



Munich Personal RePEc Archive

Price-Setting and Attainment of Equilibrium: Posted Offers Versus An Administered Price

Sean M. Collins and Duncan James and Maroš Servátka and
Daniel Woods

Fordham University, Fordham University, Macquarie Graduate
School of Management, Purdue University

19 September 2017

Online at <https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/81489/>

MPRA Paper No. 81489, posted 21 September 2017 23:27 UTC

Price-Setting and Attainment of Equilibrium: Posted Offers Versus An Administered Price

Sean M. Collins, Duncan James, Maroš Servátka and
Daniel Woods

September 19, 2017

1 PRICE-SETTING AND ATTAINMENT OF EQUILIBRIUM: POSTED 1
2 OFFERS VERSUS AN ADMINISTERED PRICE 2
3

4 SEAN M. COLLINS, DUNCAN JAMES, MAROŠ SERVÁTKA AND DANIEL 4
5 WOODS 5

6 The operation of the posted offer market with advance production environ- 6
7 ment (Mestelman and Welland, 1988), appropriately parameterized, differs from 7
8 that of the market entry game (Selten and Güth, 1982), appropriately presented, 8
9 only in terms of price-setting. We establish the effect of this difference in price- 9
10 setting on attainment of the competitive equilibrium allocation while controlling 10
11 for effects relating to the presentation of the market entry game and to the 11
12 stationarity or non-stationarity of environment. Free posting of prices promotes 12
13 convergence to the competitive equilibrium allocation, while the typical market 13
14 entry game data can be characterized as displaying cycling prices. 14

15 How do markets equilibrate? What is responsible when they do not? We 15
16 generate insight on these questions by setting up a comparison of the mar- 16
17 ket entry game (Selten and Güth, 1982) and a posted offer with advance 17
18 production environment (Mestelman and Welland, 1988), hereafter denoted 18
19 as the POAP. We demonstrate that the POAP can be thought of as a non- 19
20 isomorphic relaxation of the market entry game, where the market entry 20

21 Collins: Fordham University, 113 W 60th St, New York, NY 10023, 21
22 scollins15@fordham.edu. James: Fordham University, 441 E Fordham Road, Bronx, 22
23 NY 10458, dujames@fordham.edu. Servátka: Macquarie Graduate School of Manage- 23
24 ment, 99 Talavera Road, Macquarie Park, New South Wales 2113, Sydney, Australia, 24
25 maros.servatka@mgs.edu.au. Woods: Purdue University, 403 West State Street, West 25
26 Lafayette, IN, 47907, woods104@purdue.edu. Funding was provided by University of 26
27 Canterbury. The Erskine Programme supported this research with a Visiting Erskine 27
28 Fellowship awarded to Duncan James to visit the University of Canterbury. This study 28
29 involved human subjects and received IRB approval from Fordham University. The 29
authors are grateful for comments from M. Battaglini, M. Isaac, B. Kőszegi, C. Plott,
T. Tassier, an anonymous associate editor, and two anonymous referees.

1 game appears conversely as a market with advance production environ- 1
2 ment restricted to have an administered pricing rule—specifically a uniform 2
3 price that allows ex post market clearing—instead of freely and individu- 3
4 ally posted offers. This insight then allows the construction of experiments 4
5 which isolate the marginal effects of different design features, by means of a 5
6 sequence of incrementally varying designs. Empirically, we find different out- 6
7 of-equilibrium dynamics associated with the administered ex post market 7
8 clearing price rule versus posted offers, and more evidence of convergence to 8
9 the competitive equilibrium outcome given use of posted offers. Stationarity 9
10 of environment also aids equilibration. 10

11 The above results are demonstrated by data from our study. We generate 11
12 these data by implementing a sequence of treatments, beginning with the 12
13 market entry game in its original format. In our experiments, as in the prior 13
14 empirical literature, the market entry game generates volatile outcomes that 14
15 are generally inconsistent with complete adoption of pure strategy play, al- 15
16 though perhaps tempting to describe as “equilibrium plus noise”. From 16
17 there we alter the exogenous control variable from “capacity” (i.e. a pa- 17
18 rameter of the demand schedule) to marginal cost. We then build on that 18
19 by altering the presentation of the game (in previous literature, presented 19
20 as an algebraic payoff function) to make explicit the (previously implicit) 20
21 numerical demand schedule and the accompanying administered price rule, 21
22 i.e. ex post market clearing, both inherent in the market entry game. Each 22
23 of the experimental treatments listed so far introduces a single change in 23
24 design only, isolating the marginal effect of each change. Each change in 24
25 format and/or control variable as just described also preserves isomorphism 25
26 with the original implementation of the market game. 26

27 However, we then break with isomorphism by introducing a further treat- 27
28 ment, which introduces a second stage in which each subject nominates 28
29 his or her own price subsequent to entry. Individual posting of prices thus 29

1 replaces the uniform ex post market clearing price rule embedded in the 1
 2 immediately prior transformation of the market entry game; our sequence 2
 3 of treatments thus terminates at a particular version of the POAP. 3

4 While the market entry game and the POAP are not isomorphic, it is 4
 5 however the case that given pricing “via the demand curve”¹ in the second 5
 6 stage of the POAP (when prices are posted) the payoff function in the first 6
 7 (advance production) stage of the POAP is exactly equivalent to the pay- 7
 8 off function in the market entry game. In consequence there are subgame 8
 9 perfect pure strategy equilibria in the POAP that have the same observ- 9
 10 able outcomes, in quantities and prices, as the pure strategy equilibria in 10
 11 the market entry game, in number of entrants and prices implicit to its ad- 11
 12 ministered price rule. (In [Appendix A](#), we demonstrate the preceding and 12
 13 also delineate additional equilibria in the POAP which are not possible in 13
 14 the market entry game; those additional equilibria are not exhibited by our 14
 15 data.) 15

16 Does restricting the pricing possibilities, thereby reducing the number of 16
 17 pure strategy equilibria relative to the POAP, allow the market entry game 17
 18 to more quickly attain the competitive equilibrium allocation common to 18
 19 both? Quite the opposite: we find that the POAP converges more rapidly 19
 20 to the competitive equilibrium allocation than does the market entry game. 20
 21 Additionally, outcomes in the market entry game appear not to be evidence 21
 22 of mixed strategy use by the subjects, but rather an out-of-equilibrium 22
 23 phenomenon, *en route* to an equilibrium in pure strategies (consistent on 23
 24 this point with results from [Duffy and Hopkins, 2005](#)). We are also able to 24
 25 advance understanding of the market entry game by identifying something 25
 26 26

27 ¹Pricing “via the demand curve” means that each seller nominates a price that is equal 27
 28 to the price coordinate of the point on the demand curve where the quantity coordinate 28
 29 is given by the units produced (i.e., number of sellers who have decided to produce one 29
 unit) in that round.

that it would seem *is* going on instead of mixing: cycling.

1. THE GAME, THE MARKET, AND THEIR PREDICTIONS

Introduced by [Selten and Güth \(1982\)](#), the market entry game is an n -player simultaneous game where players decide between two strategies: enter the market (IN) or stay out (OUT). Empirically, the game has been studied with linear payoffs. We consider a specification that nests earlier work, where player i 's payoff is

$$(1) \quad \pi_i = \begin{cases} v, & \text{if player } i \text{ chooses OUT,} \\ v + r(c - m) - h, & \text{if player } i \text{ chooses IN.} \end{cases}$$

In this specification, m is the number of entrants, the parameters v , r , and c , are positive integers, and h is a non-negative integer that satisfies $0 < h \leq r(c-1)$. Following the literature, v may be interpreted as an outside option or entry subsidy, c as the capacity of the market to support entrants, and r as a parameter determining the scale of the surplus captured from entry, i.e. $r(c - m)$. The parameter h may be interpreted as a cost incurred to enter the market.

Alternatively, one might present the payoffs in [Equation 1](#) as the consequence of entry or not when demand is $P(m) = r(c - m)$ with an *ex post* market clearing price, P , enforced based on a realized m ; entry or not each attract the same subsidy, v ; and marginal cost of production is h .

For our discussion of Nash equilibria, we define $\hat{c} \equiv c - h/r$. One might think of \hat{c} as market capacity adjusted for the presence of an entry cost. If $h = 0$, then clearly $\hat{c} = c$.

There are many Nash equilibria for the market entry game ([Gary-Bobo, 1990](#)). There is a continuum of equilibria for which $\hat{c} - 1$ players enter, $n - \hat{c}$ stay out, and one player enters with any probability. A pure strategy equilibrium occurs on either end of this continuum, where the profiles of pure strategies are consistent with either $m^* = \hat{c}$ or $m = \hat{c} - 1$ players

choosing to enter (and $n - \hat{c}$ or $n - \hat{c} + 1$ players choosing to stay out, respectively).²

For $\hat{c} > 1$, there is a symmetric mixed strategy equilibrium for which player i enters with probability

$$(2) \quad p(\hat{c}) = \frac{\hat{c} - 1}{n - 1} \text{ for } i = \{1, \dots, n\}.$$

Additionally, there are asymmetric mixed strategy equilibria in which $j < \hat{c} - 1$ players enter with certainty, $k < n - \hat{c}$ players stay out with certainty, and the remaining $n - j - k$ players enter with probability $(\hat{c} - 1 - j)/(n - 1 - j - k)$.

The predicted number of entrants follow from the preceding equilibria. Common to all Nash equilibria for the market entry game is that the expected number of entrants is between \hat{c} and $\hat{c} - 1$, inclusive. The expected number of entrants under pure strategy equilibria occupy each extreme. In the asymmetric mixed strategy equilibrium, the expected number of entrants is $n(\hat{c} - 1)/(n - 1)$. In the symmetric mixed strategy equilibrium, the expected number of entrants is $j + (\hat{c} - 1 - j)(n - j - k)/(n - 1 - j - k)$.

We can convert the market entry game just described into a market with entry: specifically, the POAP.³ We thus present a market wherein agents must pre-commit to production, but are allowed to nominate their own prices. After making a binary choice — which could be labelled either as

²For ease of exposition, we denote only the number of entrants consistent with the competitive equilibrium allocation as m^* .

³Mestelman and Welland (1988) present experiments using a differently structured and parameterized posted offer with advance production environment. Among the differences between that study and this one, in Mestelman and Welland: sellers do not know the demand curve; prices are chosen simultaneously to production/entry; and buyers are queued randomly, instead of by value order. Additional differences are delineated in footnote 21. Johnson and Plott (1989) present another, also differently parameterized, version of a posted offer with advance production.

1 having entered or not, or equivalently, as having incurred the cost of pro- 1
 2 ducing one unit or not — each agent is informed of the total number of units 2
 3 for sale and then posts an asking price for his or her unit. The buyer queue 3
 4 consists of robots buying in value order (Levitan and Shubik, 1972). The 4
 5 highest step on the demand curve gets to buy first, buying if resale value is 5
 6 greater than or equal to the lowest asking price, otherwise not at all, and so 6
 7 on down the demand schedule, with ties between units listed at the same 7
 8 asking price broken randomly. The POAP is thus a two-stage game, with 8
 9 a first stage of advance production (with an equivalent space to the entry 9
 10 choice in the market entry game), then a pricing stage. (Note also that the 10
 11 entry/production subsidy and outside option, each equal to v , are still in 11
 12 effect in our implementation of POAP.) 12

13 We show in Appendix A that some of the pure strategy equilibria in the 13
 14 POAP feature agents who expect, as of the first stage, that pricing in the 14
 15 second stage will be “via the demand schedule”. In such cases the setting 15
 16 for the binary first stage choices in the POAP is identical to the market 16
 17 entry game. The pure strategy equilibria for the market entry game will 17
 18 then have payoff equivalent pure strategy equilibria in the implementation 18
 19 of the POAP that we study. In Appendix A, it is demonstrated that $\hat{c} - 1$ 19
 20 agents producing, then pricing at $r(c - 1 - m)$, or \hat{c} agents producing then 20
 21 pricing at $r(c - m)$ are each pure strategy subgame perfect Nash equilibria. 21
 22 These equilibria yield the same respective payoffs as the \hat{c} and $\hat{c} - 1$ entrant 22
 23 pure strategy equilibria in the market entry game.⁴ 23

24 How, then, do the outcomes of the POAP compare to the market entry 24
 25 game in actual, real time, play? Does administering the uniform ex post 25
 26 market clearing price or allowing individual posting of prices best facilitate 26
 27 27

28 ⁴Additional “collusive pricing” (as opposed to collusive entry/quantity) equilibria exist 28
 29 in the POAP, though obviously not in the market entry game. These equilibria are as 29
 characterized in Appendix A, but do not emerge in the data presented in subsection 4.4.

1 trade? What clues do differences in price (implicit or explicit) and quantity 1
 2 dynamics yield as to cause(s) of any such differences? As the reader will 2
 3 see, our results in [section 4](#) start by first following then recasting the classic 3
 4 work recounted in [section 2](#). From there, observation of dynamics across 4
 5 games ultimately allows a deepened understanding of equilibration and of 5
 6 the role of prices therein. 6
 7

8 2. PRIOR EMPIRICAL WORK 8

9 Empirical testing of the market entry game took place soon after it was 9
 10 described: [Kahneman \(1988\)](#), [Sundali et al. \(1995\)](#), [Rapoport \(1995\)](#), and 10
 11 [Camerer and Lovallo \(1999\)](#) being four key early contributions. [Erev and 11](#)
 12 [Rapoport \(1998, pg. 150\)](#) characterize foundational empirical work on the 12
 13 market entry game as follows. 13
 14

15 The major findings of the previous studies can be briefly summarized. Positive 15
 16 and highly significant correlations between the 10 pairs of c and m values were 16
 17 found on each block.⁵ For groups of $n = 20$ subjects, the correlations were 17
 18 around 0.90. When several different groups were combined ($n = 60$), the 18
 19 correlations increased to about 0.98. Rapid convergence to the equilibrium 19
 20 was already achieved on the first block.

21 Erev and Rapoport also point out individual-level evidence at odds with 20
 22 interpreting the data as having converged to equilibrium on page 150 and 21
 23 in more detail on page 151 (quoted below). 22

24 Although the values of m rapidly converged to c or $c - 1$ on the aggregate 23
 25 level (when $v = 1$), no support was found for either the pure-strategy or 24
 26 symmetrical mixed-strategy equilibria on the individual level. In violation of 25
 27 the pure-strategy equilibrium prediction that implies static decision policies, 26
 28 large within-subjects variability was observed. And in violation of the sym- 27

28 ⁵Erev and Rapoport refer to “blocks” of 10 periods with 10 random orderings of c , 28
 29 and the implied m^* , in each block, resulting in 10 observations of m entrants in each 29
 30 block.

metrical mixed-strategy equilibrium prediction, the between-subjects standard deviations of number of entries for every value of c were always larger than $(p(c)(1 - p(c))n)^{1/2}$, the value predicted at this equilibrium.

Is a high correlation between two variables, or a high R^2 in univariate regression of pooled time series data, sufficient evidence that equilibrium has been attained? As will be detailed later, the results of our study suggest that it is not. Rather the reservations expressed by Erev and Rapoport and others appear to be well-founded. Our experimental design (detailed in [section 3](#) of this paper) implements a multi-block sequence (as in [Sundali et al., 1995](#), and subsequent studies) of alternating sub-blocks of periods with varying \hat{c} (as in Sundali et al.) and sub-blocks of stationary \hat{c} (instead like Erev and Rapoport). This allows us to carry out a variety of analyses, as implemented in these earlier papers, as a calibration exercise.⁶

The other literature with which our experiments connect is the work on the posted offer with advance production ([Mestelman and Welland, 1988](#); [Johnson and Plott, 1989](#)). In terms of institution, the POAP is a standard posted offer laboratory market; however, its environment is one in which sellers must incur unrecoverable production costs *prior* to transacting. The environment most commonly used in laboratory markets, production-to-order, instead allows ex post production, which typically would only comprise units profitable to the seller. The advance production environment is generally held to be a difficult setting for equilibration. Indeed prices converge more slowly, and efficiencies (i.e. realized gains from trade) are lower in the advance production environment (Mestelman and Welland, 1988) than

⁶Prior studies find that more information about play in prior rounds aids convergence toward some equilibrium. [Duffy and Hopkins \(2005\)](#) in particular find that their Full Information treatment (where subjects are presented with every payoff of every individual subject in every round) allows attainment of pure strategy equilibrium in some sessions towards the end of a 100 period experiment. We do not provide information from prior rounds, and hence do not vary provision of such information as a treatment.

1 in a production to order environment. 1

2 Does the advance production environment embedded in the market entry 2
 3 game preclude equilibration, or is a change in approach to pricing, holding 3
 4 constant the use of advance production, sufficient to allow the competitive 4
 5 equilibrium to be obtained? As we will show later, the connection between 5
 6 the market entry game and the POAP proves to be useful in understanding 6
 7 the role of price-setting in equilibration of markets. 7

8 3. DESIGN 8

9
 10 Throughout all experiments, we set $v = 1$, $r = 2$, and have $n = 5$ subjects 10
 11 in each group. In a given treatment, either h is held constant throughout 11
 12 the treatment while c could vary, or vice versa. Regardless of whether h 12
 13 varies or c varies, h and c are chosen such that the cost-of-entry-adjusted 13
 14 capacity of the market, \hat{c} , is the same across treatments in each period.⁷ 14

15 We implement six treatments in total: four versions of the market entry 15
 16 game, and two versions of POAP. The four versions of the market entry 16
 17 game are isomorphic to each other, and implemented as follows. 17

- 18 • MEG:OG-G implements the market entry game in its original form. 18
- 19 Subjects choose “IN” or “OUT” by means of radio buttons. The payoff 19
 20 for “OUT” is always 1; the payoff for “IN” is equal to $1 + 2(c - m) - h$, 20
 21 where c is capacity, varied here as the exogenous control parameter 21
 22 and taking the values $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, m is the sum of the “IN” choices, and 22
 23 h is the cost of entry. Cost, h , is held constant at zero for all subjects 23
 24 (but as mentioned earlier, subjects knew only their own h). We have 24
 25 denoted this treatment MEG:OG-G for original game (OG) with a 25
 26 group-level (G) shifter, since payoffs are expressed algebraically and 26
 27 27

28 ⁷For example, in period 5, $c = 3$ and $h = 0$ in one treatment (MEG:OG-G) and 28
 29 $c = 5$ and $h = 4$ in another (MEG:OG-I). In either case, $\hat{c} = c - h/r$ equals 3, and the 29
 equilibrium predictions are identical.

the commonly known parameter c is varied, as in previous literature.

- MEG:OG-I is the same as MEG:OG-G, except the exogenous control variable is cost instead of capacity. The details remain the same, except that capacity, c , is held constant at 5, and the cost of entry, h , is varied as the exogenous control parameter, taking the values $\{2, 4, 6, 8\}$. We denote this treatment as MEG:OG-I because h is varied rather than c ; h is individual (I), and private, information.⁸
- MEG:MF-I is the same as MEG:OG-I, except subjects are presented with a numerical demand schedule and an ex post market clearing price rule replacing the algebraic payoff function in MEG:OG-I (and also MEG:OG-G) in a payoff-preserving manner. As before, subjects choose “IN” or “OUT” by means of radio buttons. The payoff for “OUT” is always 1. The payoff for “IN” is equal to $1 + P(m) - h$, where h is the cost of entry, varied here as the exogenous control parameter and taking the values $\{2, 4, 6, 8\}$. The price, $P(m)$, is equal to the resale value coordinate of the demand schedule associated with the number of entrants, m , that period. This demand schedule is presented in [Table I](#). (Note that $r = 2$ is the step between adjacent resale values.) We denote this treatment MEG:MF-I because information is presented to subjects in a market format (MF), and h is varied with c constant.
- MEG:MF-G is the same as MEG:MF-I, except cost of entry does not vary from period to period; rather, the location of the demand curve does. This necessitates a family of demand schedules derived by shift-

⁸The four MEG:OG-I groups are split into two sets of two groups each. One set received an additional line of instruction on the interpretation of \hat{c} as an intersection; one did not. This is done as a procedural check, and ex post statistical checks did not reveal any difference between the two approaches. Instructions are included in sections [subsection B.2](#) and [subsection B.3](#) of the appendix. Groups that received the intersection instructions are denoted MEG:OG-I*, or have session numbers followed by an asterisk (*) in reported MEG:OG-I data.

TABLE I
DEMAND SCHEDULE IN MEG:MF-I AND POAP-I

Unit Number	0	1	2	3	4	5
Resale Value	10	8	6	4	2	0

ing the demand schedule shown in [Table I](#), while holding h constant. These shifts are used to create payoff possibilities in MEG:MF-G isomorphic to those in MEG:MF-I, period-by-period.⁹ We denote this treatment MEG:MF-G because a market format is used and there are group-level shifts in demand.

The two dimensions along which the original market entry game is transformed are thus: (1) whether individual subject marginal cost or a group-level shifter is the exogenous control variable subject to experimenter variation from period to period and (2) whether the surplus captured from entry, $r(c - m)$ in the original game, is presented by means of an algebraic payoff function or by a numerical step demand function and associated administered price rule. Variation in these two dimensions allows us to assess whether results in the market entry game are or are not dependent on the source of payoff-relevant information (individual or group-level shifter) or the format of that information (algebraic payoff function or verbal description in an economic context). [Table II](#) summarizes which of these treatments implements which combination of attributes.

Varying format of information (e.g. between market or game) can impact decision-making ([Cox and James, 2012](#)). Any impact on decision-making of whether payoff-relevant changes in parametrization are communicated by

⁹In MEG:MF-G, the demand schedule specified in MEG:MF-I ([Table I](#)) is shifted, with resale values being $\{8, 6, 4, 2, 0\}$, $\{10, 8, 6, 4, 2\}$, $\{12, 10, 8, 6, 4\}$, or $\{14, 12, 10, 8, 6\}$ for units 1 through 5. The cost of entry, h , is held constant at 8. We increased h and simultaneously shifted the curves “up”, relative to MEG:MF-I, in order to avoid the use of negative resale values.

TABLE II
MATRIX OF ISOMORPHIC MARKET ENTRY GAME TREATMENTS

	Group-level shifter (capacity, c , or location of demand curve)	Individual-level shifter (cost of entry, h)
Algebraic payoff function	MEG:OG-G	MEG:OG-I
Numerical step demand, and associated pricing rule	MEG:MF-G	MEG:MF-I

either (equivalent) private-and-individual parameter shifts or public-and-global parameter shifts is an empirical question; a difference is a possibility and thus we make provision for its capture, if it exists.¹⁰

Breaking with isomorphism by allowing subjects to post prices after they have first chosen whether or not to enter, and second, been informed of the number of entrants in that period gives us the two POAP treatments. In these treatments, posting from the set of permitted prices $\{0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$ is only possible if the player pre-commits and incurs a cost conditional on that pre-commitment (i.e. engages in advance production).

POAP employs robot-buyers queueing in value order ([Levitan and Shubik, 1972](#)) on the demand side of the market; value-order queueing helps to shape the theoretical predictions in POAP, as explained in [section 1](#) and detailed in [Appendix A](#). POAP-G employs shifts in the demand schedule in a manner equivalent to MEG:MF-G, while POAP-I employs shifts in the

¹⁰Note also that market entry experiments typically introduced parameter shifts via changes in capacity, c , a publicly observable and global variable, while many market experiments including those by [Mestelman and Welland \(1988\)](#) have tended to introduce information privately at the individual level. Thus, in order to create a chain of comparable, adjacent experimental parameterizations connecting the market entry game in its usual form and POAP, one needs to effect a transition from using a global variable as a parameter shifter to using an individual variable as a parameter shifter. Our sequence of treatments accomplishes this.

1 cost of entry equivalent to MEG:MF-I.¹¹ Properly translated, a pure strategy
 2 equilibrium in, say, period 37 in any of MEG:OG-G, MEG:OG-I, MEG:MF-G
 3 or MEG:MF-I, has a counterpart with the same payoffs across players, given
 4 subgame perfect play, in period 37 of POAP-G and POAP-I. (We provide an
 5 example and summary of this in [Table VIII](#) of the appendix.)

6 In all treatments, we disclose the payoff function or demand schedule and
 7 accompanying pricing regime at the start of each period. The number of
 8 entrants and the individual's own payoff are disclosed as feedback at the
 9 end of each period. (Note that in POAP the number of entrants is also dis-
 10 closed prior to the pricing decision.) Each player's h is private information,
 11 throughout all our experiments; h is also identical across all subjects in a
 12 given experiment, but not knowing this, subjects can not assess one an-
 13 other's payoffs. In treatments with explicit pricing, whether subject-posted
 14 or administered, pricing is also displayed at the end of each period. In POAP,
 15 instead of an across-the-board administered price, as in MEG:MF, different
 16 prices across players are possible. However, as players are anonymous (no
 17

18 ¹¹The possibility of failure to transact, present in POAP, is not present in MEG:OG
 19 or MEG:MF. Consequently, POAP-G and POAP-I must necessarily differ from each other
 20 in at least one of the following: (1) whether or not the loss incurred given failure to sell
 21 is identical across otherwise isomorphic (to each other) POAP-G and POAP-I parameter-
 22 izations and (2) whether or not salvage values for unsold units are employed in POAP-G.
 23 If salvage values (of a very specific parameterization) are employed in POAP-G, identical
 24 payoffs (including in the case of failure to sell) to those in POAP-I can be established;
 25 however this comes at the cost of introducing salvage values which are not present (or
 26 rather, are implicitly zero) in POAP-I. Conversely, if no difference is introduced in the
 27 form of salvage values for unsold units, then a difference in magnitude of loss, given
 28 failure to sell, must necessarily exist. We dealt with this by running half of the POAP-G
 29 groups without salvage values and half with salvage values. Instructions may be found
 in sections [subsection B.6](#) and [subsection B.7](#) of the appendix, respectively. Groups for
 which no salvage values are used are denoted POAP-G**, or have session numbers followed
 by a double asterisk (**) in reported POAP-G data.

identifiers are displayed in any treatments) and h is always private information, this conveys no additional payoff information relative to MEG:OG or MEG:MF.¹² Furthermore, note that there is less information available to subjects in our experiments than in Duffy and Hopkins' Aggregate Information treatment, and also their Full Information treatment, *a fortiori*.¹³

There are 96 periods in each experimental session. Each session is divided into 6 blocks of 16 periods. Within each block of 16, during the first 4 periods the exogenous control variable is varied randomly but without replacement through a predicted number of entrants at pure strategy competitive equilibrium, m^* , of 1, 2, 3, 4. In MEG:OG, this is done by varying $\hat{c} = m^*$; in MEG:MF and POAP, either h or the demand schedule is varied to yield a given m^* . (Recall in cross-section, i.e. across all treatments, m^* is the same in a given period.) During the middle 8 "stationary" periods the exogenous control variable does not change, and $m^* = 3$ remains constant throughout. The final four periods of each block return to varying m^* as during the first four periods but with a new randomized ordering. The orderings of m^* are identical across all sessions. The nonstationary periods implement the environment typical of key early experiments on market entry games, such as those run by Sundali et al. (1995). In keeping m^* constant across the periods in the middle of each block, we implement a feature common in market experiments, including the POAP experiments of Mestelman and Welland (1988), and one used throughout the market entry game experiments of Duffy and Hopkins (2005). The relatively large number of periods is intended to create a chance of capturing long run behavior, as in Duffy

¹²The demand schedule is known prior to all action in a period, in POAP as in MEG:MF (and implicitly MEG:OG, too). Thus knowledge of transactions at particular prices cannot convey any information about demand not already disclosed.

¹³Note also that across the four market entry game treatments (MEG:OG-G, MEG:OG-I, MEG:MF-G and MEG:MF-I), which are isomorphic to each other, there is no variation of economically relevant information whatsoever, only in the format of its presentation.

1 and Hopkins (2005). 1

2 Subjects were given instructions (reproduced in [Appendix B](#)) individu- 2
 3 ally and privately for self-paced reading and an additional announcement 3
 4 was made publicly that all subjects had received the same instructions. All 4
 5 questions were addressed individually and privately when subjects raised 5
 6 their hands. Between each block of 16 periods a one minute break was fol- 6
 7 lowed by two practice periods and an opportunity to review the instructions 7
 8 if the subjects wished (just as at the start of the experiment). 8

9 All subject groups are disjoint, and no subject participated in more than a 9
 10 single session. Each group consists of 5 subjects and is fixed throughout that 10
 11 session; there are two concurrent, unrelated groups per session. All experi- 11
 12 ments took less than two and a half hours. Payoffs consisted of one period 12
 13 randomly selected after the experiment from each of the six blocks, plus a 13
 14 show-up fee.¹⁴ Subjects were recruited using ORSEE ([Greiner, 2015](#)) from 14
 15 the subject pool maintained by the New Zealand Experimental Economics 15
 16 16

17 ¹⁴This payoff procedure is chosen for two reasons. First, we need to avoid incentive 17
 18 problems caused by attained or impending bankruptcy on the part of the subjects. This 18
 19 problem occurs when the subjects can lose money in a single period, and earnings ac- 19
 20 cumulate across periods. The payoff procedures used by [Sundali et al. \(1995\)](#), and that 20
 21 used by [Mestelman and Welland \(1988\)](#), are each not compatible with the rest of our 21
 22 design. Sundali et al. pay for all periods, and avoid the issue of subjects strategizing 22
 23 about trading at or near bankruptcy by withholding feedback; this approach is incom- 23
 24 patible with our design. Mestelman and Welland pay for all periods, and give feedback, 24
 25 but also then endow their subjects with working capital, the depletion of which could still 25
 26 (endogenously) change the incentives of the game. With these approaches ruled out, we 26
 27 are left with a choice between paying for a single period (over the entire experiment), or 27
 28 the payoff procedure used by [Duffy and Hopkins \(2005\)](#), who paid one period (randomly 28
 29 selected) from each of their four blocks. In order not to introduce an avoidable difference 29
 between our design and that of Duffy and Hopkins, we paid one period (randomly se-
 lected) from each of our blocks. We have six blocks, instead of four, but otherwise follow
 their approach.

Laboratory at the University of Canterbury. Experiments were computerized with z-Tree (Fischbacher, 2007).

4. RESULTS

4.1. Overview of Results

Allowing individual posting of prices leads to much more rapid convergence than does a uniform ex post market clearing price. That convergence is to a familiar equilibrium in pure strategies: the competitive market equilibrium. Figure 1 and Figure 2 together encapsulate all group-level (entry/quantity) data for all experiments. (Individual-level price data from POAP are analyzed separately in subsection 4.4).

Notable results from the data are summarized as follows.

- Unlike in MEG:OG-G, in the other treatments data consistent with a pure strategy equilibrium is observed for the entirety of some 8-period segments of the stationary environment.
- Recall the pure strategy equilibrium in the market entry game characterized by *the same players* forming the same split between \hat{c} entrants and $n - \hat{c}$ non-entrants; one could argue that this equilibrium has been “attained” if the preceding characterization holds over all periods in a segment. This condition is indeed fulfilled: thirteen times in POAP, five times in MEG:MF, and twice in MEG:OG (both in MEG:OG-I).¹⁵
- If the additional standards are imposed on POAP that: (a) all entrants must also successfully transact, and (b) said transactions must take place at the price associated with a single equilibrium, then attainment of pure strategy equilibrium drops to eight instances. Even under the more stringent standard, competitive pure strategy equilibrium is

¹⁵The “collusive” pure strategy equilibrium consisting of $\hat{c} - 1$ entrants and $n - \hat{c} - 1$ non-entrants is never observed over the entire length of an eight-period segment, in any treatment.

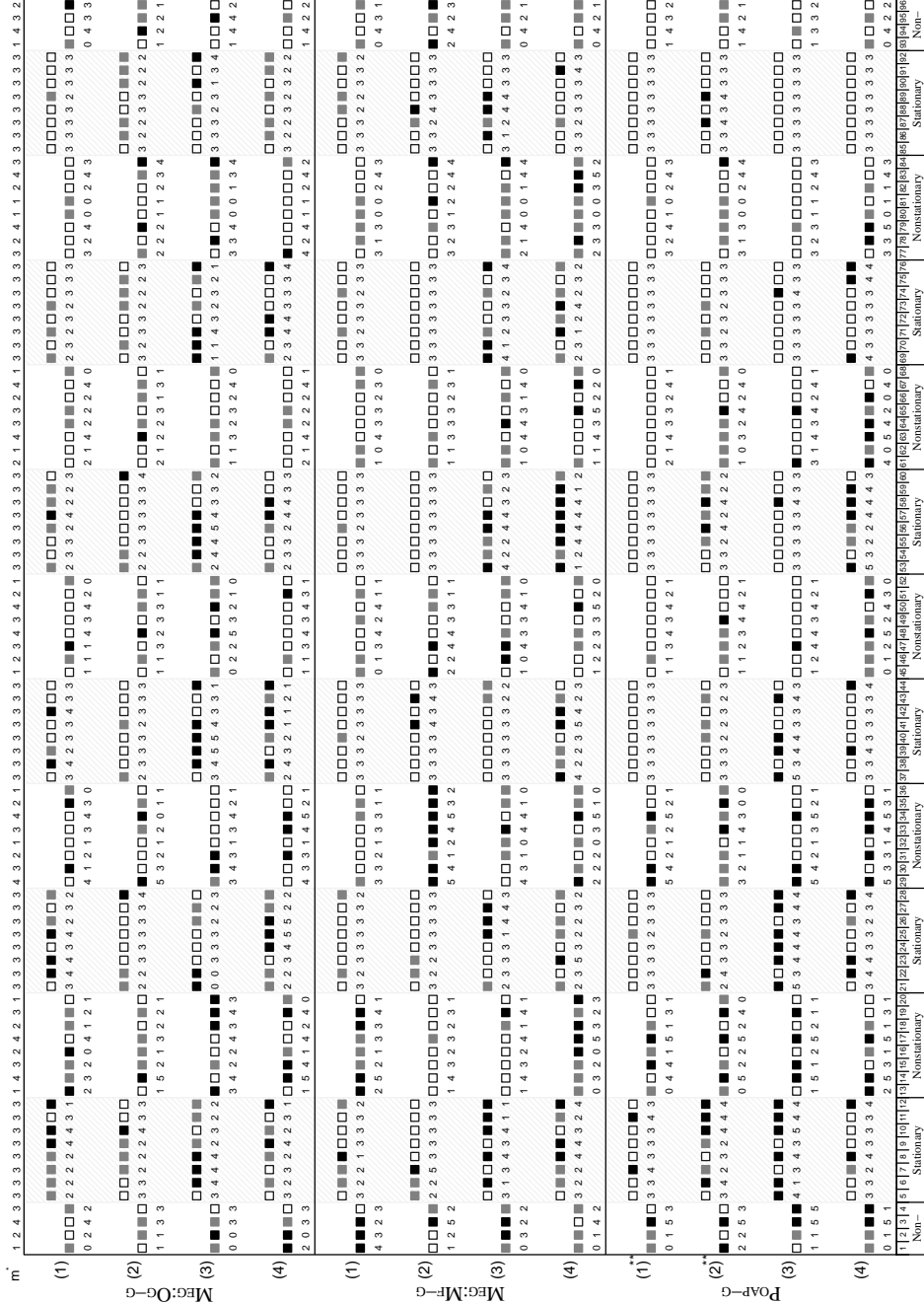


Figure 1: Entry Across Treatments with Group-Level Shifters

The observed number of entrants is listed below the box for each period. The predicted number of entrants, m^* is listed at top. Sessions with * are explained in footnote 11.

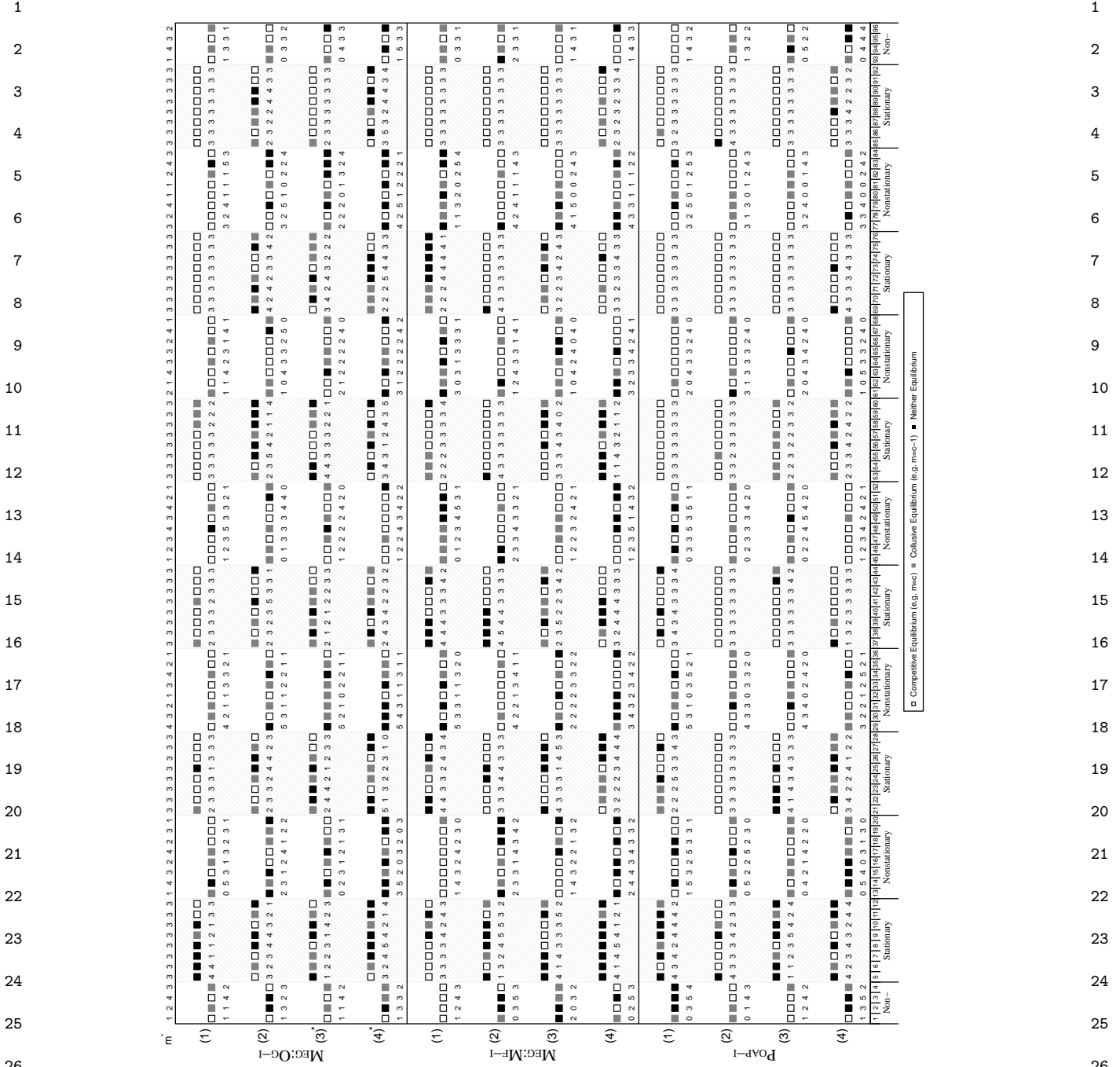


Figure 2: Entry Across Treatments with Individual-Level Shifters

The observed number of entrants is listed below the box for each period. The predicted number of entrants, m^* is listed at top. Sessions with the * are explained in footnote 8.

1 attained most often, and earliest, in POAP. 1

2 Focusing on the subjects' ability to nominate prices in POAP, we see 2
 3 that this feature, despite adding dimensionality to the subjects' respective 3
 4 action sets, is associated with the most rapid convergence to pure strategy 4
 5 equilibrium. That is, despite introducing an extra choice variable with six 5
 6 possible settings (each contingent on the number of entrants), and requiring 6
 7 equilibration across more dimensions, POAP equilibrates fastest as well as 7
 8 most frequently. 8

9 As we investigate the data in more detail, we will trace through the suc- 9
 10 cessive transformations of the market entry game, starting with an analysis 10
 11 of how our results from MEG:OG-G replicate the key findings on the market 11
 12 entry game in its original form. 12
 13

14 *4.2. Establishing a baseline — and comparison with results from Sundali,* 14
 15 *Rapoport, and Seale (1995)* 15

16 The nonstationary periods of MEG:OG-G generate results which are broadly 16
 17 consistent with Experiment 2 of [Sundali et al. \(1995\)](#).¹⁶ Table III presents 17
 18 and summarizes our data in a similar manner to that in Table 4 of Sundali 18
 19 et al.'s study, reporting entry broken down by blocks of the experiment and 19
 20 summary statistics, including correlations between m and c . 20

21 Like Sundali et al., we find “high” correlations between m and c , although 21
 22 in our data they are slightly lower (being closer to .80 than .90). One might 22
 23 attribute this difference to greater discreteness in our design.¹⁷ 23
 24

25 ¹⁶We consider Sundali et al.'s Experiment 2, rather than Experiment 1, because it 25
 26 more closely matches our design in that subjects receive periodic feedback and that 26
 27 there are more (varying) blocks. 27

28 ¹⁷The lower correlations in our data may reflect the fact we have only 5, rather than 28
 29 20, possible entrants per group, and that we use only 4, rather than 10, exogenous 29
 manipulations of c . The number of entrants, m , “missing” c by one entrant in our study
 represents 20% of the possible variation in m , as opposed to the 5% of possible variation

TABLE III
AVERAGE NUMBER OF ENTRIES BY BLOCK AND MARKET CAPACITY ACROSS
GROUPS IN TREATMENT MEG:OG-G

	Block 1	Block 2	Block 3	Block 4	Block 5	Block 6	Observed		Symmetric MSE		
							Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Varying c											
$c = 1$	1.25	1.12	0.75	0.75	0.50	0.62	0.83	0.69	–	–	
$c = 2$	0.88	2.25	1.62	1.75	2.00	1.88	1.73	0.79	1.25	0.97	
$c = 3$	2.62	2.88	2.62	2.50	2.75	3.00	2.73	0.82	2.50	1.12	
$c = 4$	3.75	3.88	3.50	3.25	3.62	3.50	3.58	0.96	3.75	0.97	
Mean	2.12	2.53	2.12	2.06	2.22	2.25	2.22	1.32	1.88	1.65	
Correlation	0.73	0.78	0.72	0.83	0.88	0.84	0.79	–	–	–	
Constant c											
$c = 3$	2.69	2.78	2.84	2.97	2.62	2.59	2.75	0.90	2.50	1.12	

Note: “Symmetric MSE” refers to the prediction under the symmetric-mixed strategy Nash equilibrium.

We also replicate another part of Sundali et al.’s analysis (their Table 6) in (our) Table IV. For each of the 4 values of c presented to subjects, we tabulate a 2×2 matrix that summarizes the overlap (or lack thereof) across the (“stay out” or “enter”) decisions observed in a given period and those observed in the most immediately prior identically parameterized period.¹⁸ As in Sundali et al. (1995), the off-diagonal cells of these matrices do not contain a count of zero, and are therefore inconsistent with complete adoption of pure strategies.

We however do observe that the proportion of data in the off-diagonal in Sundali et al.; this phenomenon will then impact the calculated correlations between m and c , for the respective data sets.

¹⁸Sub-blocks with varying m^* are units of four periods over which c takes the values $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ in randomized order. Every other pair of sub-blocks (starting with the first and second, continuing through the third and fourth, and so on), is split by a sequence of 8 periods in which c remains constant (excluded in this analysis). The remaining sub-blocks (starting with the second and third) are directly adjacent — one immediately follows the other. In this way, for each of the 4 values of c presented to subjects, we tabulate a 2×2 matrix that summarizes the overlap (or not) across the “stay out” or “enter” decisions observed in a given period and those observed in the most immediately prior identically parameterized period.

TABLE IV
 TRANSITION MATRICES BETWEEN ADJACENT SUB-BLOCKS WITH VARYING c
 ACROSS ALL SUBJECTS IN TREATMENT MEG:OG-G

			Sub-Block 2			Sub-Block 3		
			Out	In		Out	In	
	Sub-Block	Out	31	19	Sub-Block	Out	29	13
	1	In	11	19	2	In	11	29
			IC=0.375				IC=0.300	
			Sub-Block 4			Sub-Block 5		
			Out	In		Out	In	
	Sub-Block	Out	31	9	Sub-Block	Out	29	10
	3	In	8	32	4	In	15	26
			IC \approx 0.213				IC=0.313	
			Sub-Block 6			Sub-Block 7		
			Out	In		Out	In	
	Sub-Block	Out	38	6	Sub-Block	Out	40	8
	5	In	10	26	6	In	6	26
			IC=0.200				IC=0.175	
			Sub-Block 8			Sub-Block 9		
			Out	In		Out	In	
	Sub-Block	Out	42	4	Sub-Block	Out	43	5
	7	In	6	28	8	In	3	29
			IC=0.125				IC=0.100	
			Sub-Block 10			Sub-Block 11		
			Out	In		Out	In	
	Sub-Block	Out	40	6	Sub-Block	Out	39	4
	9	In	3	31	10	In	5	32
			IC \approx 0.113				IC \approx 0.113	
			Sub-Block 12			Sub-Block $j+1$		
			Out	In		Out	In	
	Sub-Block	Out	39	5	Sub-Block	Out	401	89
	11	In	5	31	j	In	83	307
			IC=0.125				IC \approx 0.196	

Note: Transition matrices summarize the overlap (or not) across decisions observed in a given period and the most immediately prior identically parameterized period. Sub-blocks are defined in [footnote 18](#). IC is the index of change, or the proportion of observations in the off-diagonal cells.

TABLE V
NUMBER OF ENTRIES BY SUBJECT AND MARKET CAPACITY IN TREATMENT
MEG:OG-G

Subject	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Varying c																				
$c = 1$	1	0	1	0	4	1	11	0	0	0	2	1	1	4	2	0	2	8	0	2
$c = 2$	0	9	2	0	11	2	11	0	4	0	4	0	5	11	2	2	0	11	0	9
$c = 3$	3	3	12	0	9	11	2	0	6	12	10	7	8	8	4	7	4	12	1	12
$c = 4$	11	12	12	0	12	3	4	6	10	10	12	12	11	5	3	12	11	12	2	12
Total	15	24	27	0	36	17	28	6	20	22	28	20	25	28	11	21	17	43	3	35
Constant c																				
$c = 3$	22	25	41	0	47	45	6	2	28	48	32	38	27	27	10	16	22	48	3	41

cells (i.e. the index of change, denoted IC) tends to fall over the course the experiment, as it does in Sundali et al.’s data.¹⁹ These data thus suggest the possibility of some movement towards (though not attainment of) equilibrium in pure strategies.

4.3. Evidence concerning whether or not mixing occurs in MEG:OG-G

We find evidence against mixing similar to Sundali et al. (1995). Sundali et al. (pg. 215) state that “the [symmetric] mixed-strategy equilibrium implies a linear relationship for each subject between the value of c and the corresponding number of entries summed over blocks. Inspection of the individual results does not seem to support the prediction”. In Table V, we follow their analysis with our data. The data show that half of the subjects display reductions in the frequency of entry in at least one of their changes in c from 1 to 2, 2 to 3, and 3 to 4. For only four subjects are there always increases in the frequency of entry as c increases.

¹⁹We find some statistical evidence against the hypothesis that the off-diagonals of the transition matrices in Table IV are equal across sub-blocks. Across the four different values of c , we conduct four McNemar’s paired tests over changes in subjects switching strategies; one test rejects that these are the same in the last pair of sub-blocks as in the first pair of sub-blocks; three tests fail to reject. We document these tests in the Table IX of the appendix.

4.4. *The posted offer with advance production — and comparison with results from Mestelman and Welland, 1988*

We will now motivate the statistical analysis to come in [subsection 4.6](#), and aid comparison of the dynamics of the market entry game and POAP, visually, by means of traditional price convergence graphs (for example, [Plott and Smith, 1978](#)). In [Figure 3](#) and [Figure 4](#), we do this for stationary periods of both of the POAP treatments (POAP-G and POAP-I, respectively).

Figures 3 and 4 present all information needed to evaluate the functioning of these institutions: asking prices, acceptances or refusals of asking prices, and resultant efficiency numbers. Asking prices are represented by open circles; acceptance of an ask fills in an open circle, creating a black dot; transacted quantity (a count of black dots within a period) is printed above the horizontal axis; efficiency is printed below the horizontal axis. The column of space within which an ask can be recorded within each period maps to a particular subject.²⁰

The POAP markets we conduct appear ultimately to converge to equilibrium, with 100% efficiency attained in many periods later in the experiment. The average efficiencies over the entire experiments in our study are around 80%, as excess entry and/or mispricing lead to large efficiency losses on occasion, particularly in early periods. For comparison Mestelman and Welland (1988) find an average efficiency of 80% over all 18 periods, while over the final 8 periods of their 18 periods, average efficiency is 89%.

Restricting attention to just the first 18 stationary periods of POAP (the same number of periods as Mestelman and Welland) we find an average

²⁰No ask is printed if no entry takes place, but even then such a blank column still pertains to the particular subject associated with it (and who in that case did not enter in that period). Thus the history of any individual's entry, asks, and outcomes may also be tracked by looking for the column of space allotted that individual, and the overall composition of entrants in a period can be likewise identified.

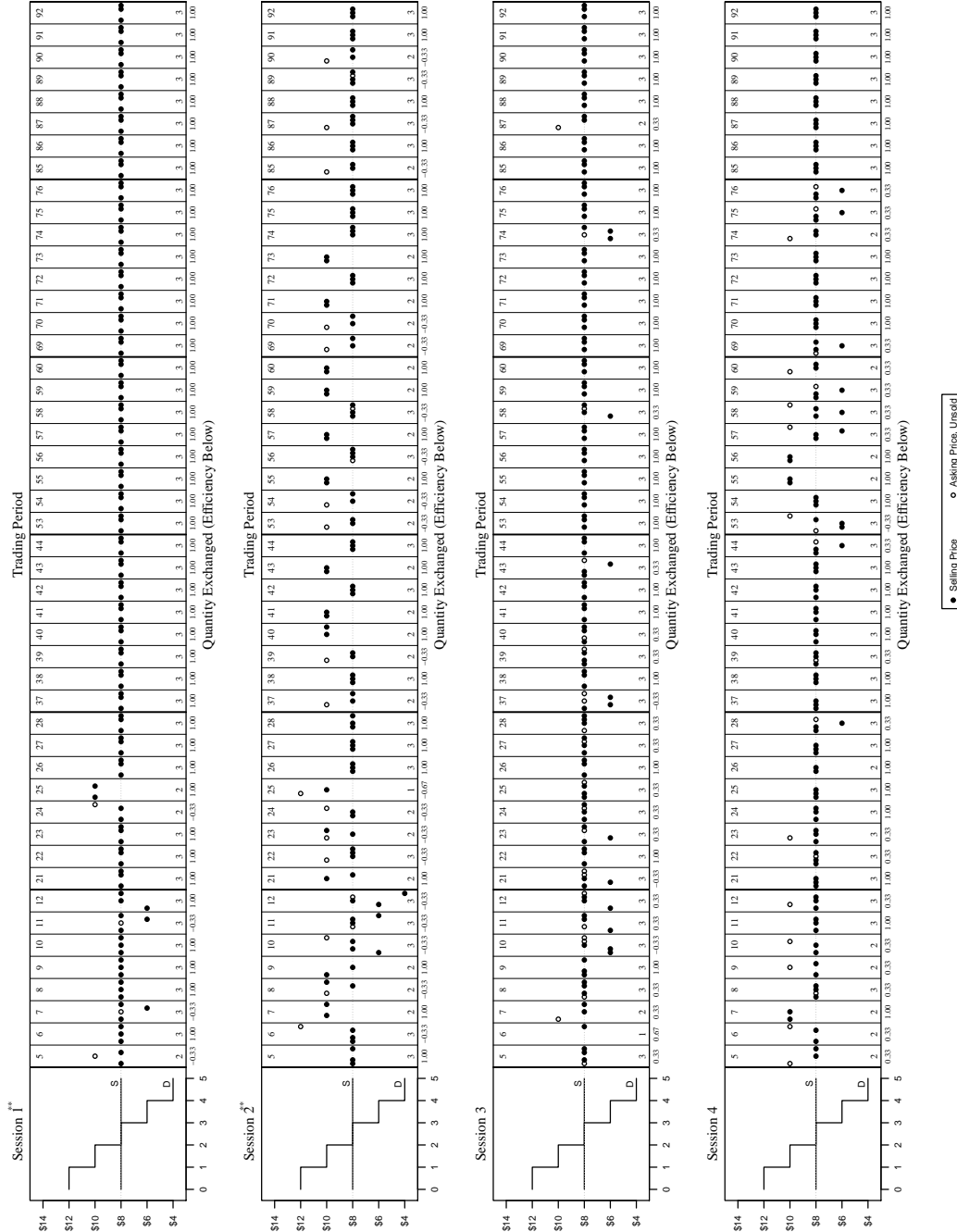


Figure 3: Asks, Prices, and Quantities Exchanged in Stationary Periods of All Sessions of Treatment POAP-G.

Note: Sessions with asterisks (**) are explained in footnote 11.

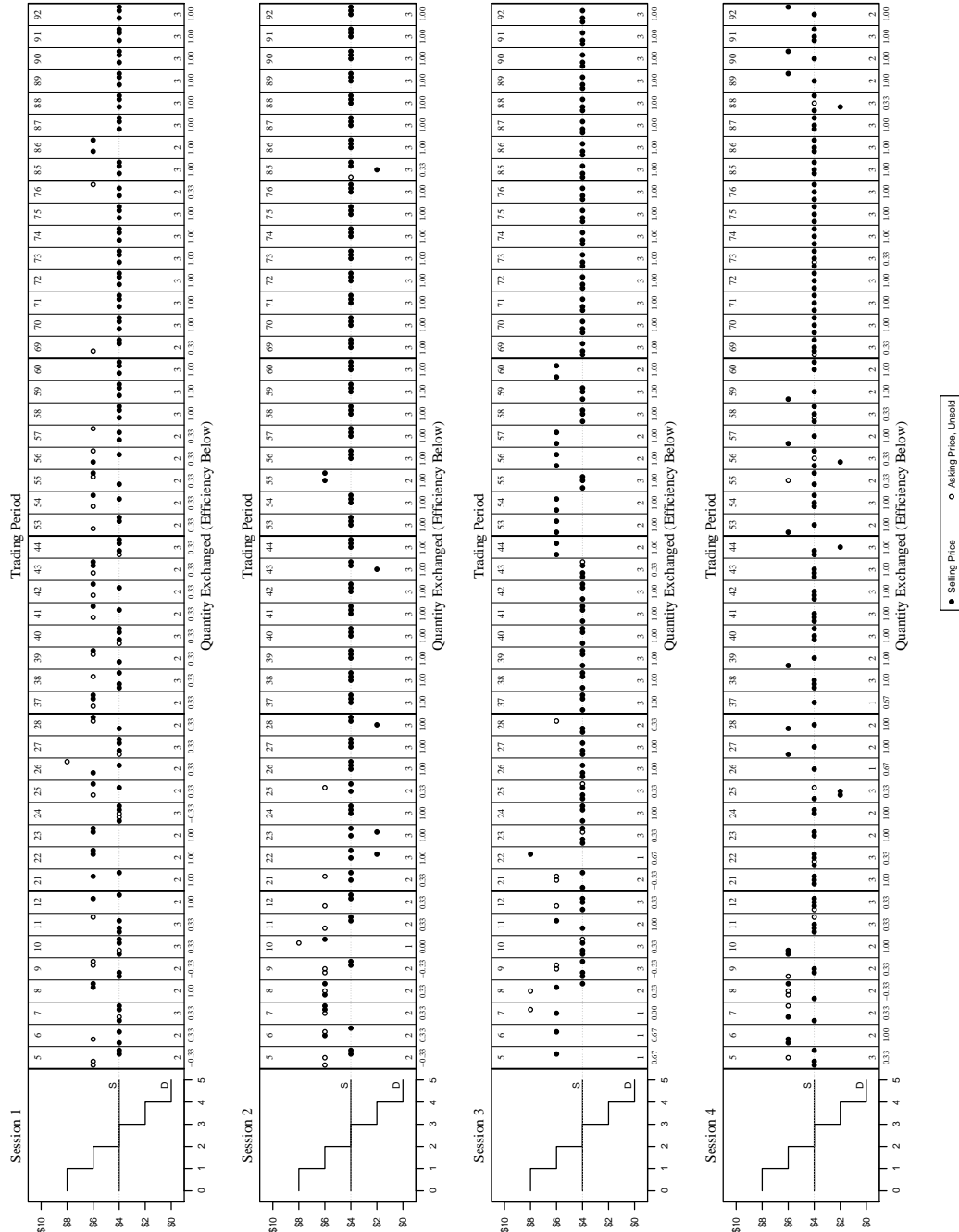


Figure 4: Asks, Prices, and Quantities Exchanged in Stationary Periods of All Sessions of Treatment POAP-I.

1 efficiency of approximately 51%. For the last 8 of those periods (11 through 1
 2 18), average efficiency is 65%. In the final 8 period stationary segment of 2
 3 our POAP treatments (periods 85 to 92), average efficiency is 89%. As with 3
 4 comparisons to the market entry game, we should point out that our en- 4
 5 vironment is more discrete than in those previously studied. (In this case, 5
 6 Mestelman and Welland had more units per seller and overall, among other 6
 7 differences.)²¹ 7

8 Mestelman and Welland report higher-than-equilibrium prices, and we 8
 9 also observe prices converging largely from above during early periods of 9
 10 POAP. Overall, we find that despite parameterization differences, Mestel- 10
 11 man and Welland’s results fit well with ours—and also that over long hori- 11
 12 zons it turns out that the POAP converges to the competitive equilibrium. 12
 13 13

14 4.5. *Price and quantities within and across periods: administered prices* 15 *versus individually posted offers* 15

16 Juxtaposition of MEG:OG and POAP allows us to assess outcomes of the 16
 17 market entry game in a new light—as out-of-equilibrium price dynamics. In 17
 18 particular, when viewed in this way, volatile outcomes in the market entry 18
 19 game might be characterized as cycling in prices. 19
 20 20

21 One can plot the quantities and prices generated via the administered 21

22 ²¹As mentioned in [footnote 3](#), [Mestelman and Welland \(1988\)](#) implement the POAP 22
 23 environment with different design parameters than those in the present study: markets 23
 24 run for 18 periods (rather than 96 periods in the present study); sellers do not know the 24
 25 market demand curve, and make production and posted price decisions simultaneously 25
 26 without knowledge of market production prior to posting prices (rather than these being 26
 27 known, with production preceding pricing); human buyers purchase in a randomized 27
 28 order (rather than value-order robots); pricing varies down to the penny (rather than a 28
 29 minimum price increment of \$2.00); different and entirely stationary supply and demand 29
 parameters (rather than only 48 of 96 periods being stationary); and no outside option
 or entry subsidy (rather than there being one, i.e. $v = 1$).

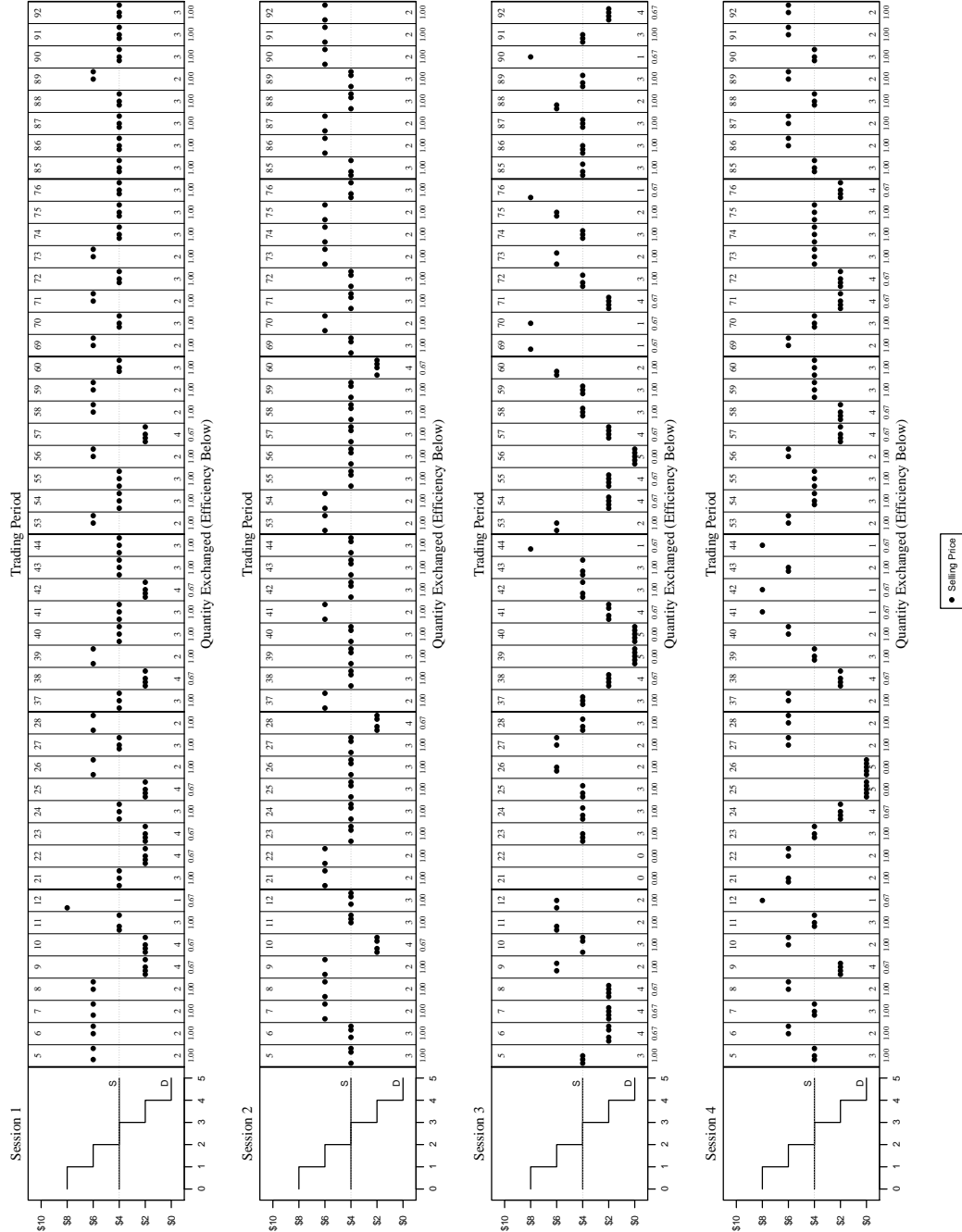


Figure 5: Implied Prices and Quantities Exchanged in Stationary Periods of All Sessions of Treatment MEG:OG-G.

price rule embedded in the original market entry game (MEG:OG-G) in the same manner as one might visualize the POAP markets. We present such results for MEG:OG-G in [Figure 5](#).²²

As will be further demonstrated in the statistical analysis to come in [subsection 4.6](#), POAP converges to the competitive equilibrium. By the same criteria, the original market entry game (MEG:OG-G) may not do so, except over a much longer time horizon. Rather, over shorter time horizons, prices in MEG:OG-G oscillate to either side of the competitive equilibrium price. In between failing to converge to the competitive equilibrium in stationary segments, MEG:OG-G generates metrics in non-stationary segments similar to the [Sundali et al. \(1995\)](#) market entry game when analyzed using their methods. We thus suspect that a similar cycling dynamic is embedded in typical market entry game data, and contributes to the characteristic patterns therein.

In turn we believe that cycling is enabled by the pricing rule implicit to the market entry game, which forces all strategy and adaptation on the part of the subjects into a single dimension, quantity.²³ Thus, price dispersion under the administered uniform ex post market clearing price can

²²We present similar graphs for MEG:OG-I, MEG:MF-G, and MEG:MF-I in [Figure 6](#), [Figure 7](#), and [Figure 8](#) of the appendix.

²³Relative to to POAP, the market entry game exhibits high efficiencies. This results from the forced clearing of all produced units (i.e. all entrants necessarily record a sale). For example, excess entry such that there are 4 entrants in a period where $\hat{c} = 3$ necessarily maps to efficiency of 67% in the market entry game, but could potentially result in a negative efficiency number in the POAP if some entrants post high enough prices and unsold units result.

In effect, the market entry game forces a cross-subsidization of losses induced by excess entry. While this may allow for higher efficiencies in the market entry game than the POAP before convergence, it also distorts the feedback that sellers in the market entry game might otherwise receive about their entry decisions, and may thus slow the attainment of convergence.

1 only occur across periods. Consider the following comparison of variation of 1
 2 prices in cross-section versus that in time series. The standard deviation of 2
 3 prices *within* periods in MEG:OG-G is \$0 (by construction). The standard 3
 4 deviation of prices *across* all periods of MEG:OG-G is \$2.32. In POAP by 4
 5 contrast, the average of within-period standard deviation of prices is \$1.85. 5
 6 But the standard deviation of the average price *across* all periods of POAP 6
 7 is only \$0.80. Allowing variability in prices at a point in time may allow 7
 8 for (naturally evolving) lower variability in prices across time. Our findings 8
 9 complement the findings of [Johnson and Plott \(1989\)](#), who implemented in 9
 10 the laboratory a POAP environment, but never used an institution with an 10
 11 ex post market clearing price, or other uniform price institution. Johnson 11
 12 and Plott did not find price cycling of the kind which might be expected 12
 13 under textbook-model uniform pricing, and conjectured that this might be 13
 14 due to the posted offer and double auction institutions—which they did 14
 15 use—suppressing price cycling. We can now claim more directly that this in- 15
 16 deed seems to be the case: in the presence of advance production, replacing 16
 17 the posted offer institution with an institution imposing an ex post market 17
 18 clearing price can lead to cycling. 18
 19
 20

21 4.6. *Comparative convergence properties of the market entry game and* 21 22 *posted offer with advance production* 22

23 To quantify the impact of our treatments on convergence to equilibrium, 23
 24 we regress an indicator for the achievement of competitive equilibrium entry 24
 25 in each period ($m_t = m_t^*$), on a set of treatment and control variables, the 25
 26 marginal effects of which are reported in [Table VI](#). In addition to allowing 26
 27 for a random effect at the group level, the specification includes a time 27
 28 trend, binaries for treatment attributes and interactions between treatment 28
 29 attributes and time, and a variable tracking whether or not the period in 29

TABLE VI
MARGINAL EFFECTS OF RANDOM EFFECTS PROBIT ON COMPETITIVE EQUILIBRIUM
NUMBER OF ENTRANTS

	Marginal Effect on the Prob. of Competitive Equilibrium Entry, $Pr(m = m^*)$	
	Marginal Effect	Std. Error
Individual-level Shifter	-0.0404	(0.0656)
Numerical Step Demand	0.0781	(0.0800)
Market (POAP)	-0.0614	(0.0803)
Stationary c and h	-0.0468	(0.0432)
Period	0.0012	(0.0009)
Period \times Individual-level Shifter	0.0004	(0.0008)
Period \times Numerical Step Demand	-0.0011	(0.0009)
Period \times Market (POAP)	0.0039***	(0.0010)
Period \times Stationary c and h	0.0028***	(0.0008)
Observations	2,304	
Random Effect St. Dev.	0.3038	

Note: Random effect is at the group level, with 4 groups per each of the 6 treatments, and 96 periods per group. Standard errors are in parentheses. MEG:MF and POAP were coded as having Numerical Step Demand. All treatments with “-I” designations had Individual-level Shifters.

*** Significant at the 1 percent level.

question is part of a stationary segment.²⁴

We report a variety of tests, including both those for individual and for joint significance. Table VI reports the estimated marginal effects and (individual) significance of each of the control and treatment variables. While none of the intercept estimates on the treatment variables are significant, the coefficients on the interaction between Period and Market (POAP), and Period and Stationary c and h , are significant at the 1% level. Joint tests,

²⁴We report a probit with robust standard errors clustered on groups in Table X of the appendix.

1 with the null hypothesis being that both the intercept and slope coefficients 1
 2 for a single treatment are zero, are appropriate. We find that the coefficients 2
 3 on Individual-level Shifter and Numerical Step Demand are not significant 3
 4 in joint tests (with p -values greater than 0.8035 and 0.4820, respectively), 4
 5 and that the joint coefficients on Market and Stationary c and h are signif- 5
 6 icant at the 1% level (with a p -value less than 0.0001).²⁵ 6

7 The estimated coefficients suggest that convergence to the competitive 7
 8 pure strategy equilibrium is promoted by a stationary environment (as con- 8
 9 jectured by Duffy and Hopkins (2005)), and by individual posting of prices 9
 10 rather than a single administered price. Any effect of system-wide versus 10
 11 individual level variables (e.g. demand versus marginal costs) being used to 11
 12 shift the parameterization across periods is ambiguous, and small. Verbal, 12
 13 rather than algebraic presentation is signed so as to aid convergence, but 13
 14 is not statistically significant. The estimate of the time trend variable *with-* 14
 15 *out* interactions (i.e. for the original market entry game), is positive, but 15
 16 insignificant. 16

17 The estimated coefficients can be used to calculate fitted probabilities 17
 18 of observing competitive equilibrium, and thus expected time of a particu- 18
 19 lar likelihood of competitive equilibrium play under different combinations 19
 20 of treatments and environments. For instance, in expectation, an average 20
 21 group in treatment POAP-I, featuring verbal description, individually posted 21
 22 prices, and marginal cost as shifter, would if implemented in a stationary 22
 23 environment reach 95% competitive equilibrium play at 120 periods under 23
 24 the fitted model.²⁶ Individual posting of prices aids convergence, because by 24

25 ²⁵Tests for joint significance are chi-squared tests over the likelihood ratios of the 25
 26 reported unrestricted model and unreported (nested) restricted models. This involves 26
 27 separate estimates (not reported, but available upon request) from those in Table VI. 27
 28 This is also responsible for different p -values for the joint tests and for the tests on 28
 29 individual coefficients — each is calculated with respect to different estimates. 29

²⁶Group-level heterogeneity permitted by the model also makes a difference in time

contrast, the original market entry game (MEG:OG-G) also implemented in a stationary environment would have an expected time to 95% convergence equal to 210 periods under the fitted model.

Typical results for the market entry game can now be understood more deeply. Under the fitted model, an average group in the original market entry game (MEG:OG-G) implemented in a nonstationary (varying c) environment would be expected to reach 95% competitive equilibrium play on the 648th period. When contrasted to 210 periods to 95% competitive equilibrium play in a stationary environment, the fitted model demonstrates the importance of the stationary environment in equilibration. The fitted model also thus sheds light on the widespread failure to observe pure strategy play in the original market entry game; 648 periods is far longer than most single session human subjects experiments last.²⁷ Binmore and Swierzbinski (2007) have pointed out the possibility of cases — particular learning dynamics in particular games — where convergence cannot be observed within the time spans feasible for human subjects experiments. The original market entry game in a nonstationary environment appears to be such a case, albeit a mild version. (Binmore and Swierzbinski include examples requiring thousands of iterations for convergence).

The analysis reported in Table VI takes the group decision each period as

to convergence. For instance, for POAP-I, the impact of one standard deviation in the random effect amounts to ± 17 periods to 95% convergence. Notably, the fitted model also predicts that the impact of group heterogeneity is greater, the greater the expected number of periods to some level of convergence. (This, in addition to the stochastic disturbance term, accommodates both later and earlier convergence than the average.)

²⁷While the fitted model predicts convergence for MEG:OG-G in a non-stationary environment, it does so by means of estimated coefficients—primarily the time trend without interactions—which are not significant. Thus, the possibility should be kept in mind that MEG:OG-G, when implemented in a non-stationary environment, might not ever converge.

TABLE VII
 OLS ON MEAN SQUARED DEVIATION (MSD) FROM EQUILIBRIUM ENTRANTS BY
 TREATMENT

Treatment	MSD from:	Constant	Std. Error	P-value	1/Block	Std. Error	P-value	R^2
MEG:OG	Pure	0.0204	(0.0048)	< 0.0001	0.0236	(0.0158)	0.0015	0.0242
	Sym. Mixed	0.0332	(0.0023)	< 0.0001	-0.0197	(0.0045)	< 0.0001	0.0736
MEG:MF	Pure	0.0104	(0.0051)	0.0429	0.0402	(0.0102)	0.0001	0.0613
	Sym. Mixed	0.0394	(0.0022)	< 0.0001	-0.0257	(0.0044)	< 0.0001	0.1262
POAP	Pure	0.0016	(0.0050)	0.7413	0.0474	(0.0100)	< 0.0001	0.0864
	Sym. Mixed	0.0477	(0.002)	< 0.0001	-0.0264	(0.0039)	< 0.0001	0.1590

the level of observation. While theory makes specific predictions about the proportion of entrants for a given group in a given period, these predictions are necessary, but not sufficient, to say equilibration has been achieved. (For instance, there are off-equilibrium strategies that could yield, in a single period, the same proportion of entrants as the symmetric mixed-strategy equilibrium.) For a deeper analysis, we must look at individual decision-making that underlies the proportion of entry in groups.

To do so we employ, with our data, a modification of the approach to individual level data used by [Duffy and Hopkins \(2005\)](#). [Table VII](#) reports the results of three OLS regressions (for each of the MEG:OG, MEG:MF, and POAP pairs of treatments, pooled) of mean squared deviation from pure or symmetric mixed strategy equilibrium versus a time trend. In our implementation, the time series is measured the reciprocal of multi-period “Block” of the experiment.²⁸

The dependent variable, $(\hat{y} - y)^2$, is the mean squared deviation from the prediction, with y being the proportion of entry in for subject i in the eight-period constant segment of block t . The prediction, \hat{y} , is $\hat{y} = (c - 1)/(n - 1)$ for the mixed strategy symmetric equilibrium. For the pure strategy equilibrium, we follow [Duffy and Hopkins \(2005\)](#) by assigning pure strategy

²⁸The specification employed by [Duffy and Hopkins \(2005\)](#) is linear in “Block”. To aid comparison, we report a model with “Block” as the independent variable, rather than its reciprocal, in [Table XIII](#) of the appendix.

1 predictions based on subjects' proportion of entry during the final block 1
 2 of the experiment.²⁹ Thus, we assign $\hat{y} = 1$ to the three subjects who enter 2
 3 the most during the final block and $\hat{y} = 0$ to those who enter the 3
 4 least.³⁰ Thus, the unit of observation is individual proportion of decisions 4
 5 aggregated across non-overlapping eight-period blocks.³¹ The independent 5
 6 variable is 1/block, the reciprocal of number of blocks elapsed. The speci- 6
 7 fication allows the estimated constant to be interpreted as the asymptotic 7
 8 mean squared deviation. 8

9 We find movement towards lower mean squared deviation from the pure 9
 10 strategy equilibrium in all treatments (as illustrated by the positive and 10
 11 significant estimates on the 1/block coefficients for the pure strategy regres- 11
 12 sions), and movement away from the symmetric mixed strategy equilibrium 12
 13 in all treatments (as illustrated by the negative and significant estimates on 13
 14 the 1/block coefficients for the symmetric mixed strategy regressions). We 14
 15 also find no evidence contra the hypothesis that POAP converges asymptot- 15
 16 ically to pure strategy equilibrium (as illustrated by the estimate of the con- 16
 17 stant being not significantly different from zero in this case). The model pre- 17
 18 dicted that the two market entry game treatments, MEG:OG and MEG:MF, 18
 19 do not converge asymptotically to pure strategy equilibrium (as illustrated 19
 20 by significant estimates of the constant), although both slowly close toward 20
 21 low levels of mean squared error from the pure strategy equilibrium. 21

22 ²⁹We identify *ex post* the players who are predicted *ex ante* to be the entrants in the 22
 23 first and subsequent periods in an attempt to track the adjustment process that leads to 23
 24 the outcome observed at the end of the session. 24

25 ³⁰For most groups, assignment of pure strategy predictions is unambiguous. For one 25
 26 group, MEG:OG-I (4)*, there is a tie between the number of times certain subjects entered 26
 27 the most in the final block. Assignment of subjects to the pure strategy equilibrium is 27
 28 resolved by recursively examining prior blocks, until one is found for which the criteria 28
 29 above are satisfied. 29

³¹We report a table of pure strategy \hat{y} and mean squared deviations by block for every 29
 subject in [Table XI](#) and [Table XII](#) of the appendix.

Thus, we see that individual-level results support the inferences drawn from our earlier consideration of the aggregate results. We also see that the posted offer treatments (POAP-G and POAP-I) show greater evidence of convergence toward competitive, pure-strategy equilibrium than do MEG:OG and MEG:MF.

5. CONCLUSION

In comparing two different games, the market entry game and the POAP, we find an intriguing and perhaps paradoxical result. For while the market entry game has both fewer actions available to players and a smaller set of pure strategy equilibria than does the POAP, the POAP converges much more rapidly to the competitive equilibrium—obtainable under pure strategy Nash equilibrium in market entry game and POAP alike—than does the market entry game.

Whether prices are set centrally and formulaically, or individually and freely, makes a dramatic difference to whether or not the competitive equilibrium allocation is attained. Replacing posted offer pricing with a formulaic, ex post market clearing price is associated with the emergence of endogenous fluctuations in prices/quantities. Insofar as such cycling may be attributed to the use of a particular pricing approach in an advance production environment, such cycling might also be described as self-inflicted, and avoidable.

The traditional characterization of behavior in the market entry game as attaining equilibrium is also worth revisiting. The basis for such statements has generally been a correspondence between the central tendency of pooled data on entry decisions, m^* , and the number of entrants under the competitive outcome. In typical market entry game data there is variation around this central tendency, but in the absence of counterfactual cases, under which unvarying equilibrium play is observed in similar environments,

1 over similar time horizons, it would be tempting to dismiss discrepancies 1
 2 as noise. However, in our experiments we have just such counterfactual 2
 3 cases, employing similar environments and number of rounds, albeit im- 3
 4 plementing a perturbation in pricing method. These counterfactual cases 4
 5 show that equilibrium in empirical reality can look exactly as it is supposed 5
 6 to theoretically—the exact m^* number of entrants, of unchanging identity, 6
 7 unvaryingly, repeatedly playing in a manner consistent with pure strategy 7
 8 equilibrium at the competitive outcome. Changing the pricing rule to allow 8
 9 freely posted individual offers, holding environment the same, curtails fluc- 9
 10 tuation in prices and promotes attainment of the competitive equilibrium. 10
 11 This pinpoints the key role of the uniform, ex post market clearing, price 11
 12 implicit in the market entry game in shaping the data typical of the market 12
 13 entry game. 13

14 Conversely, pooled data that center near the competitive outcome might 14
 15 be produced by decidedly dis-equilibrium phenomena. For instance, in the 15
 16 stationary segments (where \hat{c} and m^* equal 3) of the market entry game 16
 17 (MEG:OG-G) data, m has a mean of 2.75; the median of those data is 3.³² 17
 18 Is this evidence of equilibrium, or of something close enough thereto? A 18
 19 rank-sum test leads us to reject the hypothesis that the central tendency is 19
 20 3 (with $p < 0.0003$), but would not tell us whether the observed dispersion 20
 21 around the median matters in terms of economics, not just statistics, or 21
 22 why it might occur. However, when the data are plotted as (implicit) price 22
 23 series in [Figure 5](#), they show pronounced cycling in prices (and necessarily 23
 24 also in quantities). No one would claim that these data exhibit converged 24
 25 competitive equilibrium pricing. 25
 26

27 ³²Note also that in [subsection 4.2](#) and [subsection 4.3](#), the interspersed non-stationary 27
 28 segments of these same MEG:OG-G experiments produce just the kind of patterns typi- 28
 29 cally found in market entry game studies — the kind of patterns that might conceivably 29
 be held to be evidence of some correspondence with equilibrium.

1 By first identifying the presence of an implicit pricing rule in the market 1
 2 entry game, then taking steps to relax that rule, in this present study we 2
 3 have been able to generate new insight into the role of price-setting in the 3
 4 equilibration of markets. Allowing individual posting of prices (rather than 4
 5 an ex post, market clearing administered price) leads to widespread and 5
 6 early convergence to the competitive equilibrium allocation, net of presen- 6
 7 tational effects, and net of (non-)stationarity of demand or supply—even 7
 8 when production decisions are irrevocable. 8
 9

10 REFERENCES 10

- 11 BINMORE, K. AND J. SWIERZBINSKI (2007): “A Little Behavioralism Can Go a Long 11
 12 Way,” in *Does Game Theory Work? The Bargaining Challenge*, ed. by K. Binmore, 12
 13 Cambridge: MIT Press, 257–276. 13
- 14 CAMERER, C. AND D. LOVALLO (1999): “Overconfidence and Excess Entry: an Experi- 14
 15 mental Approach,” *American Economic Review*, 89, 306–318. 15
- 16 COX, J. C. AND D. JAMES (2012): “Clocks and Trees: Isomorphic Dutch Auctions and 16
 17 Centipede Games,” *Econometrica*, 80, 883–903. 17
- 18 DUFFY, J. AND E. HOPKINS (2005): “Learning, Information, and Sorting in Market 18
 19 Entry Games: Theory and Evidence,” *Games and Economic Behavior*, 51, 31–62. 19
- 20 EREV, I. AND A. RAPOPORT (1998): “Coordination, “Magic,” and Reinforcement Learn- 20
 21 ing in a Market Entry Game,” *Games and Economic Behavior*, 23, 146–175. 21
- 22 FISCHBACHER, U. (2007): “z-Tree: Zurich Toolbox For Ready-Made Economic Experi- 22
 23 ments,” *Experimental Economics*, 10, 171–178. 23
- 24 GARY-BOBO, R. J. (1990): “On the Existence of Equilibrium Points in a Class of Asym- 24
 25 metric Market Entry Games,” *Games and Economic Behavior*, 2, 239–246. 25
- 26 GREINER, B. (2004): “An Online Recruitment System for Economic Experiments,” in 26
 27 *Forschung und wissenschaftliches Rechnen 2003*, ed. by K. Kremer and V. Macho, 27
 28 Göttingen, 79–93. 28
- 29 ——— (2015): “Subject pool recruitment procedures: organizing experiments with 29
 ORSEE,” *Journal of the Economic Science Association*, 1, 114–125.
- JOHNSON, M. D. AND C. R. PLOTT (1989): “The effect of two trading institutions
 on price expectations and the stability of supply-response lag markets,” *Journal of
 Economic Psychology*, 10, 189–216.

- KAHNEMAN, D. (1988): “Experimental Economics: A Psychological Perspective,” in *Bounded Rational Behavior in Experimental Games and Markets*, Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 11–18.
- LEVITAN, R. AND M. SHUBIK (1972): “Price Duopoly and Capacity Constraints,” *International Economic Review*, 13, 111–122.
- MESTELMAN, S. AND D. WELLAND (1988): “Advance Production in Experimental Markets,” *The Review of Economic Studies*, 55, 641–654.
- PLOTT, C. R. AND V. L. SMITH (1978): “An Experimental Examination of Two Exchange Institutions,” *The Review of Economic Studies*, 45, 133–153.
- RAPOPORT, A. (1995): “Individual Strategies in a Market Entry Game,” *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 4, 117–133.
- SELTEN, R. (1965): “Spieltheoretische Behandlung eines Oligopolmodells mit Nachfragerträchtigkeit,” *Zeitschrift für die Gesamte Staatswissenschaft*, 121, 301–324.
- (1975): “Reexamination of the Perfectness Concept for Equilibrium Points in Extensive Games,” *International Journal of Game Theory*, 4, 25–55.
- SELTEN, R. AND W. GÜTH (1982): “Equilibrium Point Selection in a Class of Market Entry Games,” in *Games, Economic Dynamics, and Time Series Analysis*, Heidelberg: Physica-Verlag HD, 101–116.
- SUNDALI, J. A., A. RAPOPORT, AND D. A. SEALE (1995): “Coordination in Market Entry Games with Symmetric Players,” *Organizational Behavior and Human Processes*, 64, 203–218.

APPENDIX A: EQUILIBRIUM IN THE POSTED OFFER WITH ADVANCE PRODUCTION (FOR ONLINE PUBLICATION)

Our implementation of the POAP has two stages: the first, which for ease of exposition we shall call the entry stage, and the second, the pricing stage. We refer to the first stage as the entry stage, rather than the advance production stage, because each agent can only produce zero or one units, so that like the entry stage in the market entry game the decision in the first stage of the POAP is binary. We do wish to emphasize this overlap between the market entry game and the POAP, and we do not wish to unnecessarily introduce new nomenclature.

During the first stage, the entry stage, agents choose either to enter the

market (IN) or stay out (OUT). As in the market entry game described in [section 1](#), agents choosing OUT receive a payoff of v . Agents choosing IN become entrants and proceed to the second stage of the game, the pricing stage. In the pricing stage, entrants are informed of the number of entrants, m , and then nominate an asking price for their units.

Below we characterize equilibrium strategies in the pricing stage. For the parameters used in the experiment, we also demonstrate that (1) Nash equilibrium play in the pricing stage can yield expected payoffs for price-posting decisions that are equivalent to the payoffs attained by nominating price as a function of number of entrants, via the demand curve and given this, (2) subgame perfect play in the POAP yields payoffs in subgame perfect equilibrium which are the same as in the pure strategy equilibria of the market entry game.

A.1. *Specification of Posted Offer with Advance Production*

The demand curve faced by entrants can be expressed algebraically as $P(m) = r(c - m)$. The variable c , interpreted as capacity in the market entry game, is here a parameter that determines the intercept of the demand curve, i.e. rc .³³ The demand curve is a step function with an interval between prices of r and (as a consequence of value-order queuing) buyers purchase at most x units at price $P(x)$. As detailed in [section 1](#), the variable h is interpreted as the cost of advance production and we define adjusted capacity as $\hat{c} \equiv c - h/r$.

If an entrant i sells at her asking price, P_i , her profit is $\pi(P_i) = v + P_i - h$. If she fails to sell, her profit is $\pi(P_i) = v - h$. Whether or not entrant i sells is determined by the implications of value-order queueing as applied to the price that she nominates, P_i , and the prices other entrants nominate. An

³³The demand curve may be written as $P(m) = rc - rm$. Note that for $m = 0$ demand is $P(0) = rc$ and for $m = 1$, $P(1) = r(c - 1)$.

entrant that prices “via the demand curve”, nominating a price of $P_i = P_m \equiv P(m)$ always sells and receives the payoff $\pi_i = v + r(c - m) - h$, equivalent to that of the market entry game.

A.1.1. Pricing Below P_m is a Dominated Strategy

Asking a price below P_m does not affect whether or not the entrant will sell and can only lower the price at which the entrant does sell, which will reduce the entrant’s payoff relative to pricing at P_m .

The demand curve has m units available for purchase at price P_m . Let P_{-k} be any price strictly less than P_m . An entrant that nominates a price P_{-k} always sells and receives $\pi_i(P_{-k}) = v + P_{-k} - h$. Had the entrant priced at P_m , the unit would have sold and earned $\pi_i(P_m) = v + P_m - h$, which is greater than $\pi_i(P_{m-k})$.

A.1.2. Pricing at P_m is an Equilibrium Strategy

Unilaterally asking at a price above P_m when all other entrants price at P_m guarantees that the entrant will not sell, and can at best reduce the entrant’s payoff relative to pricing at P_m .

Suppose that $j = 1$ entrant posts at $P_k > P_m$ (with $k > 1$) and $m - 1$ other entrants post at P_m . Then demand curve has at most $m - k$ units available for purchase at P_k . The $m - 1$ asks at lower prices are filled first (if possible), meaning that there are at most $j - 1 = 0$ units to be assigned to the ask at P_k and the entrant will not sell. Provided that $P_m > 0$, the entrant pricing at P_k would be better off pricing at P_m and selling (and if $P_m = 0$, the entrant would be indifferent).

A.1.3. *Pricing Above P_m is an Equilibrium Strategy Under Some Conditions*

While there is a competitive equilibrium in which entrants price via the demand curve at $P_i = P_m$, there may also be “collusive pricing” equilibria under which entrants price above P_m . Below we characterize the conditions under which such equilibria occur.

The demand curve has at most $m - k$ units available for purchase at any price $P_k > P(m)$, where k is the number of intervals (of r) by which that P_k is strictly greater than P_m . In this nomenclature, $P_k = P_m + rk$.

Suppose that $1 \leq j \leq m$ entrants each post the same asking price $P_k > P_m$. Suppose also that $m - j$ entrants have posted at prices below P_k (possibly but not necessarily including P_m).

For the j entrants pricing at P_k , the demand curve has at most $m - k$ units available for purchase. The $m - j$ asks at lower prices are filled first (if possible), meaning that there are at most $j - k$ units to be assigned to the j asks at P_k . Because ties are broken randomly, the probability that an entrant sells is $\frac{j-k}{j}$ and the probability that an entrant does not sell is $\frac{k}{j}$.

The expected payoff received by the j entrants pricing at P_k is $E(\pi_i(P_k)) = v + \left(\frac{j-k}{j}\right) P_k - h$. Note that this payoff is strictly increasing in j and neither the number of entrants pricing below P_k nor the prices they post affect the payoff of entrants posting at P_k (nor vice versa). It follows that pricing in equilibrium will be symmetric and uniform; we therefore impose $j = m$.³⁴

Then, in expectation, the entrants’ payoffs are higher posting at P_k (with

³⁴A symmetry argument explains why asking prices cannot differ in equilibrium. If there were different asking prices and an entrant were better off pricing at P_k , entrant(s) pricing at a lower price would also be better off pricing at P_k (or vice versa). In the case that an entrant asking P_k is indifferent between this and asking some lower price, an entrant asking a lower price that instead asks P_k will increase the expected payoff of pricing at P_k (since $E(\pi_i(P_k))$ is increasing in j).

$m - 1$ other entrants) than unilaterally deviating to a lower price P_{k-1} (with guaranteed sale) if $\frac{m-k}{m}P_k > P_{k-1}$ (for $P_k > P_{k-1} \geq P_m$). The interval between price P_k and P_{k-1} is r , so these entrants are better off posting at P_k than P_{k-1} if $P_k < \frac{r}{k}m$. (Since unilaterally pricing at P_{k+1} guarantees an entrant no sale, pricing at P_{k-1} may be an equilibrium for m entrants, even when no entrant would unilaterally deviate to P_{k-1} from P_k .) The expected payoff of posting at P_k is $E(\pi_i(P_k)) = v + \frac{m-k}{m}P_k - h$.

Note that when $P_k = \frac{r}{k}m$, entrants pricing at P_{k+1} are indifferent between pricing at P_k and P_{k-1} . Such an equality is not robust to trembles (Selten, 1975), since a tremble implies a non-zero probability of one or more of the m entrants posting a lower asking price.

A.1.4. Predictions for the POAP Treatments via Subgame Perfection

In subgame perfect equilibrium, agents only enter (and proceed to the pricing stage) if the expected payoff of entering is at least as great than the outside option, v . This is true when $E(P_i) \geq h$. For entrants pricing at P_m , this is true when $P_m > h$; for m entrants pricing at $P_k > P_m$, this is true when $\frac{m-k}{m}P_k > h$. (Agents are indifferent between entering and staying out at equality.)

A.2. Subgame Perfection in the POAP Treatments

Now let us consider the parameterization of the POAP-I treatment. (Solutions to the POAP-G treatment follow trivially.) In POAP-I, $c=5$ and $h = \{2, 4, 6, 8\}$. As in all treatments, $v = 1$, $r = 2$, and there are $n = 5$ agents.

A.2.1. The Pricing Stage

Pricing along the demand curve is always supported in equilibrium. For some number of entrants (i.e. $m = \{3, 4, 5\}$) other equilibria also exist.

For $m = 1$ and $m = 2$, it is trivial to verify that in equilibrium entrants will price along the demand curve at $P_m = 8$ and $P_m = 6$.

For $m = 3$, both all entrants pricing along the demand schedule at $P_1 = 4$ and all entrants pricing at $P_1 = 6$ are equilibria. However, all entrants pricing at $P_1 = 6$ is not robust to trembles.

For $m = 4$, all entrants posting at $P_m = 2$ and all entrants posting at $P_1 = 4$ are each equilibrium strategy profiles in the pricing stage.

For $m = 5$, all entrants posting at $P_m = 0$, all entrants posting at $P_1 = 2$, and all entrants posting at $P_2 = 4$ are each equilibrium strategy profiles in the pricing stage.

A.2.2. *The Entry Stage and Subgame Perfection*

Pricing along the demand curve in the pricing stage results in a subgame perfect equilibrium with payoff equivalence with the market entry game for any h . For $h = \{2, 4\}$ other equilibria also exist.

If $h = 8$, then entry is profitable, i.e. $E(P_i) \geq h$ only when $P(m) = 8$, which occurs when $m = 1$. The entrant is indifferent between entering and staying out.

If $h = 6$, then entry is profitable only when $P(m) \geq 6$, which occurs when $m \leq 2$. When $m = 1$, the second entrant is indifferent between entering and staying out.

If $h = 4$, then entry is profitable only when $P(m) \geq 4$ or $\frac{m-k}{m}P_k \geq 4$. Both occur when $m \leq 3$. Regardless of whether all entrants price at $P_m = 4$ or $P_1 = 6$, the third entrant is indifferent between entering and staying out.

If $h = 2$, then entry is profitable only when $P(m) \geq 2$ or $\frac{m-k}{m}P_k \geq 2$. There is an equilibrium when $m \leq 4$ and all entrants price at $P_m = 2$, with the fourth entrant being indifferent between entering and staying out. There is also an equilibrium when $m \leq 5$; for both four and five entrants, posting at $P_k = 4$ is an equilibrium in the pricing stage, so the fifth entrant

in this case has a strictly positive incentive to enter.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29

TABLE VIII

SUMMARY OF PARAMETERS BY TREATMENT FOR THE FIRST BLOCK

Panel A. Demand Schedule A: $c = 5$							Panel B. Demand Schedule B: $c = 6$									
Unit Number	0	1	2	3	4	5	Unit Number	0	1	2	3	4	5			
Resale Value	10	8	6	4	2	0	Resale Value	12	10	8	6	4	2			
Panel C. Demand Schedule C: $c = 7$							Panel D. Demand Schedule D: $c = 8$									
Unit Number	0	1	2	3	4	5	Unit Number	0	1	2	3	4	5			
Resale Value	14	12	10	8	6	4	Resale Value	16	14	12	10	8	6			
Panel E. Summary of Parameters for First Block, Periods 1 through 16																
Period	Varying				Constant								Varying			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
m^*	1	2	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	4	3	2
MEG:OG-G																
c	1	2	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	4	3	2
h	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
MEG:OG-I																
c	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
h	8	6	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	8	2	4	6
MEG:MF-G																
Demand	A	B	D	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	D	C	B
h	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
MEG:MF-I																
Demand	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
h	8	6	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	8	2	4	6
POAP-G																
Demand	A	B	D	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	D	C	B
h	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
POAP-I																
Demand	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
h	8	6	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	8	2	4	6

Note: Demand is given by $P(m) = r(c - m)$ where $r = 2$ throughout; varying c produces demand schedules A, B, C, and D. The predicted number of entrants is $m^* = \hat{c}$ where $\hat{c} = c - h/r$.

TABLE IX

MCNEMAR'S PAIRED TESTS ON CONTINGENCY TABLES OF TRANSITIONS IN FIRST
AND LAST PAIRS OF SUB-BLOCKS FOR $c = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ IN MEG:OG-G

Panel A. Contingency Table of Transitions and McNemar's Test for $c = 1$

		Sub-Blocks 11 and 12	
		Transition	No Transition
Sub-Blocks 1 and 2		Transition	1
		No Transition	7
		Transition	0
		No Transition	12

Panel B. Contingency Table of Transitions and McNemar's Test for $c = 2$

		Sub-Blocks 11 and 12	
		Transition	No Transition
Sub-Blocks 1 and 2		Transition	0
		No Transition	7
		Transition	3
		No Transition	10

Panel C. Contingency Table of Transitions and McNemar's Test for $c = 3$

		Sub-Blocks 11 and 12	
		Transition	No Transition
Sub-Blocks 1 and 2		Transition	2
		No Transition	7
		Transition	2
		No Transition	9

Panel D. Contingency Table of Transitions and McNemar's Test for $c = 4$

		Sub-Blocks 11 and 12	
		Transition	No Transition
Sub-Blocks 1 and 2		Transition	0
		No Transition	6
		Transition	2
		No Transition	12

Note: Each panel, A through D, reports the contingent frequencies of 20 subjects transitioning or not in the first and last pair of sub-blocks, for $c = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ respectively. For each, the results of a McNemar test are reported, with the null hypothesis being equality of the marginal probabilities of each outcome.

TABLE X
MARGINAL EFFECTS OF PROBIT ON COMPETITIVE EQUILIBRIUM NUMBER OF
ENTRANTS WITH ROBUST STANDARD ERRORS CLUSTERED ON GROUPS

	Prob. of Competitive Equilibrium Entry, $Pr(m = m^*)$
Individual-level Shifter	-0.0391 (0.0574)
Numerical Step Demand	0.0764 (0.0709)
Market (POAP)	-0.0576 (0.0737)
Stationary c and h	-0.0457 (0.0544)
Period	0.0012 (0.0010)
Period \times Individual-level Shifter	0.0005 (0.0011)
Period \times Numerical Step Demand	-0.0010 (0.0013)
Period \times Market (POAP)	0.0036** (0.0015)
Period \times Stationary c and h	0.0027*** (0.0009)
Observations	2,304

Note: Robust standard errors are clustered at the group level, with 4 groups per each of the 6 treatments, and 96 periods per group. Standard errors are in parentheses. MEG:MF and POAP were coded as having Numerical Step Demand. Treatments with “-I” designations had Individual-level Shifters.

*** Significant at the 1 percent level.

** Significant at the 5 percent level.

TABLE XI
 MEAN SQUARED DEVIATION FROM PURE AND SYMMETRIC MIXED STRATEGY
 EQUILIBRIA ENTRY ACROSS TREATMENTS WITH GROUP-LEVEL SHIFTERS

Treat.	Group	Subject	S. \hat{y}	Pure Strategy $(\hat{y} - y)^2$, in Block						Symm. Mixed Strategy $(\hat{y} - y)^2$ in Block					
				1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
MEG:OG-G	1	1	0	.050	.153	.200	.028	.000	.000	.000	.028	.050	.003	.050	.050
MEG:OG-G	1	2	1	.028	.050	.112	.112	.028	.003	.003	.000	.012	.012	.003	.028
MEG:OG-G	1	3	1	.050	.012	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.012	.028	.050	.050	.050
MEG:OG-G	1	4	0	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:OG-G	1	5	1	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.028	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:OG-G	2	1	1	.028	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:OG-G	2	2	0	.028	.003	.000	.000	.003	.003	.003	.028	.050	.050	.028	.028
MEG:OG-G	2	3	0	.003	.000	.000	.003	.000	.000	.028	.050	.050	.028	.050	.050
MEG:OG-G	2	4	1	.028	.012	.012	.012	.078	.112	.003	.012	.012	.012	.003	.012
MEG:OG-G	2	5	1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:OG-G	3	1	1	.003	.050	.012	.028	.050	.012	.028	.000	.012	.003	.000	.012
MEG:OG-G	3	2	1	.012	.028	.000	.003	.028	.003	.012	.003	.050	.028	.003	.028
MEG:OG-G	3	3	1	.050	.078	.050	.003	.050	.028	.000	.003	.000	.028	.000	.003
MEG:OG-G	3	4	0	.078	.028	.078	.112	.050	.050	.003	.003	.003	.012	.000	.000
MEG:OG-G	3	5	0	.012	.003	.078	.012	.000	.000	.012	.028	.003	.012	.050	.050
MEG:OG-G	4	1	0	.003	.028	.003	.078	.112	.000	.028	.003	.028	.003	.012	.050
MEG:OG-G	4	2	1	.050	.028	.078	.078	.050	.078	.000	.003	.003	.003	.000	.003
MEG:OG-G	4	3	1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:OG-G	4	4	0	.003	.012	.000	.000	.000	.000	.028	.012	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:OG-G	4	5	1	.012	.003	.050	.000	.000	.000	.012	.028	.000	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-G	1	1	0	.028	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-G	1	2	1	.003	.012	.003	.003	.012	.028	.028	.012	.028	.028	.012	.003
MEG:MF-G	1	3	1	.153	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.028	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-G	1	4	1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-G	1	5	0	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-G	2	1	1	.153	.028	.000	.000	.000	.000	.028	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-G	2	2	1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-G	2	3	0	.078	.200	.012	.200	.200	.003	.003	.050	.012	.050	.050	.028
MEG:MF-G	2	4	0	.012	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.012	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-G	2	5	1	.000	.153	.000	.200	.200	.003	.050	.028	.050	.050	.050	.028
MEG:MF-G	3	1	1	.028	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-G	3	2	0	.050	.050	.028	.050	.003	.028	.000	.000	.003	.000	.028	.003
MEG:MF-G	3	3	1	.028	.012	.012	.003	.012	.012	.003	.012	.012	.028	.012	.012
MEG:MF-G	3	4	1	.050	.050	.028	.028	.012	.012	.000	.000	.003	.003	.012	.012
MEG:MF-G	3	5	0	.012	.003	.000	.000	.003	.000	.012	.028	.050	.050	.028	.050
MEG:MF-G	4	1	0	.050	.078	.078	.050	.078	.012	.000	.003	.003	.000	.003	.012
MEG:MF-G	4	2	0	.078	.050	.050	.050	.000	.000	.003	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050
MEG:MF-G	4	3	1	.028	.003	.000	.003	.003	.000	.003	.028	.050	.028	.028	.050
MEG:MF-G	4	4	1	.028	.003	.000	.003	.000	.000	.003	.028	.050	.028	.050	.050
MEG:MF-G	4	5	0	.078	.003	.012	.000	.003	.012	.003	.028	.012	.050	.028	.012
POAP-G	1	1	1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-G	1	2	0	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-G	1	3	0	.200	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-G	1	4	1	.078	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-G	1	5	1	.003	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.028	.028	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-G	2	1	0	.050	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-G	2	2	1	.003	.003	.003	.000	.003	.000	.028	.028	.028	.050	.028	.050
POAP-G	2	3	1	.078	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-G	2	4	1	.028	.012	.050	.078	.050	.003	.003	.012	.000	.003	.000	.028
POAP-G	2	5	0	.153	.012	.012	.028	.028	.028	.028	.012	.012	.003	.003	.003
POAP-G	3	1	0	.153	.200	.200	.000	.000	.000	.028	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-G	3	2	1	.028	.078	.050	.000	.000	.000	.003	.003	.000	.050	.050	.050
POAP-G	3	3	0	.028	.050	.003	.003	.003	.000	.003	.000	.028	.028	.028	.050
POAP-G	3	4	1	.028	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-G	3	5	1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-G	4	1	0	.200	.153	.112	.012	.028	.000	.050	.028	.012	.012	.003	.050
POAP-G	4	2	1	.112	.003	.028	.000	.000	.000	.012	.028	.003	.050	.050	.050
POAP-G	4	3	1	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.028	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-G	4	4	1	.012	.050	.003	.012	.000	.000	.012	.000	.028	.012	.050	.050
POAP-G	4	5	0	.012	.000	.000	.028	.000	.000	.012	.050	.050	.003	.050	.050

TABLE XII
 MEAN SQUARED DEVIATION FROM PURE AND SYMMETRIC MIXED STRATEGY
 EQUILIBRIA ENTRY ACROSS TREATMENTS WITH INDIVIDUAL-LEVEL SHIFTERS

Treat.	Group	Subject	P.S. \hat{y}	Pure Strategy $(\hat{y} - y)^2$, in Block						Symm. Mixed Strategy $(\hat{y} - y)^2$ in Block					
				1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
MEG:OG-1	1	2	0	.028	.003	.000	.028	.000	.000	.003	.028	.050	.003	.050	.050
MEG:OG-1	1	2	0	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:OG-1	1	3	0	.050	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:OG-1	1	4	1	.050	.012	.012	.000	.000	.000	.000	.012	.012	.050	.050	.050
MEG:OG-1	1	5	1	.012	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.012	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:OG-1	2	2	1	.028	.012	.028	.012	.012	.012	.003	.012	.003	.012	.012	.012
MEG:OG-1	2	2	0	.112	.112	.078	.078	.078	.012	.012	.012	.003	.003	.003	.012
MEG:OG-1	2	3	1	.078	.153	.078	.050	.078	.028	.003	.028	.003	.000	.003	.003
MEG:OG-1	2	4	1	.050	.003	.050	.028	.012	.012	.000	.028	.000	.003	.012	.012
MEG:OG-1	2	5	1	.012	.003	.003	.012	.000	.000	.012	.028	.028	.012	.050	.050
MEG:OG-1	3	1	0	.078	.078	.012	.078	.000	.000	.003	.003	.012	.003	.050	.050
MEG:OG-1	3	2	1	.112	.050	.153	.003	.012	.000	.012	.000	.028	.028	.012	.050
MEG:OG-1	3	3	1	.028	.003	.000	.012	.028	.003	.003	.028	.050	.012	.003	.028
MEG:OG-1	3	4	1	.200	.200	.200	.200	.003	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.028	.050
MEG:OG-1	3	5	0	.112	.078	.078	.050	.050	.000	.012	.003	.003	.000	.000	.050
MEG:OG-1	4	1	0	.078	.050	.050	.050	.003	.028	.003	.000	.000	.000	.028	.003
MEG:OG-1	4	2	0	.050	.003	.012	.028	.078	.153	.000	.028	.012	.003	.003	.028
MEG:OG-1	4	3	1	.028	.050	.028	.012	.028	.028	.003	.000	.003	.012	.003	.003
MEG:OG-1	4	4	1	.050	.153	.078	.050	.012	.028	.000	.028	.003	.000	.012	.003
MEG:OG-1	4	5	1	.003	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.028	.028	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-1	1	1	0	.200	.200	.050	.078	.078	.000	.050	.050	.000	.003	.003	.050
MEG:MF-1	1	2	1	.153	.028	.000	.003	.028	.000	.028	.003	.050	.028	.003	.050
MEG:MF-1	1	3	1	.012	.012	.050	.078	.078	.000	.012	.012	.000	.003	.003	.050
MEG:MF-1	1	4	0	.050	.028	.153	.000	.050	.000	.000	.003	.028	.050	.000	.050
MEG:MF-1	1	5	1	.012	.028	.050	.003	.012	.000	.012	.003	.000	.028	.012	.050
MEG:MF-1	2	1	1	.050	.112	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.012	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-1	2	2	0	.112	.000	.003	.000	.000	.000	.012	.050	.028	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-1	2	3	0	.078	.200	.050	.003	.003	.000	.003	.050	.000	.028	.028	.050
MEG:MF-1	2	4	1	.078	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-1	2	5	1	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.028	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
MEG:MF-1	3	1	1	.050	.012	.012	.012	.003	.000	.000	.012	.012	.012	.028	.050
MEG:MF-1	3	2	1	.003	.000	.000	.003	.000	.000	.028	.050	.050	.028	.050	.050
MEG:MF-1	3	3	1	.003	.028	.050	.012	.050	.000	.028	.003	.000	.012	.000	.050
MEG:MF-1	3	4	0	.050	.078	.050	.012	.028	.000	.000	.003	.000	.012	.003	.050
MEG:MF-1	3	5	0	.028	.012	.003	.003	.003	.000	.003	.012	.028	.028	.028	.050
MEG:MF-1	4	1	0	.028	.112	.200	.003	.028	.028	.003	.012	.050	.028	.003	.003
MEG:MF-1	4	2	1	.028	.028	.000	.028	.000	.000	.003	.003	.050	.003	.050	.050
MEG:MF-1	4	3	1	.012	.012	.003	.012	.000	.003	.012	.028	.012	.050	.028	.028
MEG:MF-1	4	4	1	.028	.003	.078	.078	.028	.050	.003	.028	.003	.003	.003	.000
MEG:MF-1	4	5	0	.028	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	1	1	0	.112	.012	.028	.000	.000	.000	.012	.012	.003	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	1	2	1	.012	.028	.000	.000	.000	.000	.012	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	1	3	0	.000	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.028	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	1	4	1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050	.028
POAP-1	1	5	1	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.028	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	2	1	0	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.028	.050	.050	.050	.050	.028
POAP-1	2	2	0	.050	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	2	3	1	.028	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	2	4	1	.003	.000	.000	.003	.000	.000	.028	.050	.050	.028	.050	.050
POAP-1	2	5	1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	3	1	1	.078	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.028	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	3	2	1	.050	.028	.153	.200	.000	.000	.000	.003	.028	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	3	3	0	.050	.003	.000	.028	.000	.000	.000	.028	.050	.003	.050	.050
POAP-1	3	4	1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	3	5	0	.028	.050	.153	.000	.000	.000	.003	.000	.028	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	4	1	0	.200	.028	.112	.078	.200	.003	.050	.003	.012	.003	.050	.028
POAP-1	4	2	1	.000	.050	.012	.050	.112	.028	.050	.000	.012	.000	.012	.003
POAP-1	4	3	1	.028	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	4	4	0	.003	.078	.000	.000	.000	.000	.028	.003	.050	.050	.050	.050
POAP-1	4	5	1	.050	.200	.153	.028	.000	.000	.000	.050	.028	.003	.050	.050

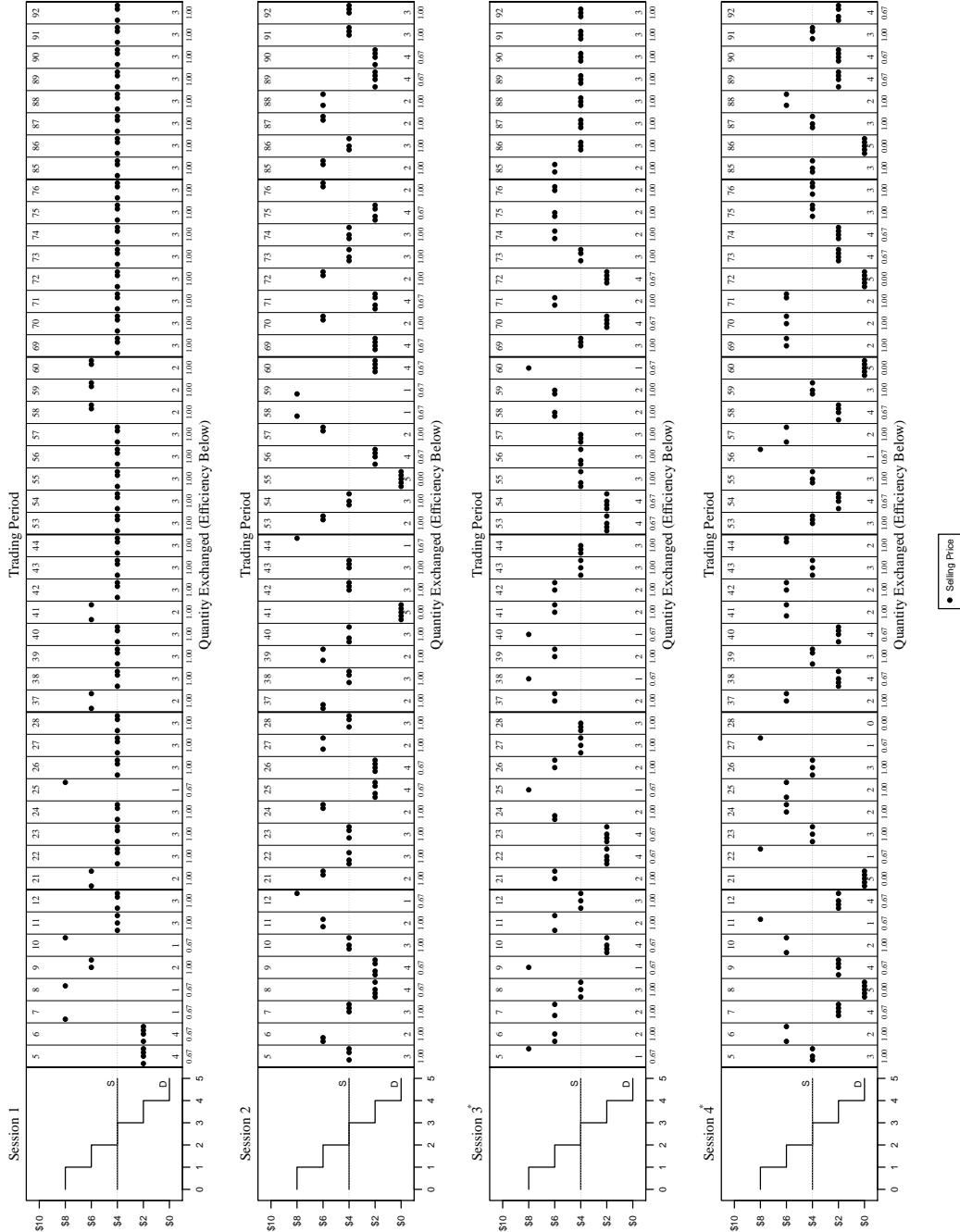


Figure 6: Implied Prices and Quantities Exchanged in Stationary Periods of All Sessions of Treatment MEG:OG-I.

Note: Sessions with asterisks (*) are explained in footnote 8.

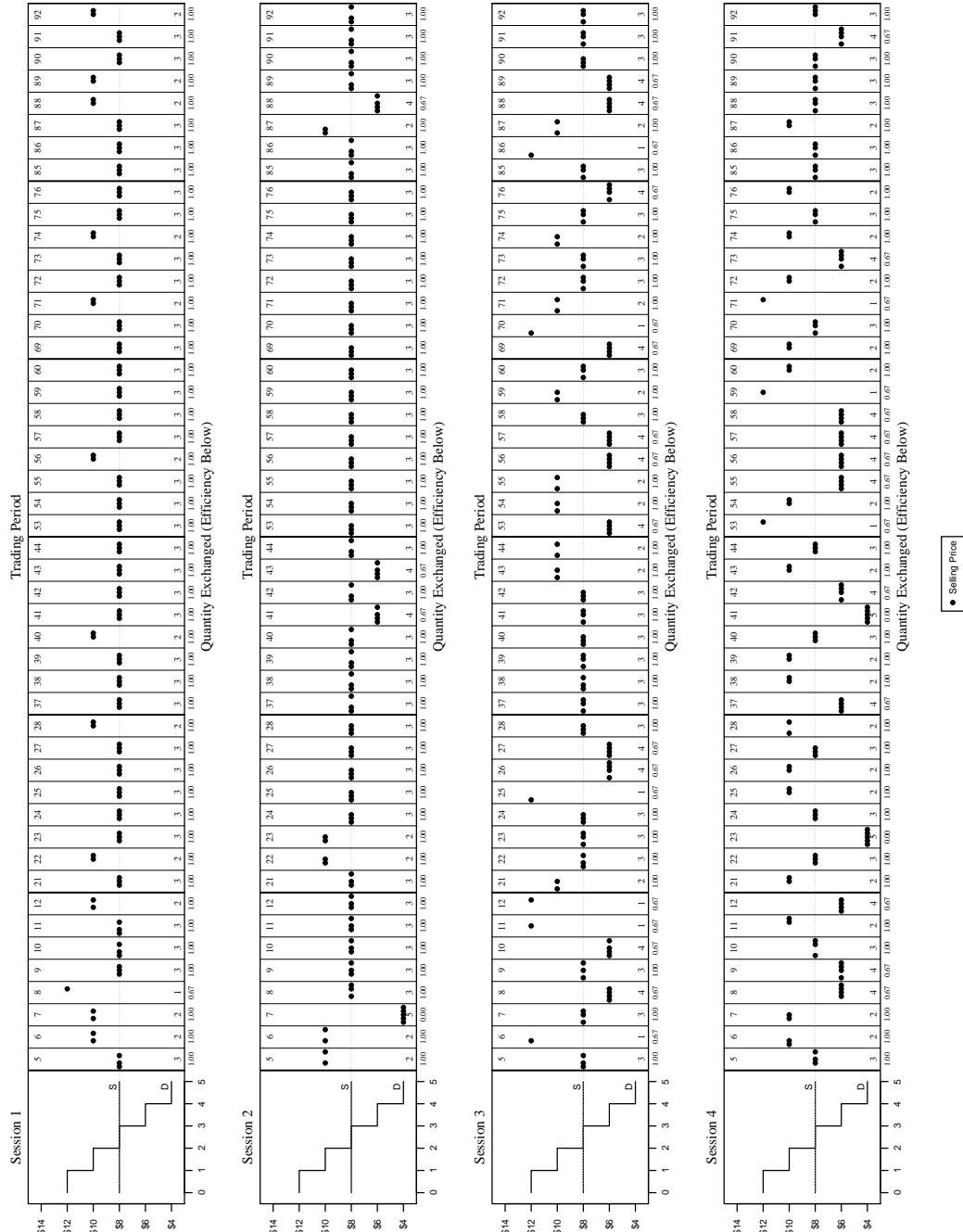


Figure 7: Implied Prices and Quantities Exchanged in Stationary Periods of All Sessions of Treatment MEG:MF-G.

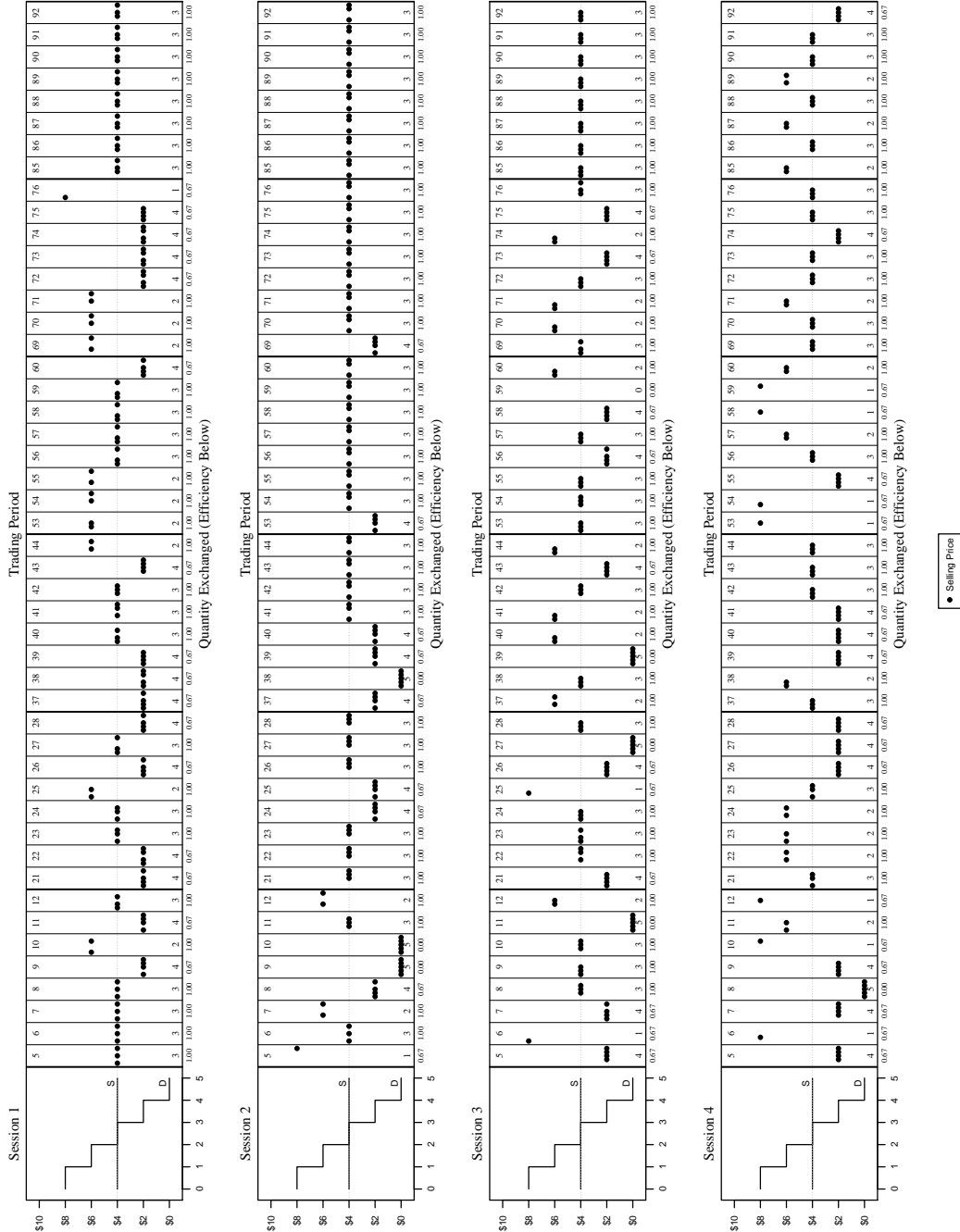


Figure 8: Implied Prices and Quantities Exchanged in Stationary Periods of All Sessions of Treatment MEG:MF-1.

TABLE XIII
 OLS ON MEAN SQUARED DEVIATION (MSD) FROM EQUILIBRIUM ENTRANTS BY
 TREATMENT

Treatment	MSD from:	Constant	Std. Error	P-value	Block	Std. Error	P-value	R^2
MEG:OG	Pure	0.0482	(0.0063)	< 0.001	-0.0052	(0.0016)	0.0015	0.0417
	Sym. Mixed	0.0138	(0.0030)	< 0.001	0.0033	(0.0008)	< 0.001	0.0717
MEG:MF	Pure	0.0525	(0.0066)	< 0.001	-0.0074	(0.0017)	< 0.001	0.0732
	Sym. Mixed	0.0142	(0.0029)	< 0.001	0.0042	(0.0007)	< 0.001	0.1186
POAP	Pure	0.0495	(0.0065)	< 0.001	-0.0082	(0.0017)	< 0.001	0.0911
	Sym. Mixed	0.0218	(0.0026)	< 0.001	0.0043	(0.0007)	< 0.001	0.1519

APPENDIX B: INSTRUCTIONS (FOR ONLINE PUBLICATION)

B.1. *Instructions for Treatment MEG:OG-G*

B.1.1. *This Segment*

In the rounds about to begin, and which will continue until further notice, there are 5 participants. In each round, you will have the opportunity to make a decision between one of two possible actions. Once all participants have made their decisions, a second screen will appear which will report to you your payoff resulting from that round's events, and also the determinants of that payoff — namely your decision, and the decisions of others also participating. (More on this below.) There will be multiple rounds. Throughout these rounds you will stay in the same group of 5 participants.

B.1.2. *The Sequence of Play in a Round*

The first computer screen you see in each round asks you to make a decision between two actions: IN or OUT. You enter your decision by using the mouse to fill in the radio-button next to the action you wish to take. If you want to choose action IN, fill in the circle next to IN by clicking on it with the mouse. If you want to choose action OUT, fill in the circle next to OUT by clicking on it with the mouse. Once all participants have entered their decisions, a second screen will appear. This second screen reminds you of your decision for the round, informs you of your payoff for the round, and

1 informs you of other determinants of your payoff (e.g. the decisions taken by 1
 2 other participants). Your payoff represents an amount in ECU that could 2
 3 be paid to you in cash (if the given round is randomly selected for payoff) 3
 4 as will be explained below. 4

5 B.1.3. *How payoffs are Determined* 5

6 Payoffs are determined as follows: 6
 7

- 8 • If you choose OUT your payoff for the round is equal to 1 (this is true 8
 9 in each round). 9
- 10 • If you choose IN, your payoff depends on the total number of partici- 10
 11 pants, including yourself, who choose action IN. Suppose that $m = 1,$ 11
 12 2, 3, 4, or 5 represents the number of participants who choose IN. If 12
 13 you are one of these m participants, your payoff for the round is given 13
 14 by: 14

$$15 \text{ Payoff} = 1 + 2 \cdot (c - m) - h_i \quad 15$$

16 where 16

17 $c =$ “capacity” of the market (may vary by round) 17

18 $m =$ determined as the total number of participants choosing IN in a 18
 19 given round 19

20 $h_i =$ your individual cost of choosing IN (may vary by round) 20

21 For example, if you are one of 3 participants who chooses IN, and $c = 4$ 21
 22 and $h_i = 0$, then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 2 \cdot (4 - 3) - 0,$ 22
 23 which equals 3. 23

24 As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example 24
 25 stayed the same, except c , which was instead $c = 2$. Then your payoff from 25
 26 choosing IN would be: $1 + 2 \cdot (2 - 3) - 0$, which equals -1 . 26

27 As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example 27
 28 stayed the same, except m , which was instead $m = 2$. Then your payoff 28
 29 from choosing IN would be: $1 + 2 \cdot (4 - 2) - 0$, which equals 5. 29

1 Are there any questions before we begin? 1

2
3 *B.2. Instructions for Treatment MEG:OG-I* 3

4 *B.2.1. This Segment* 4

5
6 In the rounds about to begin, and which will continue until further notice, 5
7 there are 5 participants. In each round, you will have the opportunity to 6
8 make a decision between one of two possible actions. Once all participants 7
9 have made their decisions, a second screen will appear which will report to 8
10 you your payoff resulting from that round's events, and also the determi- 9
11 nants of that payoff — namely your decision, and the decisions of others 10
12 also participating. (More on this below.) There will be multiple rounds. 11
13 Throughout these rounds you will stay in the same group of 5 participants. 12
13

14 *B.2.2. The Sequence of Play in a Round* 14

15
16 The first computer screen you see in each round asks you to make a 15
17 decision between two actions: IN or OUT. You enter your decision by using 16
18 the mouse to fill in the radio-button next to the action you wish to take. If 17
19 you want to choose action IN, fill in the circle next to IN by clicking on it 18
20 with the mouse. If you want to choose action OUT, fill in the circle next to 19
21 OUT by clicking on it with the mouse. Once all participants have entered 20
22 their decisions, a second screen will appear. This second screen reminds you 21
23 of your decision for the round, informs you of your payoff for the round, and 22
24 informs you of other determinants of your payoff (e.g. the decisions taken by 23
25 other participants). Your payoff represents an amount in ECU that could 24
26 be paid to you in cash (if the given round is randomly selected for payoff) 25
27 as will be explained below. 26
27

28 *B.2.3. How payoffs are Determined* 28

29 Payoffs are determined as follows: 29

- If you choose OUT your payoff for the round is equal to 1 (this is true in each round).
- If you choose IN, your payoff depends on the total number of participants, including yourself, who choose action IN. Suppose that $m = 1, 2, 3, 4,$ or 5 represents the number of participants who choose IN. If you are one of these m participants, your payoff for the round is given by:

$$\text{Payoff} = 1 + 2 \cdot (c - m) - h_i$$

where

c = “capacity” of the market (may vary by round)

m = determined as the total number of participants choosing IN in a given round

h_i = your individual cost of choosing IN (may vary by round)

For example, if you are one of 3 participants who chooses IN, and $c = 4$ and $h_i = 0$, then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 2 \cdot (4 - 3) - 0$, which equals 3.

As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example stayed the same, except h_i , which was instead $h_i = 4$. Then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 2 \cdot (4 - 3) - 4$, which equals -1 .

As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example stayed the same, except m , which was instead $m = 2$. Then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 2 \cdot (4 - 2) - 0$, which equals 5.

Are there any questions before we begin?

B.3. *Instructions for Treatment* MEG:OG-I*

B.3.1. *This Segment*

In the rounds about to begin, and which will continue until further notice, there are 5 participants. In each round, you will have the opportunity to

1 make a decision between one of two possible actions. Once all participants 1
 2 have made their decisions, a second screen will appear which will report to 2
 3 you your payoff resulting from that round's events, and also the determi- 3
 4 nants of that payoff — namely your decision, and the decisions of others 4
 5 also participating. (More on this below.) There will be multiple rounds. 5
 6 Throughout these rounds you will stay in the same group of 5 participants. 6
 7

8 B.3.2. *The Sequence of Play in a Round* 8

9 The first computer screen you see in each round asks you to make a 9
 10 decision between two actions: IN or OUT. You enter your decision by using 10
 11 the mouse to fill in the radio-button next to the action you wish to take. If 11
 12 you want to choose action IN, fill in the circle next to IN by clicking on it 12
 13 with the mouse. If you want to choose action OUT, fill in the circle next to 13
 14 OUT by clicking on it with the mouse. Once all participants have entered 14
 15 their decisions, a second screen will appear. This second screen reminds you 15
 16 of your decision for the round, informs you of your payoff for the round, and 16
 17 informs you of other determinants of your payoff (e.g. the decisions taken by 17
 18 other participants). Your payoff represents an amount in ECU that could 18
 19 be paid to you in cash (if the given round is randomly selected for payoff) 19
 20 as will be explained below. 20
 21

22 B.3.3. *How payoffs are Determined* 22

23 Payoffs are determined as follows: 23

- 24 • If you choose OUT your payoff for the round is equal to 1 (this is true 24
 25 in each round). 25
- 26 • If you choose IN, your payoff depends on the total number of partici- 26
 27 pants, including yourself, who choose action IN. Suppose that $m = 1,$ 27
 28 2, 3, 4, or 5 represents the number of participants who choose IN. If 28
 29 you are one of these m participants, your payoff for the round is given 29

by:

$$\text{Payoff} = 1 + 2 \cdot (c - m) - h_i$$

where

c = “capacity” of the market (may vary by round)

m = determined as the total number of participants choosing IN in a given round

h_i = your individual cost of choosing IN (may vary by round)

(Note also that at the beginning of each round, you will be informed of the number of units at which the payoff to “IN” and the payoff to “OUT” intersect in that round.)

For example, if you are one of 3 participants who chooses IN, and $c = 4$ and $h_i = 0$, then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 2 \cdot (4 - 3) - 0$, which equals 3.

As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example stayed the same, except h_i , which was instead $h_i = 4$. Then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 2 \cdot (4 - 3) - 4$, which equals -1 .

As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example stayed the same, except m , which was instead $m = 2$. Then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 2 \cdot (4 - 2) - 0$, which equals 5.

Are there any questions before we begin?

B.4. *Instructions for Treatment* MEG:MF-G

B.4.1. *This Segment*

In the rounds about to begin, and which will continue until further notice, there are 5 participants. In each round, you will have the opportunity to make a decision between one of two possible actions. Once all participants have made their decisions, a second screen will appear which will report to

1 you your payoff resulting from that round's events, and also the determi- 1
 2 nants of that payoff — namely your decision, and the decisions of others 2
 3 also participating. (More on this below.) There will be multiple rounds. 3
 4 Throughout these rounds you will stay in the same group of 5 participants. 4

5 6 B.4.2. *The Sequence of Play in a Round*

7 The first computer screen you see in each round asks you to make a 7
 8 decision between two actions: IN or OUT. You enter your decision by using 8
 9 the mouse to fill in the radio-button next to the action you wish to take. If 9
 10 you want to choose action IN, fill in the circle next to IN by clicking on it 10
 11 with the mouse. If you want to choose action OUT, fill in the circle next to 11
 12 OUT by clicking on it with the mouse. Once all participants have entered 12
 13 their decisions, a second screen will appear. This second screen reminds you 13
 14 of your decision for the round, informs you of your payoff for the round, and 14
 15 informs you of other determinants of your payoff (e.g. the decisions taken by 15
 16 other participants). Your payoff represents an amount in ECU that could 16
 17 be paid to you in cash (if the given round is randomly selected for payoff) 17
 18 as will be explained below. 18

19 20 B.4.3. *How payoffs are Determined*

21 Payoffs are determined as follows: 21

- 22 • If you choose OUT your payoff for the round is equal to 1 (this is true 22
 23 in each round). 23
- 24 • If you choose IN, your payoff will be equal to $1 + \text{Price} - \text{MC}_i$. The 24
 25 components of this payoff are given by the following: 25
 - 26 – Price will be determined by the computer (a) adding up the num- 26
 27 ber of people choosing IN (and who are thus attempting to sell 1 27
 28 unit of a good) and (b) calculating the price which will allow all 28
 29 units to be sold at a single price. In a given round, the computer 29

does this (b) by referencing a given one of the following four demand schedules (which demand schedule is in effect in a given round is disclosed to you at the start of that round):

Demand Schedule A	
Unit	Resale Value
First	8
Second	6
Third	4
Fourth	2
Fifth	0

Demand Schedule B	
Unit	Resale Value
First	10
Second	8
Third	6
Fourth	4
Fifth	2

Demand Schedule C	
Unit	Resale Value
First	12
Second	10
Third	8
Fourth	6
Fifth	4

Demand Schedule D	
Unit	Resale Value
First	14
Second	12
Third	10
Fourth	8
Fifth	6

If one person chooses IN, then 1 unit is sold at the first unit price; if two people choose IN, then 2 units are sold at the second unit price, and so on. (Note also that at the beginning of each round, you will be informed of the number of units at which the demand schedule and the supply schedule intersect in that round.)

– You have an individual marginal cost of supplying a unit, MC_i .

For example, if you are one of 3 people who chooses IN, and $MC_i = 8$ and demand schedule D is in effect, then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 10 - 8$, which equals 3.

As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example

1 stayed the same, except demand schedule B was in effect. Then your payoff 1
 2 from choosing IN would be: $1 + 6 - 8$, which equals -1 . 2

3 As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example 3
 4 stayed the same, except the number of people choosing IN, which was in- 4
 5 stead 2. Then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 12 - 8$, which 5
 6 equals 5. 6

7 Are there any questions before we begin? 7

9 B.5. *Instructions for Treatment MEG:MF-I* 9

10 B.5.1. *This Segment* 10

11 In the rounds about to begin, and which will continue until further notice, 11
 12 there are 5 participants. In each round, you will have the opportunity to 12
 13 make a decision between one of two possible actions. Once all participants 13
 14 have made their decisions, a second screen will appear which will report to 14
 15 you your payoff resulting from that round's events, and also the determi- 15
 16 nants of that payoff — namely your decision, and the decisions of others 16
 17 also participating. (More on this below.) There will be multiple rounds. 17
 18 Throughout these rounds you will stay in the same group of 5 participants. 18
 19 19

20 B.5.2. *The Sequence of Play in a Round* 20

21 The first computer screen you see in each round asks you to make a 21
 22 decision between two actions: IN or OUT. You enter your decision by using 22
 23 the mouse to fill in the radio-button next to the action you wish to take. If 23
 24 you want to choose action IN, fill in the circle next to IN by clicking on it 24
 25 with the mouse. If you want to choose action OUT, fill in the circle next to 25
 26 OUT by clicking on it with the mouse. Once all participants have entered 26
 27 their decisions, a second screen will appear. This second screen reminds you 27
 28 of your decision for the round, informs you of your payoff for the round, and 28
 29 29

1 informs you of other determinants of your payoff (e.g. the decisions taken by 1
 2 other participants). Your payoff represents an amount in ECU that could 2
 3 be paid to you in cash (if the given round is randomly selected for payoff) 3
 4 as will be explained below. 4

5 6 B.5.3. *How payoffs are Determined*

7 Payoffs are determined as follows:

- 8 • If you choose OUT your payoff for the round is equal to 1 (this is true 8
 9 in each round). 9
 - 10 • If you choose IN, your payoff will be equal to $1 + \text{Price} - \text{MC}_i$. The 10
 11 components of this payoff are given by the following: 11
- 12 – Price will be determined by the computer (a) adding up the num- 12
 13 ber of people choosing IN (and who are thus attempting to sell 13
 14 1 unit of a good) and (b) calculating the price which will allow 14
 15 all units to be sold at a single price. In a given round, the com- 15
 16 puter does this (b) by referencing the following demand schedule: 16
 17

Unit	Resale Value
First	8
Second	6
Third	4
Fourth	2
Fifth	0

18
19
20
21
22
23
24 If one person chooses IN, then 1 unit is sold at a price equal 24
 25 to 8; if two people choose IN, then 2 units are sold at a price of 25
 26 6, and so on. (Note also that at the beginning of each round, you 26
 27 will be informed of the number of units at which the demand 27
 28 schedule and the supply schedule intersect in that round.) 28

- 29 – You have an individual marginal cost of supplying a unit, MC_i 29

(may vary by round).

For example, if you are one of 3 people who chooses IN, and $MC_i = 2$, then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 4 - 2$, which equals 3.

As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example stayed the same, except MC_i , which was instead $MC_i = 6$. Then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 4 - 6$, which equals -1 .

As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example stayed the same, except the number of people choosing IN, which was instead 2. Then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 6 - 2$, which equals 5.

Are there any questions before we begin?

B.6. *Instructions for Treatment POAP-G*

B.6.1. *This Segment*

In the rounds about to begin, and which will continue until further notice, there are 5 human participants acting as sellers and 5 robots acting as buyers. In each round, you will have the opportunity to make a decision between one of two possible actions. Once all participants have made their decisions, a second screen will appear which will report to you your payoff resulting from that round's events, and also the determinants of that payoff - namely your decision, and the decisions of others also participating. (More on this below.) There will be multiple rounds. Throughout these rounds you will stay in the same group of 5 human participants as sellers (with 5 robots as buyers).

B.6.2. *The Sequence of Play in a Round*

The first computer screen you see in each round asks you to make a decision between two actions: IN or OUT. You enter your decision by using

the mouse to fill in the radio-button next to the action you wish to take. If you want to choose action IN, fill in the circle next to IN by clicking on it with the mouse; If you want to choose action OUT, fill in the circle next to OUT by clicking on it with the mouse. Once all participants have entered their decisions, a second screen will appear. This second screen reminds you of your decision for the round, informs you of your payoff for the round, and informs you of other determinants of your payoff (e.g. the decisions taken by other participants). Your payoff represents an amount in ECU that could be paid to you in cash (if the given round is randomly selected for payoff) as will be explained below.

B.6.3. *How payoffs are Determined*

Payoffs are determined as follows:

- If you choose OUT your payoff for the round is equal to 1 (this is true in each round).
- If you choose IN, your payoff will be equal to $1 + \text{Price} - \text{MC}_i$. The components of this payoff are given by the following:
 - Price will be determined by (a) what you nominate as a price (which must be an even number) and (b) whether a robot buyer chooses to purchase from you at the price you nominate. There are 5 robot buyers, each of whom can re-sell a purchased unit to the experimenter. The amount for which each robot buyer can re-sell a purchased unit to the experimenter is given by the demand schedule in effect in that round. In a given round, one of the following four demand schedules will be in effect (which demand schedule is in effect in a given round is disclosed to you at the start of the round):

Demand Schedule A	
Unit	Resale Value
First	8
Second	6
Third	4
Fourth	2
Fifth	0

Demand Schedule B	
Unit	Resale Value
First	10
Second	8
Third	6
Fourth	4
Fifth	2

Demand Schedule C	
Unit	Resale Value
First	12
Second	10
Third	8
Fourth	6
Fifth	4

Demand Schedule D	
Unit	Resale Value
First	14
Second	12
Third	10
Fourth	8
Fifth	6

(Note also that at the beginning of each round, you will be informed of the number of units at which the demand schedule and the supply schedule intersect in that round.)

- The robot buyers are programmed to choose (among units listed for sale) in descending order of resale value — that is, the robot buyer with the highest resale value chooses first, the buyer with the second highest resale value chooses second, and so on. A robot buyer chooses the lowest priced unit available, provided that resale value is greater than or equal to the price (otherwise it will not purchase at all).
- If no robot buyer purchases from you (in a round in which you have chosen IN), then the price will equal the “scrap price” for your purposes of determining your payoff in that round. The scrap price will always equal the lowest resale value on the demand schedule.

- If multiple units are listed at a given price, then the robot buyers may purchase all, none, or one or some but not all units. In the last case (in which only one or some but not all units are purchased) a random tie-breaker is employed to determine which of the units are purchased or not.
- You have an individual marginal cost of supplying a unit, MC_i .

For example, if demand schedule D is in effect, and you choose IN, and $MC_i = 8$, and you nominate a price of 10, and a buyer purchases your unit, then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 10 - 8$, which equals 3.

As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example stayed the same, except no robot buyer bought your unit. Because you couldn't sell to a robot buyer, you would receive the scrap price, 6. Then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 6 - 8$, which equals -1 .

As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example stayed the same, except the price you nominated was 12. Then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 12 - 8$, which equals 5.

Are there any questions before we begin?

B.7. *Instructions for Treatment POAP-G***

B.7.1. *This Segment*

In the rounds about to begin, and which will continue until further notice, there are 5 human participants acting as sellers and 5 robots acting as buyers. In each round, you will have the opportunity to make a decision between one of two possible actions. Once all participants have made their decisions, a second screen will appear which will report to you your payoff resulting from that round's events, and also the determinants of that payoff - namely your decision, and the decisions of others also participating. (More on this below.) There will be multiple rounds. Throughout these rounds you

1 will stay in the same group of 5 human participants as sellers (with 5 robots
2 as buyers).

3 4 B.7.2. *The Sequence of Play in a Round*

5 The first computer screen you see in each round asks you to make a
6 decision between two actions: IN or OUT. You enter your decision by using
7 the mouse to fill in the radio-button next to the action you wish to take. If
8 you want to choose action IN, fill in the circle next to IN by clicking on it
9 with the mouse; If you want to choose action OUT, fill in the circle next to
10 OUT by clicking on it with the mouse. Once all participants have entered
11 their decisions, a second screen will appear. This second screen reminds you
12 of your decision for the round, informs you of your payoff for the round, and
13 informs you of other determinants of your payoff (e.g. the decisions taken by
14 other participants). Your payoff represents an amount in ECU that could
15 be paid to you in cash (if the given round is randomly selected for payoff)
16 as will be explained below.

17 18 B.7.3. *How payoffs are Determined*

19 Payoffs are determined as follows:

- 20 • If you choose OUT your payoff for the round is equal to 1 (this is true
21 in each round).
- 22 • If you choose IN, your payoff will be equal to $1 + \text{Price} - \text{MC}_i$. The
23 components of this payoff are given by the following:
24 – Price will be determined by (a) what you nominate as a price
25 (which must be an even number) and (b) whether a robot buyer
26 chooses to purchase from you at the price you nominate. There
27 are 5 robot buyers, each of whom can re-sell a purchased unit to
28 the experimenter. The amount for which each robot buyer can
29 re-sell a purchased unit to the experimenter is given by the de-

mand schedule in effect in that round. In a given round, one of the following four demand schedules will be in effect (which demand schedule is in effect in a given round is disclosed to you at the start of the round):

Demand Schedule A		Demand Schedule B	
Unit	Resale Value	Unit	Resale Value
First	8	First	10
Second	6	Second	8
Third	4	Third	6
Fourth	2	Fourth	4
Fifth	0	Fifth	2

Demand Schedule C		Demand Schedule D	
Unit	Resale Value	Unit	Resale Value
First	12	First	14
Second	10	Second	12
Third	8	Third	10
Fourth	6	Fourth	8
Fifth	4	Fifth	6

(Note also that at the beginning of each round, you will be informed of the number of units at which the demand schedule and the supply schedule intersect in that round.)

- The robot buyers are programmed to choose (among units listed for sale) in descending order of resale value — that is, the robot buyer with the highest resale value chooses first, the buyer with the second highest resale value chooses second, and so on. A robot buyer chooses the lowest priced unit available, provided that resale value is greater than or equal to the price (otherwise it will not purchase at all).

- If no robot buyer purchases from you (in a round in which you have chosen IN), price will equal 0 for purposes of determining your payoff in that round.
- If multiple units are listed at a given price, then the robot buyers may purchase all, none, or one or some but not all units. In the last case (in which only one or some but not all units are purchased) a random tie-breaker is employed to determine which of the units are purchased or not.
- You have an individual marginal cost of supplying a unit, MC_i .

For example, if demand schedule D is in effect, and you choose IN, and $MC_i = 8$, and you nominate a price of 10, and a buyer purchases your unit, then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 10 - 8$, which equals 3.

As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example stayed the same, except demand schedule A was in effect. Then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 0 - 8$, which equals -7.

As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example stayed the same, except the price you nominated was 12. Then your payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 12 - 8$, which equals 5.

Are there any questions before we begin?

B.8. *Instructions for Treatment POAP-I*

B.8.1. *This Segment*

In the rounds about to begin, and which will continue until further notice, there are 5 human participants acting as sellers and 5 robots acting as buyers. In each round, you will have the opportunity to make a decision between one of two possible actions. Once all participants have made their decisions, a second screen will appear which will report to you your payoff resulting from that round's events, and also the determinants of that payoff

- namely your decision, and the decisions of others also participating. (More on this below.) There will be multiple rounds. Throughout these rounds you will stay in the same group of 5 human participants as sellers (with 5 robots as buyers).

B.8.2. *The Sequence of Play in a Round*

The first computer screen you see in each round asks you to make a decision between two actions: IN or OUT. You enter your decision by using the mouse to fill in the radio-button next to the action you wish to take. If you want to choose action IN, fill in the circle next to IN by clicking on it with the mouse; If you want to choose action OUT, fill in the circle next to OUT by clicking on it with the mouse. Once all participants have entered their decisions, a second screen will appear. This second screen reminds you of your decision for the round, informs you of your payoff for the round, and informs you of other determinants of your payoff (e.g. the decisions taken by other participants). Your payoff represents an amount in ECU that could be paid to you in cash (if the given round is randomly selected for payoff) as will be explained below.

B.8.3. *How payoffs are Determined*

Payoffs are determined as follows:

- If you choose OUT your payoff for the round is equal to 1 (this is true in each round).
- If you choose IN, your payoff will be equal to $1 + \text{Price} - \text{MC}_i$. The components of this payoff are given by the following:
 - Price will be determined by (a) what you nominate as a price (which must be an even number) and (b) whether a robot buyer chooses to purchase from you at the price you nominate. There are 5 robot buyers, each of whom can re-sell a purchased unit to

1 the experimenter, such that: 1

2 One buyer has a resale value of 8. 2

3 One buyer has a resale value of 6. 3

4 One buyer has a resale value of 4. 4

5 One buyer has a resale value of 2. 5

6 One buyer has a resale value of 0. 6

7 (Note also that at the beginning of each round, you will be in- 7
8 formed of the number of units at which the demand schedule and 8
9 the supply schedule intersect in that round.) 9

10 – The robot buyers are programmed to choose (among units listed 10
11 for sale) in descending order of resale value — that is, the robot 11
12 buyer with the highest resale value chooses first, the buyer with 12
13 the second highest resale value chooses second, and so on. A 13
14 robot buyer chooses the lowest priced unit available, provided 14
15 that resale value is greater than or equal to the price (otherwise 15
16 it will not purchase at all). 16

17 – If no robot buyer purchases from you (in a round in which you 17
18 have chosen IN), price will equal 0 for purposes of determining 18
19 your payoff in that round. 19

20 – If multiple units are listed at a given price, then the robot buyers 20
21 may purchase all, none, or one or some but not all units. In 21
22 the last case (in which only one or some but not all units are 22
23 purchased) a random tie-breaker is employed to determine which 23
24 of the units are purchased or not. 24

25 – You have an individual marginal cost of supplying a unit, MC_i 25
26 (which may vary by round). 26

27
28 For example, if you choose IN, and $MC_i = 2$, and you nominate a price 28
29 equal to 4, and a buyer purchases your unit, then your payoff from choosing 29

1 IN would be: $1 + 4 - 2$, which equals 3. 1

2 As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example 2
3 stayed the same, except MC_i which was instead equal to 6. Then your 3
4 payoff from choosing IN would be: $1 + 4 - 6$, which equals -1 . 4

5 As another example, suppose all of the numbers in the first example 5
6 stayed the same, except the price you nominated was 6. Then your payoff 6
7 from choosing IN would be: $1 + 6 - 2$, which equals 5. 7

8 Are there any questions before we begin? 8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29