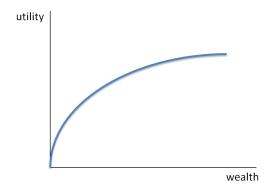
1 Preliminaries: Utility Functions and Risk Aversion

1.1 Utility Functions

- How can we characterize investment possibilities?
- We can think about all the possibilities of investing in different assets as essentially coming down to different gambles with money prizes.
 - For example, suppose there are two investment possibilities:
 - * 1.) There is a 50 percent probability you get a payoff of x, and a 50 percent chance you get a payoff of y; where x < y.

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- * 2.) You get a sure payoff of 1/2 * (x + y)
- What do you prefer?
 - If we know the correct representation of our (or an investor's) utility function, we should be able
 to describe behavior over these (and all other) such money gambles
- Since a key objective in asset pricing is to describe investor behavior, we start with a description of the investor's utility function
- We tend to think that preferences are specified by a utility function u(c) where
 - Marginal utility increases with c (i.e., people prefer more to less) u'(c) > 0,
 - but at a decreasing rate (diminishing rate of marginal utility) u''(c) < 0.
 - This can be shown graphically through concavity of the utility function.



- Again, consider the two investment possibilities:
 - 1.) There is a 50 percent probability you get a payoff of x, and a 50 percent chance you get a payoff of y; where x < y.
 - -2.) You get a sure payoff of 1/2*(x+y)

• Which of the two gambles do you prefer if the graph above represents your utility function?

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1.2 Risk Aversion

- In our example, the investor prefers the second choice
 - This first choice is the "gamble"; the second choice is the expected value of that gamble.
 - I.e., our investor prefers to get the expected value of the gamble or the "sure thing", rather than take the gamble itself.
- When the utility of a gamble is less than the utility of its expected value, we have investor behavior that is characterized as risk aversion.
 - Graphically, if a chord drawn between any two points of the graph lies below the function, we have a concave function.
 - So concavity is equivalent to risk aversion.

1.2.1 Measuring Risk Aversion

- We often want to have a measure of risk aversion.
 - Intuitively, the more concave the utility function, the higher risk aversion.
 - So we measure the degree of risk aversion by the curvature of the utility function.
- Arrow-Pratt measure of ARA

$$r\left(w\right) = -\frac{u''\left(w\right)}{u'\left(w\right)}$$

- (Why can't we just use the second derivative?)
- Note that our measure of risk aversion depends on current consumption, or current wealth.

- How do you think absolute risk aversion might vary with wealth?

- What about relative gambles?
 - The idea is that with some probability p, you receive x percent of your current wealth; and with probability (1-p) you receive y percent.
 - E.g., returns on investments are usually stated relative to the level of investment.
- The appropriate measure is the Arrow-Pratt measure of RRA

$$\rho = -w \frac{u''(w)}{u'(w)}$$

• What do you think happens to relative risk aversion as your wealth increases? Would you be more or less willing to risk a specific fraction of it?

1.3 Common Utility Functions

- We will commonly use power utility, and you'll see why below...
- Power utility

$$u\left(c\right) = \frac{c^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma}$$

- With first derivative

$$u'\left(c\right) = c^{-\gamma}$$

- And second derivative

$$u'\left(c\right) = -\gamma c^{-\gamma - 1}$$

- Power Utility provides reasonable properties about risk aversion and this form is very easy to work with, so it is the utility function most often used in empirical work.
 - DARA

$$r\left(c\right) = -\frac{u''\left(c\right)}{u'\left(c\right)} = -\frac{-\gamma c^{-\gamma - 1}}{c^{-\gamma}} = \frac{\gamma}{c}$$

- CRRA

$$\rho\left(c\right) = -c\frac{u''\left(c\right)}{u'\left(c\right)} = -c\frac{-\gamma c^{-\gamma - 1}}{c^{-\gamma}} = \gamma$$

- Log utility $u(c) = \ln(c)$ is a special case of power utility.
 - It is the limit of power utility as $\gamma \to 1$.
- You should be able to show this...

• Also common: Exponential Utility

$$u\left(c\right) = -e^{-\alpha c}$$

- With $u'(c) = \alpha e^{-\alpha c}$ and $u''(c) = -\alpha^2 e^{-\alpha c}$, so that we have
- constant absolute risk aversion (CARA)

$$r\left(c\right) = -\frac{u''\left(c\right)}{u'\left(c\right)} = -\frac{-\alpha^{2}e^{-\alpha c}}{\alpha e^{-\alpha c}} = \alpha$$

- and increasing relative risk aversion (IRRA)

$$\rho\left(c\right)=-c\frac{u^{\prime\prime}\left(c\right)}{u^{\prime}\left(c\right)}=-c\frac{-\alpha^{2}e^{-\alpha c}}{\alpha e^{-\alpha c}}=c\alpha$$

- In summary, we model investors as having preferences over consumption of the form u(c), which is increasing in consumption u'(c) > 0, but at a decreasing rate u''(c) < 0.
 - Examples: Power utility $u\left(c\right)=\frac{c^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma}$ or log utility $u\left(c\right)=\ln\left(x\right)$.

over wealth and consumption, resp.

• You may have noticed that sometimes we write u(w) and sometimes we write u(c) to represent utility

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- We like to think that the fundamental goal is consumption.
- This also implies that investors really care about consumption, not intermediate objectives like mean and variance.

2 The Consumption-Based Model

2.1 Overview

- We're going to set up a basic problem that derives the central asset pricing equation that we'll use throughout the course from a consumption-based model.
- The way we think about this is to focus on the basic trade-off for any investor: consumption now versus consumption later.
 - Because investors face a budget constraint, they have to give up a little consumption today to get a little more consumption tomorrow.
- Now, we're going to set up a simple problem for our investor: to maximize his utility...

2.2 Model Setup

- Suppose our investor lives for two periods today and tomorrow and receives an endowment that he can consume each period.
 - An investor can smooth consumption over time by purchasing n units of a risky security that has price p_t and gives an (uncertain) payoff next period of x_{t+1} .
 - Given p_t , the investor must choose n.
- The investor's problem is to maximize utility by choosing the number of risky securities to purchase

$$\max_{n,c_{t},c_{t+1}} u(c_{t}) + E_{t} \left[\beta u(c_{t+1})\right]$$

s.t.

$$c_{t} = e_{t} - np_{t}$$

$$c_{t+1} = e_{t+1} + nx_{t+1},$$

where e_t is the investor's endowment at time t.

• What do we want to get out of this problem?

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- How do we solve this problem?
 - First, let's substitute out the budget constraints to simplify the problem...

$$\max_{n} \quad u\left(e_{t}-np_{t}\right) + E_{t}\left[\beta u\left(e_{t+1}+nx_{t+1}\right)\right]$$

- Notice how the problem has simplified...we only have to choose one variable n now...
- So take first-order conditions and set them equal to zero

$$\frac{d}{dn} \left[u \left(e_t - n p_t \right) + E_t \left[\beta u \left(e_{t+1} + n x_{t+1} \right) \right] \right] = 0$$

$$u' \left(c_t \right) \left(- p_t \right) + E_t \left[\beta u' \left(c_{t+1} \right) x_{t+1} \right] = 0$$

$$u' \left(c_t \right) p_t = E_t \left[\beta u' \left(c_{t+1} \right) x_{t+1} \right]$$

• Think about what this says -

2.3 Key Equation

• We will usually re-arrange this key FOC

$$u'(c_t) p_t = E_t [\beta u'(c_{t+1}) x_{t+1}]$$

to write the equation as

$$p_t = E_t \left[\beta \frac{u'\left(c_{t+1}\right)}{u'\left(c_t\right)} x_{t+1} \right]$$

- This is THE CENTRAL ASSET PRICING EQUATION.
- In general, an investor must decide how much to save and how much to consume, and what portfolio
 of assets to hold.
 - The most basic pricing equation (the one that characterizes the SDF methodology) comes from the FOC for that decision.
- The basic idea is that the marginal utility loss of consuming a little less today (and buying a little more of the asset) should equal the marginal utility gain of consuming a little more of the asset's payoff in the future.

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- If prices and payoffs do not satisfy this relationship, the investor should buy more or less of the asset.
- Let's see if we can get the basic intuition from a non-stochastic case.
 - Now we have that

$$u'(c_t) p_t = \beta u'(c_{t+1}) x_{t+1}$$

- And suppose $\beta = 1$, $p_t = 2$, $x_{t+1} = 6$, $u'(c_t) = 0.2$, and $u'(c_{t+1}) = 0.1$.
- Is the first-order condition met? If not, what should the investor do? And how would that affect his utility?

2.4 Big Picture

- So what have we learned?
 - We know that an asset's price should equal the expected discounted value of the asset's payoff, but:
- What should we use to discount the payoff?
 - The investor's marginal utility. Why?
 - Marginal utility (not consumption) is the fundamental measure of how you feel.
- Most of the theory of asset pricing is about how to go from marginal utility to observable indicators.
 - There is a relationship between consumption and marginal utility (inverse); so consumption of course - may be a useful indicator.

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3 SDF Methodology

- This brings us back to the central asset pricing equation we introduced last time.
- We can use the pricing equation we just derived

$$p_{t} = E_{t} \left[\beta \frac{u'\left(c_{t+1}\right)}{u'\left(c_{t}\right)} x_{t+1} \right]$$

by defining

$$m_{t+1} = \beta \frac{u'(c_{t+1})}{u'(c_t)}$$

and writing

$$p_t = E_t \left[m_{t+1} x_{t+1} \right]$$

- In our key equation, the variable m_{t+1} is a random variable, called the SDF.
 - It maps future payoffs into today's price
 - It is a generalization of standard discount factor ideas, as you will see next...

3.1 Discount Factor Ideas

- Let's Think About Discount Factors...
- Consider an environment where there is no uncertainty.
- What is the price (i.e., present value) of a payoff tomorrow of x_{t+1} if the interest rate is $R^f = (1 + r^f)$?
 - Using standard present value ideas, $p_t = \frac{1}{R^f} x_{t+1}$
 - Here, the discount factor is $\frac{1}{R^f}$
 - See how the payoff tomorrow sells "at a discount"?
- Now, let's think about generalizing this idea to risky assets:

$$p_t^i = \frac{1}{R^i} E_t \left(x_{t+1}^i \right)$$

- The idea is that risky assets have lower prices than risk-free assets, so they use asset-specific risk-adjusted discount factors.
 - * The risk that is inherent in asset i is already taken into account in its asset-specific return, R^{i}
- This is a traditional view of asset pricing that uses R^i as a risk-adjusted rate of return particular to each asset i
 - * E.g., these can come from a model like the CAPM
- But We can be Even More General...
 - The generalization is $p_t = E_t [m_{t+1} x_{t+1}]$

- It says that by putting the discount factor inside the expectation, we can use a single discount factor (the same one for each asset) to incorporate all risk corrections
- Can you see what will generate asset-specific risk corrections here?

- So why is this useful?
 - All asset pricing models are just different ways of connecting the SDF m_{t+1} to the data.
 - We will soon see that we can use equation $p_t = E_t [m_{t+1} x_{t+1}]$ in alternative ways to come up with different empirical approaches.
 - By separating the model into these two pieces, we can skip a lot of steps and elaboration for each asset pricing model.
 - * That is, all asset pricing models simply use a different m_{t+1} .
 - * E.g., $p_t = E_t [m_{t+1} x_{t+1}]$ is valid for different utility functions, etc.