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▶ To cite this version:

Wael Bousselmi, Patrick Sentis, Marc Willinger. How do markets react to (un)expected fundamental value shocks? An experimental analysis. Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Finance, In press, 10.1016/j.jbef.2019.05.001. hal-02142601

HAL Id: hal-02142601 https://hal.science/hal-02142601v1

Submitted on 28 May 2019

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Accepted Manuscript

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PII: S2214-6350(18)30168-0

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbef.2019.05.001

Reference: JBEF 219

To appear in: Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Finance

Received date: 5 August 2018 Revised date: 5 May 2019 Accepted date: 6 May 2019



Please cite this article as: W. Bousselmi, P. Sentis and M. Willinger, How do markets react to (un)expected fundamental value shocks? An experimental analysis. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Finance* (2019), https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbef.2019.05.001

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How do markets react to (un)expected fundamental value shocks? An

experimental analysis

Wael Bousselmi⁽¹⁾, Patrick Sentis⁽²⁾, Marc Willinger⁽³⁾

ABSTRACT

We study experimentally the reaction of asset markets to f and and ntal value (FV) shocks. The

pre-shock and post-shock FV are both constant, but after the shock the FV is either higher or

lower than before. We compare treatments with expected snocks (the date and the magnitude

are known in advance, but not the direction) to treal ments with unexpected shocks (subjects

only know that a shock may occur but are unaway of the date and the magnitude). We observe

mispricing in markets without shocks and in narkets with shocks. Shocks tend to reduce the

post-shock price deviation and to increase the difference of opinions (DO), whatever the type

of the shock (expected or unexpected) and its direction (upwards or downwards). In contrast to

standard predictions, the large DD after a shock is not accompanied by an increase in

transaction volumes, but by sharp depression of share turnover.

Keywords: Experimental asset market, shocks, price bubble, difference of opinions.

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This research wa supported by Labex (Label of Excellence) "Entreprendre", University of Montpellier, "Governance, Market

Strategies and Sustainable Performance" research program, and by the IUF grant.

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How do markets react to (un)expected fundamental value shocks? An experimental analysis

I. Introduction

Financial markets are inherently noisy and asset prices convey only partial information to the traders (Grossman, (1976), Grossman and Stiglitz, (1980)). One or the fundamental reasons is that financial markets are affected by exogenous shocks (Subi hammy am and Titman, (2013)) which move prices away from their equilibrium path, lead ng to bibles and crashes.

The experimental literature on financial markets not provided ample evidence about the relevance of price bubbles in laboratory asset markets. The seminal findings of Smith et al., (1988) (SSW (1988) hereafter) have been replicated and extended by a growing literature (e.g., King et al., (1993), Van Boening et al., (1993), Lei et al., (2001), Noussair et al., (2001), Haruvy and Noussair, (2006), Caginalp et al., (2011), Noussair and Richter, (2012), Noussair and Tucker, (2014), Noussair et al., (2014) and Stöckl et al., (2015)).

So far, most experiments relied on a deterministic process of fundamental value (FV thereafter). While such a rase amption is useful for identifying and isolating the characteristics of speculative behavior in the lab, it may lead to particular behavioral insights that are valid only for rather rangealistic contexts. For instance, a deterministic FV may encourage speculation by traders who are over-confident in their ability to buy low and sell high. Introducing randomness in the FV process may therefore temper experimental traders' speculative expectations and, as a consequence, prevent the formation of price bubbles. Compared to a situation where the FV is deterministic, and therefore perfectly anticipated,

¹ For detailed reviews on experimental asset markets we refer to Palan, (2013) and Powell and Shestakova, (2016). In addition, the review of Nuzzo and Morone, (2017) is of particular interest as it is focused on diffusion of information.

when traders are exposed to a stochastic FV process, they face both strategic uncertainty and background uncertainty, providing therefore a more important role for expectations.

The purpose of this paper is to study experimentally the formation of asse, price bubbles in experimental markets where the FV can be affected by an exogenous sanck, which is either expected or non-expected by traders. More specifically, we company narkets in which traders are perfectly aware that a shock will occur, i.e. they know the period in which the shock will occur and its magnitude but not its direction, to markets in which traders only know that a shock may occur, but ignore the period, the magnitude and the direction.

The empirical relevance of expected shocks is illustrated by political events such as the Brexit referendum vote in UK in 2016. Similarly, the resent history provides numerous examples of unexpected exogenous shocks that affected transcial markets, e.g. the subprime crisis and more generally shocks that are provoked by events such as natural hazard, civil wars, popular uprising, political scandals or other reasons. Although most of these shocks have an indisputable impact on the FV, heir magnitude and exact timing (when they are unexpected), cannot be measured precisely. Furthermore, in real financial markets, several shocks of different timings and magnitude, often arise in a given time period. In contrast, experiments allow us to manipulate the FV process, and the timing and magnitude of the shocks.

In our framework a shock consists in an upwards or a downwards shift of the FV path. We consider bindry symmetric shocks, i.e. the upwards shift is of the same magnitude than the downward symmetric shocks, i.e. the upwards shift is of the same magnitude than the downward symmetric shocks, i.e. the upwards shift is of the same magnitude than the downward symmetric shocks, i.e. the upwards shift is of the same magnitude than the downward symmetric shocks, i.e. the upwards shift is of the same magnitude than the

before the outcome of the shock applies. In markets without shocks we implement a constant FV path as in Noussair et al., (2001).

Introducing a mean zero perturbation of the FV path is similar to *e* iding an *unfavorable* background risk, i.e. a risk with a null or negative mean, to a preexisting risk. Such increase in risk may affect negatively risk-taking for decreasingly risk-averse coents as shown in Gollier and Pratt (1996), a conjecture which is experimentally supported Beaud and Willinger, (2015). We therefore expect that the introduction of a binary symmetric shock in an experimental asset market is likely to increase the demand for the risk-free asset before the occurrence of the shock and therefore to mitigate the cornamic of a price bubble. On the other hand, after the shock, as the risk is resolved we expect risk-averse traders to take more risk, i.e. a higher demand for the risky asset.

We are also interested in how the volume of Lading is affected by such shocks. The answer depends on how shocks affect the c'fference of opinions (DO thereafter), i.e. the dispersion of beliefs. We expect that before an expected shock traders' DO increases. In contrast, once the shock is realized and uncer Linty has vanished beliefs converge. Relying on the theoretical and empirical literature too to the relation between the DO and trading volume, we expect trading volume to respond positively to the increase in the DO: high trading volume before the realization of the shock and low trading volume after it.

We impleme ted a vithin-subject design for which each subject was involved in a market without a 'hook followed by a market with a shock. Subjects were endowed with different types of portfolios and their main task was to submit bids and asks for trading units of a

financial asset. We elicited individual price expectations at the opening of each market round in order to measure the traders' difference of opinions (DO) in each independent group.

Our main findings are the following. First, we observe overpricing with respect to the FV in markets without shocks as well as is in markets with (expected or prespected) shocks. However, mispricing is attenuated following a shock. Second, and a shock we observe an increase in the DO, whatever the type of the shock (expected or unex sected) and whatever its direction (upwards or downwards). Third, there is a sharp drop in transaction volume after a shock whatever its type and direction.

Our experiment is closely related to Weber and Webers (2009) who studied the impact of new information about the FV. Following the arrival of new information they observed a clear pattern for trading volume in their data: the frequency of transactions drops sharply, whether the new information increases or decreases the FV. A similar result was established by Nosic and Weber (2009), but Marquard et al. (2019) found that turnover increases after the announcement of new information Additional evidence is therefore needed. Although our experimental design involve or trong methodological differences, several of our findings agree with those of Weber and Welfens (2009) and Nosic and Weber (2009). Our experimental design is based on the standard SSW setup but with a constant FV as in Noussair et al., (2001): 9 traders proming et al., 3 types of initial portfolios of equal expected value, 3 traders assigned to each portfolio type, 15 trading rounds and all rounds paid. A shock consists in moving upwards or lownwards the FV in round 8. In contrast, in Weber and Welfens, (2009) and in Notice and Weber, (2009), groups have different sizes and are randomly reformed during the 4 first rounds (out of 10). There is only one portfolio type which is reset at the beginning of each round, and a single round is randomly selected to be paid. A positive

(negative) shock consists in announcing in the middle of a round that the two low (high) payout states are discarded. Despite all these differences several results are remarkably similar: a sharp drop in turnover after a shock, an increase in the ΓJ , and a positive correlation between DO and turnover.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In section 2 we review the main findings of the experimental literature on asset markets with deterministic FV. Section 3 describes our experimental design. In section 4 we discuss the theoretical predictions of FV shocks on prices, transactions and the DO. Section 5 presents our results and Section 6 discusses our findings.

II. Literature review

Most of the literature on experimental financial markets has focused on a single asset with a deterministic FV, i.e. subjects know in a lyance the time path of the FV. Moreover, until recently this literature also as a monotonic (non-stochastic) FV process. Recent exceptions are Noussair and Powen, (2010), Kirchler et al., (2012), Breaban and Noussair, (2015) and Stöckl et al., (2015). A few papers also introduced a stochastic FV "random-walk FV-processes" (Weber and Velfens, (2009), Nosic and Weber (2009), Kirchler, (2009), Nosic et al., (2011), Kirchler et al., (2011), Stöckl et al., (2015)). There is therefore limited knowledge with respect to one of the key components of real financial markets, namely stochastic in a portant reason is that in real asset markets, the FV process is not only stochastic in a solution of the separation of the separation of the financial markets, the FV process and traders' behavior and expectations when markets are affected by controlled FV shocks. While the

identification of the reactions of market prices and transaction volumes to such shocks is a challenging issue with real market data, it becomes much more easy with experimental data. We next briefly discuss some of the findings of experimental asset market that will be relevant to our study, with respect to price bubbles (II.1) and trading volumes (II.2).

II.1 Price bubbles

Following SSW (1988), most of the later literature relied on a deter ministic and monotonic FV process. Many of these later papers (e.g., Noussair e al., (2001), Noussair and Richter, (2012) Smith et al., (2000), Haruvy et al., (2013), Huber a. d Kirchler, (2012), Kirchler et al., (2012)², Ikromov and Yavas, (2011), Giusti et al., (2012) and Straznicka and Weber, (2011)) established that price bubbles are frequently c'served and robust to various market mechanisms, e.g. short-selling (Haruvy and Noussair, (2006) and King et al., (1993)) lack of common knowledge (Lei et al., (2001)), ava. ability of non-speculative markets (Lei et al., (2001)) and constant FV process (Noussair et al., (2001)). However experimental papers which implemented an increasing FV over ime (e.g., Giusti et al., (2012), Johnson and Joyce, (2012) and Stöckl et al., (2015) dic not find significant evidence for bubbles, confirming the conjecture of Smith, (2015) and Oechssler, (2010) that bubbles are less likely under increasing FV patterns, which correspond to the market experience of most individual traders.

A few papers ex. mine I the case where the FV is non-monotonic (Noussair and Powell, (2010), Brea van an Noussair, (2015) and Kirchler, (2009)). Noussair and Powell, (2010) investigate 1 h Jw the FV's trajectory affects price discovery in an experimental asset market and transaction prices behavior facing downwards and upwards variation of FV. In their *Peak* treatment, the FV first rises and then falls, while in their *Valley* treatment the FV follows the

² The authors show that adding a "gold mine" context to the standard declining FV process considerably abates bubbles.

opposite pattern. They found that both *Peak* and *Valley* treatments generate bubbles when traders are inexperienced. Breaban and Noussair, (2015) studied how the time path of the FV trajectory affects the level of adherence to the FV, by comparing the level of mispricing for decreasing and increasing FV trajectories. They observed closer adherence to FVs when the trajectory follows a decreasing rather than an increasing trend.

In experiments where the FV fluctuates randomly (e.g. G llette t al., (1999), Kirchler, (2009)), market prices tend to underreact to changes in FV lexiting to lower prices when the FV is predominantly increasing and to higher prices when the FV is predominantly decreasing. In other words there seems to be a tempering effect of random shocks on the price deviation from the FV. Finally, Hussam et al., (2000) observed that bubbles are rekindled after an increase in liquidity or an increase of the variance of the dividends, even with experienced subjects.

II.2 Trading volume

Fewer papers examined the im act on trading volume (e.g., Gillette et al., (1999), Lei et al., (2001)) compared to those hos turnover.

Our set up is closely 'elated to Weber and Welfens (2009)'s design. At the beginning of their experiment it is common. I nowledge to subjects that each unit of stock can take one of four different values, with equal probability. After 2 minutes of trading new information is provided in 'he following way: with equal probability, either the two higher values are discarded (negative FV shock) or the two lower values are discarded (positive FV shock), the remaining values being equally likely. Following such a shock, Weber and Welfens, (2009) observed that the frequency of transactions drops sharply, whether the FV increases or

decreases. They also observed a similar effect for order placements which are significantly reduced after the shock.

The drop in transaction volume following the arrival of new information is of viell understood, but seems to be related to a change in the DO. In the periods preceding an expected shock the DO is larger than in the absence of shocks, an in the periods following the shock belief seem to converge which tends to depress turnover. Note also that the negative impact of a F7 shock on trading volume can be compared to the impact of the unexpected introduction of a Tobir dax in an experimental asset market. Hanke et al., (2010) and Kirchler et al., (2011) observe a significant grop in trading volume in each market where a Tobin tax is introduced. Furthermore, with out surprise, if only one market is taxed, the drop in trading is amplified in the taxed market while trading is intensified in the untaxed market (the tax haven).

Our brief overview of the literature points out the knowledge gap about the impact on mispricing and trading volumes of FV shocks. Our experiment contributes to fill in this gap.

III. Experimental Losign

A total of 270 student subjects³ from various disciplines of the University of Montpellier (France) participated in the experiment. They were recruited from a large subject-pool (with over 5000 volunteers) with ORSEE (Greiner, (2004))). They were inexperienced with experimental asset makets and could participate only in one session. The experiment was programmed with the z-Tree software (Fischbacher, (2007)). In each session, two independent groups⁴ of the subjects were involved in two consecutive markets: market 1 and market 2.

³ Most of our subjects are graduate student from scientific, economic and business administration disciplines. Descriptive statistics about our sample are available upon request. Haigh and List, (2005) showed that professional traders do not better (and partly worse) than university students in an investment task that examined myopic loss aversion.

⁴ In one of the sessions we had only one group due to the absence of several subjects.

Each market consisted of 15 periods, during which individuals could trade units of an asset. It was common knowledge that the asset's lifetime was equal to the 15 periods. The numeraire in the experiment consisted of "Experimental Currency Units" (ecus), which were converted into euros at the end of a session at a predetermined, publicly known, conversion rate (1 euro = 337.5 ecus). Each session lasted approximately 3 hours, including insulations and payment of subjects. Subjects earned on average 28 euros.

The experiment was broken into three treatments: T1 "Ex vect a TV shock", T2 "Unexpected FV shock" and T0 "No-shock". Market 1 is the same n. all treatments and similar to the market studied by Noussair et al., (2001) and Kirch'er et al., (2012) in which the FV of the asset is constant over the entire life of the asset. In treatment T1 and T2, we introduce a FV shock in a way similar to Weber and Welfens, (2009), Bao et al., (2012)⁵, Corgnet et al., (2013) and Marquardt et al., (2019)). More precisely, market 2 involved a shock in period 8 on the FV which becomes either larger or lower compared to the pre-shock value. In T1 subjects are informed that a rando shock will arise at the end of period 8. In treatment T2 the shock was the same as in T. by subjects ignored that a random shock would arise at the end of period 8. Treatment T2 is our control treatment: subjects participate in two consecutive identical markets with constant FV (two markets without shock). Table 1 summarizes our experimental design and the parametric setting. The instructions provided to subjects are available in a provided 2.

Our experimental setting is close to the following studies. Weber and Welfens, (2009) consider a single rading period with an interruption in the middle to announce new

⁵ One of our reason involves unexpected shocks as in the learning-to-forecast experiment of Bao et al., (2012).

⁶ T2 is the closes to the real stock market, where traders have often good or bad unexpected news about the value of their stock. To prevent Seception we used a design characterized by an unexpected news, knowing that the news in our design are related to the terminal value of stocks (buyout).

Two experimental market studies used a design characterized by an unexpected Tobin tax news (Kirchler et al., (2011) and Hanke et al., (2010)). In both studies subjects do not get any information about the potential implementation of transaction taxes before the main experiment starts and they are not informed whether and when the tax regime is changed again. Furthermore, the tax rate is also placed on the trading screen once a tax has been introduced. By contrast in the following studies (Bloomfield et al., (2009) and Cipriani and Guarino, (2008)) subjects know in advance that Tobin tax will be levied.

information about the possible states of the world. In their experimental design, the new information "shifted" the FV upwards or downwards, and subjects had only 120 seconds for trading before and after the shock. Corgnet et al., (2013) studied the effects of ambiguous public news. They consider an experimental market with three traying periods and four minutes for each period. In their design, subjects know that they will have news at the end of each of the three periods. In the Marquardt et al., (2019) design, vijects participate to two markets with 12 two-minute periods each, where an expected shock (either good or bad business conditions) is announced after the first two per ods and the business activities are neutral again in the two last periods (such in the first two periods). The particularity of our design is that we rely on the SSW asset market with a constant FV. Participants were involved in 15 trading periods of 2 minutes each. The shock Iways happened in period 8. This allows us to have a reasonable number of periods both various and after the shock to observe eventual price bubbles and to detect changes in prices, volumes and expectations. Our design allows for 8 periods of 120 seconds each before the shock and 7 periods of 120 seconds after the shock. This design allows for more eedback information (e.g. closing prices after each round) and more rounds to allow for the eventual mispricing and adjustments in turnover.

Each session was divided in three parts: part one was a real effort task, part two consisted in two consecutive experimental markets and part three in a risk preference questionnaire.

IV.1 - Part one: 1 'al ef' ort task

In part 1 subjects halt to perform a real effort task in order to accumulate *private money*. The task consided to count the number of "1's" in a grid containing a sequence of "0's" and "1's". The reason of part 1 was to avoid the house-money effect (De Bondt and Thaler, (1990), Thaler and Johnson, (1990) and Ackert et al., (2006)) that is likely to favor speculative

behavior. In particular, in treatment T1 for which the shock was expected, speculative behavior could have been over-amplified if subjects would have played with the experimenter's money. The money earned in part 1 was available to subjects a participating in the second part of the experiment. Subjects received a flat rate for task completion. Precisely, all subjects who had succeeded in achieving the task received 6,750 ecus (which corresponds to 20 euros) to participate in the second part of the periment. Subjects who failed in part 1 earned only the show-up fee and where aske I to leave the room⁷ before we started part 2.

INSERT TAЬ! Е 1

IV.2 - Part two: Experimental markets

In this part, subjects participated ir. two consecutive markets. Before market 1 began subjects were randomly assigned to a group of nine traders. The groups remained identical for the two markets. In each group subjects were randomly assigned to one of three types: P1 trader, P2 trader or P3 trader. Each group consisted of 3 traders of each type. Each trader type was defined according to the composition of its portfolio. However the expected value of a portfolio was equal to 6,75% ecus for all types (P1, P2 and P3). Table 1 describes the portfolio composition of each type.

Before sta. 'in', use first market, subjects were involved in a training phase for two minutes to allow them to become comfortable with the interface. Gains and losses of the training phase were not counted as accumulated wealth for cash payment.

⁷ This happened only once over all sessions.

a) Market One

After the training phase, subjects participated in the fifteen market period on warket 1. Each trading period lasted 2 minutes, during which subjects could buy and/exse', units of a single stock. Prices were quoted in terms of experimental currency units (ec.s), and gains were converted into euros at the end of the session. The traded asset has so fifteen period lifetime.

At the end of each period, the asset paid a dividend of either. '5 or 15 ecus, or incurred a holding cost of either -15 or -45 ecus. A random draw determined at the end of each period the dividend or the holding cost for that period, with uniform probability (according to the roll of a four-sided die). The expected value of the dividend/holding cost equals therefore zero in each period. Dividends and holding costs were recumulated in a separate account and were added and subtracted from the final market gam (accumulated and distributed at the end of the session). The separate account was introduced in order to keep constant the liquidity and the number of stock over time. How wer, subjects were informed after each period about the realized level of dividend/holding of stock that period.

Each unit of the asset prid a terminal value (buyout) of 300 ecus to its owner at the end of market 1. Thus the FY for each unit of the asset is equal to 300 ecus at any period⁸ of market 1. The dividend process the number of periods and the terminal value were common knowledge.

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⁸ The FV of a unit of asset in period t equals $f_t = Buyout + (T-t) \times E(d_t)$, t = 1, 2, ..., T, where f_t correspond to the FV in period t, T the total number of periods, t the current period and $E(d_t)$ the expected value of the dividend payment in period t. In our markets $E(d_t) = 0$ for all t, so $f_t = Buyout$ for all t.

At the beginning of each period, subjects were required to make a price forecast about the current period contract prices. We asked them to provide a forecast in interval form, by setting a lower bound and an upper bound in the beginning of each period. In order to incentivize the forecasting task, we introduced a variant of Selten's measure of predictive success (Selten, (1991)). According to our predictive success rule the payoff of a forecast increases in the number of correctly predicted transaction prices and decreases in the size of the forecasting interval. The forecast profit of subject $i=1,...,9 \in period t$ we defined as follows: $\pi_{i,t}=Max(G_{i,t};0)$, where $G_{i,t}$ equals?

$$10\frac{h}{h_{t}^{i}} - 5\frac{\left(a_{i} - a_{t}^{i}\right)}{a_{t}^{i}}; if \ a_{i} - a_{t}^{i} > 0$$

$$10\frac{h}{h_{t}^{i}}; if \ a_{i} - a_{t}^{i} \leq 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$G_{i,t} = i$$

where a_t^i is the size of the realized problem al, i.e. $a_t^i = \{ max_t(P_t) - min_t(P_t) + 1 \}$, a_i is the size of the predicted introval i.e. a_i is the size of the predicted introval i.e. a_i is the size of the predicted introval i.e. a_i is the size of the predicted introval i.e. a_i is the size of the predicted introval i.e. a_i is the size of the predicted introval i.e. a_i is the size of the predicted introval i.e. a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable for subject a_i is the size of the predicted introval interpretable fo

⁹ We used the following forecast profit formula only in the first two sessions, $G_{i,t} = 5\frac{h}{h_t^i} - 2.5 \frac{(a_i - a_t^i)}{a_t^i} - ; if \ a_i - a_t^i > 0 \quad \text{and} \quad G_{i,t} = 5\frac{h}{h_t^i}; if \ a_i - a_t^i \leq 0 \quad . \text{ For the remaining sessions we}$ used $G_{i,t} = 10\frac{h}{h_t^i} - \frac{(a_i - a_t^i)}{a_t^i}; if \ a_i - a_t^i > 0 \quad \text{and} \qquad G_{i,t} = 10\frac{h}{h_t^i}; if \ a_i - a_t^i \leq 0 \quad .$

¹⁰ A referee pair ed out that our method for eliciting forecasts was complex and therefore could have generated confusion. Even though it no ght have generated some noise in the prediction data, there is no reason why it could have created more noise in the test treatments (with shocks) than in the baseline treatment. Moreover, test treatments were always introduced in sequence 2, therefore subjects became more accurate in the prediction task because they were once experienced and learned to make better predictions. We provide support for this claim by comparing the relative prediction error, i.e. |median forecast -FV|/FV, between sequence 1 and sequence 2. The relative prediction error is significantly lower in the first half of sequence 2 than in the first half of sequence 1 for all our treatments with one exception (sign-rank tests, 5%).

b) Market 2

There is only one difference between market 1 and market 2 (in treatmer is Γ^1 and T2): the presence of a FV shock in market 2 at the end of period 8. Let us d scribe precisely each treatment.

T1: Expected fundamental value shock:

Two final buyout values are possible after the shock: 200 or 400 ecus with equal probability. Hence, the expected value of the buyout in the pre-shock periods was equal to 300 ecus as in market 1. All subjects knew that at the end of period of the two possible buyout values would be randomly selected and publicly announced to all members of their group. The shock could be upwards if the selected value was equal to 400 ecus or downwards if the selected value was equal to 200 ecus. After the shock, the final buyout was displayed on the subject's screens and the FV was equal to the selected buyout.

T2: Unexpected fundamental value shock

In treatment T2, although subjects were aware that a FV change was possible, they had no clue about the possible ampleades of the changes nor about the period in which such a change could occur. At the beginning of market 2, they were simply told that the initial FV was equal to 300 ecus as in market 1 but that possibly new information regarding the terminal value could be provided during the market.

At the end of period 3, a warning message was displayed on their screens, in which they could read that the trular buyout was no longer equal to 300 ecus but to 400 ecus in the upwards case or to 200 ecus in the downwards case. In addition to the displayed message, the experimenter announced aloud that a new redemption value was set.

At the end of the session one of the two markets was randomly selected to be paid out. Subjects were aware of this rule before starting market 1. The final gain/'oss in ecus for the selected market was determined as follows:

 $Final\ gain = Final\ cash\ balance +$

(Final buyout × Inventory of asset)+Savings a recount valance

Note that the savings account consisted of the accumulated net dividends and forecasts profits. The cash balance could evolve with successive unasactions, in particular by capital gains (losses) due to differences between selling and buying prices of units of stock.

Subjects' final earning was equal to their i na gain for the selected market plus their participation fee.

IV.3 - Part three: Risk aversic (ar d d mographic questionnaires

Subjects were asked a serie, of questions about their self-declared risk attitudes. Following the questionnaire of Viei eract al. (2015), we asked each participant about her willingness to take risks in general and in specific contexts (driving, financial matters, health domain, occupational risks, sport, and social risks). They had to indicate their answer on a scale ranging from 0 to 10:0 fextremely risk averse and 10 if fully prepared to take risks. In a final short questio, naire ve collected data about subjects' individual characteristics.

The next section exposes the theoretical predictions of FV shock effects.

IV. Predictions

In this section we state our key predictions about the impact of a FV shocl. Our statements rely both on theoretical arguments as well as on empirical regularities reported by the financial literature. We break the predictions into two categories: predictions about changes in asset prices and predictions about changes in trading volumes.

IV.1 Impacts of shocks on asset prices

According to the Efficient Market Hypothesis (EMH) contraction among investors clears all positive net present value trading opportunities (Fama, (1970)), implying that securities are fairly priced, based on their FV and the information that is available to investors. Therefore, following an exogenous shock, stock prices should convergence quickly to their new FV. There are many cases against EMH (see Revert A. Haugen, (1999)). Market can overreact to news (De Bondt and Thaler, (1985)) and device ions from the FV can be persistent creating momentum and favorable conditions for the appearance of bubbles (Jegadeesh and Titman, (1993)). Barberis et al., (1998) and Pan'el et al., (1998) identified many cognitive biases favorable to such outcomes: contract on, herding, overconfidence, the confirmation bias and the disposition effect. Bubble, driven by such cognitive biases are sometimes called "behavioral bubbles" (C Gr awe and Grimaldi (2004)). How such bubbles are affected by FV shocks is unknown.

In our experiment we consider a single asset that is exposed to a mean-zero FV shock. Some traders may become more risk-averse if they anticipate such shocks. They may react by reducing their exposure to such risk by selling shares of the risky stock. Gollier and Pratt, (1996) and Huang and Stapleton, (2017) identified the conditions under which an expected

utility maximizer, exposed to an independent unfavorable¹¹ background risk, becomes more risk-averse. This property, called *risk-vulnerability*, implies that agents treat independent risks as substitutes. Therefore, if a mean-zero (or unfavorable) shock is introduced, such an agent adjusts downwards his level of risk-taking. Symmetrically, if the risk revires inted by the shock is removed he adjusts upwards his level of risk-taking. In short, a risk-vulnerable agents is a net seller before the shock and a net buyer after the shock.

In contrast to the risk-vulnerability conjecture that is based on expected utility theory, non-expected utility agents may treat independent risks as complements (Quiggin, (2003)), suggesting exactly the opposite prediction: the presence of a mean-zero shock increases the demand for the risky asset before the shock and requires it after the shock.

Prediction 1: In markets with anticipated shocks γ erpricing is attenuated (amplified) before the shock and amplified (attenuated) after the shock if traders are risk-vulnerable (non-vulnerable).

Prediction 1 applies only to expected shocks. We conjecture therefore that the traders who are unware about the occurrence of a shock in the future will behave as the traders in markets without shocks. Therefore the shock arises, similar mispricing will be observed in markets with unexpected shocks than in markets without shocks. However, following an unexpected shock the entire of mispricing will depend on traders' beliefs revision and its impact on trading volume. We discuss this issue in the next sub-section.

IV.2 Imparts in shocks on the difference of opinion (DO) and the trading volume

Before discussing how shocks affect the DO and the trading volume, we provide an overview of the financial literature about the relation between the DO and trading volume. The

¹¹ A risk is unfavorable if its expected value is negative or null.

standard view of the EMH is best expressed in the no trade theorem. Some authors (e.g., Milgrom and Stokey (1982)) argue that if agents have rational expectations no trade should occur even in the wake of new private information. This view was chalenged by several important contributions, e.g. Harrison and Kreps, (1987), Tirole, (1982) and Varian, (1989) among others. Their key argument is that if traders have different priors they will have different expectations about market prices even if all information is common knowledge. In other words, heterogeneity of beliefs generates trade (Varian (1985), M. Harris and Raviv, (1993), Kandel et al., (1995), Cao and Ou-Yang, (2009) ar 1 Bangie, (2011)).

Most of the theoretical work that focused on the reaction Laween the dispersion of opinions and the volume of trade identified a positive interaction: increasing the variance of expectations increases the volume of trades. Sure a prediction is derived from a variety of assumptions. Following the arrival of new public information, such as earnings announcements, traders' can have disagreements (Copeland, (1976), Kandel et al., (1995) and Banerjee and Kremer, (2010), het rogeno is reactions (Karpoff, (1986)), different opinions (Varian, (1985) and M. Harris and Varian, (1993)), heterogenous priors (Kim and Verrecchia, (1991)), information asymp stries (Kim and Verrecchia, (1994)), differential interpretations (Kim and Verrecchia, (1937) or a combination of some or all of these (Banerjee, (2011)). The common idea is that public information is processed differently by different traders (or analysts), thereby creating information asymmetries and diversity of opinion leading to higher trading. In Kim and Verrecchia, (1991)'s model, investors have private signals of different precisions before the public announcement. Investors with a more precise signal put more weight on the private information and less on the public information, generating expost heterogeneity. In Milton Harris and Raviv, (1993) traders have common priors and observe the same public information, but have different interpretations of it.

Empirical support of a positive relation between the difference of opinion and trading volume¹² was provided by the accounting research community (see Bambe et al. (2011) for a review): Comiskey et al., (1987), Ziebart, (1990), Ajinkya et al., (1971), Terpstra and Fan, (1993), Bildersee and Ronen, (1996), Bamber et al., (1997), Roulstone, (2003) and Antweiler and Frank, (2004)). The standard empirical measure of forecast dispersion is the standard deviation of analysts' forecasts normalized by the absolute 'alue o' the average forecast¹³. Trading volume is usually measured as the percentage of hare and add relative to the number of shares outstanding. We rely on similar measures in our experiment. To our knowledge, Gillette et al., (1999) and Nosic and Weber (2005) are the only experimental paper that addressed the relation between dispersion of expections and trading volume. While Gillette et al., (1999) found a negative relation between the dispersion of traders' price expectations and trading volume, in contradiction to the Peopetical literature, Nosic and Weber (2009) observed a positive relation. Interestingly, Nosic and Weber (2009) investigated two competing hypotheses about hig or tracing volumes: differences in risk attitudes and differences of opinion. They and that only differences of opinions are significantly and positively related to trading , Jume. Given the mixed evidence there is a need for additional data about this relation.

We summarize the pre vious and cussion as prediction 2.

Prediction 2: The "lumer transactions increases in traders' difference of opinions.

We can now discuss how trading volume and the difference of opinions might be affected by shocks. Two experir lental studies have provided evidence that shocks have a negative impact

¹² Recently S. var as et al., (2017) found a similar pattern for the divergence of investors' sentiments, i.e. trading volume is increasing in investors' divergence of sentiments.

¹³ Note that several authors interpret high trading volume as an indicator of the difference of opinions, e.g. Kandel et al., (1995).

on trading volume. Nosic and Weber (2009) observed a larger number of transactions before subjects received a signal, than after receiving it. Similarly, Weber and Welfens, (2009) found substantially lower levels of trading following a FV shock. Hanke et al., (2012) and Kirchler et al., (2011) also observed that trading volume drops after the introduction of a "surprise" Tobin tax¹⁴. Introducing suddenly such a tax is similar to an unexpected regative FV shock. Supporting evidence about the negative impact of tax shocks or trading volume is also provided by simulation results (Mannaro et al., (2008)). By sed on this evidence we state prediction 3 as follows:

Prediction 3: Trading volumes drop after the realization of a hock.

Finally we expect that the presence of an expected book increases the dispersion of beliefs before its realization and leads to convergence of beliefs after it, because once the shock is realized, information asymmetry is reduced.

Prediction 4: The presence of an expected shock increases the difference of opinion before the shock occurs, and reduces it afterwar. ¹s.

Prediction 4 does not apply to up a peet of shocks. We conjecture however, that if traders are unware about the shock, the Do should not be affected, neither before, nor after the realization of the shock.

V. Results

The results section is organized as follows. In subsection 1, we provide an overview of the price patterns in markets with and without shocks. We investigate the effects of shocks on bubbles in subsection 2 and on transaction volumes in subsection 3. In subsection 4 we 14 In both experiments, the introduction of the Tobin tax was unexpected by the participants.

discuss our main hypothesis about the positive relation between the difference of opinions and turnover. For all tests, we set a 5% threshold level for rejecting the null hypothesis.

V.1 Descriptive results

In this subsection we provide an overview of the data. Figure 1 shows the time series of the median transaction price by treatment and direction of the shock in first or disecond markets. It can be seen that on average median prices are substantially a vove the FV in most periods. Mispricing is visible in our experimental markets with and without shocks whatever the direction (upwards or downwards) and the type (expected connexpected) of the shock.

We summarize these observations as result 1.

Result 1. *Mispricing arises in o l m .rke*s, with and without shocks.*

With respect to market 1, wall 1 is in line with the findings of Noussair et al., (2001) that "A constant FV is not ruff cier i to remove the tendency for bubbles and crashes to form in experimental ma kets". However, when subjects replicate the market without shock, bubbles are clearly at enuated in market 2 (see figure 1, T0). The attenuation effect is probably due to subjects' experience as observed in previous studies (Peterson, (1993), Van Boening et al., (1993) and rufwenberg et al., (2005)). By contrast, when market 2 is affected by a shock,

¹⁵ We opted for the median rather than the closing price or the mean price in order to avoid the problem of single outliers.

over-pricing remains persistent whatever the direction and the type of the shock. The presence of shocks seems therefore to fuel over-pricing and the formation of bubbles.

Visual inspection of figure 1 provides further insights about the effects of a shock on prices. On average the median price remains above the FV before and after the shock in all treatments. There seems to be a different price reaction for upwards and downwards shocks. While the latter seem to trigger under-reaction on specific dias appears in the case of upwards shocks.

V.2 Mispricing

In this subsection we provide evidence about Apricing, based on standard bubble measures of the traditional experimental literature and the name recent measures proposed by Stöckl et al., (2010). The various measures and then definitions are summarized in table A of appendix 1).

Market 1 serves as a benchmark with 1000 ect to which we assess the impact of the shocks on prices and volumes. We first the the benchmark behavior of markets is the same across treatments. Table B of appendix 1 reports bubble measures for each session of market 1. Although there is some viriance across treatments, for none of the bubble measures there is a significant difference across treatments for market 1. This is stated as result 2.

Result 2. The e is no significant difference in asset mispricing and trading volumes across 1st markets.

Support for result 2: (rank-sum tests, see table B appendix)

¹⁶ In Bousselmi et al., (2018) we document that prices underreact only after a negative shock, but not after a positive shock.

As expected bubble measures do not differ across treatments for 1st market. In particular, no difference is detected in 1st market between treatments for which shocks are expected and unexpected. We can therefore assume that in all treatments subjects gai iea similar market experience at the end of 1st market and that the remaining differences coser /ed in 2nd market are only due to treatment effects.

Let us turn now to markets with shocks. Table C of appendix 1 and "ays the bubble measures for 2nd market broken down by sequence: "before" and "after" the shock. First, note that in the "No-shock" treatment (T0), the bubble measures do not differ between the first half (periods 2-8) and the second half of the 2nd market (period 9-15). In treatments with shocks, several patterns emerge¹⁷: after a shock price amplitude (PA) and volatility (Vol) tend to increase, independently of the type and the direction of the shock. Considering the type of the shock, we also observe a fall in transaction of the shock. We also observe a depression in the transaction volume independently of the direction of the shock. The decrease is however significant only in the case of an upwards shock. Somerant test results for these observations are provided in table D (appendix 1). We summarize our observations about the impact of shocks on mispricing as result 3.

Result 3. After a shoc', price L'eviation tends to decrease.

Support for result ?

We provide 'dditional support for the impact of shocks on mispricing by focusing on the determinants on price deviation (*PD* thereafter), based on panel regressions (table 2). In contrast to other bubble measures (e.g. *PA*, *ND*, *D* and others 18), the *PD* measure is available

¹⁷ Support is provided in appendix (Table D), based on Wilcoxon signed-rank tests.

¹⁸ *PA*: Price amplitude, *ND*: Normalized absolute FV deviation and *D*: Duration. (See Appendix 1)

for each period. The estimates reported in table 2 show that after a shock (dummy Post), the price deviation tends to decrease. The decrease is however significant only if we control for the Type of the shock (equal to 1 if the shock is unexpected) and for the interaction variable $Post \times Type$. The direction of the shock (upwards or downwards) and the type of the shock (Expected or Unexpected) have no significant impact on price deviation.

Result 3 seems to reject the *risk-vulnerability hypothesis* (predictive 1), according to which, when the shock is anticipated, over-pricing is attenuated before the sock and amplified after it.

INSERT TABLE 2 ALOUT HERE

V.3 transaction volumes

In accordance with prediction 3, v = obse ve a sharp drop in trading volume after a shock. Neither the direction nor the ty' e o' shock does affect the magnitude of the depression of the volume of trades. The reduction in share turnover between positive and negative shocks is not significantly different (V/M V, p-value = 0.165). Similarly, we find that the reduction in transaction volume ε ter the shock does not depend on the type of shock, expected or unexpected (WMW^{τ} , p-value = 0.165)¹⁹. Further support is provided by the regressions of table 3: the variable $Po^{-\varepsilon}$ (= 1 after the shock) has a negative impact on share turnover.

Result 4: Shows depress equally the volume of transactions, whatever the direction of the shock (upwards or downwards) and the type of shock (expected or unexpected).

¹⁹ These tests are based on diff turnover = average share turnover before the shock (period 2-8) – average share turnover after the shock (period 9-15).

Figure 2 supports this result, and shows clearly that share turnover decreases after a shock, whatever the direction and the type of shock.

Support for result 4:

In accordance with the results of the non-parametric tests, the regressions reported in table 3 confirm that the variable *Post* has a significant negative impact on share turnover in regressions (1) – (3). Furthermore, the interaction variable *Post* × *Dir* is not significant. *Post* × *Type* has an insignificant attenuation effect on the shock, meaning that the negative effect of the shock on turnover is attenuated when he shock is unexpected. Note that one of the key variables that affects share turnover is the difference of opinions (DO) which is captured by the variable SF, a normalizer reasure of the dispersion of forecasts. The next sub-section will be dedicated to the analysis of this variable and its relation to share turnover. Note that result 4 supports prediction 3 according to which "trading volumes drop after the realization of a shock".

V.4 Share turnot er and difference of opinions

We now a scr as our key observation: the sharp drop in trading volume after a shock and its relation to the difference of opinions (DO). We focus on a possible change in the DO after a shock. According to prediction 2, transaction volume and the DO are positively correlated: an

increase (decrease) in the difference of opinion leads to more (less) intensive trade, a conjecture supported by the literature (Copeland, (1976), Varian, (1985), Karpoff, (1986), Kim and Verecchia (1991, 1994, 1997), M. Harris and Raviv, (1993), K.noc.¹ et al., (1995) and Banerjee and Kremer, (2010)). Since after a shock we observe a droo in share turnover we also expected to see a reduction in the DO. However as shown below our ¹ata exhibits a clear increase in the DO, (see also Figure 3).

INSERT FIGURE 3 ABOU'I TEKE

We consider the following possible measures for f' and f' are DO: (i) the difference between the most optimistic and the most pessimistic forecast in each trading period, i.e. $max f_t - min f_t$, the normalized dispersion of forecasts (ii) $SF_t = \sigma_{ft}/MF_t$, where σ_{ft} is the standard deviation of the subjects' forecasts in Period f' and f' is the mean of the median forecasts

in period t, and (iii) the relative absolute forecast deviation, $RAFD = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\left| f_i^t - FV_t \right|}{FV}$, where f_i^t is the median forecast of subject i in period t and fV the mean FV^{20} , (see Akiyama et al., (2014), Akiyama et al., (2017) and Hanaki et al., (2018)). $SF_t \wedge the \max f_t - \min_t f_t$ indicator are almost perfectly correlated (Spearman rank > 0.90, p = 0.000) in an periods. Therefore, we shall rely exclusively on SF_t (noted SF hereafter and in the table) in the remainder of the paper and test for robustness with the RAFD measure. Note that SF is also one of the most widely used measure for the DO in empirical research

 $^{20 \}text{ FV} = 300 \text{ without shock, FV} = (1/15 \times ((300*8) + (400*7))) \text{ for an upwards shock and FV} = (1/15 \times ((300 \times 8) + (200 \times 7))) \text{ for a downwards shock.}$

(Comiskey et al., (1987), Ziebart, (1990), Ajinkya et al., (1991), Terpstra and Fan, (1993), Bildersee and Ronen, (1996), Bamber et al., (1997) and Roulstone, (2003)).

Prediction 2 (the volume of transactions increases with the DO), is tested or the basis of panel regressions (table 3) with dependent variable share turnover. In dependent variables are Post (equal to 1 if t > 8), Type (equal to 1 if the shock is downwards). We also take into account all the possible interactions among these variables. SF has a distribution of turnover as predicted. The effect of SF is however tempered by the negative impact following a shock (Post) which is amplified by the type of shock (SF × Type) and further accentuated when the direction of the shock is downwards (Post × SF × Dir). The post-shock effect seems to reflect a negative trend in turnover: as the final period gets closer fewer transactions are realized. We summarize these findings as SP final period gets closer fewer transactions are

Result 5: An increase in the difference of opinion increases turnover.

Support for result 5: (see ta' le 5)

Does the combination e^{it} result 4 (shocks depress share turnover) and result 5 (larger DO increases share turnover) imply that shocks also affect negatively the DO? We answer this question by identifying the variables that affect the DO. Table 4 reports panel regressions with dependent variable \mathcal{L}^{it} , which clearly show that shocks affect positively the dispersion of forecasts. The affect is mainly due to downwards shocks as shown by regressions (3) and (5): when the interaction variable $Post \times Dir$ is included in the list of regressors, the variable Post is no longer significant. Note also that when the shock is unexpected there is a negative

impact on SF in all periods. In other words, when the shock is expected there is an additional positive influence on SF, that is probably due to the uncertainty about its direction.

INSERT TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE

********** ** ************************

Result 6: Following a shock the difference of opinion is crease. Whatever the type and the direction of the shock.

Result 6 clearly rejects prediction 4 that after a since k we should observe a convergence of opinions, and a larger DO before than after the since k.

V.5 Robustness check

In this section we address two potential concerns with our data analysis. First, does the impact of the shock on share turnov r depend on the type of measure of the DO? Second, is there an endogeneity issue with share cornover and the DO?

We test for the rocustness of the impact of shocks on the DO by substituting RFAD to SF as dependent variable, the results are reported in appendix 1, table E). After the shock RFAD increases significantly as for SF. Similar to SF, we also find that when the shock is unexpected there is a negative effect. However, the interaction variable $Post \times Dir$ is not significant, but its inclusion in the regression does not alter the significance of the variable

Post. Therefore, we conclude that our findings a robust with respect to a substitution of the measure of the DO.

The fact that shocks affect the DO (result 6) suggests that the dispersion of forecasts (SF) is an endogenous variable. This may be problematic for result 5 which was established on the basis of the assumption that SF is an exogenous variable. To control for the potential endogeneity of share turnover and the DO we rely on instrumental variables using a two-stage least squares (2SLS) approach. The binary variable *Type* is unconslated with turnover, and we therefore chose it as an instrumental variable (IV). Our results (see appendix 1 table F) show that the 2SLS estimates are very close to the OLS estimates. In addition we compare the OLS and the 2SLS model coefficients using the Durbin-Wu-Hausman test (p-value = 0.5330), which allows us to claim that the difference on opinion can be considered as an exogenous regressor.

VI. Discussion and concluding remarks

The main question investigated in units paper is whether FV shocks affect bubbles and asset mispricing, trading volume and the difference of opinions in experimental asset markets. We found strong evidence that about affect negatively the volume of transactions, positively the difference of opinions and that they tend to mitigate mispricing. However, there is no general impact of shocks and bubble measures.

Mispricin. The arrs in almost all markets, with and without FV shocks. More precisely prices remain above the FV even after the shock, independently of the type of shock (expected or unexpected) and the direction of the shock (upwards and downwards). Overall shocks do not seem to have a clear effect on most of the bubble measures. We tentatively conclude that

shocks do not affect the formation of bubbles, despite a tempering effect on price deviation. We thereby provide additional support to the hypothesis that the formation of bubbles is a quite general phenomenon in experimental asset markets, whether the F \checkmark is decreasing or constant, whether alternative activities are available or not, and whether shocks affect the FV or not. It seems therefore that the bubble phenomenon is rather driven by the institutional design of the stock market. For instance, Haruvy and Noussair, (2,06) showed that short-selling reduces sharply the prices leading to frequent trades be ow the FV.

Concerning trading volume, we found that shocks depress requally the volume of transactions whatever the direction of the shock (upwards or devine as) and whatever the type of the shock (expected or unexpected). We also found strong evidence that after a shock the difference of opinions increases. Taken together these two facts seem to contradict both the theoretical predictions and previous experimental findings about a positive correlation between trading volume and the DO. However, our data remains compatible with the hypothesis that traders' DO affects positive y trading volume.

Some of our results agree with earlier findings in the literature. Result 5 agrees with the findings of Weber and Welfe is, (2009) and Nosic and Weber, (2009) who reported a drop in turnover after new information about the FV became available. The nature of the shock that we consider in our experiment is similar to the provision of new information about the FV. Results 5 and 6 at also in line with earlier findings by Nosic and Weber (2009) who observed a positive relation etween the difference of opinion and turnover, as well as a positive relation be we at the variation of the difference of opinion and the variation of turnover before and after a shock.

An alternative explanation for the drop in turnover after a shock is the heterogeneity in risk attitudes among the population of traders. Unfortunately, our data does not allow to test this hypothesis, because we elicited subjects' risk aversion only once (at the and of the market) and therefore we are unable to measure how the distribution of risk-aversion was eventually affected by the shock. Note however, that Nosic and Weber, (2009) is and that transaction volume is not affected by the disparity in risk-aversion, but and the DO. It could nevertheless be interesting to investigate changes in risk-attitudes in future work.

Acknowledgements

We thank participants of the 6th conference of ACFEE (Paris) 2015, the 2015 ESA World Meetings (Sydney), the 2016 International Meetings of the Academy of Behavioral Finance & Economics (Venice), the 33RD AFII conference 2016 (Liège), The Experimental Finance 2016 SEF (Mannheim), the 7th doctoral meeting in economics DMM 2016 (Montpellier), workshop BEAM 2016 (Nice) and the EF North American Regional Conference 2016 (Tucson) for helpful comments and aiscressions.

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Figure 1: Time series of median prices

Figure 1 plots the time series of the mean of median transaction price by treatment and direction of the shock in first and second markets. The horizontal axis shows the period and the vertical axis ir dicates the median transaction price. The dashed dotted line indicates the mean of median price in first mark and the bold dotted line indicates the mean of median price in second market. The FV is equal to 300 ecus in markets without shock and in the 8 first periods of markets with shock. In periods 9 -15 of markets with shock, transfer equal to 200 (downwards shock) or 400 (upwards shock).

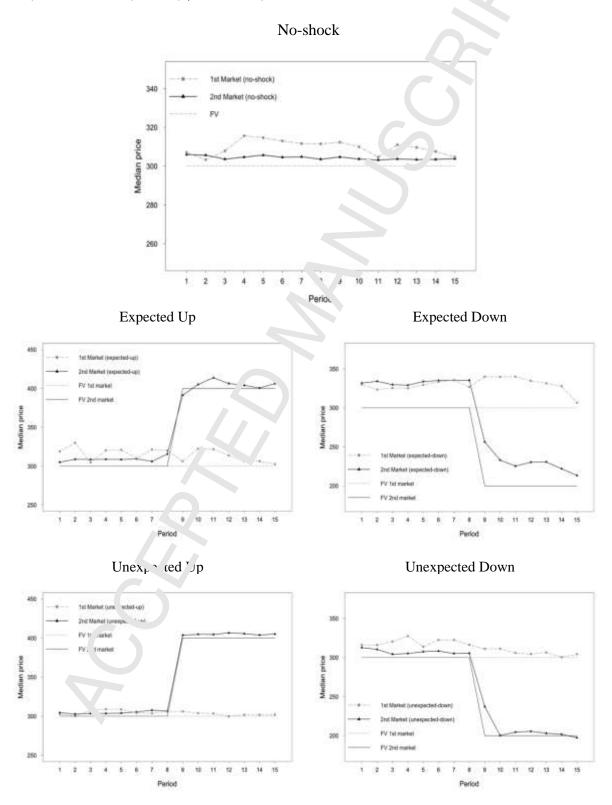


Figure 2: Time series of share turnover

Figure 2 shows the mean share turnover by treatment and direction of the shock in first and second markets. The horizontal axis shows the period and the vertical axis indicates the mean of share turnover. The dashed dotted line indicates the mean share turnover in first market and the bold dotted line indicates the mean share turnovers in second market.

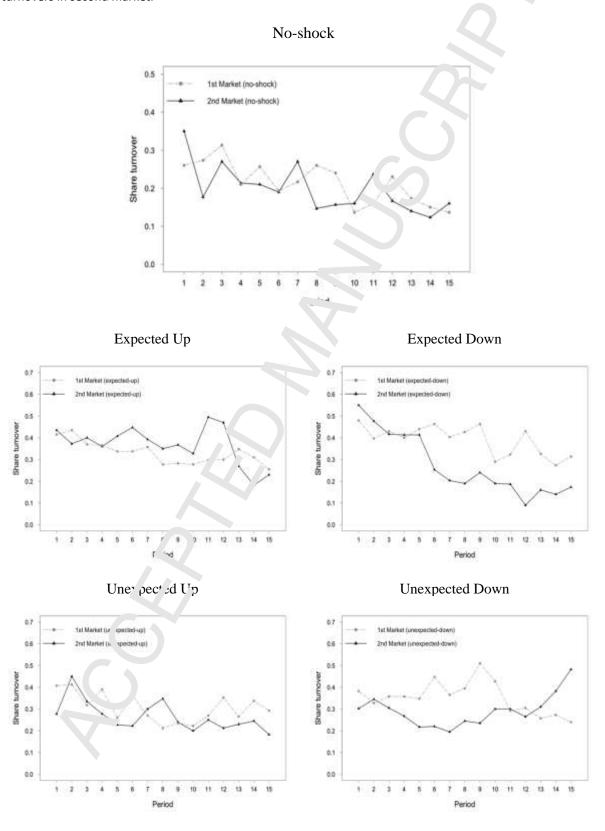
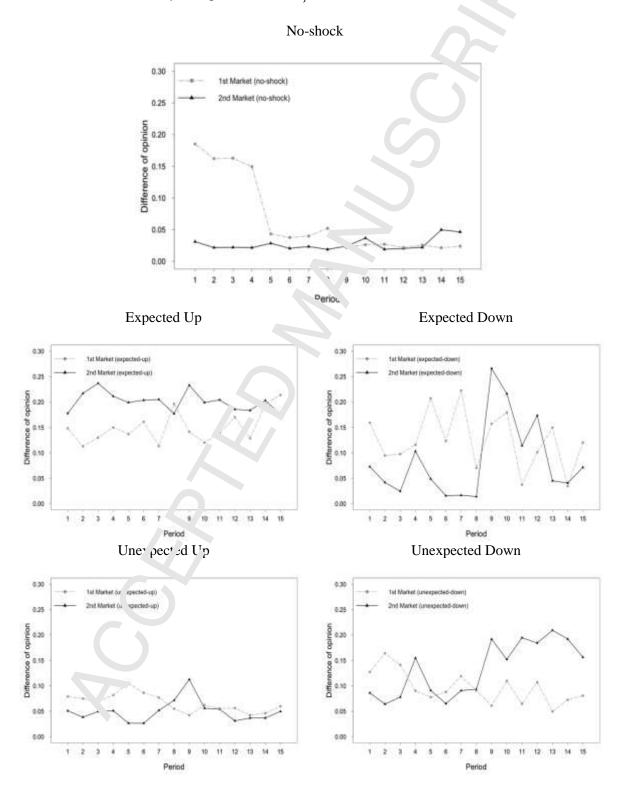


Figure 3: Time series of the difference of opinions (DO)

Figure 3 represents the mean DO by treatment and direction of the shock in first and second markets. The DO is measured by the normalized standard deviation of traders' forecasts: $SF_t = \sigma_{f_t} / MF_t$, where σ_{f_t} and MF_t represent the standard deviation of the traders' forecasts at period t and the mean of median forecasts at period t, respectively. The horizontal axis shows the period and the vertical axis indicates the SF. The dashed dotted line indicates the mean SF in first market and the bold dotted line indicates the mean SF in shoond markets. Note that we eliminated outliers by adding the condition: $\sigma_f < 190$.



Tables

Table 1: Experimental design

Mar kets	Type	Direc- tion ^b	Groups	Portfolio type: endowments (ecus, shares)/ portfolio value (ecus) ^c	Dividend distributio. (ecus), probabilu. * expected v.u and vari nce ^d	FV from period 1 to 8e	FV from period 9 to 15 ^f
Market 1		G3, G5 G17, G G21, G	oups: G1, G2, f, G6, G7, G8, 18, G19, G20, 22, G23, G24, g, G26, G27				FV = 300
	T0: No- shock	G17	, G18, G19				FV = 300
2	TI: Expected	U_p	G1, G3, G5, G7	P1: (5850, 3) / 6,750 P2: (4950, 6) / 6752 P3: (4050, 9) / 6,752	$ \begin{array}{c} \mathcal{L} - (-45, -15, 15, 45) \\ F \cdot P = (1/4, 1/4, 1/4, 1/4) \\ E(D) = 0 \\ \sigma^2(D) = 1125 \end{array} $	FV = 300	
Market 2	T ₁ Expe	Дожп	G2, G6, G8	T	0 (D)=1123		FV = 200
	: ected	D_p	G20, G21, G24, G25				Or $FV = 400$
	T2: Unexpected	Боwп	G22, G23, G26, G27				

Note: Each market had 15 transactions provide of two minutes. Each subject participated in two consecutive markets: 1st market without shock followed by 2nd market (with shock in T1 and T2 and without shock in T0).

^a T0: 1st market and 2nd are with ut shock, Γ1: 1st market is without shock and 2nd market with an expected shock, T2: 1st market is without nock and 2nd market with an unexpected shock.

^b Direction is upward or downward (T1 and T2).

c 9 traders per group. The groups r mained identical for the two markets. In each group subjects were randomly assigned to one of three portfolio in portfolio in equal to 6,750 accus for all types.

^d Each dividend outcome occu s with probability 1/4 in each period.

e.f The expected buyout val. for narket 1 is constant and equal to 300 ecus. For market 2, the expected buyout value in the pre-shoc! periods (2-8) was equal to 300 ecus. In the post-shock periods (9-15) the expected buyout value was equal to 3 10 ecus 1 T0, to 400 ecus in the upward case and to 200 ecus in the downward case.

Table 2: Variables affecting price deviation (median price -FV)

Table 2 summarizes the results of seven panel regressions (fixed effects) for 2nd market, where $Price\ deviation = (median\ price\ -FV)$ is the dependent variable. Independent variables are the binary variables T0 (equal to 1 if the treatment is T0), Post (equal to 1 for periods 9-15 and to 0 for periods 1-8), Type (equal to 1 if the shock is unexpected and to 0 otherwise), Dir (equal to 1 if the shock is downwards and to 0 otherwise). Segral interaction variables are included: $Post \times T0$ captures the post-shock effect whatever the direction on the type of the shock, $Post \times Dir$ captures the post-shock effect of the downward shock, $Post \times Type$ captures the post-shock effect of a downward shock of a downward shock (after knowing the direction of the shock).

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Post	-1.767	-1.896	-1.767	-2.415	-1.767	-4.023*	-4.924*
	(0.154)	(0.164)	(0.154)	(0.195)	(0.154)	1° UNS.	(0.062)
<i>T0</i>	-6.954	-7.315	-13.407	-13.407	-1.76	-1. 09	-2.986
	(0.565)	(0.548)	(0.301)	(0.301)	(0.794)	r.894)	(0.829)
$Post \times T0$		0.774					
		(0.817)					
Dir			12.098	11.5			24.135*
			(0.213)	(0.238)			(0.084)
$Post \times Dir$				1 35			2.103
				(0.64.)			(0.601)
Туре					-11.239	-12.962	-4.094
					(0.251)	(0.189)	(0.752)
$Post \times Type$						3.691	5.019
						(0.146)	(0.178)
$Dir \times Type$							-21.269
7.							(0.264)
$Post \times Dir \times Type$							-2.773
							(0.594)
_cons	12.078**	1. 138**	6.432	6.734	18.072**	19.125***	· 8.781
	(0.015)	(C J15)	(0.335)	(0.315)	(0.012)	(0.008)	(0.337)
N	270	70	270	270	270	270	270
chi2	2.36 ^r	2.46/	3.920	4.131	3.685	5.806	9.569
r2_o	0.0 8	0 18	0.088	0.089	0.079	0.081	0.223

^{*} p < 0.10. ** p < 0.05. *** p < \^01

N: number of observations, chi?: Pearson's χ^2 , $r2_o$: overall R-squared.

Table 3: Variables affecting share turnover

Table 3 summarizes the results of four panel regressions (fixed effects) for 2nd market, where Share turnover is the dependent variable. Independent variables are, SF corresponding to $SF_t = \sigma_{f_t} / MF_t$ where σ_{f_t} and MF_t represent the standard deviation of the traders' forecasts at period t and the mean median recast at period t, respectively. Independent variables are the dummies Post (equal to 1 for periods 9-15 and to 0 to. periods 1-8), Type (equal to 1 if the shock is unexpected), Dir (equal to 1 if the shock is downward). Several interaction variables between these variables are included. Post × SF represents the interaction, between the two variables Post and SF. Type × SF represents the interaction between the two variables Type and ST. Dir × SF represents the interaction between the two variables Dir and SF. Post × Type captures the rest-shock effect of the unexpected shock. Dir × Type captures the additional effect of the downward and unexpected shock. Post × SF × Type represents the interaction between the three variables Post, of the downward and unexpected shock (after knowing to direction of the shock). Post × SF × Dir represents the interaction between the three variables Post, Fr and Dir. Post × Type × Dir represents the interaction between the three variables Post, Type and Dir. Post × Type × Dir represents the interaction between the three variables Post, Type and Dir.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(~)
Post	-0.067**	-0.123***	-0.071**	0.038
	(0.019)	(0.003)	(0.032)	(0.514)
SF	0.504***	0.281	0.45 ***	0.821***
	(0.004)	(0.174)	(0.050)	(0.010)
Type		-0.091		0.106
		(0.114)		(0.366)
Dir			-' ، ن -ن	0.025
			(0.415)	(0.846)
$Post \times SF$	-0.012	0.102	007	-0.091
	(0.947)	(0.586)	(0.970)	(0.712)
$Type \times SF$		0.33ა	· · · ·	-1.471***
		(0.289)		(0.005)
$Dir \times SF$			0.118	1.110**
			(0.708)	(0.033)
$Post \times Type$		0.071*		-0.081
71		(0.20)		(0.277)
$Dir \times Type$				-0.138
				(0.372)
$Post \times Dir$			0.003	-0.025
			(0.940)	(0.773)
$Post \times SF \times Type$				0.885
51				(0.223)
$Post \times SF \times Dir$				-1.879***
				(0.001)
$Post \times Type \times Dir$				0.120
				(0.330)
$Post \times SF \times Type \times \Gamma$				1.325
51				(0.112)
_cons	0.272***	0.333***	0.296***	0.229**
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.016)
N	214	214	214	214
chi2	18.538	25.329	19.203	53.165
r2_o	0.110	0.139	0.133	0.168

^{*} p < 0.10. ** > < 1.05. *** p < 0.01

N: number of our vations, *chi2*: Pearson's χ^2 , $r2_o$: overall R-squared.

Note: For all regreasions we eliminated outliers by adding the condition: $\sigma_f < 190$.

Table 4: Variables affecting the difference of opinions (SF)

Table 4 summarizes the results of five panel regressions (fixed effects) for 2nd market, where the dependent variable is SF. SF equals to $SF_t = \sigma_{f_t} / MF_t$, where σ_{f_t} and MF_t represent the standard deviation of the traders' forecasts at period t and the mean of median forecasts at period t, respectively. Independent, variables are the dummies Post equals to 1 for periods 9-15 and to 0 for periods 1-8, Type equals to 1 if unexpected whock and to 0 otherwise and Dir equals to 1 if downward shock and to 0 otherwise. Several interaction variables between these variables are included. $Post \times Type$ captures the post-shock effect of the unexpected shock. $Post \times Dir$ captures the post-shock effect of the downward shock. $Post \times Type$ captures the additional effect of the downward and unexpected shock. $Post \times Type \times Dir$ represents the interaction between the three variables Post, Post

Dependent	variable	= SF
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= -F	~ =				
_	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5,
Post	0.040***	0.027**	0.001	0.040**	-0 06
	(0.000)	(0.011)	(0.894)	(0.000)	(J.634)
Type	-0.076	-0.086*		-0 151**	-0.158**
	(0.138)	(0.081)		(0.0.)	(0.010)
Dir	0.009		-0.039	-v. [^] 80	-0.125*
	(0.865)		(0.457)	(0.224,	(0.061)
$Post \times Type$		0.023			0.014
		(0.111)			(0.420)
$Post \times Dir$			0.089***		0.093***
			(0.000)		(0.000)
$Dir \times Type$				0.164*	0.169*
				(0.067)	(0.062)
$Post \times Type \times Dir$					-0.008
					(0.753)
_cons	0.144***	0.154***	0 25* **	0.182***	0.203***
_	(0.001)	(0.000)	(0.7 1)	(0.000)	(0.000)
N	214	214	_14	214	214
chi2	34.041	36.983	86.603	37.895	92.758
r2_o	0.137	8د 0.1	0.081	0.310	0.355

^{*} p < 0.10. ** p < 0.05. *** p < 0.01

Note: For all regressions we eliminated ov here by adding the condition: $\sigma_f < 190$.

N: number of observations, $\hat{chi2}$: Pearson's r^2 , $r2_{-6}$ r rall R-squared.

Appendix 1

Table A: Definition and computation of bubble measures

Measure	Computation
Share turnover (ST)	$ST = q_t / TSU$
Price amplitude (PA)	$PA = max_t\{(P_t - f_t)/f_1\} - min_t\{(P_t - f_t)/f_1\}$
Price deviation (PD)	$PD_t = P_t - f_t$
Normalized absolute FV deviation (ND)	$ND = \sum_{t} \sum_{i} P_{it} - f_{t} / TSU$
Duration (D)	$D = Max\{T: P_t - f_t < P_{t+1} f_{t+1} \cdots < P_{t+(T-1)} - f_{t+(T-1)}\}$
Total dispersion (TD)	$TD = \sum_{t=1}^{T} P_t - f_t $
Average bias (AB)	$TD = \sum_{t=1}^{T} P_t - f_t $ $AB = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (P_t - f_t)$
Relative absolute deviation (RAD)	$RAD = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} P_t - I / f_t $
Relative deviation (RD)	$RD = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (P_t - f_t) / f_t $
Volatility (Vol)	$Vol = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (P - y_t) - (P_{t-1} - f_{t-1})$
Geometric absolute deviation (GAD)	$GAD = ex_{t} \left(\frac{1}{t} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left ln(\frac{P_{t}}{f_{t}}) \right \right) - 1$
Geometric deviation (GD)	$GD = \left(\left[\int_{t=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{P_t}{f_t} \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{T}} - 1$
Boom Duration (BoomD)	M ax number of consecutive periods for which P_t is above FV
Bust Duration (BustD)	Ma. nur liber of consecutive periods for which P_t is below FV

Where: q_t represents the quartity of units of the asset exchanged in period t and TSU is the total stock of units that subjects nold. Γ_t is the median transaction price in period t and f_t is the FV in period t. T stands for the total number of periods and P_{it} is the price of the ith transaction in period t and

- ST: Share Turnover is equal to the total trading volume over a market divided by the number of shares out tanding (the total number of shares). The number of shares outstanding is always equal to 54.3 our experiment. Usually, a high turnover is associated with bubbles.
- PA: Price Ampli ude: A high amplitude means that extreme prices depart strongly from the FV.
- ND: Normalized Absolute FV Deviation: considers the quantities and the prices jointly and can identify large trading quantities and deviations from the FV.

- D: The *duration* (D) is the number of periods for which one observes an increase in market prices relative to the FV of the asset (Porter and Smith (1995)).
- TD: Total Dispersion is the sum of the absolute difference for each period tween the price and the FV. Thus a high (low) total dispersion indicates large (small) price deviations from the FV and is consequently a measure of price variability.
- AB: Average Bias indicates the average gap from the FV. Since there are both positive and negative values depending on the periods, and because it is an average, an negative (positive) value indicates an aggregate tendency to be below (above) the 1.77
- PD: Price deviation captures the difference for each period of two n price and FV.
- RAD: Relative absolute deviation captures the sum come a solute differences for each period between price and FV. This indicator is then not malited by the absolute mean of the FV over all the periods and the number of periods. Thus RAD measures mispricing, i.e. price deviations both above and below the FV. A high PAD indicates prices do not track the FV, allowing the identification of either bubbles and/or crashes. For example, a RAD of 0.3 means that prices differ on average per priod of 30% from the average FV.
- RD: Relative deviation measures the over or underpricing. Since there is no absolute value, a negative (positive) RD indicates prices are on average below (above) the FV. This indicator is therefore very complementary to the RAD. For example, a high RAD with a zero RD (Stöckl, Huber, and Kirchler (2010)) would mean that prices largely differ from the FV but are equally below and above it.
- Vol: The Volatility (with P_t and P_{t-1} the respective prices and P_t and P_{t-1} the respective FV in periods t and t-1) measures the variability of prices in relation to the FV. The more instability and fluctuations the var from the FV, the higher this indicator will be.
- GAD: Using the geometric mean, GAD allows to measure price deviations while having the property of being numeraire independent.
- GD: Geometric Cavitation allows over- and undervaluation to be measured by using geometric mean

Table B: Bubble measures for 1st market (without shock)

Bubble measures for 1st market for each group by treatment (T1 = expected shock, T2 = unexpected shock and T0 = no-shock). ST: share turnover, PA: price amplitude, ND: normalized absolute FV deviation, TD: total dispersion, AB: Average bias, RAD: Relative absolute deviation, RD: Relative deviation, Vol: Volatility, GAD: Geometric absolute deviation, GD: Geometric deviation, D: duration, Boom D: Boom Duration and BustD: Bust Duration. p-values for the Wilcoxon rank-sum test are reported at the bottom of the table * p < 0.10, ***p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01.

rank-sum (p-v	rank-sum (p-v	rank-sum (p-v	Median	Mean (1			T0 sho					T2	2: U	ne	xpe	cte	d S	ho	ck			T1	: E	хрє	ecte	ed S	Sho	ck	
rank-sum (p-value) (T2 vs T0)	rank-sum (p-value) (T1 vs T0)	rank-sum (p-value) (T1 vs T2)	Median (T1+T2+T0)	Mean (T1 + T2 + T0)	Median	Mean	G19	G18	G17	Median	Mean	G27	G26	G25	G24	G23	G22	G21	G20	Median	Mean	G8	G7	G6	G5	G3	G2	G1	Ist M. rkets
0.052	0.067*	0.772	4.81	4.81	3.69	3.20	3.94	3.69	1.98	5.01	4.94	6.02	4.76	5.72	5.26	4.76	5.59	3.41	4.02	5.20	5.35	7.96	5.43	4.87	5.20	6.,	2 14	2.52	13
0.470	0.051*	0.091*	0.10	0.12	0.07	0.07	0.05	0.07	0.10	0.10	0.09	0.16	0.10	0.12	0.10	0.13	0.06	0.06	0.02	0.13	0.16	0.12	0.13	U.	0.27	0.17	0 - ر	0.08	PA
0.921	0.117	0.121	3.57	4.25	2.77	2.74	2.77	1.92	3.53	2.63	3.12	8.06	1.89	2.31	2.84	3.62	2.41	3.69	0.17	4.39	6.20	1.24	4.:)	. ૧.2દ	4.63	5.00	4.22	3.61	ND
1.000	0.183	0.105	177.76	212.38	148.51	140.92	148.51	83.75	190.50	121.75	152.90	415.00	97.50	99.50	123.50	165.52	120.00	198.00	4.14	2r .00	.11 ,0	57.00	20 .00	1045.00	230.00	250.00	198.00	190.00	7D
0.776	0.183	0.105	12.34	13.72	10.61	9.83	10.61	5.98	12.89	8.70	8.59	29.64	2.18	-6.39	8.82	11.82	8.57	14 , ,	-0. 0	14. 4	7 25	0.93	14.79	74.64	12.86	17.86	14.14	13.57	AB
0.756	0.224	0.111	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.10	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.04	ر ال	2,5	C .00	0.05	0.07	0.01	0.05	0.25	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.05	RAD
0.757	0.161	0.128	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.10	0.01	-0.(?	0.0	0.04	0.03	3.05	0.00	0.05	0.07	0.00	0.05	0.25	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.05	RD
0.412	0.117	0.224	6.39	7.42	2.07	3.67	2.07	1.79	7.14	6.02	6.39	11~7	5.82	.14	6 .1	, e2	4.86	4.86	0.81	8.71	10.21	5.86	6.57	10.43	21.36	15.71	2.86	8.71	Vol
0.756	0.345	0.143	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.05	0.05	0	0.10	<i>)</i> .02	υ) 2	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.05	0.00	0.05	0.07	0.01	0.05	0.25	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.04	GAD
0.917	0.194	0.124	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.02	٦.٦	0.03	En O	0.09	0.01	-0.02	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.00	0.04	0.06	0.00	0.05	0.23	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.04	GD
0.550	0.398	0.188	2	2	w	2	ω	1	U	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	ω	2	2	2	1	1	ω	₽	2	2	2	D
0.673	0.356	1.000	13	10	14	. 1	15	14	0	10	10	15	∞	1	12	∞	15	15	2	13	9	ω	14	15	4	4	13	13	BoomD
0.723	1.000	0.490	0	7	3	0	 	0	Ъ	0	2	0	2	ज	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	1	0	0	Ľ	0	0	0	BustD

Table C: Bubbles measures for 2nd market (with shock)

Bubble measures for 2nd market for each group by treatment (T1 = expected shock. T2 = unexpected shock and T0 = no-shock) and by the direction of the shock (upward or downward): "before" and "after" the shock for treatments T1 and T2; "periods 2 – 8" and "periods 9 - 15" for treatment T0. Period 1 is not considered in order to have the same number of periods before (sequence 1) and after (sequence 2) the shock. ST: share turnover. PA: price amplitude. ND: normalized absolute FV deviation. TD: total dispersion. AB: Average bias. RAD: Relative absolute deviation. RD: rank-sum test ar ϵ eported at the bottom of the table *p < 0.10. **p < 0.05. ***p < 0.01. Relative deviation Vol: Volatility. GAD: Geometric absolute deviation. GD: Geometric deviation. D: duration. BoomD: Boom Duration and BustD: Bust Duration. p-values for the Wilcoxon

	Т0		0-				ŗ	Г2: U	Jne	exp	ecto	ed s	sho	ck				T1	: E	хрє	ecte	ed s	ho	ck		
Mean	sho	ock				Mean down	Mean up		Downward				Opwaru	Ilmund		Mean down	Mean up		Downward			Opwaru	Ilmunud			
İ	G19	G18	G17					G27	G26	G23	G22	G25	G24	G21	G20			68	G6	G2	G7	G5	G3	G1	st (le, T	2nd
1.49	2.33	1.41	0.72	p2-p8	ST	1.79	2.16	2.83	1.35	1.61	1.37	2.24	2.17	1.09	3.13	2.36	2.73	4.09	1.39	1.61	3.44	2.70	3, 15	1 ,4	Bef re	1
1.14	1.33	0.61	1.48	p9-p15		2.27	1.57	3.54	1.87	1.81	1.87	1.70	2.30	0.50	1.78	1.19	2.35	1.19	1.35	1.02	3., 3	2 50	2.06	59	After	
0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	p2-p8	PA	0.04	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.03		0.6	, 02	J.Tr	0.03	0.01	Before	PA
	0.00			8 p9-p15		0.22	0.02	0.04	0.08	0.50	0.25	0.03	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.28	0.6/	0.20	0.45	09	0.02	0.19	0.01	0.05	After	
0.62	1.35	0.07	0.43	.5 p2-p8	ND	0.90	0.66	0.37	0.72	1.39	1.10	0.25	0.16	1.90	0.32	/ .55	1,71	0.3¢	11.89	1.37	0.24	1.65	0.33	2.61	Before	ΔN
	5 1.32			o8 p9-p15		1.46	0.71	0.64	1.10	2.37	1.71	0.33	6.16	ر 2.7 ر	0.15	4/0	1.01	1.15	9.72	1.31	0.20	1.76	0.50	1.57	After	
33.	72.	3.6	23.00		75	48.40	35.50	20.00	39.00	75.1ر	59.!)	13.5r	8.50	.02.50	17.50	245.67	65.25	21.00	642.00	74.00	13.00	89.00	18.00	141.00	Before	מז
	75 71.34			p8 p9-p15		78.63	38.48	34.5ւ	59.50	رد.28.	ŷ50	16 70	8.90	119.00	8.00	219.33	54.50	62.00	525.00	71.00	11.00	95.00	27.00	85.00	After	
4.6	10	0.2	ω.	<u> </u>	AB	6.59	14.	.57	5.' /	10.73	8.50	0.50	1.21	14.64	2.50	33.09	9.32	-3.00	91.71	10.57	1.86	12.71	2.57	20.14	Before	AB
	.39 10.19			p2-p8 p9-p15	4	7.20	/8	-4.93	8.50	12.00	13.21	-0.29	1.27	17.00	1.14	30.09	3.86	5.14	75.00	10.14	-1.29	0.71	3.86	12.14	After	
0.01				5 p2 38	.AD	ود ی	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.00	0.05	0.01	0.12	0.03	0.01	0.31	0.04	0.01	0.04	0.01	0.07	Before	RAD
			J.00			0.06	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.09	0.07	0.01	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.16	0.02	0.04	0.38	0.05	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.03	After	
				G I	l A	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.01	0.11	0.03	-0.01	0.31	0.04	0.01	0.04	0.01	0.07	Before	RD
	0.03			p2-p8	ď	0.04	0.01	-0.02																	? After	
0.01	0.03	0.00	0.00	p9-p15		I										I										I

		: N ock						Т2	: U	nex	pec	ted	l sh	ock			1	T1:	Ex	кре	cte	d sł	ocl	k	
Mean						Mean down (T2)	Mean up (T2)		ward	Down-			∪pwara			Mean down (T1)	Mean up (T1)	waru	Down-	, ,		∪pwar			
	G19	G18	G17			wn (T2)	(T2)	G27	G26	G23	G22	G25	G24	G21	G20	wn (T1)	(11)	Go	G6	¢,	G7	9	ස	G1	Markets
1.22	0.57	0.53	2.57	p2-p8	Vol	3.78	2.47	3.43	3.86	4.11	3.71	3.57	2.07	2.79	1.43	b. ``	3.50	. 71	و2 ع	3.00	1.14	8.43	3.71	0.71	Before
0.57	0.24	0.21	1.25	p9-p15		10.67	2.78	1.33	5.00	23.83	12.50	5.83	1.12	3.33	0.82	12.72	7.00	11.50	22.67	4.00	1.17	20.83	1.83	4.17	After
0.01	0.03	0.00	0.01	p2-p8	GAD	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.03	1 > .0	ر 2.00	05.۲	0.0	^ 12	0.03	0.01	0.31	0.04	0.01	0.04	0.01	0.07	Before
0.01	0.03	0.00	0.00	p9-p15		0.05	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.08	ა.0	r .01	0.7.0	ر 14	0.00	0.15	0.02	0.04	0.37	0.05	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.03	After
0.01	0.03	0.00	0.01	p2-p8	GD	0.03	0.02	v.01	(02	0 0	0. 3	9.00	0.00	0.05	0.01	0.11	0.03	-0.01	0.31	0.04	0.01	0.04	0.01	0.07	Before
0.01	0.03	0.00	0.00	p9-p15		30.0	0.01		.04	0 05	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.15	0.01	0.02	0.37	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.03	After
1.67	Ľ	2	2	p2-p8	<i>D</i>	50	1.75	1	ь	2	2	2	1	Н	3	2.67	1.00	–	ω	4	1	Н	Ь	1	Before
2.00	2	2	2	, a. 15		1.25	1.75	1	2	ב	1	1	1	2	3	1.67	1.25	2	2	H	1	2	Ь		After
4.67	7	2	5	ρ2-p8	f JomD	5.25	4.50	ω	4	7	7	ω	4	7	4	4.67	4.25	0	7	7	4	ъ	1	7	Before
بر ا ا	7	\ \ /	2	p9-p15		3.50	4.00	0	6	2	6	ב	5	7	3	4.67	3.25	1	7	6	1	1	6	5	After
0.67	_ o _	2	0	p2-p8	BustD	0.25	0.25	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1.00	0.00	ω	0	0	0	0	0	0	Before
2.33	0	7	0	p9-p15		2.50	0.25	7	0	ω	0	1	0	0	0	1.00	0.75	ω	0	0	2	Ь	0	0	After

Table D: Difference between bubble measures before and after the shock in markets with shocks

D1. Significance of differences before and after (p-values, Wilcoxon signed-rank test)

Before vs Cher (nonlurs)	ur s)												
	S	PA	ND	TD	AB	RAD	RD	Vol	GAD	GD	D	BoomD	BustD
All 2nd markets (with shocks)	0.26.	0.025*	0.315	0.303	0.524	0.238	0.637	0.030**	0.195	0.844	0.608	0.17	0.100
By type of shock													
Expected	0.047**	0.059*	0.8 .3 0 .13	0 ,13	0.297	0.752	0.916	0.078*	0.752	1.000	0.850	0.599	0.371
Unexpected	0.945	0.402	0.052*	0.052* J.0´J**	.62 . 0.248	0.248	0.675	0.313	0.142	0.833	0.766	0.233	0.371
By direction of the shock	ock												
Upward	0.039**	0.786	0.933	0.844	0.250	*75ر ،	0.058* 0.461	0.461	0.057*	0.058*	0.773	0.396	0.371
Downward	0.938	0.031**	0.375	0.375	0.938	0.016' ' 0.10' 078*	0.10′	٠. ٦8*	0.022** 0.147		0.374	0.396	0.371
* p<0.10. ** p<0.05. *** p<0.01	0<0.01												

D2: Mean values before and after the shock (overall)

M (2nd)	ST		PA		Ø		70		AB		JB		RD	
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Br ore Afte	Afte	Before After	After
Mean all	2.25	1.89	0.04	0.14	1.65	1.66	88.91	89.63	12.12	10.24	0.04	0.0r	ر 74	0.05
(p-value)	0.201		0.025**		0.315		0.303		0.524		0.238		(63	
M (2nd)	M (2nd) Vol		GAD		GD		D		BoomD		BustD		7	
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before After	After		
Mean All	3.86	8.00	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.04	1.67	1.47	4.67	3.80	0.33	1.13		
(p-value)	0.030**		0.195		0.844		0.608		0.17		0.1			
* p<0.10. **	* p<0.05. **	* p<0.01	·											

D3: Mean values before and after the shock by type of shock (expected vs unexpected)

	ST		PA		ND		TD		AB		RAD		RD	
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before After	After	Before After	After	Before	Before After
Mean T1	2.5	1.85	0.04	0.16	2.64	2.32	142.57	125.14	19.51	15.10	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.07
(p-value)	C)47**		0.059*		0.813		0.813		0.297		0.752		0.916	
Mean T2	۲۰-٦۶	6	0.04	0.16	2.44	2.24	131.75	120.79	17.96	13.92	0.06	0.08	0.06	0.07
(p-value)	0.945		0 402		0.052*		0.039**		0.641		0.248		0.675	
	Vol	\ \ \ \	JAD		GD		D		BoomD		BustD			
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After		
Mean T1	4.71	9.45	(07	ر 80	0.07	0.07	1.71	1.43	4.43	3.86	0.43	0.86		
(p-value)	0.078*		0.,		1		0.85		0.599		0.371			
Mean T2	3.12	6.72	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.02	1.63	1.50	4.88	3.75	0.25	1.38		
(p-value)	0.313		0.142		0.8 3		0.766		0.233		0.371			
* p<0.10. **	p<0.10. ** p<0.05. *** p<0.01	* p<0.01												

D4: Mean values before and after the shock by direction of the shock (1) er us down)

* p<0.10. ** p<0.05. *** p<0.0	(p-value)	Mean down M (2nd) 4.87	(p-value)	Mean up M (2nd)			(p-value)	Mean down M (2nd) 2.04	(p-value)	Mean up M (2nd)		
. *** p<0.0	0.078*	d) 4.87	0.461	2.98	Before	Vol	0.938	d) 2.04	0.039**	2.45	Before	ST
		11.55		4.89	After			1.81		1.96	After	
	0.022**	0.07	0.057*	0.03	Before	GAD	0.031**	0.04	0.786	0.03	Before	PA
	*	0.10		0.02	After		*	0.24		0.04	After	
	0.147	0.06	0.058*	0.02	Before	GD	0.375	2.46	0.933	0.93	Before	dN
		0.08		0.02 0.01	After			2.57	0.933	0.86	After	
	0.374	2.00	0.773	1.38	Before	D	0.375	132.94	0.844	50.38	Be are Af ar	1)
		1.43		1.50	After			138.93		46.49	Af or	
	0.396	5.00	0.396	4.38	Before	BoomD	6 738	17	0.25	7.02	Before	AB
		4.00		3.63	After	BoomD	C 338	.7.C1		4.32	After	
	0.371	0.57	0.3, 1	0.13	P fore	Bu tD	0.016**	0.07	0.057*	0.03	Before	RAD
		1. 6		iл	P fore Vfter		0.016**	0.10		0.02	After	
							0.109	0.06	0.058*	0.02	Before After	RD
								0.09		0.01	After	

Table E: Variables affecting the difference of opinions (RFAD)

Table E summarizes the results of five panel regressions (fixed effects) for 2nd market, where the dependent variable is RFAD (relative absolute forecast deviation from prices) Hanaki, Akiyama, and Ishikawa (2018). RAFD equals to $RAFD_t = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{s=1}^{N} \frac{|f_s^t - FV_t|}{FV}$, where T is the number of periods (T = 15), f_t^t is f_t^t or forecast of median transaction price submitted by subject s_t^t in period t_t^t . N is the total number of subjects in each group, FV_t^t is the fundamental value of the asset in period t_t^t , and \overline{FV}^t is the average fundamental value t_t^t the isset over all periods (= 300 if no-shock, = $1/15 \times ((300 \times 8) + (400 \times 7))$) if the shock is downwards). Independent variables are the dummies $Post_t^t$ regressions (300 × 1) if the shock is downwards). Independent variables are the dummies $Post_t^t$ regressions (310 × 7) if downward shock and to 0 otherwise. Several interaction variables between these variables t_t^t in t_t^t represents the interaction between the three variables t_t^t represents the number of observations, Pearson's t_t^t and the overall R-square, respectively.

Denen	dent	variable	= RAFD
Depen	ueni	vuiluble	- NAFD

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4,	(5)
Post	0.013***	0.012**	0.011**	1. 13***	0.012*
	(0.000)	(0.022)	(0.021,	(0.000)	(0.070)
Туре	-0.047**	-0.046**		-0.046	-0.044
	(0.017)	(0.035)		(0.108)	(0.121)
Dir	0.035*		ን 029	0.037	0.037
	(0.079)		17.2-51	(0.228)	(0.236)
$Post \times Type$		0.002			-0.002
		(0.819)			(0.792)
$Post \times Dir$			0.005		0.000
			(0.460)		(0.979)
$Dir \times Type$				-0.004	-0.008
				(0.924)	(0.855)
$Dir \times Type \times Post$					0.008
					(0.574)
_cons	0.066***	0.08 ***	0.043***	0.065***	0.065***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.007)	(0.001)	(0.001)
N	214	214	214	214	214
chi2	22.1 i3	18.355	16.285	21.424	22.144
r2_o	0 343	0.210	0.108	0.344	0.345

^{*} p<0.10, ** p<0.05, *** p< 1.01

N: number of observations, "i? Pear son's χ^2 , $r2_o$: overall R-squared.

Table F: Comparison of OLS and 2SLS regression coefficients

Column 1 summarizes the results of OLS regression for 2nd market, where the dependent variable is share turnover (Y1 = Turnover). Column 2 summarizes the results of 2SLS regression (first stage) for 2nd market, where the dependent variable is the difference of opinion measure (Y2 = SF). SF equals to $SF = \sigma_{f_t} / MF_t$, where σ_{f_t} and MF_t represent the standard deviation of the traders' forecasts at period t and the mean of in adian forecasts at period t, respectively. Column 3 summarizes the results of 2SLS regression (second stage) or 2nd market, where the dependent variable is share turnover (Y1 = Turnover). Independent variables are ST (independent variables are ST) and ST (independent variables) are ST (independent variables) and ST (independent variables) are ST (independent va

	OLS regression for (Y1 = Turnover)	2SLS: first stage for (Y2 = SF)	2SLS: _econd s age for (Y1 = Tunr)
	(1)	(2)	(3)
SF	0.458***		0.65 **
	(0.000)		(0.038)
Post	-0.066***	0.042***	- 773* *
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)
Туре		-0.070***	
		(0.000)	
_cons	0.273***	0.142***	U.255***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
N	214	214	214
R-sq	0.11	0.14	0.10

^{*} p<0.10, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01

Note: For all regressions we eliminated outliers by adding the condition: $\sigma_f < 190$.

The null hypothesis that the regress are f are exogenous is not rejected (Durbin (score), p=0.529, Wu-Hausman p=0.5330)

The null hypothesis that the OL', and 25% coefficients are equal is not rejected (Durbin-Wu-Hausman, p = 0.5330)

N: number of observations and R-sq: R-squared.

APPENDIX 2

Instructions

Appendix 2 provides a translation (from French) of Part 2 of the instruction in the case of an *Expected shock*.

MARKET 1

For this part you have the 20 euros you have won in Part 1 and arc now, purs. In Part 2 you can use all or part of your 20 euros to carry out transactions. For this purpose your 20 euros will be converted into experimental currency (ecus), with the excharge rate. 1 euro = 337.5 ecus. You will therefore have an endowment of 6750 ecus (20 euros \times 257,5 ecus). The same exchange rate will be applied at the end of the experiment to converted ecus into euros.

In Part 2 you will participate in two experimental financial markets on which you can trade securities. In concrete terms, you will have the opportunity to buy and sell securities. When you have finished reading the instructions, you will participate in a trial period to familiarize yourself with the transaction software.

At the end of the trial period you will be assigned to a group of **nine people** with whom you will interact for the whole of part 2. The group position of your group will be determined randomly by the computer program. Once for ad, your group will remain unchanged until the end of part 2. If you follow the instructions below carefully, you can make significant monetary gains.

I. Background

a) Duration of the ma' A. * and Part 2 earnings

Part 2 is composed of *tv o s uccessive markets*. Each market is divided into 15 consecutive periods. Each period lasts 2 min. You will have 30 min to carry out transactions for each market.

At the end of Part 2, and of the two markets will be drawn at random to be paid out for real. The computer program will then calculate your final earnings for this market. The remainder of these instructions are for market 1 only. Specific instructions for market 2 will be provided after market 1 is completed.

b) Porti lios

Before the opening of market 1, your endowment of 6750 ECUS will be allocated to a portfolio. In concrete a rms, part of your allocation will be available in the form of **Securities** and the remainder in the form of **Experimental Currency** (ecus). The value of your portfolio before market opening 1 will be 6750 ecus, whatever its composition. The initial value of each security is 300 ecus.

There are three types of portfolio (Table 1) called P1, P2 and P3. The three types of portfolios all have the same initial value, equal to 6750 ecus.

Type	Composition	Value of securities	Init'a' portfolio
	(securities, ecus)	(number of units \times 300)	value
P1	(3,5850)	900	6750
P2	(6, 4950)	1800	5750
Р3	(9, 4050)	2700	6750

<u>Table 1</u>: composition and initial values of portfilos (11. ecus)

Before the opening of market 1, the software will randomly assign you one of the three types of portfolios: P1, P2 or P3. Subsequently, you will receive the same portfolio composition for market 2. The 9 members of your group will not all have the same portfolio. 3 members will receive a portfolio of type P1, 3 other members a portfolio of type P2 and the remaining 3 members a portfolio of type P3.

Example: The computer program assigns you portfolio F Your portfolio at the beginning of each of the two markets will consist of 3 units of title and 585 ecus.

c) Lifetime of a security and buyout val

In each period, you can buy or sell securities. Facu security has a lifetime equal to 15 periods (duration of the market).

At the end of the 15 periods the market will be closed. Units of securities that you will hold in your final portfolios will be redeemed 'vy rie experimenter. The redemption value of each unit of security is set at 300 ecus.

d) Deferral of the portfclio

Your portfolio is carried ever from period to period without change in composition.

Example: At the end of period 5 your portfolio is composed of 5 securities and 5500 ecus. The composition of your period 6 will be the same: 5 securities and 5500 ecus.

e) Losse' and profits

In addition to Canse tion gains and losses you have two sources of additional losses and profits: dividends and Caracasts.

i) L vidends

At the end of each period, each unit of security you hold in your portfolio will generate a dividend that may be positive or negative. The dividend value at the end of each period will be randomly selected by the computer program. Four dividend values are possible: 45, 15, -15 and

-45 ecus (Table 2). Each value has a one-in-four chance of achieving each period (a probability of 0.25). Note that the expected dividend is equal to zero. (45 + 15 - 15 - 45) / 4 = 0 (see Table 3). The dividend value selected for a period will apply to all securities and participants.

Distribution of th	ne unit dividend
Ecus	Probability
45	0.25
15	0.25
-15	0.25
-45	0.25

Table 2: possible dividend values

Your dividends will be paid in each period into a saving account. The savings account cannot be used to make transactions. You will receive the accumulated amount on the savings account only at the end of the experiment.

ii) Forecasts

At the beginning of each period, we will ask you to forecast the transaction prices for the next period in the form of an interval. Considerly you will have to choose the interval in which you think the realized prices for the period will e located. This task will allow you to earn ecus. At the end of the period the profit of your rescast will be calculated as follows:

Forecast Frofit - Vorecast Gain - Cost of Forecasting

- * The **profit of the forec**: a varies between 0 and 5.
- * The **Forecast Gain** done do not number of prices correctly predicted. The number of correctly predicted prices is equal to the number of transactions whose prices fall within the range you have chosen. This gain varies between 0 and 5. Forecast gain = 5 ecus if all transaction prices realized all within the forecast range.
- * The Cost of the forecast depends on the size of the interval you have chosen.

This cost is in as with the size of the interval.

Table 3 show s, by way of example, different winning possibilities that can be realized.

Example: In panel 4, three transactions were carried out at the following prices: **340**, **350** and **360** ECU. Column (a) of Table 3 illustrates several examples of forecasts. Column (b) corresponds to the size of the interval (upper bound - lower bound + 1), column (c) indicates the number of transactions falling within the predicted range, column (d) Forecast and column (e) the cost of the forecast. The last column corresponds to the profit of the forecast, that is to say the difference between column (d) and column (e).

	Forecast	Interval	Number of	Forecast	Forecast cost	Profit of
	interval	size	prices in the	gain	(e)	the
	(a)	(b)	interval	(d)		forecast
			(c)			(d) - (e)
1	340 - 360	21	3	5.00	0.00	5
2	335 - 365	31	3	5.00	1.20	3.80
3	330 - 370	41	3	5.00	2.39	2.61
4	320 - 370	51	3	5.00	3.58	1.42
5	300 - 400	101	3	5.90	5.00	0.00
6	335 - 355	21	2	3.33	0.00	3.33
7	320 - 355	36	2	3.23	1.78	1.55
8	300 - 355	56	2	3.23	4.16	0.00
9	335 - 342	7	1	1.66	1.54	0.12
1	330 - 342	13	1	1.66	0.95	0.71
0						
1	330 - 335	6	0	0.00	1.78	0.00
1						
1	341 - 349	9	0	0.00	1.42	0.00
2						

Table 3: L.3 nples of prediction profit calculation

N.B. For examples 8, 11 and 12, ii. cost of the forecast is greater than the gain of the forecast. In these cases the profit of the forecast is equal to 0. The general rule is that if the cost is greater than the forecast gain, the \int_{0}^{c} recast profit is equal to 0.

The profits of your force aster will be paid into your savings account. As for dividends, you will not be able to use the amount of profits from your forecasts to make transactions and you will receive the accumulated amount the end of the experiment.

f) Tran. action conditions

You can be some securities during a period than those you hold in your portfolio. Equivalently, you can buy a security only if you hold the amount corresponding to its sale price in ecus.

Market Gain

Your total gain at the end of the market is calculated as follows:

Experimental currency in your portfolio (ecus)

- + Redemption value of securities (number of securities in your port f_* 'io \times 300)
- + Balance of the savings account (cumulative dividends and forecast pron.3).

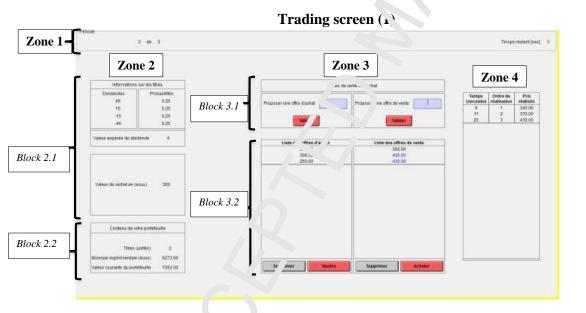
Trial period

The trial period lasts **two minutes** and you will learn how to:

- Make a bid
- Make an ask
- Buy a security (accept an ask)
- Sell a security (accept a bid)

Gains and losses realized during this period will not be recognized in your algain.

• How to use the computer program?



In each period, a screen sn. ilar of this one will appear on your computer. Different types of information are disp ayed of this screen. For ease of description, the information is split into 4 zones.

Zone 1

On the left is ve number of the current period.

On the right the remaining time in the current period appears (number of seconds remaining).

Zone 2

Zone 2 has two blocks:

Block 2.1, entitled "Securities Information", details the different possible dividend values for the period and the corresponding probabilities as well as the possible redemption values (*case: Market 2*). Note that the information of this block is common to all members of the group.

Block 2.2, "Content of your portfolio" shows the current composition of your portfolio, i.e. the number of securities, your cash holding and the current value of your portfolio.

Zone 3

Zone 3 of your screen corresponds to the transaction area.

Block 3.1 allows you to make offers to buy and sell

Block 3.2 corresponds to the order book. This is the display are 1 of all offers to buy and sell. Your offers appear in blue and those of other members in black.

Note that the order book is visible by all members of the coup.

How do you make an offer (bid or ask)?

Enter in block 3.1 the price at which you are willing to buy or sell in the appropriate space: on the left for the bids and on the right for the asks. The circk on "Validate" to validate your offer. Once validated, your offer will appear in blue in block 3.2, in the column "list of offers to buy "if it is a bid or in the column "list of offers to sall," it it is an ask.

- If your bid is the highest in the list of offe. Yo by (ie at the top of the list), it will be more likely to be accepted by another player.
- If your ask is the lowest in the list of otic. (ie if it is at the top of the list), it will be more likely to be accepted by another player

How can you delete one of our offers?

Select the offer you want to delete "ro n the list of bids (or asks), then click on "Delete". You can only delete your offers that appear in Blue.

How do you sell a security?

Select the price you ar interested in in the column "list of offers to buy", then click on 'Sell'

How do you buy recurity?

Select the price you are interested in in the column "list of offers for sale", then click on 'Buy it'

Zone 4

As tra. sactions are completed during the period, the price of each transaction will be displayed in the order of execution in the "Realized Price" panel.

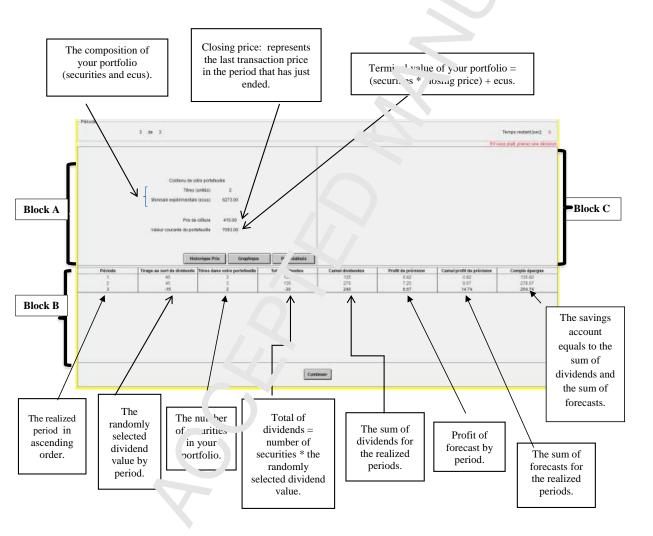
The realization time in seconds is displayed in the column "Time (seconds)" and the order of execution is displayed in the column "Completion order".

Note that the information table in Zone 4 is common to all members of the group.

• Other important screens in the market:

This screen appears at the end of each period (for 15 seconds).

Screens (2) end of period

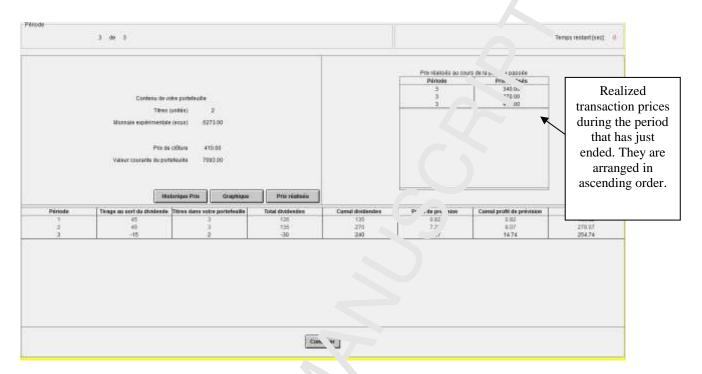


Block C displays 3 types of information:

- 1- The history of prices realized in the period just ended (display 1).
- 2- The evolution of the closing price during the past periods (display 2).
- 3- All the price history since the beginning of the market (display 3).

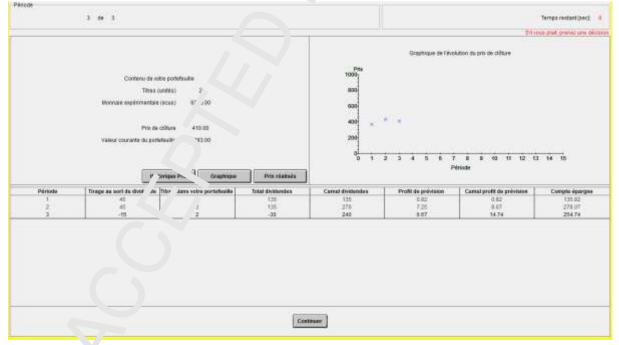
Display 1:

Result after pressing the button "Realized prices ".



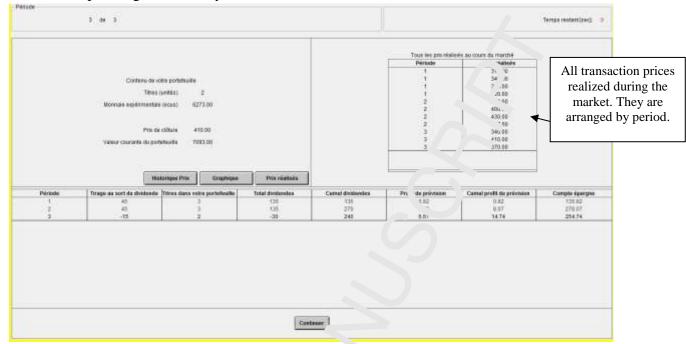
Display 2:

Result after pressing the "Graphic" button.



Display 3:

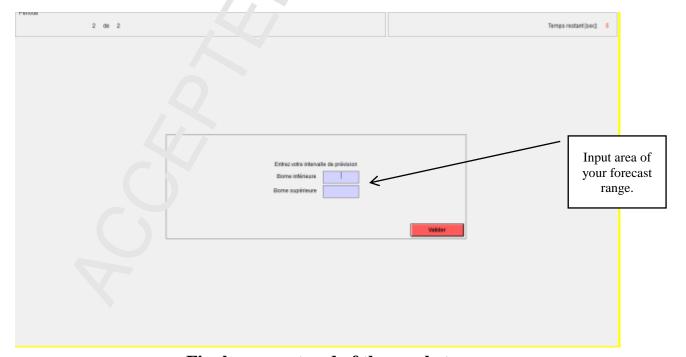
Result after pressing the "History Price" button.



Forecast screen

This screen appears at the beginning of each period to enter your forecast interval. Enter your interval then press << Cor>>.

Important: If you do not press "OK' the m rket will be blocked.

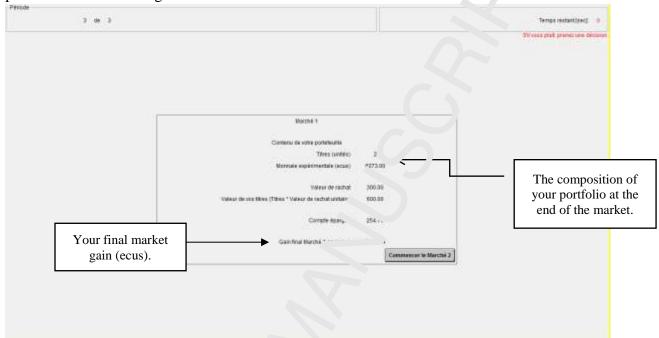


Final screen at end of the market

This screen displays at the end of the market, it summarizes what you have in your portfolio and your final market gain.

The last line represents your market gain in ECU.

Important: You must press "Start Market 2" to avoid blocking the experiment and to be able to proceed to the other stages of the session.



MARKET 2

The paragraph below was included in the instructions for market 2 in the cc se of an expected shock.

[...]

Unlike Market 1, for which the redemption value of the shares was equal of 300 ecus, for market 2 the redemption value will be equal to either 200 or 400 ecus with on chance out of 2. At the end of period 8 the program will randomly select the cash value (T. ble 2). The final redemption value will then be displayed on your screen at the end of period 8. The selected value will apply to all securities and all participants.

Distribution of	f redempti 'n
values for	market 2
Redemption	Probability
value	
200	0.5
400	0.5

Table 2: Possible rede notice values for market 2

NB Please note that the expected redemption v u is 300 ecus (200 + 400) / 2.

[...]