

Results of Experiment 2

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1 Sample

Each subject was required to complete a survey. The survey contains 14 fill-in-the-blank questions as the main task, 4 choice questions for consistency check, and one additional choice question for measuring impatience.

In each fill-in-the-blank question, participants will face two options - Option A and Option B - framed as sequences of rewards. Option A offers two rewards at two specific times: one reward is delivered today and the other is delivered after a certain delay (e.g. “receive £185 today and £60 in 6 months”). Option B offers an unknown amount today and no amount after the same delay. Participants have to identify which level of this unknown amount would make them value the two options equally, and fill in their answer in a box. Figure 1 presents an example question. Throughout the survey, the delayed amount in Option A is fixed at £60. We set up two levels for the delay (6 months and 12 months) and seven levels for the amount offered today (£25, £105, £185, £265, £345, £425, £505) in Option A. Overall, there are 14 fill-in-the-blank questions, presented in a random order.

Before participants start doing the main task, there are four consistency check questions. Each consistency check question contains two options: one is the same as Option A in a subsequent fill-in-the-blank question; the other offers a specific amount today and no amount in the future. In the latter option, the amount offered today is either the same as

Option A	receive £185 today and £60 in 6 months
Option B	receive £ <input type="text"/> today and £0 in 6 months

What is the smallest amount that would make you prefer Option B at least as much as Option A?

Figure 1: Screenshot of An Fill-in-the-Blank Question

that of the former option, or above the total money in the former option. Participants are required to choose the option they prefer. We exclude the participants whose choices are inconsistent with their answers in the corresponding fill-in-the-blank questions. For example, a participant may face a choice between “receive £185 today and £60 in 6 months” and “receive £300 today and £0 in 6 months”. If she chooses the latter option, then for a fill-in-the-blank question setting the former option as Option A, she should fill in an amount smaller than £300. Finally, at the end of the survey, we add one additional question to measure impatience. The question is the same as the “Preference for Earlier vs Later Income” (PELI) task in Burro et al. (2022).

Two hundred subjects (female: 50%) were recruited via Prolific, of which 197 subjects completed the survey¹. The median age for those who completed the survey is 38, the median completion time is 4.8 minutes. The minimum completion time is 1.83 minutes. We offer £1.2 for each participant. There were 161 subjects having passed the consistency check. Given that each subject completed 14 fill-in-the-blank questions, we construct a sample of 2,254 observations.

¹When a question was loaded multiple times during the survey completion process, the survey will be automatically ended and submitted, in order to prevent duplicate responses. This situation occurred with three participants. We thus abort their answers.

2 Theoretical Analysis

Before diving into the results, it is helpful to know some notation and terms about the main task. Suppose in a question, Option A is “receive Y_1 today and Y_2 in delay T ”, and a subject values this option A equally as much as “receive M today and £0 in delay T ” (Option B). Y_1 is the front-end amount of the sequence, Y_2 is the back-end amount, T is the sequence length, and the answer M is termed the “indifference point” between the two options. It is revealed that the subject values the back-end amount Y_2 (fixed throughout the survey) in Option A at the same level as receiving $M - Y_1$ today in Option B. So, we also term $M - Y_1$ as the revealed value of that back-end amount. We focus on how $M - Y_1$ varies with Y_1 .

One popular way to model this decision is through additive discounted utilities, that is, M is determined by

$$u(M) = u(Y_1) + D_T \cdot u(Y_2)$$

where $u(\cdot)$ is a strictly concave utility function and D_T is the discount factor of the reward delivered in delay T . As many models of this type (e.g. hyperbolic discounting) assumes, in the case that T and Y_2 are both constant, the term $D_T \cdot u(Y_2)$ should also be constant, which implies the value of $u(M) - u(Y_1)$ should be constant for the equation to be true. Given that $u(\cdot)$ is strictly concave, for any positive real number Δ , we must have $u(M + \Delta) - u(Y_1 + \Delta) > u(M) - u(Y_1)$. That is, when Y_1 is increased by Δ units, to make the equation hold, M should be increased by an amount larger than Δ . Therefore, many models of this type predict $M - Y_1$ is increasing in Y_1 .

It is notable that the concavity of utility function implies $u(Y_1 + Y_2) < u(Y_1) + u(Y_2)$. Hence, when D_T is large enough, it is possible that M becomes an amount greater than $Y_1 + Y_2$ for the equation to be true.

My prediction about the results is as follows. When the front-end amount Y_1 is increased, people would pay more attention to Y_1 . Given their attention is limited, the back-end amount Y_2 receives less attention, which means people take into less account the back-end amount when valuing the whole sequence. As a results, the revealed value of the back-end amount could decrease with the front-end amount, i.e. $M - Y_1$ could decrease in Y_1 .

3 Heterogeneity in Responses

The left side of Figure 2 illustrates the distribution of indifference points for each question. The y-axis of this subfigure indicates $M - Y_1$, i.e. the revealed value of the back-end amount (£60) in Option A. 86.4% of the observations fall within the range of £0 to £60; 12.8% of the observations are above £60, which implies the participants value Option A as much as receiving an amount greater than its total money today; 0.8% of the observations is negative, indicating that the participants value Option A as much as receiving an amount lower than its front-end amount today. The latter two could originate from various causes, e.g. participants made mistakes or over-rounded when filling in answers. Some observations in these two cases should be viewed as outliers. For example, the maximum and minimum revealed values of the back-end amount are £375 and -£265.²

We analyze the data and deal with the outliers in three ways. First, we use non-parametric methods (rank correlation) for a preliminary measure of the relationship between $M - Y_1$ and Y_1 . Second, we examine the relationship between $M - Y_1$ and Y_1 in regressions. In OLS regressions, we remove the 12 most extreme observations. These observations account for about 0.5% of the entire sample and removing them would have no substantial effect over the sample distribution. Finally, we conduct robust regressions over the entire sample (without removing any outlier). Given that robust estimators are generally insensitive to outliers, we suggest the readers prioritize results of the robust regressions where possible.

Meanwhile, a substantial fraction of observations (43.8%) are simply $Y_1 + Y_2$, i.e. the total money to be obtained in Option A. The right side of Figure 2 illustrate the distribution of such observations over the participants. Overall, 62 participants (38.5% of all participants who gave valid answers) used total money to answer every question; on the contrary, 65 participants have never used total money. This suggests that different people used different ways to value the sequence Option A, and one of those ways is to value a reward sequence

²For the maximum case, the participant values “receive £425 today and £60 in 12 months” as much as receiving £800 today, but values “receive £505 today and £60 in 6 months” as much as receiving £505 today. For the minimum case, the participant values “receive £425 today and £60 in 12 months” as much as receiving £160 today, but for all the other questions, the revealed value of the back-end amount is ranged between £15 and £60. Thus, it is likely that such observations are mistakes.

purely by its total money.

The “total money” answers are highly likely to be a heuristic because on average these answers take less time (9.28s) than the other answers (10.88s), and the difference is significant (two-sample test: $t = 4.177$, $p\text{-value} = 3.06 \times 10^{-5}$).

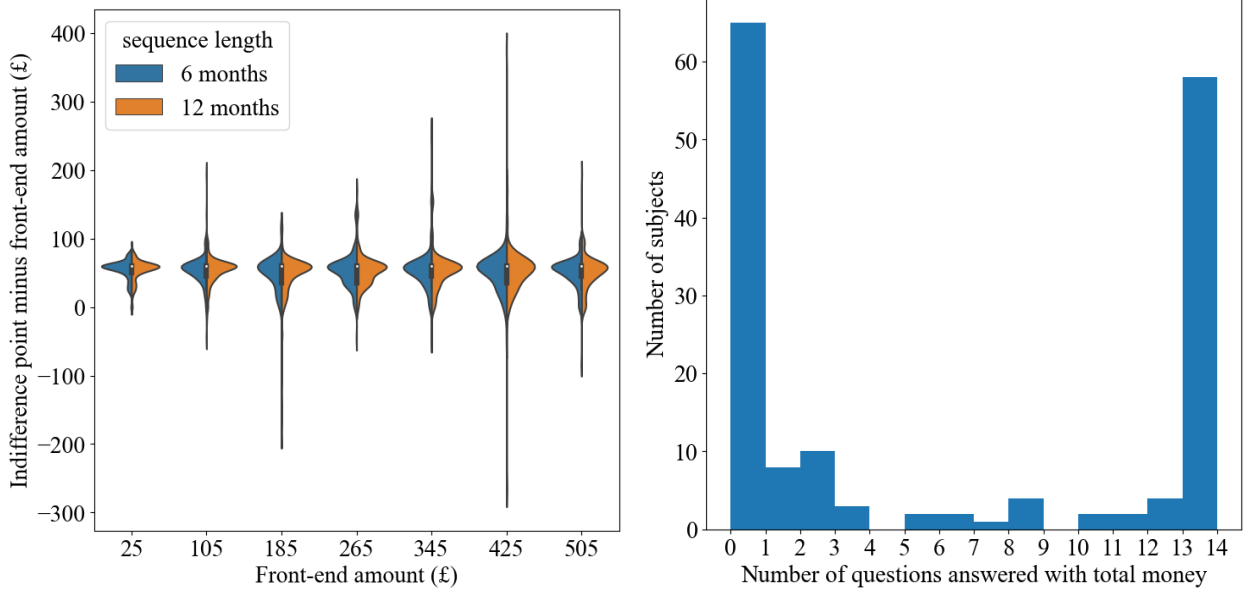


Figure 2: Distribution of Responses

To identify the ways of valuing that people used in the main task, we use k-means clustering method to analyze their answers over all fill-in-the-blank questions, and divide the participants who gave valid answers into two groups. The first group (cluster 1) has 104 participants, and the second (cluster 2) has 57 participants.³ The Mann-Whitney U test rejects the hypothesis that the two clusters are drawn from a same population ($U = 1059304.0$, $p\text{-value} = 2.67 \times 10^{-251}$).

The proportion of the “total money” answers is 63.1% in cluster 1, and is only 8.6% in cluster 2, and the difference is significant (Pearson’s $\chi^2 = 619.040$, $p\text{-value} = 1.21 \times 10^{-136}$). Over 79% of the observations in cluster 2 are above £0 and lower than £60. Thus, people in cluster 1 are more likely to use total money to value a reward sequence, while those in cluster 2 are more likely to value the back-end amount through a delay discounting approach.

³In the case that there are three clusters, the number of participants in each cluster is 105, 55 and 1. In the case of four clusters, the number of participants in each cluster is 105, 46, 1 and 9. We only divide people into two groups because the size for the third (and fourth) group is too small.

Figure 3 shows the median and mean revealed values of the back-end amount £60 for each question. The patterns of lines in Figure 3 also suggest that people in cluster 1 tend to use the total money in answers, while for people in cluster 2, an increase in the front-end amount Y_1 tends to reduce the revealed value of the back-end amount, i.e. $M - Y_1$.

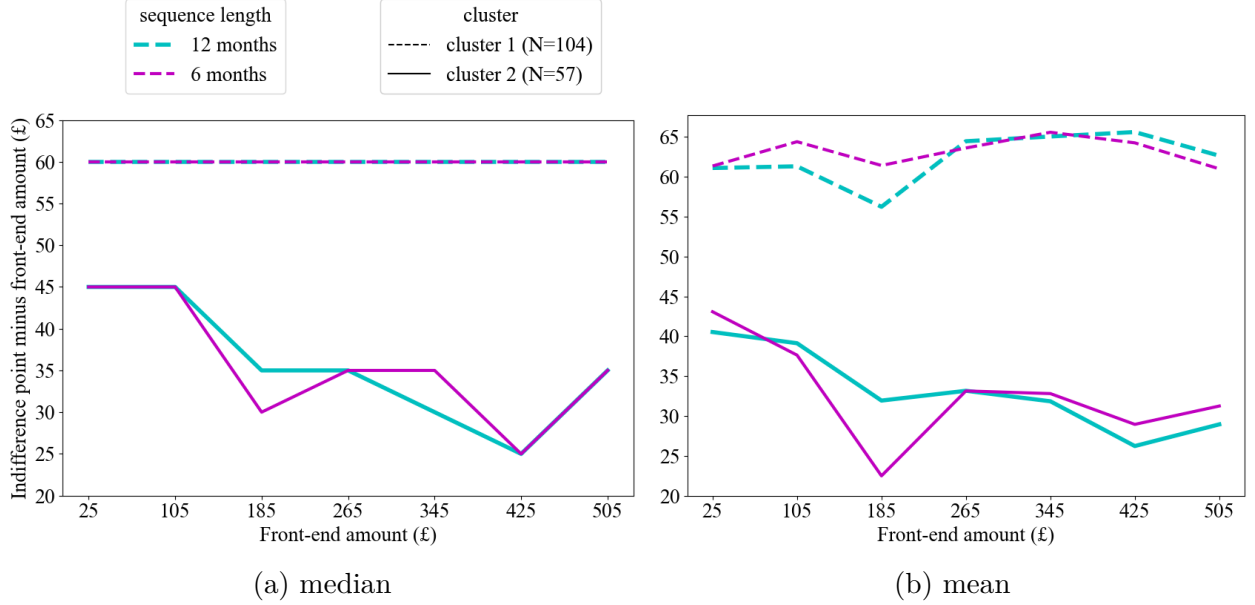


Figure 3: Median and Mean Indifference Point minus the Front-End Amount in Each Fill-in-the-Blank Question

4 Regression Results

We first look at the rank correlation coefficients. The Spearman's ρ between $M - Y_1$ and Y_1 is -0.049, which indicates a weak negative correlation between the back-end amount's revealed value and the front-end amount (p -value = 0.021). For people in cluster 1, the Spearman's ρ is -0.015 (p -value = 0.556); for people in cluster 2, the Spearman's ρ is -0.189 (p -value = 7.19×10^{-8}). This indicates that the revealed value of the back-end amount in cluster 1 is irrelevant to the front-end amount, while that in cluster 2 is significantly decreasing with the front-end amount.

An analysis based on other statistics yields similar results. The Kendall's τ between $M - Y_1$ and Y_1 is -0.038 (p -value = 0.018). For people in cluster 1, the Kendall's τ is -0.013 (p -value

= 0.552); for people in cluster 2, the Kendall's τ is -0.148 (p -value = 2.56×10^{-8}).

We then run linear regressions. The back-end amount's revealed value $M - Y_1$ is set as the dependent variable, and independent variables are the front-end amount Y_1 under each sequence length T , and the participants' responses to the PELI question (hereinafter referred to as PELI). The variable PELI is 1 if a participant chooses the large later income and 0 if she chooses the small earlier income. Meanwhile, we use variables CL1 and CL2 to represent clustering results. The variable CL1 is 1 if a participant is in cluster 1 and 0 otherwise; the variable CL2 is 1 if a participant is in cluster 2 and 0 otherwise. To examine individual heterogeneity in responses, we construct interaction variables between the clustering results and Y_1 . The coefficients for these interactions reflect how participants in each clusters react differently to the variation of Y_1 under each sequence length T . Table 1 illustrates the regression results.

The main results are illustrated by column (3)-(6) in Table 1. These columns are models with individual fixed effects. Column (3)-(4) are the OLS regressions run after removing 12 outliers; column (5)-(6) are the robust regressions run on the entire sample. For robust regressions, we use Huber's M-estimator for loss function and use Huber's proposal 2 estimator for scale estimator. Results produced by this robust method are less sensitive to outliers than the OLS estimator (Huber and Ronchetti, 2009). Under each estimator, these fixed-effect models yield similar results: First, the revealed value of back-end amount is overall slightly decreasing with the front-end amount. Second, for people in cluster 1, an increase in front-end amount has no impact on how people value the back-end amount. But for those in cluster 2, this significantly reduces the revealed value of the back-end amount (p -value < 0.005). Notably, according to column (6), for people in cluster 2, an £100 increase in the front-end amount reduces the revealed value of the back-end amount by £1.8 when the sequence is 6-month long, and by £2.2 when the sequence is 12-month long, which are 3.0% and 3.7% of the amount £60.

In addition, column (1)-(2) in Table 1 are the pooled OLS regressions run after removing outliers. The adjusted R^2 for column (1)-(2) indicates that incorporating clustering results in such model can improve the goodness of fit by a lot (from 0.001 to 0.335). For robust

Table 1: Regression Results

	(1) Pool	(2) Pool	(3) FE	(4) FE	(5) RLM	(6) RLM
$Y_1 \cdot 1\{T = T_L\}$	-0.006*** (0.002)		-0.006** (0.002)		-0.005*** (0.001)	
$Y_1 \cdot 1\{T = T_H\}$	-0.006*** (0.002)		-0.006** (0.002)		-0.007*** (0.001)	
$Y_1 \cdot 1\{T = T_L\} \times \text{CL1}$		0.023*** (0.004)		0.002 (0.002)		0.0 (0.001)
$Y_1 \cdot 1\{T = T_H\} \times \text{CL1}$		0.024*** (0.004)		0.003 (0.002)		-0.0 (0.001)
$Y_1 \cdot 1\{T = T_L\} \times \text{CL2}$		-0.06*** (0.005)		-0.02*** (0.004)		-0.018*** (0.002)
$Y_1 \cdot 1\{T = T_H\} \times \text{CL2}$		-0.061*** (0.005)		-0.022*** (0.004)		-0.022*** (0.002)
PELI	-0.705 (3.815)	-1.218 (2.552)	8.796*** (0.014)	6.52*** (0.392)	1.431*** (0.33)	1.439*** (0.322)
Constant	54.194*** (3.461)	54.586*** (2.603)	46.971*** (0.507)	48.711*** (0.449)	52.766*** (0.375)	53.026*** (0.365)
observations	2242	2242	2242	2242	2254	2254
adj- R^2	0.001	0.335	0.637	0.645		
Muller-Welsh					146.734	139.589

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.005$. Standard errors are reported in the parentheses. Model (1)-(2) are pooled OLS models, model (3)-(4) are fixed-effect OLS models, model (5)-(6) are fixed-effect robust linear regressions (RLM). For OLS, standard errors are clustered at the subject level, and p-values are calculated using t-tests. For RLM, each model is estimated using Huber's M-estimator (the threshold for loss function is set at 1.345) and the scale estimator is Huber's proposal 2 estimator. Each p-value for RLM is calculated based on a normal distribution with i.i.d. assumption. A smaller Muller-Welsh score indicates the model has a greater ability to both parsimoniously fit the data and predict new independent observations. Y_1 and T denote the front-end amount and the sequence length in Option A. T_L and T_H are 6 months and 12 months, respectively. Clustering results are obtained through k-means method.

regressions, we use the Muller-Welsh criterion to measure the model performance (Müller and Welsh, 2005). The model incorporating clustering results possesses a smaller Mull-Welsh score, which means it performs a greater ability to parsimoniously fit the data and predict new independent observations than the other model⁴.

5 Discussion

5.1 Estimating the confidence intervals

One may argue that the residuals in regressions are not normally distributed due to the existence of outliers. In such cases, conducting hypothesis testing based on the normality assumption may be inappropriate. Thus, we obtain the confidence intervals for regression coefficients via a stratified bootstrap method. Figure 4 illustrate the bootstrap 95% confidence intervals for key fixed-effect estimates in column (5)-(6) of Table 1. The results in Table 1 remain robust to this bootstrap method: overall, the revealed value of the back-end amount slightly decreases with the front-end amount; the front-end amount has no impact on the value of the back-end amount for cluster 1 but has a negative effect for cluster 2.

5.2 Responses to the PELI question

The coefficients for PELI in Table 1 are all significantly positive at significance level 0.5%. This suggest that people who are less impatient (choosing the large later income rather than the small earlier income) tend to value the back-end amount at a higher level. The Mann-Whitney U test on the revealed value of the back-end amount also rejects the hypothesis that people who choose different options in the PELI question value the back-end amount at the same level ($U = 421520.0$, $p\text{-value} = 0.004$).

⁴The calculation of the Muller-Welsh criterion requests applying stratified bootstrap. To construct bootstrap samples, we divide observations into three strata (the upper tail, the lower tail, the others), and draw observations with replacement within each stratum. Each bootstrap sample is 50% in size of the entire sample, and the process is repeated 1,000 times.

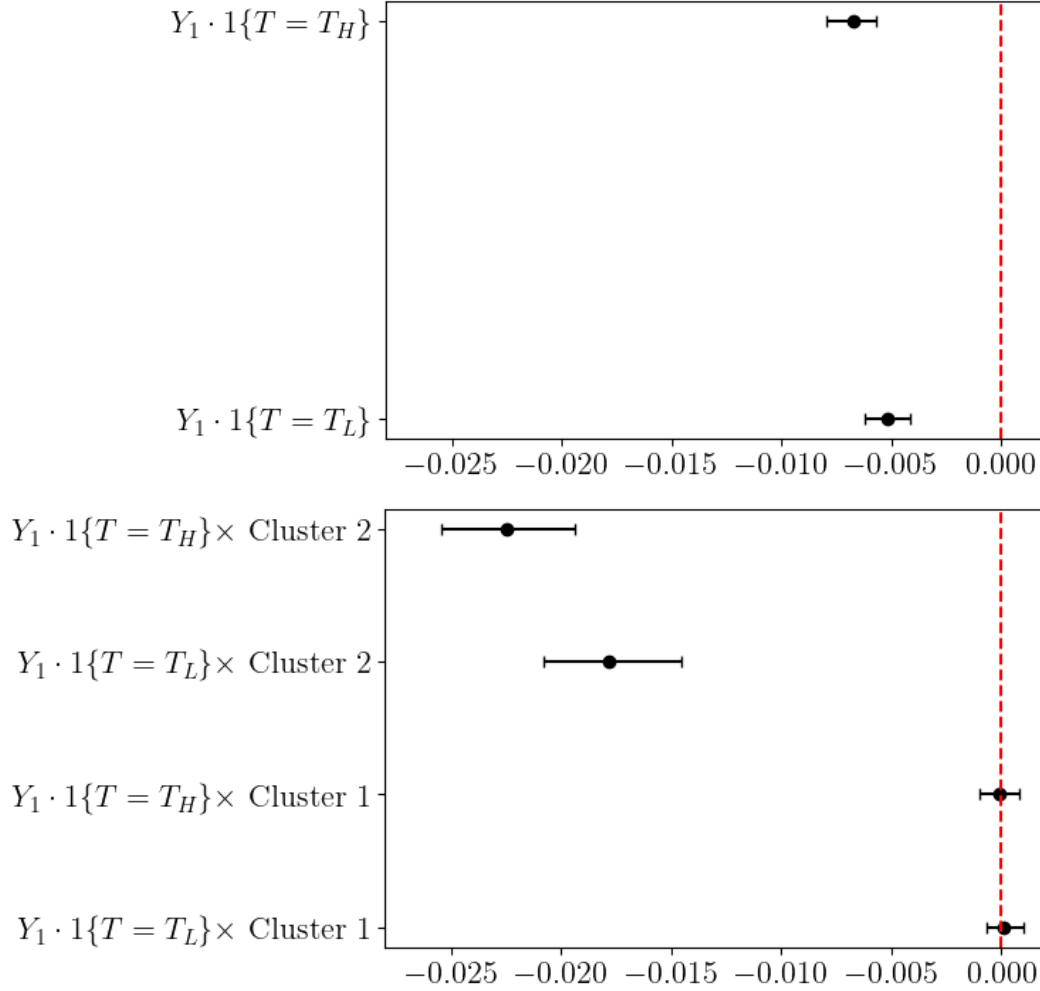


Figure 4: Bootstrap 95% Confidence Intervals for the Fixed-Effect Estimates in Robust Regressions

Note: The subfigures on the top and the bottom correspond to column (5) and (6) in Table 1 respectively. The dots are the original estimates and the error bars indicate the confidence intervals. To approximate the distribution for each coefficient, we use the stratified bootstrap method. The observations are divided into three strata based on RLM results: the upper tail (with high residuals and a weight of 1), the lower tail (with low residuals and a weight of 1), and the others. We draw observations with replacement within each stratum and use them to estimate the coefficients. Each bootstrap sample is the same size as the original sample, and the process is repeated 1,000 times.

The relationship between the PELI and the ways of valuing a sequence is unclear. Putting the clustering results and the PELI into a contingency table, we obtain $\chi^2 = 0.550$ (p -value = 0.458, $df = 1$). However, the result is opposite for a different clustering method. We classify the 62 participants who use total money to answer every question into one cluster and the other 99 participants into another, and construct another contingency table. The contingency table indicates that those who are less impatient are more likely to use total money to answer all questions ($\chi^2 = 11.063$, p -value = 0.001, $df = 1$).

5.3 Alternative clustering methods

As a robustness check, we use a Gaussian mixture model to cluster participants into two groups. The Gaussian mixture model exactly groups the participants who use total money to answer every question ($N=62$) into cluster 1, and groups the remaining 99 participants into cluster 2. Substituting the clustering results obtained from the Gaussian mixture model into the regressions gives similar results to the k-means method. Figure 5 illustrates the bootstrap 95% confidence intervals for key fixed-effect estimates in a model estimated using Huber’s M-estimator. The model corresponds to column (6) in Table 1. The results suggest that increasing the front-end amount has no effect on the revealed value of the back-end amount for people in cluster 1 but can significantly reduce it for people in cluster 2.

5.4 Alternative explanations

This research examines how people evaluate a two-reward sequence. We propose that, due to limited attention, an increase in the front-end amount would make some people discount the value of the back-end amount to a greater extent.

One alternative explanation to this phenomenon is that, people prefer increasing sequences to decreasing sequences. Hence, when the front-end amount is increased, the sequence becomes more “decreasing”. This lead people to devalue the whole sequence by a larger degree.

The trade-off theory of intertemporal choice also offers an alternative explanation(Read and Scholten, 2012; Scholten et al., 2015). The theory propose that, when valuing a sequence

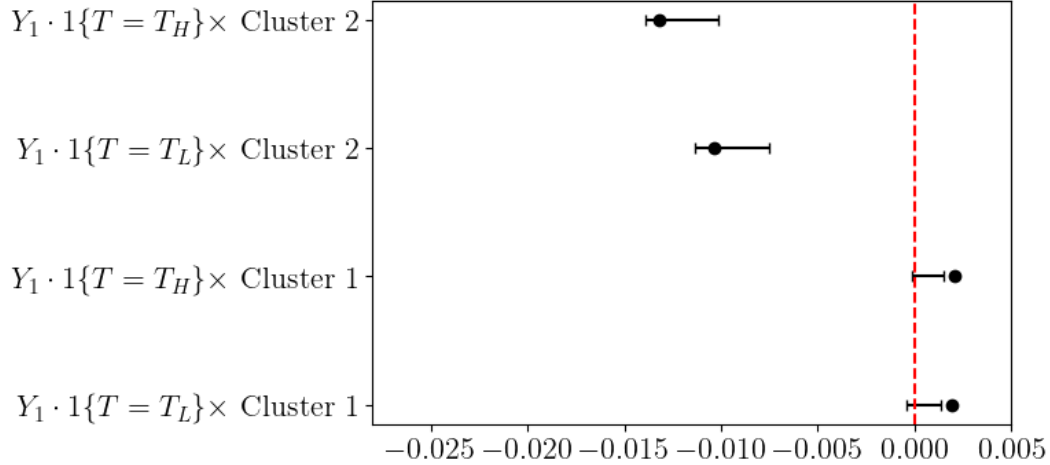


Figure 5: Clustering with Gaussian Mixture Model: Bootstrap 95% Confidence Intervals for the Fixed-Effect Estimates in Robust Regressions

Note: The dots are the original estimates and the error bars indicate the confidence intervals.

of rewards, people would trade off the total money against the weighted average delay of rewards. For example, for “receive Y_1 today and Y_2 in delay T ”, the average delay of rewards is a weighted sum of 0 and T . Suppose they value this reward sequence equally with receiving M today and no reward at other times. In the trade-off theory, M is determined by $u(M) = u(Y_1 + Y_2) - w \cdot T$, where w is the weight assigned to the delay T . For simplicity, we do not consider the changes in w . Given that $Y_1 + Y_2 > M$ and the utility function $u(\cdot)$ is concave, when Y_1 is increased by one unit, M should increase by an amount lower than one unit to hold $u(Y_1 + Y_2) - u(M)$ constant⁵.

Reference

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⁵Note the trade-off theory does not allow $M > Y_1 + Y_2$. However, for 12.8% of the observations, M is larger than $Y_1 + Y_2$.

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