

Lecture 2: Preferences

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Individual Preferences

Why Should We Care about Different Preferences?

- ▶ Many key ideas we learn in economics are discussed in the context of (i) expected utility preferences, (ii) defined over consumption, (iii) that are time separable.
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- ▶ Relaxing any one of these assumptions can substantially alter key conclusions (we thought were very general).
- ▶ Three examples:
 - Tests of complete markets/perfect “consumption” insurance
 - Is the “Permanent Income Hypothesis” same as “consumption smoothing”?
 - Is precautionary savings driven by risk aversion?

Example 1: Tests of Perfect Insurance, Test 1

- ▶ Complete markets → Marginal utility growth is equated across individuals (X: leisure, demographics, etc):

$$\beta^i \frac{U_c^i(C_{t+1}^i, X_{t+1}^i)}{U_c^i(C_t^i, X_t^i)} = \beta^j \frac{U_c^j(C_{t+1}^j, X_{t+1}^j)}{U_c^j(C_t^j, X_t^j)} = \lambda_{t+1}.$$

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- ▶ **Utility** is unobserved, so we have to add assumptions (i) $U^i = U^j$ for all i, j ; (ii) U separable in C & X , and (iii) U is CRRA → consumption growth is equated across individuals:

$$\left(\frac{C_{t+1}^i}{C_t^i} \right)^{-\alpha} = \left(\frac{C_{t+1}^j}{C_t^j} \right)^{-\alpha} \rightarrow \Delta \log(C_{t+1}^i) = \Delta \log(C_{t+1}^j) = -\Delta \log(\lambda_{t+1}) / \alpha \quad (1)$$

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- ▶ **Test 1: Regressing individual consumption growth** using panel data on time effect (aggregate shock) & any idiosyncratic variable (wage growth, health shocks, etc, etc.) should yield a **zero coefficient** on the latter.
 - E.g., Cochrane (1991): rejects full insurance.

Example 1: Tests of Perfect Insurance, Test 2

- ▶ Test 2: Plot consumption growth of group g (e.g., college grads) vs their wage growth: $\log(\bar{C}_{t+k}^g) - \log(\bar{C}_t^g)$ vs $\log(\bar{W}_{t+k}^g) - \log(\bar{W}_t^g)$ for any $k > 0$.
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Figure 1: Attanasio and Davis (1996)

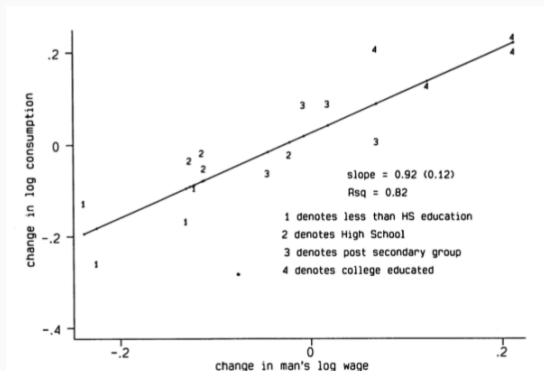


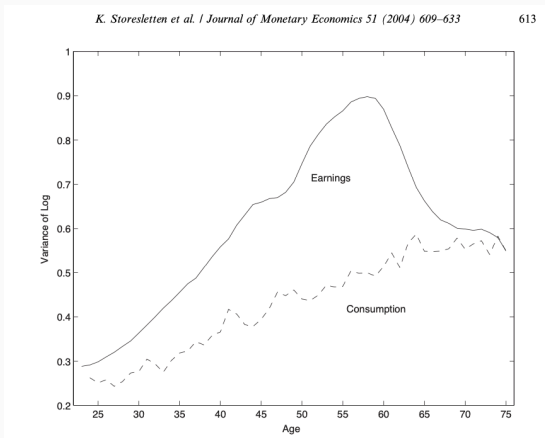
FIG. 2.—Household consumption vs. man's wage, 1980–90 log change residuals. Groups are defined by four-way education crossed with 5-year birth cohorts. Plotted values are residuals from regressions on a cubic in age.

Example 1: Tests of Perfect Insurance, Test 3

- ▶ Test 3: Within-Cohort consumption inequality *should not rise* with age even if income inequality rises (Deaton and Paxson (1994)).

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- ▶ Altug and Miller (1990) & Hayashi et al. (1996): **Model nonseparabilities** through Beckerian household utility function—non-separable in spouses' leisure time, # of children, home production, etc.
 - (Hayashi et al. (1996) still rejects full insurance so evidence against it is very strong.)

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 - (Hayashi et al. (1996) still rejects full insurance so evidence against it is very strong.)
- ▶ Similarly, if **utility is non-homothetic**, eq (1) won't hold under perfect insurance. Ogaki and Zhang (ECMA 2001) cannot reject risk sharing in India and Pakistan under this assumption.

Example 2: Permanent Income Hypothesis

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 - 1 In some specifications below, such as habit formation, PIH will imply **smoothing** not the level but the **growth rate of consumption**.
 - 2 When **consumption and leisure are non-separable**:
 - Consumption may grow over the life cycle even without any borrowing constraints or incomplete markets.
 - Consumption *expenditures* may fall at retirement fully rationally (recall Aguiar and Hurst (JPE 2005) paper “Consumption vs Expenditures” discussed in Lecture 1).

Taking Stock

- ▶ Trade-off between the **number or stringency of assumptions** we impose and the **sharpness of predictions** we get.
- ▶ True in both theoretical and empirical analysis—as the two examples here show.
- ▶ Therefore, it's crucial to know what assumptions a conclusion relies on.

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- ▶ Therefore, it's crucial to know what assumptions a conclusion relies on.
- ▶ Anytime you see an empirical “fact,” you should ask **what assumptions were made** to obtain it.
- ▶ **Subtle implicit assumptions** often outnumber explicit ones.
- ▶ Choice of preferences is a key assumption, which is the topic for today.

Preference Specifications

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- 2 For any $\theta > 0$ we can write a utility function as:

$$u = F(v(x_1, x_2)) \quad \text{and} \quad v(\theta x_1, \theta x_2) = \theta v(x_1, x_2),$$

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- 4 Engel curves are linear and go through the origin, so that when a consumer's income doubles, her consumption of all goods doubles.

Individual Preferences over (c, ℓ) : Basics

1 Separable power utility (POW):

$$U(c, \ell) = \frac{c^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} + \psi \times \frac{\ell^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma} \quad \text{or} \quad U = \frac{c^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} - \phi \times \frac{(1-\ell)^{1+\eta}}{1+\eta} \quad (2)$$

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3 Greenwood-Hercowitz-Huffman (GHH) preferences:

$$U(c, \ell) = \left(\frac{c - \psi(1-\ell)^{1+\gamma}}{1+\gamma} \right)^{1-\sigma}. \quad (4)$$

No wealth/income effect: labor supply depends on wages only, which makes it tractable and convenient in certain applications (e.g., aggregation).

Reference- or Benchmark-Dependent Preferences

I. Simplest Form: Stone-Geary Utility

- ▶ Stone-Geary utility captures the idea of “subsistence-level” consumption, \underline{c} , below which an individual cannot survive.
- ▶ A common specification would be a simple modification to CRRA utility:

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- ▶ In development econ., \underline{c} is thought of as the **minimum calorie intake** for someone to survive.
- ▶ It is natural to view \underline{c} to be a constant level. Therefore, in a growing economy, **as the level of c_t rises, \underline{c} becomes negligible**, and preferences approximate CRRA.
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 - So you can create preference heterogeneity with income level differences alone.
- ▶ Note that Stone-Geary utility **is not homothetic**.

II. Habit Formation (aka **Endogenous Habit**)

- ▶ Plausible idea: **Utility from consumption** (or leisure) may depend on how it compares to past consumption or to our “**habit stock**”.
- ▶ Sounds simple but it has profound implications.

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- ▶ A more general specification:

$$U = \frac{(c_t - \theta x_{t-1})^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma}, \quad \text{where } x_t = \phi x_{t-1} + (1 - \phi)c_t. \quad (6)$$

- ▶ When $\phi = 0$, (6) reduces to (5). When $\phi > 0$, habit stock is geometrically discounted average of past consumption:

$$x_t = (1 - \phi) \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \phi^s c_{t-s}.$$

III. “Catching-up/Keeping-up with Joneses” (External Habit)

- ▶ Another plausible idea: Utility from consumption depends on consumption of peer group. Very old idea in economics (Veblen 1899, Duesenberry 1949).
- ▶ A simple but common specification ($\theta \in (0, 1)$) :

$$\text{Catching up: } \mathcal{U}^i = \frac{(c_t^i - \theta \bar{c}_{t-1})^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma}, \text{ or Keeping up: } \mathcal{U}^i = \frac{(c_t^i - \theta \bar{c}_t)^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma} \quad (7)$$

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 - 1 Simplifies dynamic problem: utility is time-separable & today's choices don't affect future utility (as individual perceives it).
 - 2 Benchmarking creates an externality effect → individual consumption choice is typically not socially optimal
 - Ljungqvist & Uhlig (AER, 2000): Income tax socially desirable & can recover Pareto optimality! Everyone better off when everyone works/consumes less!

A More General “External” Habit Specification

- ▶ Campbell and Cochrane (JPE, 1999): Almost 6000 google cites.
- ▶ Surplus consumption ratio: $S_t^a \equiv (C_t^a - X_t)/C_t^a$. Small letters logs:

$$s_{t+1}^a = (1 - \phi)s + \phi s_t^a + \lambda(s_t^a)(c_{t+1}^a - c_t^a - g),$$

$$\lambda(s^a) = \begin{cases} (1/\bar{S})\sqrt{1 - 2(s^a - \bar{S})} - 1 & \text{if } s^a \leq s_{max} \\ 0 & \text{if } s^a \geq s_{max} \end{cases}$$

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- ▶ They reverse engineer $\lambda(s^a)$ function & can match equity premium & solve other asset pricing puzzles.
- ▶ However, it also leads to some strange behavior:
 - C-C: C & X move in same direction. More cons. always social. desirable.
 - Ljungqvist & Uhlig (2015, JPE): Not robust to discrete deviations → Occasionally destroying part of endowment can lead to large welfare improvements.
 - Also, RRA in C-C is 80 on average & as high as 300 in recessions.

Combining External and Endogenous Habit

- ▶ Abel (1990):

$$x_t \equiv \left[c_{t-1}^D \bar{c}_{t-1}^{(1-D)} \right]^\alpha$$

where $\alpha \geq 0$ and $D \geq 0$, and

$$u = \frac{(c_t/x_t)^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma}.$$

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- ▶ Unlike “difference” formulations, this one **preserves homotheticity**. Not as popular as formulations above.
- ▶ Also used in Chan and Kogan (2002) with $D = 0$.

Habit in Heterogeneous-Agent Models

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- ▶ This can also happen in rep. agent models but is much more severe in heterog. agent for two reasons. Individual consumption is much more
 - **volatile than aggregate** so $c_t < \theta c_{t-1}$ is much more likely.
 - **dispersed cross-sectionally**, so $c_t < \theta \bar{C}_t$ is much more likely.
- ▶ To avoid this, $\theta \ll 1$, which then weakens the effect of habit.

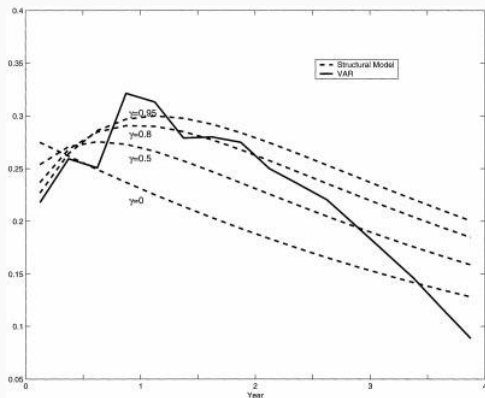
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 - **dispersed cross-sectionally**, so $c_t < \theta \bar{c}_t$ is much more likely.
- ▶ To avoid this, $\theta \ll 1$, which then weakens the effect of habit.
- ▶ This **does not happen with Abel’s formulation** because utility is well defined even when $c_t < x_t$, which is why it’s more commonly used in het. agent models.
- ▶ e.g., Chan and Kogan (2002) & Pijoan-Mas, Diaz, Rios-Rull (2001), etc.

Applications of Habit Preferences: In Macro

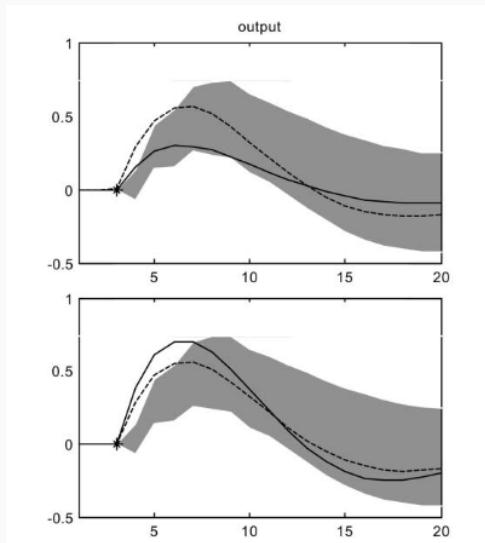
- ▶ **Key fact about business cycles:** real GDP, consumption, and many other real variables respond to “shocks” with a delay.
- ▶ In other words, their **impulse responses** (to inflation, monetary, etc. shocks) are “hump-shaped”.
 - Delay is not small: Peak of hump happens between 12 to 18 months.
- ▶ RBC models fail to match this pattern: responses to most shocks are **almost instantaneous**.
- ▶ Enter habit formation: raising consumption suddenly, raises habit stock too much and lowers future utility. So consumption rises slowly instead. **Generates the hump-shaped response.**

Figure 2: Impulse Response of C to Y



- ▶ Solid line: Data impulse response from a VAR.
- ▶ Fuhrer's habit formulation is same as Abel (199)'s, with $D = 1$ (endog. habit) and γ in this figure is Abel's α .
- ▶ So, as habit is raised, consumption response is delayed and becomes hump-shaped for $\alpha > 0.5$ or so.

Figure 3: Impulse Response of GDP to money



- ▶ Very influential paper in monetary economics, combining RBC & NK models.
- ▶ Solid line: Model impulse responses. Each panel is a different model specification. (Ignore dashed lines).
- ▶ CEE's formulation is the simple one in (5) shown above with $\gamma = 1$ (log utility) and $\theta = 0.65$.
- ▶ Same as Fuhrer: You can match the hump-shape in the data with habit formation.

Applications of Habit Preferences: In Finance

- ▶ Endogenous/External habit have also been very popular in the asset pricing literature.
- ▶ Asset pricing is full of interesting puzzles that defied explanations for a long time:
 - the high equity premium, which is highly volatile, countercyclical, with countercyclical volatility, and Sharpe ratio; predictability of future returns, etc.
- ▶ Now there are many papers that can explain these puzzles.
- ▶ One strand of literature used endogenous or external habit to explain them: Constantinides (1990), Abel (1990), Jermann (1998), Campbell and Cochrane (1999), Boldrin et al. (2001), Chan and Kogan (2002).

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- ▶ Habit models are both very popular but also quite polarizing.
- ▶ **On the plus:** very powerful modeling tool that can bring models closer to data in important dimensions.
- ▶ **On the minus:**
 - Researchers are wary of explaining hard problems relying just on preferences—since they are unobserved.
 - Especially true for Campbell-Cochrane—recall the discussion above.
 - Strength of habit needed (high θ) lacks empirical support (e.g., De Giorgio, et al (2020) mentioned on next slide).
 - Part of the hesitation due to unusual or undesirable properties mentioned above.

- ▶ An alternative view: Maybe habit is a reduced form for something deeper?
 - Szeidl and Chetty (JPE and ECMA): Consumption commitments, reinterpreting habit formation but different implications.
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- ▶ Other recent work:
 - Christiano, Eichenbaum, and Evans (JPE, 2005): “Nominal Rigidities and the Dynamic Effects of a Shock to Monetary Policy”
 - De Giorgio, Frederiksen, and Pistaferri (RESTUD, 2020): “Consumption Network Effects”.
 - Agarwal, Mikhed, Scholnick (RFS, 2020): “Peers’ Income and Financial Distress: Evidence from Lottery Winners and Neighboring Bankruptcies”
 - Coibion, Gorodnichenko, Kudlyak, and Mondragon (2014): Banks may be unwilling to lend to poor households in high inequality neighborhoods, concerned about catching-up with Joneses effects.

Key Preference Parameters

I. Back to Risk Aversion:

What Value to Choose?

Empirical Evidence on Risk Aversion

- ▶ Empirical evidence regarding risk aversion is not settled.
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 - For example, if a person turns down a bet that offers a 50-50 chance of losing \$1000 and gaining \$1050, she will also turn down a bet that offers a 50-50 chance of losing \$20,000 and gaining *any sum* of money!
- ▶ Thus **expected utility** has difficulty delivering risk aversion behavior **consistent with both small and large bets.**

Risk Premia and Frequency of Fluctuations

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Risk Premia and Frequency of Fluctuations

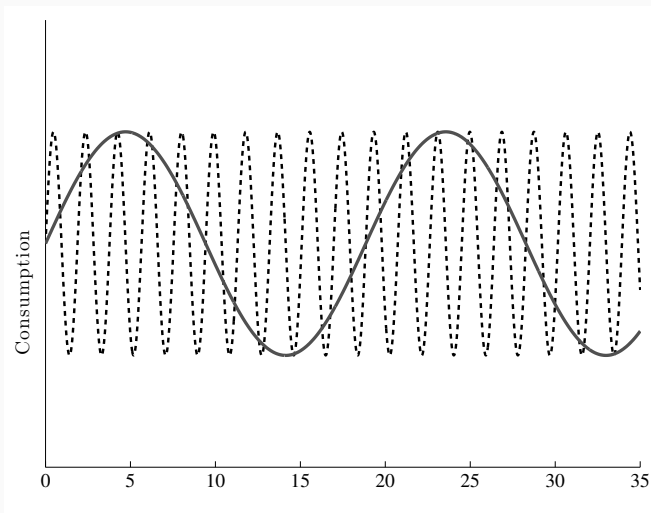
- ▶ A very general question in economics is concerned with understanding risk premia of various kinds.
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 - Granger (1966) surveys this early literature and Stock et al (1999) contains an updated review.
 - Fama and French (1989) termed “business conditions” to refer to these latter to distinguish from business cycles.
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- ▶ With CRRA preferences, frequency of fluctuations doesn't matter for risk premium (putting aside time discounting)

Amplitude vs. Frequency of Fluctuations

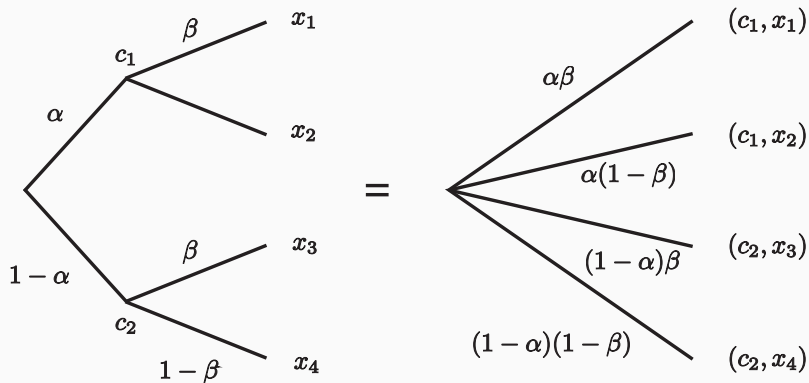
Figure 4: Frequency of Fluctuations Matters with Time Non-Separable Preferences



Epstein-Zin (Recursive) Utility

Key Assumption Behind Expected Utility

Figure 5: Reduction of Compound Lotteries



Epstein-Zin Utility

- ▶ Kreps and Porteus (1978) and Epstein and Zin (1989) show that relaxing the “reduction of compound lotteries” assumption delivers a more general preference specification.
- ▶ Epstein-Zin use a CES aggregator between current and future utility:

$$v_t = \left[(1 - \beta)c_t^\rho + \beta \mathbb{E}_t(v_{t+1})^{\rho/(1-\gamma)} \right]^{(1-\gamma)/\rho}. \quad (8)$$

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- ▶ Epstein, Farhi, and Straluczski (AER 2014): “How Much Would You Pay to Resolve Long-Run Risk?” **Turns out a lot: 20%-40%** of C.

Brief Digression: Computational Trick to Reduce $V''(w)$

- ▶ Samuelson (1969) showed that in a standard portfolio choice problem with CRRA preferences and a linear budget set, the value function inherits the curvature of U :

$$U(c_0, c_1, \dots) = \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \beta^t \frac{c_t^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma} \Rightarrow V(\omega, A) = \phi(A) \times \omega^{1-\gamma}$$

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- ▶ This high curvature creates a lot of headache when you try to interpolate the value function.
- ▶ The CES formulation as in Epstein-Zin provides a way out.

A Trick to Reduce the Curvature of $V(w)$

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- ▶ Now the value function is linear: $V(\omega, A) = \phi(A) \times \omega$
- ▶ Although incomplete markets introduces some curvature, this value function is much easier to interpolate than the one above.
- ▶ In fact, I once solved a GE model with asset pricing and a risk aversion of 4 using only 30 points in the wealth grid and linear interpolation.

Curvature of Value Function (Guvenen (ECMA, 2009))

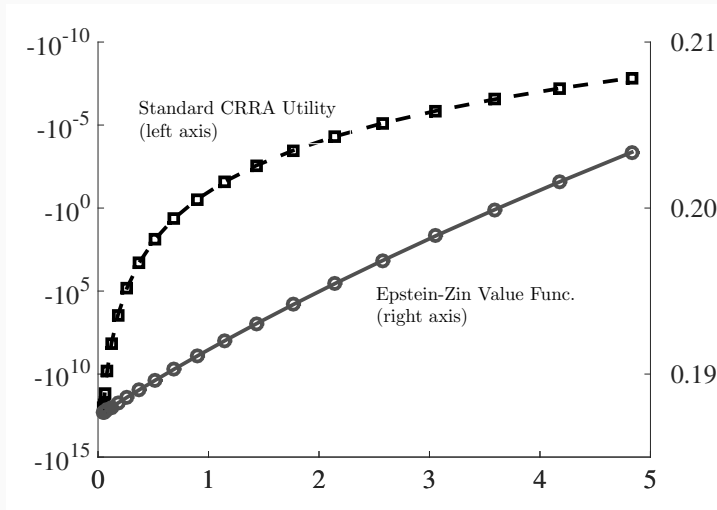


Figure 6: Which Function Would You Rather Interpolate?

II. Elasticity of Intertemporal Substitution

Elasticity of Intertemporal Substitution

- ▶ Macroeconomists traditionally used a value of EIS close to 1. Although, this was partly to generate balanced growth (log utility), there is more direct reasoning that also supported this value.
- ▶ Rearrange the consumption Euler equation under certainty:

$$R_t^f = \eta + \left(\frac{1}{\text{EIS}} \right) \times \log \left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t} \right), \quad (9)$$

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- ▶ This is Weil (1989)'s risk-free rate puzzle. Alternatively, assuming $R^f = 3\%$ and $\Delta \log C = 2\%$ requires EIS to be at least 0.66 for any $\beta < 1$.

Elasticity of Intertemporal Substitution

- ▶ Making a similar observation, Lucas (1990) ruled out an elasticity below 0.5 as implausible (in his notation $\sigma \equiv 1/EIS$) :

If two countries have consumption growth rates differing by one percentage point, their interest rates must differ by σ percentage points (assuming similar time discount rates). A value of σ as high as 4 would thus produce cross-country interest differentials much higher than anything we observe, and from this viewpoint even $\sigma = 2$ seems high.

Econometric Evidence from Aggregate Consumption

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- ▶ Kimball and Basu (2003): non-separability between **consumption** & **leisure** could create a similar downward bias. Both papers obtained estimates of EIS around 0.35.

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- ▶ Empirical papers that study individual- and household-level consumption behavior found supporting evidence (Blundell et al (1994), Attanasio and Browning (1995)).
- ▶ Other papers focus *directly* on stockholders & non-stockholders (rich/poor): Attanasio et al (2002) obtain EIS around 1 for stockholders & 0.1–0.2 for non-stockholders using UK data. Vissing-Jorgensen (2002) obtains similar estimates from U.S. CEX data.

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- ▶ With such heterogeneity, properties of aggregates directly linked to wealth (e.g., investment & output) are mainly determined by wealthy (and high-EIS) stockholders.
- ▶ Since consumption is much more evenly distributed, estimation from aggregate consumption uncovers the low EIS of majority (i.e., the poor).

Recent Estimates

- ▶ Some researchers estimated EIS values from aggregate data that are as high as 2 (Mulligan (2004), Gruber (2007)).
- ▶ Also, a famous paper by Bansal and Yaron (2004) finds that if $EIS \approx 2$, a model with Epstein-Zin utility and other features can explain asset pricing puzzles.
- ▶ These made high EIS values more commonly used. So you will see calibrations with $EIS > 1.5$.
- ▶ Not clear to me how such large values can be reconciled with macro evidence mentioned above in the Lucas quote.
- ▶ Similarly, if EIS is two, ΔC should fluctuate twice as much as R^f , which is inconsistent with US data. For these reasons, my preferred value of EIS is close to 1.0 for rich and a lower value for the majority of households.

Labor Supply Elasticity

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- ▶ Labor supply elasticity may be the most important of the three “parameters” in macro.
- ▶ One way to think about it is that the labor share of GDP is about two-thirds, so changes in labor supply matter significantly for many macro questions, from income taxation, to business cycle fluctuations, to response to changes in wage inequality, among others.
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- ▶ Except that there is not only one notion: Frisch, Hicksian, Marshallian.
- ▶ Frisch elasticity is the **compensated elasticity** in response to a wage change. Compensated: a change in a worker’s wage that does not affect his/her lifetime marginal utility of wealth.
- ▶ How is this possible? One possibility is that the wage change is transitory, so its effect is small relative to the length of the life time.

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- ▶ Micro/empirical work on the Frisch is concerned with the *intensive margin*. They estimate Frisch elasticity values ranging from zero and 0.5.
- ▶ READ surveys by **Browning-Hansen-Heckman (1999)** and **Blundell-MaCurdy (2000)** for authoritative treatments of labor elasticities.

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- ▶ Therefore, the focus of macroeconomists on the extensive margin is justified.
- ▶ Labor supply facts from aggregate data suggest a much higher Frisch, when the economy is viewed through a RA model, which led RBC folks to use values as high as 2 or 3. See Prescott (2004) and others.

Aggregation: A Reconciliation?

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- ▶ To sum up, accounting for individual heterogeneity & aggregation brings micro and macro values closer—even if it does not close the gap completely.

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