Hunger Games: Does Hunger Affect Time Preferences?

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The poor often make shortsighted monetary choices, however many laboratory experiments fail to detect present bias over monetary outcomes. Could physiological factors associated with poverty, such as hunger, be important triggers of present bias? I investigate this in a novel laboratory experiment by manipulating hunger and eliciting time preferences using the convex-time-budget method. In the control condition, I find monetary impatience consistent with previous studies, including no present bias. However, hunger significantly increases impatience, particularly for choices involving immediate rewards. Together these findings demonstrate that hunger activates present bias, suggesting that it may play an important role in behavioral poverty-traps.

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Classic economic theory focuses on static preferences and relies on the Homo Economicus assumption. However, there is growing evidence that cognitive, emotional and visceral states can mediate behavioral biases and shape preferences (DellaVigna, 2009). As Homo Sapiens, we know that our cognitive, emotional and visceral states fluctuate and that we tend to face and make many important economic decisions, with potential long term consequences, when we are fatigued, stressed and/or hungry. Better understanding the relationship between such factors and preferences could enlighten our comprehension of the economic decision-making process. For instance, we know that the poor, who are more susceptible to food insecurity and as a result more likely to frequently experience hunger, tend to make more short-sighted economic decisions (Haushofer and Fehr, 2014). Could hunger, a visceral factor, be a trigger of present bias that helps in perpetuating behavioral poverty-traps?

A couple of decades ago Loewenstein's (1996) seminal work prompted a number of studies which demonstrated that "the discrepancy between the actual and desired value placed on a particular good or activity increases with the intensity of the immediate good-relevant visceral factor." However, less has been done to test whether visceral factors activate behavioral biases in general. This study extends on this notion by drawing parallel evidence from psychology, economics, and neuroscience and showing that hunger affects time preferences.

To date, only a single study has shed some light into the question; does hunger indirectly affect non-hunger related decisions? Danziger, Levav and Avnaim-Pesso (2011) find that the percentage of favorable parole decisions fluctuates in relation to the time in which judges take a food break. They argue that this is due to mental resource depletion. However, they are unable to identify whether

¹For example, Loewenstein, Nagin and Paternoster (1997) find that when individuals are sexually aroused they are more likely to expect to be sexually aggressive. Read and van Leeuwen (1998) find that future food choices are significantly affected by an individual's current state of appetite. Also, Van Boven and Loewenstein (2003) show that subjects attitudes towards others thirst depend on their own thirst.

the fluctuation in judges' decisions is due to resources having been replenished by eating (mitigating hunger or glucose depletion), resting (mitigating cognitive fatigue or ego depletion) or both.

The main goal of the present study is to test whether hunger affects time preferences (discounting, present bias and utility curvature). Nonetheless, it is important to differentiate between the effect of physical and cognitive resource depletion. Therefore, I conducted a controlled laboratory experiment where I manipulated both the state of hunger and/or cognitive fatigue of participants making intertemporal choices. These intertemporal choices were based on Andreoni and Sprenger's (2012) convex-time-budget (CTB) methodology, in which participants have to decide how much of a monetary reward they want to cash on an earlier and/or a later date given that whatever is cashed on the later date earns interest.

I find that the average number of tokens cashed earlier is significantly larger for subjects under the hunger (M= 50.31, Robust-SE= 3.96) and cognitive-fatigue (M= 50.41, Robust-SE= 5.56) condition than for subjects under the control condition (M= 36.81, Robust-SE= 5.06). Interestingly, subjects under the interaction condition (i.e. both hungry and cognitively-fatigued) cash slightly less tokens (M= 33.53, Robust-SE= 4.24) than subjects under the control condition. However, this result is not statistically significant and it is most likely driven by the chosen experimental parameters. Moreover, when comparing the average number of tokens cashed by the delay of the payment date (i.e. immediate versus non-immediate) I find that only subjects under the hunger and interaction conditions cash significantly more tokens if the earlier payment date is immediate, 10.5% (t(36) = 2.57, p = 0.015) and 17.0%, (t(33) = 3.05, p = 0.004) more, respectively. This suggests that hungry individuals display a certain level of present bias, or exaggerated preference for immediately available outcomes.

One of the benefits of using CTB is that it allows for the recovery of structural time preference parameters at the aggregate and individual level. When estimating the time preference parameters at the aggregate level, I precisely estimate an

average annual discount rate of 73.0%, 163.6%, 148.0% and 60.7% for subjects under the control, cognitive-fatigue, hunger and interaction conditions, respectively. The present-bias parameter (β) is estimated at 1.00, 0.99, 0.95 and 0.97 for subjects under the control, cognitive-fatigue, hunger and interaction conditions, respectively. The null hypothesis of "no present bias" ($\beta = 1$) is rejected under the hunger and interaction conditions, p < 0.01 and p < 0.05 respectively. Not surprisingly, and consistent with the non-parametrical results, I find a significant hunger effect (p < 0.01) and marginally significant interaction effect (p < 0.10) on the present bias parameter. The utility curvature parameter (α) is estimated at 0.87, 0.81, 0.84 and 0.89 for subjects under the control, cognitive-fatigue, hunger and interaction conditions, respectively. The null hypothesis of "linear utility" is rejected (p < 0.01) for all conditions. The recovered individual-level parameters confirm these results. The median annual discount rate is 80.0%, 131.5%, 180.3% and 72.8% for subjects in the control, cognitive-fatigue, hunger and interaction conditions, respectively. The median present-bias parameter is 1.00, 1.00, 0.96 and 0.98 for subjects in the control, cognitive-fatigue, hunger and interaction conditions, respectively. Finally, the median utility curvature parameter is 0.94, 0.93, 0.91 and 0.94 for subjects in the control, cognitive-fatigue, hunger and interaction conditions, respectively.

In summary, both hunger and cognitive fatigue increase monetary impatience, but only hunger affects time preferences. Hunger activates present bias by disproportionately increasing monetary impatience when choices involve immediately available monetary rewards. In contrast, cognitive fatigue increases the number of all-earlier allocations without decreasing the number of all-later allocations (i.e. more corner solutions overall). I argue that the latter may reflect a decrease in attention and an increase in heuristic-based choices. However, further work is needed to test this hypothesis. Interestingly, the interaction of both treatments also activates present bias but it also increases monetary patience. This is most likely caused by the parameters used in the experimental design. Also, consistent

with Andreoni and Sprenger's (2012) results, individuals under the control condition (not hungry nor cognitively fatigued) display reasonable levels of discounting, present bias and utility curvature.

To my knowledge this is the first study to prove that hunger activates present bias. This results lay the groundwork for future research exploring whether hunger affects the individual's economic decision-making process. Moreover, they open the door to a new research agenda that could help explain why the poor tend to make more shortsighted economic decisions. These research is tightly interconnected with the behavioral poverty-trap literature. Banerjee and Mullainathan (2007) suggest that "the impatience that the poor often show is as much a result of their poverty as it is a cause." Hunger may be another factor that feeds this vicious cycle. Additionally, it highlights the importance of parameter and methodology selection (e.g. choice consistency, patterns of behavior, CTB) to investigate how cognitive state-levels affect economics preferences.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section I motivates the research question and describes the related literature. Section II details the experimental design. Section III provides summary statistics. Section IV discusses the results. Section V concludes.

I. Motivation

In recent decades, researchers have shown an increased interest in understanding how and which brain systems are associated with individual economic decisions (Camerer, Loewenstein and Prelec, 2005). For example, using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), McClure et al. (2004) demonstrate that parts of the limbic system are preferentially activated by economic decisions that involve immediate monetary rewards (i.e. Blood-oxygen-level dependent (BOLD) signal changes in the ventral striatum (VStr), medial orbitofrontal cortex (MOFC), medial prefrontal cortex (MPFC), posterior cingulate cortex (PCC), and left posterior hippocampus are greater when decisions involve money available today).

The consensus among neuroscientists is that the role of the orbitofrontal cortex (OFC) is to determine just how rewarding a reward actually is (Wallis, 2007).² Not surprisingly the OFC is believed to be the best candidate as the network that assigns value, which underlines economic choice (Padoa-Schioppa and Assad, 2006).

Concurrently, neuroscientists have documented evidence that hunger is associated with increased activity in the brain's limbic system. For example, Tataranni et al. (1999) use positron emission tomography (PET) to show that that hunger increases relative cerebral blood flow (rCBF) in limbic areas of the brain (e.g, OFC, and parahippocampal cortex). Similarly, Hinton et al. (2004) use PET to show that during the intrinsic state of hunger, there is increased activation in the hypothalamus, amygdala, insula cortex, medulla, striatum, and anterior cingulate cortex. Li et al. (2012) use fMRI to show that fasting increases BOLD signals of limbic areas of the brain (e.g, OFC, parahippocampal cortex, and caudate).

Moreover, there is growing evidence that physiological and biological factors are linked to individual economic behavior. For example, stress, induced by mild physical pain (Porcelli and Delgado, 2009) or cortisone pills (Kandasamy et al., 2014), increases risk aversion. Similarly, stress and negative emotions increase impatience (Cornelisse et al., 2013; Lerner, Li and Weber, 2012). Also, Dickinson, McElroy and Stroh (2014) find that glucose increases individuals' response times affecting the likelihood of a Bayesian error. Kuhn, Kuhn and Villeval (2014) find self-control depletion and glucose effects on time preferences, which are mainly driven by increases in the intertemporal substitution elasticity. Therefore, they suspect that these affects are driven by an increase in subjects' attention to the decision and not an inability to resits the temptation of an immediate monetary

²It has been documented that outputs of the inferior temporal visual cortex (i.e. visual stimuli) as well as outputs from other sensory systems (e.g. taste, touch, olfaction) are fed into the OFC to produce representations of the expected reward value, including monetary reward value (Rolls, 1999; Rolls and Grabenhorst, 2008).

reward. Other relevant studies include Schofield (2013), who used a high intake treatment and and Ramadan to evaluate the impact of caloric intake on productivity. She finds that high-caloric intake led to improvements in physical and cognitive tasks, increased labor supply and increased income (about 10%); while low-caloric intake led to a 20% to 40% decrease in productivity per individual.

However, there is yet to be a study formally linking hunger and economic behavior. The most closely related study to this endeavor was conducted by Danziger, Levav and Avnaim-Pesso (2011) to test the age-old wisdom "Law is what the judge ate for breakfast". In this study, they recorded judges' sequential parole decisions, over a period of 50 days, before and after two daily food breaks. They find that the percentage of favorable decisions drops steadily from about 65% at the beginning of a session to nearly zero before the break, and returns abruptly to about 65% after the break. Their findings suggest that judicial rulings can be swayed by variables that should have no weight on legal decisions. In this case they interpret such variable as mental depletion. However, they are unable to identify whether the fluctuation in judges' decisions is due to resources having been replenished by eating, resting or both.

In the present study, I use a novel laboratory experiment to explore whether hunger affects economic decisions not directly associated with hunger (in this case choices over monetary rewards). Also, in order to clarify if and how hunger and cognitive fatigue interact, I implemented a 2x2 factorial experiment. The two treatment conditions in this experiment were hunger and cognitive fatigue.³

More specifically, I manipulated the order in which 4 different activities or stages were administer to subjects. These included a decision task, an arithmetical task, a tasting activity and filler tasks, and a demographic questionnaire and auxiliary

³An abundance of evidence shows that cognitive costs play an important role in consumers' decisions (e.g. credit card market, Ausubel (1991); retirement investments, Hastings and Tejeda-Ashton (2008); and tax salience, Chetty, Looney and Kroft (2009)) for a more in-depth review of the literature, see DellaVigna (2009).

survey. This generated the control and treatment groups needed to estimate the effect of hunger and cognitive fatigue on time preferences (i.e. can hunger help explain why some individual display time-inconsistent preferences).

To provide some background, while standard economic model assumes time-consistent preferences, there is substantial evidence that individual preferences vary over time (i.e. preferences are time inconsistent). Thaler (1991), the first to empirically test this assumption, found discounting to be steeper in the immediate future than in the more distant future. A slight modification to the standard economic model—the implementation of a present bias parameter (β) that, in addition to the time-consistent discount factor (δ), weights all utility to be realized in the future (Laibson, 1997; O'Donoghue and Rabin, 1999)—helps explain why individuals sometimes end up consuming more/less leisure/investment goods than what they had initially planned to consume.

An individual is said to have time-inconsistent preferences, or being present bias, if $\beta < 1$. Since β weights all utility to be realized in the future, when evaluating a decision in which the outcome is realized in future, the individual weights the future outcome by β in addition to the standard discount factor δ . Therefore, with time-inconsistent preferences, individuals generate plans believing that their future-selves will be able to follow through. However, as the future becomes the present, they fail to do so. This leads to self-control problems.

More recently, researchers have focused on improving the methodology used to elicit time preferences. They argue that when transaction costs are equal across choices and subjects trust the payments will be received, there is no evidence of time-inconsistent preferences. Andreoni and Sprenger (2012) developed the CTB, which helps mitigate biases arising from assuming a linear consumption utility when measuring time preferences. CTB works by asking subjects to decide how many of a total allocation of m tokens (generally m = 100) they want cash at an earlier date and how many they wanted to cash at a later date, with the value of the token increasing in time. In fact, Andreoni and Sprenger (2012) conclude that

this may suggest that present bias is a visceral response activated when earlier rewards are actually immediate.

In the following section, I detail the controlled laboratory experiment used to test whether hunger affects intertemporal preferences.

II. Experimental Design

Each experimental session consisted of 4 different stages (explained in detail in the following section): a) a decision task, monetary choices used to elicit time preferences; b) an arithmetical task, timed-arithmetical problems used to induce cognitive fatigue; c) a tasting activity and filler tasks, the provision of a nutrition shake combine with filler tasks lasting approximately 15 minutes used to satiate appetite; and d) a demographic questionnaire and auxiliary survey, used to collect additional information on individual characteristics and dietary practices. Figure I illustrates how the ordering of these stages defines each of the cells/conditions resulting from the 2x2-factorial design.

A. Procedures

The experiment took place in the Social Sciences Experimental Lab (Xlab) at the University of California, Berkeley. During the sign-up process, which took place between a week and 24 hours before each session, individuals were asked to fast for at least 3 hours before the session. I conducted sessions during weekdays and weekends, as well as on different times of the day (from 9:00 a.m. to 1:00 p.m.) to eliminate date and time-of-the-day effects. During the sign-up process individuals with glucose and food sensitivities were also informed that they were not qualified to participate in the study.

Upon arrival to the laboratory, subjects were assigned to a computer station. The nutritional drinks were set up in a table behind panels to the left of the room (see Figure II). A server-based application was developed to implement the

experiment.⁴ Each subject was issued a user id and password. Through the application subjects were given informed consent, instructions, practice rounds and learned about their experimental earnings. This included the payment amount and date(s) in which they would receive them. The responses and the time stamp for each of the responses were collected and stored on the server hosting the application.

Since the decisions task, arithmetical task, and demographic questionnaire and auxiliary survey were solely administered through the web-based application, I will refer to these three stages of the experiment as the computer-based experimental tasks (CETs), from this point forward.

B. Compensation

At the beginning of the CETs, subjects were informed that they were going to face a total of 65 rounds, and that in each of these rounds they were going to have 45-seconds to either solve an arithmetical task or make an economic decision. Subjects were also informed that only one round was going to be selected to determine their experimental compensation, and they were reminded to make each decision and solve each problem carefully since any one of the 65 rounds had equal chances to be chosen at random.⁵

When implementing time discounting studies, the researcher must ensure that, except for their timing, choices are equivalent (i.e. all costs associated with receiving payments should be the same across periods). I used payment procedures similar to those implemented by other researchers (Andreoni and Sprenger, 2012) in addition to unique measurements design to make transaction costs across all periods equal. First, payments were made electronically (via Paypal) to eliminate disproportionate preference for present in-lab payments. Second, at the

⁴Appendix A provides screen-shots of the application, including the consent form and instructions scripts used.

 $^{^5\}mathrm{By}$ selecting a random round to determine their compensation I eliminate potential wealth effects.

beginning of the experiment subjects were informed that they would receive a \$10-participation fee in addition to their experimental compensation. Furthermore, the date on which they would receive this participation compensation would depend on whether the task randomly selected to determine their experimental compensation was an arithmetical task. Were that the case they would receive the \$10-participation in a single payment (on the day of the experiment); or a decision tasks, in which case they would receive the \$10-participation fee in two payments (\$5 on the earlier date and \$5 on the later date stated on the randomly selected decision round). Implementing a \$10-participation fee serves several purposes: it allows to fulfill the Xlab minimum compensation requirements; it increased subjects' trust, since they would receive both an earlier and a later date payment independent of their allocation; and it reduces the bias towards concentrating payments in a single period, by eliminating multiple payment inconvenience since two payments were sent regardless. Third, at the end of the experiment subjects provided the email account to which they wanted to receive their compensation payment(s). Also, at the end of the experiment, I personally gave each subject my business card with my email and phone number shown and invited them to contact me if they had any inquiries about the study, including the payment procedures. Additionally, The total amount and the date(s) in which they would receive their compensation were hand-written on the back each card. In the auxiliary survey I asked subjects if they trusted that they would receive their experimental payment on the promised date, and over 95% of subjects replied yes.⁶

C. Tasting Activity and Filler Tasks

All subjects participated in a tasting activity before/after the CETs; this allows for the manipulation of their hunger/satiation level. Protein has been documented as the most satiating macro-nutrient (Rolls, Hetherington and Burley, 1988; Wei-

 $^{^6{}m This}$ is similar to the 97% positive replies reported by Andreoni and Sprenger (2012) for their sample.

gle et al., 2005; Astrup, 2005; Bertenshaw, Lluch and Yeomans, 2008). Therefore I used a high-protein (35 grams), low-calorie (160 calories), low-sugar (1 gram), and low-carbohydrate (2 grams) nutritional drink (12 fl. oz.).⁷ Subjects were instructed, via a message on their computer screen, to go to the left side of the room, take a can, consume all of its contents, then give the empty can to the researcher who would give them a paper-based survey (containing "filler tasks"), and return to their desk to complete it. Subjects had 15 minutes to complete the paper-based survey. A timer was program in the application to keep subjects from proceeding to following stages before the 15-min. wait period was over.

For subjects in the hunger and interaction condition who participated in the tasting activity after the CETs, the filler tasks included ratings of the drink flavor and presentation data as well as ratings on the feeling of satiation after drinking the nutritional shake, dietary practices, and perceptions on the drink nutritional content. This supplementary data allowed me to verify the satiating effectiveness of the nutritional shake, which is discussed in detail in the following section. For subjects in the control and cognitive-fatigue condition who participated in the tasting activity before the CETs, the filler tasks included ratings of the drink flavor and presentation but did not include any questions related to the feeling of satiation after drinking the nutritional shake, dietary practices, or perceptions on the drink nutritional content to avoid biasing their responses the results.

D. Decision Task

I used Andreoni and Sprenger's (2012) CTB methodology to elicit time preferences. In CTB, subjects choose a continuous combination of c_t and c_{t+k} along the convex budget set

$$(1) (1+t)c_t + c_{t+k} = m,$$

⁷This particular drink was chosen to avoid sugar and caffeine interactions.

where (1+t) represents the price of earlier earnings; and c_t and c_{t+k} represent the experimental earnings at an earlier and a later date, respectively. The experimental earnings are determined by choosing how many tokens of a total allocation of m tokens they want cash on an earlier and/or a later date. The value of each token depends on which date the token is cashed and tokens cashed on later dates generally have larger values (i.e. $(1+t) \ge 1$). The convex budgets used were chosen to resemble those used by Andreoni and Sprenger (2012).

At the beginning of each decision round subjects observe the value for earlier and later tokens, a calendar pointing out to the current date and highlighting the earlier and later dates corresponding to the decision. A slider represents their token allocation for each round. After making an allocation, a graph with the corresponding total early and later payments is shown.⁸ The application design allows for better control of order and anchoring effects, since it presents each convex budget as an independent round and facilitates the randomization of the order of all choices for each subject and well as randomly resetting the allocation (or slider) starting point in each round.

Table I summarizes the 55 convex budgets faced by each subject. Each convex budget was presented as a separate round, and subjects had 45 seconds to make their decision. The total token allocation was fixed at 100 for all convex budgets (m = 100). Each convex budget is defined by a (t,k)-choice set and a (v_t, v_{t+k}) -budget, where: t represents the earlier date measure in days from the date of the experiment, k represents the delay between the earlier and the later date measured in days, v_t represents the earlier token cash-value (i.e. the value of each token if cashed on the earlier date) and v_{t+k} represents the later token cash value (i.e. the value of each token if cashed on the later date). Table I also shows the price of earlier earnings or gross rate over k days, $(1 + r) = \frac{v_{t+k}}{v_t}$, which ranges from 0 to 2; the standardized daily interest rate, $(1+r)^{1/k}$; and the annual interest rate compounded quarterly. The reason relatively high annual interest rates are

⁸Figure A4 and A3 provide a screenshot of the decision rounds before and after a choice is made.

used is because the monetary payments and delays were relatively small and using smaller annual interest rates could have biased results in favor of present bias.

E. Arithmetical Task

In order to induce cognitive fatigue, subjects were required to solve arithmetical problems consisting of four 3-digit addition problems for a total of 10 rounds. The cognitive-fatigue treatment was assigned randomly to half of the subjects within a session. As illustrated in Figure I the subjects in the control and hunger condition faced the arithmetical task rounds only after the decision task rounds, while the subjects in the cognitive-fatigue and interaction condition faced the arithmetical task rounds before the decision task rounds. If one of the arithmetical task rounds was selected at random to determine the experimental compensation subjects received \$15, in addition to their \$10-participation fee, only if they had correctly solved all four arithmetical problems in the selected round.

F. Demographic Questionnaire and Auxiliary Survey

The last part of the CETs consisted of a demographic question naire and auxiliary survey. 10

III. Summary Statistics

A. Manipulation of hunger

First, subjects were required to fast for at least 3 hours before the experimental session as requested during the sign-up process. In the auxiliary survey I asked subjects to report the time at which they consumed their last meal before coming to the experiment. Using this data, I was able to identify subjects that did not comply with the fasting requirements (17 out of 160 participants). Table II summarize subjects' characteristics for compliers and non-compliers. Non-compliers

⁹Figure A2 provides a screenshot of the arithmetical task round as it was presented to subjects.

¹⁰A list of these questions is provided in Appendix D of Ashton (2014).

do not appear to be significantly different from compliers; except for the time since their last meal (measured in hours) and their self-reported levels of hunger, which is expected. Therefore, I will not include them when estimating treatment effects.¹¹

Second, I collected 3 measures of self-reported hunger level. After the CETs subjects had to rank on a scale from 0 to 10, where 0 is "Not At All" and 10 is "Extremely", how hungry they were both upon arrival to the lab and at that moment. In addition, I asked subjects under the control and cognitive-fatigue conditions (i.e. those that completed the tasting activity after the CETs) to rank their hunger level using the same scale. In order to accept the fasting/nutritional-shake manipulation as a successful manipulation of hunger/satiation levels, the following about these measurements needs to be true: 13

- Self-reported hunger level upon arrival to the lab is the same for all subjects. Indeed, I do not find a significant difference on for the self-reported hunger level upon arrival to the lab between the subjects who completed the tasting activity before the CETs [$\mu = 5.86$, SD= 2.88] (i.e. those under the control and cognitive-fatigue conditions) and the subjects who completed the tasting activity after the CETs [$\mu = 5.77$, SD= 2.02] (i.e. those under the hunger and the interaction conditions): t(141) = 0.21, p = 0.836.
- Self-reported hunger level during auxiliary survey is greater for those who had not completed the tasting activity yet. This is confirmed by the significant difference in self-reported hunger level between subjects under the hunger and interaction conditions [$\mu = 6.85$, SD= 2.00], i.e. those who had not completed the tasting activity yet; and subjects under the control con-

¹¹Non-compliers behave very similar to subjects in the the control group (see Appendix C).

¹²Note that subjects were asked to rank their hunger level upon arrival to the lab in retrospect to avoid biasing their experimental responses.

¹³While non-compliers are not included, and they display significantly different self-reported hunger levels, including them does not significantly change the results.

dition and cognitive-fatigue treatment [$\mu = 4.50$, SD= 2.80]: t(141) = 5.76, $p \le 0.001$.

• Nutritional shake reduces hunger. First, I find a significant difference between the self-reported hunger level upon arrival to the lab [$\mu = 5.86$, SD= 2.88] and during the auxiliary survey [$\mu = 4.50$, SD= 2.80] for those under the control and cognitive-fatigue conditions: t(71) = 5.14, p < 0.001. Second, I find a significant difference between the self-reported hunger during the auxiliary survey [$\mu = 6.80$, SD= 2.00] and after the tasting activity [$\mu = 4.93$, SD= 2.67] for those under the hunger and interaction conditions: t(68) = 5.95, p < 0.001. ¹⁴

The fasting requirement combined with the nutritional-shake tasting activity resulted in a successful manipulation of hunger. Therefore, hereafter, I will refer to subjects that complied with the fasting requirements and completed the tasting activity after the CETs as subjects that received the *hunger treatment*.

B. Sample

Table II summarizes subjects characteristics measured using the demographic questionnaire, auxiliary survey, filler tasks, and experimental questions. A total of 160 subjects participated in the experiments, out of which 143 complied with the fasting requirement. Column (1) shows that compliers, the group of interest, earned an average experimental compensation of \$25.2. Overall, 46.2% are male, their average age is 20.7 years, 46.2% declared English as Second Language (ESL), 30.8% work, and 70.6% have a credit card. In average, subjects can correctly answer 4.5 [out of 5] numeracy questions, and 1.2 [out of 2] IQ questions. During the 10 arithmetical rounds, each in which they were given four 3-digit addition problems, they were able to solve in average 2.5 problems correctly in 40.2 seconds, and they spend an average of 10.1 seconds in each of the 55 decision rounds.

¹⁴Two out of 79 subjects in hunger and interaction conditions did not report their hunger level after the tasting activity.

Table III summarizes the same characteristics as Table II for each of the cells resulting from the 2x2-factorial design described in the previous section. Notice that I also implemented a low-dose condition by using a nutritional shake with 23g of protein, instead of 35g as in the control condition. The objective was to compare subject responses at different protein dose levels (i.e. dose-response). Out of the 143 compliers: 29 are under the control condition, 12 are under to the low-dose condition, 31 are under the cognitive-fatigue condition, 37 are under the hunger condition, and 34 are under the interaction condition. 15

IV. Results¹⁶

This section presents the results of the previously outlined 2x2-factorial experiment, to assess the hunger (fasting or treatment 1 and cognitive fatigue (solving timed-arithmetical problems or treatment 2) and on time preferences (choices between earlier and/or later monetary rewards).

The results are presented using 2 different approaches. First, I take a non-parametrical approach, which provides a broad view of the treatment and interaction effects. Second, I use Andreoni and Sprenger (2012)'s CTB methodology to estimate both aggregate-level and individual-level time preference parameters (discounting, present bias, and utility curvature) by condition.

A. Non-parametrical Analysis

In Figure III I plot the mean number of tokens cashed earlier against the gross interest rate, (1+r).¹⁷ I plot separate points for each condition and separate

¹⁵Due to limited resources, I only collected data for 12 subjects under the low-protein control condition. While this is not sufficient to precisely estimate dose-response effects it allows me to explore the relationship between the protein dose and subjects' experimental responses, which is discussed in Appendix C.

¹⁶As noted in the previous section, I will only include the 131 subjects under the four main conditions in this section. A brief analysis of the results for subjects under the low-dose condition and non-compliers is presented in Appendix C.

¹⁷For budgets with more than one (v_t, v_{t+k}) -combination I report the average.

graphs by both the immediacy of the earlier date in days, immediate (t=0) and non-immediate (t>0), and the delay between the earlier and the later date in days (k=35,70,98). The number of tokens cashed earlier by subjects under the hunger condition, versus the number of tokens cashed earlier by subjects under the control condition, seems to be persistently higher; particularly when the earlier date is immediate. This can pose as potential evidence for present bias or hyperbolic discounting. Interestingly, the number of tokens cashed earlier by subjects under the cognitive-fatigue condition does not decline monotonically with the interest rate.¹⁸

Figure IV graphs the mean tokens cashed earlier for non-compliers and each of the conditions by the delay of the earlier date.¹⁹ In order to have a comparable set of choices across immediacy of the earlier date (t) and delay between earlier and later date (k), I only included the balanced combination of convex budgets from Table I (i.e. (1+r)-budgets in all nine (t,k)-choice sets), however estimates do not significantly change if all choices are included. The means are also presented in Table IV.

Monetary Impatience — Let's define monetary impatience as the desire to cash a monetary reward earlier even if waiting to cash the reward would result in a significant monetary gain (i.e. the monetary reward earns interests). At the aggregate level and independent of the immediacy of the earlier date (t = 0, 7, 35), we find that subjects under the control condition cashed 36.81 [SE = 5.057] earlier tokens in average. Consistent with predictions, subjects under the cognitive-fatigue [$\mu_F = 50.41$, SE = 5.560] and hunger [$\mu_H = 50.31$, SE = 3.956] conditions cash significantly more tokens earlier (p = 0.073 and p = 0.038, respectively). Subjects under the interaction condition [$\mu_I = 33.53$, SE= 4.241] (i.e. those that

¹⁸Andreoni and Sprenger (2012) find that the number of tokens cashed earlier decline monotonically with the interest rate, increases with delay, and are not significantly higher when the earlier date is immediate, versus non-immediate.

¹⁹Means and standard errors were generated from regressions of the tokens cashed earlier on condition status, with standard errors clustered at the individual level.

received both the cognitive-fatigue and hunger treatment), seem to cash slightly less tokens earlier (p = 0.620).

Present Bias — As I discussed in Section I, an individual displays present-biased preferences if, relative to immediate outcomes, she/he disproportionately discounts non-immediate outcomes. In Figure IV and Table IV, I contrast the effects including only choices with immediate earlier dates (t = 0) against the effects including only choices with non-immediate earlier dates (t > 0). This can provide a non-parametric measure of present bias for each of the treatment and control conditions. In comparison, I find that the effect on tokens cashed earlier is significantly larger if the earlier date was immediate, than if the earlier date was non-immediate, only for subjects under the hunger [$\mu_{H_{t=0}} - \mu_{H_{t>0}} = 5.07$, p < 0.05] and interaction [$\mu_{I_{t=0}} - \mu_{I_{t>0}} = 5.68$, p < 0.01] condition.

Corner Effects — These non-parametrical aggregate results, by nature, lack individual heterogeneity details. Overall less than 26.0% of subjects (34 out of 131) have no interior choices in all of their chosen budgets, which is consistent with linear preferences. However, as seen in Figure V, almost twice as many subjects (38.7%) have no interior choices under the cognitive-fatigue condition, compare to the control (20.7%). This is not the case under the hunger (13.5%) and the interaction condition (17.6%).

Additionally, Figure VI plots the overall percent of corner and interior solutions by condition. Choices in which all tokens were cashed earlier are labeled *impatient*, choices in which all tokens were cashed later are labeled *patient* and choices in which some tokens were cashed earlier and some tokens were cashed later are labeled *interior*. Table V estimates the respective decrease/increase on patient and impatient choices by treatments and interaction or "corner effects". One can see that, in contrast with the average percentage of impatient (23.3%) and patient (47.0%) choices made by subjects under the control condition, subjects under the cognitive-fatigue condition make significantly more impatient choices (Coef = 16.9%, p < 0.05) but do not make significantly less patient choices (i.e.

choose more corner solutions); while subjects under the hunger condition do not make significantly more impatient choices but do make significantly less patient choices (Coef = -19.0%, p < 0.05).

20-cent Heuristic — While insignificant, the most puzzling result is that subjects under the interaction condition (i.e. those that receive both the cognitive-fatigue and hunger treatment), seem to cash slightly less tokens earlier than those under the control condition. A potential explanation for this result is that subjects under the interaction condition may be using a 20-cent heuristic to simplify the decision problem. Since 37 out of 55 convex budgets the value of tokens cashed on later dates is 20 cents, this would make subjects appear more patient or sensitive to the cost of early income. In fact, notice that while not significant, only the interaction of both treatments has a positive effect on patient choices (Table V).

In summary, hunger and cognitive fatigue increase monetary impatience. Hunger has a significantly larger effect when choices involve immediate monetary rewards, which suggest that hunger activates present bias. Cognitive-fatigue appears to increase corner solutions, particularly shifting interior allocations towards all-earlier token allocations. While corner solutions can be decisions that any rational agent could make every time, they could also represent heuristics or rules-of-thumb use by individuals to simplify the decision problem. Since the gross interest rate offered in the experimental choices is unlikely to be lower than that of their outside options, the shift towards all-earlier corner allocations suggests that cognitive fatigue may be decreasing attention and increasing heuristic-based choices. In fact, while insignificant, only subjects under the cognitive-fatigue condition seem to spend less time in average completing each decisions task than subjects under the control condition (see III). Overall, these results suggest that hunger and cognitive fatigue affect time preferences through different mechanisms, which we will further explore in the following section.

B. Parametrical Analysis

Following Andreoni and Sprenger's (2012) CTB methodology, I estimate the time preference parameters for subjects under control and each of the treatment (cognitive-fatigue and hunger) and interaction conditions. First, I provide a brief summary of CTB methodology and my estimation strategy. Then, I estimate the parameters jointly by condition, clustering the standard errors at the individual level, and report the p-values for the null hypothesis of equality between the control and each of the treatment and interaction conditions. Lastly, I estimate the parameters for each individual, report and plot the estimated parameters by conditions, and test for distributional differences between the control and each of the treatment and interaction conditions using a two-sample Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test.

METHODOLOGY

I assume individuals have a time separable CRRA utility function with $(\beta-\delta)$ parameters (Laibson, 1997; O'Donoghue and Rabin, 1999):

(2)
$$U(c_t, c_{t+k}) = \frac{1}{\alpha} c_t^{\alpha} + \beta \delta^k \frac{1}{\alpha} c_{t+k}^{\alpha},$$

where δ is the discount factor; β is the present bias parameter; c_t and c_{t+k} represent the experimental earnings at t and t+k, respectively; and α is the CRRA curvature parameter, which represents the intertemporal elasticity of substitution. This form captures the present-biased time preferences, when $\beta < 1$; but can also be reduced to exponential discounting, when $\beta = 1$. Maximizing Equation B2 subject to the future value Equation 1 yields to the tangency condition

(3)
$$\frac{c_t}{c_{t+k}} = \begin{cases} (\beta \delta^k (1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)} & \text{if } t = 0\\ (\delta^k (1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)} & \text{if } t > 0 \end{cases},$$

and the demand for tokens cashed earlier

(4)
$$c_{t} = \begin{cases} \frac{m(\beta \delta^{k}(1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)}}{1+(1+r)(\beta \delta^{k}(1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)}} & \text{if } t = 0\\ \frac{m(\delta^{k}(1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)}}{1+(1+r)(\delta^{k}(1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)}} & \text{if } t > 0 \end{cases}$$

Now, following Andreoni and Sprenger (2012)'s approach, I can use non-linear least squares (NLS) to estimate the time preference parameters by condition. Which yields to the structural regression equation

$$c_{t} = \left[\frac{m(\beta_{C}^{\tau} \delta_{C}^{k} (1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_{C}-1}\right)}}{1+(1+r)(\beta_{C}^{\tau} \delta_{C}^{k} (1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_{C}-1}\right)}} \right] \cdot \mathbb{C} + \left[\frac{m(\beta_{F}^{\tau} \delta_{F}^{k} (1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_{F}-1}\right)}}{1+(1+r)(\beta_{F}^{\tau} \delta_{F}^{k} (1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_{F}-1}\right)}} \right] \cdot \mathbb{F} + \left[\frac{m(\beta_{H}^{\tau} \delta_{H}^{k} (1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_{H}-1}\right)}}{1+(1+r)(\beta_{H}^{\tau} \delta_{H}^{k} (1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_{H}-1}\right)}} \right] \cdot \mathbb{H} + \left[\frac{m(\beta_{I}^{\tau} \delta_{I}^{k} (1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_{I}-1}\right)}}{1+(1+r)(\beta_{I}^{\tau} \delta_{I}^{k} (1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_{I}-1}\right)}} \right] \cdot \mathbb{I} + \epsilon,$$

where τ is an indicator for whether or not the earlier date is immediate (i.e. $\tau = 1$ if t = 0 and $\tau = 0$ otherwise) and \mathbb{C} , \mathbb{F} , \mathbb{H} , and \mathbb{I} are indicators for the control, cognitive-fatigue, hunger, interaction conditions, respectively.

Aggregate Estimates

As mentioned before, the richness of the CTB methodology allows me to estimate time preference parameters (discounting, present bias, and utility curvature) since experimental allocations are identify as solutions to standard intertemporal optimization problems.

Table VI presents the aggregate-level time preference parameters by condition and F-statistic and p-value corresponding to the null hypothesis of equality between the aggregate parameter estimated for subjects under the control condition and each of the treatment and interaction conditions.²⁰

Present Bias — I do not find evidence of present bias for subjects under the control $[\hat{\beta_C}=1.001,\, {\rm SE}=0.011]$ and cognitive-fatigue $[\hat{\beta_F}=0.993,\, {\rm SE}=0.025]$ conditions (i.e. the hypothesis of no present bias or $\beta=1$ cannot be rejected for the control $(F_{1,28}=0.01,\,p=0.921)$ nor the cognitive-fatigue $(F_{1,30}=0.08,\,p=0.781)$ conditions). Nevertheless, for subjects under the hunger $[\hat{\beta_H}=0.952,\,SE=0.025]$ and interaction $[\hat{\beta_I}=0.974,\,SE=0.011]$ conditions, β is estimated significantly below 1 and the hypothesis of no present bias is rejected $(F_{1,36}=11.07,p<0.001$ and $F_{1,33}=5.48,p=0.019$, respectively). Consistent with predictions, and the non-parametrical analysis presented in the previous subsection, hunger appears to disproportionately increase monetary impatience when monetary rewards are immediate; which is reflected on significantly lower estimates of β for subjects under the hunger $(F_{1,65}=7.23,p=0.007)$ and interaction $(F_{1,62}=2.95,\,p=0.086)$ conditions, relative to subjects under the control condition.

CRRA Utility Curvature (or intertemporal elasticity of substitution) — While the aggregate curvature is estimated to be significantly different than 1, in favor of non-linear utility, for all conditions [$\alpha_C = 0.867$ (SE = 0.021), $\alpha_F = 0.806$ (SE = 0.024), $\alpha_H = 0$. (SE = 0.017), $\alpha_I =$, (SE = 0.013)], only subjects under the cognitive-fatigue condition display a marginally significant higher degree of curvature than those under the control condition ($F_{1,59} = 3.71$, p = 0.054). In other words, subjects under the cognitive-fatigue condition appear to be less responsive to the cost of early income. However, one must be careful when interpreting these results since one would expect more corner solutions to deliver a lower degree of curvature.

Annual Discount Rate — The annual interest rate for subjects under the

²⁰The analogous specification is presented in Andreoni and Sprenger (2012)'s column (3) of Table 2. The aggregate parameter estimates under all the model specifications used and functional forms assumed by Andreoni and Sprenger (2012) are reported in Appendix B.

cognitive-fatigue and hunger condition are estimated at 164.6 (SE = 0.589) and 148.0% (SE = 33.8%), respectively. Nevertheless, only the annual interest rate for subjects under the hunger condition is marginally significantly higher than the annual interest rate for subjects under the control condition. This which is estimated at 73.0% (SE = 29.9%): $F_{1,65} = 3.37$, p = 0.067. Interestingly the annual interest rate for subjects under the interaction condition is estimated at 60.7% (SE = 0.164), which is lower, but not significantly different than the annual interest rate for subjects under the control condition: $F_{1,59} = 0.19$, p = 0.661. The latter may be due to subjects under the interaction condition using a 20-cent heuristic, as mentioned in the non-parametrical analysis, which given the parameters used in the experiment makes them seem very sensitive the cost of early income. Overall, the annual interest rate seem to be less precisely estimated than the annual interest rate estimated by Andreoni and Sprenger (2012). This may be due to noise added by the introduction of the randomization of both the ordering of the questions and the slider starting point in the application.

It is worth highlighting that the aggregate estimates for the present-bias and curvature parameters for subjects under the control condition are very close in magnitude to those obtained by Andreoni and Sprenger (2012); which was expected since subjects in their sample received neither the cognitive-fatigue nor the hunger treatment.²² This provides additional evidence for the validity and consistency of the CTB methodology.

Individual Estimates

Table VII summarizes the individual parameter estimates by condition. Due to lack of choice variation, it was not possible to estimate parameters for 3 subjects under the control condition, 2 subjects under the cognitive-fatigue condition, and

²¹They estimate the annual interest rate at 37.1% [SE = 0.091].

²²They estimate $\hat{\beta}$ at 1.007 [SE = 0.006] and $\hat{\alpha}$ at 0.897 [SE = 0.009].

2 subjects under the interaction condition (in total 7 out of the 131 subjects under all four main conditions).²³ Also, parameter estimates for some subjects result in extreme outliers due to the limited number of observations per subject. Therefore, I trim the parameters at the 5th and 95th percentiles losing 12 more observations for each parameter. Comparing the aggregate estimates to the median of the 114 remaining individual estimates by condition I find that: a) the annual interest rate is slightly higher for all conditions, but the relationship between conditions is sustained; b) the present bias parameter (β) is virtually the same for all conditions; and c) the CRRA curvature parameter (α) is estimated much closer to 1 for all conditions, and the difference between subjects under the control and the cognitive-fatigue fatigue condition is not as pronounced for the median individual estimates as it was for the aggregate estimates.

Figure VII, Figure VIII, and Figure IX plot the kernel density estimates for individual annual interest rate, present bias parameter, and CRRA curvature parameter, respectively. The two-sample Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test for equality of distribution between the control and each of the treatment and interaction conditions suggest that:

- First, consistent with the non-parametrical and aggregate results, only subjects under the hunger condition have a statistically significant different underlying distribution of the annual interest rate than subjects under the control condition (z = -1.91, p = 0.057), with the subjects under the hunger condition having the higher rank-sum.
- Second, also consistent with the non-parametrical and aggregate results, subjects under both the hunger and the interaction condition have statistically significant different underlying distributions of the present bias parameter than subjects under the control condition (z = 2.37, p = 0.018 and z = 1.88, p = 0.061, respectively), with subjects under the control condition

²³Andreoni and Sprenger (2012) are also unable to estimate parameters for 10 out of 97 subjects.

having the higher rank-sum in both cases.

- Lastly, in contrast with the aggregate results, I do not find evidence of statistically significant differences between the underlying distribution of the CRRA curvature parameter for the subjects under the control condition and subjects under any of treatment and interaction conditions. This is not surprising since, as expected, individuals with less interior solutions have less utility function curvature.²⁴

V. Conclusion

In summary, hunger and cognitive fatigue increase monetary impatience and affect time preferences. However, the results suggest that they affect time preferences through different mechanisms, which can help explain the conflicting results from the interaction condition.

On the one hand, the hunger effect seems to be concentrated in the present bias parameter (β) and is driven by disproportionately exacerbating impatience on immediate versus non-immediate monetary rewards. In other words, hunger increases monetary impatience and the effect is larger when earlier rewards are immediate. This effect is statistically significant and consistent independent of the approach and/or aggregation level. Furthermore, this is consistent with the initial proposition that hunger may affect economic decisions because it is associated with activation of brain areas that are disproportionately activated when immediate rewards are available.

On the other hand, the cognitive-fatigue effect is driven by an increase in allearlier token allocations and overall corner solutions. While subjects under the

²⁴Tables D1 to D4 provide the parameter estimates for each individual. It is worth noting that for some individuals with only corner solutions the CRRA utility curvature parameter $(\hat{\alpha})$ is estimated bellow 0.999. When plotting the demand for tokens for each of these individuals one can see that those with $\hat{\alpha} < 0.999$ seem to display a certain level of choice inconsistency. This suggests that some issues may arise when using CTB to test cognitive-state level effects on time preferences.

cognitive-fatigue condition display a lower sensitivity to high prices (α decreases) the effect seems to be only marginally statistically significant at the aggregate level and fades when looking at individual level parameters. However, since the gross interest rate offered to subjects is unlikely to be lower than that of their outside options, the shift towards all-earlier corner allocations suggests that cognitive fatigue may be decreasing attention and increasing heuristic-based choices. Nevertheless, these results are not conclusive and more work is needed to test this and alternative hypotheses. Perhaps a better approach to study the effects of cognitive fatigue on decision making would be to test for utility maximization consistency a la Choi et al. (2014). In fact, Castillo, Dickinson and Petrie (2014) use this methodology to study the effect of sleepiness on risk preferences.

Finally, this study contributes to the field of behavioral economics by proving hunger activates present bias. These results also open the door to a new research agenda that could help explain why low-income individuals with lower quality physical and emotional health tend to make more shortsighted economic decisions, perpetuating behavioral poverty-traps. The goals of this research agenda should include exploring the relationship between hunger and risk preferences (e.g. risk/loss aversion, certainty effect) as well as hunger and social preferences (e.g. altruism, cooperation), addressed by Ashton and Nebout (2015) and Ashton (2015) respectively. A natural extension would be to test whether hunger activates present bias over non-monetary domains (e.g. consumption of non-hunger related goods, effort). Additionally, it is of interest to identify the mechanisms through which hunger affects decisions, particularly mapping the link between hunger, brain activity and economic decision-making.

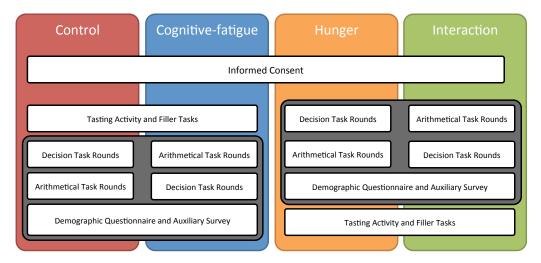


Figure I. Experimental Design

Note: Computer-based experimental tasks (CETs) circled in gray.



Figure II. Laboratory setup and presentation of "blind" drink for tasting activity

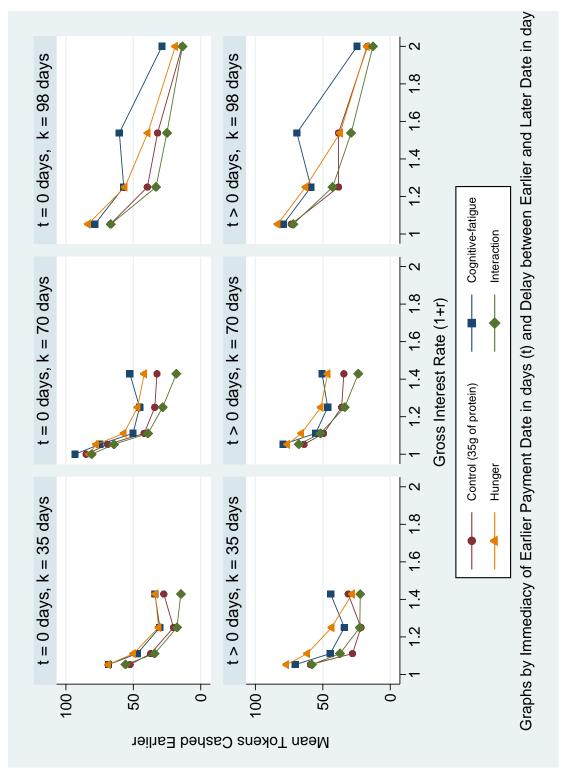


Figure III. Mean Tokens Cashed Earlier by Gross Interest Rate

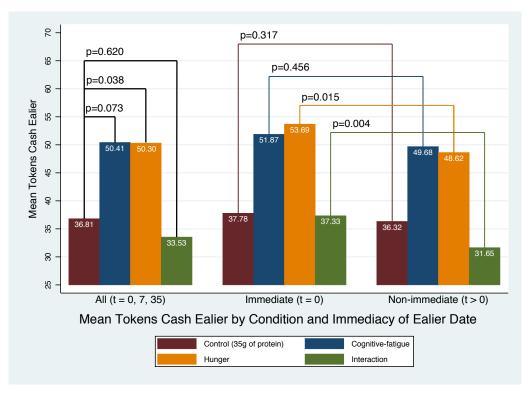


Figure IV. Mean Tokens Cashed Earlier

Notes: All budgets are constrained by 100 tokens (i.e. tokens cash earlier (or at t) + tokens cash later (or at t+k) = 100). Means are generated from regressions of the total number of tokens cashed earlier on condition status, with standard errors clustered at the individual level (see Table IV). The p-values for all choices correspond to the null hypotheses $H_0: \mu_{\rm control} = \mu_{\rm other}$, where other refers to each of the non-control conditions. The p-values for immediate and non-immediate choices correspond to the null hypotheses $H_0: \mu_{\rm t=0} = \mu_{\rm t>0}$ for each condition. In order to have a comparable set of choices across earlier date delay (t) and delay between earlier and later date (k), I only included the balanced combination of choice sets from Table I (i.e. (1 + r)-choices with all nine (t, k)-combinations), however estimates do not significantly change if all choices are included.

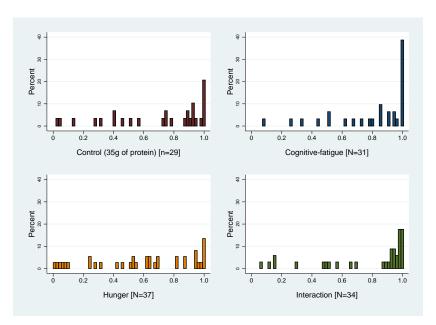


Figure V. Percentage of Subjects by the Share of Corner Solutions Chosen

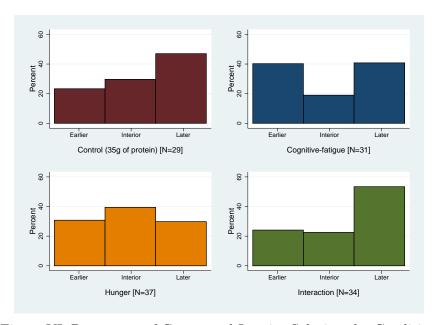


Figure VI. Percentage of Corner and Interior Solutions by Condition

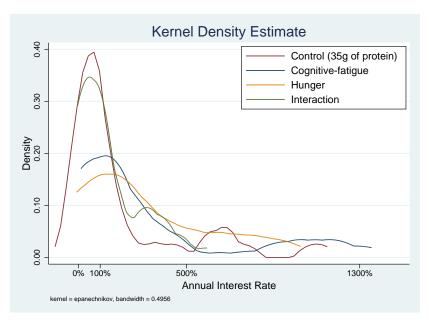


Figure VII. Kernel Density of Individual Annual Interest Rate Estimates

Note: Parameter trimmed at the 5th and 95th percentile.

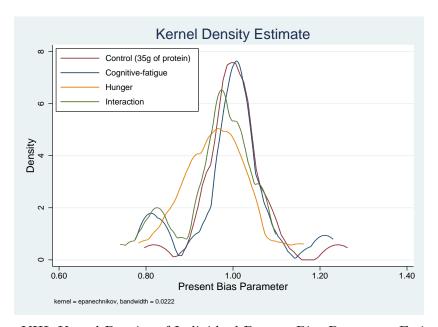


Figure VIII. Kernel Density of Individual Present Bias Parameter Estimates

Note: Parameter trimmed at the 5th and 95th percentile.

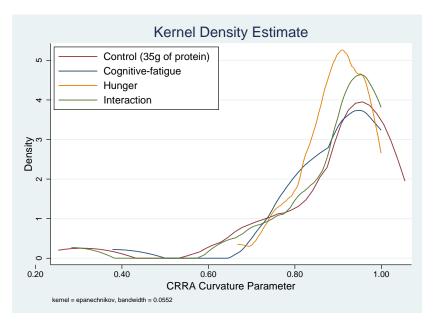


Figure IX. Kernel Density of Individual CRRA Curvature Parameter Estimates

Note: Parameter trimmed at the 5th and 95th percentile.

Table I—Choice Sets

t	k	v_t	v_{t+k}	(1+r)	Annual	Ra	te Range
0, 7, 35	35, 70, 98	20	25	1.25	117.82	-	575.97
0, 7, 35	35, 70, 98	19	20	1.05	20.95	-	67.41
0, 7, 35	35, 70	18	20	1.11	69.64	-	172.90
0, 7, 35	35, 70, 98	16	20	1.25	117.82	-	575.97
0, 7, 35	35, 70	14	20	1.43	389.46	-	1460.69
0, 7, 35	98.00	13	20	1.54	305.83	-	305.83
0, 7, 35	35, 70, 98	12	15	1.25	117.82	-	575.97
0, 7, 35	98	10	20	2.00	698.04	-	698.04
7	70	20	20	1.00	0.00	-	0.00

Table II—Summary Statistics (by compliers).

	Mean				p-value
	Compliers	Non-compliers	Difference	\mathbf{t}	F
VARIABLE	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Male	0.462	0.294	0.167	1.312	0.191
Age	20.650	19.647	1.003	1.281	0.202
BMI	22.353	21.803	0.550	0.508	0.613
ESL	0.462	0.412	0.050	0.387	0.699
College Year [1-5] ^a	2.893	2.529	0.363	1.211	0.228
Registered to Vote	0.483	0.588	-0.106	-0.821	0.413
Bus/Econ/Psych Major	0.273	0.235	0.037	0.327	0.744
STEM Major	0.203	0.235	-0.032	-0.311	0.756
Work	0.308	0.412	-0.104	-0.867	0.387
Own a credit card	0.706	0.647	0.059	0.501	0.617
Smoke	0.042	0.059	-0.017	-0.319	0.750
All-nighter	0.622	0.588	0.034	0.272	0.786
Able to maintain desired weight	0.678	0.765	-0.086	-0.723	0.471
Exercise regularly	0.573	0.647	-0.074	-0.579	0.564
Do Not Trust [payment]	0.049	0.059	-0.010	-0.175	0.861
Special Need	0.154	0.118	0.036	0.393	0.695
Donation Frequency [0-4] ^b	1.754	1.353	0.401	1.272	0.205
Gambling Frequency [0-4] ^c	0.280	0.063	0.217	1.464	0.145
Numeracy Score [0-5]	4.510	4.647	-0.137	-0.707	0.481
IQ Score [0-2]	1.119	1.118	0.001	0.006	0.995
Hours since last meal	9.197	1.603	7.594	5.861	0.000
Hunger level upon arrival [0-10] ^{de}	5.818	3.176	2.642	4.174	0.000
Hunger level after CETs [0-10] ^{de}	5.664	2.941	2.723	3.936	0.000
Hunger level after tasting [0-10] ^{df}	4.928	2.250	2.678	2.760	0.007
Av. Arithmetical Score [0-4]	2.533	2.541	-0.008	-0.026	0.979
Av. Time Decision [0-45]	10.076	10.639	-0.563	-0.481	0.631
Av. Time Arithmetical [0-45]	40.173	39.853	0.320	0.303	0.762
Compensation [USD]	25.164	23.347	1.817	0.989	0.324
N	143	17			

a Freshman = 1, Sophomore = 2, Junior = 3, Senior = 4, and Graduate = 5.
b Never = 0, Once a year = 1, Once a month = 2, Once a week = 3, and More than once a week = 4.
c Never = 0, One hour or at least \$10 per year = 1, One hour or at least \$10 per month = 2, One hour or at least \$10 per week = 3, More than one hour or \$10 per week = 4.
d Not At All = 0, and Extremely = 10.
e Rated during auxiliary survey.
f Only subjects completing tasting activity after CETs were asked to rate their hunger level during the filler tasks.

Table III—Summary Statistics (by conditions).

	Control	Cognitive-fatigue	Hunger	Interaction	Low-dose
VARIABLE	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Male	0.379	0.581	0.459	0.412	0.500
Age	20.966	21.516	20.378	19.882	20.667
BMI	22.711	20.981	23.368	22.341	22.092
ESL	0.586	0.226	0.486	0.471	0.667
College Year [1-5] ^a	2.897	3.194	2.946	2.545	2.900
Registered to Vote	0.379	0.613	0.378	0.529	0.583
Bus/Econ/Psych Major	0.310	0.161	0.432	0.235	0.083
STEM Major	0.172	0.226	0.243	0.147	0.250
Work	0.310	0.290	0.270	0.412	0.167
Own a credit card	0.793	0.677	0.676	0.676	0.750
Smoke	0.000	0.000	0.108	0.059	0.000
All-nighter	0.586	0.677	0.595	0.676	0.500
Able to maintain desired weight	0.621	0.839	0.703	0.559	0.667
Exercise regularly	0.483	0.645	0.703	0.529	0.333
Do Not Trust [payment]	0.069	0.032	0.081	0.029	0.000
Special Need	0.172	0.097	0.189	0.147	0.167
Donation Frequency [0-4] ^b	1.414	1.839	1.919	1.636	2.167
Gambling Frequency [0-4] ^c	0.276	0.161	0.297	0.324	0.417
Numeracy Score [0-5]	4.483	4.516	4.622	4.471	4.333
IQ Score [0-2]	1.103	1.065	1.162	1.118	1.167
Hours since last meal	10.205	8.326	9.358	8.851	9.150
Hunger level upon arrival [0-10] ^{de}	5.931	5.839	5.324	6.265	5.750
Hunger level after CETs [0-10] ^{de}	4.310	4.839	6.703	7.000	4.083
Hunger level after tasting [0-10] ^{df}			5.278	4.545	
Av. Arithmetical Score [0-4]	2.659	2.442	2.735	2.438	2.108
Av. Time Decision [0-45]	10.224	9.029	10.646	10.664	8.999
Av. Time Arithmetical [0-45]	40.134	41.081	38.714	40.553	41.342
Experimental [USD]	25.524	25.209	27.029	23.220	23.938
N	29	31	37	34	12

a Freshman = 1, Sophomore = 2, Junior = 3, Senior = 4, and Graduate = 5.

b Never = 0, Once a year = 1, Once a month = 2, Once a week = 3, and More than once a week = 4.

c Never = 0, One hour or at least \$10 per year = 1, One hour or at least \$10 per month = 2, One hour or at least \$10 per week = 3, More than one hour or \$10 per week = 4.

d Not At All = 0, and Extremely = 10.

e Rated during auxiliary survey.

f Only subjects completing tasting activity after CETs were asked to rate their hunger level during the filler tasks.

Table IV—Mean Tokens Cashed Earlier by Condition and Immediacy of Earlier Date

			Tokens (Cashed Earlier	$H_0: \mu_{\mathbf{C}} = \mu$	O={F,H,I}
Earlier Date	CO	NDITION	Mean (1)	Robust-SE (2)	F-statistic (3)	p-value (4)
All $(t = 0, 7, 35)$	C: F: H: I:	Control (35g of protein) Cognitive-fatigue Hunger Interaction Observations R-squared Clusters	36.811 50.413 50.305 33.533 6934 0.50 131	5.057 5.560 3.956 4.241	3.27 4.42 0.25	0.073 0.038 0.620
Immediate $(t=0)$	C: F: H: I:	Control (35g of protein) Cognitive-fatigue Hunger Interaction Observations R-squared Clusters	37.781 51.869 53.687 37.329 2310 0.52 131	5.176 5.940 4.296 4.971	3.20 5.60 0.00	0.076 0.020 0.950
Non-immediate $(t>0)$	C: F: H: I:	Control (35g of protein) Cognitive-fatigue Hunger Interaction Observations R-squared Clusters	36.323 49.682 48.621 31.650 4624 0.50 131	5.064 5.609 3.904 3.972	3.12 3.67 0.53	0.080 0.058 0.469

Notes: Robust standard errors clustered at the individual level. Estimates are inmune to demographic control (e.g. gender, age), survey controls (e.g. order), time-of-the-day fixed effects, and/or date fixed effects.

	Share of Corner Solutions				
VARIABLES	Patient (1)	Impatient (2)			
Cognitive-fatigue Effect	0.169**	-0.062			
Hunger Effect	(0.069) 0.074	(0.089) -0.190**			
Interaction Effect	(0.061) 0.007 (0.059)	(0.078) 0.032 (0.082)			
Constant: Control (35g of protein)	0.233*** (0.046)	0.470*** (0.064)			
Observations R-squared	7064 0.02	7064 0.03			

Notes: Robust standard errors, in parenthesis, clustered at the individual level. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Table VI—Aggregate Parameter Estimates by Condition

		Aggr	regate	$H_0: Parameter_C = Parameter_{O = \{F, H, I\}}$		
CO	NDITION	Parameter (1)	Robust-SE (2)	F-statistic (3)	p-value (4)	
	nual discount rate					
C:	Control (35g of protein)	0.730	0.229	•	•	
F:	Cognitive-fatigue	1.646	0.589	2.10	0.147	
H:	Hunger	1.480	0.338	3.37	0.067	
I:	Interaction	0.607	0.164	0.19	0.661	
Pre	esent bias: $\hat{\beta}$					
C:	Control (35g of protein)	1.001	0.011			
F:	Cognitive-fatigue	0.993	0.025	0.09	0.769	
H:	Hunger	$0.952^{\dagger \dagger \dagger}$	0.014	7.23	0.007	
I:	Interaction	$0.974^{\dagger\dagger}$	0.011	2.95	0.086	
$\mathbf{C}\mathbf{R}$	RA curvature: $\hat{\alpha}$					
C.	Control (35g of protein)	$0.867^{\ddagger\ddagger}$	0.021			
F.	Cognitive-fatigue	$0.806^{\ddagger\ddagger}$	0.024	3.71	0.054	
Η.	Hunger	$0.844^{\ddagger\ddagger}$	0.017	0.72	0.397	
I.	Interaction	$0.891^{\ddagger\ddagger}$	0.013	0.96	0.327	
	Observations	7064				
	R-squared	0.59				
	Clusters	131				

Notes: Robust standard errors clustered at the individual level. ††† p<0.01, †† p<0.05, † p<0.1 for null hypothesis of no present bias (i.e. $H_0: \beta=1$). †‡† p<0.01, †† p<0.05, † p<0.1 for null hypothesis of linear utility (i.e. $H_0: \alpha=1$).

Table VII—Individual Parameter Estimates by Condition

COI	NDITION	N	Median	5th Percentile	95th Percentile	Min	Max
Anı	nual discount rate						
C:	Control (35g of protein)	26	0.800	0.112	7.501	-0.589	11.005
F.	Cognitive-fatigue	26	1.315	0.116	11.953	0.114	13.547
H:	Hunger	32	1.803	-0.057	8.697	-0.083	10.27
I:	Interaction	28	0.728	0.117	4.081	-0.044	5.946
Pre	esent bias: $\hat{\beta}$						
C:	Control (35g of protein)	26	1.001	0.915	1.106	0.818	1.241
F.	Cognitive-fatigue	27	1.001	0.816	1.192	0.775	1.23
H:	Hunger	33	0.959	0.795	1.145	0.783	1.163
I:	Interaction	26	0.980	0.801	1.063	0.741	1.098
\mathbf{CR}	RA curvature: $\hat{\alpha}$						
C:	Control (35g of protein)	24	0.941	0.658	0.999	0.308	0.999
F.	Cognitive-fatigue	28	0.930	0.766	0.999	0.378	0.999
H:	Hunger	32	0.905	0.762	0.999	0.667	0.999
I:	Interaction	28	0.943	0.673	0.999	0.283	0.999

Notes: Due to lack of choice variation, it was not possible to estimate parameters for 3 subjects under the control condition, 2 subjects under the cognitive-fatigue condition, and 2 subjects under the interaction condition (in total 7 out of the 131 subjects under all four main conditions). Parameter estimates for some subjects result in extreme outliers due to the limited number of observations per subject, therefore parameters were trim at the 5th and 95th percentiles loosing 12 more observations for each parameter.

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APPENDICES FOR ONLINE PUBLICATION

A. Server-based Application

Consent Form

My name is Lydia Ashton; I am a graduate student researcher in the Agricultural and Resource Economics department. My advisor is Professor Sofia Villas-Boas in the Department of Agricultural and Resource Economics. I would like to invite you to take part in my study, which examines how people make decisions and will be conducted at the Experimental Social Science Lab (aka Xlab) at the University of California at Berkeley.

If you agree to take part, you will be asked to complete some questionnaires. The total time expected for completion of these activities should be about 60 to 90 minutes.. During the study, we may ask you to complete different tasks (e.g. arithmetical problems, economic decisions, food/drink tasting activity). We will also ask you to answer a survey with some demographic questions.

There are no direct benefits to you from this research. It is our hope that the research will benefit the scientific community and lead to a greater understanding of how individuals make decisions. There is little risk to you from taking part in this research. As with all research, there is a chance that confidentiality could be compromised; however, we are taking precautions to minimize this risk.

Your study data will be handled as confidentially as possible. The data will be stored in a password-protected computer in a secured location. Each person will have his/her own (anonymous) code number. Your name and other identifying information about you will not be used in the research. The information collected for payment and administrative purposes (name, student id, e-mail) will be kept in a separate password-protected location and the records linking your personal information to your code number will be destroyed after all payments are processed.

We will save data, using the anonymous code number, for use in future research done by others or myself but this data will not be linked to your personal information.

The total compensation you will receive will vary, depending on your experimental decisions/responses. The average compensation will be approximately \$15/hr with a minimum of \$10. We will send your compensation by Paypal today and/or in a future date (this will be determined by your responses through the survey). Although you may refuse to answer some question(s), you will not receive payment if you do not complete the study.

Please understand that your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You are free to decline to take part in the project. You can decline to answer any questions and are free to stop taking part in the project at any time. Whether or not you choose to participate in the research and whether or not you choose to answer a question or continue participating in the project, there will be no penalty to you or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

If you have any questions about the research, you may telephone me at (510) 394-XXXX or contact me by e-mail at lydia.ashton@berkeley.edu. You may also contact my advisor, Sofia Villas-Boas at (510) 643-XXXX/sberto@berkeley.edu.

If you have any question regarding your treatment or rights as a participant in this research project, please contact the University of California at Berkeley's, Committee for Protection of Human Subjects at (510) 642-XXXX, subjects@berkeley.edu.

If you agree to participate, please check the box below.

[] I certify that I am 18 years old or older, I have read the consent form, I do not have any food allergies or sensitivities, and I have not been diagnose with diabetes or hyperglycemia, and agree to take part in this research.

INSTRUCTIONS Thank you for volunteering to participate in this study. You will receive \$10 as a thank-you for your participation. The exact date in which this will be paid to you will be determined by your responses throughout the survey. Additional to this \$10 you can earn a compensation based on your answers to the problems and decisions in this survey. Please read the instructions carefully. We will use Paypal to disburse your compensation (this way you can be sure that it will be available to you on the promised date and that you will not have to come back to the lab to collect any turne payments). If you have any questions during the session please raise your hand and walt for one of the researchers to come to you. In this study, there will be \$6\text{ rounds with a decision or arithmetic task. Only one will be selected at random at the end of the experiment to determine your additional compensation. In each round you may face one of the following: • Decision Task: Choosing the date in which you would like to cash some tokens (e.g. in 2 weeks vs. in 4 weeks). The value of each token varies and increases with time. • Arithmetical Task: Solving 4 arithmetical problems correctly. After finalizing all of the rounds you will be ask to complete a brief questionnaire. The final payment will depend on which round is randomly selected by the computer to define your additional compensation. That is, if the selected round is a/an: • Decision Task: We will disburse your additional compensation according to your choices in the selected round. We will disburse half of the \$10 thank-you compensation in the earlier date stated in the selected decision, and the other half in the later late stated in the selected decision; independent of the choices you made in this decision. • Arithmetical Task: The computer will verify your answers (you must have answer all of the problems correctly) and calculate your additional compensation, which we will disburse on the date stated in the selected round along with the \$10 thank

Figure A1. Screenshot of Instructions

Period #1 (Time Left: 40 seconds)	
Arithmetical Problems If you solve correctly all of the following problems, you will receive 100 tokens, each worth:	
15¢ Today (Wednesday, November 12, 2014)	
55 + 96 + 87 = 48 + 52 + 18 = 53 + 62 + 76 = 58 + 23 + 39 =	
Submit You are logged in as ex	rp_251_04.

Figure A2. Screenshot of Arithmetical Round

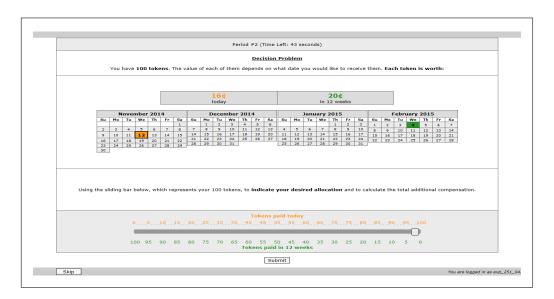


Figure A3. Screenshot of Decision Round (before decision)

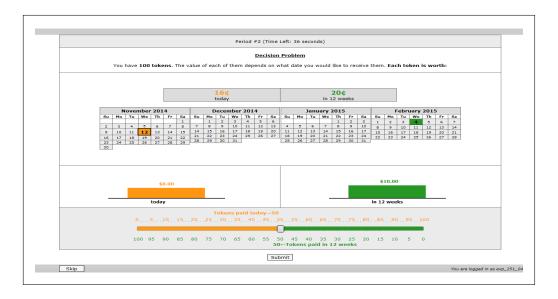


Figure A4. Screenshot of Decision Round (during/after decision)

Tasting Activity
Please read this instructions carefully. You will have about 15 minutes to:
1. Go to the table on the left side of the lab (behind the partition), take one of the bottles on the table and drink all of its contents as quickly as possible.
2. After you have finished the drink, hand the empty container to the researcher . The researcher will then hand a paper survey and a pen to you.
Come back to your desk and complete the paper survey.
4. After the time runs out click 'submit' to continue to the next task
Please note that if you finish the paper survey before the time runs you will have to wait to be able to click 'submit'.
Submit
You are logged in as exp_251_04.

Figure A5. Screenshot of Tasting Activity Instructions

Congratulations! You have completed the experiment. Thank you for your participation.
The round selected for payoff: 4.
You had 100 tokens to allocate between two dates at which you wish to receive the tokens.
Each token allocated to be received on Wednesday, December 10, 2014, is worth 20¢ while each token allocated to be received on Wednesday, December 24, 2014, is worth 25¢
You have chosen to allocate 0 tokens to be received on Wednesday, December 10, 2014 and 100 to be received on Wednesday, December 24, 2014.
Thus, you will receive additional \$0 on Wednesday, December 10, 2014 and \$25 on Wednesday, December 24, 2014.
Together with your participation fees, your total earnings from this session: \$35 (\$5 on Wednesday, December 10, 2014 and \$30 on Wednesday, December 24, 2014).
Please kindly provide the following details:
Name:
Email (we will use this email to send your compensation via Paypal):
Student ID:
Submit
You are logged in as exp_251_04

Figure A6. Screenshot of First Experimental Earnings Report

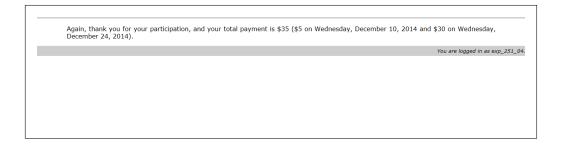


Figure A7. Screenshot of Last Experimental Earnings Report

B. Robustness Checks

In this appendix, I present a summarized version of extensive methodology used by Andreoni and Sprenger (2012) to etimate the aggregate-level parameters and present the corresponding estimates.

In CTB, subjects choose a combination of c_t and c_{t+k} continuously along the convex budget set

(B1)
$$(1+r)c_t + c_{t+k} = m,$$

where c_t and c_{t+k} represent the experimental earnings at an earlier and a later date, respectively. The experimental earnings are determined by choosing how many tokens of a total allocation of 100 tokens, they want cash on an earlier and/or a later payment date. The value of each token depends on which date the token is cash, and tokens cash on later dates generally have larger values. The choice sets used in the present study were chosen to resemble those used by Andreoni and Sprenger (2012), nevertheless the application design allows for better control of order effects and anchoring effects, since it presents each choice set as an independent round and facilitates the randomization of the order of all choices for each subject and well as randomly resetting the default allocation point for each round.²⁵

First, a time separable CRRA utility function with $(\beta-\delta)$ -parameters is used,

(B2)
$$U(c_t, c_{t+k}) = \frac{1}{\alpha} (c_t - \gamma_1)^{\alpha} + \beta (c_{t+k} - \gamma_2)^{\alpha},$$

where δ is the discount factor; β is the present bias parameter; c_t and c_{t+k} represent the experimental earnings at t and t+k, respectively; α is the CRRA curvature parameter; and γ_1 and γ_2 represent the Stone-Geary background consumption parameters. This form captures the present-biased time preferences, when $\beta < 1$; but can also be reduced to exponential discounting, when $\beta = 1$. Maximizing Equation B2 subject to the future value Equation B1 yields to the tangency condition

(B3)
$$\frac{c_t - \gamma_1}{c_{t+k} - \gamma_2} = \begin{cases} (\beta \delta^k (1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)} & \text{if } t = 0\\ (\delta^k (1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)} & \text{if } t > 0 \end{cases},$$

 $^{^{25}}$ Figure A4 and Figure A3 provide a screen shot of the decision rounds before and after a choice is made.

and the intertemporal formulation of a Stone-Geary linear demand for c_t , (B4)

$$c_{t} = \begin{cases} \left[\frac{\gamma_{1}}{1 + (1+r)(\beta\delta^{k}(1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)}} \right] + \left[\frac{((m-\gamma_{2})\beta\delta^{k}(1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)}}{1 + (1+r)(\beta\delta^{k}(1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)}} \right] & \text{if } t = 0\\ \left[\frac{\gamma_{1}}{1 + (1+r)(\delta^{k}(1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)}} \right] + \left[\frac{((m-\gamma_{2})\delta^{k}(1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)}}{1 + (1+r)(\delta^{k}(1+r))^{\left(\frac{1}{\alpha-1}\right)}} \right] & \text{if } t > 0 \end{cases}.$$

An alternate functional form for utility is used to check the robustness of the results, constant absolute risk aversion (CARA). When restricting $\gamma_1 = \gamma_2$ the background parameters are dropped in the exponential form. Therefore, the marginal condition can be written as

(B5)
$$\exp(-\rho(c_t - c_{t+k})) = \begin{cases} \beta \delta^k (1+r) & \text{if } t = 0\\ \delta^k (1+r) & \text{if } t > 0 \end{cases},$$

where ρ represents the coefficient of absolute risk aversion in the utility formulation $u(c_t) = -\exp(-\rho c_t)$. This can be reduce to the tangency condition

(B6)
$$c_t - c_{t+k} = \frac{\ln \beta}{-\rho} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{t=0} + \frac{\ln \delta}{-\rho} \cdot k + \frac{1}{-\rho} \cdot \ln(1+r),$$

and rearrange to the solution function

(B7)
$$c_t = \left(\frac{\ln \beta}{-rho}\right) \cdot \frac{\mathbb{1}_{t=0}}{-\rho}$$

Table B1 presents the joint estimates for the annual discount rate, $(1-\delta)^{365}-1$; the present bias parameter, $\hat{\beta}$; the CRRA or CARA utility function curvature, $\hat{\alpha}$ or $\hat{\rho}$ respectively; and the Stone-Geary background consumption parameter(s) estimated or used, $\hat{\gamma}_1$ and $\hat{\gamma}_2$.²⁶²⁷

 $^{^{26}\}mathrm{This}$ table mirrors Andreoni and Sprenger (2012)'s Table 2.

²⁷I use condition indicators on each of the time preference parameters (discount rate, present bias, and utility function curvature) to generate the joint estimates, i.e. I multiply each parameter of interest (by an indicator variable for each condition.

Table B1—Aggregate Parameters Estimates by Condition

	NLS	NLS	NLS	Tobit	NLS	Tobit	Tobit	Tobit
CONDITION	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Annual discount	rate							
Control	0.525	0.735	0.730	0.832	0.710	0.804	0.784	0.805
	(0.168)	(0.206)	(0.229)	(0.447)	(0.318)	(0.419)	(0.411)	(0.350)
Cognitive-fatigue	$1.034^{'}$	$1.485^{'}$	$1.646^{'}$	$2.589^{'}$	1.818	$2.468^{'}$	[2.390]	$2.164^{'}$
	(0.305)	(0.503)	(0.589)	(1.102)	(0.646)	(1.016)	(0.979)	(0.865)
Hunger	$1.045^{'}$	1.387	1.480	[2.215]	1.629	2.091	[2.047]	1.904
	(0.222)	(0.302)	(0.338)	(0.535)	(0.370)	(0.493)	(0.483)	(0.442)
Interaction	0.435	0.608	0.607	0.716	$0.543^{'}$	0.674	0.659	0.684
	(0.135)	(0.165)	(0.164)	(0.290)	(0.231)	(0.278)	(0.274)	(0.234)
Present bias: $\hat{\beta}$, ,	, ,	. ,	, ,	, ,	, ,	, ,	, ,
Control	1.001	0.999	1.001	1.015	1.013	1.015	1.015	1.009
	(0.004)	(0.010)	(0.011)	(0.020)	(0.015)	(0.019)	(0.019)	(0.016)
Cognitive-fatigue	0.998	0.990	0.993	0.996	$0.997^{'}$	0.996	[0.997]	0.994
o o	(0.006)	(0.022)	(0.025)	(0.040)	(0.027)	(0.037)	(0.037)	(0.033)
Hunger	0.989	0.949	$0.952^{'}$	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	$0.955^{'}$
_	(0.004)	(0.014)	(0.015)	(0.020)	(0.015)	(0.019)	(0.019)	(0.017)
Interaction	0.994	0.974	0.974	0.974	0.980	0.975	[0.976]	$0.974^{'}$
	(0.004)	(0.010)	(0.011)	(0.017)	(0.015)	(0.017)	(0.017)	(0.014)
CRRA/CARA	curvature	$\hat{\alpha}/\hat{\rho}$,	,	, ,	,	, ,	, ,
Control	0.925	0.932	0.867	0.978	0.562	0.839	0.008	0.007
	(0.013)	(0.012)	(0.021)	(0.005)	(0.050)	(0.032)	(0.002)	(0.001)
Cognitive-fatigue	0.881	0.888	0.806	0.976	0.499	0.825	0.009	0.008
	(0.022)	(0.019)	(0.024)	(0.004)	(0.051)	(0.028)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Hunger	0.892	0.911	0.845	0.979	0.582	0.847	0.008	0.007
	(0.016)	(0.015)	(0.017)	(0.004)	(0.034)	(0.024)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Interaction	0.932	0.941	0.891	0.984	0.614	0.879	0.006	0.005
	(0.012)	(0.010)	(0.013)	(0.003)	(0.033)	(0.021)	(0.001)	(0.001)
$\hat{\gamma_1}$ or $\hat{\gamma_1} = \hat{\gamma_2}$	2.8453	2.846	0	-0.01	-11.13	-11.13	_	_
/1 /1 /2	(0.323)	(0.332)	_	_	_		_	
$\hat{\gamma_2}$	0.496	(0.00-)						
12	(1.108)							
R^2/LL	0.59	0.59	0.59	-12477.4	0.58	-8410.4	-14272.0	-12649.6
N N	7064	7064	7064	7064	7064	7064	7064	7064
Uncensored	-	-	-	1981	-	1981	1981	1981
Clusters	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131
Clastels	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	101

Notes: Standard errors, clustered at the individual level and calculated via the delta method, in parenthesis. Annual discount rate calculated as $(\frac{1}{\delta})^{365}$. (1) Unrestricted CRRA regression of Equation B4. (2) CRRA regression of Equation B3 with restriction $\gamma_1 = \gamma_2$. (3)-(4) CRRA regression of Equation B4 and B3, respectively, with restriction $(\frac{1}{\delta})^{365} = 0$. (5)-(6) CRRA regression of Equation B4 and B3, respectively, with restriction $(\frac{1}{\delta})^{365} = -11.13$ (the negative of the average reported daily food expenditures*). (7)-(8) CARA regression of equation B7 and B6, respectively. *The sample reported a significantly higher average daily spending (831.21) than Andreoni and Sprenger (2012)'s sample, who noted that the CRRA curvature parameter was very sensitive increasing values of γ .

C. Low-dose Condition Subjects and Non-compliers

Given the hypothesis that less protein would results in higher levels of hunger, it is not surprising to find that subjects under the low-dose condition (23g of protein) cash slightly more tokens earlier (Table C1) than subjects under the control condition (Table IV), however the difference is not statistically significant. Similarly, the present bias parameter for subjects under the low-dose condition is imprecisely estimated below 1 (Table C2). Also, as shown in Section III, the only difference between compliers and non-compliers is that non-compliers report lower levels of hunger. Therefore, one would expect non-compliers without cognitive fatigue to behave similar to compliers under the control condition, and non-compliers with cognitive fatigue to behave similar to compliers under the cognitive-fatigue condition. In fact, if we compare the results presented in Table C1 and Table VI against the results presented in Table IV and Table C2, respectively, we can see that this is true in both cases.

Table C1—Mean Tokens Cashed Earlier by Condition and Immediacy of Earlier Payment Date

			Tokens (Cashed Earlier
Earlier Payment	CON	DITION	Mean (1)	Robust-SE (2)
All $(t = 0, 7, 35)$	L: NC: NF:	Low-dose (23g of protein) Non-compliers (without cognitive-fatigue) Non-compliers (with cognitive-fatigue) Observations R-squared Clusters	38.886 32.419 51.804 1549 0.49 29	8.146 8.863 7.163
${\bf Immediate}\;(t=0)$	L: NC: NF:	Low-protein Control (23g) Non-compliers (without cognitive-fatigue) Non-compliers (with cognitive-fatigue) Observations R-squared Clusters	39.373 32.810 50.331 515 0.48 29	6.995 9.220 8.445
Non-immediate $(t>0)$	L: NC: NF:	Low-dose (23g of protein) Non-compliers (without cognitive-fatigue) Non-compliers (with cognitive-fatigue) Observations R-squared Clusters	38.645 32.223 52.540 1034 0.49 29	8.844 8.754 6.637

Notes: Robust standard errors clustered at the individual level. Estimates are immune to demographic control (e.g. gender, age), survey controls (e.g. order), time-of-the-day fixed effects, and/or date fixed effects.

Table C2—Estimates and Treatment Effects on Aggregate Parameter Estimates

		Para	meter
CONI	DITION	Coefficient (1)	Robust-SE (2)
A	ual discount rate		
L:	Low-dose (23g of protein)	0.907	0.386
NF:	Non-compliers (with cognitive-fatigue)	1.984	0.753
NC:		0.515	0.733 0.329
NC:	Non-compliers (without cognitive-fatigue)	0.515	0.529
Prese	ent bias: $\hat{\beta}$		
L:	Low-dose (23g of protein)	0.984	0.018
NF:	Non-compliers (with cognitive-fatigue)	1.025	0.043
NC:	Non-compliers (without cognitive-fatigue)	1.025	0.012
CDD	A curvature: $\hat{\alpha}$		
L:	Low-dose (23g of protein)	0.892	0.022
NF:	Non-compliers (with cognitive-fatigue)	0.797	0.053
NC:	Non-compliers (with cognitive-fatigue)	0.862	0.032
1,0.	Tron-complicis (without cognitive-latigue)	0.002	0.002
	Observations	1578	
	R-squared	0.57	
	Clusters	29	

Notes: Robust standard errors clustered at the individual level.

D. Individual Parameter Estimates

Table D1—Individual Parameter Estimates

	Proportion of Responses			
al Rate $\hat{\beta}$	rlier All Earlie	Zero Earlier		
.000	1.000	.000		
816 .970		1.000		
78 .970	.164	.836		
17 1.001	.018	.982		
07 .999	.164	.836		
005 1.045		.200		
18 1.001		.964		
524 1.030		.545		
82 .966	.382	.545		
355 1.007		.255		
19 1.018		.873		
13 1.000		.873		
13 1.012		.764		
17 1.016	.036	.818		
80 .950	.127	.655		
.944	.291	.473		
78 .915	.327	.400		
705 .963	.364	.364		
23 1.000	.127	.600		
501 .818	.473	.091		
145 .942	.236	.273		
.994	.273	.164		
53 1.063	.036	.364		
21 1.009	.055	.327		
312 1.106	.255	.055		
275 1.241	.182	.091		
	.127	.000		
350 1.060	.018	.018		
1.079	.000	.018		

Table D2—Individual Parameter Estimates

					Pro	oportion of Res	ponses
Condition	Subject ID	Annual Rate	\hat{eta}	\hat{lpha}	Interior	Zero Earlier	All Earlier
	31		.000	-27.041	.000	.000	1.000
	80	10.455	1.230	.870	.000	.273	.727
	60	1.137	1.019	.952	.000	.636	.364
	105	1.948	.816	.961	.000	.382	.618
	41	.444	.975	.977	.000	.782	.218
	132	.707	.733	.999	.000	.582	.418
	125	.117	1.001	.999	.000	.982	.018
	129	.116	1.001	.999	.000	.982	.018
	131	.117	1.001	.999	.000	.982	.018
	147	.119	1.001	.999	.000	.982	.018
	23		.000	-21.535	.018	.000	.982
n	66	.306	.987	.999	.018	.818	.164
ň	86	.904	1.001	.824	.055	.545	.400
ti ti	12	8.335	.824	.850	.073	.164	.764
fa	13	.120	1.001	.999	.073	.909	.018
ė	8	.886	1.005	.970	.091	.691	.218
Cognitive-fatigue	152	59.594	.997	.773	.109	.091	.800
Ē	68	1.177	1.053	.860	.145	.418	.436
oo O	107	1.186	1.075	.985	.164	.509	.327
Ö	51	11.953	1.192	.860	.200	.127	.673
	40	1.445	1.019	.937	.218	.473	.309
	73	10.421	1.024	.992	.218	.109	.673
	63	1.814	.972	.910	.273	.327	.400
	28	3.135	1.093	.800	.345	.291	.364
	47	4.745	1.038	.924	.382	.091	.527
	156	13.547	.925	.808	.491	.036	.473
	146	17.817	.934	.896	.545	.000	.455
	95	1480.669	.002	966	.582	.000	.418
	77	2.835	.775	.794	.727	.000	.273
	137	3.372	.831	.766	.745	.164	.091
	6	3.184	1.042	.378	.927	.036	.036

Table D3—Individual Parameter Estimates

Condition	Subject ID	Annual Rate	\hat{eta}	\hat{lpha}	Proportion of Responses		
					Interior	Zero Earlier	All Earlier
	108	$2.180e^{11}$	7.096	.762	.000	.073	.927
	65	8.697	.559	.702	.000	.073	.818
	157	1.076	.996	.190	.000	.162 .745	.255
	134	.117	1.001	.999	.000	.982	.018
	139	.117	1.001 1.001	.999	.000	.982	.018
	32	7.799	1.163	.999 .873	.036	.236	.727
	50	.723	1.103 1.004	1.000	.036	.782	.182
	121	1.107	.876	.941	.055	.564	.382
	$\frac{121}{144}$	1.816	.970	.949	.055	.400	.545
	120	2.190	.783	.999	.055	.400	.545
	49	1.059	.882	.953	.127	.527	.345
	96	5.717	.935	.880	.145	.200	.655
	69	3.133	.971	.970	.182	.255	.564
	76	.856	.995	.961	.218	.636	.145
	104	3.041	.955	.860	.309	.200	.491
	30	083	.940	.880	.309	.582	.109
	36	5.000	.898	.917	.327	.127	.545
er	58	.922	1.003	.931	.364	.400	.236
ng	114	4.227	.905	.945	.364	.127	.509
Hunger	109	8.514	.903	.902	.382	.000	.618
프	1	.523	1.061	.928	.382	.582	.036
	34	631	.658	.667	.455	.436	.109
	43	1.789	.906	.919	.473	.200	.327
	33	1.464	1.012	.961	.491	.309	.200
	62	2.517	.959	.871	.509	.164	.327
	90	4.179	1.007	.848	.545	.127	.327
	52	7.543	.927	.768	.582	.000	.418
	20	.217	.944	.836	.691	.291	.018
	111	3.454	.795	.778	.727	.073	.200
	127	6.194	.878	.860	.764	.018	.218
	39	1.354	1.052	.876	.782	.036	.182
	142	2153.365	.852	041	.909	.000	.091
	59	057	1.032	.908	.927	.073	.000
	29	10.270	1.001	.147	.945	.018	.036
	11	1.011	.950	.875	.964	.036	.000
	102	930	1.145	-4.268	.982	.018	.000
	159	992	1.252	.048	1.000	.000	.000

Table D4—Individual Parameter Estimates

Condition	Subject ID	Annual Rate		\hat{lpha}	Pro	oportion of Res	ponses
			\hat{eta}		Interior	Zero Earlier	All Earlie
Interaction	25	.670	.952	.965	.000	.673	.327
	84	.226	1.037	.982	.000	.836	.164
	83	2.192	1.000	.999	.000	.400	.600
	113	.116	1.001	.999	.000	.982	.018
	136	-1.000	2.190	.820	.018	.982	.000
	74	.298	.994	.951	.018	.855	.127
	78	1.101	.945	.963	.018	.600	.382
	99	1.114	.948	.979	.018	.600	.382
	160	.187	.987	1.000	.018	.945	.036
	87	.199	.986	1.000	.018	.945	.036
	148	5.946	.737	.873	.036	.200	.764
	116	3.043	.824	.945	.036	.273	.691
	128	-1.000	14.549	.283	.055	.945	.000
	14	4.081	.821	.929	.055	.218	.727
	154	.675	.906	.954	.055	.564	.382
	26	.885	.943	.970	.055	.600	.345
	3	.214	.977	.999	.073	.873	.055
	57				.073	.745	.182
	54	.732	1.054	.966	.091	.764	.145
	2	.128	.974	.975	.091	.873	.036
	124	2.208	1.001	1.000	.127	.436	.436
	79	2.981	1.063	.889	.145	.327	.527
	53	044	1.916	.973	.145	.855	.000
	151	3.919	.741	.836	.327	.145	.527
	72	.724	1.098	1.000	.345	.527	.127
	138	.788	.983	.922	.436	.418	.145
	88	755	1.373	.690	.509	.491	.000
	101	.447	1.041	.942	.527	.345	.127
	81	1.015	.801	.762	.564	.218	.218
	143	2.140	.941	.880	.709	.091	.200
	85	3.724	1.047	.779	.855	.000	.145
	93	.554	.855	.848	.855	.018	.127
	106	.356	1.004	.673	.891	.091	.018
	110	14.148	.706	668	.945	.000	.055

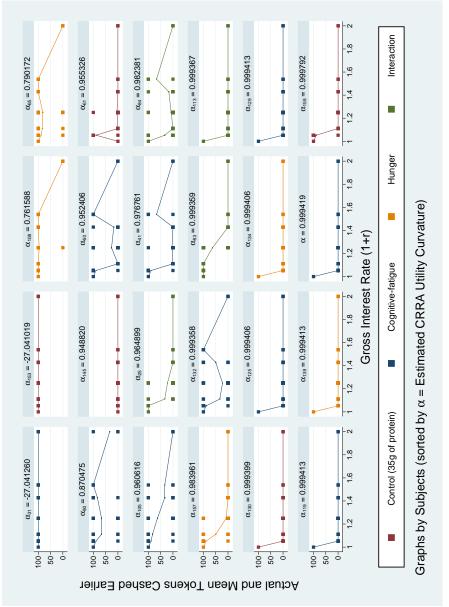


Figure D1. Actual and Mean Tokens Cashed Earlier by Subjects without Interior Solutions