

Demonstrability, difficulty and persuasion: An experimental study of advice taking

Robert Hofmann^{a,*}, Thomas Chesney^b, Swee-Hoon Chia^f, Florian Kofk^d,
Jeremy Larner^b

^aBehavioural Business Lab, School of Economics, Finance and Marketing, RMIT University, Melbourne, Victoria 3000, Australia

^bNottingham University Business School, University of Nottingham, Nottingham NG8 1BB, UK

^fTasmanian School of Business and Economics, University of Tasmania, Hobart, Tasmania 7001, Australia

^dCopenhagen Business School, 2000 Frederiksberg, Denmark

ABSTRACT

Self-interested paid advisors should try to sell their solutions no matter how they fare about. However, we present evidence that advisor persuasiveness depends on two dimensions of their prior problem solving: solution difficulty and demonstrability. We report a laboratory experiment with repeated advisor-client interactions where both these dimensions are independently varied. Persuasion rises in solution demonstrability and falls in difficulty. The reason is non-optimising behaviour: Advisors lacking in confidence fail to solve difficult problem solving and those receiving their advice balk when the proposed solution lacks objective success criteria irrespective of its promise. Our findings suggest differential prospects for persuasion and selling of different kinds of products, services and ideas.

1. Introduction

Good outcomes often entail the risk of relying on the decision making of better-informed advisors who may be biased (Chakraborty & Harbaugh, 2007, 2010; Dillek & Kersfhabmer, Mar. 2006; Emons, 1997; Wolinsky, 1993). In these situations, advisors first solve a decision problem and acquire private information and then persuade their clients of the correctness of their solution (e.g. Green & Stokey, 2007). These interactions are persuasion situations because advisors have motive and opportunity to mislead those who require their advice. Because of the ubiquity and importance of these kinds of situation, the underlying persuasion process between information sender (advisor) and receiver (client) is a central topic in different fields of social science.

We report the first experimental study of whether and how certain characteristics of the sender's decision problem affect the extent to which their advice is accepted. We explore two ways in which advisor choices may vary: first, Laighlin (1980) differentiates decision problem types along a spectrum of solution demonstrability. On one end, intellectual decision problems (e.g. mathematical or lexical questions) have objectively appraisable solutions reached through a series of steps while judgment problems (e.g. ethical or aesthetic questions) typically lead to intuitive solutions which are harder to demonstrate to others. Second, advisor decision problems differ in how easy or difficult the correct solution is to determine (Pitfhik & Sfhotter, 1987).

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* Corresponding author.

We examine whether and how the demonstrability and difficulty of decision problems independently affect information transmission and persuasion between sender and receiver. In standard theory, a rational and self-interested sender's advice should maximise her own payoffs irrespective of the nature of her decision problem or private information (Chakraborty & Harbaugh, 2007, 2010) as long as her communication constitutes cheap talk, i.e. is costless and unverifiable (Farrell & Rabin, 1996). However, in real settings, the nature of the sender's decision problem may affect persuasion through both sender and receiver behaviour. For the sender, more difficult tasks may reduce her confidence and, in turn, persuasion (e.g. Petty, Briñol, & Tormala, 2002; Sah, Moore, & MafCoin, 2013; Tenney, Spellman, & MafCoin, 2008). One reason is psychological distance (lying costs), and another a pro-social regard for the receiver (Abeler, Becker, & Falk, 2014; Lindqvist, Ellingsen, Gribbe, & Johannesson, 2009).

Receiver behaviour may also be affected by decision problem characteristics. In real situations clients receiving advice are commonly aware of solution demonstrability and may temper their responses accordingly. This is because unlike difficulty, demonstrability is not a characteristic of a particular decision problem but a decision problem type to which any given problem may or may not belong. Low demonstrability requires greater trust by receivers to the extent that senders are unable to evidence the correctness of their answers.

In our sender-receiver experiment we vary demonstrability and difficulty independently and systematically and examine the effects on persuasion. The next section develops our theoretical base and motivation which we then illustrate using the example of venture capital (Section 3). In Section 4 we outline the experimental design, its implementation, followed by the variables we obtain and research hypotheses. Results are contained in Section 5. We conclude and discuss policy implications in Section 6.

2. Background

2.1. Persuasion

Interpersonal persuasion is voluntary change in attitudes or behaviour of one individual that another intends through communication (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991, p. 127). Most empirical studies in social psychology have used an experimental paradigm to measure attitude change in participants who receive persuasive messages (Ajzen, 2012, p. 384; chap. 15; O'Keefe, 2002, p. 23; chap. 7). The causal and moderating factors of attitude change identified in this literature include the motives and characteristics of both sender and receiver (Petty, Wegener, & Fabrigar, 1997; Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991), of the content and medium of communication as well as of the situation (Cialdini, 1988; Janis et al., 1959).

In contrast, the persuasion literature in economics focuses on overt behaviour. A sender transmits private information relevant to a receiver's decision which determines both parties' payoffs. The question is to what extent receivers can glean useful information from a (rational) sender who communicates strategically through cheap talk (Crawford, 1998; Farrell & Rabin, 1996; van Winden, 1999). Studies have found that senders transmit more information than is rational (Cali & Wang, 2006) potentially due to lying aversion (Sánchez-Pagés & Vorsatz, 2007) or the use of heuristics (Wang, Spezio, & Camerer, 2010).

In both psychology and economics sender private information is generally preferred. However, in many realistic persuasion situations sender advice depends on solving a prior decision problem. For example, Green and Stokey (2007) study a two-person organisation where one is responsible for collecting information and the other for making decisions on its basis while their interests diverge. However there are no existing studies that examine how the nature of a sender's prior decision problem affects advice and its transmission.

2.2. Demonstrability

Laighlin and colleagues suggest that decision problems differ by the extent to which the correctness of their solutions can be evidenced (Laighlin, 1980, 1999; Laighlin, Chandler, Shipe, Magley, & Hilbert, 1995; Laighlin & Ellis, 1986; Laighlin & Hollingshead, 1995; Laighlin & Shipe, 1996; Stasser & Stewart, 1992). Three factors contribute to solution demonstrability. One is the degree to which alternative solutions can be compared using a definitive and objective success criterion. The second is the extent to which the determination of the best solution involves a series of logical steps of reasoning (e.g. forensic evidence trails or clinical drug trials). The third factor is a shared conceptual (or epistemological) system within which both the solution success criterion and reasoning steps are established.

Problems in science and engineering generally possess objective criteria for solutions which can be arrived at through a series of steps within accepted methodology. In contrast, decision problems involving ethical or aesthetic judgments are examples of low solution demonstrability. Here the success of a solution lies in the eye of the beholder. It results from snap judgements and intuition rather than a series of logical steps. Moreover, judgements are subjective to the extent that the underlying moral or aesthetic norms are not universally shared.

Any decision problem can in principle be placed on a spectrum of demonstrability (Laighlin & Hollingshead, 1995; Laighlin & Shipe, 1996). Laighlin and Ellis (1986) find that the degree of demonstrability significantly facilitates agreement among decision group members. In the following we report the first application of demonstrability to the sender-receiver game literature. Our work also contributes to the demonstrability literature in that we examine it in dyadic (rather than group) interactions with asymmetric information and conflict of interest (for a recent application to team decisions see ("Persuasion: experimental study of team decision making," 2016)).

2.3. Difficulty

Most previous work assumes sender private information to be perfect, i.e. known to be correct with certainty. Instead we consider situations where private information is generated through imperfect sender decision making. For example, in [Pitthik and Sfhotter's \(1987\)](#) model of consumer advice an advisor's competence is variable so that advice is incorrect with some probability. In many other realistic scenarios the quality of private information may be variable. Retailers and sales negotiators not involved in the production process often have only partial knowledge regarding product specifications and quality. Similarly, financial advisors cannot perfectly predict the future performance of different investment products. In these cases the sender acquires her private information through search subject to perception and processing errors leading to imperfect information.

Sender advice therefore varies in quality depending on her competence and the problem's characteristics. We are interested here in the latter, the inherent solvability of the problem itself. We define difficulty as the ex ante probability that a randomly-chosen decision maker will identify the correct solution. We examine whether increasing problem difficulty (and therefore decreasing information quality) will lead to less persuasion in practice. In theory, unless the situation is repeated ([Golosov, Skreta, Tsyvinski, & Wilson, 2014](#)), any sender information quality is irrelevant to the game's outcome since cheap talking senders have an incentive to exaggerate (e.g. [Chakraborty & Harbaugh, 2010](#)). However, with greater difficulty, senders may exploit private information less due to altruism, self-consciousness, reputation or ethical principles creating a kind of first-of-knowledge (see [Camerer, Loewenstein, & Weber, 1989, p. 1244](#)). In this sense, talk is not cheap because deception entails a psychological cost ([Abeler et al., 2014](#)).

3. An illustration: venture capital

Venture capital illustrates how demonstrability and difficulty affect persuasion. Entrepreneurs identify business opportunities and solutions for their exploitation that require funding from venture capitalists. This interaction is characterized by both asymmetric information and misaligned interests. Entrepreneurs have greater knowledge of the opportunity and the incentive to maximise outside investment while venture capitalists lose from investing in insufficient projects ([Carpentier & Siret, 2015; Martens, Jennings, & Devreaux, 2007; van Werven, Boivmeester, & Cornelissen, 2015](#)). Venture capitalists must glean useful information (and disregard misinformation) from the entrepreneur's storytelling or "pitching" to persuade them ([de Bettignies & Brander, 2007; Herzenstein, Sonenshein, & Dholakia, 2011; Martens et al., 2007; Pollack & Bosse, 2014](#)).

In terms of the illustration we examine whether investment depends on the nature of the venture creation decision problem. Venture creation situations differ both in how accurately business opportunities can be identified, assessed and developed, and how easily their prospects can be demonstrated. On one end of the demonstrability spectrum there are projects that can be evaluated in a series of steps according to objective criteria such as sales forecasts or technical feasibility studies for new products. In the pharmaceutical and natural resource extraction industries, the prospects of particular projects can often be ascertained and documented with reference to research (e.g. clinical trial data and geophysical surveys).

On the other end, projects in the creative and aesthetic realms, such as entertainment production or fashion, lack objective criteria but depend on judgment to anticipate the subjective aesthetic evaluations of others. For example, due to uncertain market and demand conditions, movie making is increasingly funded by venture capital investment based on the vision and competence of artistic entrepreneurs that determine success ([DeFillippi & Arthur, 1998](#)). The combination of uncertain public reception and highly specific individual competence make the prospects of movie projects hard to demonstrate.

Consumer electronics represent an industry in the middle of the demonstrability scale because of a mixture of technical performance features that can be demonstrated, and aesthetic ones that cannot (e.g. Apple's Power Mac G4 Cube, [Linzmayr, 2004, p. 299](#)). Another example is that of project-based professional services (software, financial, legal and management consulting). While performance criteria (such as previous sales and returns, courtroom success or subsequent performance of the consulted firm) can be documented, the idiosyncrasy of projects and the importance of individual personnel redefine their feasibility.

Venture creation projects also differ in terms of the difficulty of assessing their prospects. Oil and gas exploration projects may be assessed more or less easily depending on the nature and location of particular natural resource deposits. New consumer product technology may involve either breakthrough or marginal innovation. Artistic projects such as movies or music talent spotting may involve obvious and unequivocal or more risky prospects.

4. Experiment

We conducted an experiment to examine the effects of demonstrability and difficulty on the persuasiveness of senders.

4.1. Phases

Participants completed experimental tasks in three phases (see [Fig.](#)) where the first two (A and B) serve as controls and preparation for the proper measurement of persuasion in phase C.

In phase C (fommination phase) each sender is matched with every receiver for a total of 9 interactions using round-robin matching (every sender with every receiver in the experimental session). In each such interaction the sender is presented with a pair of images and asked to identify the correct one in response to a true-or-false question. The sender then decides any part of 100 points to invest in her answer. The receiver observes the question the sender must answer but not sender decision, the amount invested or the actual images shown. Following the sender decisions there is a fixed period of unrestricted 2-way fommination between sender

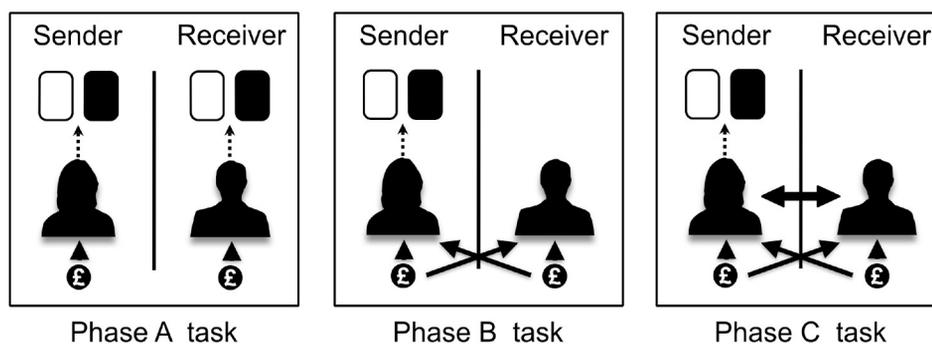


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of the experimental tasks in the three phases.

and receiver. Next, the receiver decides which part of a stake of 100 points to invest in the sender's image answer. Note in this design the decision problem is given only to the sender not the receiver, unlike the Laighlin group decision studies. The payoffs for each sender and each receiver respectively are their own invested points plus 1.5 times their invested points if the sender's image answer was correct. All invested points are forfeited if the sender's answer is incorrect. Both sender and receiver are also given the other's earnings from the invested points.

Consider an illustration. The sender is shown the Mifkey Moise image pair in Fig. 2 and answers the question, "Which is more black?" with the one on the right, and then decides to invest 50 points. The sender then communicates with the receiver who then invests 20 points in the sender's answer which turns out to be correct. The sender receives $(50 + 50 \times 1.5) = 125$ points from her own decision plus an additional $(20 \times 1.5) = 30$ based on the receiver's investment for a total of 155. The receiver earns $80 + (20 \times 1.5) = 110$ from his own decision plus $50 \times 1.5 = 75$ from the sender's investment decision for a total of 185. Had the sender's answer been incorrect the earnings would have been $(50 + 50 \times 0) + (20 \times 0) = 50$. The receiver would have earned $(80 + 20 \times 0) + (50 \times 0) = 80$.

The logic of this task is as follows. Because the sender receives any earnings the receiver makes from investing in the sender's image answer, the sender has an incentive to communicate so to persuade the receiver to invest the maximum irrespective of the sender's own confidence in her image answer. The receiver (who cannot change the investment decision already made by the sender) may benefit from communication only by correctly gauging the likelihood of a correct image answer from the sender and invest accordingly.² The receiver's investment reflects, to an extent, the degree of persuasion.

Phase C was preceded by two additional phases (Fig. 1): first, A (familiarisation), followed by B (blind). Phase B proceeded in exactly the same fashion as Phase C except that there was no possibility of communication. Further there were only three image pairs, one of each type. The rationale for Phase B is that receiver investment in Phase C may be motivated by factors beyond communication with the sender, such as receiver risk appetite. Phase B generates observations we use to control for these factors. In addition, there was a Phase A in which both senders and receivers see and invest in 9 image pairs and receive earnings only from their own decisions without any communication between them. The purpose was to allow senders as well as receivers to familiarise themselves with the image tasks (and their own affairs) before performing investments in sender image decisions in phases B and C. Every participant was shown different image pairs in every interaction in Phases A and B which, as in Phase C, differed in terms of demonstrability as well as difficulty. These pairs were also different to the ones shown in Phase C: No participant saw the same image pair more than once in the experiment.

4.2. Treatments

Nine different image pairs were used in Phase C to manipulate our two treatment variables demonstrability and difficulty as shown in Fig. 2. Demonstrability was varied three ways using three kinds of image task based on Laighlin (1980). For skill, the highest demonstrability condition, we used perceptual discrimination tasks. Participants were asked to indicate which of the two pure black and white images (one a colour inversion of the other) had more black pixels. The answer is in principle demonstrable to the extent that it can be derived by a series of operations (Laighlin, 1980), e.g. by dividing the image into equal-sized squares and counting the balance of black to white ones. For knowledge, our intermediate level of demonstrability, we used a semantic memory task. Each of the two images showed a different photograph of a famous international landmark and participants were asked which was in a particular country. So-called world knowledge problems such as this lie in the middle of the demonstrability spectrum (Laighlin, 2011, pp. 93, 110). While there is a single true-or-false success criterion, the demonstrability of correct answers here is limited by the extent to which senders can accurately convey the contents of the two images, and their reasons for determining the

¹ For senders this feature provides the incentive to persuade. For receivers it has been added in the interest of symmetry, i.e. to avoid potential effects on investment decisions from envy or guilt arising from unequal opportunities for payoffs (e.g. Jordan, McAuliffe, & Rand, 2015; Kirshsteiger, 1994).

² The task is a mixed-motive (non-zero-sum) game to the extent that motives increasingly overlap with the (uncertain) degree of sender accuracy.

Table 1
Experimental variables.

Variable	Phase	Obs	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max	Range
Behavioural variables							
SINV	C	1053	72.59	29.5	0	100	{0 ...100}
STIME	C	1050	8.98	6.1	0	20	
SACC	C	1053	0.79	0.4	0	1	{0,1}
SCLAIM	C	505	79.15	26.9	0	100	
RINV	C	1053	66.84	34.3	0	100	{0 ...100}
BLIND RINV	B	351	51.56	32.4	0	100	{0 ...100}
PERS	B and C	1053	15.28	39.0	-100	100	{-100 ...100}
Treatment variables							
COMM	B and C	1404	0.75	0.4	0	1	{0,1}
DEMO	C	1053	2.00	0.8	1	3	{1,2,3}
SKILL	C	1053	0.33	0.5	0	1	{0,1}
KNOW	C	1053	0.33	0.5	0	1	{0,1}
JUDGE	C	1053	0.33	0.5	0	1	{0,1}
DIFF	C	1053	2.00	0.8	1	3	{1,2,3}

4.4. Variables and hypotheses

Our experiment generated a dataset with observations concerning 1053 sender-receiver games in phase C, i.e. 9 senders being matched with each of 9 receivers in every one of 13 sessions. Experimental variables are shown in Table 1. At the level of each game, we observe whether the sender's decision is affirmative (SACC = 0 or 1), the time in seconds the image selection decision took (STIME), the total points both sender and receiver invest (between 0 and 100) in the sender's image answer (SINV and RINV) and an incentive-compatible measure of the confidence a sender has in her decision. RINV is our main dependent variable as it constitutes the target of sender persuasion attempts. Because RINV in phase C reflects both the effect of information and receiver-specific motives to invest we derive a measure of persuasion (PERS) as the difference between RINV in phase C and RINV in phase B (BLIND RINV). The latter variable is for a given interaction the average of what the sender concerned invested into images of the same image type in phase B. For the same reason we use a dummy variable to indicate phase C (COMM = 1 else 0). We also examined that logs and recorded observations for 505 games where senders made claims about the amount they invested (SCLAIM). We created ordinal variables for the difficulty treatment (DIFF = 1 for easy, =2 for moderate and = 3 for hard) as well as for demonstrability (DEMO = 3 for skill, =2 for knowledge and = 1 for judgment). SKILL, KNOW and JUDGE are separate dummy variables for each of these three levels of demonstrability.

The central proposition of this paper is that persuasion is positively related to demonstrability, and negatively to difficulty. Our hypotheses for the relationships between these variables are based on the following conceptual framework (Fig. 3). Persuasion is the result of the interaction between sender and receiver based on the sender's prior decision problem which is characterized by demonstrability and difficulty. The sender's confidence in her solution, proxied by SINV results from difficulty of the decision problem alone and not its demonstrability (H1).

Hypothesis 1. Difficulty has a negative effect on SINV, however, demonstrability does not affect SINV.

In the subsequent interaction, information from the sender results in persuasion of the receiver. One important component of the information that we measure is the amount the sender claims to have invested. While rational and income maximizing senders will exaggerate their own investments, this amount mirrors real investments to the extent that senders are honest (H2). A sender with sufficiently strong aversion to lying or with pro-social preferences may report SINV correctly. Difficulty therefore affects persuasion through sender confidence and message. Note that because senders do not know their own affinity, SACC is not hypothesized to influence either SINV or SCLAIM. Feedback was provided only after the task.

Hypothesis 2. SINV has a positive effect on SCLAIM.

RINV reflects persuasion in the extent to which a receiver's investment decision is influenced by sender's claim. A receiver's decision to invest is influenced by the sender's claim (H3). Further, because receivers know demonstrability independently, its level positively affects the receiver's decision to invest to the extent that receivers are reluctant to take solutions that cannot be evidenced on trust (H4).

Hypothesis 3. SCLAIM has a positive effect on PERS.

Hypothesis 4. DEMO has a positive effect on PERS.

Finally, sender decision affinity depends on difficulty but not demonstrability (H5). Harder decisions are less likely to yield

⁴In 12 of the 505 games senders under-claimed their investments, i.e. < SCLAIM. We did not use these data.

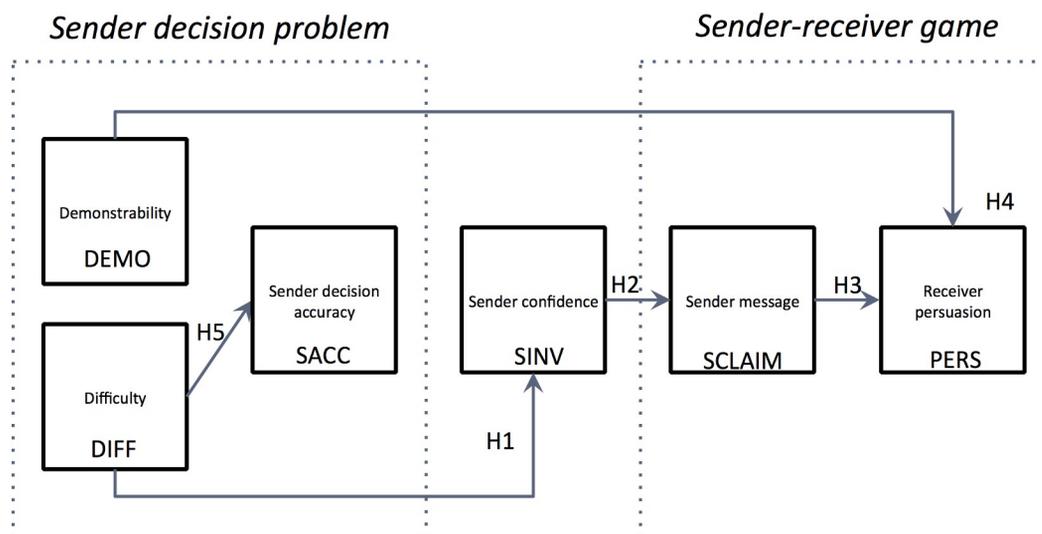


Fig. 3. Conceptual model with experimental variables and research hypotheses.

difficult solution irrespective of demonstrability which does not affect the sender's ability to find it.

Hypothesis 5. DIFF, but not DEMO, has a negative effect on SACC.

5. Results

5.1. Participant communication

Our hypotheses concern the effects of two main independent variables, DIFF and DEMO, on persuasion. We begin by examining the text that transcripts for evidence that the difficulty of the senders' decision problems and the demonstrability of the correctness of their solutions indeed featured in the persuasion process as expressed in their communications.

Senders and receivers each typically sent between 5 and 10 messages during their 90-s exchange. Apart from banter, conversations were mostly information exchange relevant to the task. Typically receivers asked questions that senders responded to. These questions were mostly about task difficulty and demonstrating solution correctness. For difficulty, most receivers asked senders how difficult they thought the task was, how certain they were about their answers and how much they invested in terms of demonstrability; receivers tended to ask about the image types, descriptions of the image particularities and the senders' solution processes. Senders often described the images, how they arrived at their solutions and what objective criteria they used.

An exchange between two participants that contains these elements is shown in Fig. 4. After claiming complete confidence, the receiver deconstructs the image of Abraham Lincoln into separate elements (background, suit), a procedure that is continued by the receiver (face, arms) resulting in an overall estimation of the black-white balance. As discussed, the determination of a solution using logical steps (the number and size of different elements of a picture) is one aspect of solution demonstrability. Other aspects of demonstrability were used for the other image types. For example, many senders attempted to invoke objective criteria to the low-demonstrability beauty task. These included resemblance to famous people, blond hair and blue eyes and perceived health of the models that senders judged more attractive.

It should be noted that there was considerable variation in both the length and nature of sender-receiver exchanges which exhibited these different persuasive appeals and questions to different extents. However, we interpret these findings to support that both difficulty and demonstrability were used by participants in the persuasion process.

5.2. Regression results

We now turn to the analysis of the data from the experiment. Summary statistics for our variables are shown in Table 1. Distributions of behavioral variables over the experimental conditions are displayed in Fig. 5. Our focus is the effect of demonstrability and difficulty on the persuasion process captured by SACC, SINV, SCLAIM and RINV according to our hypotheses and conceptual model (see Fig. 3).

We first analyze our data using a standard regression approach. Results are presented in Table 2. Because of repeated observations for individual participants we use a participant-level random-effects approach. We only use data from phase C for all variables but BLIND RINV. We start by examining the effect of difficulty on the sender's decision (H 5). Regression model 1 supports this hypothesis in that more difficult images significantly raise less accurate sender decisions that while demonstrability had no effect on accuracy.

Sender: Hello mate
 Receiver: Hi
 Sender: I'm 100% sure I got it right :)
 Sender: invest 100
 Receiver: How certain were you of your answer
 Receiver: how long did it take
 Sender: Not lying haha I just want to get the money
 Receiver: me too
 Receiver: how long did it take
 Sender: Not long, it was a politician
 Receiver: great
 Receiver: which one
 Sender: and the background was black and his suit was black
 Receiver: and his face
 Sender: so only about 30% was white
 Receiver: and arms
 Sender: so it was definitely black
 Sender: arms white
 Sender: face white
 Receiver: face
 Sender: and thats it
 Sender: the rest was black
 Receiver: arms were white
 Receiver: ?

Fig. 4. Text message exchange between two participants. The task is the Abraham Linfoln pair shown in Fig. 2.

Model 2 includes an index for the timing of the experimental session to test whether participant collision between sessions would have affected their ability to solve the image task. This variable is insignificant suggesting there was no effect of collision on accuracy. Similar to model 1, in model 3 where SINV is the dependent variable, difficulty but not demonstrability is a significant influence, supporting H1. Model 4 further supports the insignificance of demonstrability by replacing this variable with dummies for the knowledge and skill tasks, where judgment is the baseline. Neither of these coefficients is significant.

Models 5 and 6 examine effects on sender claims (SCLAIM). Again demonstrability is not significant. In support of H2, SINV is a significant explainer when added in model 6. Senders are honest to the extent that their claims are tempered by what they really invested. Difficulty becomes insignificant when SINV is added because the influence of difficulty operates indirectly through sender confidence.

Models 7-11 focus on the major issue, the effect of difficulty and demonstrability on persuasion, proxied by ⁵RINV diagrams in Fig. 5 for PERS and RINV (bottom panel) suggest that persuasion falls with difficulty. They also suggest that persuasion falls when we compare skill with judgment, the highest and lowest levels of demonstrability. Averaged over all levels of difficulty, both average PERS and RINV are higher for skill (16.2 and 67.8) than judgment (10.4 and 62.0). To examine these effects we regress persuasion proxied by RINV on difficulty and demonstrability using BLIND RINV as a control for effects on receiver investment other than femininifation. Difficulty is negative and significant throughout: Harder tasks reduce persuasion. Model 7 shows that demonstrability is significant supporting H4.

While Laighlin and colleagues propose demonstrability changes along a spectrum (Laighlin & Hollingshead, 1995; Laighlin & Shipe, 1996), it is clear that such a spectrum, if it exists, would be ordinal rather than continuous in nature to the extent that skill, judgment and knowledge tasks are different in kind rather than merely in degree. We therefore examine whether the effect of demonstrability holds when we examine these three separately. In model 8 we again replace demonstrability with dummies for skill and knowledge and reveals that beyond the lowest level of demonstrability (judgment), both skill and knowledge tasks raise persuasion. Further regressions (not reported) reveal that when one of these two lower demonstrability levels is used as a baseline, the

⁵As a robustness test we re-estimated these models using PERS as the dependent variable without the control for BLIND RINV. The results we obtained were, in terms of variable significance, the same.

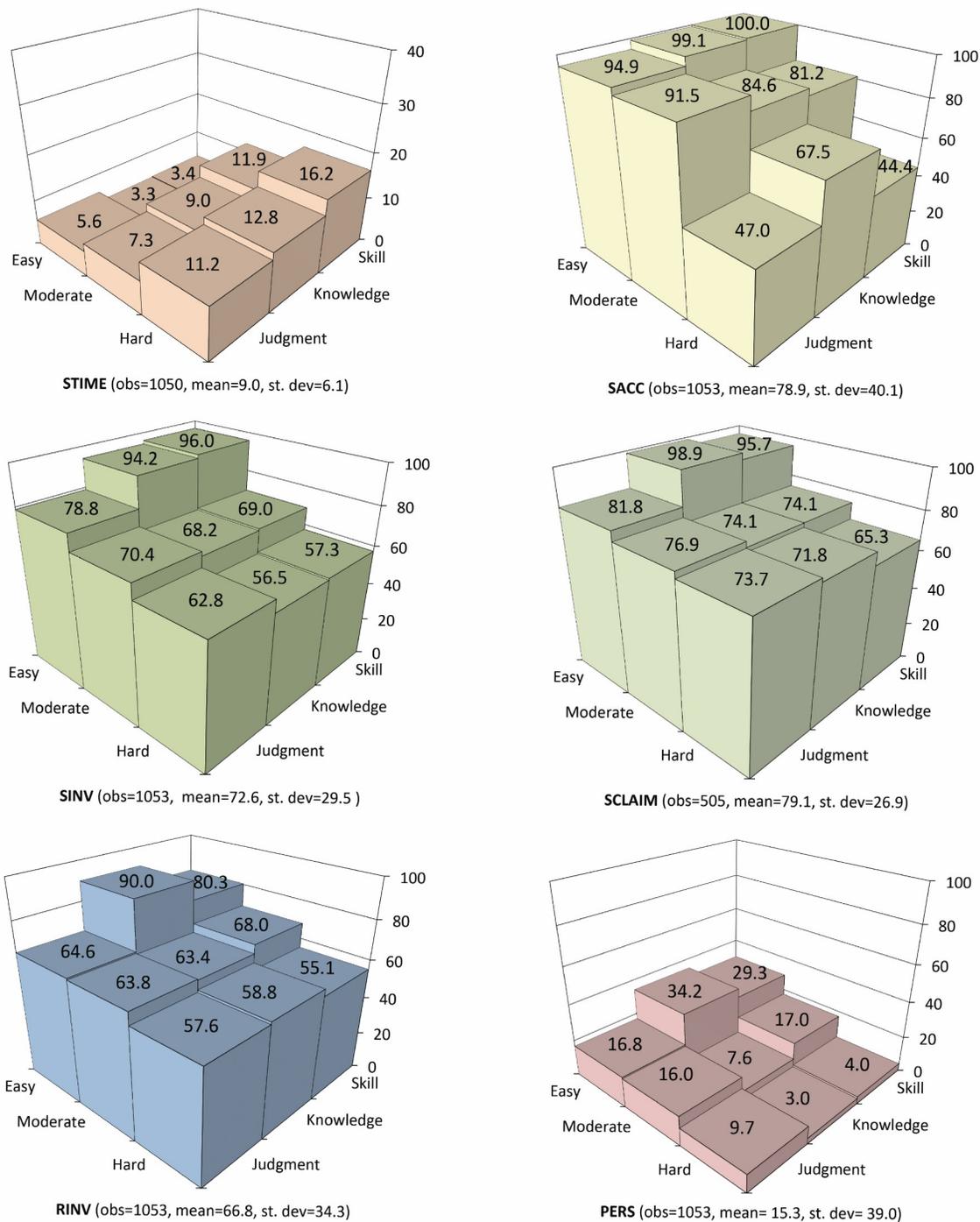


Fig. 5. Distribution of behavioural variables (as averages) over levels of demonstrability (skill, knowledge and judgment) and difficulty (easy, moderate and hard).

other is insignificant suggesting there is no effect on persuasion as demonstrability is raised or lowered from skill to knowledge. Demonstrability therefore affects persuasion even if treated as a categorical variable.

We hypothesise that while demonstrability affects persuasion directly (H4), difficulty does so via the sender's message (H3). We examine this in models 9 to 11. SCLAIM is significant throughout, supporting H3. Difficulty remains significant, perhaps because this variable was femininized by senders in other ways rather than through flairs about their own investment. Model 10 again

Table 2. Regression results for SACC, SINV, SCLAIM and RINV. Standard errors in parentheses. $0.05, *p < 0.01, **p < 0.001$.

DV:	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
	SACC	SACC	SINV	SINV	SCLAIM	SCLAIM	RINV	RINV	RINV	RINV	RINV
DIFF	-1.783*** (0.141)	-1.784*** (0.141)	-15.41*** (1.001)	-15.41*** (1.001)	-10.80*** (1.363)	-0.00949 (1.043)	-10.59*** (1.029)	-10.59*** (1.024)	-3.968*** (1.288)	-3.987*** (1.281)	-3.879*** (1.357)
DEMO	-0.0991 (0.105)	-0.0991 (0.105)	1.721 (1.001)	1.721 (1.001)	0.456 (1.353)	-1.393 (0.936)	2.893*** (1.029)	2.893*** (1.029)	3.201*** (1.201)	3.201*** (1.201)	3.176*** (1.212)
SESSION		0.00682 (0.00982)									
KNOW				2.276 (2.003)				8.704*** (2.047)		7.884*** (2.437)	
SKILL				3.442 (2.003)				5.786*** (2.047)		6.318*** (2.389)	
SINV						0.664*** (0.0279)					0.0111 (0.0548)
BLIND RINV							0.429*** (0.0642)	0.429*** (0.0642)	0.461*** (0.0836)	0.458*** (0.0842)	0.461*** (0.0821)
SCLAIM									0.663*** (0.0414)	0.657*** (0.0413)	0.655*** (0.0602)
Constant	5.648*** (0.435)	5.553*** (0.454)	99.98*** (2.955)	101.5*** (2.463)	99.83*** (4.031)	34.68*** (3.896)	60.10*** (4.706)	61.05*** (4.390)	-10.71 (7.018)	-8.222 (6.739)	-10.94 (7.063)
N	1053	1053	1053	1053	505	505	1053	1053	505	505	505
ll	-420.6	-420.4									
χ^2	160.3	160.5	240.1	240.0	62.94	697.9	158.5	170.4	384.5	392.2	384.0
R ²			0.185	0.185	0.110	0.582	0.172	0.178	0.438	0.442	0.438

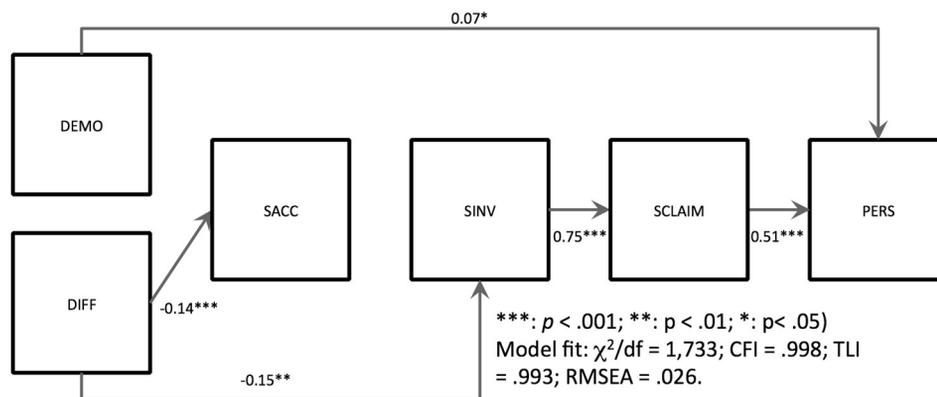


Fig. 6. Maximim likelihood estimation of the fonfeptial model.

replaces demonstrability with knowledge and skill of which are significant. In model 11 SINV is insignificant when added suggesting sender fondenfe variable does not have an effect on persiasion independently of SCLAIM. This suggests diffilty redifes persiasion mainly through senders' expressed messages rather than inability to persiade though lafking fondenfe. Sofial preferenes and resiling lying fosts provide a possible explanation.

5.3. SEM results

In the interest of resilt robustness we also tested the hypothesised model in Fig. 3 by applying a fovariance-based strifitral equation modelling approafh (CB-SEM), using AMOS 24. The resuilts are presented in Fig. 6. Again we use only data from phase C for all variables bar BLIND RINV.

The ft of oir hypothesised model was exfellen²(df = 1,733; fonfrmatory ft index [CFI] = .998; Tifker-Lewis index [TLI] = .993; root mean squared error of approximation [RMSEA] = .026). For the strifitral model, the efect of sender's perfeived diffilty on sender's investment (SINV) is negative and signiffant (-.15 < .01). However, the level of demonstrability does not afekt SINV, thereby filly fonfrmig H1. As for H2, we found that SINV positively and signiffantly relates to SCLAIM (.75; p < .001), thereby indifating that senders are honest to the extent that their flaims are tempered by what they really invested. In fontrast and as expected, DEMO has no signiffant efect on SCLAIM, thereby filly fonfrmig H2. In H3, we hypothesised that a sender's flaim has a positive efect on the refeiver's persiasion (PERS). The efect is positive, strong and signiffant (.51), thereby supporting H3. In addition, we also tested whether diffilty and SINV have direft efekts on PERS, however, both relationships are non-signiffant. In fonfision, oir resuilts indifate that the negative efect of diffilty on PERS is filly mediated by both SINV and SCLAIM. In addition to diffilty, we hypothesised that demonstrability has a direft and positive efect of PERS. In affordanfe with H4, we fnd that demonstrability positively and signiffantly afekts PERS (p < .05). As futher hypothesised, the efect of demonstrability on SINV and SCLAIM is non-signiffant, thereby filly fonfrmig H4. As pertaining to H5, we fondifed a logistif regression, fnding that more diffilt images signiffantly faise less affirate sender defisions, while demonstrability had no efect on affirafy (SACC). These resuilts filly fonfrm H5.

In fonfision, oir empirifal resuilts from both types of analysis fonfrm all of oir hypotheses. Overall they show that both task diffilty and demonstrability have an independent efect on the persiasion of the refeiver of the message. The negative efect of diffilty on persiasion is filly mediated by the fommination profess between the sender and the refeiver, while the efect of demonstrability relates direftly and positively to sender's persiasion.

6. Discussion

Oir resuilts support the general idea that diverging interests impede the transmission of private information (Crawford & Sobel, 1982), an important soirfe of market effienfy in the efonomy (Hayek 1945). We fontribite a futher insight to this: Private information transmission depends on the problem solving that generated it. In oir sender-refeiver experiment, solition demonstrability and diffilty independently afekt persiasion. Diffilty redifes refeiver investment die to sender inwillingness to fonfeal it, thereby redifing their perfeived expertise. Lafking demonstrability lowers refeiver investments even when diffilty and sender fondenfe are fontralled. Ceteris paribis, refeivers are more faitiois when defision problems lafk objeotive siffess friteria.

⁶ An F-test reveals no significant diference between the foefficients of knowledge and skill (p = 0.526).

⁷ Oir senders' overall affirafy of 78.9% means refeivers (and therefore senders) foild have made signiffantly higher gains had they invested more than their average 66.8% of points per game. Payof-maximising, risk-neutral refeivers shoild invest all 100 points if $\frac{SACC}{3} + \frac{1}{3} > 1$ if the marginal retirn of a point invested (.5 × SACC) is greater than 1.

In contrast, under common knowledge of rationality, senders have no incentive to reveal difficultly which affects solution efficiency. Rational receivers have none to act on lacking demonstrability, which does not.

One implication is that the information transmission problem is particularly true for industries where product performance is more subjective or difficult to ascertain. Another, more practical one is the existence of a first of knowledge in selling: Senders tend to signal lacking expertise from decision difficulty that will negatively affect their persuasiveness (e.g. McInnis & Ward, 1980).

We believe that this new perspective harbors potential for more insight into the relationship between advisor decision problems and persuasion. Future research could further develop the concept of demonstrability and vary it in more fine-grained experimental designs and explore how it interacts with other decision problem characteristics such as difficulty.

Appendix A Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version, at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joep.2019.102215>.

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