Revealed preferences over experts and quacks and failures of contingent reasoning

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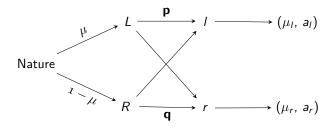
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Motivation: how do people choose and evaluate tests?

- choice set: investment advisers; doctors; medical tests ...
- decision time: before receiving a signal (advice, diagnosis)

Figure: A DM's problem of choosing a test (p, q)

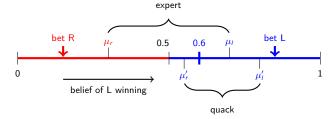


- Quacks vs. experts: useless vs. useful tests
- Can people distinguish between quacks and experts?
- What are the mechanisms of choosing quacks?

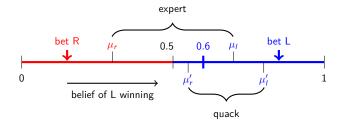
When a test (p, q) is an expert or a quack?

Task: bet state of the world (L or R) to win a prize π

- Among the previous 100 patients, L occurred 60 times and R occurred 40 times.
- Also send the patient to take a test, get a diagnosis, and then make the bet.
- A test's performance in giving correct diagnoses is:
 - Among 60 patients with tumor, it diagnosed 42 times correctly (70%)
 - Among 40 patients without tumor, it diagnosed 18 times correctly (45%)
- How much the patient should pay to get a diagnosis from this test? What about an alternative test whose performance is (65%, 55%)?



When a test (p, q) is a quack or an expert for a rational Bayesian DM?



Proof: Bayesian posteriors are mean preserving spreads of the prior:

$$\mu = \mathbb{E}_{s}\mathbb{P}(L \mid s) = \mu_{l}^{Bayes}s_{l} + \mu_{r}^{Bayes}s_{r}$$

A rational Bayesian DM's ex-ante winning probability of π is¹:

$$v(p,q;\mu) = \begin{cases} \mu_l^{Bayes} s_l + \mu_r^{Bayes} s_r = \mu, \text{ for quacks} \\ \mu_l^{Bayes} s_l + (1 - \mu_r^{Bayes}) s_r > \mu, \text{ for experts} \end{cases}$$

 $^1 {\rm under}$ structural assumptions $\mu \geq 1/2$ and $p \geq 1-q$

Setup: states, signals, and tests

- Two states $\omega \in \{L, R\}$ and two signals $s \in \{l, r\}$
- The action space is binary: u(a, ω) = πI_{a=ω}.
 optimal action is to bet the state the DM believes ≥ 1/2.
- The prior $\mu \equiv \mathbb{P}(\omega = L)$
- Assumption: the DM wants to maximize the chance to win the prize.
- Each test is characterized by an accuracy pair (p, q).
 p ≡ P(s = l | ω = L) and q ≡ P(s = r | ω = R)
- Each test induces a posterior pair (μ_r, μ_l) . $-\mu_l(p, q; \mu) \equiv \mu(\omega = L \mid s = l)$ and $\mu_r \equiv \mu(\omega = L \mid s = r)$
- Decision scenarios: choose the most useful radiology exam, hypothesis test, statistical experiment, etc.

Mechanisms

A DM fails to distinguish between quacks and experts because he:

- 1. fails to **update beliefs** as a Bayesian: (μ_I, μ_r)
- 2. chooses **sub-optimal actions** given her beliefs: (a_l, a_r)
- 3. has intrinsic preference over certain types of tests: skew(p,q)
- 4. lacks contingent reasoning in the implication of a test on actions

Intuition for contingent reasoning: a test is useful in providing an opportunity to contingent actions.

- quack: induced posteriors support the same optimal action (pooling): $a^*(l) = a^*(r)$
- expert: induced posteriors support different optimal actions (separating): a^{*}(l) ≠ a^{*}(r)

This paper: elicits preferences over tests and identify different channels

Experimental design

Indifference curves of $v(p, q; \mu)$ for a rational Bayesian agent

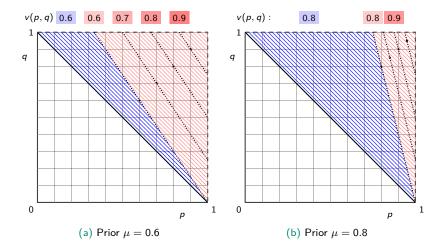
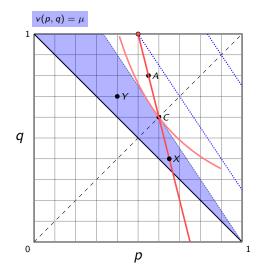


Figure: Value of test $v(p, q; \mu)$ for small and big priors

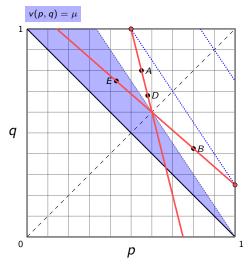
 $v(p,q;\mu)$: expected winning probability of the prize for prior μ and test (p,q)

Eliciting preference over tests: trade-offs between p and q



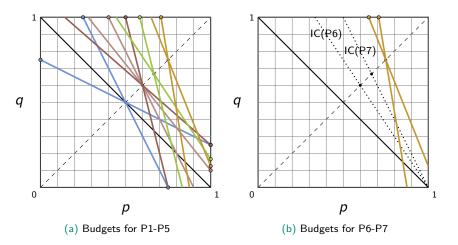
- Alternative interpretation: trade off Type I and Type II errors: 1 p vs. 1 q
- The receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve: p vs. 1-q

Eliciting preference over tests: paired linear budgets



- Budget pair: A and B are equally useful expert tests
- Identify intrinsic preference: (A, B) vs. (E, A)
- Measure the extent of intrinsic pref: (A, B) vs. $(D, B) \Rightarrow p$ -skewness

Budgets for 14 rounds of tasks



Experimental task: bet state L or state R

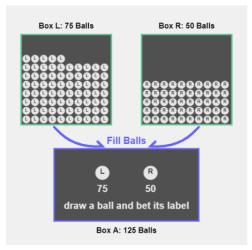
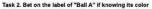


Figure: One ball (called "Ball A") will be drawn from Box A. The task is to bet its label to be either L or R. Correct bet wins a prize of £10; otherwise the payoff is 0.

Experimental task: choose a test on a budget through a coloring task Round 1 out of 14



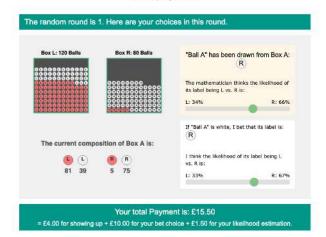
Task 1. Choose color compositons for Box L and Box R



bet that its label is:		I bet that its label is:	
C B		L	R
think the likelihood of its label being L	vs. R is:	I think the likelihood	of its label being L vs. R is:
: 86%	R: 14%	L: 33%	R: 675

Random pay one out of fourteen rounds

Your payment



Please share us thoughts about how you make the color and the bet choices:

Confirm

Identifying different channels and experimental procedures

Identifications:

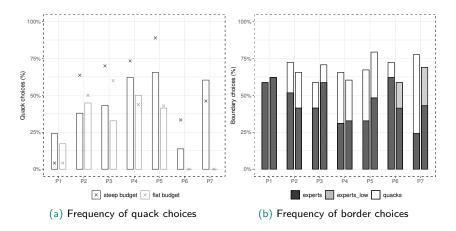
- belief-updating bias: reported posterior estimate for each signal
- best-responding bias: bet choices after each signal
- intrinsic preferences: budget pairs
- (unobservable) contingent reasoning: comments and decision rules

Procedures:

- recruit 64 (58) students on Prolific
- average payoff £11.25
- average duration 45 minutes, 18 minutes on instructions and quiz
- procedures and choices are comparable to the pilot session in the lab

Do people choose quacks?

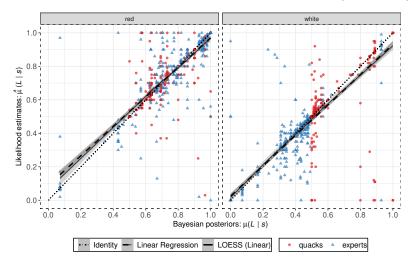
Experimental results: failure to distinguish and evaluate quack vs. expert tests



- Do people choose quacks? Yes at aggregate, round, and individual level
- What kind of tests do they choose? tests on the border
 ⇒ the most useful experts and the most distant quacks

Channel 1: are quack choices explained by belief updating biases?

• Result 1.1: reported posteriors are close to Bayesian ones (93% bonus)



- Result 1.2: small updating biases cannot explain quack choices
- Both results are robust: OLS, IV, Grether structure regressions

Channel 2: are quack choices explained by sub-optimal actions?

Table: Number of bet choices inconsistent with the reported and Bayesian beliefs

	Under st	ated belief	Under Bayesian belief		
	quack	expert	quack	expert	
inconsistent bets	26 1.6%	29 1.8%	35 2.2%	17 1.0%	

- Result 2.1: subjects choose the optimal bets that best-respond to beliefs
- Result 2.2: small best-responding biases cannot explain quack choices

Channel 3: are quack choices explained by intrinsic preferences?

If DM cares about certain test attributes + quack tests are more likely to have the attributes \Rightarrow many quacks choices

 \Rightarrow construct attributes measures and examine their distributions/predictability

- absolute asymmetry measures:
 - test-specific |p q|, |(p, q) pivot|
 - posterior-specific: $\mathbb{P}(red) = (\mu \mu_l)/(\mu_l \mu_r)$
- relative asymmetry measures:
 - test-specific q/p, (q pivot)/(pivot p),
 - posterior-specific: $(\mu_l \mu)/(\mu \mu_r)$
- All of them are similarly distributed for experts and quack tests
- None of them predicts quack choices with Probit regressions

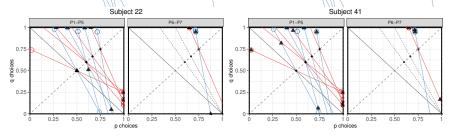
Result 3: quacks choices cannot be justified by intrinsic preferences

What happened?

Channel 4: are quack choices explained by the lack of contingent reasoning? Popular decision rules describing how subjects chose coloring compositions:

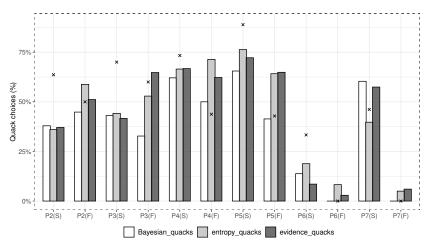
- Entropy-reducing rule: "I made sure that wherever I could, there was an option that red or white would 100% be label R or L"
- Evidence-separating rule: "The colour choices are based on the difference in red and white between L and R, you make the gap as big as possible so its easier to choose L or R from red and white."
- **Signal-separating rule**: "Try to favor one colour, increasing the chances for one colour to have a high change to belong to one of the boxes"

Figure: "I third to somewhat increase the difference between two boxes"



Predicting the quack choice rate for each decision rule

Figure: The histogram of predicted quack choice rate for budgets in P2-P7



- two decision rules explain the choice of border tests
 - the most useful expert or most distant quack \Rightarrow quack choices are by-products
- simple decision rules ⇒ failure of contingent reasoning

Conclusions

- people fail to distinguish between experts and quacks
 - not because of updating bias, sub-optimal actions, or intrinsic preferences
- people over-pay for quacks but accurately pay for experts
 - because they use entropy-reducing and evidence-separating decision rules \Rightarrow border tests
- people lack the contingent reasoning in choosing and evaluating tests

Contributions to the literature

- preference over information structures:
 - non-instrumental information structure:
 - timing and resolution procedure: Falk and Zimmermann (2016); Ganguly and Tasoff (2017), and Nielsen (2018)
 - skewness: Masatlioglu, Orhun, and Raymond (2017)
 - instrumentally valuable informaiton structures:
 - updating bias: Ambuehl and Li (2018)
 - prior-confirming or contradicting bias: Charness, Oprea, and Yuksel (2018); Montanari and Nunnari (2019)
 - This paper: unified framework for information structures, identifications for different channels, focus on reasoning bias
- failure of contingent reasoning:
 - violation of sure-thing principle and failure to choose dominant strategies

 Tversky and Shafir (1992); Cason and Plott (2014); Harstad (2000);
 Esponda and Vespa (2014) ...
 - source of failure: not partition states (or others' action space) b/w those where DM's choice does or does not matter
 - This paper: not partition test space b/w those with which DM's optimal strategies are pooling or separating across signals.
- a tool to elicit test/source preference explicitly: rational inattention (implicitly)

Extensions and discussions

On contingent reasoning bias:

- non-binary signals and states: decision problem is not responsive
- asymmetric prize: change the threshold (elicitable)
- dynamic setting: the optimal way to acquire information at time 0?
 e.g., lottery (40, A₁; 15, A₂; 10, A₃) vs. 20, what is the optimal way to pay ε and ask "Is the realized state A_i or not?"
- strategic interactions: Bayesian persuasion, communication games

More questions than answers:

- How to model the failure of contingent reasoning?
- How to structure the decision rules in choosing tests?
- de-biasing: standard methods have a bound, new methods on reasoning?

Some discussions related to physician skills and credence goods

Contingent reasoning is a component in physicians' diagnostic skills:

- Variations in health expenditures are most driven by physicians' practice styles and diagnostic skills (Finkelstein et al., 2016, Cutler et al., 2019)
- Many evidence on over-testing, over-medication, and useless procedures
- Two major mistakes in diagnoses/treatments: overuse and misuse
 - C-section in childbirth: Currie et al.,2017
 - CT for pulmonary embolism(PE): Abaluck et al.,2016, Chan et al.,2021
- Empirically, does contingent reasoning bias cause overuse and misuse?
- If so, how to teach physicians to reason and make better decisions?

 $Credence \ goods: \ private \ information \ + \ mis-aligned \ interests$

- Framework: Bayesian persuasion + private info and communication
- A doctor prefers R (regardless of states); a patient wants to match state
- The doctor commits to a test, learns the diagnosis (signal), and then communicates with the patient.
- How communication protocols affect persuasion and info transmission?

Thanks for your patience!

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 $^{^2 {\}rm The}$ working paper and slides can be found in my personal website: https://yanxu.me/

Appendix

What are the consequences of choosing quacks and non-optimal experts?

	mean	sd	pt5	pt25	pt50	pt75	pt95
Pool	5.6%	0.074	0%	0%	3.3%	8.3%	21.5%
Quack Expert	11.6% 2.3%	0.077 0.047	3.3% 0%	6.7% 0%	8.3% 0%	16.7% 2.5%	24.0% 12.7%

Table: Relative improvements in winning probabilities if choosing optimally

Alternative definitions of expert and individual quack tests

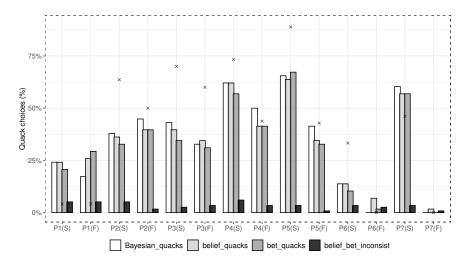


Figure: The histogram of quack choices under alternative definitions.

	Dependent: D(expert choice)				Dependent: D(top choice)		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Constant	-1.83	-45.74**	-3.46	0.13*	-5.69*	-22.66**	0.56
	(2.36)	(8.43)	(6.13)	(0.06)	(2.35)	(7.82)	(5.17
Slope	0.84	10.60**	-1.12	()	ì.40* [*]	5.44* [*]	-0.11
·	(0.52)	(1.91)	(1.15)		(0.51)	(1.75)	(0.97
Size	-1.33.	-14.88**	`0.97 [´]		-2.27*´*	-7.81*´*	-0.19
	(0.72)	(2.66)	(1.51)		(0.71)	(2.44)	(1.27
Quack chance	-3.72*´*	-3.52*´*	-2.72*´*		-1.59*´*	-1.00*´*	-1.18*
	(0.52)	(0.38)	(0.69)		(0.48)	(0.30)	(0.58)
Steep	.89 [∗]	2.48* [*]	Ò.85**		ì.34* [*]	ì.71* [*]	1.01*
	(0.41)	(0.47)	(0.29)		(0.41)	(0.45)	(0.29
Pivot point	9.32·	104.96**	`7.74 [´]		13.53*´*	50.36 ^{**}	-0.98
	(4.99)	(18.57)	(11.79)		(4.88)	(17.05)	(9.85)
D(Top choice)	()	· · /	()	0.44**	()	()	
· · /				(0.10)			
Top: Δ (entropy)	-5.28*			()	-4.50*		
1 (15)	(2.22)				(2.10)		
Bottom: Δ (entropy)	-3.44				-4.38*		
(13)	(2.19)				(2.17)		
Top: $ p + q - 1 $	()	-25.89**				-11.03**	
1 1 1		(4.54)				(4.10)	
Bottom: $ p + q - 1 $		-13.58**				-7.42**	
		(2.87)				(2.60)	
Top: ℙ(red)		()	-2.30			()	2.03
· 、 /			(3.88)				(3.20)
Bottom: $\mathbb{P}(white)$			12.55**				2.27
((2.89)				(2.66)
Observations	696	696	696	696	696	696	696

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Predicting the quack choice rate for each decision rule

Demographics and quack choices

(1) 0.23 (0.16) 0.004 (0.01)	(2) 0.20 (0.19)	(3) 0.38***	(4)	(5)	(6)
(0.16) 0.004			0.14		
		(0.05)	(0.14)	0.03 (0.12)	0.24 (0.18)
0.04 (0.04)					
0.001 (0.02)					
0.02 (0.04)					
. ,		-0.04** (0.02)	-0.03* (0.02)	-0.03** (0.02)	-0.03** (0.02)
		-0.02	()	()	(0.02)
		0.02			
	0.04 ^{**} (0.02)				0.04 ^{**} (0.01)
	-0.04		-0.04	()	-0.04 (0.03)
	0.02		0.03*	0.03*	0.02 (0.01)
	0.06**		0.05**	0.04* [*]	0.06** (0.02)
	-0.02		(1.1.2)	()	-0.02 (0.03)
	-0.02 (0.02)				(0.00)
58	58	58	58	58	58
-0.06	0.15	0.04	0.21	0.19	0.21
	ò.00í (0.02) 0.02 (0.04)	0.001 (0.02) 0.02 (0.04)	0.001 -0.04** (0.02) -0.02 (0.02) -0.02 (0.02) 0.02 (0.02) 0.02 (0.02) 0.02 (0.02) 0.02 (0.02) 0.02 (0.02) 0.02 (0.03) 0.02 (0.03) -0.02 (0.03) -0.02 (0.02) (0.03) -0.02 (0.02) 58 58	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

	Dependent variable: individual coefficient 1 $ \hat{lpha_1}$					
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Constant	0.03 (0.25)	0.11 (0.38)	0.20** (0.09)	0.12 (0.20)	0.22 (0.19)	0.07 (0.21)
Age	-0.004	(***)	()			(*)
Female	0.24*** (0.07)			0.21*** (0.05)	0.21*** (0.05)	0.21 ^{***} (0.05)
SAT	0.004 (0.03)			(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
STEM	0.06 (0.07)					
CRT score	()		-0.09 ^{***} (0.03)	-0.08 ^{***} (0.03)	-0.07*** (0.03)	-0.09 ^{***} (0.03)
Wason score			-0.04 (0.03)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Logic score			0.06 (0.04)			0.04 (0.03)
Risk aversion		0.03 (0.03)	(0.01)			(0.00)
Contingent		0.01 (0.06)				
Stubborn		-0.02 (0.03)				
Information		0.03 (0.05)		0.06 (0.04)		0.05 (0.04)
Perspective		-0.07 (0.05)		-0.10** (0.04)	-0.08** (0.04)	-0.09** (0.04)
Analytical		0.02 (0.05)		0.06 (0.04)	0.07 ^{**} (0.04)	0.06 (0.04)
Observations	58	58	58	58	58	58
Adjusted R ²	0.17	-0.06	0.13	0.33	0.31	0.33
Adjusted R ² Note:						.05;

Demographics and individual belief updating biases