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#### The Effect of Future Availability of Information on Willingness to Pay

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#### Abstract

This paper analyzes the effect that potential future availability of information has on willingness to pay in a contingent market characterized by uncertainty and irreversibility. In particular, I test whether the effect is consistent with the predictions of Zhao and Kling's (forthcoming) theory of commitment cost. The analysis is performed using the results of a contingent valuation study designed to estimate the degree to which local residents value improved water quality in Clear Lake, a spring-fed, glacial lake located in north-central Iowa. The results show that willingness to pay is highly sensitive to the potential for future learning. Offering survey respondents the opportunity to delay their purchasing decision until more information is available led to a significant decrease in willingness to pay. This suggests that contingent valuation practitioners must take care to accurately represent the potential for future learning or else risk biased valuation estimates.

Key words: commitment cost, contingent valuation, real options.

#### THE EFFECT OF FUTURE AVAILABILITY OF INFORMATION ON WILLINGNESS TO PAY

Environmental economists have long recognized the importance of providing respondents with adequate information when eliciting willingness to pay within the contingent valuation framework. For example, studies have shown that information about resource quality, the price and availability of substitutes, and the respondents' budget constraints all significantly affect willingness to pay. Less attention has been given to the dynamic nature of the value formulation process and how it might be affected by uncertainty and the potential availability of future information. However, in a contingent market characterized by uncertainty and the potential for future learning, the ability to delay an irreversible decision may have a significant effect on respondents' willingness to pay in the current period.

Zhao and Kling (forthcoming) have developed a model focusing on what they call "commitment cost." Their model uses real options theory to analyze the effect of potential future learning on willingness to pay (WTP) in the presence of uncertainty and irreversibility.

My goal in this study is to test whether offering survey respondents the opportunity to delay the decision to "purchase" an environmental quality improvement affects willingness to pay and, in particular, whether the effects are consistent with the predictions of the commitment cost model. Data for this analysis were collected in the fall of 2000 using a survey designed to estimate the value area residents place on improved water quality in Clear Lake, a spring-fed, glacial lake located in north-central Iowa. In order to gauge the impact of potential learning on WTP, some respondents were told that the hypothetical referendum contained in the survey instrument represented their final chance to vote on improving water quality. Others were told that, should the referendum fail, they would be given a second chance to vote on the same initiative once further water quality research had been conducted. Respondents were also presented with varying degrees of uncertainty regarding the extent of improvement that would follow from the proposed clean-up measures. The survey's results suggest that, under certain circumstances, offering respondents the ability to delay their decision significantly reduces willingness to pay.

#### Background

To date, empirical work on the effect of information on WTP primarily has focused on a static value formulation problem. In their survey of the literature, Blomquist and Whitehead (1998) present the respondent's maximization problem as

max  $U(q_1, q_2, x)$  subject to  $p' x \le m$ ,

where  $U(\cdot)$  is the utility function,  $q_1$  is the environmental good of interest,  $q_2$  is a vector of substitute environmental goods, x represents all private goods, m is the respondent's income, and p is a vector of prices. The authors point out that empirical work on the effects of information on valuation has focused on information regarding the quality of  $q_1$ , the price and availability of  $q_2$ , and information reminding respondents of their budget constraint. For example, Samples, Dixon, and Gowen (1986); Bergstrom, Stoll, and Randall (1990); and Blomquist and Whitehead (1998) show that information regarding resource quality significantly impacts valuation. With respect to the price and availability of substitutes, empirical work by Boyle, Reiling, and Phillips (1990) suggests that information regarding changes in the price of alternative outdoor activities has no effect on WTP for a related good. Similarly, Loomis, Gonzalez-Caban, and Gregory (1994) find that information regarding the price and availability of substitutes has no significant effect on WTP when respondents are familiar with the resource being valued. However, a more recent study by Whitehead and Blomquist (1997) finds that such information plays a significant role for respondents unfamiliar with the resource. And while Loomis, Gonzalez-Caban, and Gregory find that providing respondents with information regarding their budget constraint has no effect on WTP, Cummings and Taylor (1999) and List (forthcoming) show that such information can significantly reduce WTP.

While the empirical literature has established the importance of information in the practice of contingent valuation, it largely has ignored the dynamic issues associated with the value formulation process. To date, work that considers these issues primarily has

been theoretical. For example, Hoehn and Randall (1987) propose what they call the value formulation problem. They model the formulation of stated benefit measures as subject to two types of error: that due to imperfect information and that due to time constraints. Imperfect communication arises when survey designers try to convey complex policy issues to respondents. Misunderstanding or miscommunication of these issues leads to greater uncertainty surrounding the value of the good in question. The result is a decrease in reported WTP. Likewise, placing constraints on the amount of time respondents have to consider valuation questions cuts short their utility maximization process and leads to a decrease in reported WTP.

Also of interest is the quasi-option-value literature based on the work of Arrow and Fisher (1974) and Henry (1974). In contrast to Weisbrod's (1964) original concept of option value, which today is viewed essentially as a risk premium, quasi option value (QOV) may be non-zero even when agents are risk neutral. QOV takes into account not only uncertainty but also the irreversibility of development and the resulting asymmetry of the development decision. This asymmetry follows from the fact that the decision to preserve a resource in the current period can be reversed if the decision is made to develop in the future. On the other hand, the decision to develop in the current period cannot be reversed in the future because the landscape has been irreparably altered. Faced with uncertainty and asymmetric irreversibility, there exists an incentive to delay development until more information becomes available. An agent who considers these issues will pursue less development in the current period than would a naive agent. QOV is equal to a shadow tax that induces the efficient level of development from the naive agent. As Hanemann (1989) puts it, QOV is the conditional value of perfect information, conditional, that is, on the resource being preserved today. Conrad (1980), Viscusi (1988), Hanemann (1989) and Usategui (1990), among others, have added to the theoretical work related to QOV.

Little empirical work has been published on the magnitude of QOV relative to expected consumer surplus. An exception is work on mining development by Greenley, Walsh, and Young (1981), though their survey design and theoretical underpinnings have been criticized (see Brookshire, Eubanks, and Randall 1983; Freeman 1984; Mitchell and Carson 1985; and Hanemann 1989). Zhao and Kling look at the formulation of WTP in a dynamic setting characterized by uncertainty, irreversibility, and the potential for future learning. Given that an agent is uncertain about the actual value of the good she is interested in buying, delaying the transaction may be in her best interest if more information regarding the good's value can be gained by waiting. Therefore, in order to commit to the purchase now and forgo future learning opportunities, the agent must be compensated by being offered a lower price than would have been acceptable were future learning not an option. The authors refer to this compensation as the commitment cost.

Zhao and Kling's theory predicts that the cost of commitment increases as agents (i) are more uncertain about a good's value, (ii) expect that more information about a good will be available in the future, (iii) are more patient in consuming a good, (iv) expect to encounter more difficulty in reversing a transaction, and (v) have less freedom in choosing when to make decisions.

#### **Commitment Cost: A Formal Model**

To better see how commitment cost might affect WTP, I develop a mathematical model that is an extension of the one presented by Zhao and Kling (2000). I begin with a simple, two-period, time-separable utility function:

$$U(m,G) = u_1(m,G) + \boldsymbol{b}u_2(m,G),$$
(1)

where *m* represents per-period income, *G* represents environmental quality, and **b** is the discount factor. The status quo level of environmental quality is denoted by  $G_0$ . A higher level of environmental quality *G* can be purchased in the current period, the future period, or not at all. If *G* is purchased in the current period, it can also be enjoyed in the future at no additional cost. For example, *G* might be achieved through a package of government-sponsored mitigation efforts such as establishing buffer strips and retiring agricultural land around a lake in order to reduce nutrient inflow. In this study, the agent's decision to "purchase" improved environmental quality will be thought of as her voting yes on a hypothetical referendum that would both implement the policies intended to improve environmental quality and impose a \$*p* tax on area households.

In this model, I assume that the agent is uncertain about the value of *G*. This could be due to uncertainty either regarding the degree to which water quality would be improved if the proposed policies were implemented or regarding how much benefit the agent actually would derive from those improvements. Formally speaking, the agent's beliefs regarding *G* are represented by the distribution function  $F_0(G)$  and the corresponding density  $f_0(G)$ . A signal arriving in the second period provides more information about *G*. This signal is denoted by  $s \in S \subset \mathbb{R}$ , where *S* is the set of all possible signals and  $\mathbb{R}$  is the real number line. In the context of the Clear Lake study, the signal could be thought of as more accurate information regarding the degree of water quality improvement brought about by proposed mitigation efforts. Qualified by the true value of *G*, the nucconditional density function for *s* can then be defined as  $h(s) = \int h_{s|G}(\cdot)dF_0(\cdot)$ . Observing *s*, the agent updates her beliefs about *G* according to Bayes's rule:  $f_{G|s} = h_{s|G}(\cdot)f_0(\cdot)/h(\cdot)$ .

Let  $EU_1$  denote the agent's expected utility if she purchases G in the current period. Since the new level of environmental quality can be enjoyed now and in the future, I write this as

$$EU_1 = E_G\left(u\left(m - p, G\right) + \boldsymbol{b}u\left(m, G\right)\right),\tag{2}$$

where *p* is the price of implementing the new environmental policy, and  $E_G(\cdot)$  represents expectation over *G*. Let V(p, s) be the agent's expected surplus from delaying the purchase until after observing *s*. That is,

$$V(p,s) = \int (u(m-p,G) - u(m,G_0)) dF_{G|s}(G).$$
(3)

If the agent waits until the future period to observe the signal, she will buy the good if and only if  $V(p,s) \ge 0$ . Let  $EU_2$  denote the agent's expected utility if she delays the purchasing decision. This can be represented as

$$EU_{2} = u(m, G_{0}) + \boldsymbol{b} \operatorname{Pr}(S_{P1})E_{G}(u(m-p, G) | s \in S_{P1}) + \boldsymbol{b} \operatorname{Pr}(S_{P2})u(m, G_{0}), \quad (4)$$

where  $S_{P_1}(p) = \{s \in S | V(p, s) \ge 0\}$  and  $S_{P_2}(p)$  is the compliment of  $S_{P_1}(p)$ . In other words,  $S_{P_1}(p)$  is the set of all signals that will induce the agent to purchase *G* in the second period, while  $S_{P_2}(p)$  is the set of signals that will lead the agent to opt for the status quo level of environmental quality  $G_0$ .

Given a functional form for  $U(\cdot)$ , it is possible to calculate a closed-form expression for the commitment cost *CC*. I assume that

$$u(\cdot) = \mathbf{a} \frac{m^r}{\mathbf{r}} + (1 - \mathbf{a}) \frac{G^r}{\mathbf{r}}.$$
(5)

This is a monotonic transformation of the familiar constant elasticity of substitution (CES) utility function, where  $a \in [0,1]$  is the weight the agent puts on income, and  $r \leq 1$  relates to the agent's elasticity of substitution (s = 1/(1-r)). One of the benefits of the CES utility function is that the linear, Cobb-Douglass, and Leontief utility functions are all special cases corresponding to  $r = 1, 0, \text{ and } -\infty$ , respectively.

Taking into account uncertainty, irreversibility, and the opportunity for learning, the agent's decision in the current period is whether to buy now or to delay the decision until next period when more information will be available. In this dynamic framework, the rational agent's maximum willingness to pay,  $wtp^R$ , is the critical price,  $p^R$ , that leaves her indifferent between committing to *G* in the current period and delaying her decision until the future. Recalling that  $EU_1$  is the agent's expected utility from buying today, the equation can be written as

$$EU_1 = \frac{\boldsymbol{a}}{\boldsymbol{r}}(\boldsymbol{m} - \boldsymbol{p})^{\boldsymbol{r}} + \frac{1 - \boldsymbol{a}}{\boldsymbol{r}} E_G(\boldsymbol{G}^{\boldsymbol{r}}) + \boldsymbol{b} \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{a}}{\boldsymbol{r}} \boldsymbol{m}^{\boldsymbol{r}} + \frac{1 - \boldsymbol{a}}{\boldsymbol{r}} E_G(\boldsymbol{G}^{\boldsymbol{r}})\right).$$
(6)

Similarly,  $EU_2$  can be written as

$$EU_{2} = \frac{\mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{r}}m^{r} + \frac{1-\mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{r}}G_{0}^{r} + \frac{1-\mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{r}}G_{0}^{r} + \frac{\mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{r}}\left[\Pr(S_{p_{1}})\left(\frac{\mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{r}}(m-p)^{r} + \frac{1-\mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{r}}E_{G}(G^{r} \mid s \in S_{p_{1}})\right) + \Pr(S_{p_{2}})\left(\frac{\mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{r}}m^{r} + \frac{1-\mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{r}}G_{0}^{r}\right)\right],$$
(7)

where  $S_{P1}$  and  $S_{P2}$  are as defined above, and

$$V(p,s) = \frac{a}{r} ((m-p)^{r} - m^{r}) + \frac{1-a}{r} (\int G^{r} dF_{G|s} - G_{0}^{r}).$$
(8)

Equating  $EU_1(p^R)$  and  $EU_2(p^R)$  yields

$$wtp \equiv p^{R} = m - \left(m^{r} - \frac{A}{\left(1 - \boldsymbol{b} \operatorname{Pr}(S_{P1})\right)}\right)^{\frac{1}{r}},$$
(9)

where

$$A = (1 + \boldsymbol{b}) \frac{1 - \boldsymbol{a}}{\boldsymbol{a}} \Big( E_G(G^r) - G_0^r \Big) - \boldsymbol{b} \operatorname{Pr}(S_{P_1}) \frac{1 - \boldsymbol{a}}{\boldsymbol{a}} \Big( E_G(G^r \mid s \in S_{P_1}) - G_0^r \Big).$$
(10)

On the other hand, a naive agent who ignores the potential for learning sees her decision as being whether to buy in the current period or never to buy. While I assume the naive agent recognizes that the benefits from purchasing *G* in the current period can be enjoyed in the future period, I also assume that she does not realize that delaying her purchasing decision may allow her to avoid a "bad purchase" (i.e., a purchase that yields negative surplus). Thus, the naive agent's willingness to pay  $wtp^N$  is the critical price  $p^N$ such that the she is indifferent between purchasing the environmental improvement in the current period and never purchasing it. Given the assumptions on  $U(\cdot)$ , I derive  $p^N$  by equating  $EU_1(p^N)$  and  $EU_2(p^N)$  as follows:

$$EU_{1}(p^{N}) = E_{G}\left(u\left(m-p^{N},G\right)+\boldsymbol{b}u\left(m,G\right)\right) = (1+\boldsymbol{b})u\left(m,G_{0}\right) = EU_{2}(p^{N}), \quad (11)$$

$$\frac{\boldsymbol{a}}{\boldsymbol{r}}(\boldsymbol{m}-\boldsymbol{p}^{N})^{\boldsymbol{r}} + \frac{1-\boldsymbol{a}}{\boldsymbol{r}}E_{\boldsymbol{G}}(\boldsymbol{G}^{\boldsymbol{r}}) + \boldsymbol{b}\left(\frac{\boldsymbol{a}}{\boldsymbol{r}}\boldsymbol{m}^{\boldsymbol{r}} + \frac{1-\boldsymbol{a}}{\boldsymbol{r}}E_{\boldsymbol{G}}(\boldsymbol{G}^{\boldsymbol{r}})\right) = (1+\boldsymbol{b})\left(\frac{\boldsymbol{a}}{\boldsymbol{r}}\boldsymbol{m}^{\boldsymbol{r}} + \frac{1-\boldsymbol{a}}{\boldsymbol{r}}G_{\boldsymbol{0}}^{\boldsymbol{r}}\right), (12)$$

$$(m-p^{N})^{r} = m^{r} + (1+b)\left(\frac{1-a}{a}G_{0}^{r}\right) - \frac{1-a}{a}E_{G}(G^{r}) - b\left(\frac{1-a}{r}E_{G}(G^{r})\right).$$
(13)

Rearranging, I derive

$$wtp^{N} \equiv p^{N} = m - \left( m^{r} - (1 + b) \frac{1 - a}{a} \left( E_{G}(G^{r}) - G_{0}^{r} \right) \right)^{\frac{1}{r}}.$$
 (14)

In the absence of future learning, the rational agent's problem reduces to that of the naive agent, and the price  $p^N$  leaves both indifferent between purchasing the new higher level of quality now and settling for the status quo level. However, offered the opportunity for learning, the rational agent's willingness to pay falls to  $wtp^R \le wtp^N$ . In this context, the commitment cost can be thought of as the amount by which the price of the environmental improvement must be reduced in both periods to make the rational agent indifferent between purchasing now and delaying the decision until more information becomes available. In other words, commitment cost is the difference between  $wtp^N$  and  $wtp^R$ . Thus, I can write *CC* as the following closed-form expression:

$$CC = wtp^{N} - wtp = \left(m^{r} - \frac{A}{\left(1 - \boldsymbol{b} \operatorname{Pr}(S_{P_{1}})\right)}\right)^{\frac{1}{r}} - \left(m^{r} - (1 + \boldsymbol{b})\frac{1 - \boldsymbol{a}}{\boldsymbol{a}}\left(E_{G}(G^{r}) - G_{0}^{r}\right)\right)^{\frac{1}{r}}, (15)$$

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where A is defined as in equation (10), and CC is positive as long as  $Pr(S_{P_1}) > 0$  and  $E_G(G^r | s \in S_{P_1}) > E_G(G^r) > G_0^r$ .

#### **Design of the Contingent Valuation Survey Instrument**

To test for the effects of potential learning and uncertainty on WTP, I use a technique similar to that used by Mansfield (1999). Specifically, I estimate respondent i's stated willingness to pay as

$$WTP_i = wtp_i^N + CC_i + \boldsymbol{e}_i, \tag{16}$$

where  $wtp_i^N$  is the naive agent's willingness to pay as defined in equation (14),  $e_i$  is a mean-zero error term, and  $CC_i$  captures respondent *i*'s commitment cost. For the purpose of my analysis, I model  $CC_i$  as

$$CC_{i} = D_{i}^{Delay} \left( \boldsymbol{g}^{Delay} + \boldsymbol{g}^{HiVar} D_{i}^{HiVar} \right), \qquad (17)$$

where  $D_i^{Delay}$  is a dummy variable equal to 1 if respondent *i* can potentially delay her decision, and  $D_i^{HiVar}$  is a dummy variable equal to 1 if respondent *i* faces a high degree of uncertainty regarding water quality after the proposed improvements. Although simple, this formulation takes into account the two key relationships identified in the theory above: commitment cost is present only when there is potential for future learning, and commitment cost varies according to the degree of uncertainty the respondent faces.

Following Cameron (1988),  $WTP_i$  can be estimated from dichotomous choice data by noting that the probability that agent *i* votes yes ( $Y_i = 1$ ) on a referendum to improve environmental quality is

$$\Pr(Y_{i} = 1) = \Pr(WTP_{i} \ge T_{i})$$

$$= \Pr(wtp_{i}^{N} + CC_{i} + te_{i} \ge T_{i})$$

$$= \Pr\left(e_{i} \ge \frac{T_{i} - wtp_{i}^{N} - CC_{i}}{t}\right)$$

$$= 1 - \Pr\left(e_{i} \le \frac{T_{i} - wtp_{i}^{N} - CC_{i}}{t}\right),$$
(18)

where  $T_i$  is the policy price faced by respondent *i* and *t* is the standard error of  $e_i$ . Assuming  $e_i$  is drawn from the extreme value error distribution yields the following logistic expression for the probability of a yes response:

$$\Pr(Y_i = 1) = \left(1 + \exp\left(\frac{-T_i - wtp_i^N - CC_i}{t}\right)\right)^{-1}.$$
(19)

The corresponding log likelihood function is

$$\ln L = \sum_{i} -Y_{i} \ln \left( 1 + \exp \left( \frac{-T_{i} - wtp_{i}^{N} - CC_{i}}{t} \right) \right) + \sum_{i} (1 - Y_{i}) \left[ \left( \frac{-T_{i} - wtp_{i}^{N} - CC_{i}}{t} \right) - \ln \left( 1 + \exp \left( \frac{-T_{i} - wtp_{i}^{N} - CC_{i}}{t} \right) \right) \right].$$

$$(20)$$

After using maximum likelihood estimation to fit parameters to this model, an estimate of respondent *i*'s willingness to pay  $W^{\ddagger}P_i$  can be calculated as follows:

$$W \mathbf{P}_{i} = \frac{\hat{wt}p_{i}^{N} + \mathbf{\Theta}C_{i}}{-\hat{t}}.$$
(21)

A contingent valuation model (CVM) survey instrument was designed to value various plans for improving the water quality at Clear Lake in northern Iowa. The survey first described the lake's current condition in terms of water clarity, color, odor, fish catch, and the frequency of algae blooms and beach closings. Next, the survey described three future water quality scenarios corresponding to different degrees of environmental mitigation. Each of these scenarios was followed by a referendum-format CVM question designed to elicit respondents' willingness to pay in order to achieve the conditions described. Hoehn and Randall (1987) show that the referendum mechanism is demand revealing so long as respondent *i* believes that all respondents face the same policy price, and that the referendum will pass if the majority votes in favor of the proposed project. Strictly speaking, truth telling is a voter's weakly dominant strategy when voting is costless. A copy of the survey instrument is included in Appendix A.

Prior to the actual mailing of the survey, the instrument was presented to a focus group of local residents to test its clarity and realism. This was followed by a mailed pretest. In its final form, the survey was sent to a random sample of 900 households in the cities of Clear Lake and Ventura, Iowa, both of which are located on Clear Lake. Survey Sampling, Inc., a Connecticut-based market research firm, drew the sample from the white pages of the telephone directory. Of these 900 surveys, 132 were eventually returned as undeliverable. Following the procedure laid out by Dillman (1978), a follow-up postcard and survey were sent to those households that did not respond to the initial mailing. The eventual response rate among surveys successfully delivered was about 70 percent.

A summary of the respondents' socioeconomic characteristics can be found in Table 1. Compared to the most recent county-level census data, survey respondents, on average, were significantly more likely to be older, to be college-educated, to be male, to be

			Standard	County
Variable	Definition	Mean	Deviation	Average
Income	Total household income	56,000	44,000	51,000
Education	1 if college graduate	0.36	0.48	0.16
Age	The respondent's age	55	15	47
Gender	1 if male	0.65	0.48	0.47
Family size	Includes adults and children	2.6	1.3	2.3
Homeowner	1 if own home	0.91	0.29	0.72
Year-round resident	1 if year-round resident	0.95	0.22	_

#### **TABLE 1. Characteristics of survey respondents**

homeowners, and to live in a larger household. Respondents' average income was not significantly different from the county average. While no county-level data was available for year-round residency, it is likely that seasonal residents were underrepresented in the sample because many seasonal residents do not receive mail at their Clear Lake addresses.

Six versions of the survey were sent out, each differing in terms of the degree of uncertainty surrounding water quality after the proposed improvement, and in terms of the potential for future learning. Survey version 1 presented respondents with a low degree of variance (e.g., water clarity between 6 and 8 feet after improvements) and no potential for future learning. The color photo and diagram used to depict this low level of uncertainty can be found in Appendix B. The absence of future learning potential was written into the CVM question as follows:

Further, suppose this survey represents the State's only chance to gather information about what kind of value people put on Clear Lake. Please respond as if this will be your final opportunity to vote on the issue, and that if the following referendum fails to pass, there will be no future programs to improve water quality at Clear Lake.

Would you vote "yes" on a referendum that would *adopt* the proposed program but *cost* you x (payable in five x/5 installments over a five-year period)?

Version 2 again presented respondents with low variance but allowed for potential future learning by offering respondents a second chance to vote on the referendum:

Further, suppose that if the referendum passes, the improvements would proceed immediately. However, if the referendum fails, any plans to improve the lake would be delayed for *one year* while further research takes place into the causes of lake pollution as well as alternative clean-up approaches. After this delay, any new information from studying the lake will be made available and you will then get a final chance to vote on the same referendum.

Would you vote "yes" on a referendum that would *adopt* the proposed program but *cost* you x (payable in five x/5 installments over a five-year period)?

Version 3 differed from version 2 only in that respondents were told that, should the initial referendum fail, five years would pass before they would be given a second chance to vote. Versions 4, 5, and 6 were analogous to versions 1, 2, and 3 except that respondents faced a higher degree of uncertainty in terms of the expected water quality (e.g., water clarity between 2 and 12 feet after the proposed improvements). The color diagram used to depict this higher level of uncertainty appears in Appendix C. The results show no significant difference between the responses of those who were offered the one-year delay and those who were offered five. This suggests that any perceived gains from delaying the decision an additional four years were offset by the associated delay of improvements in water quality. Therefore, for the sake of simplicity, I combined the results from versions 2 and 3, and from versions 5 and 6.

Commitment cost theory predicts that respondents would be willing to pay less in the current period (i.e., would be less likely to vote yes) for proposed improvements when given the opportunity to delay their decision until more information is available. Likewise, the theory predicts that, given the potential for learning, respondents would be willing to pay less in the current period when faced with higher variance. Put in terms of testable hypotheses, commitment cost theory predicts the following:

H1: 
$$WTP^{NoDelay} > WTP^{Delay}$$
  
H2:  $WTP^{Delay}_{LoVar} > WTP^{Delay}_{HiVar}$   
H3:  $WTP^{NoDelay}_{LoVar} > WTP^{Delay}_{LoVar}$   
H4:  $WTP^{NoDelay}_{HiVar} > WTP^{Delay}_{HiVar}$ 

The superscripts in these hypothesis tests refer to whether survey respondents had any chance to delay their decision until more information became available. Specifically,  $WTP^{NoDelay}$  represents willingness to pay in the absence of the possibility of a future referendum, while  $WTP^{Delay}$  represents willingness to pay given that a second referendum would be held should the first fail. The subscripts refer to the degree of variance respondents faced. Notations  $WTP_{LoVar}^{Delay}$  and  $WTP_{HiVar}^{Delay}$  represent willingness to pay given the potential for learning when faced with low and high variance, respectively.

#### **Results of the Contingent Valuation Model Analysis**

After deleting the responses of residents who did not answer the CVM question, did not provide relevant socioeconomic information, or whose surveys were spoiled, 357 responses remained.<sup>1</sup> Of these, 43 respondents answered a follow-up question in such a way as to indicate that they did not understand the CVM question or considered it unrealistic. These respondents may not have given serious consideration to the policy price, in which case their responses to the CVM question would contain little or no information regarding their valuation of the resource. Therefore, I treat such answers as protest responses and exclude them from the following analysis.

Table 2 presents the results of the logistic regression described in the previous section. The results in the second column are from a regression in which all agents are assumed to have identical preferences. In order to confine **a** to the unit interval, I set  $\mathbf{a} = e^x / (1 + e^x)$  and estimated *x*. Likewise, to restrict **r** to the  $(-\infty,1]$  interval, I set  $\mathbf{r} = -e^y + 1$  and estimated *y*. The results in the third column are from a regression allowing **a** and **r** to vary with income, ignoring the interval restriction in the case of **a**. More specifically, I estimate  $\mathbf{a}_i$  as  $\mathbf{a}_{Intercept} + \mathbf{a}_{Income}m_i$  and  $\mathbf{r}_i$  as

$$-\exp(\mathbf{r}_{Intercept} + \mathbf{r}_{Income}m_i) + 1.2$$

As shown in Table 2, both estimates of t are negative and highly significant, indicating the demand curve for improved environmental quality is downward sloping. The estimate for a reported in the second column is very close to one, indicating

Variable	Homogeneous Preferences	Heterogeneous Preferences
t	-0.00116** (-3.59) <sup>a</sup>	-0.000927** (-2.59)
а	0.988** (86.3)	-
<b>a</b> <sub>Intercept</sub>	-	1.02** (146)
<b>a</b> <sub>Income</sub>	-	-0.00112** (-3.96)
r	0.249 (1.01)	-
<b>r</b> <sub>Intercept</sub>	-	0.416 (1.35)
<b>r</b> <sub>Income</sub>	-	-0.0266** (-2.91)
<b>g</b> <sup>Delay</sup>	-0.823** (-2.85)	-0.732** (-2.45)
<b>g</b> <sup>HiVar</sup>	0.530 (1.60)	0.463 (1.38)
Percent correct	63 percent	66 percent

TABLE 2. Regression results with protest responses deleted

<sup>a</sup> Asymptotic *t* ratios are in parentheses.

\* Significant at the 0.05 level.

\*\* Significant at the 0.01 level.

respondents put much greater weight on income than on water quality.<sup>3</sup> In the case where a is allowed to vary across individuals, the coefficient  $a_{Income}$  is negative and highly significant, indicating that respondents put more weight on environmental quality as their income increases. The point estimate a = 0.961 is simply the average of the  $a_i$  estimates. I calculated the 95 percent confidence interval around this estimate (0.934, 0.989) using a bootstrapping technique. One thousand realizations of  $a_{Intercept}$  and  $a_{Income}$  were drawn from a multivariate normal distribution with a variance-covariance matrix and mean vector taken from the maximum likelihood estimation whose results are presented in Table 2. For each of these draws, I calculated an  $\hat{a}$  that was the average over all respondents. The reported confidence interval is generated by ranking these 1,000  $\hat{a}$  estimates and deleting the highest and lowest 25.

The estimates of  $\mathbf{r}$  reported in the second column of Table 2 lie on the interior of the  $(-\infty,1]$  range and are significantly different from one, indicating that while there is some degree of substitutability between money and environmental quality, the two are not perfect substitutes. The same is true for point estimate  $\mathbf{r} = 0.501$  and the associated 95 percent confidence interval (0.203, 0.656) that follow from the  $\mathbf{r}_{Intercept}$  and  $\mathbf{r}_{Income}$  estimates reported in the third column. As described for  $\mathbf{a}$ , this confidence interval was

calculated by bootstrapping. The estimate for  $\mathbf{r}_{Income}$  is negative and highly significant. Considered in conjunction with the restriction  $\mathbf{r} = -\exp(\mathbf{r}_{Intercept} + \mathbf{r}_{Income}m_i) + 1$ , this indicates that respondents with higher income are more willing to substitute money for environmental quality.

Both estimates of  $g^{Delay}$  are negative and highly significant. This suggests that offering survey respondents the opportunity to delay their decision until more information becomes available reduces WTP in the current period. This is in keeping with the predictions of commitment cost theory.

Estimates of  $g^{HiVar}$  are not significantly different from zero in either of the reported regressions, failing to support Zhao and Kling's prediction that commitment cost will be greater for individuals facing greater uncertainty. This may seem surprising given that uncertainty is a necessary condition for the existence of commitment cost. However, the survey was only able to vary uncertainty surrounding the expected degree of water quality improvements. The survey could not address uncertainty regarding the value respondents might eventually derive from the improvements once they have been realized. Therefore, finding that  $g^{HiVar}$  is not significantly different from zero may be interpreted as meaning that the latter type of uncertainty is the one driving commitment cost.

For both regressions, a chi-squared test rejects the null hypothesis that the *g* coefficients jointly equal zero at the 0.05 level ( $c^2 = 8.80$  [2] and  $c^2 = 8.69$  [2], respectively).

Table 3 shows estimates of mean WTP, conditional on both the opportunity for learning and the level of uncertainty. Again, for the sake of comparison, I include the results of both regressions. The confidence intervals were calculated using a bootstrapping technique similar to that used for a and r.

Table 4 presents the hypothesis tests suggested in the previous section. A positive number in the second and third columns indicates that the relative magnitude of the WTP estimates was qualitatively in line with the predictions of the commitment cost model. Based on the results of H1, I am able to reject the null hypotheses of no difference at the 0.05 significance level for both regressions. This suggests that, overall, WTP in the

Version	Homogeneous Preferences	Heterogeneous Preferences
All versions	\$852	\$868
	$(750, 2582)^{a}$	(657, 2083)
No delay	1152	1144
-	(938, 3525)	(761, 3113)
Potential delay	665	694
-	(489, 2386)	(380, 2143)
Low variance	776	788
	(651, 2595)	(545, 1956)
High variance	977	992
-	(777, 2833)	(653, 2021)
Low variance, no delay	1171	1153
- -	(943, 2835)	(800, 2619)
Low variance, delay	512	543
•	(319, 2308)	(271, 1273)
High variance, no delay	1128	1132
	(919, 2758)	(793, 2792)
High variance, delay	877	898
- • •	(564, 2709)	(443, 2050)

I ADLE J. WIIIIIghess-to-pay estimate	TABLE 3.	Willingness-to-pay estimates
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<sup>a</sup>95 percent confidence intervals are in parentheses.

#### TABLE 4. Hypothesis tests

Alternative Hypothesis <sup>a</sup>	Difference in WTP Homogeneous Parameters	Difference in WTP Heterogeneous Preferences
H1: $WTP^{NoDelay} > WTP^{Delay}$ H2: $WTP^{Delay}_{IaVar} > WTP^{Delay}_{HiVar}$	\$487* (2.01) <sup>b</sup> -365 (-1.53)	\$450* (1.74) -355 (-1.40)
H2: $WIP_{LoVar} > WIP_{HiVar}$ H3: $WTP_{LoVar}^{NoDelay} > WTP_{LoVar}^{Delay}$	659** (2.90)	610** (2.43)
H4: $WTP_{HiVar}^{NoDelay} > WTP_{HiVar}^{Delay}$	251 (0.933)	234 (0.920)

<sup>a</sup> The null hypothesis is that there is no difference between the two WTP measures.

<sup>b</sup>Estimated standard errors are in parentheses.

\* Significant at the 0.05 level using a one-sided *t* test.

\*\* Significant at the 0.01 level using a one-sided t test.

current period is significantly reduced when survey respondents are offered the opportunity to delay their purchasing decision until more information becomes available. This is as predicted by the commitment cost model. Based on the results of H3, I can reject the null at the 0.01 level. The interpretation here is similar to that from H1. In tests

H2 and H4 I cannot reject the null hypothesis at conventional levels of significance. This fails to support the prediction that that commitment cost is increasing in the degree of uncertainty facing respondents.

#### **Concluding Remarks**

In this paper, I test for the effects of potential future learning on WTP in the presence of uncertainty and irreversibility and whether those effects are consistent with Zhao and Kling's theory of commitment cost. Using a survey instrument designed specifically to measure WTP given varying degrees of uncertainty and learning potential, I collected data from Clear Lake area residents regarding their valuation of a proposed project to improve water quality in Clear Lake. My findings show that respondents' willingness to pay is indeed sensitive to the potential for future learning. This is consistent with Zhao and Kling's theory of commitment cost and suggests that CVM practitioners must take care to accurately represent the potential for future learning or else risk-biased results. The effect of increased variance on WTP, however, was insignificant. Thus, while my results lend support to the theory of commitment cost in the broadest sense, they do not confirm the theory's prediction that commitment cost increases with uncertainty.

These results have important implications for the design of stated preference surveys. If uncertainty, irreversibility, and the potential for learning are inherent to the policy under consideration, then commitment cost is relevant to the eventual policy decision, and stated preference questions should be written to reflect this. My analysis suggests that it is especially important for the survey instrument to accurately convey the potential for learning, as this determines whether the respondents' problem is static or dynamic.

Suppose, for example, that policymakers are considering converting an empty commercial lot into a public park. Assume that money spent on the project cannot be recouped, that there is some degree of uncertainty regarding the benefit local residents will derive from the park if it is built, and that the project can be reasonably delayed until some future date when residents may have a better estimate of the park's value. In this situation, commitment cost is policy relevant. In order to avoid overestimating WTP, a CVM instrument intended to estimate the value of the proposed project must be written so that it captures commitment cost. In particular, the instrument should explicitly note the potential for delay and subsequent learning.

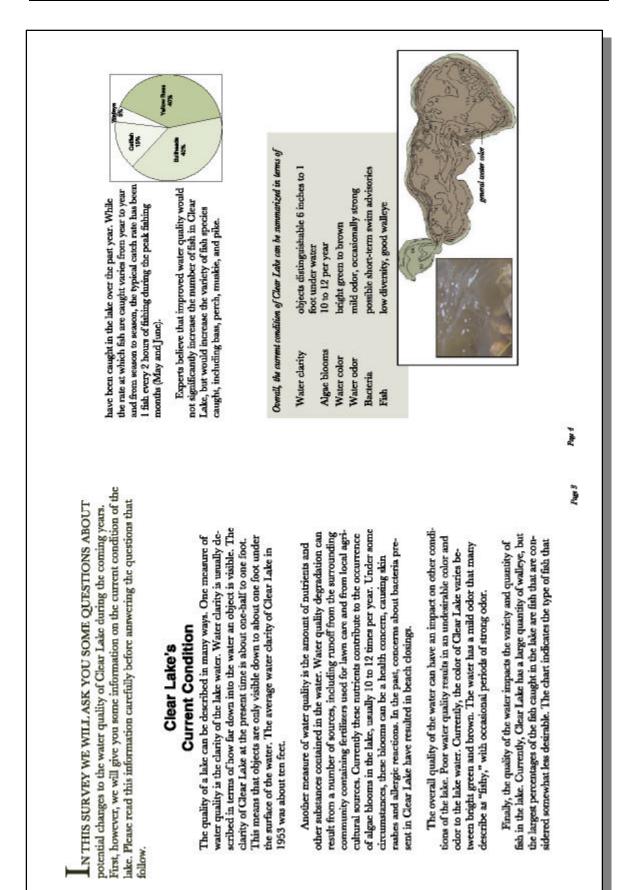
On the other hand, suppose the issue under consideration is whether to save a pristine wilderness area from imminent and irreversible commercial development. In this case, there is no potential for delaying the decision and thus no potential for future learning. Here, commitment cost is not policy relevant. Instead, the appropriate measure of welfare change is simply equivalent variation. A study that does not convey the immediacy of the decision may mistakenly capture commitment cost as part of its estimate of WTP, thus biasing the estimate downward.

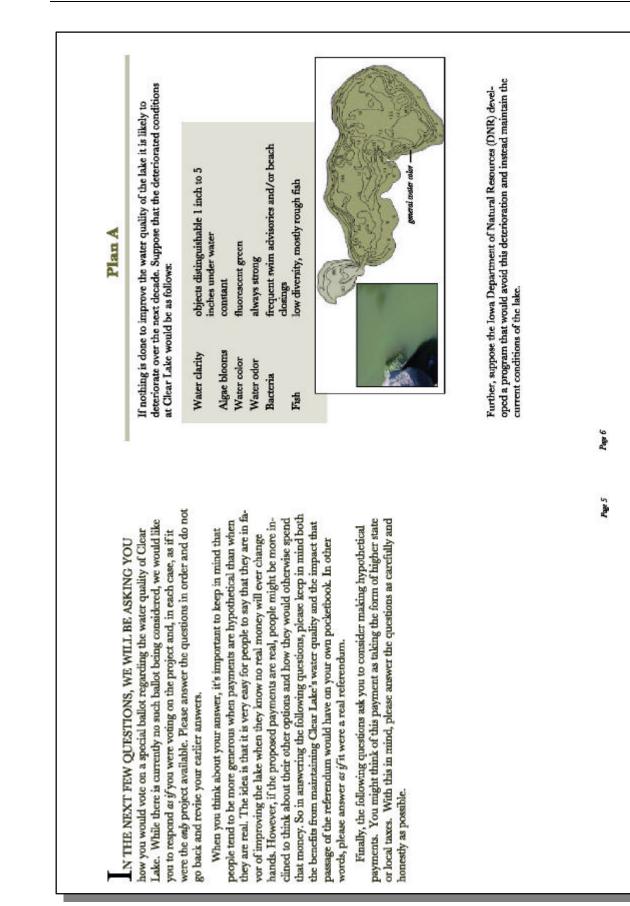
An interesting area for future research would be to determine whether WTP estimates elicited by a "typical" CVM instrument that makes no reference to the potential for delay and future learning elicits results more similar to what I have referred to in this paper as  $WTP^{NoDelay}$  or  $WTP^{Delay}$ . A survey similar to the one described in this paper was sent to Clear Lake visitors. The primary difference between these two surveys was that the version sent to visitors made no reference to future learning potential. Comparing the results elicited from area residents with those elicited from visitors suggests that the typical CVM survey format is associated with WTP estimates more similar to  $WTP^{NoDelay}$ . However, it is difficult to make any definitive conclusions based on the results from two very different samples.

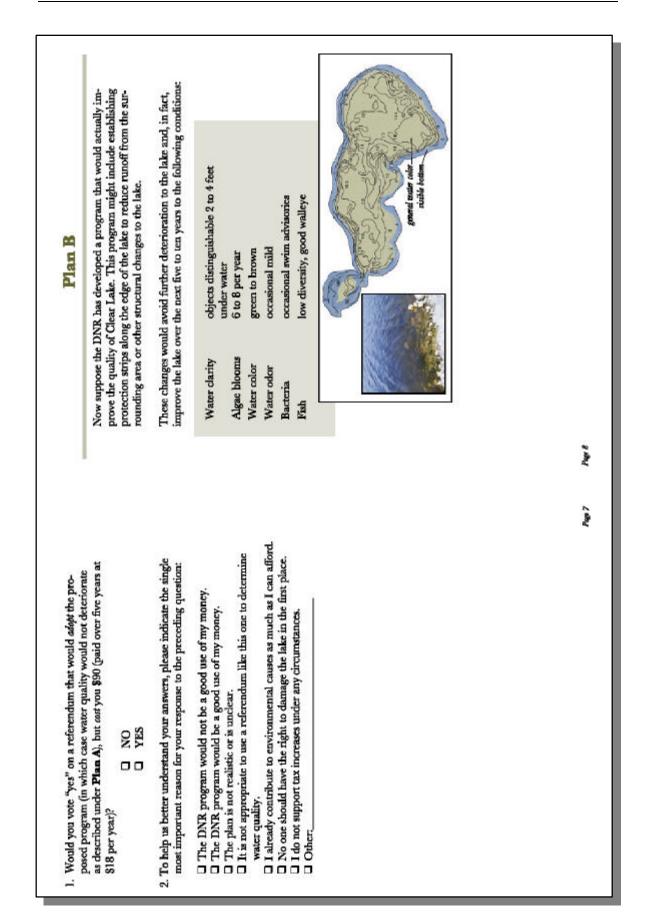
#### Endnotes

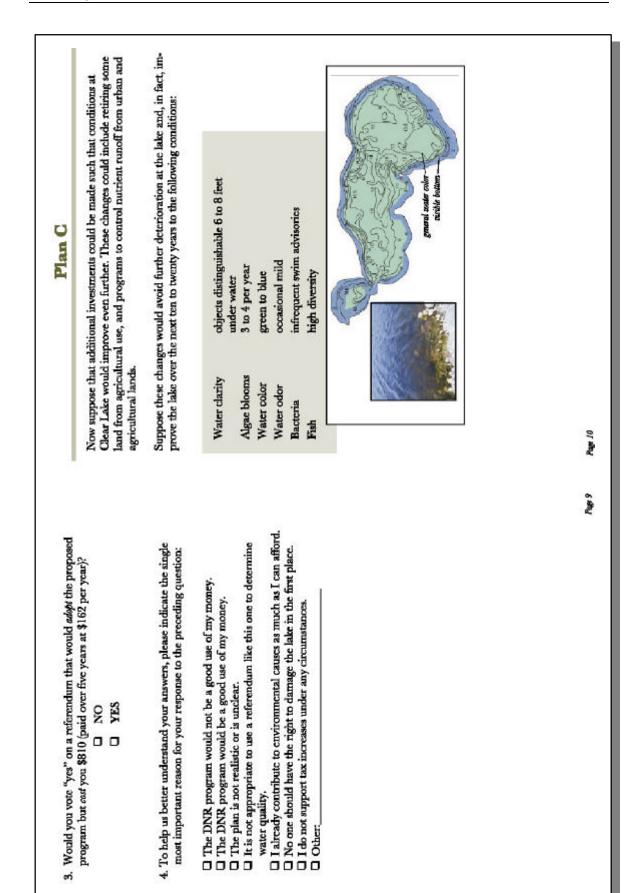
- 1. A typographical error in one of the survey versions left the CVM question ambiguous. While the error was corrected in the second mailing, 61 surveys were still thrown out.
- 2. A third regression was performed allowing  $\boldsymbol{a}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{r}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{g}^{Delay}$  and  $\boldsymbol{g}^{HiVar}$  to vary with income. The results are not reported here since the null hypothesis  $\boldsymbol{g}_{Income}^{Delay} = \boldsymbol{g}_{Income}^{HiVar} = 0$  could not be rejected at conventional significance levels ( $\boldsymbol{c}^2 = 0.89$  [2]).
- 3. Unfortunately, since **a** and **b** only appear together in the expression for *wtpN*, they cannot be estimated separately. The estimate of **a** reported in Table 2 corresponds to **b** = 0.9. Appendix D contains estimates of **a** corresponding to other values of **b**. All other parameters in the model are unaffected by the choice of **b**.

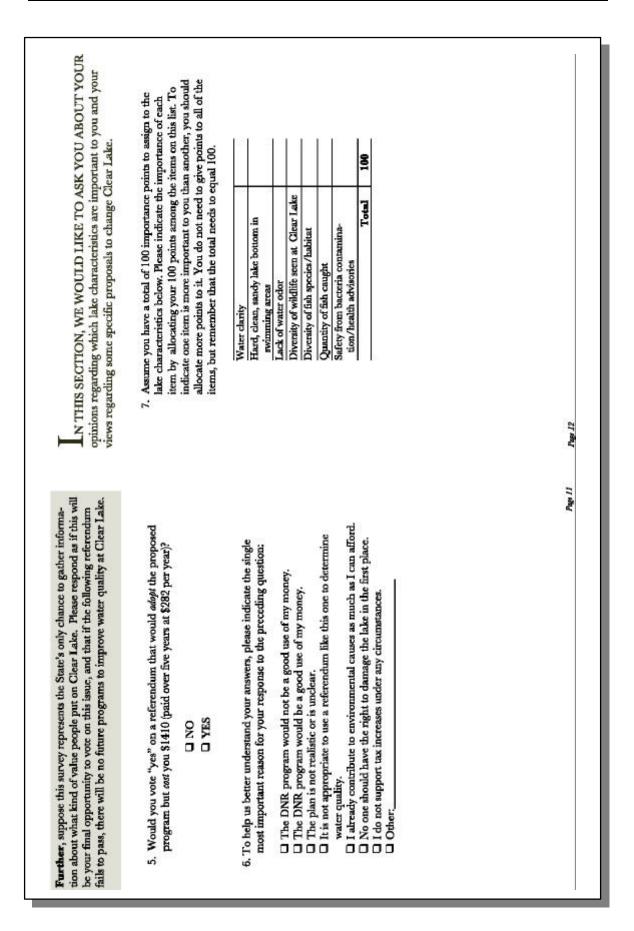






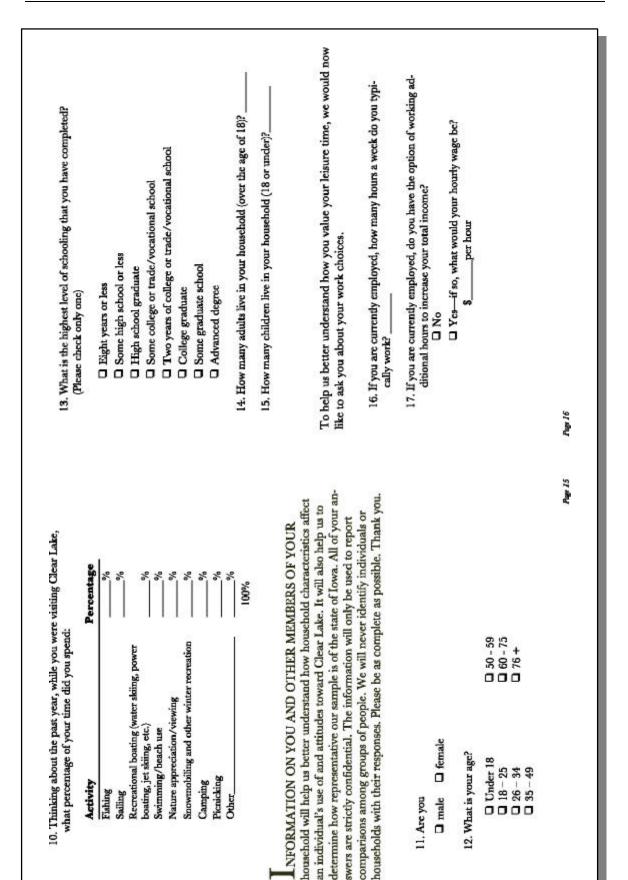






The Effect of Future Availability of Information on Willingness to Pay / 25

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$\mathbf{P}$ leave fied free to make any additional comments about your answers to these questions or about the survey itself. Thank you for your assistance with our Clear Lake Survey.	Comments	Page 18
<ul> <li>18. If you answered "no" to question 17, and you could have the option of working more or less hours, which would you prefer?</li> <li>         Work more hours         Mork less hours         </li> </ul>	<ul> <li>19. What was your total household income (before taxes) in 1999?</li> <li>10. Under \$10,000</li> <li>10.000-\$14,999</li> <li>10.000-\$14,999</li> <li>10.000-\$14,999</li> <li>10.000-\$14,999</li> <li>10.000-\$19,999</li> <li>10.000</li> <li></li></ul>	Page 17
18. If you answered "no" to que of working more or less hou	<ul> <li>19. What was your total household</li> <li>Under \$10,000</li> <li>\$15,000-\$19,999</li> <li>\$15,000-\$29,999</li> <li>\$25,000-\$29,999</li> <li>\$35,000-\$39,999</li> <li>\$35,000-\$39,999</li> <li>\$35,000-\$39,999</li> <li>\$35,000-\$39,999</li> <li>\$25,000-\$39,999</li> <li>\$25,000-\$29,999</li> <li>\$26,000-\$29,999</li> <li>\$26,000-\$29,999</li> <li>\$27,000-\$29,999</li> <li>\$20,000-\$29,999</li> <li>\$20,000-\$29,999</li></ul>	

## Appendix B: Low-Variance Graphic

## **Plan C**

Water clarity	objects distinguishable 6 to 8 feet
·	under water
Algae blooms	3 to 4 per year
Water color	green to blue
Water odor	occasional mild
Bacteria	infrequent swim advisories
Fish	high diversity
	eneral water color visible bottom

## Appendix C: High-Variance Graphic

# **Plan C**

Water clarity Algae blooms	objects distinguishable 2 to 12 feet under water 0 to 8 per year
Water color	greenish brown to blue
Water odor	occasional mild to no odor
Bacteria	infrequent swim advisories to no advisories
Fish	low to high diversity
	general water color visible bottom to possible to f Plan C

<b>b</b> Value	Estimate of <b>a</b> Homogeneous Parameters	Estimate of <b>a</b> Heterogeneous Parameters
1.0	0.989	0.963
0.9	0.988	0.961
0.8	0.988	0.960
0.7	0.987	0.957
0.6	0.986	0.955
0.5	0.985	0.953
0.4	0.984	0.950
0.3	0.983	0.947
0.2	0.982	0.944
0.1	0.980	0.940
0.0	0.978	0.936

## Appendix D: The Relationship between ${f b}$ and ${f a}$

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