

Experimental Economics

Revision: concepts & terminology

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Outline for today

- Concepts and terminology in experimental designs
- Qualtrics
- (Feedback)
- No need to find a positive result → null result is also science

Some terminology and technicalities

- **Treatment**: a particular condition of the experiment. Often a control treatment and a (main) treatment (or more).
- Everything else kept constant, only **one** change at a time.
- An experiment usually consists of several **sessions**. In a session a group of people takes part in the experiment at a particular date and place.
- In a session there are often a number of **blocks**.
- In a block there are often a number of **rounds**, or **periods**.

Between- vs within-subject

- **Between-subject design:** Subjects participate only in one treatment
 - Avoids 'contamination' between treatments
 - Must trust the randomization procedure
- **Within-subject design:** Subjects participate in more than one treatment
 - Controls for individual fixed effects
 - Allows the use of more powerful statistical analysis
 - Does not work for some treatment variations (e.g., different frames)
 - Order effects: must control for sequence effects (e.g., due to learning)

What are observations?

Distinction between observation and statistically independent observation

Example: 5 sessions of a market experiment with 10 periods and 10 trades each

How many observations of a trade?

$$\rightarrow 5 \times 10 \times 10 = 500$$

How many independent observations of a trade?

$$\rightarrow 5$$

One shot vs. repeated observations?

Pro one-shot

- Strong incentives for decision
- No strategic spillovers across periods
- Easy to perform and short

Pro repetitions (“repeated one-shot”)

- Learning effects can be studied
- Possible to observe dynamics, e.g., convergence to predicted or behavioral equilibrium
- More observations

Implementing repeated games (partner design)

Finately repeated games:

- If only rational and selfish types and *unique* NE in stage game: *backward induction*
- If stage game has multiple equilibria, “anything goes”: loss of a clear prediction (same for infinitely repeated games)

“Infinitely” repeated games:

- Implementation with the help of a *termination probability*
- Problem: length of the experiment is *endogenous* – do you want to throw dice for five hours?

Partner vs. Stranger Matching

(Fixed) Partner: *group of subjects stays together for several periods*

- within a group of partners you have 1 independent observation only
- allows analysis of strategic considerations

Stranger: *groups are recomposed randomly*

- similar behavior/prediction as one-shot
- but more (possibly) more independent observations

Perfect stranger: *zero-probability of being re-matched with same person*

- more independent observations

Strategy method

First used by Reinhard Selten

Idea: Instead of just playing the game, subjects are asked to indicate an action for each information set

Example: In Prisoner's dilemma: What do you do (defect or cooperate) if first mover cooperates and what do you do if first mover defects?

Strategy method

Advantages:

- More information about motivation/behavior of players

Problems:

- Incentives are weaker, since each information set is reached only with probability smaller than one
- Hot vs. cold emotions: people might feel and act differently knowing they have reached a particular information set, compared to potentially reaching it
- Explaining the SM to subjects is tricky (loss of control)

Role reversal

Subjects act in different roles:

Example: in UG you are a proposer, then a responder

- Helps to put oneself in the shoes of the other person
- Same considerations as you have with within-subject design
- Don't lose information about how people act in a given role

Learning trials/periods

In complicated experiments (e.g., with difficult trading rules in markets) one might have subjects play the game without monetary consequences

Advantage:

- It guarantees subjects' understanding from the first paid period on

However:

- Subjects might develop expectations, strategies, or assumptions from the learning trials that were not intended by the experimenter
 - You might lose information about the “true” first period
- Refrain from implementing strategic interactions between players

Elicitation of beliefs

Example: In a PD, before they make their decision both players are asked what they think the other player will do (cooperate or defect?)

- Beliefs can be very informative to understand their motivation
- Beliefs are of particular importance to check the rationality of decisions

Problems:

- **Experimenter-demand-effect:** you may make people think about stuff they would not have thought about
- Directs focus on particular problems, e.g., guessing game
- Desire to be consistent: people state beliefs to match their actions or the other way around

Pay for beliefs?

Pros

- Subjects have an incentive to state correct beliefs

Cons

- Is costly and given a budget – goes at the cost of incentives in the decision part
- Subjects have no incentive to state wrong beliefs anyway
- Can pollute incentives in the experiment if people hedge decisions

Paper & Pencil vs. Computerized Experiments

Paper & pencil

- Flexibility (quick development of new treatments)
- Low start up costs (not much hardware, no software coding)
- Natural environment: Procedures may be more visible and credible (use dice even in a computerized experiment!)



Computerized experiment

- Better control
- Less interaction with experimenter
- Automatic data collection



Deception

NEVER cheat on subjects, even if it is tempting from a scientific point of view

Why?

- There is a moral code among economic experimentalists not to do it
- You won't get past an ethics committee
- You will never publish a paper and people won't like your research
- You will lose your reputation towards your subjects: if you lie once they will never believe in the future. This blurs all incentives.

Standard hypothesis

In your experiment you want to have a set of **predictions/hypotheses**

Traditional assumptions in game theory:

Rationality and Selfishness (money maximizing)

Determine equilibria: Often simple and unique prediction

Use the standard prediction as a benchmark

Alternative hypothesis

There are many good reasons to question the standard prediction

Bounded rationality

- cognitive limits
- rules of thumb – heuristics
- imitation

Social Motives

- altruism
- fairness
- preference for efficiency
- reciprocity

Emotions

- anger
- guilt
- happiness
- fear
- joy
- arousal

Deriving alternative predictions

- Intuition
- Observations from every-day life
- Previous experimental results (economics, psychology)

Game theoretic analysis under alternative assumptions:

- Prospect theory (probability overweighting, loss aversion)
- Fairness theories
- “Statistical” game theory, quantal response (errors depend on cost of error)
- Emotions: visceral factor perspective

Writing instructions

- **Simple language**
 - Simple, short and unambiguous sentences
 - Redundancies if issues are complicated
 - Consistent/uniform, descriptions and framing
 - Avoid suggestive terms
- **Concrete framing (goods markets, labor market)**
 - Easy to understand through associations from real life
- **Abstract framing**
 - Avoids every-day association (does it really?)
 - Harder to understand the rules of the game
 - No control about what subjects really think

Writing instructions

- **Complete description of the rules of the game**
 - Sequence of decisions
 - Interaction
 - Payoff consequences
- **Different ways to explain the payoff function:**
 - Formula
 - Verbal explanation
 - Table
 - Figure
- **Control questions**
 - Check understanding
 - Knowing who is done with instructions

Recruiting subjects

- **Students**

- + Easy access
- + Relatively low opportunity costs (low costs of conducting experiments)
- + quick learning
- +/-not much experience with the object of interest
- + analytical skills, quick understanding of instructions

- **Non-students**

- parallelism
- opportunity cost
- risk of unknown confounds

How many subjects do you need?

- Pilot test → estimate effect sizes
- Power analysis (statistical approach)
 - Power analysis helps you determine the minimum sample size required to detect an effect of a given size with a specified level of confidence
- Key inputs
 - Effect size
 - Significance level (α , usually 0.05)
 - Power ($1 - \beta$, typically 0.8 or 0.9)

How to recruit?

- Always invite **20% more** than you need

Recruiting subjects is key!

- Manual recruitment
- Computer-assisted recruitment (→ e.g., used at XLab)
 - <https://orsee.krannert.purdue.edu/orsee/public/rules.php>
 - http://ben.orsee.org/papers/orsee_billing.pdf

Recruiting: what to tell people when you invite them?

It is not:

- A medical experiment or an intelligence test
- Marketing research

It is an economic experiment:

- Study human behavior
- Important for understanding economic problems

Why should you take part?

- You can earn money (don't mention concrete amounts, creates expectations and may pollute behavior)
- Learn about an interesting method in social sciences

Registration

Print a list of subjects for that session for registration



Start the experiment

- Welcome statement
- If more people turn up than needed:
 1. Ask for volunteer to leave and pay the show-up fee
 2. If no volunteers, do a random draw (prepare lab IDs for randomization with some blank ones)



End of the experiment

- Post-experimental questionnaire
- Pay subjects in **cash**
- No direct information about the payments of others (be discrete)
- Data Recording
- Analysis...