

An Experimental Comparison of Conventional and Final Offer Arbitration*

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Abstract

When conventional arbitration (CA) is the dispute resolution mechanism, the arbitrator is free to impose her preferred settlement on the disputants, should they fail to reach an agreement. By contrast, under final offer arbitration (FOA), in the event of a dispute, the arbitrator chooses one of two proposals submitted by the parties to the dispute. Settlement negotiations can occur before proposal submission (FOA_B) or after proposal submission (FOA_A). A line of papers in the experimental literature has found lower dispute rates in CA compared to FOA. Most of these experiments feature symmetric information between the bargaining parties, while the theoretical literature emphasizes asymmetric information as a cause of disputes. In addition, most of this work features a comparison of CA with FOA_B. We analyze arbitration in a screening model under which the recipient of the settlement demand is a better informed party. In addition, we include FOA_A in our treatment. We find similar dispute rates in FOA_A and CA, with the point estimate of FOA_A being 4 percentage points lower. This contrasts with previous results which suggest a systematic advantage for CA over FOA. By contrast, FOA_B has a dispute rate which is 19 percentage points higher than FOA_A.

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1. Introduction

A persistent finding in the experimental literature is that conventional arbitration (CA) yields a lower dispute rate than final offer arbitration (FOA). Since disputes are costly, these results suggest an important advantage for CA relative to FOA. Much of the prior literature consists of experiments with symmetric information between the bargaining parties, even though asymmetric information is a leading theoretical explanation for bargaining failure.¹ Our experiment incorporates asymmetric information in a screening model and considers a realistic variation of FOA not considered in much of the prior experimental work. We find similar dispute rates between CA and our realistic version of FOA with the point estimate indicating a four-percentage point lower dispute rate for FOA. We also include the version of FOA typically considered in the prior literature and find a dispute rate which is fifteen percentage points *higher* than CA. Thus, prior results in the literature which indicate a lower dispute rate for CA may result from the form of FOA being tested as well as the absence of asymmetric information.

Arbitration is widely used and the details of the procedure are often subject to contractual negotiation. This, in part, drives the academic interest in comparing dispute rates between CA and FOA. Under CA, an arbitrator is free to impose what she views as an appropriate outcome, given the facts of the case. By contrast, under FOA, the arbitrator must choose from the proposals for settlement which are submitted by the parties to the dispute. In the “before” model of FOA (hereafter FOA_B), all settlement negotiation takes place prior to the submission of these potentially binding proposals. Much of the prior experimental literature has utilized this version of the model, and we find that FOA_B yields the highest dispute rate among the procedures we consider. In the “after” model (hereafter FOA_A), settlement negotiation takes place after

¹ See Spier (2007), Daughety and Reinganum (2012) and Wickelgren (2013) for surveys of the related literature on civil litigation.

potentially binding proposals are submitted to the arbitrator. This version of the procedure corresponds to the default rules promulgated by the International Centre for Dispute Resolution and the American Arbitration Association, under which proposals are to be exchanged between the parties two weeks prior to the arbitration hearing.² This leaves ample time for negotiation in the face of these proposals and so corresponds to FOA_A. Thus, by including FOA_A, we are considering a form of FOA which corresponds to the default rules for the procedure. The parties may contract around these default rules with proposals being exchanged as late as the start of the hearing. This corresponds to FOA_B, as the late exchange does not allow for subsequent bargaining.

The use of FOA has spread in recent years, which seems at odds with the experimental findings that it exhibits a higher dispute rate than CA. As of 2022, FOA has been used to adjudicate out-of-network billing disputes as provided by the U.S. ‘No Surprises Act’.³ Prior to this act, FOA had been used in medical billing disputes in New York (Cooper et al. 2020). The procedure has also figured prominently in antitrust cases involving the telecommunications industry in the United States. For example, FOA was prescribed to address rate setting disputes as part of the agreement to allow the NBC – Universal, News Corp – Direct TV and Time Warner/Comcast – Adelphia mergers.⁴ Some have raised concerns about FOA related to the issue of asymmetric information. For example, when FOA was considered during the AT&T – Time Warner merger, the following concerns were raised: “Video distributors are reluctant to invoke arbitration for a variety of reasons, including the existence of risk and informational

² See their document, entitled “Final Offer Arbitration Supplementary Rules”, here:

<https://www.adr.org/sites/default/files/Final%20Offer%20Supplementary%20Arbitration%20Procedures.pdf>

³ Information on this act is provided here: <https://www.natlawreview.com/article/no-surprises-act-final-checklist-2022>.

⁴ See FCC orders 11-4, 03-330 and 06-105. FOA is also utilized in the Canadian telecommunications and rail industries. See the Canadian telecommunications industry at <https://crtc.gc.ca/eng/industr/rddr/arbitra.htm>. For the rail industry, see the Canadian Transportation agency at <https://otc-cta.gc.ca/eng/arbitration-final-offer-arbitration>.

asymmetries that favor Turner” and “Distributors must submit final offers without knowing what other MVPDs of similar stature and size pay to Turner”.⁵ Older uses of FOA include public sector labor disputes (Carrell et al. 2013) and major league baseball where it has been utilized since the 1970s.⁶

Our results show that institutional details are important. FOA_A corresponds to the default rules for arbitration and this is the version of FOA which has a dispute rate comparable to CA. FOA_B performs significantly worse than FOA_A, but this version of the procedure does not correspond to the default rules. Nevertheless, it is the version of the procedure which has been most often utilized in past experimental studies.

2. Background

In our stylized setting, there are no significant differences between CA and a simple model of civil litigation.⁷ Thus, our model of CA may be considered a two-type version of the Bebchuk (1984), model which introduced the screening model to the civil litigation literature. The screening model of FOA was developed in Curry and Pecorino (1993) and Farmer and Pecorino (1998, 2003, 2022).⁸ The Farmer and Pecorino papers provide the theoretical context for the FOA portion of our experiment.

⁵ MVPD stands for multichannel video programming distributors. The quoted material is from Case 1:17-cv-02511-RJL Document 128, p. 154 found here: <https://www.justice.gov/atr/case-document/file/1061071/download>.

⁶ In contrast with the telecommunications examples we have given, the relevant information in major league baseball, namely player statistics and the contracts of similar players, is public information. Thus, asymmetric information may not be important in this context (Farmer, Pecorino and Stango 2004).

⁷ The differences between CA and civil litigation may be reflected in parameter values rather than in the structure of the game itself. If CA is less expensive, this is reflected in a lower sum of the plaintiff and defendant dispute costs. To the extent that arbitrators have more expertise than judges, this will be reflected in the shape of the distribution of the arbitrator’s preferred settlement. Since arbitration is private, cases may not have much precedential value. Generally, however, the literature on pretrial bargaining does not consider this aspect of litigation.

⁸ In the litigation literature, Reinganum and Wilde (1986) introduce the signaling model. Farmer and Pecorino (2021, 2023) develop the signaling model of FOA.

The recommendations in Stevens (1966) provide the basis for the FOA procedure. An important theoretical contribution is Farber (1980), who derives the optimal submitted proposals under FOA.⁹ A key assumption of his model is that the arbitrator's most preferred settlement can be described by a distribution, which is common knowledge for the parties to the dispute. We use his framework to derive the optimal submitted proposals within our model. Ashenfelter (1987) and Ashenfelter and Dahl (2012) provide support for Farber's model of arbitrator behavior.¹⁰

There has been a consistent finding in the experimental literature that the dispute rate in CA is lower than the dispute rate in FOA. A key early paper is Ashenfelter et al. (1992) who find dispute rates to be 10 percentage points lower in CA compared with FOA.¹¹ Dispute rates for CA are 5-7 percentage points lower than FOA in Dickinson (2004, 2005). In Deck et al. (2007), the dispute rate in CA is 12 percentage points lower than in FOA.¹² In each of these papers, there is symmetric information between the bargaining parties. In addition, they each only consider FOA_B, where negotiations are prior to the submission of proposals to the arbitrator. In the current paper, we include asymmetric information and include FOA_A in the analysis, where this version of the procedure conforms to the default rules for FOA.

Pecorino and Van Boening (2018) conduct an experiment utilizing a screening model of litigation, but CA is indistinguishable from this simple model.¹³ Two previous experimental

⁹ Another important early analysis of proposal submission is Brams and Merrill (1983). Also see Farber (1981) in which offers in CA affect the arbitrator's imposed settlement. In our experiment, offers do not affect the arbitrator's decision. If Farber (1981) is correct, then CA is more similar to FOA than our simple framework would suggest.

¹⁰ For models where the arbitrator learns from the submitted proposals of the parties to the dispute see Gibbons (1988) and Olszewski (2011). Chatterjee (1981) and Samuelson (1991) model the submission of proposals in the face of asymmetric information.

¹¹ See their Table 1 comparison of FOA to the high variance CA. There are three different CA treatments, but only the high variance CA treatment has the same distribution of the arbitrator's preferred value as FOA.

¹² See also Deck and Farmer (2007). For an analysis of the narcotic effect, under which utilizing the arbitration procedure today makes a future use of the procedure more likely, see Bolton and Katok (1998).

¹³ Pecorino and Van Boening utilize a degenerate distribution of outcomes at trial, but to analyze FOA requires a nondegenerate distribution. Hence, in the current paper, we use a uniform distribution to describe the arbitrator's preferred settlement. Otherwise, our model of CA is similar to the model used in their paper.

papers have utilized a screening model in the context of FOA. Pecorino, Solomon and Van Boening (2021) find that voluntary disclosures are more likely to occur after the submission of potentially binding proposals to the arbitrator than before.¹⁴ While the timing of disclosures is altered, in both the treatment and control they consider a model of FOA_A. Thus, there is no comparison across mechanisms. Pecorino and Van Boening (2001) test a prediction from Farmer and Pecorino (1998) that dispute rates will be lower in FOA_A than in FOA_B. This prediction is borne out in their data but they do not analyze CA.¹⁵ Thus, a key aspect of the current paper is to compare CA to FOA_A. This has not previously been done in an experimental setting utilizing a screening model.

Pecorino, Solomon and Van Boening (2024) is a companion paper which uses a signaling model to compare CA, FOA_A and FOA_B. In the signaling game, the informed party presents a settlement demand to the uninformed party. We utilize the same parameters and experimental procedures as this paper except that we analyze a screening game in which the uninformed party makes the offer. In the conclusion we compare the two papers and draw some broad insights about CA and FOA based on these two canonical models of disputes.

3. Theory

We will briefly outline the theory behind the experiments. The CA model is simple and quite standard. A fuller exposition of the analysis of FOA may be found in Farmer and Pecorino

¹⁴ This proposition is found in Farmer and Pecorino (2003).

¹⁵ In addition to the absence of CA from the analysis in Pecorino and Van Boening (2001) there are several other important differences from this earlier paper. Aside from the generation of random numbers, this earlier experiment was run by hand. Partly as a result of this, the analysis is based on a very low number of subjects. Finally, the uniform distributions describing the arbitrator's preferred settlement both had a lower support at 0. As a result, the uninformed player's optimal submitted proposal to the arbitrator was independent of the informed player's type. Thus, the type of informational rents (Farmer and Pecorino 2022) that we discuss below in the theory section could not arise in this setting.

(1998, 2003, 2022). Our main focus is to compare dispute rates across mechanisms. The theoretical predictions can help us understand differences in dispute rates which might emerge, especially if anomalous behavior differs across mechanisms. We are also interested in possible distributional affects across the three mechanisms. Both the quotes in Section 2 and the theory suggest that the uninformed party to the dispute is disadvantaged in FOA, so we also focus on the expected costs of player B across the three mechanisms.

First, we discuss factors which are common across the three models. Both players are risk neutral, and B makes a payment to A . Should the parties fail to settle, they each incur an arbitration cost of 75 ($C_A = C_B = 75$). Here and elsewhere (unless otherwise noted) we state numbers in pennies, so this cost is \$0.75. We use a uniform distribution to determine the arbitrator's preferred settlement x , where x is drawn from distribution L with probability $1 - p = 2/3$ and distribution H with probability $p = 1/3$. These uniform distributions are as follows:

$$\text{Distribution } L: x \sim U[\alpha, \beta] = U[50, 300], \quad (1a)$$

$$\text{Distribution } H: x \sim U[\alpha + \delta, \beta + \delta] = U[250, 500], \quad (1b)$$

where $\alpha = 50$, $\beta = 300$, and $\delta = 200$. The value of $\delta = 200$ implies that the H distribution is a rightward shift of the L distribution by 200. This shift is not due to arbitrator bias, but instead occurs due to differences in the facts of the case which will be revealed at the arbitration hearings. This corresponds to the assumption in the litigation literature that asymmetric information concerning the expected outcome at trial concerns the facts of the case.

In CA, no proposals are submitted to the arbitrator. Rather, in the event of a dispute, the arbitrator imposes her preferred settlement x on the bargaining parties. For the uniform distributions in equation (1a, b), $E(x|L) = 175$ and $E(x|H) = 375$.

Following Farber (1980), in FOA each player submits a proposal, b_A and b_B , to the arbitrator who subsequently chooses the proposal closest to her most preferred settlement. Denote the *cdf* of the arbitrator's preferred settlement F^i , $i = H, L$. Under the assumption on arbitrator behavior and with the uniform distribution, player B 's proposal b_B is chosen with the following probabilities:

$$F^L = \left(\frac{0.5(b_A + b_B) - \alpha}{\beta - \alpha} \right) = \left(\frac{0.5(b_A + b_B) - 50}{250} \right) \quad (2a)$$

$$F^L = \left(\frac{0.5(b_A + b_B) - (\alpha + \delta)}{\beta - \alpha} \right) = \left(\frac{0.5(b_A + b_B) - 250}{250} \right). \quad (2b)$$

When both parties know which distribution applies $F^L = F^H = 0.50$, as it is optimal for both players to submit an endpoint of the uniform distribution, where A submits the upper support and B submits the lower support. Because A knows her own type (which we denote as either A_L or A_H), this continues to be the case for her in the game with asymmetric information, with one exception we discuss below. However, B may be uncertain about A 's type at the point where he submits a proposal to the arbitrator. Thus, he may submit a compromise proposal which is a function of his updated belief q that player A is type A_H . Absent bluffing (discussed below), for FOA we have the following proposals being submitted to the arbitrator:

$$b_A^L = \beta = 300 \quad (3a)$$

$$b_A^H = \beta + \delta = 500, \quad (3b)$$

$$b_B = \alpha + q\delta = 50 + 200q. \quad (3c)$$

From equation (2a, b), under asymmetric information the probabilities that b_B is chosen by the arbitrator are $F^L = 0.5 + .4q$ and $F^H = 0.1 + .4q$. For example, if B 's updated belief is $q = .6$ then B submits proposal $b_B = 170$ which is chosen with probability $F^L = 0.74$ if B 's dispute is with A_L

and $F^H = 0.34$ if the dispute is with A_H . In FOA_A, an A_L will bluff with some probability by submitting (3b) rather than (3a). In doing this, she is mimicking A_H behavior.

We will now proceed with the formal description of the games. The following step is common to all three mechanisms:

0. Nature determines the facts of the case. Player A is A_H with probability $p = 1/3$, and A_L with probability $1 - p = 2/3$, where these types correspond to the distributions given in (1a-b). A knows her type, but B only knows the probability that each type is drawn.

The asymmetric information reflected in step 0 is the source of disputes within the theory. In the presence of symmetric information, there is a prediction of 100% settlement across all three mechanisms. Note that the information in question concerns facts relevant for the disposition of the case. These facts will be established by A for the arbitrator, should the hearing phase be reached.

The remaining game description differs across mechanisms and has been summarize in Table 1. CA and FOA_B are identical at steps 1 and 2 where a settlement demand and an accept/reject decision are made. If A accepts the demand, the game ends. Otherwise both players proceed to arbitration. With CA, the arbitrator imposes her preferred settlement x as the payment from B to A . Player A 's payoff is $x - C_A$ and player B 's payoff is $-x - C_B$. Step 3 for FOA_B has each player submitting an arbitration proposal. One of these proposals is chosen by the arbitrator at step 4. Under FOA_A, proposals are submitted (step 1) prior to B 's offer and A 's subsequent acceptance or rejection (steps 2 and 3).¹⁶ Step 4 is identical for FOA_B and FOA_A. The arbitrator

¹⁶ We allow one settlement demand for each mechanism in our experiment. Thus, there is no opportunity to settle prior to the exchange of proposals in FOA_A. Farmer and Pecorino (2003) show, theoretically, that early settlement should not occur in this model. This follows from sequential rationality. It may be of interest for future experimental work to test this prediction, but we take it as given and only allow one settlement demand within each experimental game.

chooses the proposal (b_A or b_B) closest to her preferred settlement x . Operationally, a computer was used to generate x from the distribution determined at step 0.

Table 1. Negotiation Steps Under Each Arbitration Mechanism

Step	CA	FOA _B	FOA _A
1 ^a	Player B makes a settlement offer O to player A .		Both players submit proposals to the arbitrator. A submits proposal b_A and B submits proposal b_B . After submission, proposals are observable by both players.
2 ^a	A chooses to accept or reject O . If O is accepted, the game ends with A receiving payoff O and B receiving payoff $-O$. If O is rejected, both players proceed to arbitration in step 3.		Player B makes a settlement offer O to player A .
3	The arbitrator identifies her preferred settlement x . A receives payoff $x - C_A$ and B receives payoff $-x - C_B$.	Both players submit proposals to the arbitrator. A submits proposal b_A and B submits proposal b_B . After submission, proposals are observable by both players. Both players then proceed to the arbitration hearing in step 4.	A chooses to accept or reject O . If O is accepted, the game ends with A receiving payoff O and B receiving payoff $-O$. If O is rejected, both players proceed to arbitration in step 4.
4 ^b		The arbitrator identifies her preferred settlement x , and then determines Y , where $Y =$ the proposal which is closest to x : $Y = \arg \min_{b_i} \{ x - b_i , i = A, B\}$. A receives payoff $Y - C_A$ and B receives payoff $-Y - C_B$.	

^a The settlement offer step and the accept/reject step are identical across CA and FOA_B, so the Step 1 and Step 2 descriptions are combined across those two mechanisms.

^b The arbitration step (if invoked) is identical across FOA_B and FOA_A, so the Step 4 description is combined across those two mechanisms.

3.1 Conventional Arbitration (CA)

The analysis of CA is completely standard. This is a two-type version of the Bebchuk (1984) model. Player B decides whether to make a high pooling offer $O^H = 0.5(\alpha + \beta) + \delta - C_A = 300$

both player types would accept, or a low screening offer $O^L = 0.5(\alpha + \beta) - C_A = 100$ which A_L accepts and A_H rejects. If B makes the low offer and subsequent to the rejection by A_H , both parties proceed to arbitration where player B pays $450 = O^H + C_A + C_B = E(x|H) + C_B$ on average. Since player A is type A_H with $p = 1/3$, B makes the low sorting offer O^L when

$$(1 - p)O^L + p(O^H + C_A + C_B) = 217 < O^H = 300. \quad (4)$$

Under our parameters, the condition above holds. Thus the prediction for the experiment is that B makes the screening offer $O^L = 100$, which is accepted by A_L and rejected by A_H , resulting in a 33% dispute rate. Player B 's expected cost of 217 is 83 lower when he screens compared to when he makes the high pooling offer $O^H = 300$.

3.2 The 'Before' Model of FOA (FOA_B)

A screening equilibrium similar to what is described above can occur in this model, but there is one major difference. In such an equilibrium the low offer acceptable to A_L must give her the expected earnings she would receive if she refused the offer and proceeded to arbitration. In equilibrium, however, only A_H actually proceeds to arbitration implying that B 's belief $q = 1$ and that he therefore submits (from (3b)) $b_B = 250$ to the arbitrator, while A_L would submit $b_A^L = 300$. From (2a), A_L receives on average $0.9(250) + 0.1(300) - 75 = 180$. This compares to $E(x|L) - C_A = 100$ under CA with the difference of 80 being what Farmer and Pecorino (2022) term informational rents. These rents arise because of B 's imperfect information regarding A 's type. Note that the informational issue is arising out of equilibrium, but is important because it determines how high B 's offer needs to be in order to get A_L to accept it in a screening equilibrium. The FOA_B equilibrium dispute rate is 33%, the same as under CA.

The other relevant payoffs are the same as in CA. In equilibrium, when A_H rejects, she submits $b_A^H = 500$ and B submits $b_B = 250$ to the arbitrator where these are equally likely to be

chosen. Thus, B 's expected cost is $E(x|H) + C_B = 450$ against A_H who reject, where this occurs with probability $p = 1/3$. Alternatively, B can offer 300 and settle with everyone.¹⁷ Thus B 's expected cost under screening is

$$(2/3)(180) + (1/3)(450) = 270 < 300, \quad (5)$$

where 300 is B 's cost under pooling. In FOA_B player B 's cost associated with screening is only 30 lower than his cost under pooling, compared with 83 under CA. This reduced incentive to screen results from the informational rents of 80 received by A_L in a screening offer.¹⁸

3.3. The 'After' Model of FOA (FOA_A)

Settlement demands are now made after potentially binding proposals have been submitted to the arbitrator. Our parameters rule out a pooling equilibrium under which A_L and A_H both submit b_A^H and receive a high settlement offer. As in CA and FOA_B, this pooling offer equals 300.¹⁹ Absent a pooling equilibrium, the game exhibits an equilibrium in mixed strategies. If all A_L submit b_A^L and all A_H submit b_A^H , then proposal submission would be fully informative and all cases would settle. This implies that A_H receives a high offer, but this gives A_L an incentive to bluff by submitting the same proposal as A_H . Thus, in equilibrium, all A_H submit b_A^H and A_L bluffs with probability Ω by submitting this same high proposal. With probability $1-\Omega$, A_L makes the revealing proposal b_A^L .

¹⁷ Under pooling, rejections only occur out of equilibrium. We are assuming that B believes such a rejection to be by A_H . Thus, if such a rejection did occur, B would submit a proposal of 250. If A_H did deviate, she would submit 500 and earn $375 - 75 = 300$ in expected value.

¹⁸ Farmer and Pecorino (2003) show that "settle with none" is also a possible equilibrium. This possibility does not arise under CA, but can under FOA_B, due to the informational rents we have been discussing. Under this outcome, $q = 1/3$, and B submits a proposal of 117 to the arbitrator. Using equations (2) and (3), it can be shown that the expected cost of this strategy is 334.5. Thus, under our parameters, player B would not pursue this strategy.

¹⁹ Both A_L and A_H submit a proposal of 500, while B submits 250. The expected award for A_H is 375 and the pooling offer is $375 - 75 = 300$.

When B views the high proposal b_A^H , he makes a low sorting offer, which only A_L will accept, with probability Γ . With the complementary probability, B makes a high offer which both player A types accept. Relative to making a revealing proposal, A_L benefits when the bluff succeeds (a high offer is made) and is hurt when the low offer is made. The reason the low offer harms her is that b_A^H is the “wrong” proposal given her type so that she receives a lower offer when she is caught bluffing compared to when she makes a revealing proposal b_A^L .²⁰ The equilibrium values of Ω and Γ make A_L indifferent between the revealing proposal b_A^L and the bluff of b_A^H and make B indifferent between making a high or low offer when he encounters the high proposal b_A^H .

In the mixed strategy equilibrium, all A_L settle, even those caught bluffing. The A_H players proceed to arbitration with a probability $\Gamma < 1$, so the overall dispute rate is $p\Gamma < p$ which is the predicted dispute rate in CA and FOA_B. Using our parameter values and equations (A7), (A8), and (A9) from Pecorino, Solomon and Van Boening (2021), it is possible to solve for $\Gamma = 0.75$. Thus, the unconditional dispute rate is predicted to be $(1/3)(0.75)$ or 25%.

Since we also care about the distributional aspect of each mechanism, we can use equation (15b) in Farmer and Pecorino (2022) and our parameter values to compute player B 's expected costs in FOA_A. These are approximately 222 per round. This is almost indistinguishable from 217 under CA but much lower than 270 under FOA_B. Under FOA_A, player B submits a

²⁰ By construction, b_A^L maximizes her expected payoff in arbitration so that submitting any other proposal, including b_A^H , lowers her expected payoff in arbitration. With our parameters, A_L 's expected payoff in arbitration is 109 when she submits b_A^L versus 42 when she submits b_A^H . These represent B 's low sorting offers when he encounters b_A^L and b_A^H , respectively, while B 's high offer when he encounters b_A^H is 320.

compromise proposal to the arbitrator which results in some informational rents being earned by player A but these are largely offset by the lower dispute rate.²¹

3.4. Risk aversion

The general flavor of our results are preserved in the presence of risk aversion. A very high degree of risk aversion could lead to a pooling equilibrium under our parameters. While we see a limited prevalence of pooling offers in our data (roughly 14% of offers averaged over the three games), an important aspect of behavior is strongly at odds with the idea that risk aversion drives subject behavior. The most straightforward prediction of risk aversion is that a player will accept all offers with a positive expected value compared with arbitration. Prior litigation and arbitration experiments (Pecorino and Van Boening 2001, 2018, among many others) have shown this is not the case. In a setting such as this, rejection of positive expected value offers is common. This suggests that risk aversion is not playing a major role in these settings.

4. Experimental Design

We provide a summary of our experimental sessions in Table 2, while Table A1 in the appendix describes the twelve experimental sessions more fully.²² Each session lasted 15 rounds and we

²¹ The proposal submitted depends on whether B intends to sort or not in the event he encounters a high proposal. From Farmer and Pecorino (2022: 7) and using our parameter values it can be seen that B will submit $\alpha + p\delta = 117$ if he intends to sort and $\alpha + (p + \Omega[1-p])\delta = 151$ if he does not intend to sort. Under full information he would submit 50 against A_L and 250 against A_H . Thus, B submits a compromise proposal relative to the full information game. When B sorts, the $p\delta$ in the submitted proposal reflects the prevalence of A_H players. When he does not sort, he treats bluffing A_L players as if they are A_H . Thus, the term multiplying δ in the proposal includes $\Omega[1-p]$ which reflects the prevalence of bluffing A_L players.

²² The first two sessions of CA which we ran had an incorrect computation of the lump sum payment which B uses to finance his payment to A . This lump sum was set too low at 5500 when it should have been 6300. The residual amount after these payments determine B 's payoff from the experiment. The lump sum was set to give A and B similar chances to earn money based on the theoretical predictions of the model. Theoretically, the lower lump sum should have no effect, but we reran the sessions on the chance that it would have a behavioral impact. The four sessions of CA which we analyze have a lump sum of 6300, but our results are robust to the inclusion of the two CA sessions with the lump sum of 5500. The average overall dispute rate across the two excluded CA sessions is 43.3% which compares to 41.5% for the four included CA sessions with the 6300 lump sum.

had four sessions for each of three treatments. Within each session we had fourteen to twenty subjects (seven to ten pairs). The experiment was conducted via computer using z-Tree (Fischbacher, 2007). All subjects were provided with a set of paper instructions, a pencil, and a simple calculator. Subjects participated in only one session and all were undergraduate students at the University of Alabama. The instructions were read out loud by an experimenter while the subjects followed along on their paper copy. Subjects were given ample opportunity to ask questions about the instructions. The experiment was run at The Interactive Decision Experiment (TIDE) Lab.

Table 2. Experimental Design

Treatment	Number of sessions ^a	Number of Subjects	Number of Negotiations		
			<i>A v. B</i>	By pairing	
			<i>A_H v. B</i>	<i>A_L v. B</i>	
CA	4	70	525	154	371
FOA _B	4	66	495	176	319
FOA _A	4	68	510	167	343
Total	12	204	1530	497	1033

^a Each session had 15 negotiation rounds; see Table A1 for session-level data.

The experiment follows the game descriptions provided in Section 3. The uniform H and L distributions are described by equation (1), where the H distribution occurs with probability $p = 1/3$. Each party faces the same cost of a dispute: $C_A = C_B = 75$. Recall that in dollar terms this is \$0.75. For CA, the computer determines the outcome of a round in the event of a dispute by drawing a random number x from the appropriate distribution. Player A receives $x - 75$ and player B pays $x + 75$. By contrast, under FOA, the computer draws a random number x but then chooses the submitted proposal closest to x . Under FOA_A, settlement negotiation takes place after proposals are submitted to the arbitrator and under FOA_B these negotiations take place prior to this submission. Note that under FOA, once the proposals are submitted they become common information to the two players.

The *A* and *B* players were separated into adjacent rooms and maintained their player identities throughout the experiment. We used the strangers matching protocol under which the *As* and *Bs* were randomly and anonymously paired every round. Each round, player *A* received a payment from player *B*, where *B*'s payments were financed via a lump sum.²³ The amount of the lump sum was known to *B*, but not *A* and varied across treatments to keep the earnings opportunities roughly equal across player roles.²⁴ The respective lump sums for CA, FOA_B, and FOA_A were 6300, 7350 and 6700. The higher figure for FOA_B reflects the informational rents paid by *B* and received by *A* in that game. The lump sum, which is revealed to *B* prior to the first round of the experiment, applies for the entirety of the experiment. It was not announced ahead of time that the experiment would last 15 rounds.

Each round, player *A* was informed of her randomly determined type, *A_H* or *A_L*. Player *B* only knew that the unconditional probability that distribution *H* applied was $p = 1/3$. Player *A* received the sum of her payoffs over all rounds while player *B* received the difference between the lump sum and the sum of his costs over all rounds. In addition, all players received a \$5 show up fee. All payments were made in cash. Not including the show up fee, average earnings were \$29.47 (median \$29.30), with a low of \$5.20 and high of \$52.73. The experiment typically lasted 60-75 minutes.

²³ Given the feedback players receive each round (about their own and their opponents payoff/cost) paying for one round only would not satisfy the Azrieli et al. (2018) conditions for incentive compatibility (see pp. 1489-90). We also note that many of the concerns they discuss in relation to the method of payment do not arise in our experiment. These concerns relate to cross-task contamination whereby subjects may, for example, hedge across tasks. In addition, there are concerns about how measurements of risk aversion might be affected by the method of payment. There is only one task in each of our treatments and we are not attempting to measure risk preferences. Thus, the potential rationales for paying for only one round at random do not apply in our setting.

²⁴ We did not want the players to view their task as splitting the lump sum. In theory, *A*'s knowledge of the lump sum has no effect on behavior, but we cannot rule out behavioral effects a priori. Moreover, in naturally occurring bargaining, the recipient of the payment will not have exact information on the financial position of her bargaining partner.

Prior to the data rounds which are reported in this paper, all subjects played ten practice rounds for which they were not paid. The ten rounds were subdivided into two sets of five rounds each. In all practice rounds, player *A* learned which distribution would be used when the computer was used to resolve the dispute. For the first five practice rounds under FOA, both players submitted proposals to the computer and observed the computer choosing a proposal. This included observing the preferred settlement chosen by the computer from the appropriate distribution as well as the proposal chosen given this preferred settlement. No proposals were submitted under CA. Rather, the subjects simply observed how the computer generated a random number from the appropriate distribution to determine the outcome of a round. For all three treatments, settlement bargaining was included in practice rounds 6-10 with the computer used to determine the outcome only if *B* rejected *A*'s demand. After each practice round, *A*'s payoff and *B*'s cost for the round were displayed to both players. After each of the two sets of practice rounds, players were told what their total earnings would have been if these rounds counted towards their earnings for the experiment.²⁵ Subjects were given ample opportunity to ask questions during the practice period.

5. Results

We center our analysis on overall dispute rates and player *B* costs, while we use the theory to help us understand the differences in dispute rates across mechanisms. For example, we expect that “excess disputes”, that is disputes not predicted by the theory, will occur, but these may differ across mechanisms. From above, the theoretical dispute rates are CA 33%, FOA_B 33%,

²⁵ At the beginning of each set of practice rounds, player *B* was given a lump sum but was informed that this would be used for an illustrative calculation only and that he would not be paid for the practice rounds.

and FOA_A 25% while the corresponding player B costs are 217, 270, and 222. We have five main results that focus on dispute rates, settlement offers and distributional properties.

Result 1. The observed dispute rates are CA 41%, FOA_B 56%, and FOA_A 37%. The fifteen percentage-point difference between CA and FOA_B and the nineteen percentage-point difference between FOA_B and FOA_A are both economically and statistically significant. The CA and FOA_A dispute rates do not differ statistically from one another.

Table 3. Dispute Rates by Treatment and Pairwise Tests

Treatments and pairwise tests	Overall dispute rate (ratio)	Mean session-level dispute rate
CA	.413 (217/525)	.415
FOA _B	.556 (275/495)	.556
FOA _A	.369 (188/510)	.374
H ₀ : CA = FOA _B		
Difference	-.143	-.141
Test statistic	$\chi^2_2 = 21.05$	$z = -2.32$
(p-value)	($p = .000$) ^a	($p = .020$) ^b
H ₀ : CA = FOA _A		
Difference	.044	.041
Test statistic	$\chi^2_2 = 2.18$	$z = 0.87$
(p-value)	($p = .337$) ^a	($p = .384$) ^b
H ₀ : FOA _B = FOA _A		
Difference	.187	.182
Test statistic	$\chi^2_2 = 36.58$	$z = 2.31$
(p-value)	($p = .000$) ^a	($p = .021$) ^b

^a Pairwise difference-in-proportions tests using the Mariscuilo multiple-comparisons procedure. Pearson goodness-of-fit test for H₀: CA = FOA_B = FOA_A has $\chi^2_2 = 38.68$ ($p = .000$).

^b Pairwise Mann-Whitney rank-sum tests using session-level dispute rates. Kruskal-Wallis rank-sum equality-of-medians test for H₀: CA = FOA_B = FOA_A has $\chi^2_2 = 8.91$ ($p = .012$).

Table 3 presents the overall dispute rates by treatment using two alternative units of observation.

First, we report dispute rates for the 1,530 individual negotiations, along with pairwise parametric tests using the Mariscuilo (1966) procedure for comparisons of multiple proportions.

Second, we use a conservative approach for addressing the independence issue by treating each of the 12 sessions as a single observation and report the four-session treatment mean dispute rates (appendix Table A1 reports the individual session dispute rates) along with pairwise

nonparametric Mann-Whitney rank sum tests for treatment differences. The two methods yield similar results. The dispute rate is lowest in FOA_A (37%), second lowest in CA (41%), and highest in FOA_B (56%). Consistent with theory, the dispute rate is lowest in FOA_A, but contrary to theory the CA and FOA_B dispute rates diverge. The differences in dispute rates for both CA v. FOA_B and FOA_B v. FOA_A are statistically different from zero (difference-in-proportions $p = .00$, rank sum $p = .02$), while the difference for CA v. FOA_A is statistically insignificant ($p > .33$). Across all three mechanisms, the average dispute rate is about 45% (680/1530). The fifteen percentage-point difference between CA and FOA_B represents about 1/3 of the average dispute rate, while the nineteen percentage-point difference between FOA_B and FOA_A represents about 2/5. Thus, both differences are clearly economically significant. Appendix Table A2 compares dispute rates estimated from a random effects logit regression with the 1,530 individual accept/reject decisions regressed on treatment dummy variables, with standard errors clustered on sessions and the individual *A* subjects as random effects. The analysis provides results very similar to those in Table 3.

Result 2. Player B offer behavior is generally consistent with the screening equilibrium, but there is considerable variation across models. For CA and FOA_A about 65% of offers are in the screening interval, while for FOA_B this figure is 50-52%. For FOA_B, 35% of offers fall below the screening interval where the corresponding percentages are 5% for CA and 11% for FOA_A. The higher percentage of offers below the screening interval in FOA_B underscores how informational rents may affect bargaining outcomes.

Under all three mechanisms, the observed dispute rates are a function of the empirical player *B* settlement offers and the corresponding player *A* rejection behavior. In the following analysis, offer frequencies and dispute rates are reported for intervals based around the screening intervals (100-250 for CA, 180-330 for FOA_B and 112-262 for FOA_A) and the pooling intervals

(300-450 for CA and FOA_B and 332-482 for FOA_A).²⁶ The screening intervals reflect offers which are acceptable to A_L , but not A_H and which provide nonnegative surplus to both A_L and B . Thus, the intervals are 150 in length.²⁷ The pooling range is defined in an analogous way with offers that are acceptable to A_H and which provide positive surplus for A_H and B . Anomalous demands are those that are either below the screening range, between the screening and pooling intervals or above the pooling interval. The informational rents earned by A_L in FOA_B imply that the screening range covers 180-330, where this overlaps with the pooling range of 300-450. As Figure 1 shows, only 4% of offers are in the overlap region of 300-330.

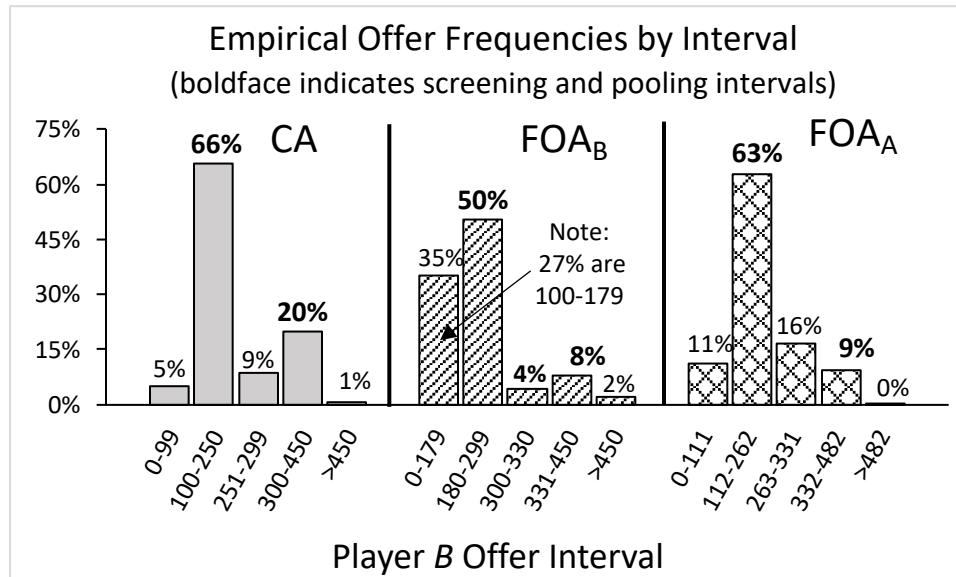


Figure 1. Histograms of Player B Settlement Offers

²⁶ Pooling offers are not predicted under our parameters, but some observed offers are consistent with pooling. Should player A receive such an offer, theory predicts that both A types would accept the offer.

²⁷ Under the theory, a screening offer O^L should be the lower support of our screening interval, perhaps plus 1 unit of surplus. We know from the ultimatum game literature and from the experimental literature on litigation bargaining (e.g., Pecorino and Van Boening 2018) that positive amounts of surplus tend to be offered and that very low offers of surplus are frequently rejected. Thus, we consider the entire interval $[O^L, O^L + (C_A + C_B)]$ which yields both players non-negative surplus as the relevant screening intervals, and $[O^H, O^H + (C_A + C_B)]$ as pooling intervals.

Figure 1 shows the relative frequency histograms of player B offers by selected intervals under each of the three mechanisms (see appendix Tables A3-A5 upper panels). For reference, the frequencies for the screening and pooling offer intervals are shown in boldface. Sixty-six percent of the player B offers are consistent with screening under CA, 50-54% under FOA_B, and 63% under FOA_A.²⁸ About 20% of B 's offers are consistent with pooling in CA, 9% in FOA_A and 8-13% in FOA_B. Combining screening and pooling offers, 86% of the B 's offers are non-anomalous under CA, 63% under FOA_B, and 72% under FOA_A.

Clearly, there are many more anomalous offers under FOA compared with CA and this is particularly true for FOA_B. FOA is a more complex procedure from the perspective of the experimental subjects. The large informational rents in FOA_B make locating the contract zone between A_L and B much more computationally demanding compared with CA. As seen in Figure 1, most of the anomalous demands in FOA_B fall below the screening interval and many of these (27%/35% = 77%) are in the 100-179 subinterval which is part of the contract zone in CA. This issue does not arise in Pecorino and Van Boening (2001) because both the L and H distributions are anchored at zero. When the lower support of the uniform distribution is constant, informational rents do not arise. However, they do arise when the lower support shifts, and the current experiment underscores how these rents may affect bargaining outcomes in FOA_B.

Result 3. Under all three arbitration mechanisms, excess disputes occur between A_L and B . These excess dispute rates are very similar across mechanisms: CA 26%, FOA_B 25%, and FOA_A 27%. Pooling offers are rare and except for FOA_B, they are almost always accepted by A_L .

Figure 2 show the conditional player A_L rejection rates using the same offer intervals as Figure 1 (see appendix Tables A3-A5 lower panels). The A_L dispute rates over the screening

²⁸ The 50-52% range for FOA_B reflects the 2% of offers in the overlap interval 300-330.

intervals are shown in boldface, as these indicate excess disputes between A_L and B . Under the theory, the screening offer is one which A_L should always accept, so a rejection by A_L constitutes an “excess dispute.” Empirically, excess disputes occur under all three mechanisms, and across mechanisms the rates are quite similar: CA at 26%, FOA_B at 25% and FOA_A at 26%. Rejections rates within this range do not explain differences in dispute rates across these mechanisms. Except for the overlap region of 300-330 for FOA_B, A_L dispute rates in the pooling range are low (1%, 9%, and 0%). Moreover, few offers fall within this range. For offers below the screening range, dispute rates are high corresponding to a theoretical prediction of 100% dispute within this range. The key in understanding differences across the three mechanisms is to note from Figure 1, that many more offers fall within this low-offer range under FOA_B compared to CA or FOA_A. We revisit this below.

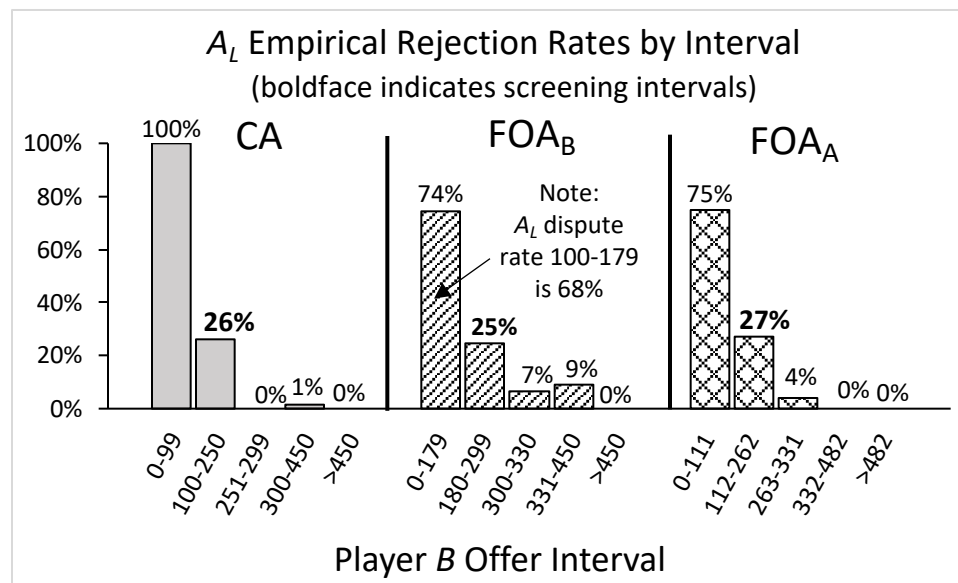


Figure 2. Player A_L Rejection Rates Conditional on Player B Offer Intervals

Appendix Tables A3-A5 provide insight on the player A_H rejection behavior. With our parameters, pooling offers should not occur, but under the theory A_H would accept them. From

Figure 1 above, these high offers occur about 9-20% of the time, but analysis of the data reveals that A_H does not always accept them. The high-offer rejection rates are 67% (18/27) in CA, 14% (1/7) in FOA_B and 26% (10/39) in FOA_A. This suggests that like A_L , empirically A_H sometimes rejects offers that contain positive surplus.²⁹ Cross-mechanism comparisons of these high-offer rejection rates must be tempered by the fact that there are relatively few observations on A_H in each of these three intervals.

Result 4. The two key factors for explaining differences in dispute rates across mechanisms are the high dispute rate under FOA_B for A_L and the low dispute rate under FOA_A for A_H . Under the theory, the predicted A_L dispute rate is 0% for all three mechanisms, while the theory correctly predicts that FOA_A will have the lowest dispute rate for A_H .

Under the theory, the dispute rate for A_L is predicted to be 0% under all three mechanisms, while the dispute rate for A_H is predicted to be 100% for CA and FOA_B and 75% for FOA_A. Table 4 reports dispute rates by player A type and decomposition of the overall dispute rates by player A type. A small portion of the differences in observed dispute rates is due to variation in the empirical frequency of player A types across mechanisms (predicted at 67% A_L and 33% A_H in each). More importantly, the A_L dispute rate for FOA_B is 38% compared with 27% for CA and 29% for FOA_A. Many of these disputes occur on offers in the screening range which are theoretically acceptable to A_L , but prior work (e.g., Pecorino and Van Boening 2018) has shown that disputes typically do occur in this range as the players fight over the joint surplus from settlement. Crucially, Figure 1 above shows that a much larger percentage of offers in FOA_B fall below the screening range compared to the other two games. Thirty-five percent of FOA_B offers fall below this range compared with 5% in CA and 11% for FOA_A. As seen above in Figure 2,

²⁹ As noted in Section 3.4, this contradicts a basic prediction implied by risk aversion which is that individuals accept all offers which have a greater expected value than arbitration.

the dispute rate in this region is high for all three mechanisms. This is a key explanatory factor in the high FOA_B dispute rate for A_L players.

Table 4. Dispute Rate Decomposition by Player A type

	Player A frequency and dispute rate by type				Overall dispute rate and decomposition by player A type		
	Frequency ^a		Dispute rate ^b		Dispute rate	Portion due to ^c	
	A_L	A_H	A_L	A_H		A_L	A_H
CA	.707	.293	.226	.864	.413	.160	.253
FOA _B	.644	.356	.379	.875	.556	.245	.311
FOA _A	.673	.327	.286	.539	.369	.192	.177

^a See Table 2 above.

^b See Appendix Tables A3-A5.

^c Player A type frequency \times player A type dispute rate.

Figure 1 indicates that player B is better able to find the screening region in CA and FOA_A compared to FOA_B. This is likely due to the large amount (= 80) of informational rents present in FOA_B. This drives the bottom of the screening interval from 100 in CA to 180 in FOA_B. It is relatively easy to compute the 100 for CA, by taking the mean of the L distribution and subtracting $C_A = 75$. Computing the 180 for FOA_B is much less straightforward. Clearly, there is some understanding by A_L that in FOA_B she should receive more than the 100 implied by CA and but much less understanding by B that more needs to be offered in this game. As a result, many offers which are unacceptable to A_L under the theory are made and these offers are rejected a very high rate (the note on Figure 1 shows the 100-179 B offer rate at 27% and the note on Figure 2 shows the 100-179 A_L dispute rate at 68%).³⁰

For all three games, the dispute rate for A_H is below the predicted value. The deviation is about 15 percentage points in CA and FOA_B and about 21 percentage points in FOA_A.

³⁰ By contrast, the corresponding B offer and A_L dispute rates for CA 100-179 are 36% and 47%, and for FOA_A 112-179 they are 24% and 42%. The reader will note that Figure 2 implies a small amount of informational rents present (= 12) in the FOA_A game. Only 2% (12/510) of player B offers in FOA_A are 100-111, eight of which ex post went to A_L who subsequently rejected six (75%) of them.

Consequently, the gap between FOA_A and the other two mechanisms is a bit larger empirically relative to the theoretical prediction. The predicted FOA_A gap is 25 percentage points ($= 100\% - 75\%$) but, from Table 4, the empirical gap is about 33 percentage points ($= 87\% - 54\%$). The last two columns of Table 4 show the percentage point contribution of disputes with A_L and A_H to the overall dispute rate for each mechanism. For FOA_A , the contribution of disputes with A_H is 7 percentage points lower compared with CA and 13 percentage points lower compared with FOA_B . Meanwhile, in FOA_A disputes with A_L contribute 3 more percentage points to the dispute rate compared with CA, and 5 fewer percentage points compared with FOA_B . Collectively, these differences yield overall dispute rates that are 4 percentage points lower in FOA_A compared to CA and 19 percentage points lower compared to FOA_B . Empirically, the relatively low incidence of A_H disputes in FOA_A and a relatively high incidence of A_L disputes in FOA_B are two key factors for explaining the large difference between their respective overall dispute rates.

Result 5. There is some evidence that FOA_B disadvantages the uninformed player, as B incurs a 7% higher average cost in FOA_B v. CA, and a 12% higher average cost in FOA_B v. FOA_A . There is some evidence that A_H does better under FOA_A , as the average A_H payoff is 9% higher in FOA_A v. FOA_B . Otherwise, differences in payoffs and costs do not appear to be statistically or economically significant.

Our final result relates to the distributional impact of the choice of the dispute resolution mechanism. Table 5 reports average per-round player B and average per-round player A payoffs by player A type for each mechanism, estimated using dummy variable regressions with robust standard errors clustered on sessions. The dummy variables identify the mechanism treatments and the p -values on pairwise tests are adjusted for multiple simultaneous tests (see table notes for model specifications). Table A6 in the appendix reports means and nonparametric pairwise tests using session-level data, and those results are similar to those in Table 5. From section 3, the theoretical predictions for player B costs are 217 CA, 270 FOA_B , and 222 FOA_A , which imply an

increase in costs of about 22-24% moving to FOA_B either from CA or FOA_A. Table 5 provides some support for that prediction that *B*'s costs will be highest under FOA_B, but the evidence is not strong. Based on the point estimate, player *B*'s cost is indeed highest for FOA_B (318), but the difference is 20 with CA ($p = .714$) and 33 with FOA_A ($p = .120$). In Table A6, the differences are 20 ($p = .25$) and 30 ($p = .04$), respectively. The former represents a 7% increase in costs (at the point estimates) when moving from CA to FOA_B, while the latter represents a 12% increase moving from FOA_A to FOA_B. The observed differences are consistent with there being an economically significant disadvantage to the uninformed player from utilizing the FOA_B process relative to using the CA or the FOA_A process.

Table 5. *B* Cost and *A* Payoff Regressions and Pairwise Tests

Treatments and pairwise tests	Regression estimate of treatment mean (std. err.) ^a		
	<i>B</i> cost	<i>A_H</i> payoff	<i>A_L</i> payoff
CA	298.09 (10.88)	298.03 (7.35)	210.38 (12.66)
FOA _B	317.72 (15.72)	288.24 (11.15)	204.67 (23.94)
FOA _A	285.03 (13.67)	317.53 (12.51)	186.99 (14.01)
H ₀ : CA = FOA _B			
Difference	-19.63	9.79	5.07
Test statistic	$F = 1.56$	$F = 0.77$	$F = 0.06$
(<i>p</i> -value)	($p = .714$)	($p = .999$)	($p = .999$)
H ₀ : CA = FOA _A			
Difference	13.05	-19.50	23.38
Test statistic	$F = 0.91$	$F = 2.43$	$F = 2.77$
(<i>p</i> -value)	($p = .999$)	($p = .440$)	($p = .372$)
H ₀ : FOA _B = FOA _A			
Difference	32.69	-29.29	17.68
Test statistic	$F = 5.41$	$F = 4.97$	$F = 0.70$
(<i>p</i> -value)	($p = .120$)	($p = .143$)	($p = .999$)

^a Estimated means from dummy-variable regressions with robust standard errors clustered on sessions. $Dep_Var_{i,j,t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * FOAB_{i,j,t} + \beta_2 * FOAA_{i,j,t}$ where $Dep_Var_{i,j,t}$ is either the player *B* cost, the player *A_H* payoff, or the player *A_L* payoff for subject *i* in session *j* round *t*. Dummy variables are $FOAB = 1$ if session *j* is a FOA_B session (= 0 otherwise), and $FOAA = 1$ if session *j* is a FOA_A session (= 0 otherwise). *B* cost regression: $n = 1530$, $R^2 = .012$, and $F = 2.72$ ($p = .110$). *A_H* payoff regression: $n = 497$, $R^2 = .017$, and $F = 2.51$ ($p = .127$). *A_L* payoff regression: $n = 1033$, $R^2 = .010$, and $F = 1.59$ ($p = .248$). Statistical tests with Bonferroni-adjusted *p*-values are H₀: $\beta_1 = 0$ for CA = FOA_B, H₀: $\beta_2 = 0$ for CA = FOA_A, and H₀: $\beta_1 = \beta_2$ for FOA_B = FOA_A.

The table also shows the A_H payoff is about 29 higher in FOA_A than in FOA_B, but the difference is only marginally significant ($p = .143$; the Table A6 difference is 31 with $p = .149$). Economically, this represents a 9% increase in payoffs (at the point estimates) when moving from FOA_B to FOA_A.³¹ This is consistent with theory as A_H earns some informational rents in FOA_A because player B submits a proposal while putting only a 1/3 weight on the probability that A is A_H . By contrast under FOA_B he places a 100% weight on the probability that A is A_H . In addition, A_H is less likely to proceed to arbitration in FOA_A compared with the other two games: theoretically 75% in FOA_A vs. 100% in CA and FOA_B, and here empirically 54% in FOA_B vs. about 87% in CA and FOA_B. To the extent that settlement offers contain positive surplus, this would raise A_H 's payoff. Other differences in payoffs are not statistically significant.

6. Conclusion

We experimentally compare dispute rates across two kinds of Final Offer Arbitration and a simple model of Conventional Arbitration. Our models are distinguished from most others in the experimental arbitration literature in that we have asymmetric information as a theoretical driver of disputes, whereas the previous experimental literature has typically utilized symmetric information between bargaining partners. In FOA_A, settlement negotiations succeed the submission of proposals to the arbitrator. Importantly, this setting parallels the default rules for arbitration promulgated by the International Centre for Dispute Resolution and the American Arbitration Association. Despite this, most previous work has compared CA to FOA_B under which settlement negotiations take place prior to the submission of proposals the arbitrator. No

³¹ Under our parameters, the offer that B would have to make to settle with A_H is 300 in FOA_B and 332 in FOA_A. This represents an increase of approximately 11% moving from FOA_B to FOA_A.

proposals are submitted under CA. Rather, the arbitrator simply imposes what she believes is the justified outcome given the facts.

One major result accords with the finding of Ashenfelter et al. (1992) and others in that we find the dispute rate in CA to be lower than FOA_B. Our point estimate of the difference in dispute rates between CA and FOA_B is 15 percentage points, which represents about 1/3 of the average dispute rate across these mechanisms. Thus, this effect is economically and statistically significant. We find the lowest dispute rate occurs in FOA_A, although the estimated difference between CA and FOA_A is only about 4-5 percentage points which is economically small and statistically insignificant. In contrast, we find the dispute rate is about 19 percentage points lower in FOA_A compared to FOA_B, which is both economically and statistically significant. Empirically, the key factors explaining this difference are the relatively low incidence of high-claim disputes in FOA_A and the relatively high incidence of low-claim disputes in FOA_B.

One concern with FOA, discussed in the introduction, is that it disadvantages the uninformed party to the dispute. Under our parameters, theory predicts that the uninformed party's costs should be similar in CA and FOA_A but higher in FOA_B. Our results are consistent with these predictions. We find no evidence that the uninformed party performs worse in FOA_A when compared to CA. When comparing CA to FOA_B, our point estimate indicates that the uninformed party has costs which are 7% lower in CA. This result is not statistically significant (p -value = 0.64), but it is at least weak evidence that the uninformed party is disadvantaged in the FOA_B process. Additionally, when comparing FOA_A with FOA_B our point estimate indicates that the uninformed party has costs which are 12% lower in FOA_A (p -value = 0.12), which is also in line with the theory. In addition to the lower dispute rate, this suggests a second possible advantage of FOA_A over FOA_B.

A single set of experiments cannot be totally conclusive in evaluating the three mechanisms we consider in this paper. However, it is noteworthy that one of our main findings – that CA has a lower dispute rate than FOA_B – agrees with an earlier literature where the experimental setting did not include asymmetric information. Moreover, the magnitude of this difference, 15 percentage points, is in line with the findings of the previous literature. This suggests a certain robustness to the result that lower dispute rates are found under CA when compared to FOA_B.

The screening model is one of the two canonical models of asymmetric information in the litigation/arbitration literature with the other being the signaling model under which the informed party makes the final settlement offer. Pecorino, Solomon and Van Boening (2024) conduct an arbitration experiment in the context of the signaling game. Their experimental protocol and parameters are the same as in this paper with the lone difference being that the informed player *A* makes a settlement demand rather than player *B*. They find that FOA_B has a dispute rate which is 10 percentage points higher than CA, where this difference is statistically significant and represents about ¼ of the average dispute rate across the three mechanisms. They find the dispute rate in FOA_A to be six percentage points higher than CA, with a marginal statistical significance.

Taken together, the current paper and Pecorino, Solomon and Van Boening (2024) find that FOA_B has the highest dispute rate among the three mechanisms. There is not much difference between CA and FOA_A with the point estimates indicating somewhat lower dispute rates for CA in the signaling game and somewhat higher dispute rates in the screening game. It is notable both that the literature which has found the higher dispute rates in FOA used FOA_B and that FOA_A corresponds to the default rules for final offer arbitration. The experimental evidence

is consistent with the idea that default rules have been chosen correctly and that CA and FOA_A are both reasonable choices for a dispute resolution mechanism.

A logical next step would be to allow for unstructured bargaining. The signaling and screening models each award all the bargaining power to one of the two parties to the dispute. Among other things, this allows for the derivation of explicit predictions within these models. Our expectation is that the results of free-form bargaining would fall in between the results in this paper and those in Pecorino, Solomon and Van Boening (2024).³²

³² For a paper along these lines in the civil litigation context, see Vassios Sivvipoulos and Van Boening (2022).

Appendix

Table A1. Experimental Sessions, Negotiations and Disputes

Session ^a	Number of subjects	Number of Negotiations			Number of Disputes (Rate)		
		By pairings			By pairings		
		<i>A v. B</i>	<i>A_H v. B</i>	<i>A_L v. B</i>	<i>A v. B</i>	<i>A_H v. B</i>	<i>A_L v. B</i>
CA-1	20	150	41	109	56 (.373)	34 (.829)	22 (.202)
CA-2	18	135	46	89	58 (.430)	38 (.826)	20 (.225)
CA-3	14	105	29	76	45 (.429)	29 (1.00)	16 (.211)
CA-4	18	135	38	97	58 (.430)	32 (.842)	26 (.268)
FOA _B -1	20	150	57	93	76 (.507)	44 (.772)	32 (.344)
FOA _B -2	16	120	47	73	87 (.725)	44 (.936)	43 (.589)
FOA _B -3	14	105	30	75	51 (.486)	28 (.933)	23 (.307)
FOA _B -4	16	120	42	78	61 (.508)	38 (.905)	23 (.295)
FOA _A -1	14	105	36	69	47 (.448)	24 (.667)	23 (.333)
FOA _A -2	20	150	51	99	53 (.353)	26 (.510)	27 (.273)
FOA _A -3	18	135	37	98	42 (.311)	17 (.459)	25 (.255)
FOA _A -4	16	120	43	77	46 (.383)	23 (.535)	23 (.299)

^a All sessions had 15 negotiation rounds. The four FOA_A sessions were conducted first, followed by the four FOA_B sessions, and then by the four CA sessions.

Table A2. Estimated Dispute Rates and Pairwise Tests from Random Effects Logit Regression ^a

Treatments and pairwise tests	Coefficient estimate $\hat{\alpha}$ (std. err.), estimated dispute rate \hat{r}
CA	$\hat{\alpha}_0 = -.381 (.1403)$, $\hat{r}_{CA} = .406$
FOA _B	$\hat{\alpha}_1 = .622 (.2008)$, $\hat{r}_{FOA_B} = .560$
FOA _A	$\hat{\alpha}_2 = -.210 (.2010)$, $\hat{r}_{FOA_A} = .356$
H ₀ : CA = FOA _B	
Estimated difference	$\hat{r}_{CA} - \hat{r}_{FOA_B} = -.154$
H ₀ : $\alpha_1 = 0$	$\chi^2 = 9.59$ (<i>p</i> -value = .006)
H ₀ : CA = FOA _A	
Estimated difference	$\hat{r}_{CA} - \hat{r}_{FOA_A} = .050$
H ₀ : $\alpha_2 = 0$	$\chi^2 = 2.19$ (<i>p</i> -value = .888)
H ₀ : FOA _B = FOA _A	
Estimated difference	$\hat{r}_{FOA_B} - \hat{r}_{FOA_A} = .204$
H ₀ : $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2$	$\chi^2 = 16.66$ (<i>p</i> -value = .000)

^a Random effects logit regression with robust standard errors clustered on sessions and individual player *A* subjects as random effects: $Reject_{i,j,t} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 FOAB_{i,i,t} + \alpha_2 FOAA_{i,j,t} + \sum_{i=1}^{102} \gamma_i * A_Subject_i + \epsilon_{i,t}$. For player *A* subject *i* in session *j* round *t*, $Reject = 1$ if *A* rejects player *B*'s settlement offer (= 0 if *A* accepts), $FOAB = 1$ if session *j* is a FOA_B session (= 0 otherwise), and $FOAA = 1$ if session *j* is a FOA_A session (= 0 otherwise). $n = 1530$, log-likelihood = -1011.23, and $\chi^2 = 18.08$ (*p* = .000). Estimated probability $\hat{r} = e^{\hat{y}} / (1 + e^{\hat{y}})$: $\hat{y}_{CA} = \hat{\alpha}_0$, $\hat{y}_{FOA_B} = \hat{\alpha}_0 + \hat{\alpha}_1$, and $\hat{y}_{FOA_A} = \hat{\alpha}_0 + \hat{\alpha}_2$. Bonferroni-adjusted *p*-values are reported for the pairwise coefficient tests.

Table A3. CA Offer Frequencies and Dispute Rates

	Overall	Offer interval				
		0-99	100-250 ^a	251-299	300-450 ^a	> 450
I. Player <i>B</i> offers						
Relative frequency (number)	1.0 (525)	.050 (26)	.655 (344)	.088 (46)	.200 (105)	.008 (4)
II. Dispute rates						
<i>A</i> v. <i>B</i> (dispute ratio)	.413 (217/525)	.962 (25/26)	.474 (163/344)	.217 (10/46)	.181 (19/105)	.000 (0/4)
<i>A_H</i> v. <i>B</i> ^b (dispute ratio)	.864 (133/154)	.800 (4/5)	.935 (101/108)	.714 (10/14)	.667 (18/27)	--
<i>A_L</i> v. <i>B</i> ^b (dispute ratio)	.226 (84/371)	1.0 (21/21)	.263 (62/236)	.000 (0/32)	.013 (1/78)	.000 (0/4)

^a Offers 100-250 are consistent with the screening model. Offers 300-450 are consistent with the pooling; pooling offers are not predicted under our parameters.

^b Player *B* does not know player *A*'s type at the time of the *B* offer decision and *A*'s accept/reject decision.

Table A4. FOA_B Offer Frequencies and Dispute Rates

	Overall	Offer interval				
		0-179	180-299 ^a	300-330 ^a	331-450 ^a	>450
I. Player <i>B</i> offers						
Relative frequency (number)	1.0 (495)	.352 (174)	.503 (249)	.042 (21)	.018 (43)	.022 (11)
II. Dispute rates						
<i>A</i> v. <i>B</i> (dispute ratio)	.556 (275/495)	.833 (145/174)	.490 (122/249)	.190 (4/21)	.100 (4/40)	.000 (0/11)
<i>A_H</i> v. <i>B</i> ^b (dispute ratio)	.875 (154/176)	.971 (67/69)	.922 (83/90)	.500 (3/6)	.143 (1/7)	.000 (0/4)
<i>A_L</i> v. <i>B</i> ^b (dispute ratio)	.379 (121/319)	.743 (78/105)	.245 (39/159)	.067 (1/15)	.091 (3/33)	.000 (0/7)

^a Offers 180-330 are consistent with the screening model. Offers 300-450 are consistent with the pooling; pooling offers are not predicted under our parameters. Offers 300-330 are indeterminate due to the overlap of the screening and pooling intervals.

^b Player *B* does not know player *A*'s type at the time of the *B* offer decision and *A*'s accept/reject decision.

Table A5. FOA_A Offer Frequencies and Dispute Rates

	Overall	Offer interval				
		0-111	112-262 ^a	263-331	332-482	> 482
I. Player <i>B</i> offers						
Relative frequency (number)	1.0 (510)	.112 (57)	.625 (319)	.165 (84)	.094 (48)	.004 (2)
II. Dispute rates						
<i>A</i> v. <i>B</i> (dispute ratio)	.369 (188/510)	.789 (45/57)	.382 (122/319)	.131 (11/84)	.208 (10/48)	.000 (0/2)
<i>A_H</i> v. <i>B</i> ^b (dispute ratio)	.539 (90/167)	.882 (15/17)	.757 (56/74)	.257 (9/35)	.256 (10/39)	.000 (0/2)
<i>A_L</i> v. <i>B</i> ^b (dispute ratio)	.286 (98/343)	.750 (30/40)	.269 (66/245)	.041 (2/49)	.000 (0/9)	--

^a Offers 112-262 are consistent with the screening model. Offers 332-482 are consistent with the pooling; pooling offers are not predicted under our parameters.

^b Player *B* does not know player *A*'s type at the time of the *B* offer decision and *A*'s accept/reject decision.

Table A6. Session-level Costs and Payoffs and Pairwise Tests

Treatments and pairwise tests	Mean (median) session-level mean cost or payoff: ^a		
	<i>B</i> cost	<i>A_H</i> payoff	<i>A_L</i> payoff
CA	296.01 (297.50)	295.96 (299.80)	208.17 (213.15)
FOA _B	315.75 (309.52)	287.61 (285.49)	201.69 (205.53)
FOA _A	285.96 (291.95)	318.36 (319.02)	185.84 (180.95)
H ₀ : CA = FOA _B			
Difference	-19.74	8.34	6.48
Test statistic (<i>p</i> -value)	<i>z</i> = -1.15 (<i>p</i> = .248)	<i>z</i> = 0.58 (<i>p</i> = .564)	<i>z</i> = 0.29 (<i>p</i> = .773)
H ₀ : CA = FOA _A			
Difference	10.06	-22.41	22.33
Test statistic (<i>p</i> -value)	<i>z</i> = 1.15 (<i>p</i> = .248)	<i>z</i> = -1.16 (<i>p</i> = .248)	<i>z</i> = 0.87 (<i>p</i> = .386)
H ₀ : FOA _B = FOA _A			
Difference	29.79	-30.75	15.85
Test statistic (<i>p</i> -value)	<i>z</i> = 2.02 (<i>p</i> = .043)	<i>z</i> = 1.44 (<i>p</i> = .149)	<i>z</i> = 0.87 (<i>p</i> = .386)

^a For each session, mean (median) cost and payoff across all negotiations is computed and the table value is the mean (median) of the *n* = 4 means (medians) per treatment. Pairwise Mann-Whitney rank-sum tests use session-level means.

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