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6 **Test-Retesting in Experimental Valuation of Perishable Food Products:**
7 **Unstable Individual Bids and Reliable Market Demand**

8
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10

11
12 **Abstract**

13 *One important property of a preference measure is its reliability. In this article, we*
14 *explore the reliability of experimental auctions in measuring the market demand for*
15 *five types of fish. We use the test-retest method to compare demand curves from two*
16 *Becker-DeGroot-Marschak experiments with the same 116 participants conducted*
17 *seven months apart in time. The individual bids are not stable for these perishable*
18 *products, but the distributions of the individual bids are stable. We find that the*
19 *unsystematic individual variations cancel out in the aggregation of bids in a typical*
20 *sample size for experimental valuation studies. Our results suggest that experimental*
21 *auctions provide reliable market demand estimates even though the individual bids*
22 *may change substantially over time.*

23
24 **Keywords:** *Test-retest; reliability; aggregation; BDM mechanism.*

25 **JEL classifications:** *C91, D12, Q13.*
26

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27 **1. Introduction**

28 Experimental valuation methods such as experimental auctions, real choice experiments and price
29 list experiments are often used to measure preferences for goods and services (e.g. Lusk and
30 Shogren, 2007; Alfnes and Rickertsen, 2011). These methods have in common that consumers
31 have an opportunity to buy products in the experiments; and for food products this usually means
32 consuming it within hours or days after the purchase. This makes experimental valuation sensitive
33 to short-term variations in preferences due to factors such as purchase intentions on the day of the
34 experiment (Corrigan and Rousu, 2008), how hungry the participants are at the time of the
35 experiment (de-Magistris and Gracia, 2016), possibly what they have eaten in the days before the
36 experiment or what they already have in their fridge. These time-varying individual factors are
37 likely most important in valuation of perishable products such as fresh fish, in which consumption
38 need to take place within a short period after the experiment.

39 Several studies report instabilities in the elicited individual preferences. Mattei (2000), for
40 example, reports preference reversals and unstable individual preferences within one laboratory
41 experiment session. Furthermore, unstable preferences as reflected by increasing bids within one
42 experimental session have frequently been reported in multiple-trial Vickrey auctions (e.g.
43 Shogren *et al.*, 1994; Alfnes and Rickertsen, 2003). Increasing bids within one session may be
44 explained by phenomena like preference learning (e.g. List and Shogren, 1999) or bid affiliation
45 (e.g. Corrigan and Rousu, 2006).

46 Non-informative signals in the form of arbitrary anchors may also influence behaviour in
47 experiments (e.g. Ariely *et al.*, 2003). For example, Nunes and Boatwright (2004) show how prices
48 of an unrelated product seen outside the valuation area affects the valuation of a product. Others
49 have studied how factors related to the participants and that typically change over time, affects the
50 valuation. De Magistris and Gracia (2016), for instance, found that degree of hunger mattered for
51 the valuation of food products even when the products would be eaten a week later.

52 Individual preference changes are an important topic in behavioural economics (e.g.
53 Tversky and Thaler, 1990). However, for most food valuation purposes the reliability of
54 aggregated market demand is what matters most. The large majority of papers using experimental
55 valuation methods focus on the effect of product attributes, information, or sociodemographic or
56 psychological segmentation variables on aggregate demand (means, medians, demand curves)
57 (Lusk and Shogren, 2007; Alfnes and Rickertsen, 2011).

58 By reliability, we mean the consistency of the measure over time. In psychometrics,
59 reliability is frequently assessed by using the test-retest method (e.g. Groth-Marnat, 2009). This
60 method has also been used in stated preference studies to examine the stability of hypothetical
61 statements of value for recreation demand (e.g. Loomis, 1989). In the case of experimental
62 valuation methods, the test-retest method implies that people who participate in an experiment are
63 brought back into the lab at a future date and asked to repeat the valuation exercise. As far as we
64 know, only Shogren *et al.* (2000) have used the test-retest approach in experimental valuation
65 methods. They examined the reliability of values for irradiated pork over a two-week window
66 using experimental auctions and observed that mean bids remained relatively stable for the well-
67 known goods, but declined for the novel good.

68 The stability of preferences has been tested in previous studies on market data, and in a
69 food demand context, the focus has been on specific food categories like beef, poultry, pork and
70 fish. This earlier work assumed the existence of a representative consumer and tested the stability
71 of preferences using aggregate time series data over a long period of time. Stable preferences at
72 the market level have been both rejected (e.g. Moschini and Mielke, 1989; Sakong and Hayes,
73 1993; Cortez and Senauer, 1996; Gallet and List, 1998; Jin and Koo, 2003) and not rejected (e.g.
74 Chalfant and Alston, 1988; Burton and Young, 1991). Reported changes in market preferences
75 have typically been attributed to changes in external factors such as health information,
76 advertising, or food scares. In these studies, it is usually not discussed to what extent stable market
77 preferences are a result of aggregation across consumers.

78 Stable market demand as a result of aggregation is reported in Härdle and Kirman (1995)
79 who studied professional buyers in the Marseilles fish market. They found downward sloping
80 demand curves at the aggregate level but not, in general, at the individual level, and summarised
81 their result as ‘sophisticated and complicated individual behavior may lead to simple aggregate
82 properties’.

83 To investigate the reliability of aggregated demand measures from experimental valuation
84 methods, we look at stability in preferences² at both the individual and the market level.

² The textbook case of stability in preferences is that an individual has a unique utility function over all available products. Changes in willingness-to-pay for a product will then be a result of changes in income or changes in prices of the other products. An alternative interpretation of stability in preferences is stability

85 Experimental auctions such as the Becker-DeGroot-Marschak (BDM) mechanism (Becker *et al.*,
86 1964) gives individual bids representing the participants willingness-to-pay for the products on
87 offer, while other experimental valuation methods such as the real choice experiment or price list
88 experiments use the distribution of choices to estimate a willingness-to-pay distribution. Since
89 only the auctions give individual willingness-to-pay directly, they are better suited to study the
90 relationship between variability in individual preferences and reliability in market demand curves
91 than other experimental valuation methods. Stable individual willingness-to-pay is a sufficient, but
92 not a necessary condition for a stable market demand curve. As shown by Becker (1962), well-
93 behaved downward sloping demand curves can be derived from a wide class of behaviour,
94 including random choice within the budget set. The presence of unsystematic individual specific
95 effects would also make market behaviour more regular than individual behaviour since these
96 effects will cancel out by aggregation.

97 We investigate to what extent experimental valuation methods generate reliable market
98 demand for perishable products. We use a panel of 116 French consumers who participated in two
99 experimental auctions conducted seven months apart for five types of fish.

100

101 **2. Test-Retest Experimental Auctions: Sample and Design**

of some ‘underlying preferences’ as discussed by Becker (1976). In his own words (p. 5): ‘The preferences that are assumed to be stable do not refer to market goods and services, like oranges, automobiles, or medical care, but to underlying objects of choice that are produced by each household using market goods and services, their own time and other inputs. These underlying preferences are defined over fundamental aspects of life, such as health, prestige, sensual pleasure, benevolence or envy, that do not always bear a stable relation to market goods and services’. Another alternative interpretation of stability in preferences, which is highly relevant for food markets, is stability of ‘food values’ such as safety, nutrition and taste as discussed by Lusk and Briggeman (2009). Both of these alternative interpretations of stability in preferences may explain why people buy different foods on different days, but they do not explain how much variation can be expected in the valuation of a market product. Neither, do they say anything about the reliability of experimental valuation methods in eliciting individual bids or aggregate demand for specific products.

102 The data used in this test-retest come from a consumer study on fish presented in Rickertsen *et al.*
103 (2017). A series of experiments were conducted with a panel of French consumers in the sensory
104 laboratory of l'institut National de la Recherche Agronomique (INRA) in Dijon in 2008. A sample
105 of 180 fish eating consumers was recruited by phone from INRA's consumer panel for an
106 experiment conducted in May. To test for stability and reliability, all participants were contacted
107 again seven months later, and 116 of the 180 came back for a new experiment in December. We
108 use these 116 participants as our sample in this paper. The sample consisted of 116 consumers
109 from Dijon, 63 women and 53 men, of ages ranging from 23 to 70 years old, with an average age
110 of 48 years and standard deviation of 12.4. A majority of 71 were working full or part time, 2 were
111 students and the remaining 44 were pensioners, homemakers or unemployed. All the participants
112 said they are part of the food decisions in their household, eat fish at least once a month and
113 purchase fish at least every second month. For our purpose of testing of stability and reliability,
114 the important feature of the sample is that the same 116 subjects participated both times.³

115 Between 12 and 16 people participated in each session. At each of the two sessions, the
116 participants were paid €25 and each participant evaluated five types of fish: salmon, wild cod,
117 farmed cod, monkfish and pangasius. Each session had two parts and a survey. The first part was
118 a sensory evaluation. After a professional chef cooked the fish, each participant was served 50
119 grams of each fish in rotation to avoid any ordering effects. Before tasting, the participants were
120 told what fish they were served. After tasting, the participants gave their hedonic scores on a
121 computer.

122 The second part of the experiment elicited preferences for the fish. We used a BDM
123 mechanism, where the participants bid on a product and their bids are compared to a randomly
124 drawn price. If their bids are lower than the price, they do not buy. If the bids are higher than the
125 price, they pay the price and get the product. Each package of fish weighed about 300 grams, which
126 may be insufficient for a meal in a household consisting of more than two persons. To avoid

³ The 116 May participants that showed up again in December had a slightly higher mean WTP for the five fishes than the 64 that did not, 8.31 vs 7.68 Euros. Using a two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum test of differences in median bids between the two groups, we only find a significant difference for wild cod (salmon: $z = -0.23$, $p = 0.82$; wild cod: $z = -2.21$, $p = 0.03$; farmed cod: $z = -1.38$, $p = 0.17$; monkfish $z = -0.15$, $p = 0.88$; pangasius $z = -0.23$, $p = 0.82$).

127 package size causing zero bids, we let each participant choose if he or she wanted to purchase 1,
128 2, 3, 4 or 5 packages of fish before the bidding. The separation of bid and price means that each
129 bidder's weakly dominant strategy is to bid the amount that leaves him or her indifferent between
130 obtaining the product or not. The participants gave a bid on each of the five types of fish on a
131 computer. Next, one product and one price was randomly drawn as binding. All the participants
132 that had bid higher than the price were allowed to buy the fish drawn as binding. Due to this
133 procedure, no one bought more than one type of fish and those that had bid less than the price for
134 the binding fish did not buy fish. Although the BDM mechanism is weakly demand revealing in
135 theory, these mechanisms require initial training (e.g. Lusk and Shogren, 2007, p. 63). Our training
136 had two parts. First we explained the BDM and second, the participants practiced by bidding on
137 orange juice or champagne. The training auctions were hypothetical and no products were sold.

138 As part of the survey conducted after the BDM, we asked the respondents about their 'best
139 guess at the average market price for one kilogram of fresh salmon, cod, monkfish and pangasius
140 fillets this week'. They answered on a 12-point scale starting at €3 and increasing with €3 all the
141 way up to €36. The median price guess for salmon and cod was unchanged at €12 and €15 between
142 the two sessions, and monkfish decreased from €21 to €18 and pangasius decreased from €9 to
143 €7.5. Using a Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test, the decline in the perceived market price
144 for monkfish is significant ($z=1.96$, $p=0.05$), while the others have no significant changes.

145 The recruitment of participants, the size of the groups, the lab, the software, the training,
146 the BDM valuation method and the random drawing of product and price were all established
147 procedures used at INRA's sensory lab in Dijon both before and after our experiment.

148

149 **3. Results**

150 Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for the test-retest bids. The median bids remained reliable
151 from May to December for all fish types except farmed cod. For farmed cod, the median bid
152 increased from €8.00 to €9.25. The mean bid for farmed cod increased from €7.82 to €8.71 while
153 the mean bids fell slightly for the other fish types.

154

155

Insert Table 1 here

156

157 *3.1. Reliability results*

158 Two main results on bid stability and aggregated reliability emerge from our test-retest
159 experiments.

160

161 *Result 1. BDM experiments result in unstable individual willingness-to- pay across two sessions*
162 *conducted months apart.*

163

164 *Support.* In Row 1 of Table 2, we present the number of participants with constant bids (mostly 0
165 in both experiments). Rows 2 through 4 show the number of participants who changed bids by less
166 than half a standard deviation; by one-half to one standard deviation; and by more than one
167 standard deviation. Table 1 shows that the standard deviations range from €3.74 to €6.91 for the
168 different fishes. More than 40% of the participants changed their bids by more than half a standard
169 deviation for salmon, wild and farmed cod and monkfish. Pangasius, with 73% zeros, had 24%
170 that changed their bids with more than half a standard deviation.

171 Many participants also changed their ranking of the five fish types. Only 9% of the
172 participants had a constant ranking for all five fish types. A constant ranking means that if they
173 bid higher for one type of fish than another in May, they also did that in December. Furthermore,
174 as shown by the last row of Table 2, only 46% of the participants ranked salmon identically
175 according to the bids in May and December. The corresponding percentages for wild cod, farmed
176 cod, monkfish and pangasius are 41, 37, 53 and 59, respectively.

177 Table 3 shows the Pearson correlation coefficients between the bids in May and December
178 and the associated 95% confidence intervals. Zero correlation suggests independent valuations in
179 the two experiments, i.e. random bidding, while a correlation factor of one implies constant
180 bidding. All the correlation coefficients are significantly different from zero and one, suggesting
181 that the individual bids are positively correlated between the two experiments.

182

183 Insert Table 2 here

184 Insert Table 3 here

185

186

187 *Result 2. The BDM mechanism is a reliable method for eliciting aggregate market demand curves*
188 *across two sessions conducted months apart.*

189

190 *Support.* Define each individual's demand curve by:

191

$$192 \quad (1) \quad x_{ijt} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p_{jt} > Bid_{ijt} \\ 1 & \text{if } p_{jt} \leq Bid_{ijt} \end{cases}$$

193

194 where x_{ijt} is the quantity demanded of product j by individual i at time t , p_{jt} is the price of the good,
195 and Bid_{ijt} is the bid.⁴ Let participant 1 be the highest bidder, participant 2 the second-highest
196 bidder, and so on; n participants are willing to pay at least the same as participant n 's bid. The
197 market demand curves, X_{jt} is defined by:

198

$$199 \quad (2) \quad X_{jt} = \sum_{i=1}^I x_{ijt}(p_{jt}).$$

200

201 We constructed the market demand curves for May using equation (2), i.e. by ranking each
202 individual participant's bid from the highest to the lowest. The market demand curves for salmon,
203 wild cod and farmed cod are shown by the solid lines in Panels A, C and E of Figure 1. In these
204 panels, the December bids using the same ordering of the participants as in May are plotted as the
205 dots.

206 As discussed above, the individual bids changed in erratic ways. The changes are likely to
207 be the result of day-to-day variations due to factors such as what people have eaten in the days
208 before the experiment. Examples of the erratic bidding can be found in Figure 1. Panel A shows
209 11 participants who bid a positive amount for salmon in May, but bid zero in December; 10
210 participants who bid zero in December, but bid a positive amount in May. Panels C and E show
211 similar erratic changes in bids for wild and farmed cod. For example, the second highest bidder

⁴ We let each participant choose if he or she wanted to purchase 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5 packages of fish before the bidding. Since this procedure was implemented for practical reasons, we count the individual demand in equation (1) as 1 rather than the requested number of packages.

212 for wild cod in May, who bid €20, was only the 56th highest bidder in December with €10, and the
213 third highest bidder in December, who bid €19.90, was only the 29th highest bidder in December
214 with €14. Of the 11 participants who bid a positive amount for wild cod in May, but not in
215 December, 9 bid a positive amount for salmon in December. This result shows that even though
216 these participants did not want to buy wild cod, they still wanted to buy fish.

217 To investigate the stability of market demand, we constructed the market demand curves
218 in December as in May, i.e. by ranking the participants bids from the highest to the lowest bid.
219 Panels B, D and F present the results for salmon, wild cod and farmed cod. As shown in the figures,
220 none of the market demand curves shift substantially,⁵ but for farmed cod we can see a minor shift
221 from May to December.

222 Several statistical tests were implemented to test for the stability of the market demand
223 curves. We use a Wilcoxon signed rank test (W) to test for identical median bids, a Brown-Forsythe
224 test (B-F) to test for identical variances of bids, and a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (K-S) to test for
225 identical probability distribution functions for bids in the two experiments (Hollander and Wolfe,
226 1999). Table 3 presents the test values and the associated *p*-values of the tests. As indicated by the
227 shift for farmed cod seen in Figure 1, the median bid for farmed cod increased significantly. This
228 increase could be explained by improved quality as reflected by a significant increase in the median
229 hedonic score. The median bids for the other fish types did not change. Finally, we do not reject
230 identical variance or identical distribution functions for any of the bids in May and December.

231

232

Insert Figure 1 here

233

234 **4. Concluding Remarks**

235 The reliability of a measure is an important property. An ideal measure would have a low level of
236 random errors (high reliability), control for alternative causal explanations (high internal validity),
237 and give results that can be generalised to other populations and conditions (high external validity).

238 In this article, we explore the stability and reliability of experimental auctions in eliciting
239 preferences at the individual and market level for a perishable product. We use a test-retest
240 experimental design eliciting values seven months apart from French consumers for five types of

⁵ Figures for monkfish and pangasius show similar patterns.

241 fish. Since fresh fish is a perishable product, fish bought in the experiment ought to be consumed
242 within few days after the experiment. Hence, day-to-day variations in preferences are likely to
243 affect the WTP for the product in the experiment. Our results show that individual bids were
244 unstable over the experimental sessions. However, we find that these unsystematic individual
245 variations cancel out in the aggregation of bids in a typical sample size for experimental valuation
246 studies. That a reliable measure for market preferences can emerge due to the aggregation across
247 consumers, supports the broader rationality notion that reliability in economic valuation is better
248 defined as a social construct, rather than an individual one (Arrow, 1987; Smith, 2003).

249 Our laboratory results support the general empirical notion that random day-to-day
250 variations in individual preferences have minor effects on the stability and reliability of the
251 predicted market demand. This is important for food producers and retailers who are primarily
252 interested in the market demand and not the preferences of each individual consumer.

253 For researchers interested in segmentation, the unsystematic individual variations means
254 that the sociodemographic sub-samples must be large enough for the aggregation to cancel out the
255 unsystematic individual variations. A remaining challenge for users of experimental valuation
256 auctions is to demonstrate to what degree the experimental methods, with their rigour with respect
257 to internal validity, also are able to predict behaviour in non-experimental markets (also see
258 Shogren *et al.*, 1999).

259

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335

336

337

Table 1

338

Descriptive statistics for the bids in euro. Sample size=116

		Mean	Median	St Dev	Min	Max	#Zero bids
Salmon							
	May	10.16	10.00	5.70	0.00	25.00	15
	December	10.01	10.00	5.10	0.00	18.00	13
Wild cod							
	May	9.87	10.00	5.59	0.00	23.00	16
	December	9.81	10.00	5.66	0.00	20.00	18
Farmed cod							
	May	7.82	8.00	5.50	0.00	21.00	25
	December	8.71	9.25	5.79	0.00	22.00	23
Monkfish							
	May	11.40	12.00	6.60	0.00	25.00	20
	December	10.75	12.00	6.91	0.00	24.00	24
Pangasius							
	May	2.28	0.00	4.06	0.00	18.00	82
	December	1.96	0.00	3.74	0.00	17.00	87

339

340 *Note:* The price guesses (Min, Median, Max) in May and December were (6,12,18) and (6,12,21)
341 for salmon, (6,15,24) and (6,15,27) for cod, (12, 21, 36) and (12, 18, 33) for monkfish, and (3,9,
342 18) and (3, 7.5, 15) for pangasius, respectively. We did not specify if the fish was farmed or wild
343 in the price question.

344

345

346

Table 2
Stability of individual bids (in %)

	Salmon	Wild Cod	Farmed Cod	Monkfish	Pangasius	Total
Constant bid	18	15	15	19	68	
$0 < \text{Change} < 0.5 \cdot \text{SD}^a$	38	27	32	35	9	
$0.5 \cdot \text{SD} \leq \text{Change} \leq 1.0 \cdot \text{SD}^a$	27	25	22	21	8	
$\text{Change} > 1.0 \cdot \text{SD}^a$	17	34	31	26	16	
Constant ranking	46	41	37	53	59	9

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348 *Note:* ^a SD is standard deviation.

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Table 3
Test results for reliability

	P ^a	95% CI ^b	W ^c	p-value ^d	B-F ^e	p-value ^d	K-S ^f	p-value ^d
Salmon	0.63	0.50- 0.73	0.16	0.87	1.20	0.28	0.08	0.88
Wild cod	0.46	0.31- 0.59	-0.07	0.95	0.01	0.94	0.03	1.00
Farmed cod	0.51	0.36- 0.63	-2.12	0.03	0.55	0.46	0.12	0.37
Monkfish	0.53	0.39- 0.65	0.62	0.53	1.03	0.31	0.09	0.57
Pangasius	0.65	0.54- 0.75	0.33	0.74	1.18	0.37	0.40	0.53

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354 *Notes:*

355 ^a Pearson correlation coefficient as estimated by STATA corrci command.

356 ^b 95 % confidence interval for Pearson correlation coefficient as estimated by STATA corrci
357 command using the Fisher transformation.

358 ^c Wilcoxon signed-rank test as estimated by STATA signrank command.

359 ^d The p-value of the test statistic reported in the previous column.

360 ^e Brown-Forsythe test of equal variance as estimated by STATA robvar command.

361 ^f Kolmogorov–Smirnov test as estimated by STATA ksmirnov command.

362 **Figure 1.** Test-retest bids for salmon and wild cod in May and December

