

Sharing Responsibility with a Machine*

Oliver Kirchkamp,[†] Christina Strobel[‡]

August 30, 2018

Humans make decisions jointly with others. They share responsibility for the outcome with their interaction partners. Today, more and more often the partner in a decision is not another human but, instead, a machine. Here we ask whether the type of the partner, machine or human, affects our responsibility, our perception of the choice and the choice itself. As a workhorse we use a modified dictator game with two joint decision makers: either two humans or one human and one machine. We find no treatment effect on perceived responsibility or guilt. We also find only a small and insignificant effect on actual choices.

Keywords: Experiment, Dictator Game, Moral wiggle room, Hybrid-decision situation, Self-image concerns, Responsibility

JEL Classifications: C91, D63, D80

*This document has been generated on August 30, 2018, with R version 3.5.0 (2018-04-23), on amd64-portbld-freebsd11.1. We thank the Max Planck Society for financial support through the International Max Planck Research School on Adapting Behavior in a Fundamentally Uncertain World (IMPRS Uncertainty). We also thank the audience of IMPRS Uncertainty doctoral seminars for their input. Data and methods are available at <https://www.kirchkamp.de/research/shareMachine.html>.

[†]FSU Jena, School of Economics, Carl-Zeiss-Str. 3, 07737 Jena, oliver@kirchkamp.de.

[‡]Corresponding author: FSU Jena, School of Economics, Bachstraße 18k, 07737 Jena, Christina.Strobel@uni-jena.de.

1. Introduction

In more and more areas of life decisions are the result of interactions between humans and machines. We encounter automated systems no longer only in a supportive capacity but, more frequently, as systems taking actions on their own. For example, computer assisted driving services drive autonomously on roads¹ and surgical systems conduct surgeries independently.² As a result, humans find themselves confronted with a new situation: they share decisions with a machine. We call such a situation a hybrid decision situation.³

In this paper we investigate human decision-making in a hybrid decision situation. More specifically, we investigate whether sharing a decision with a computer instead of with another human has an influence on the perception of the situation, thus affecting human decisions. Human decision-making in groups with other humans has been researched extensively. Fischer et al. (2011) show in their meta study on the so called bystander effect that the perceived personal responsibility is lower when others are around.⁴ Theoretical work from Battigalli and Dufwenberg (2007) and Rothenhäusler et al. (2013) also suggests that people feel less guilty for an outcome when a decision is shared. Furthermore, a meta study by Engel (2011), including 255 experimental papers on behavior in Dictator Games⁵ shows that people behave more selfishly if a decision is shared. However, so far, the literature has only focused on decisions shared between humans. Here we ask whether humans also perceive themselves to be less responsible and guilty and behave more selfishly when the decision is shared with a computer.

As a workhorse, we use a binary Dictator Game. We compare three treatments: a Dictator Game with a single human dictator, a Dictator Game with two human dictators, and a Dictator Game with one human dictator and a computer.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 provides a literature review focusing on experimental evidence from economics and social psychological research. We especially discuss the literature on individual behavior in groups as well as findings from research on human-computer interactions. In Section 3 we present our experimental design and explain our treatments in more detail. Section 4 relates the experiment to the theoretical background and derives behavioral predictions. Results are presented in Section 5. The last

¹See for example the Tesla with full self-driving hardware or the NVIDIA AI car which learns from human based on machine learning.

²For example, Shademan et al. (2016) reports a soft tissue surgery conducted by an autonomous system.

³However, machines do not always perform better than humans and are also susceptible to errors. The 2016 Disengagement Reports, reports of autonomous vehicle incidents on California public road that all manufacturers in California have to provide to the State of California Department of Motor Vehicles, state 2665 cases in which the test driver had to disengage the autonomous mode (see https://www.dmv.ca.gov/portal/dmv/detail/vr/autonomous/disengagement_report_2016) In an international survey about an automatized urological surgery by Kaushik et al. (2010) 56.8% of 176 responding surgeons reported to have experienced an irrecoverable intraoperative malfunction of the robotic system.

⁴The *bystander effect*, first described by Latané and Nida (1981), is a social psychological phenomenon that individuals are less likely to help a victim if others are present.

⁵The Dictator Game typically consists of two individuals. One individual – known as the *dictator* – is given some money. The dictator then has to decide how much of this money he/she wants to share with the other individual. The other individual – called the *recipient* – has to accept any amount of money the dictator proposes.

section offers a discussion and some concluding remarks.

2. Review of the literature

In Section 2.1 below, we present former research on individual decision-making in groups most similar to our experiment. We point out studies explaining why humans behave more selfishly when deciding with other humans. In Section 2.2, we turn to research on human-computer interactions. We outline what is already known about how machines are perceived and how humans behave towards them.

2.1. Shared decision-making with humans

People frequently have to make decisions in situations wherein the outcome not only depends on their choice but also on the choices of others. In a number of experimental games, such as the Trust Game (Kugler et al., 2007), the Ultimatum Game (Bornstein and Yaniv, 1998), the Coordination Game (Bland and Nikiforakis, 2015), the Signaling Game (Cooper and Kagel, 2005), the Prisoners Dilemma (McGlynn et al., 2009), the Gift Exchange Game (Kocher and Sutter, 2007), the Public Good Games (Andreoni and Petrie, 2004) as well as in lotteries (Rockenbach et al., 2007) and Beauty Contests (Kocher and Sutter, 2005; Sutter, 2005), people have been found to behave more selfish, less trustworthy and less altruistic toward an outsider when deciding together with others.

Even in a game as simple as the Dictator Game, where one person – the dictator – decides how to split an endowment between herself and another person – the recipient – who has no say, people behave in a more strategic and selfish way when deciding in groups compared to individual decision-making. For example, Dana et al. (2007) find that in a situation where two dictators decide simultaneously and the selfish outcome is implemented only if both dictators agree on it, 65% of all dictators choose the selfish option, while only 26% of all dictators choose the selfish option when deciding alone. This observation is confirmed by Luhan et al. (2009). In their experiment 23.4% of a dictator’s endowment is sent to the recipient team consisting of three subjects when the dictator decides alone but only 10.8% is sent to the recipients when the dictator acts as a members of a three-person team. Panchanathan et al. (2013) also found that dictators give significantly less money to the recipient in the three dictator condition (8.8%) than in the two dictator condition (11.61%) or in the single dictator condition (27.8%).

Although experimental evidence shows that people behave more selfishly in shared decisions, we do not know much about the driving forces behind it. Falk and Szech (2013) and Bartling et al. (2015) presume that individuals behave more selfishly when deciding in groups as the pivotality for the final outcome is diffused. This diffusion lowers the individual decisiveness for the final outcome and makes it easier to choose the self interested option. According to Battigalli and Dufwenberg (2007), human might also aim at reducing the feeling of guilt caused by a decision. Building on this idea, Rothenhäusler et al. (2013) conclude that group-decisions allow to share the guilt for an individual decision and thus makes it easier to choose a selfish option in a group. There are also concepts in social psychology explaining more selfish decision-making in groups than in individual decision situations.

Darley and Latané (1968) propose the concept of *diffusion of responsibility*: selfish decisions in groups are caused by the possibility to share the responsibility for the outcome among group members. This idea is confirmed by several studies in social psychology. In a study by Forsyth et al. (2002) participants were asked to allocate 100 responsibility points among the members of the group (group size either 2, 4, 6, or 8 participants) after a group task was performed. The personal perceived responsibility for the group outcome was significantly lower the bigger the group. Freeman et al. (1975) study tipping behavior in restaurants. They show that people in groups tip on average less than individuals. Freeman et al. explain this finding with the diffused responsibility for tipping. Further possible mechanisms driving selfish decision-making in groups are suggested by research on the so called *interindividual-intergroup discontinuity effect* by Insko et al. (1990), an effect that describes the tendency of individuals to be more competitive and less cooperative in groups than in one-on-one relations. According to this research there are four moderators promoting selfish decisions in groups. First, the *social-support-for-shared-self-interest hypothesis* claims that group members can perceive an active support for a self-interested choice by other group members. Second, the *identifiability hypothesis* proposes that deciding in groups provides a shield of anonymity that could also drive selfish decision-making. Third, according to the *ingroup-favouring norm*, decision makers could perceive some pressure to first benefit the own group before taking into account the interests of others. And finally, the *altruistic-rationalization hypothesis* suggest that deciding in a group enables individuals to justify their own selfish behavior by arguing that the other group members will also benefit from it. According to a meta study of 48 experiments on the *interindividual-intergroup discontinuity effect* by Wildschut et al. (2003) intergroup interactions are indeed in general more competitive than interindividual interactions.

To sum up, more selfish decision-making in groups seems to be driven by the diffused pivotality for the decision, a lower level of perceived responsibility and guilt for the outcome, the increased anonymity of the decision and the feeling that a selfish decision also favours the group and is supported or even demanded by the members of the group.

2.2. Perception of and behavior towards computers

A number of studies find that people treat computers in much the same way they treat people. For instance, Katagiri et al. (2001) show that people apply social norms from their own culture to a computer. Reeves and Nass (2003) found that people are as polite to computers as they are to humans in laboratory experiments. Nass et al. (1994) shows that people seem to use social rules in addressing computer behavior. Nass and Moon (2000) observe that people ascribe human-like attributes to computers. In a laboratory experiment by Nass et al. (1996), where subjects were told to be interdependent with a computer affiliate, the computer were perceived just like a human teammate. Moon and Nass (1998) even observe that humans have a tendency to blame a computer for failure and take the credit for success when they feel dissimilar to it while blaming themselves for failure and crediting the computer for success when they feel similar to it. Other studies find that computers are held at least partly responsible for actions. Friedman (1995) reports in an interview on computer agency and moral responsibility for computer errors that 83% of the computers science major

students attributed aspects of agency such as decision-making and/or intention to the computer, 21% of the students even held the computer moral responsible for wrongdoing. Moon (2003) show that the self-serving tendency for the attribution of responsibility to a computer in a purchase decision experiment mitigates when the subjects have a history of intimate self-disclosure with a computer. In short, subjects' willingness to assign more responsibility to a computer for a positive outcome and less responsibility to the computer in a negative outcome increased, when the subjects shared some private information with the computer before the computer-aided purchase decision.

Although humans seem to treat computers and humans often in a similar way, differences remain: Melo et al. (2016) find that recipients in a Dictator Game expect more money from a machine than from another human. Proposers in an Ultimatum Game offer more money to a human recipient than to an artificial counterpart. Melo et al. also show that people are more likely to perceive guilt when interacting with a human counterpart than when interacting with machines. Gogoll and Uhl (2016) find that people seem to dislike the usage of computers in situations where decisions affect a third party. In their experiment people could delegate a decision in a trust game either to a human or to a computer algorithm that exactly resembles the human behavior in a previous trust game. Gogoll and Uhl observe that only 26.52% of all subjects delegate their decision to the computer while 73.48% delegated their decision to a human. Gogoll and Uhl also allowed impartial observers to reward or to punish actors depending on their delegation decision. They find that, independent of the outcome, impartial observers reward delegations to a human more than delegation to a computer.

Consequently, especially in domains in which fundamental human properties such as moral considerations and ethical norms are of importance, findings from human-human interactions can not necessarily be directly transferred to human-computer interactions. Although research in economics and social psychology analyses shared decision-making between humans extensively there seems to be a gap when it comes to shared decision-making with artificial systems such as computers.

3. Experimental design

We implemented an experiment with the following elements: (i) a binary Dictator Game in which people were able to choose between an equal and an unequal split, (ii) a questionnaire to measure the perceived responsibility and guilt, and (iii) a manipulation check in which people were confronted with a hypothetical decision situation. The decision in the binary Dictator Game was made either by a single human dictator (SDT), by two (multiple) human dictators (MDT), or by a computer together with a human dictator (CDT).

3.1. General procedures

In each experimental session, the following procedure was used: upon arrival at the laboratory participants were randomly seated and randomly assigned a role (Player X, Player Z, and, depending on the treatment, Player Y). All participants were informed that they would

be playing a game with one or two other participants in the room and that the matching would be random and anonymous. They were also told that all members of all groups would be paid according to the choices made in that group. Payoffs were explained using a generic payoff table. A short quiz ensured that the task and the payoff representation was understood. After the quiz, the actual payoffs were shown to participants together with any other relevant information for the treatment.

All treatments were one-shot dictator games with a binary choice between an equal and an unequal (socially inefficient) wealth allocation. After making the choice and before being informed about the final outcome, subjects answered a questionnaire to determine their perceived level of responsibility and guilt. Each participant was paid in private at the end of the experiment. All experimental stimuli as well as instructions were presented through a computer interface. We framed the game as neutrally as possible, avoiding any loaded terms. Payoffs were displayed in Experimental Currency Units (ECU's) with an exchange rate from 1 ECU equals 2 Euro. The entire experiment was computerized using z-Tree (Fischbacher, 2007). All subjects were recruited via ORSEE (Greiner, 2004).

3.2. Treatments

We had three different treatments in total. One treatment, the so called *Single Dictator Treatment* or *SDT*, involved two players, one dictator and a recipient. Two more treatments involved three players, two dictators and one recipient. In one of these treatments, the so called *Multiple Dictator Treatment* or *MDT*, all players were humans. In the other treatment, the so called *Computer Dictator Treatment* or *CDT*, the decision of one of the dictators was not made by him/herself but instead of by a computer. To compare the three different treatments we used a between subject design.

3.2.1. Single dictator treatment (SDT)

Payoffs for the SDT are shown in the left part of Table 1. The dictator – Player X – had to decide between an unequal allocation (Option A) and an equal allocation (Option B). When the dictator chose Option A (Option B) then (s)he received a payoff of 6 ECU (5 ECU) and the recipient – Player Z – received a payoff of 1 ECU (5 ECU).

<p style="text-align: center;">SDT:</p> <table border="1" style="border-collapse: collapse; margin-left: auto; margin-right: auto;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td colspan="2" style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">Y:–</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">A</td> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">X:6</td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">Z:1</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td colspan="2" style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">Y:–</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">B</td> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">X:5</td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">Z:5</td> </tr> </table> <p style="margin-left: 20px;">Player X's choices</p>			Y:–		A		X:6	Z:1			Y:–		B		X:5	Z:5	<p style="text-align: center;">MDT and CDT:</p> <table border="1" style="border-collapse: collapse; margin-left: auto; margin-right: auto;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td colspan="4" style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">Player Y's choices</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td colspan="2" style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">A</td> <td colspan="2" style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">B</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">Y:6</td> <td colspan="2" style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">Y:5</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">A</td> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">X:6</td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">Z:1</td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">Z:5</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td colspan="2" style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">Y:5</td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">Y:5</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">B</td> <td style="padding: 5px;"></td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">X:5</td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">Z:5</td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">Z:5</td> </tr> </table> <p style="margin-left: 20px;">Player X's choices</p>		Player Y's choices					A		B				Y:6	Y:5		A		X:6	Z:1	Z:5			Y:5		Y:5	B		X:5	Z:5	Z:5
		Y:–																																													
A		X:6	Z:1																																												
		Y:–																																													
B		X:5	Z:5																																												
	Player Y's choices																																														
	A		B																																												
		Y:6	Y:5																																												
A		X:6	Z:1	Z:5																																											
		Y:5		Y:5																																											
B		X:5	Z:5	Z:5																																											

Table 1: Payoffs in the Binary Dictator Games

3.2.2. Multiple dictator treatment (MDT)

Payoffs for the MDT are shown in the right part of Table 1. Dictators – Player X and Player Y – both made a choice that determined the payoff for both dictators and the recipient. The unequal payoff was only implemented if both dictators chose Option A. In all other cases the equal allocation was implemented. For example, if both dictators chose Option A then both dictators received a payoff of 6 ECUs while the recipient – Player Z – received a payoff of 1 ECU, however, if at least one of the two dictators chose Option B then the dictators as well as the recipient received a payoff of 5 ECU.

3.2.3. Computer dictator treatment (CDT)

The CDT was identical to the MDT with one exception: One of the two dictators – Player Y – acted as a so called “passive dictator”. While still receiving payoffs for Player Y as given in Table 1, the dictator had no influence on the choice as the choice was made by a computer. The frequency with which the computer chose options A or B followed the frequency of choices of a randomly selected dictator in an earlier MDT. Participants in the CDT were instructed that frequencies were the same. Hence, all Players X in the CDT had the same beliefs (and the same uncertainty) about the other players’ behavior as in the MDT. Furthermore, since payoff rules for Player Y in CDT were the same as in MDT, social concerns should not differ between CDT and MDT.

3.3. Measurement of perceived responsibility and guilt

After the dictators made their choices but before participants were informed about the final outcome and payoff, dictators completed a questionnaire. They described their perceived personal responsibility for the outcome. They also described their feeling of guilt if the unequal payoff allocation were to be implemented.⁶ Dictator(s) were also asked to state their perceived responsibility for the payoff of the recipient, and, depending on the treatment, for the payoff of the co-dictator. Similar to Forsyth et al. (2002) the perceived and allocated responsibility was measured on a scale from 0 to 100 using a slider. We used these questions as a proxy for the perceived responsibility and guilt for the final outcome and the perceived responsibility for the other participants. Subjects could also explain why they had chosen a specific option. Furthermore, in MDT and CDT, dictators were asked to state what they expected the other human co-dictator or the computer to choose and how responsible and guilty they would perceive the human co-dictator or the computer to be if the unequal payoff allocation was implemented.

Recipients and, depending on the treatment, passive dictators were asked how they would assess the responsibility and guilt felt by the dictators if the game the unequal payoff allocation was implemented. They were also asked about their expectation how the dictator(s) decide and had the possibility to state why they expected the dictator(s) to choose a specific option.

⁶The wording of the questionnaire is provided in Appendix A.1.2.

In a manipulation we asked how participants (dictators, recipients and, if present, passive dictators) would evaluate the situation used in the other treatment. We also collected some demographic data. Data and methods are available online.⁷

4. Theoretical framework and behavioral hypotheses

A purely selfish participant would take into account neither the welfare of others nor situational circumstances. In particular, for a selfish participant it should not matter whether the decision was made alone, with another person or with a computer. Similarly, for a participant with fixed social preferences the type of the interaction partner, human or computer, should not matter. However, we know that social preferences depend on the salience of the link between actions and consequences. Chen and Schonger (2013) as well as Haisley and Weber (2010) show that certainty or ambiguity of the outcome matters. Grossman and van der Weele (2013), Grossman (2014) and Matthey and Regner (2011) argue that social preferences are affected by the availability of excuses which allow individuals to justify a selfish behaviour. These findings can be supported with the help of models of social image concerns (e.g., Andreoni and Bernheim, 2009; Bénabou and Tirole, 2006; Ellingsen and Johannesson, 2008; Grossman, 2015) and models on self-perception maintenance (e.g., Aronson, 2009; Beauvois and Joule, 1996; Bodner and Prelec, 2003; Konow, 2000; Mazar et al., 2008; Murnighan et al., 2001; Rabin, 1995). According to these models, individuals not only maximize their own output but also want to be perceived by others as kind and fair and want to see themselves in a positive light. However, if these two goals are at odds, choosing an option that maximizes own output causes an unpleasant tension for the individual that can only be reduced by lowering the perceived conflict of interest between the two goals.⁸ Therefore, as research in social psychology has shown, people seem to act selectively and in a self-serving way when determining whether a self-interested behavior will have a positive or negative impact on their own self-concept or social image and use situational excuses, if available, to justify their decision (e.g., Rabin, 1995; Haidt and Kesebir, 2010). In this way individuals can blame selfish actions on the context in which they were made rather than on themselves, thus preserving a comfortable self-image.

If a decision is shared, decision makers are responsible only for a fraction of that decision. Hence, the perceived personal responsibility for a decision might be smaller. Furthermore, as shown in theory by Bruun and Teroni (2011) and in an experiment by Berndsen and Manstead (2007), the less responsible an individual feels, the less guilt the individual feels for making a selfish decision. Since the impact of the decision is uncertain, its pivotality is diffused. This diffusion provides an excuse to reduce responsibility for the final outcome (e.g., Bartling et al., 2015; Falk and Szech, 2013). In short, sharing a decision with another human reduces the perceived negative consequences for the self- and social image. This makes it easier to choose a self-serving option.

⁷<https://www.kirchkamp.de/research/shareMachine.html>

⁸The unpleasant tension (or in a more formal speech “disutility”) is often described as nothing else than the feeling of guilt (e.g., Berndsen and Manstead, 2007; de Hooge et al., 2011; Stice, 1992).

In our experiment, Option B leads to an equal payoff for all participants. However, if all decision makers choose Option A, the recipient receives much less than the dictator(s). Option A, hence, might cause more harm to the social and self-image than Option B. Dictators who value a positive perception by others and themselves more than their own monetary gain will have a preference for B. Dictators who value mainly the monetary gain will prefer A.

In the SDT, the final payoffs only depends on the choice of a single dictator. The game offers no situational excuse to reduce the negative impact on the self- and social image caused by a selfish decision. Sharing a decision with another decision maker, however, provides the possibility to share the responsibility for the decision and allows room for the interpretation of a selfish choice as also beneficial for the other decider. This allows the dictator to attribute a selfish decision to the situation or circumstance rather than to the own responsibility.⁹ Thus, we expect that dictators in the MDT perceive themselves to be less responsible for the final outcome (Hypothesis 1.i) and feel less guilty for a selfish decision (Hypothesis 2.i) than dictators in the SDT. As a result we expect more selfish decisions in the MDT than in the SDT (Hypothesis 3.i).

Turning to the CDT we must ask whether computer dictators are as responsible as human dictators. Can computers be in the same way responsible for an action? In the literature, we find in particular the following three conditions required to be held responsible: First, an agent needs to have action power. Action power requires a causal relationship between own actions and the outcome (e.g., Lipinski et al., 2002; May, 1992; Moore, 1999; Nissenbaum, 1994; Scheines, 2002). Second, the agent must be able to choose freely. Free choice includes the competence to act on the basis of own authentic thoughts and motivations as well as the capability to control one's own behavior (e.g., Fischer, 1999; Johnson, 2006). Third, to be held responsible requires the ability to consider the possible consequences an action might cause (e.g., Bechel, 1985; Friedman and Kahn, 1992). Furthermore, some researchers argue that it is necessary to be capable of suffering or gaining from possible blame or praise and thus to be culpable for wrongdoing (e.g., Moor et al., 1985; Sherman, 1999; Wallace, 1994). These conditions would also have to be satisfied by a computer in order for it to be held responsible. While the causal responsibility of a computer for an outcome cannot be denied, a computer neither has a free will nor the freedom of action. A computer is also not able to consider possible consequences of its actions in the same way as a human. Furthermore, a computer is not capable of any kind of emotions. Hence, a computer does not fulfill several of the conditions under which one could hold the computer responsible to the same extent as a human.¹⁰ Research in machine and roboter ethics attributes only operational responsibility to the most advanced machines today but denies any higher form of (moral) responsibility as today's machines still have a relatively low level of own autonomy and ethical sensitivity (e.g., Allen et al., 2000; DeBaets, 2014; Dennett, 1997; Sullins, 2006).

Based on these considerations, the responsibility for a selfish outcome can not be shared with a computer to the same extent that it can with a human. The wiggle room is smaller

⁹However, as either dictator can independently implemented the equal outcome by choosing Option B the addition of a second dictator does not impede subjects from ensuring a fair outcome if they prefer it.

¹⁰For the discussion on the responsibility of computers see Bechel (1985), Friedman and Kahn (1992), Snapper (1985), and more recent Asaro (2011), Floridi and Sanders (2004), Johnson and Powers (2005), Sparrow (2007), and Stahl (2006).

than in a shared decision with another human. Thus, upholding a positive self- and social image while deciding selfishly together with a computer should not be as easy as when deciding with another human. For these reasons, we expect dictators to perceive more personal responsibility for the final outcome in the CDT than in the MDT (Hypothesis 1.ii). We also expect them to perceive more guilt when choosing the unfair option (Hypothesis 2.ii) in the CDT than in the MDT. In addition, as selfish decision-making is influenced by the individual's perception of being responsible or feeling guilty for a decision, significantly more people should choose the selfish option if they are deciding with another human (MDT) than when deciding with a computer (CDT) (Hypothesis 3.ii).

Hypothesis 1 (responsibility) *In MDT participants attribute less responsibility to an individual dictator for the outcome resulting from choosing the selfish option than*

(i) *in SDT, or*

(ii) *in CDT.*

Hypothesis 2 (guilt) *In MDT participants attribute less guilt to an individual dictator for the outcome resulting from choosing the selfish option than*

(i) *in SDT, or*

(ii) *in CDT.*

Hypothesis 3 (selfishness) *In MDT the selfish option is chosen more frequently than*

(i) *in SDT, or*

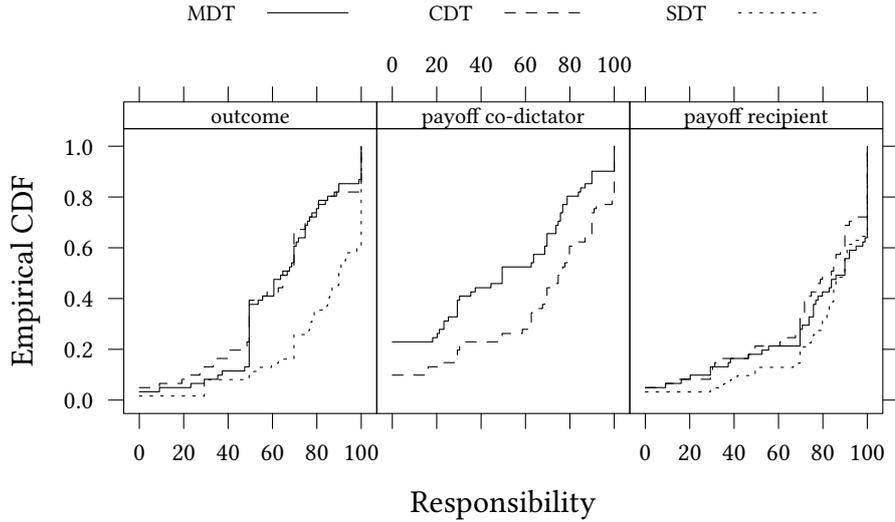
(ii) *in CDT.*

5. Results

All sessions were run in July, October and November 2016 at the Friedrich Schiller Universität Jena. Three treatments were conducted with a total of 399 subjects (65.2% female).¹¹ Most of our subjects were students with an average age of 25 years. Participants earned on average €9.43. We use a between-subject design, hence, the data for all statistical tests is independent for the different treatments.

We first analyze how the perceived responsibility for the final outcome as well as the feeling of guilt for a self-serving decision varied between the treatments before presenting the findings regarding the choices made by the dictators.

¹¹In total 124 subjects (62.9% female) participated in the SDT, 92 subjects (68.5% female) in the MDT and 183 subjects (65% female) in the CDT. We have, thus, almost the same number of actively deciding dictators in each treatment.



“Outcome” is Question 9 from Appendix A.1.2, “payoff co-dictator” is Question 7 from Appendix A.1.2, “payoff recipient” is from Question 6 from Appendix A.1.2.

Figure 1: Dictators’ responsibility.

5.1. Hypothesis 1: responsibility

To assess perceived responsibility for a selfish decision we ask dictators to state their perceived level of responsibility for three different items: for the final outcome, for the recipient’s payoff, and (in treatments MDT and CDT) for their co-dictators’ payoff.¹² For all questions the level of responsibility was measured by a continuous scale from “*Not responsible at all*” (0) to “*Very responsible*” (100).

Figure 1 shows the distribution of personal responsibility for the three measures: outcome, payoff of the other dictator, and payoff of the recipient. Figure 1 seems to confirm Hypothesis 1.i. According to this hypothesis responsibility should be smaller in MDT than in SDT. Indeed, this seems to be the case for all three measures.

We find weaker support for Hypothesis 1.ii. According to this hypothesis responsibility should be smaller in MDT than in CDT. This is clearly the case for responsibility for *payoff of co-dictator*. For the other two measures, however, the figure shows no clear difference between MDT and CDT.

Table 2 provides confidence intervals and *p*-values for treatment differences between the three measures. According to Hypothesis 1.i the difference in responsibility between SDT and MDT should be positive. Indeed, both the *outcome* measure and the *payoff recipient* measures are positive, however, only the *outcome* measure significantly so.¹³

¹²For the exact wording of the question for outcome see Question 9 from Appendix A.1.2. For the exact wording of the question for the recipient’s payoff and the co-dictator’s payoff see Questions 6 and 7 from Appendix A.1.2.

¹³Since in the SDT treatment there is no other dictator, we do not observe responsibility for the co-dictator’s payoff.

responsibility for...	SDT-MDT (Hyp. 1.i)		CDT-MDT (Hyp. 1.ii)	
outcome	$\Delta = 14.05$	CI=[7.627, 20.47] ($p = 0.0000$)	$\Delta = -2.35$	CI=[-8.855, 4.155] ($p = 0.4771$)
payoff co-dictator			$\Delta = 18.7$	CI=[6.574, 30.82] ($p = 0.0028$)
payoff recipient	$\Delta = 5.544$	CI=[-4.033, 15.12] ($p = 0.2538$)	$\Delta = -3.097$	CI=[-13.66, 7.466] ($p = 0.5627$)

The table shows differences between treatments ($\Delta = \dots$), confidence intervals for this difference (CI=[...]), and p -values for a two sided test whether this difference could be zero. Each line shows result for one measure: responsibility for outcome, responsibility for the co-dictator’s payoff, responsibility for the recipient’s payoff.

Table 2: Treatment difference in the dictator’s responsibility.

SDT-MDT		CDT-MDT	
$\Delta = 4.982$	CI=[-6.093, 16.06] ($p = 0.3749$)	$\Delta = 0.9439$	CI=[-10.35, 12.23] ($p = 0.8688$)

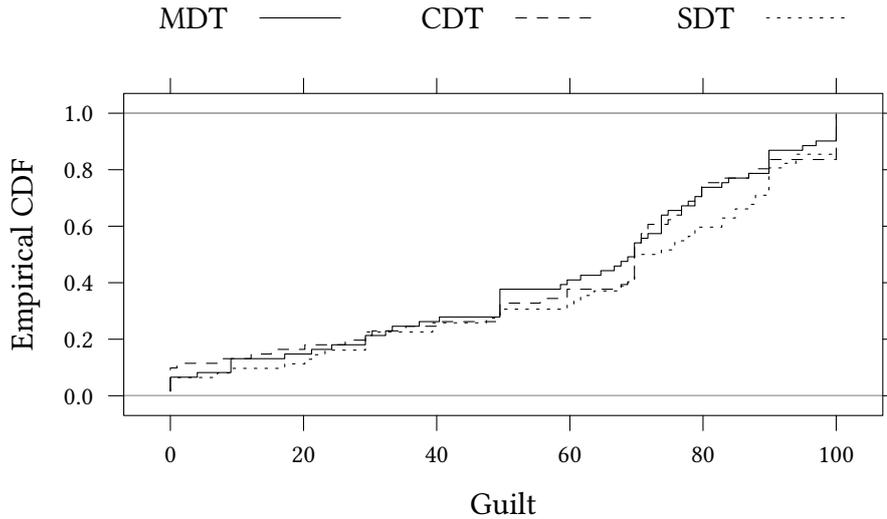
The table shows differences between treatments ($\Delta = \dots$), confidence intervals for this difference (CI=[...]), and p -values for a two sided test whether this difference could be zero. Each line shows result for one measure: responsibility for outcome, responsibility for the passive dictator’s payoff, responsibility for the responder’s payoff.

Table 3: Treatment difference in guilt.

According to Hypothesis 1.ii the difference in responsibility between CDT and MDT should be positive. We do observe a significantly positive difference for the *payoff co-dictator* measure. However, we find insignificant negative differences for the other two measures.

5.2. Hypothesis 2: guilt

In all treatments dictators were asked to state their perceived guilt in case option A was implemented. The level of guilt was measured by a continuous scale from “*not guilty*” (0) to “*totally guilty*” (100). Figure 2 shows the distribution of guilt. According to Hypothesis 2.i, we expect dictators to feel less guilty for an unequal payoff in the MDT than in the SDT. Furthermore, according to Hypothesis 2.ii we expect a lower level of guilt in MDT than in CDT. Table 3 provides confidence intervals and p -values for treatment differences. According to Hypothesis 2.i the difference in guilt between SDT and MDT should be positive. According to Hypothesis 2.ii the difference in guilt between CDT and MDT should be positive. Indeed, both differences are positive, however, not significantly so. Thus, neither Hypothesis 2.i nor Hypothesis 2.ii can be confirmed for dictators. The level of guilt felt by dictators is not significantly affected by the treatment, whether dictators decide on their own, together with a computer or with another human.



For the Question see see Question8 from Appendix A.1.2.

Figure 2: Dictators' perceived guilt

5.3. Hypothesis 3: choices

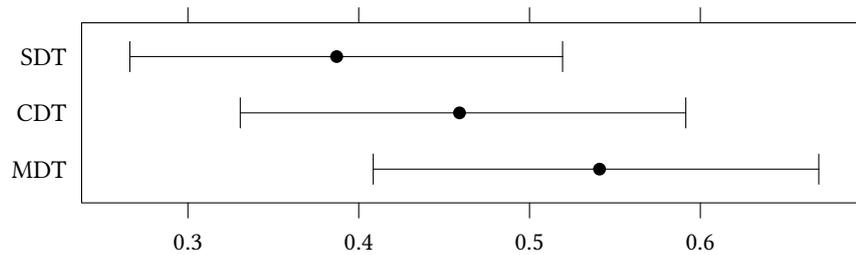
Figure 3 presents, for each treatment, the relative frequency of self-interested choices made by dictators.¹⁴ According to Hypothesis 3.i selfish choices should be more frequent with MDT than with SDT. Indeed, this is what we see in the Figure. The difference is, however, not significant. According to Hypothesis 3.ii selfish choices should also be more frequent with MDT than with CDT. Again, this is what we see in the Figure. Still, the difference is not significant.

6. Conclusion

The number of decisions made by human-computer teams have risen substantially in the past. Here, we study whether humans perceive a decision shared with a computer differently than they perceive a decision shared with another human. More specifically, we focus on the perceived personal responsibility and guilt for a selfish decision when a decision is shared with a computer instead of with another human.

Former studies have established that humans behave more selfishly if they share responsibility with other humans. We do find a similar pattern in our experiment, even for human-computer interactions. When decision makers decide on their own, the number of selfish choices is rather small. When the decision is shared with a computer the number of selfish choices increases. The frequency of selfish choices is highest when the decision is shared with another human. However, these differences are not very large and, in our study, not

¹⁴For the binary Dictator Game interface shown to the dictators and to the recipients see Appendix A.1.1.



The graph shows 95%-confidence intervals around the observed frequency. For the Question see Figure 4 in Appendix A.1.

Figure 3: Relative frequency of selfish choices by treatments

significant.¹⁵

We also measure perceived responsibility for the final outcome, the recipient’s payoff and the co-dictator’s payoff. In line with our hypotheses, we find that responsibility for the outcome is perceived significantly stronger when a decision is not shared at all than when it is shared with a human. Also in line with our hypotheses, responsibility for the co-dictator’s payoff is perceived stronger when the decision is shared with a computer than when the decision is shared with a human.

In our experiment we use a very small manipulation. The way computers decided was fully transparent and could be easily linked to human choices. In the experiment the advantage of such a transparent design is that we can clearly communicate to participants what computers do. Sharing a choice with a computer in our experiment is as foreseeable as sharing a choice with a human. Despite the small manipulation, we did find some effects.

In our experiment we did, on purpose, not model the unpredictability of a complex computerised choice. This would be a next step which we have to leave to future research.

For the future, an open discussion of hybrid-decision situations would be desirable. It might not only be important to address the technical question of what we can achieve by using artificial decision making systems such as computer but also how humans perceive them in different situations and how this influences human decision-making.

References

Allen, C., Varner, G., and Zinser, J. (2000). Prolegomena to any future artificial moral agent. *Journal of Experimental & Theoretical Artificial Intelligence*, 12(3):251–261.

¹⁵While the effect size for shared decision-making with another human was very large in the studies by Dana et al. (2007) ($n = 20$), Luhan et al. (2009) ($n = 30$) and Panchanathan et al. (2013) ($n = 44$) we found a medium sized effect ($n = 61$) when comparing decisions made by a single dictator to decisions made by a team of two human dictators.

- Andreoni, J. and Bernheim, B. D. (2009). Social Image and the 50-50 Norm: A Theoretical and Experimental Analysis of Audience Effects. *Econometrica*, 77(5):1607–1636.
- Andreoni, J. and Petrie, R. (2004). Public goods experiments without confidentiality: A glimpse into fund-raising. *Journal of Public Economics*, 88(7-8):1605–1623.
- Aronson, E. (2009). The Return of the Repressed: Dissonance Theory Makes a Comeback. *Psychological Inquiry*, 3(4):303–311.
- Asaro, P. M. (2011). A Body to Kick, but Still No Soul to Damn: Legal Perspectives on Robotics. In Lin, K. Abney, and G. Bekey, editor, *Robot Ethics: The Ethical and Social Implications of Robotics*, pages 169–186. MIT Press, Cambridge, MA.
- Bartling, B., Fischbacher, U., and Schudy, S. (2015). Pivotality and responsibility attribution in sequential voting. *Journal of Public Economics*, 128:133–139.
- Battigalli, P. and Dufwenberg, M. (2007). Guilt in Games. *American Economic Review*, 97(2):170–176.
- Beauvois, J.-L. and Joule, R. (1996). *A radical dissonance theory*. Taylor & Francis, London; Bristol, PA.
- Bechel, W. (1985). Attributing Responsibility to Computer Systems. *Metaphilosophy*, 16(4):296–306.
- Bénabou, R. and Tirole, J. (2006). Incentives and Prosocial Behavior. *American Economic Review*, 96(5):1652–1678.
- Berndsen, M. and Manstead, A. S. R. (2007). On the relationship between responsibility and guilt: Antecedent appraisal or elaborated appraisal? *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 37(4):774–792.
- Bland, J. and Nikiforakis, N. (2015). Coordination with third-party externalities. *European Economic Review*, 80:1–15.
- Bodner, R. and Prelec, D. (2003). Self-signaling and diagnostic utility in everyday decision making. *The psychology of economic decisions*, 1:105–126.
- Bornstein, G. and Yaniv, I. (1998). Individual and group behavior in the ultimatum game: Are groups more “rational” players? *Experimental Economics*, 1(1):101–108.
- Bruun, O. and Teroni, F. (2011). Shame, Guilt and Morality. *Journal of Moral Philosophy*, 8(2):223–245.
- Chen, D. L. and Schonger, M. (2013). Social Preferences or Sacred Values? Theory and Evidence of Deontological Motivations. *Working Paper, ETH Zürich, Mimeo*.
- Cooper, D. J. and Kagel, J. H. (2005). Are Two Heads Better Than One? Team versus Individual Play in Signaling Games. *American Economic Review*, 95(3):477–509.

- Dana, J., Weber, R. A., and Kuang, J. X. (2007). Exploiting moral wiggle room: Experiments demonstrating an illusory preference for fairness. *Economic Theory*, 33(1):67–80.
- Darley, J. and Latané, B. (1968). Bystander intervention in emergencies: Diffusion of responsibility. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 8(4, Pt.1):377–383.
- de Hooge, I. E., Nelissen, R. M. A., Breugelmans, S. M., and Zeelenberg, M. (2011). What is moral about guilt? Acting “prosocially” at the disadvantage of others. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 100(3):462–473.
- DeBaets, A. M. (2014). Can a Robot Pursue the Good? Exploring Artificial Moral Agency. *Journal of Evolution and Technology*, 24:76–86.
- Dennett, D. C. (1997). When HAL Kills, Whos to Blame?: Computer Ethics. *Rethinking responsibility in science and technology*, pages 203–214.
- Ellingsen, T. and Johannesson, M. (2008). Pride and Prejudice: The Human Side of Incentive Theory. *American Economic Review*, 98(3):990–1008.
- Engel, C. (2011). Dictator games: A meta study. *Experimental Economics*, 14(4):583–610.
- Falk, A. and Szech, N. (2013). Morals and Markets. *Science*, 340(6133):707–711.
- Fischbacher, U. (2007). z-Tree: Zurich toolbox for ready-made economic experiments. *Experimental Economics*, 10(2):171–178.
- Fischer, J. M. (1999). Recent Work on Moral Responsibility. *Ethics*, 110(1):93–139.
- Fischer, P., Krueger, J. I., Greitemeyer, T., Vogrincic, C., Kastenmüller, A., Frey, D., Heene, M., Wicher, M., and Kainbacher, M. (2011). The bystander-effect: A meta-analytic review on bystander intervention in dangerous and non-dangerous emergencies. *Psychological Bulletin*, 137(4):517–537.
- Floridi, L. and Sanders, J. W. (2004). On the Morality of Artificial Agents. *Minds and Machines*, 14(3):349–379.
- Forsyth, D. R., Zyzniewski, L. E., and Giammanco, C. A. (2002). Responsibility Diffusion in Cooperative Collectives. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 28(1):54–65.
- Freeman, S., Walker, M. R., Borden, R., and Latane, B. (1975). Diffusion of Responsibility and Restaurant Tipping: Cheaper by the Bunch. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 1(4):584–587.
- Friedman (1995). “It’s the Computer’s Fault” –Reasoning About Computers as Moral Agents. In *Conference companion on Human factors in computing systems (CHI 95)*, pages 226–227. Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY.
- Friedman, B. and Kahn, P. H. (1992). Human agency and responsible computing: Implications for computer system design. *Journal of Systems and Software*, 17(1):7–14.

- Gogoll, J. and Uhl, M. (2016). Automation and Morals – Eliciting Folk Intuitions. *TU München Peter Löscher-Stiftungslehrstuhl für Wirtschaftsethik Working Paper Series*.
- Greiner, B. (2004). An online recruitment system for economic experiments. In Kremer, K. and Macho, V., editors, *Forschung und wissenschaftliches Rechnen*, pages 79–93. Göttingen.
- Grossman, Z. (2014). Strategic Ignorance and the Robustness of Social Preferences. *Management Science*, 60(11):2659–2665.
- Grossman, Z. (2015). Self-signaling and social-signaling in giving. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 117:26–39.
- Grossman, Z. and van der Weele, J. J. (2013). Self-Image and Willful Ignorance in Social Decisions. *Forthcoming in the Journal of the European Economic Association*.
- Haidt and Kesebir (2010). Morality. In Fiske, S. T., Gilbert, D. T., Lindzey, G., and Jongsma, A. E., editors, *Handbook of social psychology*. Wiley, Hoboken, N.J.
- Haisley, E. C. and Weber, R. A. (2010). Self-serving interpretations of ambiguity in other-regarding behavior. *Games and Economic Behavior*, 68(2):614–625.
- Insko, C. A., Schopler, J., Hoyle, R. H., Dardis, G. J., and et al (1990). Individual-group discontinuity as a function of fear and greed. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 58(1):68–79.
- Johnson, D. G. (2006). Computer systems: Moral entities but not moral agents. *Ethics and Information Technology*, 8(4):195–204.
- Johnson, D. G. and Powers, T. M. (2005). Computer Systems and Responsibility: A Normative Look at Technological Complexity. *Ethics and Information Technology*, 7(2):99–107.
- Katagiri, Y., Nass, C., Takeuchi, and Yugo (2001). Cross-Cultural Studies of the Computers are Social Actors Paradigma: The Case of Reciprocity. In Smith, M. J., Koubek, R. J., Salvendy, G., and Harris, D., editors, *Usability evaluation and interface design*, volume 1 of *Human factors and ergonomics*, pages 1558–1562. Lawrence Erlbaum, Mahwah, N.J. and London.
- Kaushik, D., High, R., Clark, C. J., and LaGrange, C. A. (2010). Malfunction of the Da Vinci robotic system during robot-assisted laparoscopic prostatectomy: an international survey. *Journal of endourology*, 24(4):571–575.
- Kocher, M. G. and Sutter, M. (2005). The Decision Maker Matters: Individual Versus Group Behaviour in Experimental Beauty-Contest Games*. *The Economic Journal*, 115(500):200–223.
- Kocher, M. G. and Sutter, M. (2007). Individual versus group behavior and the role of the decision making procedure in gift-exchange experiments. *Empirica*, 34(1):63–88.
- Konow, J. (2000). Fair Shares: Accountability and Cognitive Dissonance in Allocation Decisions. *American Economic Review*, 90(4):1072–1092.

- Kugler, T., Bornstein, G., Kocher, M. G., and Sutter, M. (2007). Trust between individuals and groups: Groups are less trusting than individuals but just as trustworthy. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 28(6):646–657.
- Latané, B. and Nida, S. (1981). Ten years of research on group size and helping. *Psychological Bulletin*, 89(2):308–324.
- Lipinski, T. A., Buchanan, E. A., and Britz, J. J. (2002). Sticks and stones and words that harm: Liability vs. responsibility, section 230 and defamatory speech in cyberspace. *Ethics and Information Technology*, 4(2):143–158.
- Luhan, W., Kocher, M., and Sutter, M. (2009). Group polarization in the team dictator game reconsidered. *Experimental Economics*, 12(1):26–41.
- Matthey, A. and Regner, T. (2011). Do I Really Want to Know? A Cognitive Dissonance-Based Explanation of Other-Regarding Behavior. *Games*, 2(4):114–135.
- May, L. (1992). *Sharing responsibility*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- Mazar, N., Amir, O., and Ariely, D. (2008). The Dishonesty of Honest People: A Theory of Self-Concept Maintenance. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 45(6):633–644.
- McGlynn, R. P., Harding, D. J., and Cottle, J. L. (2009). Individual-Group Discontinuity in Group-Individual Interactions: Does Size Matter? *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 12(1):129–143.
- Melo, C. d., Marsella, S., and Gratch, J. (2016). People Do Not Feel Guilty About Exploiting Machines. *ACM Transactions on Computer-Human Interaction*, 23(2):1–17.
- Moon, Y. (2003). Don't Blame the Computer: When Self-Disclosure Moderates the Self-Serving Bias. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 13(1-2):125–137.
- Moon, Y. and Nass, C. (1998). Are computers scapegoats? Attributions of responsibility in human-computer interaction. *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, 49(1):79–94.
- Moor, Johnson, D. G., and Snapper, J. W. (1985). Are there decisions computers should never make? In Maner, W., Johnson, D. G., and Snapper, J. W., editors, *Ethical issues in the use of computers*, pages 120–130. Wadsworth Publ. Co., Belmont, CA.
- Moore, M. S. (1999). Causation and Responsibility. *Social Philosophy and Policy*, 16(2):1–51.
- Murnighan, J., Oesch, J. M., and Pillutla, M. (2001). Player Types and Self-Impression Management in Dictatorship Games: Two Experiments. *Games and Economic Behavior*, 37(2):388–414.
- Nass, C., Fogg, B. J., and Moon, Y. (1996). Can computers be teammates? *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, 45(6):669–678.

- Nass, C. and Moon, Y. (2000). Machines and Mindlessness: Social Responses to Computers. *Journal of Social Issues*, 56(1):81–103.
- Nass, C., Steuer, J., and Tauber, E. R. (1994). Computers are social actors. In Adelson, B., Dumais, S., and Olson, J., editors, *Proceedings of the SIGCHI conference on Human factors in computing systems*, pages 72–78, New York. Association for Computing Machinery.
- Nissenbaum, H. (1994). Computing and accountability. *Communications of the ACM*, 37(1):72–80.
- Panchanathan, K., Frankenhuys, W. E., and Silk, J. B. (2013). The bystander effect in an N-person dictator game. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 120(2):285–297.
- R Development Core Team (2016). *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. ISBN 3-900051-07-0.
- Rabin, M. (1995). Moral Preferences, Moral Constraints, and Self-Serving Biases. *Department of Economics UCB (unpublished manuscript)*.
- Reeves, B. and Nass, C. (2003). *The media equation: How people treat computers, television, and new media like real people and places*. CSLI Publ, Stanford CA, 1. paperback ed., 3. [print.] edition.
- Rockenbach, B., Sadrieh, A., and Mathauschek, B. (2007). Teams take the better risks. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 63(3):412–422.
- Rothenhäusler, D., Schweizer, N., and Szech, N. (2013). Institutions, Shared Guilt, and Moral Transgression. *Working Paper Series in Economics*, (47).
- Scheines, R. (2002). Computation and Causation. *Metaphilosophy*, 33(1/2):158–180.
- Shademan, A., Decker, R. S., Opfermann, J. D., Leonard, S., Krieger, A., and Kim, P. C. W. (2016). Supervised autonomous robotic soft tissue surgery. *Science translational medicine*, 8(337):337ra64.
- Sherman, N. (1999). Taking Responsibility for our Emotions. *Social Philosophy and Policy*, 16(02):294–323.
- Snapper, J. W. (1985). Responsibility for computer-based errors. *Metaphilosophy*, 16(4):289–295.
- Sparrow, R. (2007). Killer Robots. *Journal of Applied Philosophy*, 24(1):62–77.
- Stahl, B. C. (2006). Responsible computers? A case for ascribing quasi-responsibility to computers independent of personhood or agency. *Ethics and Information Technology*, 8(4):205–213.

- Stice, E. (1992). The similarities between cognitive dissonance and guilt: Confession as a relief of dissonance. *Current Psychology*, 11(1):69–77.
- Sullins, J. P. (2006). When Is a Robot a Moral Agent? In Adelson, M. and Anderson, S., editors, *Machine Ethics*, pages 151–160, New York, NY. Association for Computing Machinery.
- Sutter, M. (2005). Are four heads better than two? An experimental beauty-contest game with teams of different size. *Economics Letters*, 88(1):41–46.
- Wallace, R. J. (1994). *Responsibility and the moral sentiments*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass.
- Wildschut, T., Pinter, B., Vevea, J. L., Insko, C. A., and Schopler, J. (2003). Beyond the group mind: a quantitative review of the interindividual-intergroup discontinuity effect. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129(5):698–722.

A. Appendix for online publication

This section contains additional information on the interfaces and questions used in the treatments. We also present further analyses of data we collected in addition to the data used to test your hypotheses. Data and Methods can be found at <https://www.kirchkamp.de/research/shareMachine.html>.

A.1. Interfaces and questions

In this section the interfaces as well as the questions used in the experiment are presented.

A.1.1. Dictator game interface

In the MDT as well as in the CDT dictators used the interface sketched in Figure 4 to enter their decision. Recipients used the interface sketched in Figure 5 to enter their guess.

Please make a decision:

<p>Option A (will be implemented if player X and player Y choose A) Player X receives 6 ECU Player Y receives 6 ECU Player Z receives 1 ECU</p> <p>Option A</p>	<p>Option B (will be implemented if player X and player Y choose B) Player X receives 5 ECU Player Y receives 5 ECU Player Z receives 5 ECU</p> <p>Option B</p>
--	--

Figure 4: Dictator Game interface for dictators

Players X and Y are confronted with the following decision-making situation:

<p>Option A (will be implemented if player X and player Y choose A) Player X receives 6 ECU Player Y receives 6 ECU Player Z receives 1 ECU</p>	<p>Option B (will be implemented if player X and player Y choose B) Player X receives 5 ECU Player Y receives 5 ECU Player Z receives 5 ECU</p>
--	--

What do you think: how many players in your group will choose option A?

Your assessment does not affect the outcome of the game.

Your assessment: 0 players
 1 player
 2 players

OK

Figure 5: Dictator Game interface for recipients and passive dictators

The interfaces for dictators and recipients were as similar as possible in all three treatments. Recipients were asked to guess dictators choices.

A.1.2. Questionnaire

All subjects were asked to complete a questionnaire. The questions were asked right after the decision and before the final outcome was announced. As an example, the questions used in the MDT for the subject in the roll of Player X are presented below. The used answer method is presented in brackets. The questions asked in the CDT and in the SDT were very similar to the questions asked in the MDT. In the CDT, Player Y did not decide on his/her own and the questions were changed accordingly. Except of the first three questions all questions were asked in the SDT. Dictators were asked directly, recipients and passive dictators were asked indirectly. For example, recipient and passive dictators were asked how responsible they perceive the dictator(s) to be for the recipients' or the passive dictators' payoff and how responsible they expect the dictator(s) to feel for the final outcome.

1. How would you have decided, had you made the decision on your own? [Slider from "Option A" to "Option B"] (for an analysis of the answers given see Appendix A.4)
2. What is the likelihood that Player Y chooses Option A (Player X receives 6 ECU, Player Y receives 6 ECU, Player Z receives 1 ECU)? [Slider from "Player Y always chooses A" to "Player Y always chooses B"] (for an analysis of the answers given see Appendix A.5)
3. Did your expectation regarding the likelihood that Player Y would choose Option A (Player X receives 6 ECU, Player Y receives 6 ECU, Player Z receives 1 ECU) affect your decision? [Radio buttons "YES"; "NO"] (for an analysis of the answers given see Appendix A.2)
4. Why did you choose Option A (Player X receives 6 ECU, Player Y receives 6 ECU, Player Z receives 1 ECU)? [Open question with a maximum of 100 characters] / Why did you choose Option B (Player X receives 5 ECU, Player Y receives 5 ECU, Player Z receives 5 ECU)? [Open question with a maximum of 100 characters] (for the answers given see online dataset)
5. What could be additional reasons for choosing option A (player X receives 6 ECU, player Y receives 6 ECU, player Z receives 1 ECU)? [Open question with a maximum of 100 characters] (for the answers given see online dataset)
6. I feel responsible for the payoff of Player Z. [Slider from "Very responsible" to "Not responsible at all"] (for an analysis of the answers given see Section 5.1 and Appendix A.8)¹⁶
7. I feel responsible for the payoff of Player Y. [Slider from "Very responsible" to "Not responsible at all"] (for an analysis of the answers given see Section 5.1 and Appendix A.8)¹⁷

¹⁶Recipients and passive dictators were asked who how responsible they perceive the dictator to be for the payoff of Player Z.

¹⁷Recipients and passive dictators were asked who how responsible they perceive the dictator to be for the payoff of Player Y.

CDT-MDT	
$\Delta = -15.1$	CI=[$-\infty, -9.349$] ($p = 0.0000$)

Table 4: Treatment difference between the personal responsibility of the computer in the CDT and the human dictator in the MDT by dictators

8. Option A will be implemented if you and the other player chose A. If this happens, Player X receives 6 ECU, Player Y receives 6 ECU and Player Z receives 1 ECU, how guilty would you feel in this case? [Slider from “*I would feel very guilty*” to “*I would not feel guilty at all*”] (for an analysis of the answers given see Section 5.2 and Appendix A.9)¹⁸
9. Option A will be implemented if you and the other player chose A. In this case, Player X receives 6 ECU, Player Y receives 6 ECU and Player Z receives 1 ECU. Please adjust the slide control, so that it shows how you would perceive your responsibility as well as the responsibility of the other player in a scenario in which Option A is implemented. [Slider from “*I am fully responsible*” to “*I am not responsible*” and slider from “*My fellow player is fully responsible*” to “*My fellow player is not responsible*”] (for an analysis of the answers given see Section 5.1 and Appendix A.3 and A.7)¹⁹

A.2. Dictators’ perceived influence by co-dictators choice

Dictators in the MDT as well as in the CDT were asked to state if their expectation regarding their co-dictators behavior had an influence on their own decision.²⁰ Dictators could either choose “YES” or “NO”. In the MDT 34.4% of the dictators and in the CDT 36.1% of the dictators stated that they took the expected decision of their co-dictator into account when making their own decision.

A.3. Dictators’ assigned responsibility to the co-dictator by choice

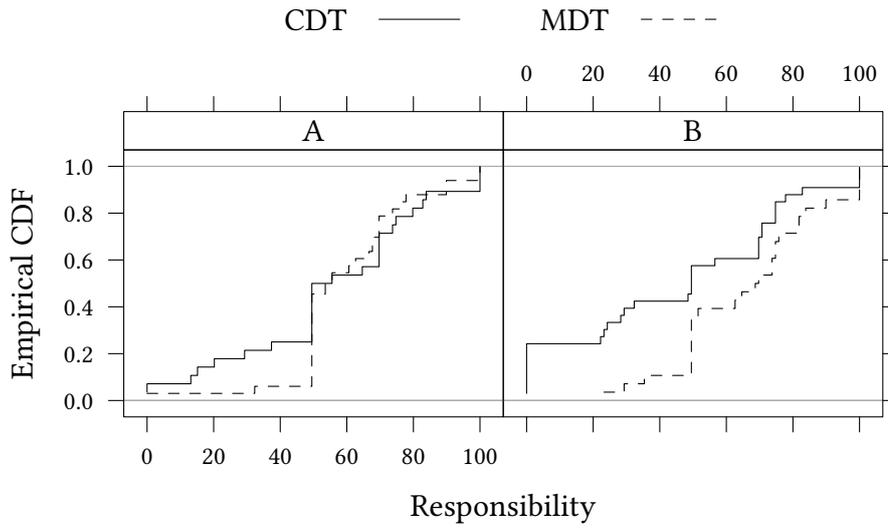
Dictators in the MDT and in the CDT had the possibility to state how responsible they perceive their co-dictator to be for the final outcome.²¹ The co-dictator was either a human (in the MDT) or a computer (in the CDT). As Table 4 shows, dictators in the MDT perceived their fellow dictator, on average, to be significantly more responsible than the dictators in the CDT perceived the computer to be. However, as Figure 6 shows, this was mainly driven by dictators who chose Option B.

¹⁸Recipients and passive dictators were asked who how guilty they expect the dictator to feel if Option A would be implemented.

¹⁹Recipients and passive dictators were asked who how responsible they expect the dictator to feel if Option A would be implemented.

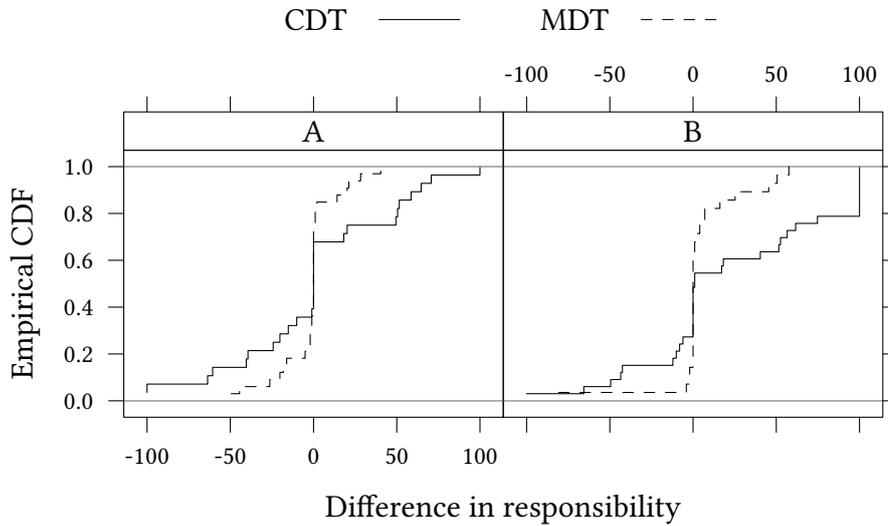
²⁰For the exact wording of the question see Question 3 from Appendix A.1.2.

²¹For the exact wording of the question see Question 9 from Appendix A.1.2.



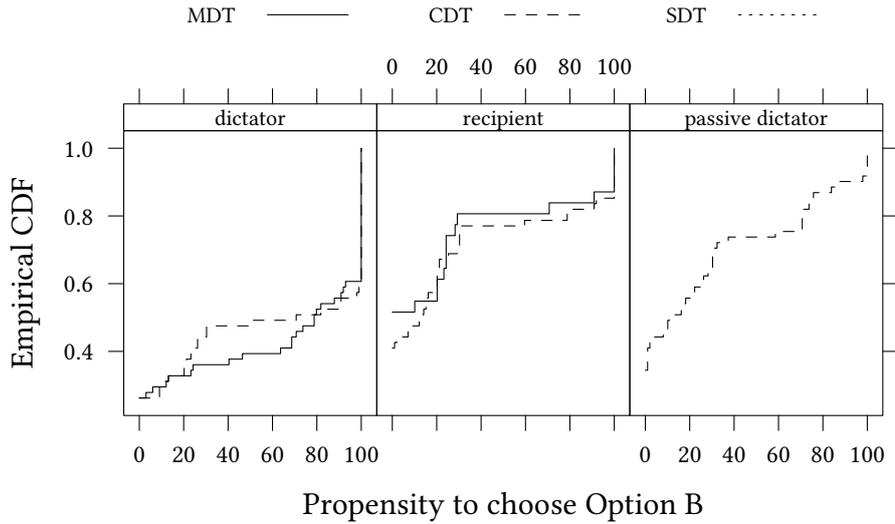
Question 9 from Appendix A.1.2.

Figure 6: Responsibility assigned to the computer or human co-dictator (dictators)



Question 9 from Appendix A.1.2.

Figure 7: Difference between dictators' personal responsibility and co-dictators responsibility (dictators)



Question 1 from Appendix A.1.2. “Dictator” is the dictators own assesment, “recipient” is how the recipients expect the dictators to decide as hypothetical single players, “passive dictator” is how the passive dictators expect the dictators to decide a hypothetical single players.

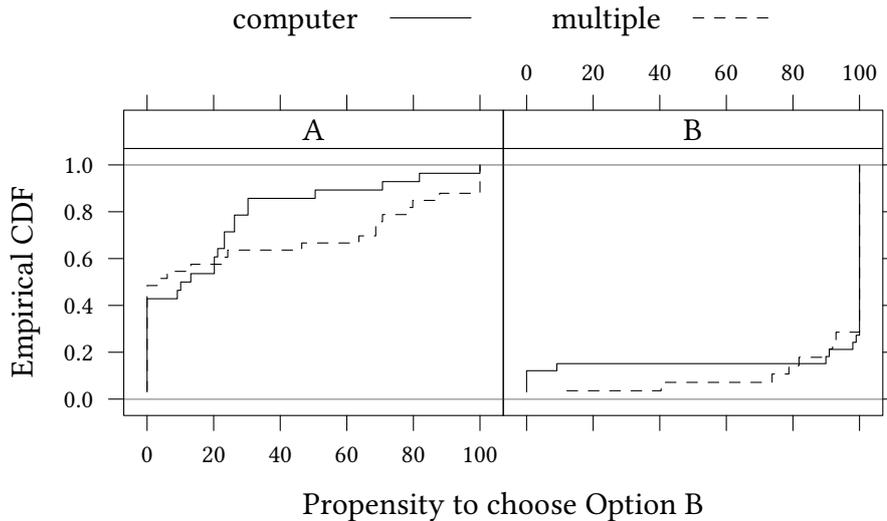
Figure 8: Dictators’ choice as a hypothetical single player.

By comparing the responsibility the dictators assigned to themselves with the responsibility the dictators attributed to their co-dictators, see Figure 7, it becomes clear that the difference is more dispersed in the CDT, where dictators decided together with a computer, than in the MDT, where dictators decided together with another human dictator. Means, however, are similar (p -value 0.1273). In summary, dictators assigned on average less responsibility to a computer in the CDT than to a human co-dictator in the MDT.

A.4. Hypothetical decision if dictators decide as single dictators

Dictators in the MDT as well as in the CDT were asked how they would have decided, if they would have had to decide on their own. Recipients in the MDT and CDT and passive dictators in the CDT were asked how they would have expected the dictator to decide, if they would have had to decide on their own.²² Dictators as well as recipients were able to insert their assessment by a continuous scale from “Option A” (0) to “Option B” (100). As the left part of Figure 8 shows, a large proportion of the actively deciding dictators in the CDT and in the MDT reported that they would have chosen Option B if they had been forced to decide alone. This was mainly driven by dictators who chose Option B (p -value 0.0000)(see Figure 9). As the middle part of Figure 8 shows, it become clear that recipients in the MDT as well as in the CDT expected the dictators to choose Option B less often were they each deciding alone. As the right part of Figure 8) shows, the passive dictators in the CDT also expected the dictators to choose Option B less often where they each deciding alone.

²²For the exact wording of the question see Question 1 from Appendix A.1.2.



Question 1 from Appendix A.1.2.

Figure 9: Dictators' choice as a hypothetical single player by choice)

A.5. Expectation regarding the behavior of the human dictator(s)

Dictators in the MDT as well as in the CDT were asked to state the likelihood that their co-dictator would choose Option A. Recipients in the MDT as well as in the CDT were asked to state the likelihood that the dictator as well as the co-dictator choose Option A.²³ Passive dictators in the CDT were asked to state what they expected the dictator to choose.²⁴ The expectation was measured by a continuous scale from “*Player [Computer] always chooses Option A*” (0) to “*Player [Computer] always chooses always Option B*” (100). As the left part of Figure 10 shows, dictators in the CDT expected the computer to choose Option A on average significantly less often than dictators in the MDT expected their human co-dictator to choose Option A (p -value 0.0023). This was mainly driven by dictators in the MDT who had chosen Option B (p -value 0.0001) (see Figure 11). As the middle part of Figure 10 shows, recipients in the SDT expected dictators to be more likely to choose Option B than recipients in the MDT (p -value 0.0012). However, recipients in the MDT did not expect a higher likelihood of selfish choices by dictators than recipients in the CDT (p -value 0.4382). As the right part of Figure 10 shows, passive dictators in the CDT expected the dictator to be more likely to choose Option A than Option B.

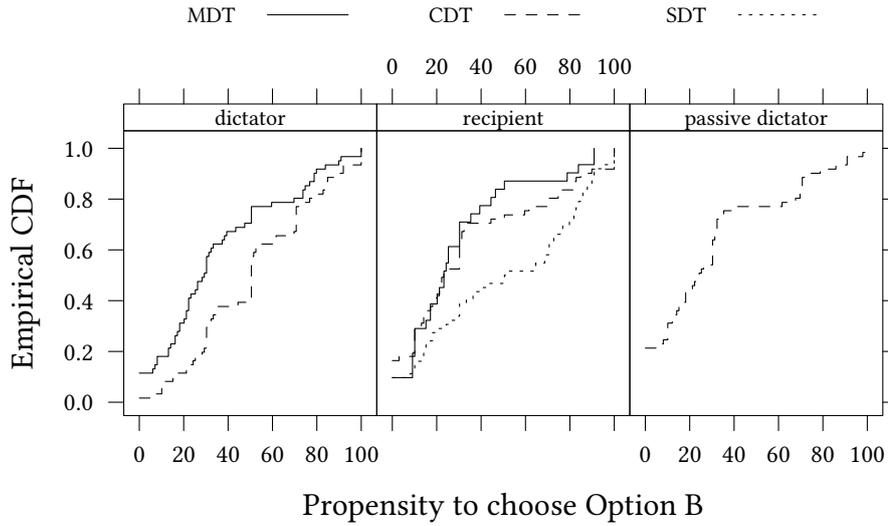
A.6. Recipients' and passive dictators' expected choices

Recipients, and if present passive dictators were asked to their guess on which option the dictators will choose.²⁵ Table 5 summarises the recipients' and passive dictators' expecta-

²³In the MDT the co-dictator was another human, in the CDT the co-dictator was a computer.

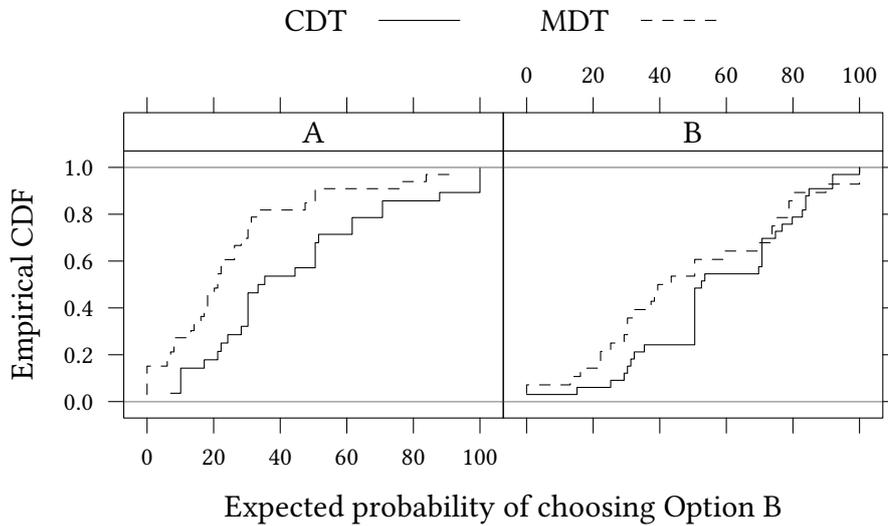
²⁴For the exact wording of the question see Question 2 from Appendix A.1.2.

²⁵For the binary Dictator Game interface shown to the recipients see Appendix A.1.1.



Question 2 from Appendix A.1.2. “Dictator” is the dictators own assesment, “recipient” is what the recipients expect the dictators to choose, “passive dictator” is what the passive dictators expect the dictators to choose.

Figure 10: Expected co-dictators’ choice.



Question 2 from Appendix A.1.2.

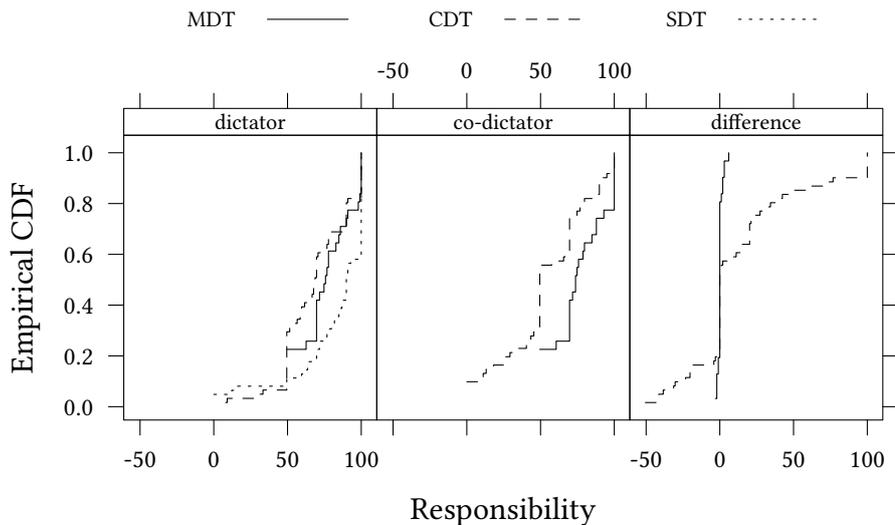
Figure 11: Dictators expected co-dictators’ choice by choice

exp. no. of A choices	recipient CDT	recipient MDT	recipient SDT	pass.dict. CDT
0	37.7	6.5	64.5	33.9
1	62.3	29.0	35.5	66.1
2	0.0	64.5	0.0	0.0

For the Question see Figure 5 in Appendix A.1.

Note that in the single and computer treatments there is only a single opponent, hence, there can be no more than one A choice.

Table 5: Recipients' and passive dictators' expectations of "A" choices [%]



“Dictator” and “co-dictator” are Question 9 from Appendix A.1.2, “difference” shows the difference between the responsibility allocated to the dictators and the co-dictators.

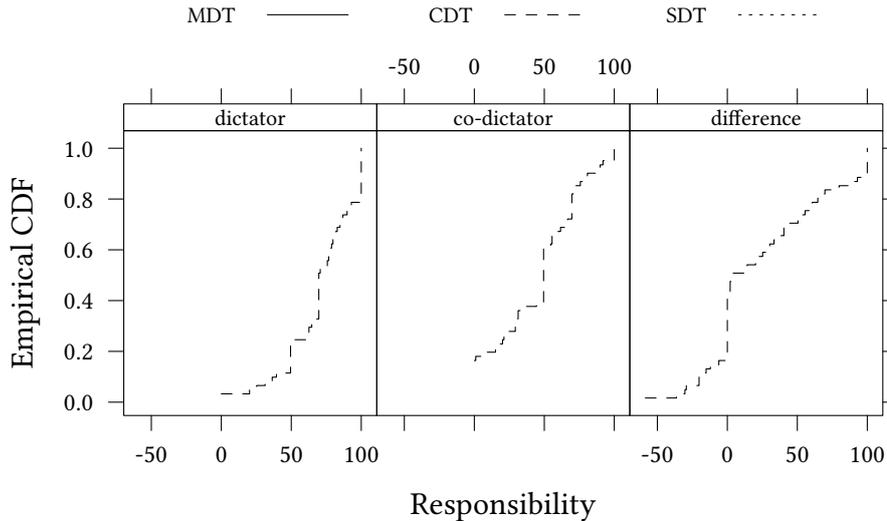
Figure 12: Dictators' responsibility according to recipients.

tions. Recipients expected significantly more selfish choices (per dictator) in MDT (p -value²⁶ 0.0001) and CDT (p -value 0.0017) than in SDT but expected fewer selfish choices (per dictator) in CDT than in MDT (p -value 0.0544). The passive dictators' expectations are shown in the right column in Table 5. More than half of the passive dictators expected the dictator in the CDT to choose the selfish option.

A.7. Recipients' and passive dictators' assigned responsibility to the dictator(s) for the outcome

Recipients, and if present passive dictators were asked how responsible they perceive the human dictator to be for an unfair outcome. Recipients in the MDT and in the CDT were

²⁶The p -values in this paragraph are based on a logistic model.



“Dictator” and “co-dictator” are Question 9 from Appendix A.1.2, “difference” shows the difference between the responsibility allocated to the dictators and the co-dictators.

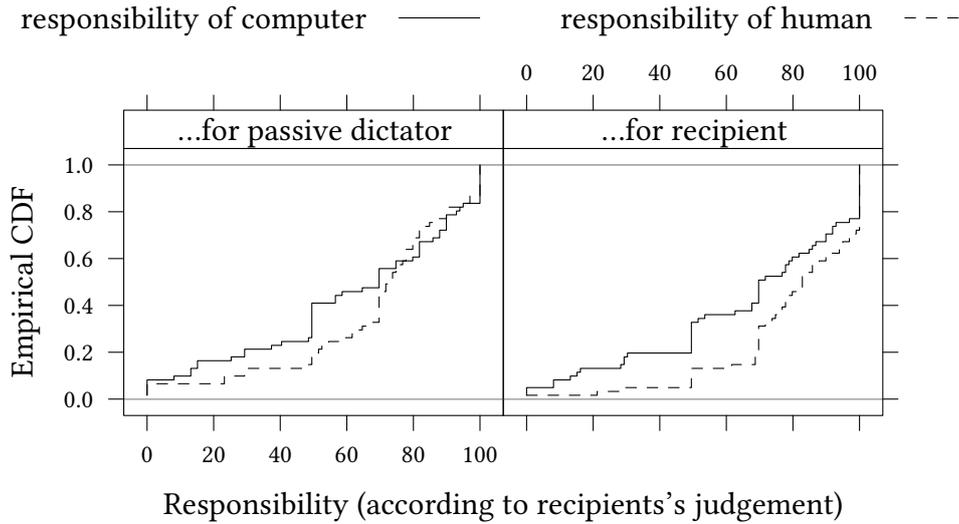
Figure 13: Dictators’ responsibility according to passive dictators.

also asked how responsible they perceive the either human or computer co-dictator to be.²⁷ The allocated responsibility was measured by a continuous scale from “*Not responsible at all*” (0) to “*Very responsible*” (100). As the left part of Figure 12 shows, recipients assigned a significantly higher level of responsibility to the dictator(s) in the SDT than to the dictators in the CDT (p -value 0.0056). However, recipients did not perceive the dictators in the MDT to be significantly less responsible than dictators in the SDT (p -value 0.2084).

Perhaps not suprisingly, as the middle part of Figure 12 shows, a human dictator in the MDT was on average perceived as significantly more responsible for the final outcome than the computer in the CDT by recipients (p -value 0.0000). Furthermore, as the right part of Figure 12 shows, the allocated responsibility differed more between the human and the computer dictator in the CDT than between the two human dictators in the MDT (p -value 0.0034).

As the left part of Figure 13 shows, a large proportion of the passive dictators perceived the dictator to be very responsible for the final decision. As the middle part of Figure Figure 13 shows, the computer was also perceived as responsible for the outcome. In the right part of Figure 13 we compare the responsibility assigned to the dictator with the one of the computer. It becomes clear that a large proportion of the passive dictators hold the dictator far more responsible for the final outcome than the computer (p -value 0.0000).

²⁷For the exact wording of the question see Question 9 from Appendix A.1.2.



"Passive dictator" is Question A.1.2 and "recipient" is Question 7 from Appendix 6.

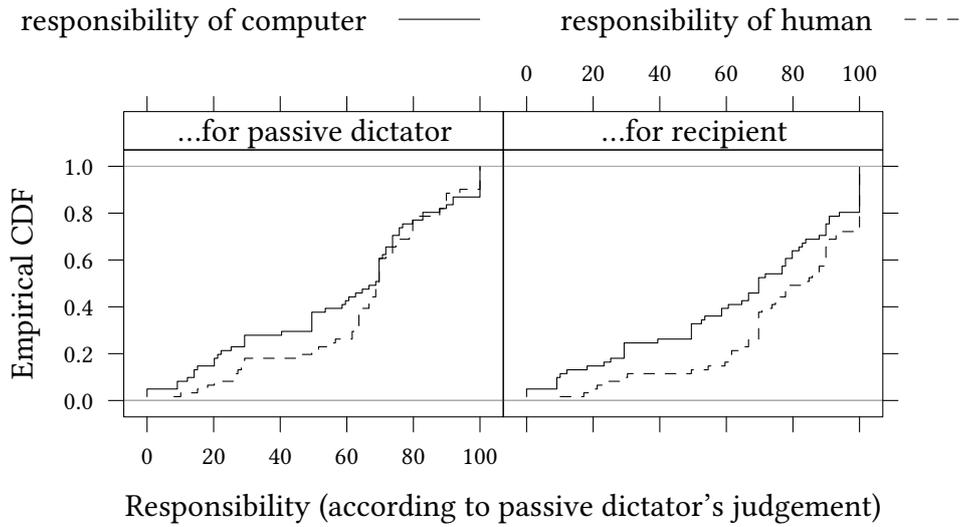
Figure 14: Dictators' personal responsibility and the computer's responsibility for the recipient and the passive dictator according to recipients

A.8. Recipients' and passive dictators' assigned responsibility to the human dictator(s) for the co-dictators' and the recipients' payoff

Recipient, and if present passive dictators, were asked to evaluate how responsible they perceive the dictator(s) to be for the payoff of the recipient and, if present, the active or passive co-dictator's payoff.²⁸ The assigned responsibility was measured by a continuous scale from "not responsible at all" (0) to "totally responsible" (100).

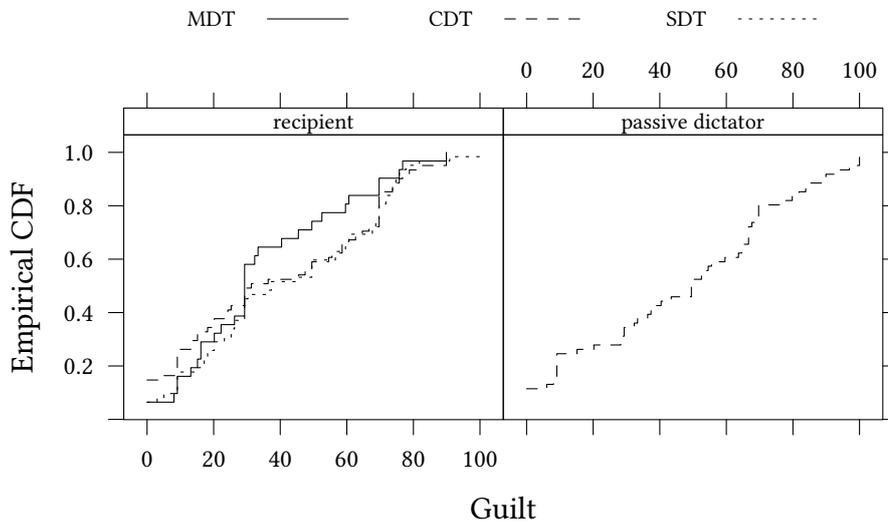
As Figure 14 shows, recipients in the CDT stated that they perceive the human dictator to be more responsible for the final payoff of the passive dictator as well as for the payoff of the recipient than a computer.

By looking at the difference between the responsibility for the payoff of the passive dictator, see Figure 15, it becomes clear that passive dictators did not perceived the dictator to be significantly more responsible than the computer (p -value 0.1594). However, passive dictators hold the dictator more responsible for the recipient's payoff than the computer (p -value 0.0119).



“Passive dictator” is Question 7 and “recipient” is Question 6 from Appendix A.1.2.

Figure 15: Dictators’ personal responsibility and the computer’s responsibility for the recipient and the passive dictator according to passive dictators



“Recipient” and “passive dictator” are Question 8 from Appendix A.1.2.

Figure 16: Dictators’ guilt according to recipients and passive dictators.

A.9. Recipients' and passive dictators' assigned guilt to the human dictator(s)

In all treatments recipients, and if present passive dictators were asked to state how guilty they expect the dictators to feel in case Option A would be implemented.²⁹ The assigned level of guilt was measured by a continuous scale from “not guilty” (0) to “totally guilty” (100). Figure 16 pictures the expected guilt the recipients expected the dictators to perceive in case Option A would be implemented. Recipients in the MDT did not expect the dictators to feel more guilty than recipients in the SDT (p -value 0.2037) or in the CDT (p -value 0.4673) when choosing Option A.

A.10. Manipulation check

A manipulation check was conducted in all treatments. The wording of the manipulation check in the MDT was “Imagine, now the decision of player X [Y] is made by a computer. The likelihood the computer chooses Option A (Player X receives 6 ECU, Player Y receives 6 ECU and Player Z receives 1 ECU) or Option B (Player X receives 5 ECU, Player Y receives 5 ECU and Player Z receives 1 ECU) is as high as the likelihood experimental subjects chose Option A or Option B in a former experiment. Example: If three out of ten participants in a former experiment, whose decision affected the payment, chose a particular option the computer would choose that option with a probability of 30%. The participants in the former experiment were not told that their decision would affect a computer's decision in this experiment. Please compare this decision-making situation with the one Player X and Player Y are confronted with in this experiment.” The wording of the manipulation check in the CDT was “Imagine, now the decision would not be made by a computer but by player Y[X] him/herself. Please compare this decision situation to the situation you were confronted with in this experiment.” The wording of the manipulation check in SDT was “Imagine, now the decision of player X is made by a computer.”

As an example, the questions for Player X used in the MDT manipulation check are presented:

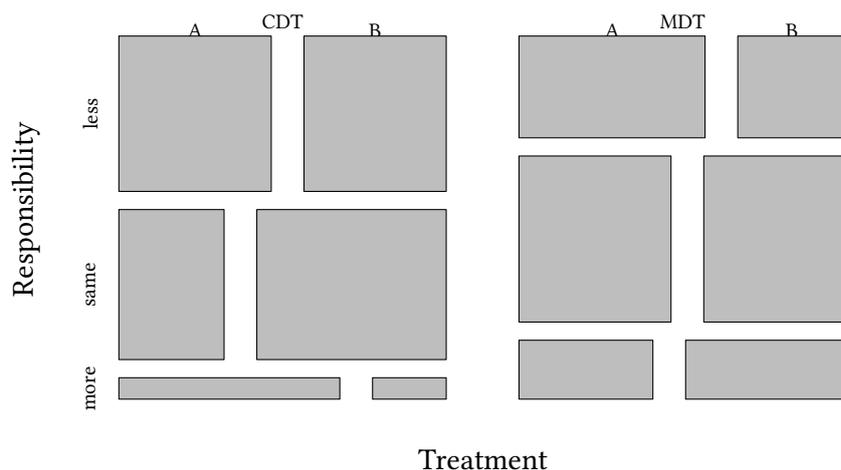
1. How responsible would you feel in this situation for the payoff of Player Y? [Radio buttons “As responsible as in the experiment”; “More responsible than in the experiment”; “Less responsible than in the experiment”] (for an analysis of the answers given see Appendix A.10.1)³⁰
2. How responsible would you feel in this situation for the payoff of Player Z? [Radio buttons “As responsible as in the experiment”; “More responsible than in the experiment”; “Less responsible than in the experiment”] (for an analysis of the answers given see Appendix A.10.2)³¹

²⁸For the exact wording of the question see Question 6 and Question 7 from Appendix A.1.2.

²⁹For the exact wording of the question see Question 8 from Appendix A.1.2.

³⁰Recipients and passive dictators were asked who how responsible they would perceive the dictator to be for the payoff of Player Y in this case.

³¹Recipients and passive dictators were asked who how responsible they would perceive the dictator to be for the payoff of Player Z in this case.



Question 1 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 17: Change in dictators' responsibility for the co-dictator or passive dictator in the manipulation check by dictators

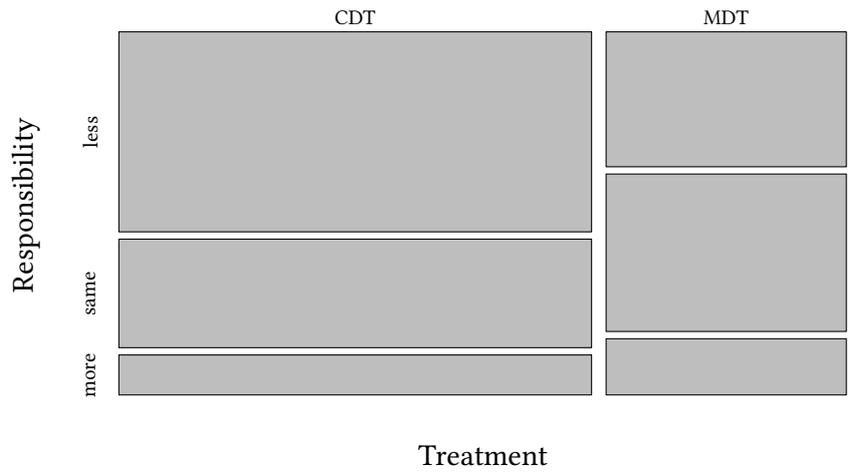
3. How guilty would you feel if you and the computer both chose Option A and therefore Option A (Player X receives 6 ECU, Player Y receives 6 ECU, Player Z receives 1 ECU) had been implemented? [Radio buttons “As guilty as in the experiment”; “More guilty than in the experiment”; “Less guilty than in the experiment”] (for an analysis of the answers given see Appendix A.10.3)³²
4. Option A will be implemented if you and the computer choose Option A. In this case, Player X receives 6 ECU, Player Y receives 6 ECU and Player Z receives 1 ECU. Please adjust the slide control, so that it shows your perceived responsibility as well as the responsibility you assign to the computer if option A is implemented. [Slider from “I am responsible” to “I am not responsible” and slider from “The computer is fully responsible” to “The computer is not responsible”] (for an analysis of the answers given see Appendix A.10.4 and A.10.5)³³

A.10.1. Responsibility for the co-dictator or passive dictator

Results for dictators are shown in Figure 17. Perhaps not surprisingly, dictators in the CDT who imagined sharing their decision with a human instead of a computer stated to feel less responsible for the payoff of their co-dictator (p -value from a binomial test 0.0000). However, dictators in the MDT who imagined sharing their decision with a computer did not feel more

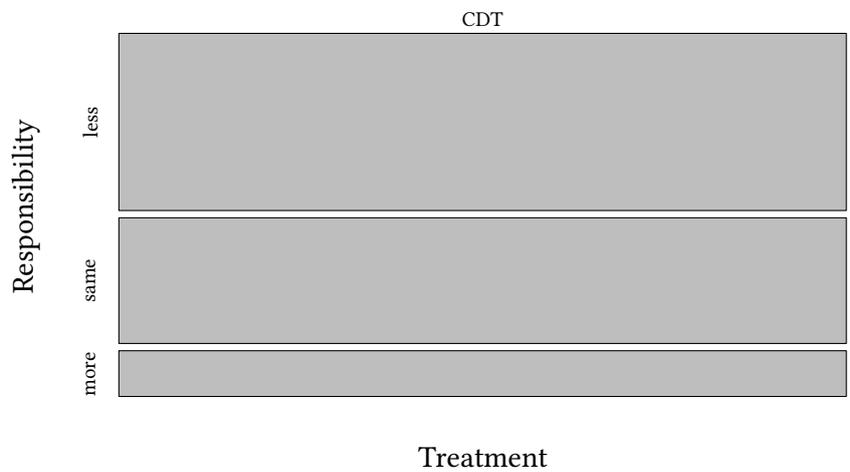
³²Recipients and passive dictators were asked who how guilty they would expect the dictator to feel in this case if Option A would be implemented.

³³Recipients and passive dictators were asked who how responsible they would expect the dictator to feel in this case if Option A would be implemented.



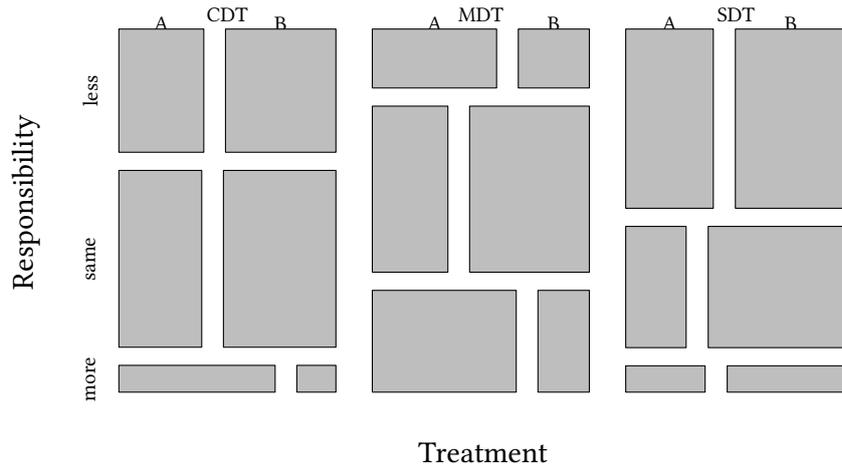
Question 2 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 18: Change in dictators' responsibility for the co-dictator or passive dictator in the manipulation check by recipients



Question 2 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 19: Change in dictators' responsibility for the passive dictator in the manipulation check by passive dictators



Question 2 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 20: Change in dictators' responsibility for the recipient in the manipulation check by dictators

responsible for the payoff of the other dictator (p -value from a binomial test 0.2005).

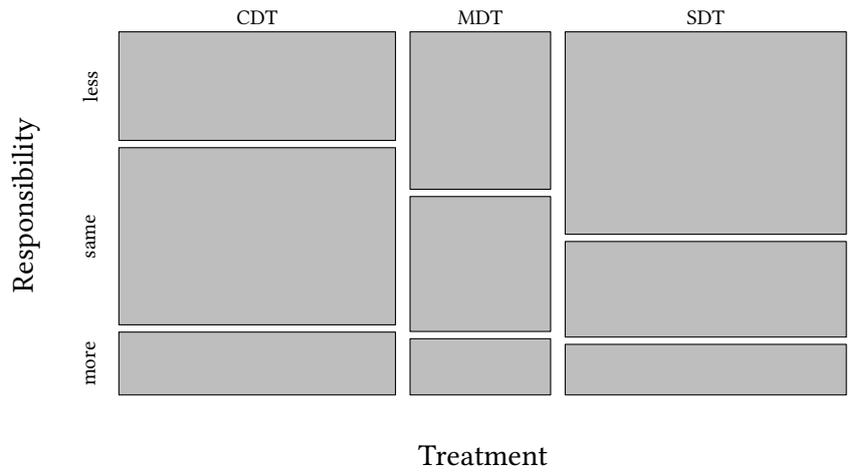
Results for recipients are shown in Figure 18. Recipients in the CDT expected that dictators, who now would have to decide with another human instead of with a computer, to feel significantly less responsible for the payoff of their co-dictator than in the experiment before (p -value from a binomial test 0.0000). However, recipients in the MDT did not expect the dictators, who now would have to decide with a computer instead of with another human, to feel significantly more responsible for the payoff of their co-dictator than before (p -value 0.1435).

Results for passive dictators are shown in Figure 19. Passive dictators expected the dictators to feel significantly less responsible if they were making their decision with another human dictator instead of with a computer (p -value from a binomial test 0.0003).

A.10.2. Responsibility for the recipient

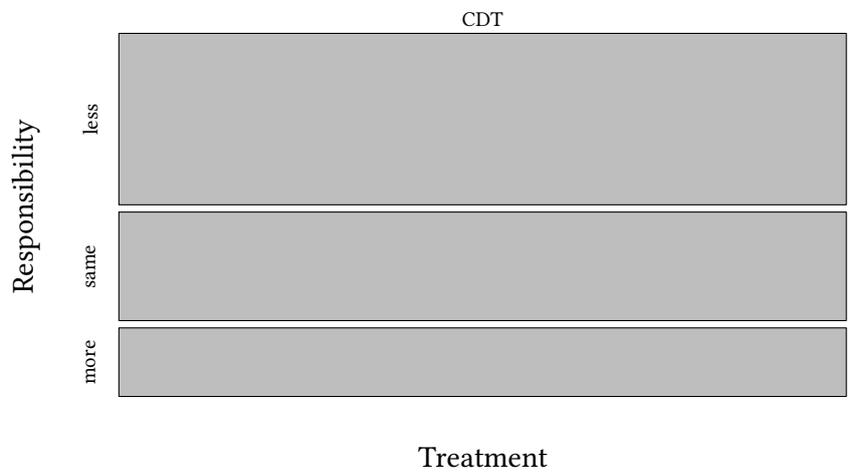
Results for dictators are shown in Figure 20. Dictators in the CDT perceived themselves to be less responsible for the payoff of the recipient once they decide together with a human instead of a computer (p -value from a binomial test 0.0009). Dictators in the MDT did not feel significantly more responsible for the payoff of the recipient once their human counterpart would be replaced with a computer (p -value from a binomial test 0.2005). Dictators in the SDT felt significantly less responsibility for the payoff of the recipient if the decision would be made by a computer and not by themselves in the manipulation check (p -value from a binomial test 0.0000).

Results for recipients are shown in Figure 21. Recipients in the CDT did not expect the dictators, who would have to share their decision with a human instead of a computer, to feel



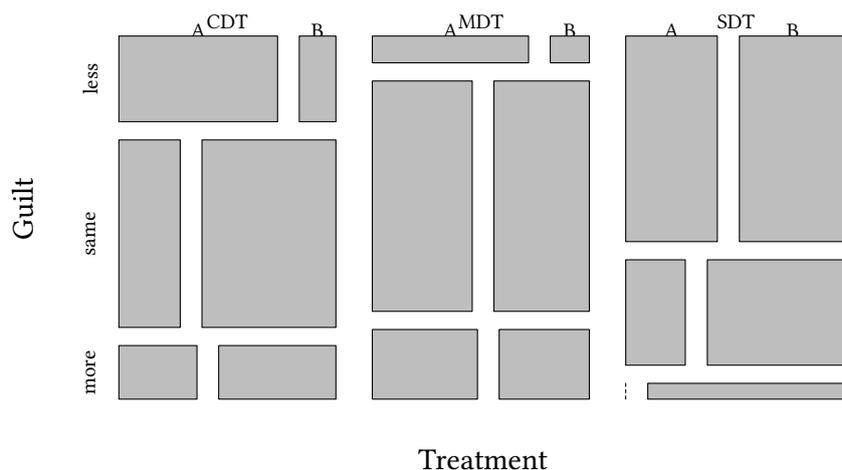
Question 2 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 21: Change in dictators' responsibility for the recipient in the manipulation check by recipients



Question 2 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 22: Change in dictators' responsibility for the recipient in the manipulation check by passive dictators



Question 3 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 23: Change in the dictators' perceived guilt in the manipulation check by dictators

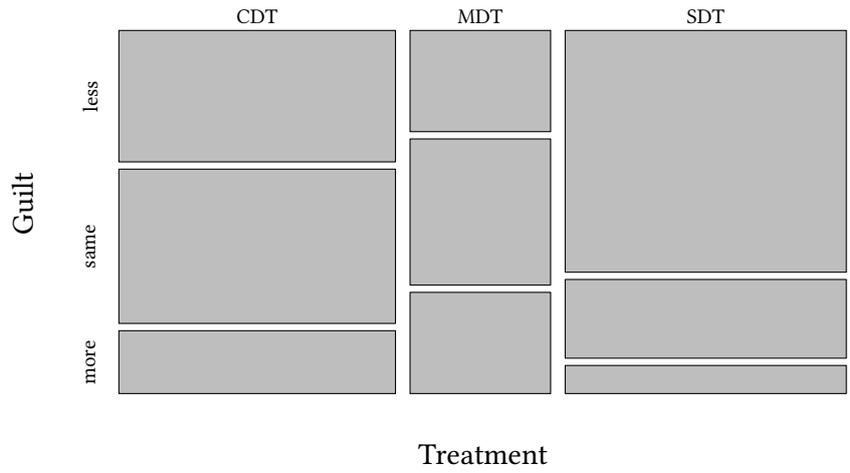
less responsible for the recipients than before (p -value from a binomial test 0.2005). However, recipients in the MDT, expected the dictators, who share their decision with a computer instead of another human, to feel less responsible for the recipients' payoff (p -value from a binomial test 0.0636). Recipients in the SDT expected the dictator to feel significantly less responsibility for the recipients payoff if the decision would be made by a computer (p -value from a binomial test 0.0001).

Results for passive dictators are shown in Figure 22. Passive dictators expected the dictator to feel less responsible for the payoff of the responder, if the dictator would decide together with another human instead of with a computer (p -value from a binomial test 0.0079).

A.10.3. Perceived guilt

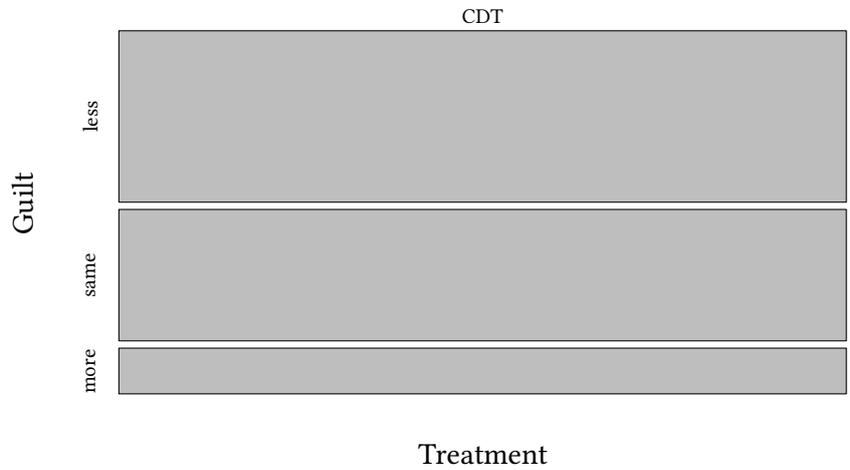
Results for dictators are shown in Figure 23. Dictators in the CDT stated to feel less guilty once they would be able to share the decision with a human instead of a computer. However, the effect is not significant (p -value from a binomial test 0.3269). Dictators in the MDT did not feel significantly more guilty once their human counterpart was hypothetically replaced with a computer (p -value from a binomial test 0.0963). However, dictators in the SDT would feel significantly less guilty when the decision would have been made by a computer (p -value from a binomial test 0.0000).

Results for recipients are shown in Figure 24. Recipients in the CDT expected the dictators to feel less guilty when they are sharing the decision with another human (p -value from a binomial test 0.0576). However, in the MDT the number of recipients expected the dictators to feel more guilty or less guilty when deciding together with a computer instead of with another human was quite evenly distributed (p -value from a binomial test 1.0000). Recipients in the SDT expected the dictators to feel less guilty when the decision is made by a computer



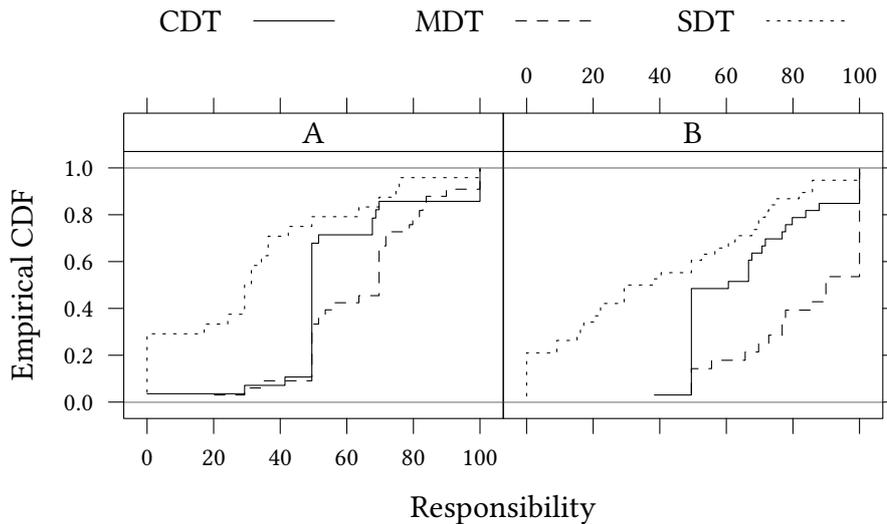
Question 3 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 24: Change in the dictators' perceived guilt in the manipulation check by recipients



Question 3 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 25: Change in the dictators' perceived guilt in the manipulation check by passive dictators



Question 4 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 26: Dictators' personal responsibility in the manipulation check by dictators

and not by the dictator himself/herself (p -value from a binomial test 0.0000).

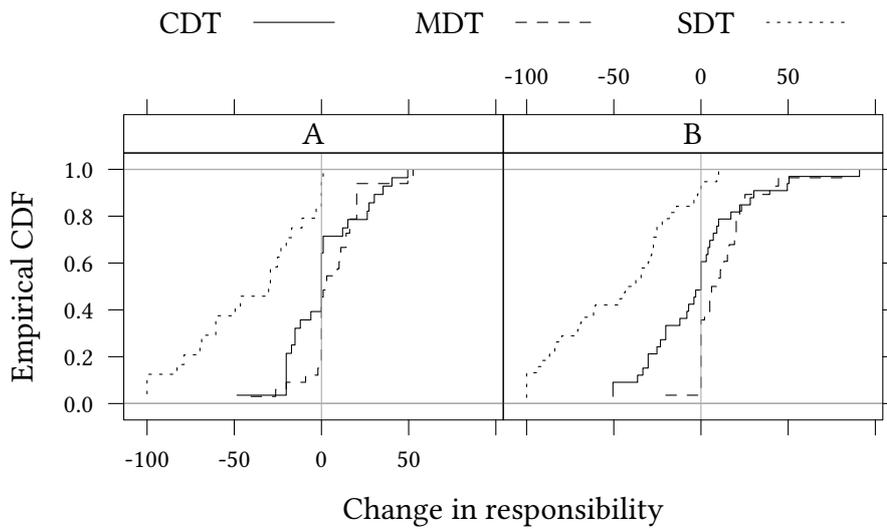
Results for passive dictators are shown in Figure 25. Passive dictators expected that the dictators feel less guilty, if they would have to decide together with another human than when they decide together with a computer (p -value from a binomial test 0.0005).

A.10.4. Dictators perceived personal responsibility and assigned responsibility to a human dictator or a computer

The personal responsibility perceived by the dictators in the manipulation check is shown in Figure 26. As was to be expected, dictators in the SDT claimed to perceive themselves to be not very responsible if they had the decision been made by a computer. Interestingly, dictators in the CDT felt less responsible for the final payoff if they had to decide with another human dictator than dictators in the MDT imagining they had to decide with a computer (p -value 0.0022).

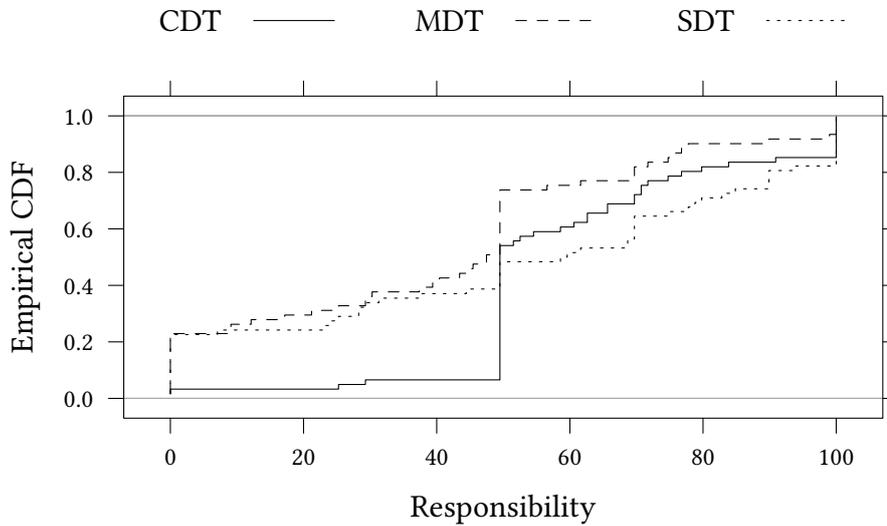
For a comparison of the relative change between the perceived personal responsibility in the hypothetical situation and the perceived personal responsibility in the actual experiment by choice see Figure 27. Dictators in the SDT stated that they would feel less responsible if a computer were to decide on their behalf (p -value 0.0000). Furthermore, the perceived personal responsibility increased for dictators in the MDT when they imagine their counterpart replaced by a computer (p -value 0.0260). However, the perceived personal responsibility did not decrease significantly for dictators in the CDT when their counterpart was hypothetical replaced by a human (p -value 0.8388). As the left part of Figure 27 shows, this was mainly driven by dictators who chose Option B.

The responsibility assigned to the co-dictator by the dictators in the manipulation check is shown in Figure 28. While in the SDT the computer's responsibility was assigned equally,



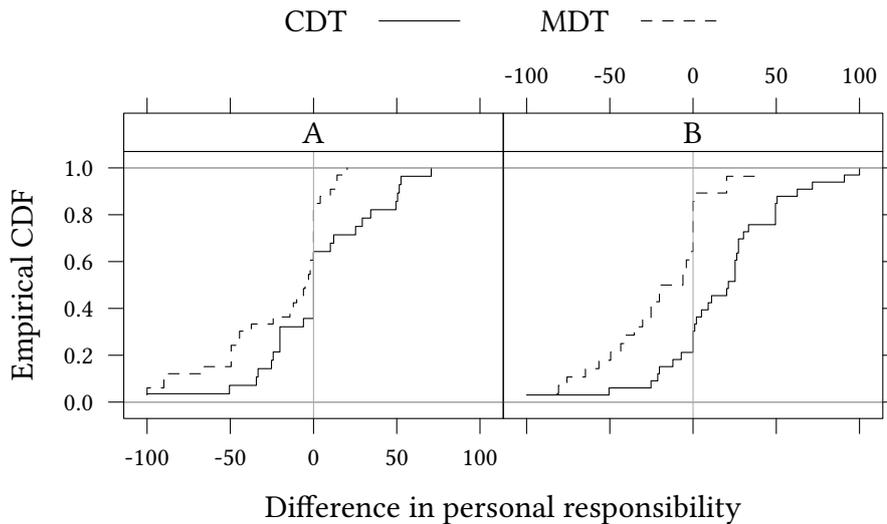
The figure shows the difference between the personal responsibility in the hypothetical situation (described in Appendix A.10) and the actual experiment (as shown in Figure A.1.2).

Figure 27: Dictators' personal responsibility: manipulation check vs. experiment by dictators



Question 4 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 28: Responsibility assigned to the computer or human co-dictator in the manipulation check by dictators



The Figure shows the difference in the personal responsibility assigned by the dictator to the human or computer co-dictator between the hypothetical situation (described in Appendix A.10) and the actual experiment (as shown in Figure A.1.2).

Figure 29: Responsibility assigned to the computer or human co-dictator: manipulation check vs. experiment by dictators

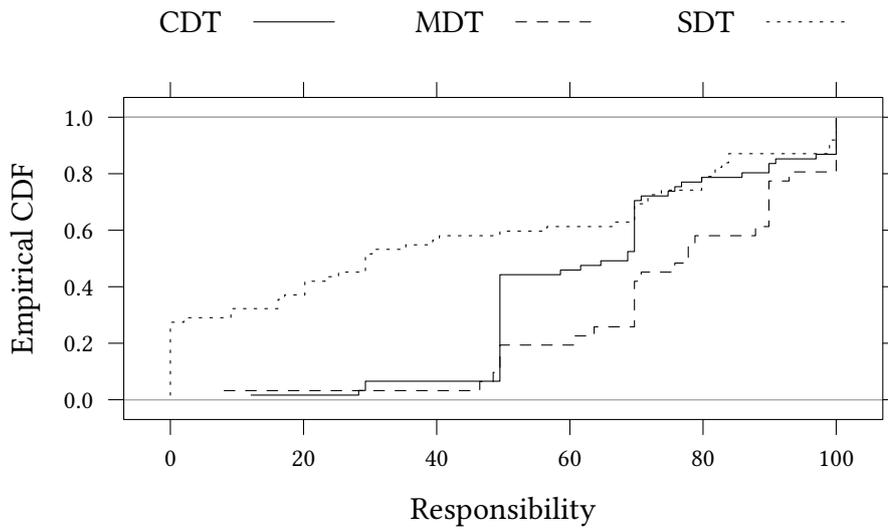
significantly more responsibility was assigned to a hypothetical human dictator in the CDT manipulation check than to a hypothetical computer dictator in the MDT manipulation check (p -value 0.0002).

The increase or decrease in the responsibility assigned to the other dictator between the hypothetical situation and the actual experiment by choice is shown in Figure 29. The responsibility attributed to the co-dictator in the CDT increased significantly once the other player is no longer a computer but a human (p -value 0.0392). Similarly, responsibility decreases significantly in the MDT once the other player is no longer a human but a computer (p -value 0.0000). As the left part of Figure 29 shows, this was even stronger for dictators who chose Option B.

A.10.5. Recipients' and passive dictators' assigned responsibility to a human dictator or a computer

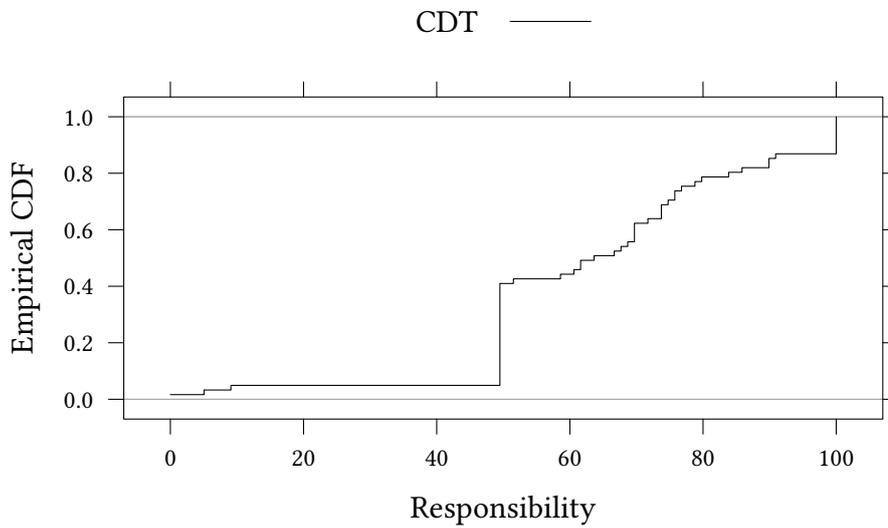
The responsibility of the dictator(s) for the final payoff perceived by recipients in the manipulation check is shown in Figure 30. Recipients in the SDT perceived the dictators to be not very responsible had the decision been made by a computer. Furthermore, recipients in the CDT, where the switch was made from a computer to human co-dictator, perceived the dictators to be less responsible for an unfair outcome than the recipients in the MDT, where the switch was made from a human to computer co-dictator (p -value 0.0298).

The responsibility of the dictator for the final payoff perceived by passive dictators in the manipulation check is shown in Figure 31. Passive dictators perceived the dictators to be also



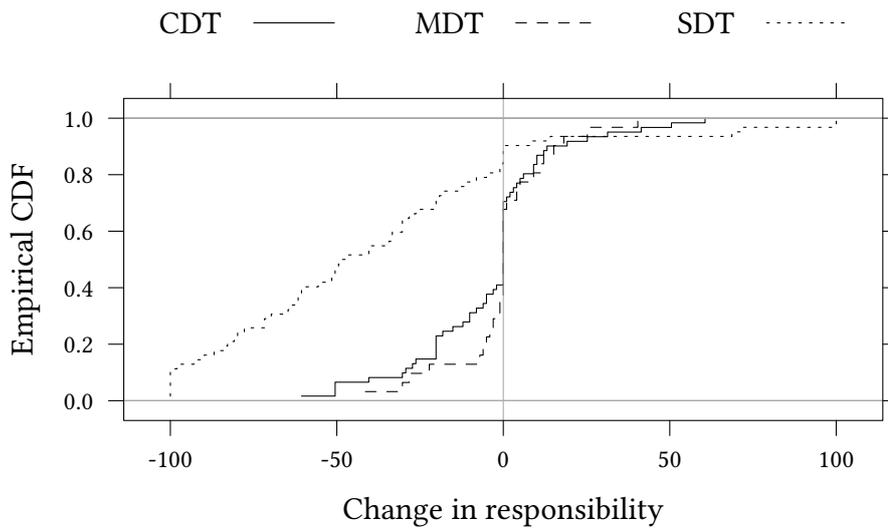
Question 4 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 30: Dictators' personal responsibility in the manipulation check by recipients



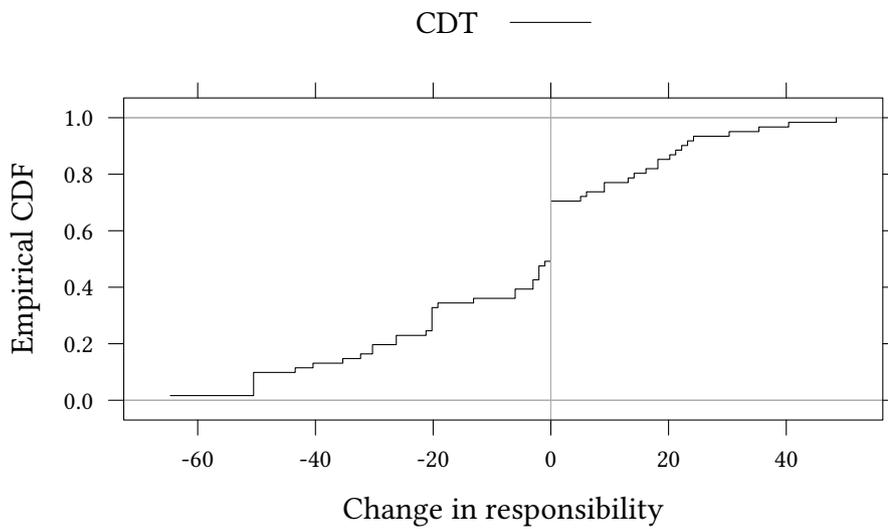
Question 4 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 31: Dictators' personal responsibility in the manipulation check by passive dictators



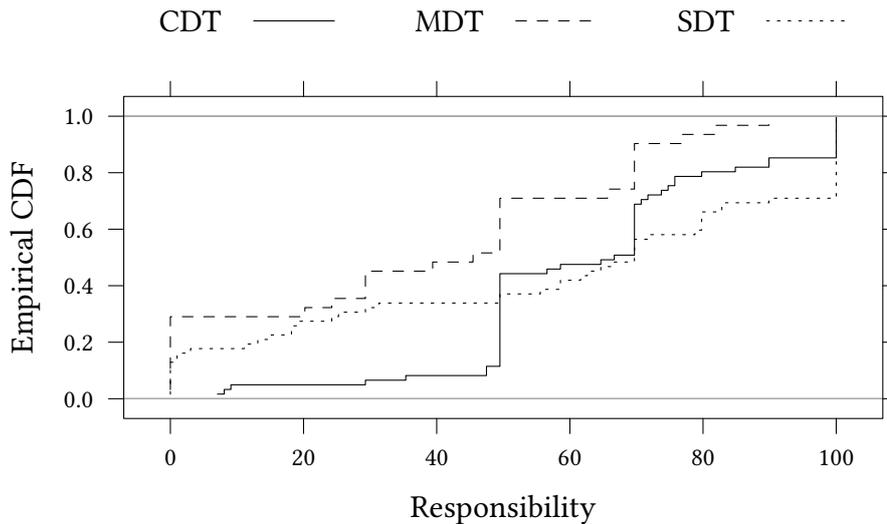
The Figure shows the difference in the personal responsibility that the recipients assign to the dictator(s) for an unfair outcome between the hypothetical situation (described in Appendix A.10) and the actual experiment (as shown in Figure A.1.2).

Figure 32: Dictators' personal responsibility: manipulation check vs. experiment by recipients



The Figure shows the difference in the personal responsibility that the passive dictator expect the dictator to perceive for the decision between the hypothetical situation (described in Appendix A.10) and the actual experiment (as shown in Figure A.1.2).

Figure 33: Dictators' personal responsibility: manipulation check vs. experiment by passive dictators



Question 4 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 34: Responsibility assigned to the computer or human co-dictator in the manipulation check by recipients

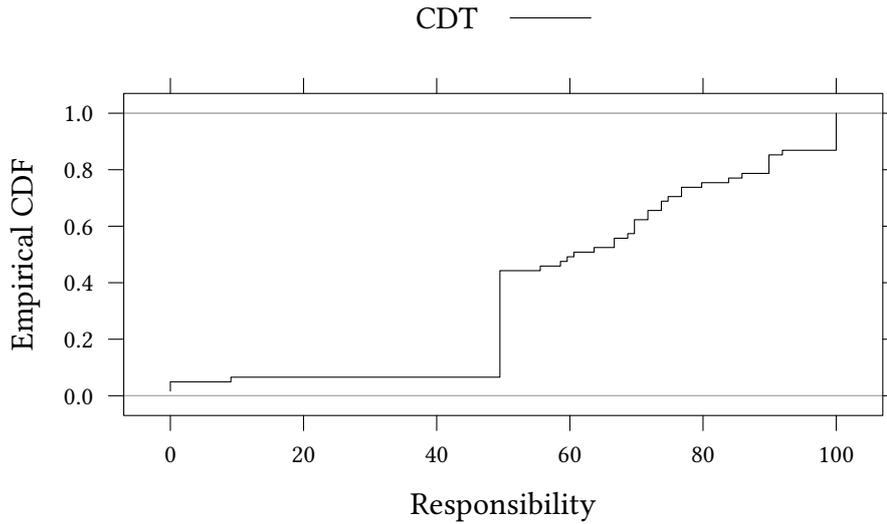
quite responsible when deciding together with another human.

For a comparison of the relative changes in the recipients' perception of the responsibility of the dictator(s) for an unfair outcome in the hypothetical situation and in the actual experiment see Figure 32. Recipients in the SDT assigned less responsibility for an unfair outcome to the dictator when a computer were to decide on her behalf (p -value 0.0000). However, recipients did not perceive the dictators to be significantly more responsible for an unfair outcome in the MDT when their counterpart was hypothetically replaced by a computer (p -value 0.9590). The same applies for the CDT, recipients did also not perceive the dictators to feel less responsible for an unfair outcome if the computer would be replaced by a human dictator (p -value 0.3054).

For a comparison of the relative changes between the perceived responsibility of the dictator(s) for the outcome in the hypothetical situation and in the actual experiment by passive dictators see Figure 33. A large but not significant proportion of the passive dictators perceived the dictator to be less responsible if their counterpart is a human instead of a computer (p -value 0.1382).

The responsibility assigned by the recipients in the manipulation check to the either human or computer co-dictator is shown in Figure 34. A computer that decides which option will be implemented on its own, as in the SDT, is perceived as significantly more responsible as a computer, that determined the final outcome together with a human dictator, as in the MDT, by the recipients (p -value 0.0031). In addition, the human dictator in the CDT was also perceived as more responsible for an unfair outcome than the computer in the MDT (p -value 0.0001).

The responsibility assigned by the passive dictators in the manipulation check to the ei-



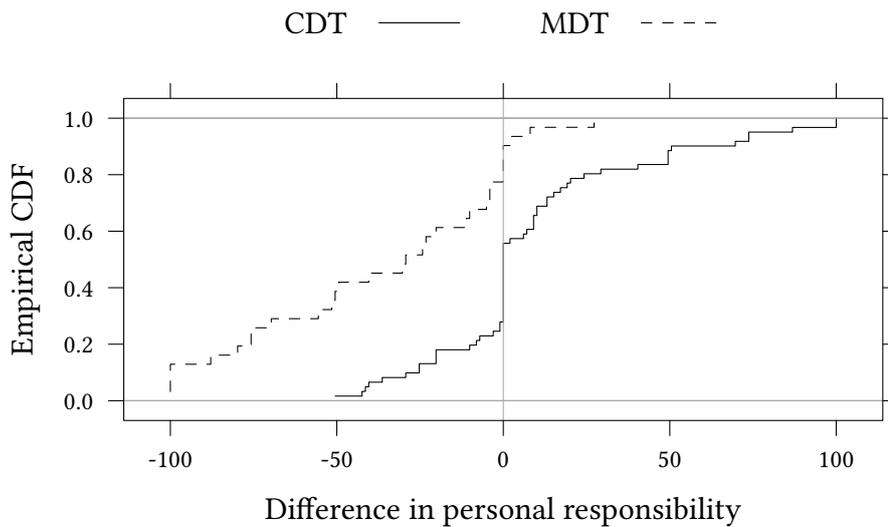
Question 4 from Appendix A.10.

Figure 35: Responsibility assigned to the human co-dictator in the manipulation check by passive dictators

ther human or computer co-dictator is shown in Figure 35. Passive dictators perceived both human dictators to be responsible to the same extent for the final outcome (p -value 0.8159).

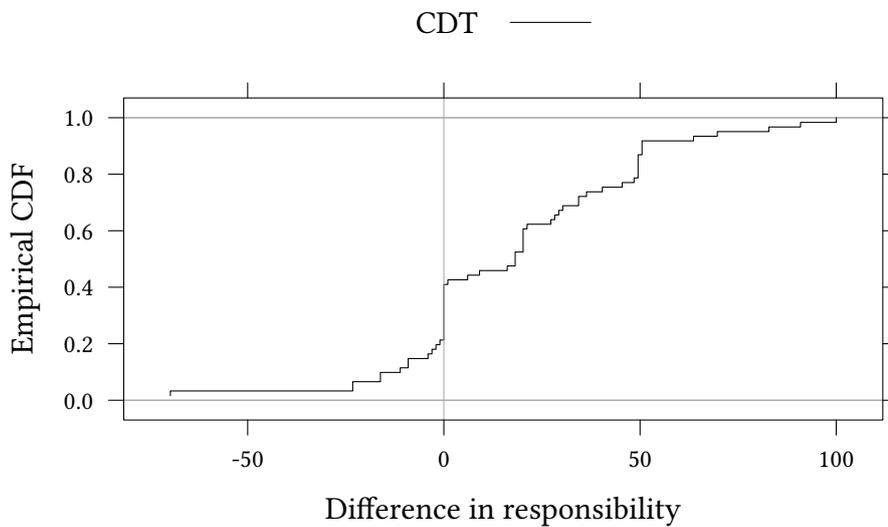
For a comparison of the relative change in the recipients' perception of the responsibility of the co-dictator(s) for an unfair outcome in the hypothetical situation and the actual experiment see Figure 36. Recipients in the MDT assigned significantly less responsibility for an unfair outcome to the computer in the manipulation check than they assigned to the human dictator in the actual experiment (p -value 0.0000). Correspondingly, recipients in the CDT assigned significantly more responsibility to the human dictator for an unfair outcome in the manipulation check than they assigned to the computer in the actual experiment (p -value 0.0483).

For a comparison of the relative changes in the passive dictators' responsibility assigned to the human dictator(s) in the hypothetical situation and the computer in the actual experiment see Figure 37. Passive dictators perceived a hypothetical human dictator in the manipulation check to be significantly more responsible for the final outcome than the computer in the actual experiment (p -value 0.0003).



The Figure shows the difference in the personal responsibility assigned by the recipients to the computer or human dictator for an unfair outcome between the hypothetical situation (described in Appendix A.10) and the actual experiment (as shown in Figure A.1.2).

Figure 36: Responsibility assigned to the computer or human co-dictator: manipulation check vs. experiment by responders



The Figure shows the difference in the personal responsibility assigned by the passive dictator to the human dictator between the hypothetical situation (described in Appendix A.10) and the actual experiment (as shown in Figure A.1.2).

Figure 37: Responsibility assigned to the computer or human co-dictator: manipulation check vs. experiment by passive dictators