



Why the Inflation Expectations of the HtM?

Aim: Answer 2 questions

- How do inflation expectations **differ** between HtM and non-HtM ?
- How does this difference **affect** the transmission of policy ?

Why?

- Inflation expectations matter for the **consumption/saving decision** and for the **effectiveness of monetary policy**.  
→ Which expectations matter? HtM or non-HtM?  
[Angeletos and Lian, 2018, Coibion et al., 2020]
- HtM matter for the **transmission of policy** through GE effects.  
→ Do inflation expectations affect the importance of this channel?  
[Kaplan et al., 2018, Auclert et al., 2020, Bilbiie, 2020]
- Evidence of **underreaction** to inflation news.  
→ Does it differ between HtM and non-HtM? What does it imply?  
[Coibion and Gorodnichenko, 2015, D'Acunto et al., 2022]

The Data

- Microdata from **Survey of Consumer Expectations** (SCE) of the NY Fed
- Identify Hand-to-Mouth** households with the question:

*What do you think is the percent chance that you could come up with \$2,000 if an unexpected need arose within the next month?*

- Yielding that  $\approx 40\%$  **of households are HtM** , half of which are **wealthy** HtM.  
→ In line with Kaplan & Violante 2014.

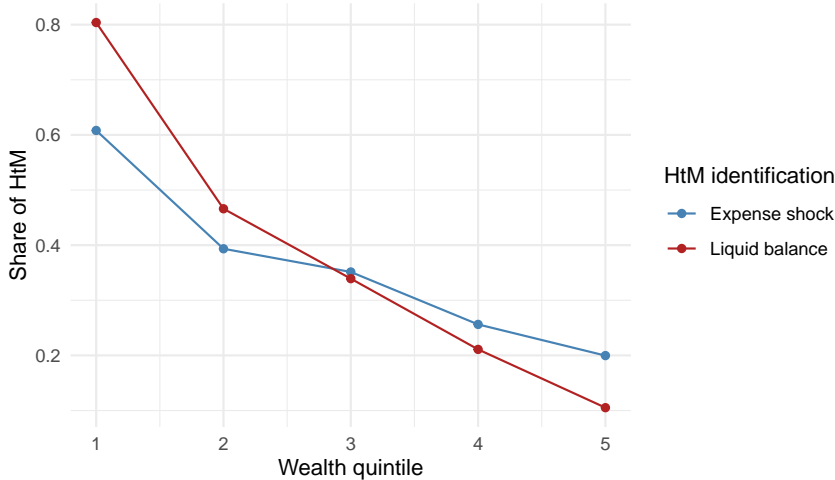


Figure 1. HtM identification in the SCE

Four Facts about HtM Inflation Expectations

The inflation expectations of HtM households:

- Have a **higher forecast error** compared to those of non-HtM.  
→ 100 bp higher during low inflation, 250 bp higher during inflation surge.
- Have a **higher absolute forecast error** compared to those of non-HtM.  
→ 100 bp higher during low inflation, 200 bp higher during inflation surge.
- Are **more volatile** compared to those of non-HtM.  
→ Variance of the time series for HtM is more than 3 times higher.
- Are **more dispersed in the cross-section** compared to those of non-HtM.  
→ RMS deviation from the group mean is 25% higher for HtM.

The Forecast Error of Inflation Expectations

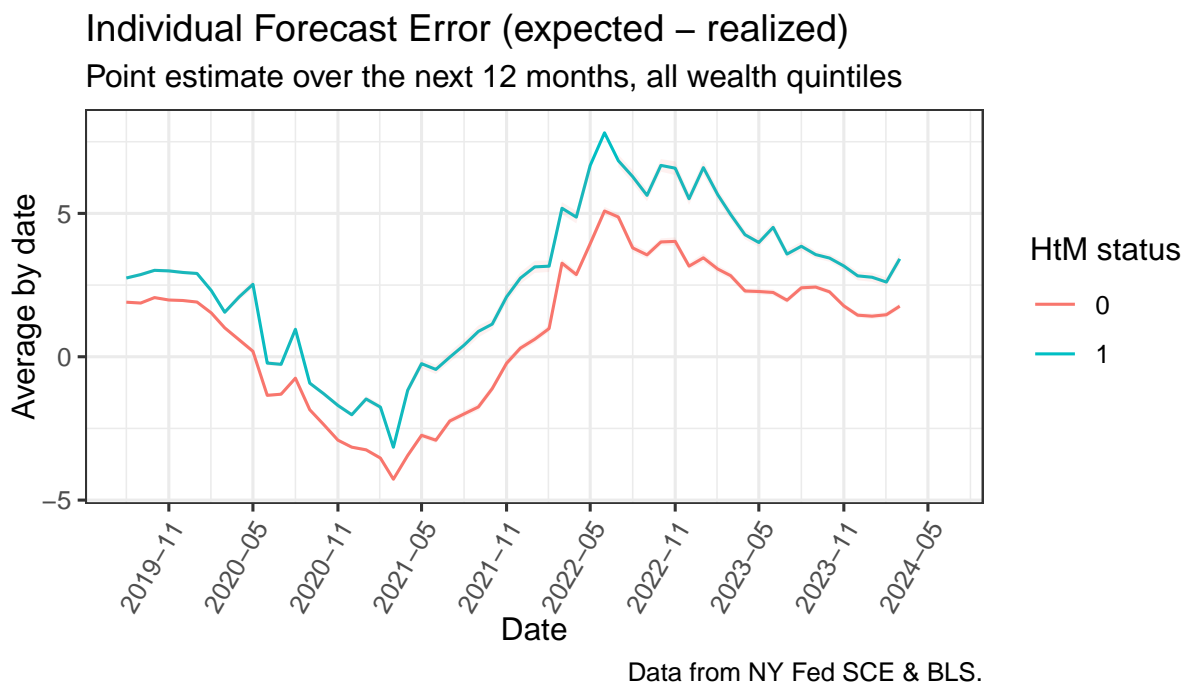


Figure 2. Forecast Error during the inflation surge

A Model of Inflation Expectations

A **noisy signal** model can **rationalize these facts** and allows to **estimate structural differences** in the inflation expectation processes.

[Mankiw and Reis, 2002, Woodford, 2003, Vellekoop and Wiederholt, 2019]

Idea:

- Discrepancy** between the **actual** and the **perceived** inflation signal: bias  $\mu$  and overconfidence  $\sigma_\varepsilon$ .
- Bias leads to **persistent forecast errors**, despite updating.
- Differences in confidence in the signal lead to **different Kalman gains**.

Perceived state equation:

$$\pi_{t+1} = \rho\pi_t + u_{t+1} \tag{1}$$

Perceived inflation signal:

$$s_t = \pi_t - \mu + \varepsilon_t \quad \text{with } \sigma_\varepsilon \text{ the variance of } \varepsilon_t \tag{2}$$

Using the Kalman gain, the **inflation forecast** over a quarter is:

$$\hat{\pi}_{t+1|t} = \rho\hat{\pi}_{t|t-1} + \underbrace{\rho \frac{P_{t|t-1}}{P_{t|t-1} + \sigma_\varepsilon}}_{K_t} (\pi_t - \hat{\pi}_{t|t-1} + \mu + \varepsilon_t^A) \tag{3}$$

Estimation

The yearly inflation forecast from the model can be rewritten as:

$$\hat{\Pi}_{t+4|t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1\hat{\Pi}_{t+3|t-1} + \beta_2\pi_t + \nu_t$$

that can be **estimated with a regression** where:

$$\begin{cases} \beta_0 &= K(\rho + \rho^2 + \rho^3 + \rho^4)\mu \\ \beta_1 &= \rho(1 - K) \\ \beta_2 &= K(\rho + \rho^2 + \rho^3 + \rho^4) \end{cases}$$

|  | Year-on-year inflation expectations: $\hat{\Pi}_{t+4 t}$ |                     |                     |                     |
|--|--|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
|  | 2014-2020  |                     | 2020-2024           |                     |
|  | HtM<br>(1)   | non HtM<br>(2)      | HtM<br>(3)          | non HtM<br>(4)      |
| $\beta_1$ - Lagged expectations: $\hat{\Pi}_{t+3 t-1}$ | 0.776***<br>(0.002)                                      | 0.780***<br>(0.002) | 0.753***<br>(0.003) | 0.742***<br>(0.003) |
| $\beta_2$ - Quarterly inflation: $\pi_t$               | 0.061<br>(0.045)   | -0.021<br>(0.027)   | 0.655***<br>(0.039) | 0.439***<br>(0.023) |
| $\beta_0$ - Constant                                   | 0.864***<br>(0.021)                                      | 0.724***<br>(0.013) | 1.094***<br>(0.034) | 0.905***<br>(0.020) |
| Implied $\hat{\rho}$                                   | 0.776***   | 0.780***            | 0.934***            | 0.874***            |
| Implied $\hat{K}$                                      | 0  | 0                   | 0.193***            | 0.151***            |
| Implied $\hat{\mu}$                                    | .  | .                   | 1.670***            | 2.062***            |
| Observations   | 46,309   | 68,810              | 29,478              | 42,456              |
| Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>                                | 0.6192   | 0.6275              | 0.5991              | 0.5859              |

Key Takeaways

- Inflation expectations **differ** between HtM and non-HtM.  
→ Four facts can be characterized.  
→ In particular **higher forecast error**.  
→ Aggregate forecast error on inflation expectations is **mainly driven by HtM households**.
- A noisy signal model **can rationalize** these differences.  
→ Estimation implies **higher Kalman gain** for HtM than non-HtM.
- Ignoring these differences leads to **overestimate the Kalman gain**.  
→ On the Euler equation, it's the Kalman gain of **non-HtM** that matters ( $\approx 0.15$ ).

Next steps:

- Standard HANK assumes Kalman gain = 1.
- Work in progress:** HANK with model of inflation expectations that fits the data.
- Question:** How does the smaller K of non-HtM affect direct and GE effects ?  
→ Should make GE effects relatively more important.