

Information Acquisition and Provision in School Choice: An Experimental Study

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December 11, 2020

School Choice and College Admissions

- ▶ School choice
 - ▶ Students choose which school to attend
 - ▶ Increased popularity of centralized public school choice
 - ▶ Amsterdam, Beijing, Boston, Chicago, Minnesota, New York City, Paris, etc.
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 - ▶ **hundreds** of colleges / college programs.

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"It was very hard, and very time-consuming," New Orleans resident Carrie Fisher said of trying to find a school for her daughter, who entered kindergarten last fall. "I'm educated, I have a bachelor's degree, ... and I do have time to read articles online and research things."
– Arianna Prothero, "Parents Confront Obstacles as School Choice Expands," Education Week 2015

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- ▶ Matching theory typically assumes students have perfect information on own preferences
 - ▶ at least the ordinal preferences
- ▶ Evidence shows:
 - ▶ Providing more information changes student choices
 - ▶ Info on school quality (Hastings and Weinstein 2008)
 - ▶ Info on financial aid (Hoxby and Turner 2015)
 - ▶ many other field experiments.

This paper:

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2. Measure the welfare effects of information provision by educational authorities.
 - own preferences: costless ways to access info about a school
 - others' preferences: costless ways to learn others' pref (and therefore others' strategies)

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► Approaches:

- a theoretical model
 - optimal strategies of every student
- a lab experiment
 - extensive empirical evidence on sub-optimal strategies of students.

Literature

- ▶ An extensive literature on information acquisition in many fields: mostly theoretical.
- ▶ Information acquisition in mechanism design: Bergemann and Valimaki (2006)
- ▶ Information acquisition in market design
 - ▶ Bade (2015); Harless and Manjunath (2015): ordinal preferences.
- ▶ Information acquisition experiments
 - ▶ Voting:
 - ▶ Elbittar et al. (2014)
 - ▶ Bhattacharya, Duffy and Kim (2015)
 - ▶ Auctions:
 - ▶ Choi, Guerra, and Kim (2015); Davis et al. (2011); Gretschko and Rajko (2015);
- ▶ Advice giving in school choice (experiments):
 - ▶ Ding and Schotter (2014, 2015)

Theoretical Analysis
Experiment Design
Results from Experimental Data
Conclusion

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The (Typical) School Choice Model

- ▶ A school choice problem consists of:
 - ▶ a set of students $I = \{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_{|I|}\}$
 - ▶ a set of schools $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_{|S|}\}$
 - ▶ the number of available seats at school s : q_s
 - ▶ for simplicity: schools do not rank students ex ante
 - ▶ rank them by a random lottery ex post
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 - ▶ the Gale-Shapley deferred-acceptance mechanism (**DA**) or
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 - ▶ Outcome: student-school matching.

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- ▶ Costly information acquisition
 - ▶ Sequential: acquire info on ordinal then cardinal pref.
 - ▶ cost: $c(\alpha, \beta)$.
 1. Investment in acquiring ordinal preference: $\alpha \in [0, \bar{\alpha}]$
 2. Investment in acquiring cardinal preference: $\beta \in [0, \bar{\beta}]$

Incentives to acquire information about own preference

Under a set of conditions (including bounded cost and Inada conditions for information acquisition technology, $a(\alpha)$, $b(\beta)$), we have:

Proposition

In any symmetric Bayesian Nash equilibrium under DA or IA,

- (i) students always have an incentive to learn their own ordinal preferences;*
- (ii) under DA, there is no incentive to learn own cardinal preferences;*
- (iii) under IA, there exists a distribution of preferences such that students have an incentive to learn their own cardinal preferences.*

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Remark

Part (ii) is true for all strategy-proof mechanisms that elicit ordinal information from students.

Incentives to acquire information about others' preferences

- ▶ Given everyone **knows her own preferences**, the incentive to learn others' preferences:
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In an arbitrary symmetric Bayesian Nash equilibrium,

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Environment

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 - ▶ *ex ante* submitting (A, B, C) is a dominant strategy.
- ▶ Inefficiency: assign a type-(100, 10, 0) student to school B if there is at least one other student of type-(100, 110, 0)

Experimental Design

$2(\text{mechanisms}) \times 2(\text{information to acquire}) \times 2(\text{cost conditions})$

1. IA vs. DA (between-subject)
2. Own value vs. others' values (between-subject)
3. Free vs. costly info (within-subject)

Table: Features of Experimental Sessions

Info to acquire	Immediate Acceptance		Deferred Acceptance	
Own Value	free-costly	3×12	free-costly	3×12
	costly-free	3×12	costly-free	3×12
Others' Values	free-costly	3×12	free-costly	3×12
	costly-free	3×12	costly-free	3×12

12 subjects per session, random re-matching, 20 rounds

24 independent sessions and 288 participants

Willingness to Pay for Information: Becker-DeGroot-Marshak

- ▶ Enter WTP for own value (others' values) in $[0, 15]$
- ▶ Server collects WTP and generates a random number between $[0, 15]$ for each participant
 - ▶ If her WTP $>$ random number, she finds out information and pays the random number
 - ▶ Otherwise, she does not find out the information and pays zero
- ▶ Instructions adapted from Benhabib, Bisin and Schotter (2010)

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- ▶ Implementation of Binarized Scoring Rule (BSR)
 - ▶ Each subject submits a guess for the average WTP of the other two participants;
 - ▶ Server computes the squared error of the guess and the actual average, MSE;
 - ▶ Server randomly draw a number, R , uniformly from $[0, 49]$.
 - ▶ If the $MSE \leq R$, the subject gets a fixed prize of 5 points
 - ▶ Otherwise, she gets zero from guessing
 - ▶ The random number, R , is drawn independently for each subject, and for each round.

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 - ▶ Most relevant literature
 - ▶ Hossain and Okui (2013)
 - ▶ Schotter and Trevino (2014)

Risk Attitude Elicitation; Curiosity

- ▶ Risk attitude elicitation
 - ▶ Holt and Laury lottery choice
- ▶ Curiosity
 - ▶ Informed of payoff from lottery choice
 - ▶ WTP for the realization of lottery decision
 - ▶ non-instrumental information
 - ▶ Golman and Loewenstein (2016)

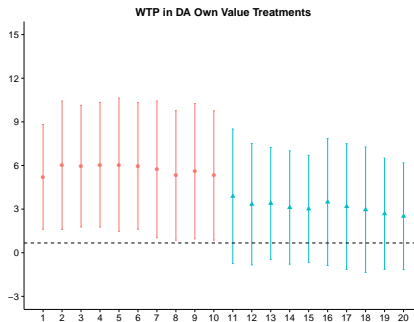
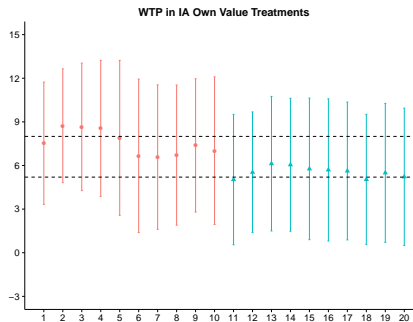
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WTP for Own Values



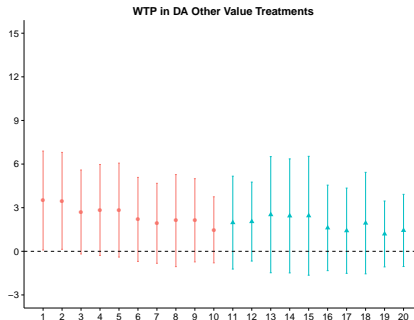
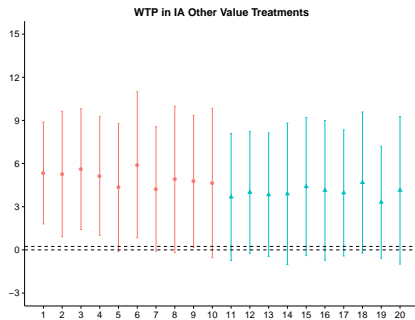
Hypothesis

$IA > DA > 0$.

Result (session average)

$IA > DA$ ($p = 0.03$), $IA > 0$, $DA > 0$ ($p < 0.01$)

WTP for Others' Values



Hypothesis

$$IA > DA = 0$$

Result (session average)

$$IA > DA \ (p = 0.01), \quad IA > 0, \quad DA > 0 \ (p < 0.01)$$

Excessive WTP

- ▶ Excessive WTP for information (except IA OwnValues)
- ▶ Excess information acquisition in the literature
 - ▶ Jury/committee voting: Bhattacharya, Duffy and Kim (2015)
 - ▶ Auctions: Gretscho and Rajko (2015), "regret avoidance"
- ▶ Why?

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- ▶ Decomposition of WTP at subject level

Determinants of Subject-Average WTP: Tobit Model

	Full Sample	Subsample 1	Subsample 1	Subsample 2
IA_OwnValue	6.45*** (0.56)	6.26*** (0.57)	5.22*** (1.10)	5.77*** (1.74)
IA_OtherValue	4.32*** (0.62)	4.05*** (0.72)	3.46*** (1.21)	3.91** (1.91)
DA_OwnValue	4.13*** (0.71)	3.78*** (0.82)	2.94*** (1.07)	3.60** (1.71)
DA_OtherValue	1.47*** (0.45)	1.01** (0.47)	0.91 (1.13)	1.98 (1.79)
% playing a dominated strategy with free info			6.85*** (2.02)	6.29*** (2.21)
Curiosity			0.34*** (0.05)	0.33*** (0.04)
Costly-Free			1.88*** (0.45)	1.87*** (0.36)
Risk Aversion			-0.28** (0.13)	-0.20 (0.13)
Demographics				Yes
<i>N</i>	288	241	241	233

Decomposition of Subject WTP for Information

	IA Own	IA Other	DA Own	DA Other
WTP: data	6.49	4.29	4.30	1.78
(i) Cognitive load	-0.70	0.36	0.99	0.45
(ii) Learning	0.30	0.10	0.63	0.71
(iii) Conformity	4.10	2.10	2.78	1.30
(iv) Misunderstand			0.41	0.25
(v) Curiosity	1.36	1.69	0.75	0.57
(vi) Risk aversion	-1.43	-0.24	-0.51	0.31
Total explained	3.60	3.17	3.73	1.68
Remaining/unexplained	2.88	1.13	0.58	0.11
Theoretical prediction	[5.2, 8]	[0, 0.24]	0.67	0
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Heterogenous types: Zero-demand for information

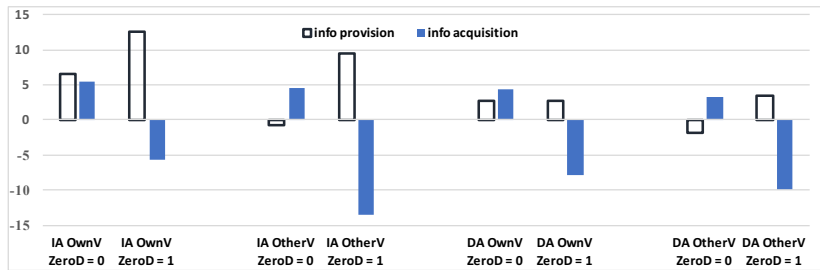
Table: Participants who always submit 0 WTP for information

Treatment	$ZeroD_i = 1$	
	n	Proportion
IA OwnV	6	8%
IA OtherV	7	10%
DA OwnV	11	15%
DA OtherV	20	28%
Total	44	15%

Who have zero demand for information (linear probit model with treatment dummies)?

- ▶ Curiosity ($-0.02, p < 0.01$)
- ▶ Asian ($0.10, p < 0.05$)

Effects of Information Provision & Costly Acquisition (relative to no relevant information)



- ▶ **Hypothesis 1:** Zero-demand participants use free information less efficiently than others.
 - ▶ Reject
- ▶ **Hypothesis 2:** Costly information acquisition hurts zero-demand participants, while benefiting others who have the opportunity to obtain more information.
 - ▶ Fail to reject.

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- ▶ **A strong case for information provision**

Concluding Remarks: Information Provision

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 - ▶ Accessible presentation material on school offerings and performance (Hastings and Weinstein 2008)
 - ▶ Knowledgeable guidance counselors and teachers (Sattin-Bajaj 2014)

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- ▶ Providing information on **others'** preferences
 - ▶ School choice mechanism in Wake County, North Carolina (Dur, Hammond and Morrill 2018)
 - ▶ Japan Residency Matching program (# students list each hospital program as first choice: 9/22-10/5)
 - ▶ University of Tokyo: matching students to departments
 - ▶ College admissions in Inner Mongolia (Gong and Liang 2017)