101)
α	0.352**	2.451***
	(0.123)	(0.183)
μ	0.170**	0.459***
	(0.0593)	(0.0340)
N	10500	6768

Standard errors in parentheses

 $^{^{+}}$ p < 0.10, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

 $^{^{+}}$ $p < 0.10, ^{*}$ $p < 0.05, ^{**}$ $p < 0.01, ^{***}$ p < 0.001

To examine the impact of disasters, we re-estimate the model allowing for a heterogenous risk aversion parameter, α ; time discounting parameter, δ ; and present bias parameter, β depending on the seven damage types: (1) overall damage; (2) house damage; (3) farm damage; (4) asset damage; (5) income loss; (6) increasing in debt; and (7) sickness or injury. The results are shown in Table 2.8, where subscript "zero" and "one" indicate "without damage" and "with damage,"respectively. The overall results in this table show that the disaster did not affect the present bias parameter negatively. The estimation results of the Holt and Laury (2002) experiments also show that the disaster did not affect risk preference parameter (Table 2.9).

Table 2.8: The Effect of Habagat on Deep Parameters in DMPL

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	None	House	Farm	Assets	Income	Debt	Sick	Day
δ_0	0.970***	0.969***	0.965***	0.970***	0.972***	0.972***	0.969***	0.971***
	(0.00682)	(0.00282)	(0.00540)	(0.00263)	(0.00448)	(0.00363)	(0.00262)	(0.00316)
δ_1	0.969***	0.972***	0.970***	0.961***	0.968***	0.967***	0.975***	0.967***
	(0.00259)	(0.00533)	(0.00282)	(0.00674)	(0.00302)	(0.00335)	(0.00774)	(0.00405)
ν ₀	0.549**	0.353***	0.453***	0.372***	0.488***	0.322***	0.377***	0.444***
	(0.186)	(0.0656)	(0.123)	(0.0649)	(0.122)	(0.0926)	(0.0628)	(0.0916)
ν_1	0.374***	0.496**	0.362***	0.472*	0.344***	0.430***	0.440	0.302***
	(0.0645)	(0.170)	(0.0711)	(0.221)	(0.0716)	(0.0848)	(0.317)	(0.0840)
β0	0.766^{+}	0.531***	0.394***	0.518***	0.545***	0.491***	0.493***	0.535***
	(0.437)	(0.0721)	(0.105)	(0.0658)	(0.124)	(0.0880)	(0.0643)	(0.0753)
β_1	0.508***	0.473***	0.547***	0.472***	0.504***	0.546***	0.720***	0.490***
	(0.0618)	(0.117)	(0.0728)	(0.116)	(0.0710)	(0.0842)	(0.183)	(0.0999)
α_0	2.304**	1.237***	1.654***	1.229***	1.659***	1.000***	1.299***	1.506***
	(0.825)	(0.181)	(0.392)	(0.168)	(0.355)	(0.240)	(0.166)	(0.217)
α_1	1.214***	1.303***	1.157***	1.481***	1.116***	1.487***	0.861^{+}	0.955***
	(0.160)	(0.319)	(0.171)	(0.443)	(0.172)	(0.212)	(0.471)	(0.225)
μ_0	0.569***	0.546***	0.703***	0.559***	0.743***	0.508***	0.564***	0.605***
	(0.146)	(0.0688)	(0.133)	(0.0657)	(0.127)	(0.104)	(0.0626)	(0.0750)
μ_1	0.543***	0.574***	0.510***	0.481***	0.479***	0.565***	0.422*	0.456***
	(0.0623)	(0.125)	(0.0679)	(0.146)	(0.0692)	(0.0730)	(0.213)	(0.0960)
$\beta_0 = \beta_1$	0.558	0.672	0.230	0.729	0.774	0.651	0.241	0.722
$\delta_0 = \delta_1$	0.963	0.609	0.356	0.192	0.435	0.250	0.456	0.444
$\alpha_0 = \alpha_1$	0.194	0.857	0.244	0.595	0.250	0.128	0.379	0.077
N	17268	17268	17268	17268	17268	17268	17268	17268

Clustered Standard errors in parentheses

 $^{^{+}}$ p < 0.10, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 2.9: The Effect of Habagat on Deep Parameters in Holt and Laury

	/43	(2)	(2)	44	/=\	/ 4\	/=\
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	None	House	Farm	Assets	Income	Debt	Sick
α_0	2.304**	1.238***	1.654***	1.230***	1.659***	1.000***	1.299***
	(0.825)	(0.181)	(0.392)	(0.168)	(0.355)	(0.240)	(0.166)
μ_0	0.569***	0.546***	0.703***	0.559***	0.743***	0.508***	0.564***
	(0.146)	(0.0686)	(0.133)	(0.0655)	(0.127)	(0.104)	(0.0626)
α_1	1.215***	1.303***	1.158***	1.481***	1.117***	1.488***	0.874+
	(0.160)	(0.319)	(0.171)	(0.443)	(0.172)	(0.211)	(0.468)
μ_1	0.543***	0.574***	0.510***	0.481***	0.479***	0.565***	0.426*
	(0.0622)	(0.125)	(0.0678)	(0.146)	(0.0690)	(0.0727)	(0.208)
μ_1	0.543***	0.574***	0.510***	0.481***	0.479***	0.565***	0.426*
	(8.74)	(4.58)	(7.52)	(3.30)	(6.95)	(7.77)	(2.04)
$\alpha_0 = \alpha_1$	0.195	0.859	0.245	0.5977	0.168	0.127	0.391
Clustered SE's	Yes						
N	720	720	720	720	720	720	720

4.3 The Convex Time Budget (CTB) Experiment: Individual Results

Based on the data from the convex time budget (CTB) experiments, we can also estimate the individual-level preference parameters. The distributions of each individual preference parameter are shown in Figure 2.2 and Table 2.10. While discount factor and risk parameters are clustered, we can see variations in the present bias parameter. We also examine the relationship between each parameter and observed characteristics captured by age and education level (Figure 2.3 and Table 2.11). While the correlation is not necessarily strong, we find negative correlation between present bias or time discount factor and education level. To validate this correlation, we run a quantile regression (Figure 2.4). These correlations can be found at a rather extreme level of parameters.

⁺ p < 0.10, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Figure 2.2: The Distribution of Each Individual Deep Parameters

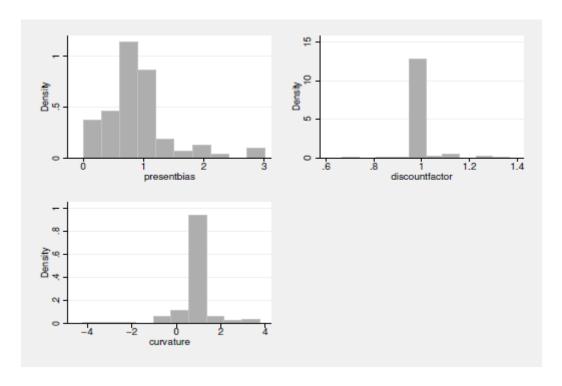


Table 2.10: The Result of Individual CTB

Statistics	Present Bias	Discount Factor	Curvature
Count	120	120	120
Mean	2.32	1.04	1.14
sd	4.34	0.13	1.38
p 5	0.13	0.96	-0.50
p25	0.68	0.99	0.75
Median	0.88	0.99	0.91
p75	1.09	1.00	0.94
p95	15.20	1.39	4.36

Figure 2.3: The Relationship between Deep Parameters, Age and Education

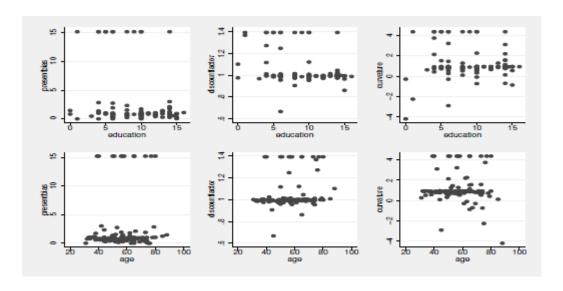


Table 2.11: OLS Regression

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	presentbias	discountfactor	curvature
age	-0.000268	0.00108*	-0.0101
	(0.00471)	(0.000515)	(0.00953)
education	0.00538	-0.00335	0.0462
	(0.0144)	(0.00224)	(0.0329)
_cons	0.856**	0.973***	0.895 ⁺
	(0.294)	(0.0340)	(0.453)
N	108	108	108

 $^{^+}$ $p < 0.10, ^*$ $p < 0.05, ^{**}$ $p < 0.01, ^{***}$ p < 0.001

Figure 2.4: The Quantile Regression

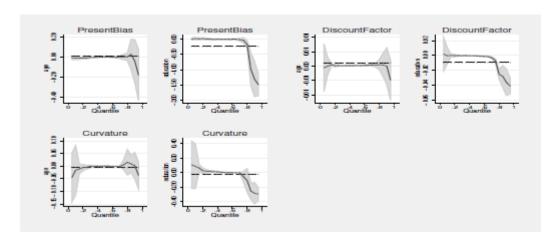
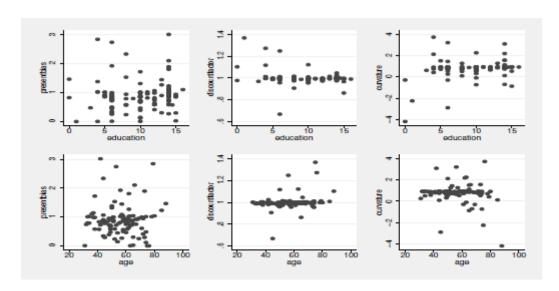


Figure 2.5: The Relationship between Deep Parameters, Age and Education without Outliers



We replicated the same analysis using a trimmed sample by deleting observations with the largest present bias parameter (Table 2.12). The results, shown in Table 2.13 and Figure 2.6, maintain the same qualitative pattern as before.

Table 2.12: The Result in Individual CTB without Outliers

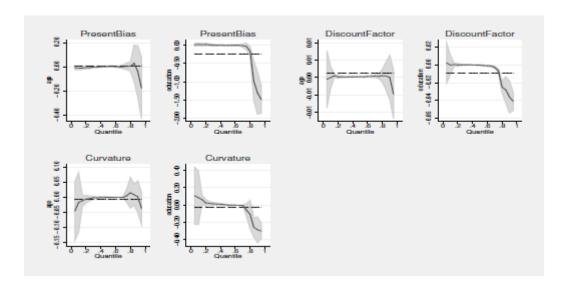
Statistics	Present Bias	Discount Factor	Curvature
Count	108	108	108
Mean	0.893	1.000	0.782
sd	0.540	0.066	0.916
p 5	0.119	0.960	-0.704
p25	0.599	0.990	0.745
Median	0.855	0.994	0.899
p75	1.017	1.001	0.938
p95	1.929	1.102	2.137

Table 2.13: OLS Regression without Outliers

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	presentbias	discountfactor	curvature
age	-0.000268	0.00108*	-0.0101
	(0.00471)	(0.000515)	(0.00953)
education	0.00538	-0.00335	0.0462
	(0.0144)	(0.00224)	(0.0329)
_cons	0.856**	0.973***	0.895+
	(0.294)	(0.0340)	(0.453)
N	108	108	108

Standard errors in parentheses

Figure 2.6: The Quantile Regression without Outliers



 $^{^+}$ $p < 0.10, ^*$ $p < 0.05, ^{**}$ $p < 0.01, ^{***}$ p < 0.001

4.4 Dictator Game Results

In addition to the CTB and the DMPL experiments, we conduct a canonical dictator game experiment to elicit altruism. In the dictator game, the sender, called the "dictator," is provided with PhP 1,000 in 100 peso notes as the initial endowment that he/she can either keep or allocate to the receiver. Hence, the dictator must decide the transfer amount to his receiver from the possible transfer amounts, 0, 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, and 1,000 pesos. Since there is no self-interested reason for the sender to transfer money, the senders with zero transfers satisfy the Nash equilibrium. Hence, the actual positive amount of transfer is interpreted as the level of altruism (Camerer and Fehr, 2004; Levitt and List, 2007). We also adopt strategy methods, asking all participants as a sender the amounts they would send to each of four potential partners. The four partners are a randomly selected person in the same barangay, a randomly selected victim of the typhoon Yolanda, a randomly selected victim of the Great East Japan Earthquake of March 2011 and a randomly selected person from the Philippines. To investigate how the partner affects the subjects' responses and Habagat changes their responses, we postulate the following regression equation

$$Donation_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Partner_{ij} + \beta_2 Habagat_i + \beta_3 Partner_{ij} \times Habagat_i + \beta_4 X_i + \varepsilon_{ij}$$
(13)

where $Donation_{ij}$ is the amount subject i gives to the partner j in the dictator game, $Partner_{ij}$ is a dummy variable which indicates who is the partner, $Habagat_i$ is a dummy variable which indicates whether the subject is affected by Habagat or not, X_{ij} is a control variable and ε_{ij} is an error term.

Histograms of the dictator game results are shown in Figure 2.7 by partner. The amounts sent to victims of typhoon Yolanda or the Great East Japan Earthquake are significantly larger than those sent to someone in the same village or in the Philippines. The same pattern is confirmed by the regression results of Table 2.14 and 2.15.

Figure 2.7: The Histogram of the Amount of Donation

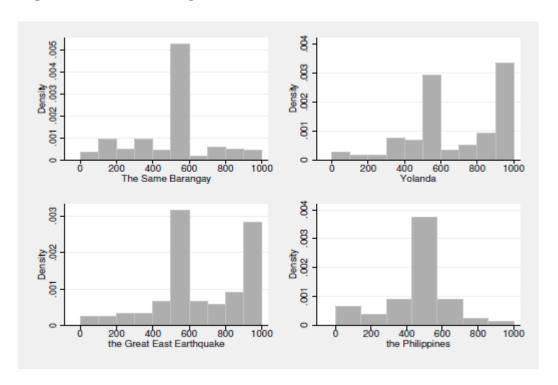


Table 2.14: The Relationship between the Amount of Donation, the Partner and Habagat

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	donation	donation	donation	donation	donation
Yolanda	195.8***	213.5***	213.5***	213.5***	145.7
	(27.99)	(31.97)	(32.03)	(32.30)	(100.5)
Earthquake	176.7***	187.6***	187.6***	187.6***	230.4*
	(27.77)	(33.48)	(33.53)	(33.82)	(95.18)
Philippines	-2.778	11.98	11.66	2.946	115.9 ⁺
- mappares	(25.30)	(24.77)	(24.75)	(24.64)	(62.63)
	()				
gender		-41.97	-40.06	-50.89	-52.83
		(48.88)	(49.73)	(52.08)	(53.09)
age		6.870	7.469	11.45	11.06
a.B.c		(11.60)	(12.01)	(11.39)	(11.90)
		(22.00)	(12.01)		
age2		-0.0233	-0.0291	-0.0610	-0.0581
		(0.0954)	(0.0994)	(0.0941)	(0.0990)
education		10.91*	10.60+	9.942+	10.11+
editation		(5.156)	(5.350)	(5.501)	(5.657)
		(3.130)	(3.330)	(3.301)	(5.051)
None			-24.83		
			(89.64)		
House				-6.017	4.678
House				(47.35)	(61.42)
				(47.55)	(01.42)
Farm				9.752	0.308
				(47.30)	(63.87)
Assets				-123.8	-21.41
Assets				(83.97)	(135.3)
				(63.51)	(133.3)
Income				52.74	47.28
				(43.11)	(52.43)
Debt				-9.620	9.281
Deut					
				(43.09)	(56.69)
Sick				-18.28	-30.92
				(77.51)	(83.90)
				. ,	

Table 2.14: (*cont.*)

House × Yolanda	-16.24
House × Earthquake	(72.77) -37.03 (89.47)
House × Philippines	15.50 (57.36)
$Farm \times Yolanda$	75.54 (81.98)
${f Farm} imes {f Earthquake}$	1.740 (84.48)
Farm × Philippines	-89.12 (58.33)
Assets \times Yolanda	-181.2 (181.2)
Assets × Earthquake	-195.0 (202.5)
Assets × Philippines	170.2 ⁺ (98.18)
$\mathbf{Income} \times \mathbf{Yolanda}$	66.37 (69.88)
Income × Earthquake	-10.18 (72.77)
Income × Philippines	-82.95 (56.56)
Debt × Yolanda	-18.72 (72.45)
Debt × Earthquake	-40.48 (76.78)
Debt × Philippines	9.602 (61.70)
Sick × Yolanda	-80.61 (108.8)

Table 2.14: (*cont.*)

Sick × Earthquake					85.53 (109.5)
$Sick \times Philippines$					53.80 (78.24)
_cons	458.3*** (20.00)	32.29 (353.2)	43.86 (356.2)	-114.2 (363.0)	-111.0 (373.3)
N	414	307	307	307	307

Standard errors in parentheses
+ p < 0.10, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 2.15: The Relationship between the Amount of Donation, the Deep Parameters, the Partner and Habagat

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	donation	donation	donation	donation	donation
presentbias	-12.43 ⁺	-9.036	-9.076	-7.359	-9.482
	(6.614)	(8.642)	(8.649)	(9.236)	(8.650)
curvature	9.596	4.993	5.128	2.432	5.534
Curvature	(16.62)	(19.14)	(18.75)	(20.97)	(20.29)
	(10.02)	(17.14)	(10.75)	(20.77)	(20.27)
discountfactor	356.4*	385.8^{+}	386.4^{+}	337.5	384.8
	(145.1)	(217.3)	(217.5)	(255.6)	(250.4)
37-11-	212 5***	212 5***	212 5***	212 5***	145.7
Yolanda	213.5***	213.5***	213.5***	213.5***	145.7
	(31.92)	(32.14)	(32.19)	(32.47)	(101.0)
Earthquake	187.6***	187.6***	187.6***	187.6***	230.4*
•	(33.42)	(33.65)	(33.70)	(33.99)	(95.71)
-1.31					
Philippines	6.956	13.10	12.76	5.490	125.2+
	(27.25)	(25.05)	(25.06)	(24.63)	(64.88)
gender		-50.99	-48.89	-50.12	-52.83
Serret		(49.58)	(50.37)	(52.57)	(53.63)
		(11111)	(/		(/
age		6.248	6.900	11.01	9.993
		(11.92)	(12.35)	(11.92)	(12.38)
age2		-0.0217	-0.0280	-0.0611	-0.0531
agez		(0.0989)	(0.103)	(0.0994)	(0.103)
		(0.0303)	(0.103)	(0.0551)	(0.105)
education		12.65*	12.30*	11.38^{+}	11.54^{+}
		(6.002)	(6.143)	(6.114)	(6.253)
Mana			28.00		
None			-28.00		
			(90.93)		
				-13.27	-1.671
House				(49.42)	(65.19)
-				0.000	0.000
Farm				8.266	-0.926
				(47.95)	(66.25)
Assets				-81.77	21.39
				(94.06)	(146.0)
				, ,	, ,

Table 2.15: (*cont.*)

Income	47.95	42.31
income.	(44.03)	(54.96)
Debt	-25.41	-7.988
	(45.42)	(59.13)
Sick	-27.44	-40.27
Sick	(78.22)	(88.94)
	(70.22)	(00.54)
House×Yolanda		-16.24
		(73.17)
H		27.02
House×Earthquake		-37.03
		(89.96)
House×Philippines		11.30
••		(57.89)
Farm×Yolanda		75.54
		(82.43)
Farm×Earthquake		1.740
1 am / Latinquake		(84.95)
		(01.50)
Farm×Philippines		-95.66
		(60.51)
Assets×Yolanda		-181.2
Assets × Totalida		(182.2)
		(102.2)
Assets×Earthquake		-195.0
		(203.6)
A		2242+
Assets×Philippines		224.3+
		(127.3)
Income×Yolanda		66.37
		(70.27)
Income×Earthquake		-10.18
		(73.18)
Income×Philippines		-84.71
income of imposites		(57.44)
		()
$Debt \times Yolanda$		-18.72
		(72.85)

Table 2.15: (*cont.*)

Debt×Earthquake					-40.48 (77.20)
Debt×Philippines					8.979 (62.33)
$Sick \times Yolanda$					-80.61 (109.4)
Sick×Earthquake					85.53 (110.1)
Sick×Philippines					48.23 (81.45)
_cons	85.11 (152.7)	-339.0 (415.5)	-326.0 (416.5)	-429.0 (437.6)	-454.6 (433.7)
N	307	307	307	307	307

4.5. Behaviours

In previous studies on behavioural economics, researchers attributed undesirable behaviours such as obesity, over-eating, debt overhang, gambling, smoking, drinking, and other procrastination behaviours to naive hyperbolic discounting (Banerjee and Mullainathan, 2010). In our data, we can verify whether and how individual preferences are related with risk taking behaviour such as gambling, smoking, and drinking. The estimation results are shown in Table 2.16, which represents insignificant relationship between the present bias parameter and risk taking behaviours.

⁺ p < 0.10, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 2.16: The Relationship between Risk Taking Behavior and Deep Parameters

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	#ofgambling	#ofgambling	smoking	smoking	alcohol	alcohol
presentbias (β)	0.0470	0.0376	-0.00530	0.00557	-0.0246	-0.0114
	(0.0297)	(0.0284)	(0.0231)	(0.0213)	(0.0183)	(0.0165)
discountfactor (δ)	-2.187**	-1.964*	0.0641	-0.187	1.258**	0.0779
	(0.685)	(0.808)	(0.894)	(0.845)	(0.420)	(0.581)
curvature (α)	0.0199	0.0341	0.0117	-0.00588	-0.0409	0.0125
	(0.0602)	(0.0670)	(0.0580)	(0.0559)	(0.0347)	(0.0547)
gender		-0.393*		0.371***		0.517***
		(0.164)		(0.0568)		(0.0759)
age		0.0000458		0.0199		-0.0285
		(0.0427)		(0.0259)		(0.0279)
age2		0.000000240		-0.000153		0.000316
		(0.000366)		(0.000229)		(0.000249)
education		-0.00295		0.00367		-0.0114
		(0.0215)		(0.0106)		(0.0108)
_cons	2.876***	2.799+	0.682	0.172	-0.680	0.956
	(0.690)	(1.613)	(0.859)	(1.203)	(0.424)	(1.043)
N	120	120	120	120	120	120

5. Conclusion

This paper's empirical investigations provide three main results. First, the Convex Time Budget (CTB) experiments developed by Andreoni and Sprenger provide reasonable levels of present bias, time discounting and risk aversion parameters in all specifications. Second, in contrast with Andreoni and Sprenger's findings in the United States, we find that the estimated present bias parameter falls significantly below one in the Filipino village we studied, indicating quasi-hyperbolic discounting in the whole sample. This finding indicates that Andreoni and Sprenger's argument that the unique steps CTB experiments take to equate the costs and risks associated with payments that are made too soon and payments that are made too late may not be related to the dynamically consistent time preferences they obtain. Finally, we divide our sample into sub-groups depending on their damage types. By doing this, we find that the natural disaster affects the present bias parameter: being hit by the flood makes individuals significantly more present-biased than those who are unaffected by the flood. This implies that individual preference

⁺ p < 0.10, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

parameters are not constant over time and that they change under some circumstances.

These findings come with several important caveats. First, while we find that the natural disaster affects the present bias parameter, the mechanisms behind such affects are still unknown from the theoretical viewpoints. Second, since the relationship between preference parameters and real-world socio-economic circumstances are under-investigated, we should link and analyse living standard surveys and experimental responses by the same individuals. These are important tasks for future research.

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