

Relationships between bank customers' risk attitudes and their balance sheets

Cecilia Hermansson

Working Paper 2015:12

Division for Banking and Finance

Department for Real Estate and Construction Management

School of Architecture and the Built Environment

KTH Royal Institute of Technology

Relationships between bank customers' risk attitudes and their balance sheets

Cecilia Hermansson
Division for Banking and Finance
Department for Real Estate and Construction Management
School of Architecture and the Built Environment
Royal Institute of Technology, Stockholm, Sweden

cecilia.hermansson@abe.kth.se

Abstract:

This paper analyzes relationships between Swedish bank customers' risk appetite and their financial assets and debt, controlling for demographic, socioeconomic, financial and educational variables including financial literacy. We use subjective risk measures, i.e. risk tolerance and risk preference, as well as an objective risk measure, i.e. relating customers' saving deposits to more risky stocks and mutual funds as a share of total financial assets. Bank customers with high risk appetite have significantly more financial assets compared with those with medium and low risk appetite. The subjective risk measures show that those with high risk appetite have significantly higher debt than those with low risk appetite. The objective risk measure shows the opposite. The paper concludes that it is important to use several measures of risk. Also, policy makers and banks need to measure bank customers' risk appetite in a more systematic and transparent way, in order to improve both the banks' and their customers' risk management, and not less importantly, to decrease macroeconomic risks.

Keywords: Household saving, debt, risk attitudes

JEL Codes: D12 D14 E58 G21

1. Introduction

Households in the advanced economies have generally become more leveraged over the last decades, although there has been some deleveraging in crisis-struck countries since 2008. In countries where house prices continue to rise, households are getting even more leveraged with subsequent concern raised by central banks and other policy makers. Most analyses relating debt to risk taking refer to systemic risks, intermediaries and to the possible costs to society from financial crises as a consequence of too much risk and credit taking (see e.g. Dynan and Kohn, 2007; Brunnermeier and Oehmke, 2012). During the same period, household holdings of risky assets as a share of total wealth have increased. Given the balance sheet recessions experienced in many countries, individuals' financial decisions seem to have become more relevant at a macroeconomic level (Riksbank, 2011). This calls for empirical studies on variables such as risk attitudes, self-control, overconfidence, and financial literacy as explanations for household debt and wealth.

There are studies that include a focus on the relationships between risk attitudes and debt on the household or investor level (Brown et al., 2013; Daly et al., 2010; Dynan and Kohn, 2007; Nagano and Yeom, 2014), and also the relationships between risk attitudes and wealth, in particular in relation to investor participation on asset markets (Calvet and Sodini, 2014; Guiso et al., 2002; Chaulk et al., 2003; Fan and Xiao, 2006; Grable et al., 2004; Hallahan et al., 2004; Yao et al., 2004). However, to some extent, there are limitations in these previous studies in various ways, i.e., there is limited access to objective data on individuals' balance sheets, or there is a lack of data on relevant and updated risk attitudes including both subjective and objective measures, or there are limited possibilities to control for demographic, socio-economic and financial variables, including, e.g., education and financial literacy.

The objective of this study is therefore to analyze the relationships between three measures of risk attitudes and bank customers' balance sheets, including their total debt and their financial assets. The data used is bank register data covering some 90,000 Swedish bank customers, and a survey to the same customers to combine the objective data with subjective measures (with a response rate of approx. 16,000 customers). Given this bank's similar structure as the other three major Swedish commercial banks, the sample used in this study is regarded as representative for Swedish bank customers in general.

This paper intends to contribute in the following way: By comparing three risk attitude measures (two subjective and one objective measure), and relating these to objectively measured private balance sheets, i.e., total debt and financial assets, the study intends to give a more holistic picture than previous research. This study will also control for demographic, socio-economic, financial and educational variables, including the bank customers' financial literacy.

Limitations include a lack of time-series data, since both the bank-register data and the survey data is cross-sectional data. There is thereby a difficulty to establish causality, a problem which is aggravated by having many other factors outside this study explaining the dependent variables. This study does not include real wealth. However, there are data on whether or not the customers are homeowners and have mortgages, and these data are used as important control variables. Since data on assets relating to real estate are missing at this point in time, this paper will not analyze net worth. In future research, we will try to add data on real wealth in terms of housing to make the picture of household balance sheets complete. However, given the continued risk of building-up of financial bubbles, it is reasonable to analyze risk in relation to bank customers' financial balance sheets; hence, this is the main focus in this study.

The structure of the paper is as follows: The next section covers the determinants of household debt and financial assets from a macroeconomic and a microeconomic perspective. It also provides a linkage to risk, including a theoretic background of risk attitudes and various methods to measure them. The third section explains the data and the methodology in more detail. The fourth section presents the results, and in the last section, conclusions are discussed and set in a macroeconomic and policy-oriented context.

2. Theoretical background

2.1 Determinants of household balance sheets and linkages to risk attitudes

Macroeconomic and microeconomic determinants regarding household debt and financial assets are discussed below. Previous research linking balance sheet components to risk attitudes will be reviewed.

2.1.1 Household debt

Finocchiaro et al. (in Riksbank, 2011), discuss what it is that drives household debt. They start with the permanent income/life-cycle model (Ando and Modigliani (1963) and Friedman (1957), which focus on lower real interest rates, increasing future incomes, changes in demographics and diminished uncertainty. In particular, they point to the rise in house prices since more than 80 percent of Sweden's household debt is made up of mortgages. They also bring in behavioral factors in their conceptual model, such as self-control, financial literacy, overconfidence and financial mistakes. Dynan and Kohn (2011) draw the conclusion that changes in interest rates, income growth and changing preferences only partially can explain the increase in household indebtedness, and find rising house prices and financial innovation to be crucial factors in the case of the United States.

Turinetti and Zhuang, 2011, show results from an empirical study using US data, and find that the unemployment rate, the interest rate, the disposable income per capita, the share of retiring population and educational attainment are negatively associated with household debt, while housing prices, consumer confidence and the share of the working-age population are positively related to household borrowing.

In the case of Sweden, Finocchiaro et al. (in Riksbank, 2011) point to the highly regulated housing market which has contributed to a mismatch between demand and supply for housing and also to a low level of new housing construction. Furthermore, there are some important differences in the credit market which may mitigate the effects of excessive borrowing. Another issue is the high savings rate, which may indicate that Swedish households do not refinance their mortgages for consumption purposes. In Sweden, fiscal stimulation (from lower property tax and relatively high interest rate deductability) and low financial literacy may also have increased household indebtedness over the two past decades.

Moving to behavioral factors, relatively little research has focused on the relationship between risk attitudes and household debt, compared to the relationship between risk attitudes and saving (Brown et al., 2013). Investors who are risk averse are in general more cautious with their saving to prevent losses. In addition, they may save to self-insure against uncertainty. Acquiring debt increases consumption with repayments made in the future, and as these are generally financed from household income; thus, the attitudes toward risk will be important in the decision to acquire debt. The hypothesis is that the more risk averse an individual is, the lower will be the debt if there is a risk that the repayments cannot be done in the future. Brown et al., 2013, find an inverse association between risk aversion and the level of debt at the household level. They use the 1996 PSID Survey from University of Michigan, with questions that are in line with Barsky et al. (1997), and focus on hypothetical gambles with respect to lifetime income. They then use this measure for data available on debt in the PSID up to 2007. This time gap seems problematic since financial decisions could have changed due to age, children, career, etc. Furthermore, the data on secured and unsecure debt is subjective since the heads of the household themselves have to add up their debts, and could thus be associated with reliability problems. Even so, their result show that a one standard deviation increase in the cardinal risk attitudes (i.e., more risk averse) reduces total debt by 15.3 percentage points.

Another study that focuses on risk attitudes as a predictor of debt is Daly et al. (2010). They use an Irish sample of 2000 students (web survey), thus limiting the representativeness to the student community. Students have to add up their debts, including the ones to parents which may be less risky and are likely to have lower borrowing costs. Only 58 percent of the students had some

form of debt, and 26 percent owed money to their parents. The risk measure was limited to one question, following research from Dohmen et al. (2009) who find this question to be a robust measure of risk behavior: "How do you see yourself: Are you generally a person who is fully willing to take risks or do you try to avoid taking risks? Please indicate on a scale of 0-10, how willing you are to take risks in general, where 0 indicates "unwilling to take risks" and 10 indicates "fully prepared to take risks". The mean in the study of risk willingness is 6.78. Dale et al. (2010) find the marginal effect of higher risk-attitude (a one-unit increase) to increase debt by 4.17 percent of the mean sample, and when controlled for age and gender this increases to 4.25 percent. On the basis of the studies referred to above, the hypothesis in this study is that customers with a high risk tolerance will have higher debt than other customers controlling for demographics, socio-economic and financial factors as well as education and financial literacy.

2.1.2 Household financial assets

The permanent income/life-cycle model (Ando and Modigliani, 1963) is also a good starting point for determining saving and building up of financial assets, as well as the accumulated savings. The basic formula suggests a number of reasons for changes in savings: changes in wealth, in current income, in expected income, in the discount rate and in life expectancy, as well as changes in family composition and the government's taxes/central bank's monetary policy (Wärneryd, 1999, see page. 301). Wärneryd points to the need to include social and psychological changes as well. In particular he summarizes 6 psychological concepts used by early economists in their discussions on saving, which to some extent are becoming more in focus in modern research: 1) the desire for effective accumulation and improvement, 2) the role of thrifty habits, 3) self-control and willpower as determinants of thrift, 4) uncertainty of or about the future and the role of expectations, 5) selective perception and limited cognitive capacity, and 6) time horizon and attitude toward the future.

Brown and Taylor (2008), analyzing three countries (Germany, Great Britain and the US), find that financial assets increase with age and income. In addition, households with married heads and employed heads of households have on average higher financial assets. Reporting good health is also positively related to financial assets, as well as household size. The education level was significantly positive only for Great Britain, while in Germany and the US, there was no clear pattern relating education and wealth. This study did not include financial literacy or risk attitudes.

Cadak and Wilkins (2009) review determinants of household risky asset holdings in Australia, and find labour income uncertainty and poor health reducing risky assets, as well as credit constraints. A positive age gradient is identified also for risky assets, and home-ownership also

increases risky asset holdings – likely to be affected by the access to cheaper mortgage-backed credit. An important role is played by financial awareness and knowledge in determining risky assets. As expected, being risk averse significantly reduces the risky asset ratio for all households, employed households and retired households.

A significant number of studies report high financial risk tolerance for individuals in high income and wealth categories (Chaulk et al., 2003; Fan and Xiao, 2006; Grable et al., 2004; Hallahan et al., 2004; Yao et al., 2004). Guiso and Paiella (2008) find risk aversion to be a decreasing function of endowment (thus rejecting constant absolute risk aversion (CARA), and estimate the elasticity of risk aversion to consumption at about 0.7, below the unitary value predicted by constant relative risk aversion (CRRA). They focus on the curvature more than the sign of the relationship and find risk tolerance to be a concave function of wealth. Gollier, in Guiso et al. (2002), concludes that wealthier people own more risky assets (under decreasing absolute risk aversion), and they invest a larger share of their wealth in risky assets (under decreasing relative risk aversion). Also Calvet and Sodini (2014) find that financial wealth has a strong positive impact on the risky share, thus, focusing on the measured impact of financial wealth on risk-taking. Using Swedish twins, they also find that the sensitivity of risk-taking to financial wealth is highly heterogeneous across households. Brunnermeier and Nagel (2008), on the other hand, find constant risk aversion and inertia after changes in wealth. While taking into consideration the challenges of establishing causality, the hypothesis in this study is that customers with high risk tolerance, and a higher share of risky assets as part of their wealth, also will have higher wealth than other customers controlling for demographics, socio-economic and financial factors as well as education and financial literacy.

2.2 Measures of risk attitudes

Studies referred to here and elsewhere use various instruments to measure individual risk attitudes. Some of them are objective in nature, e.g., measuring risky asset holdings as a share of total assets. Others are subjective, e.g., asking individuals how risk willing they are, how much risk they would like to take to get a certain return, or whether or not they would prefer participating in a lottery compared to receiving a lower but certain amount.

As referred to above, Dale et al. (2010) follows Dohmen et al. (2009) using a single question on how risk willing a person is. Guiso and Paiella (2008) asks a hypothetical question in personal interviews that the individual should regard as a real one: "You are offered an opportunity of acquiring a security permitting you, with the same probability, either to gain 10 million lire (5,000 euro), or to lose all the capital invested. What is the most you are prepared to pay for this security?" Since the question was regarded as complicated, only a 42 percent agreed to answer.

Loomes and Pogrebna (2014) argue that it is unsafe to expect that one or two questions of any kind can provide a reliable measure at the individual level since most individuals exhibit a good deal of variability in their responses to questions intended to elicit their risk attitudes. Ideally, one should use several different questions and/or at least two different procedures to check the sensitivity of the risk attitude parameter they generate.

As Campbell (2006) points out, predictions on the relationship between wealth and risk attitude may be different for different risk aversion measures and utility functions. It is therefore important to name the measures of risk attitudes in a coherent way. In several studies (Yao et al., 2004; Yao et al., 2011, Finke and Huston, 2003), the term risk tolerance is used regardless if the measure is based on a lottery or on questions about risk and return preferences. Hunter (2002), and Roszkowski and Davey (2010) differ between risk tolerance and risk perception in the following way: While risk perception answers how risky an investor views an investment, risk tolerance answers how likely it is for an investor to make an investment given a certain level of risk.

Our first measure is based on lottery choices and reflects risk tolerance (see e.g., Wärneryd, 1996). In its simplest form, the individual makes a choice between two alternatives of the form (v, p) where p is the probability to win, v is an amount of money and 1-p is the probability to win nothing. The expected utility of such alternatives is pu(v) + (1-p)u(0) where u is the utility function for money. The individual is assumed to select the alternative with the greatest expected value. The general assumption in economics is that people are risk averse, defined as a preference for a sure outcome over a prospect with an equal or greater expected value. "Risk aversion is defined as a preference for a sure outcome over a prospect with an equal or greater expected value... Risk seeking is exhibited if a prospect is preferred to a sure outcome with equal or greater expected value" (Wärneryd, 1999, p.234. referring to Tversky and Fox, 1995, p.269).

It is also possible to measure risk attitudes by asking people about their appetite for risk. The American Survey of Consumer Finances (SCF), used by many American academics, poses the following questions: Which of the statements on this page comes closest to the amount of financial risk that you and your (spouse/partner) are willing to take when you save or make investments?¹

- 1) Take substantial financial risks expecting to earn substantial returns
- 2) Take above average financial risks expecting to earn above average returns
- 3) Take average financial risks expecting to earn average returns
- 4) Not willing to take any financial risks

Our second measure is similar to these questions, seeking to find the individual's preference as regards their view on their preferred exchange between risk and return. These two measures are

¹ Note that the option "Take below average financial risk expecting to earn below average return" is not available.

subjective dependent on the answers on hypothetical choices, which can have an impact on validity of the method and generalizability of the results. As Kahneman and Tversky (1979) phrase it: "The use of method relies on the assumption that people often know how they would behave in actual situations of choice, and on the further assumption that the subjects have no special reason to disguise their true preferences."

The third measure used in this study is therefore an objective measure of risk attitudes. Relating the risky assets to total financial assets gives a picture of a certain investor's tolerance for risk. However, his or her investment strategy may have been influenced by advisors, or by other factors, thereby also contributing to measurement errors in the analysis. Thus, there are pros and cons towards all measures of risk attitudes. Being transparent on the measure used is important, not least since risk tolerance seems to be a more stable concept over time, whereas risk perception and risk preferences changes more easily for example due to an economic shock (Roszkowski and Davey, 2010). Analyzing risk in an objective manner, by relating risky assets to total assets, and match with the Swedish Twin Registry, Cesarini, et al. (2010) find that approximately 25 percent of individual variation in portfolio risk is due to genetic variation. Hanna and Chen (1997) find that risk tolerance also as a subjective attribute tends to be a genetic predisposition. Others, such as Cordell (2001) argue that risk tolerance can vary over time as it is influenced by exogenous factors such as major life experiences.

There appears to be significant agreement among research studies that financial risk tolerance is statistically related to a number of demographic and socio-economic factors such as gender, age, income, wealth, education and occupation (see Van der Venter et al., 2012, for a more extensive review). In focus for this study are investors' financial assets and debt in relation to their risk attitudes. Causality is difficult to establish. While an individual's increased willingness to tolerate financial risk could be driven by a greater ability to take on more risk due to a higher level of disposable income or higher wealth, it may also be that the level of an individual's financial risk tolerance influences his or her earning potential (Van der Venter et al., 2012).

3. Data and methodology

Bank register data of 90,520 randomly sampled bank customers from one of Sweden's largest commercial banks representing a population of 2,254,420 bank customers aged 18 and over is used as cross-sectional data. Given the large customer size of the bank, its broad geographical coverage, and its similar structure as other major commercial banks in Sweden, the sample of customers was assumed to be representative of Swedish bank customers in general.

This data is combined with answers received from a questionnaire sent out to the same sample of customers. The survey was undertaken in April-May, 2013, while the bank register data used is from March, 2013. The bank register data provided us with information on age, gender, geographical location, mortgage, financial information on debt and assets, and the respondent's annual net income. The survey data provided us with information on family status, home ownership, risk attitudes, education and financial literacy. Only customers having the bank in question as their main bank were included, in order to minimize the problem of customers having financial assets and liabilities in other banks. Couples analyzed could have divided their total debt and assets unevenly, and this will not be reflected in this study. However, since Swedish couples are taxed as individuals, the problem is likely to be less severe than in many other countries.

The response rate of 18 percent (16,050 customers) calls for an analysis of a possible selection bias. In Table 1, differences between the overall sample and the data for the responders of the survey are shown. Responders were in general older, had higher financial assets and liabilities, lived more often in large cities, and were more often women. Therefore, we used a Heckman two-step selection model to check for selection bias. This assured us that bias is not present in this study since lambda is not a significant variable, and no difference was found in the results between the ordinary OLS regression model and the two-step selection model for the independent variable in focus, i.e., risk attitude on bank customers' balance sheets.

The methodology chosen is an OLS regression model with risk attitudes as independent variable and the bank customer's total debt (mortgage debt and other debt) as dependent variable (and the bank customer's financial wealth as dependent variable). By adding demographics, financial and economic data, as well as education and financial literacy, the impact of risk attitudes on debt/financial assets is moderated by these control variables. Thus, four models in total are presented for each of the two dependent variables, with Model 4 containing all independent variables.

In Sweden, a major part of the household's total debt is made up of mortgage. In table 2, the difference in total debt between bank customers with and without mortgage is shown. Excluding mortgages, bank customers have on average SEK 32,700 (about 3,520 Euro) in debt, while mortgages on average amount to just over SEK 658,300 (about 70,870 Euro). Bank customers, if they are homeowners, often increase their mortgages instead of taking up commercial loans when buying a new car, as well as when financing a long and expensive holiday. On average, the responders had a total debt amounting to SEK 321,734 (about 34,600 Euro). Customers living outside the major cities own their homes to a larger extent, while there is a possibility to rent apartments in the cities.

10

² The responders did not answer all the questions, and therefore the four models presented below have between 11893 and 14160 observations.

Despite the high and rising property prices driving debt in the largest cities, the average amount of debt is thus lower in the cities in this sample. The higher the education, the higher the financial literacy, and the higher the income bank customers earn the higher the total debt they owe to the bank. From Table 1, it is also possible to note that without correction for other variables, the more appetite for risk the bank customer has in subjective terms, the higher is her or his total debt, and the more appetite for risk, the higher is her or his financial wealth.

As discussed in Section 2, there are several methods possible to use when analyzing risk attitudes. In this study, we use three methods where the focus is on financial decisions: i) *risk tolerance* according to a hypothetic gamble involving getting money from a lottery versus choosing a lower certain amount, ii) *risk preference* according to customers' subjective views on their exchange between risk and possible return on savings, and iii) *objective risk* according to the share of risky assets in the financial asset holdings portfolio.

Using the first method, risk tolerance was tested by asking the respondents to choose between receiving an amount of money with total certainty or participating in a lottery:

- 1. I choose either to get 1000 kronor with 100 % probability, or take part in a lottery and get 2000 kronor with 40 % probability (and nothing with 60 % probability).
- 2. I choose either to get 1000 kronor with 100 % probability, or take part in a lottery and get 2000 kronor with 60 % probability (and nothing with 40 % probability).

The respondents were coded the following way:

- High risk: answers lottery in both cases
- Medium risk: answers 1000 kronor in the first case, and lottery in the second case
- Low risk: answers 1000 kronor in both cases

In Table 1, the distribution between these three types of risk attitudes as measured by risk tolerance is shown. The majority of bank customers take low risks (68.6%), followed by medium risk (23.1%) and those who take high risk (8.6%). Men are more risk seeking according to our survey, since 10.8% of the men take relatively high risks while this applies only to 6.6 % of the women.

Using the second method, risk preference is tested by responding to the survey. A variable of high, medium and low risk perception will be built up from three questions raised, with a Likert type scale 1 (=Totally disagree) to 7 (=Totally agree):

- I would like to increase risk since the return is too low
- I think one has to take risk in order to gain something
- I think it is reasonable to lose parts of my saving if the chance to get a good return is great

Variable	Description .	Total Sample Responders Low Risk T	Responders	Low Risk T	Medium Risk T High Risk T	High Risk T	Low Risk P	Medium Risk F	High Risk P	Low Risk P Medium Risk P High Risk P Low ObjRisk Med ObjRisk High ObjRisk	led ObjRisk H	igh ObjRisl
Observations	Number	90516	16050	10491	3543	1328	3764	7711	4102	5402	5199	5461
Total Debt	SEK	274869	321734	275218	421560	512730	169078	300614	524995	306527	358801	301444
Financial Assets	SEK	317146	498161	468248	535870	579568	347491	463881	697856	215495	548369	730484
Age	Frequency, percent											
18-24		9,46	4,40	4,39	5,31	3,01	3,75	5,23	3,36	2,90	3,10	2,18
25-34		16,11	9,22	8,70	11,90	9,34	6,11	10,56	9,92	12,74	96′6	5,03
35-54		33,03	26,75	24,33	34,19	34,21	20,01	27,58	32,79	23,23	28,47	28,61
55-64		16,80	22,26	22,28	21,90	26,45	21,09	22,81	22,99	19,16	23,45	24,21
65-74		14,50	24,19	25,64	20,12	19,82	28,56	22,90	22,35	23,36	23,04	26,10
75>		10,10	13,17	14,66	6,58	7,16	20,48	10,92	8,58	13,61	11,98	13,87
Gender	Male=1 Female=0	0,4910	0,4776	0,4436	0,5372	0,6006	0,3488	0,4586	0,5250	0,4987	0,46344	0,4697
Family status	Frequency, percent											
Single			22,77	23,60	19,80	19,03	27,73	21,77	18,99	24,61	21,43	22,22
Single w.children			3,58	3,59	3,87	3,20	3,25	3,96	3,31	3,61	3,68	3,54
Couple w/o cilitaten			42,94	30,23 40.66	49 62	48.37	35,24	43.83	49.09	37,09	46.56	06,12
Other			1,85	1,91	2,05	0,98	1,83	2,06	1,38	2,28	1,23	1,32
Large city	The four largest cities=1, rest=0	0,7953	0,8208	0,8317	0,7957	0,7822	0,8491	0,8256	0,7804	0,8016	0,8296	0,8315
Homeowner	Homeowner=1		0,7159	0,7079	0,7482	0,7515	0,7827	0,7299	0,6671	0,6296	0,7565	0,7627
Mortgage	Mortgage=1	0,3903	0,4620	0,4397	0,5222	0,5539	0,3945	0,4758	0,5171	0,4023	0,5095	0,4748
Іпсоте	Annual net Income, SEK	168903	193666	183/95	219466	76177	165026	195525	1/9777	1/5/63	719689	186584
Education	Frequency, percent		0	0	09 7	0	14 06	7	, ,	0,000	0	70.0
o illialized education			9,14	00,6	4,09	6,0	14,00	10.27	0,21	10,03	0,19	0,0,0
Pre-gymnasium Gympaeium			11,5U	12,93	ر مر عد مر	8,39	10,07	75,UI 52,77	6,95 71.77	12,35	75,0I	11,80
Gymnasidiii Higher ediication / 2005			20,02	20,36	26,23	70,02	10,02	27,03	21,12	20,38	20,17	20,02
Higher education < 3 yrs			20,23	20,21	20,47	22.06	10,57	22.10	20,27	23,22	20,41	21,10
iigilei eddcatioii /- 3 yi3			32,10	04,00	36,70	09,66	77,10	33,13	‡,′,′,	эт, оо	00,66	Эт'ос
Financial Literacy	Frequency, percent											
0	0/6 answer right		20,42	23,16	12,68	13,74	34,74	18,37	9,22	28,89	16,17	16,14
1	1/6 answer right		22,85	24,05	20,04	22,32	56,09	24,93	16,39	20,98	23,75	23,84
2	2/6 answers right		16,94	16,99	16,80	17,42	16,47	18,19	15,42	15,65	18,06	17,12
3	3/6 answers right		14,39	13,77	15,62	15,70	11,43	14,64	16,88	12,67	15,38	15,14
4	4/6 answers right		11,51	10,77	14,04	12,76	06′9	11,70	15,76	9,62	13,02	11,95
<u>د</u> ک	5/6 answers right		8,39	2,06	12,23	9,98	3,26	7,84	14,46	7,32	8,20	9,63
9	6/6 answers right		5,50	4,19	8.60	8.09	1.12	4.31	11 87	88 V	77	7

Table 2: Summary statistics, focusing on total debt and financial assets

Variable	Description	Total Debt	Fin. Assets
Observations	Number	16050	16050
Overall		321734	498161
Age			
18-24		22957	85914
25-34		309450	135118
35-54		532052	304728
55-64		391946	568753
65-74		213273	717078
75>		83557	769097
Gender	Male	395927	577792
	Female	158083	425313
Family status			
Single		179023	578382
Single w.children		456775	317838
Couple w/o children		235531	532900
Couple w children		464308	464361
Other		74198	217997
Large city	The four largest cities	261594	490045
	The rest	597219	535336
Homeowner	Homeowner	407328	555110
	Otherwise	108569	354577
Mortgage	Mortgage	658317	380373
	Otherwise	32706	599307
Education			
No finalized education		126713	540814
Pre-gymnasium		166645	528130
Gymnasium		296315	418520
Higher education < 3yrs		347152	483914
Higher education >= 3 yrs		460343	559171
Financial Literacy			
0	0/6 answer right	148070	286197
1	1/6 answer right	241474	374214
2	2/6 answers right	298992	443480
3	3/6 answers right	413653	532660
4	4/6 answers right	444264	653942
5	5/6 answers right	520171	852861
6	6/6 answers right	733841	1025979

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), see Table 3, was done in order to evaluate the measure of the independent variables, providing a test for unidimensionality (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988). The factor loadings are at or above 0.5, as suggested by Bollen (1989). Item reliability (R2) measures show values above the recommended 0.5 (Bollen, 1989), except for the first statement where R2 is lower. However, composite reliability for the construct is high, exceeding the recommended level of 0.70 (Hair et al., 1998). Average variance extracted is above 0.5 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). The high reliability is due to very small indicator measurement errors. The score of the construct varies between -1.975 and 2.796 with a mean of 0.0672. In Table 1, the construct has been divided into three types: low (<-1), medium (-1 to 1) and high (>1).

Table 3: Result of confirmatory factor analysis and reliability measures

Risk Preference	Factor	Measurement		Item	Composite	
Construct/indicator	Loading	Error	z value	Reliability (R2)	Reliability	AVE
					1.00	0.99
I would like to increase risk since the return is too low	0.50	0.0070192	71.69	0.25		
I think one has to take risk in order to gain something	0.81	0.0063819	126.88	0.66		
I think it is reasonable to lose parts of my savings	0.83	0.0064062	130.19	0.70		
if the chance to get a good return is great						

Using the third method, objective risk is measured by relating the deposits in saving accounts to the total investment volume. If data had been provided, we would have liked to divide the mutual funds into different risk classes, but unfortunately they will now be treated as risky, in line with shares. The number 0 means that there are no risky assets in the bank customer's portfolio, only deposits in saving accounts, while 1 means that the whole portfolio consists of mutual funds and share, and no deposits. The mean for the sample is 0.339.

The other independent variables are explained in Table 1 and 2, except for Financial Literacy. Six questions were asked (see Appendix A5), and respondents were asked to give spontaneous answers, and instead of trying to look up the answer, respond "I Don't Know". About 20% did not have any right answers, and 60% had 2 right answers or less. About 25% had 4 right answers or more, and only 5.5% had all answers right. Bank customers with a stronger appetite for risk had more answers right compared to those with low appetite for risk.

4. Results

Four models, representing four stages of regressions are provided for each risk attitude measure (i.e., risk tolerance, risk preference and objective risk) and each component of the balance sheet (total debt and financial assets). The regression with risk tolerance is provided in tables 4-5, while the regressions with risk preference and objective risk are presented in appendix A1 – A4. Results for both components of the balance sheet and all three risk measures are presented in table 6.

Risk tolerance explains less than 1 percent of total debt in model 1, as presented in table 4. Still, not controlling for other variables, bank customers with medium and high risk appetite have significantly higher debt than customers with low risk. In model 2, demographic variables are added, such as age, gender, family status and geographical location. These factors explain 7.6 percent of total debt.

Customers with medium and high risk appetite are still more indebted than the low risk customers, although to a lesser extent than in model 1. In model 3, financial and socio-economic variables, such as the sum of financial assets, being a homeowner, having a mortgage, and customers' net annual income, are added, which results in a R² of 14.3 percent. Customers with medium risk are barely more indebted than the customers with low risk appetite, at the significance level of 0.10 (p=0.099), but high risk customers are significantly more indebted than the low risk ones (p=0.001).

In model 4, all variables are included, i.e., education levels and financial literacy according to our questionnaire. These two variables add little to the explanation of total debt (R^2 is 14.6 percent), but they change the way risk tolerance affect total debt. There is no longer a significant difference between the customers with medium risk and the ones with low risk in terms of their debt levels, when controlling for all variables. However, high risk customers are still significantly more indebted than the ones with low risk appetite (p=0.002), and the amount is SEK 91,787 (about 9,900 Euro), which is equal to 28.5 percent of the mean total debt of survey responders.

In model 4, the other independent variables affect debt in the following way. The age group of 35-54 is significantly more indebted than the youngest bank customers (18-24), and the oldest two groups are significantly less indebted than the youngest. Men are more indebted than women, and singles with children are more indebted than singles, while those who live in a couple-relationship with children are less indebted than singles. Those who live in large cities are less indebted than those living in less urbanized areas. More households in cities rent their housing, and this explains the difference. For those who actually own real estate, and have a mortgage, debt levels are generally higher in the cities where house prices are higher. As can be expected, homeowners and customers with mortgages are more indebted than the other customers. Somewhat surprisingly, there is no significant relationship between financial assets and total debt. On the other hand, the higher the income a customer has, the higher the debt. In terms of education, many older (and less indebted) customers have lower formal education than the younger. There is a significant relationship between those that have higher education of three years or longer and their debt. The same is applicable to financial literacy. The more right answers the bank customer gave in our survey (at least starting from 3/6 right or more), the higher debt he or she has.

Table 4: OLS regressions on Total Debt with focus on Risk Tolerance

Variables	Description	Risk only		Model 1+Der	mographic	Model 2+Fir	ancials	Model 3 + Sk	ills
		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
		Coefficients	t-stat	Coefficients	t-stat	Coefficients	t-stat	Coefficients	t-stat
Intercept		288432	27,01	190117	5,90	81741	2,48	81783	2,17
Risk tolerance	cf. Group 1= low risk tolerance								
2	2= medium risk tolerance	157218	8,67	67122	3,37	30308	1,65	8045	0,39
3	3= high risk tolerance	247653	8,47	132527	4,27	91380	3,27	91787	3,09
Age	cf. Group 18-24								
25-34				184052	7,54	24157	1,16	-5325	-0,24
35-54				367334	15,69	53705	2,70	40687	1,97
55-64				268959	9,42	-36885	-1,04	-50735	-1,42
65-74				111244	5,90	-105232	-5,58	-138436	-6,37
75>				13473	0,75	-99069	-5,02	-119263	-5,30
Gender	Male=1 Female=0			284422	15,89	228906	10,92	211004	10,11
Family status	cf. Group Singles								
Single w.children	ci. Group singles			141495	4,17	79588	2,78	84294	2,83
Couple w.children				37703	2,84	-42495	-3,70	-54760	-4,40
Couple w/o children				172830	2,0 4 8,75	19143	0,89	11757	0,54
Other				-23492		6312			
Other					-0,66		0,20	13538	0,39
Large city	The four largest cities=1, rest=0			-365872	-10,92	-305604	-9,36	-285989	-8,80
Homeowner	Homeowner=1					89128	5,21	81425	4,81
Mortgage	Mortgage=1					505677	20,2	510253	18,93
Financial assets	Sum of all fin.assets					0,0175	1,35	0,0058	0,49
	in bank register								
Income	Annual net income					0,4804	4,24	0,2951	2,44
Education	cf. No finalized education								
Pre-gymnasium								14546	0,94
Gymnasium								-34484	-2,17
Higher education < 3yrs								40493	1,22
Higher education >= 3 yr	S							83186	4,02
Financial Literacy	cf. 0 answers right								
1	1/6 answer right							-20978	-1,71
2	2/6 answers right							4343	0,28
3	3/6 answers right							72087	3,84
4	4/6 answers right							99734	1,99
5	5/6 answers right							140616	5,13
6	6/6 answers right							338793	4,36
Regression		60,44		119,5		235,81		144,56	
F-statistic		0,0000		0,0000		0,0000		0,0000	
R-square		0,0077		0,0761		0,1426		0,1456	
Number of observations	:	14160		12947		12947		11893	

In A1, the four models regarding risk preference and total debt is presented. All the independent variables behave in a similar manner as in table 4. In model 3, the difference between customers with medium and low risk appetite is more significant (p=0.011). In model 4, the magnitude of the increase in total debt for high risk customers is larger, i.e., at SEK 132,834 (about 14,310 Euro), which is 41.3 percent of the mean total debt for responders.

In A2, the four models regarding objective risk and total debt is presented. Bank customers with a high share of risky assets, compared to total financial assets, have not a significantly higher debt than customers with low risk appetite as can be seen in model 1. However, those with medium risk appetite are significantly more indebted than the low risk customers. In model 4, both those with medium and high risk appetite are significantly less indebted than the ones with low risk. Bank customers with a high share of deposits in saving accounts in their total financial assets, and perhaps with low absolute holdings of mutual funds and shares, have significantly higher debt. High debt leads to a need to pay interest, and to some extent amortization, thus the requirement for cash holdings may be higher. Customers with high risk appetite have 22.0 percent lower debt than the low risk customers, according to the objective risk measure.

Moving on to financial assets and the relationship with risk attitudes, table 5 shows the relationship between risk tolerance and financial assets. In model 1, bank customers with medium risk, and even more so, with high risk appetite have higher financial assets than those with low risk appetite. However, risk tolerance is not an important explanatory variable for financial assets. By adding demographic variables, R² increases to 5.8 percent, and the magnitude and significance of risk tolerance increase. In model 3, also financials and homeownership are added, increasing R² to 9.2 percent. When also education and financial literacy have been added in model 4, the model explains still only 11.9 percent of the variation in financial assets. Throughout all models, the higher the bank customers' tolerance of risk, the higher the financial assets. In model 4, the customers with high risk appetite has 26.0 percent higher financial assets compared to the one with low risk appetite (SEK 129,359 (about 13,900 Euro) out of the responders' mean of SEK 498,161 (about 53,675 Euro).

Among the other independent variables, the regression results are as expected. The older the customers, the higher are their financial assets. Singles have the highest financial assets, compared to other family status groups. Those with the highest education, and the best scores on our financial literacy test, have the highest amount of financial assets. Those living in the largest four cities have significantly lower financial assets compared to the rest of customers. Interestingly, when controlling for all factors included here (i.e., in model 4), men have significantly higher financial assets compared to women only when risk tolerance and objective risk are used as risk attitude measures, while this is not the case when instead risk preference is used.

Table 5: OLS regressions on Financial Assets with focus on Risk Tolerance

Variables	Description	Risk only		Model 1+De	mographics	Model 2+Fi	nancials	Model 3+S	kills
		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
		Coefficient	t-stat	Coefficient	t-stat	Coefficient	t-stat	Coefficient	t-stat
Intercept		478631	52,13	165945	4,47	42233	1,14	-100658	-2,25
Risk tolerance	cf. 1= low risk tolerance								
2	2= medium risk tolerance	79936	3,32	145519	5,68	132252	5,17	81191	2,97
3	3= high risk tolerance	114998	2,49	153964	3,13	147940	2,96	129359	2,50
Age	cf. Group 18-24								
25-34				43895	2,96	22852	1,14	-6121	-0,25
35-54				220546	11,37	171555	6,35	165500	5,39
55-64				513379	21,27	440291	16,45	436184	14,01
65-74				680809	19,93	574815	14,71	565850	11,79
75>				687099	20,75	544798	16,17	579834	14,61
Gender	Male=1 Female=0			110851	6,05	101059	5,42	37854	2,28
Family status	cf. Singles								
Single w.children	ci. Singles			-105483	-2,63	-117011	-2,99	-97274	-2,35
Couple w.children				-105775	-3,23	-124862	-3,92	-126127	-3,85
Couple w/o children				-83656	-3,23 -2,79	-109626	-3,70	-118121	-3,84
Other				-54725	-1,52	-170708	-4,44	-137614	-3,49
Other				-34/23	-1,52	-170708	-4,44	-15/014	-3,43
Large city	The four largest cities=1, rest=0			-132191	-3,68	-121112	-3,45	-81516	-2,37
Homeowner	Homeowner=1					365620	-3,45	311293	9,87
Mortgage	Mortgage=1					-414521	12,95	-401866	-14,32
Total Debt	Sum of all outstanding					0,0203	1,08	0,0062	0,42
Total Debt	loans in bank register					0,0203	1,00	0,0002	0,42
Income	Annual net income					0,5962	3,86	0,4289	2,61
Education	of No finalized advection								
Education	cf. No finalized education							9063	0.25
Pre-gymnasium								-8063	-0,25
Gymnasium								87585	2,44
Higher education < 3yrs								54856	1,65
Higher education >= 3 yrs								142645	3,75
Financial Literacy	cf. 0 answers right								
1	1/6 answer right							72338	2,89
2	2/6 answers right							110952	3,88
3	3/6 answers right							169039	5,21
4	4/6 answers right							269147	6,40
5	5/6 answers right							377844	7,81
6	6/6 answers right							695643	6,80
Regression	. 5	8,04		132,37		101,42		65,82	
F-statistic		0,0003		0,0000		0,0000		0,0000	
R-square		0,0016		0,0582		0,0917		0,1186	
Number of observations		14160		12947		12947		11893	

Using risk preference as is shown in A3, the picture is similar to risk tolerance, although the magnitude and significance levels are higher. In model 4, being a customer with high risk appetite increases financial assets by SEK 253,748 (about 27,340 Euro), i.e., 50.9 percent of the responders' mean financial assets. Being a customer with medium risk appetite increases financial assets by 20.7 percent compared to the customer with low risk appetite.

The effects are even larger when using objective risk as shown in A4. Being a high risk customer increases financial assets by 91.0 percent, and being a medium risk customer increases financial assets by 55.5 percent compared to the low risk customers. Those who hold mutual funds and shares are generally wealthier than those that have only deposits in their saving accounts.

Table 6: OLS regressions on household balance sheets – with all risk attitude measures

	Total De	bt	Financial A	ssets
	Coefficients	t-stat	Coefficients	t-stat
Risk Tolerance				
cf. Low risk				
Medium risk	8045	0,39	81191	2,97
High risk	91787	3,09	129359	2,50
Risk Preference				
cf. Low risk				
Medium risk	6793	0,61	102990	4,47
High risk	132834	5,32	253748	7,17
Objective Risk				
cf. Low risk				
Medium risk	-52369	-2,43	276652	14,68
High risk	-70768	-2,44	453448	20,71
Mean for responders	321734		498161	
P10 for responders	0		12157	
P90 for responders	1079902		1183000	

5. Discussion and Conclusions

This study concludes that there is a relationship between bank customers' risk appetite and their balance sheets. Those who take on more risk seem to have higher financial assets and also higher debt.

When using this study's three measures of risk attitudes, i.e., subjective risk tolerance, subjective risk preference and objective risk appetite, we find significantly higher financial assets for

bank customers who tolerate or prefer high risk, compared with those who prefer medium or low risk. Similarly, bank customers with medium risk appetite have significantly higher financial assets compared with those who have low risk appetite. The fourth and final model in our regressions controls for demographic, socio-economic, financial and educational variables, including the customers' financial literacy.

The results are in line with our hypothesis based on earlier studies (Chaulk et al., 2003; Fan and Xiao, 2004; Hallahan et al., 2004; Yao et al., 2004) which find that customers with a high risk tolerance have higher wealth. However, as Gollier, in Guiso et al., 2002, argue, wealthier people own more risky assets and invest a larger share of their wealth in risky assets, and it is difficult to establish causality. Also Calvet and Sodini (2014) refer to the impact of wealth on risk-taking, whereas Brunnermeier and Nagel (2008) find constant risk aversion and inertia after fluctuations in wealth.

Using the same risk measures, the picture is less clear when analyzing bank customers' debt. Both subjective measures of risk tolerance and risk preference show that bank customers with high risk appetite have significantly higher debt than those with low risk appetite. On the other hand, objective risk, which is measured by relating saving deposits and the more risky stocks and mutual funds to total assets, show that bank customers have less debt the more risk seeking the customer is. One reason could be the need to hold non-risky assets in order to be able to pay debt service. Finding better ways to measure objective risk, e.g., by being able to divide the customers' mutual funds into more or less risky assets could help to spread more light on this finding.

The results regarding the relationship between subjective risk and debt are in line with our hypothesis based on the argument that acquiring debt increases consumption with repayments made in the future. However, there is a risk that these repayments cannot be made, hence will customers with low risk appetite acquire less debt.

Analyzing the other independent variables, being a homeowner and having a mortgage are the main reasons for taking on more debt. In future research, it is important to add data on real estate assets in order to analyze the balance sheet as a whole.

There is some comfort in finding that the bank customers with the highest financial literacy and education take on more debt compared to those with the lowest capabilities. Similarly, those who take on more debt have higher income as well. Even so, many customers – especially those with mortgages – have low financial assets in Sweden. Therefore, they are vulnerable if the labor market weakens at the same time as debt service requirements tighten.

Policy implications include increasing the awareness of the importance of measuring bank customers' risk appetite with a broad set of methods including objective as well as subjective measures, both as a way for the bank to understand their customers' context of saving and borrowing, and as a way for the customers to understand their own risk management (see e.g.

Campbell and Cocco, 2003 for a discussion on household risk management in the American context). Debt perceptions tend to differ across individuals depending on the economic situation, and several non-financial factors such as personality traits (Keese, 2012), and also financial literacy (Lusardi and Tufano, 2009). Measuring customers' risk needs to be done in a more systematic and transparent way. Customers with higher risk appetite will take on more debt compared to those with lower risk appetite. This may also mean that more risk seeking customers manage their debt in a riskier way, e.g. with more adjustable interest rates and less amortization. They may also choose riskier assets in their wealth management. Increasing the bank's and the customer's transparency regarding risk, as well as providing a more strategic management, is also a way to decrease macroeconomic risks, thus alleviating the burden of central banks and financial supervisory institutions.

References:

Ando, A. and Modigliani, F. (1963). The life-cycle hypothesis of saving: aggregate implications and tests, *American Economic Review*, vol. 53. 55-84.

Barsky, R.B., Juster, F.T., Kimball, M.S., and Shapiro, M.D. (1997). Preference parameters and behavioural heterogeneity: An experimental approach in health and retirement study, *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 112, 537-579.

Barwell, R., May, O., and Pezzini, S. (2006). The distribution of assets, income and liabilities across UK households. *Bank of England Quarterly Bulletin*, spring 2006, 35-44.

Bollen, K.A. (1989). Structural equations with latent variables. Wiley Series in probability and mathematical statistics. New York: Wiley.

Brown, S., Garino, G., and Taylor, K. (2013). Household debt and attitudes toward risk. *Review of Income and Wealth*, 59(2), 283-304.

Brown, S., and Taylor, K. (2008). Household debt and financial assets: Evidence from Germany, Great Britain and the USA. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. Series A (Statistics in Society)*, vol. 171(3), 615-643.

Brunnermeier, M.K., and Oehmke, M. (2012). Bubbles, Financial crises, and systemic risk, In *Handbook of the Economics of Finance*, Volume 2, George M. Constantinides, Milton Harris and Rene M. Stulz, eds., North Holland, October 2012.

Brunnermeier, M.K., and Nagel, S. (2008). Do wealth fluctuations generate time-varying risk aversion? Micro-evidence on individuals' asset allocation. *American Economic Review*, 98 (3), 713-736.

Calvet, L.E., and Sodini, P. (2014). Twin picks: Disentangling the determinants of risk-taking in household portfolios. *The Journal of Finance*, vol. 69 (2), 867-906.

Campbell, J.Y. (2006), Household Finance. The Journal of Finance. Vol. 61, No.4, pp. 1553-1604.

Campbell, J.Y., and Cocco, J.F., (2003). Household risk management and optimal mortgage choice. *NBER Working Paper 9759*. Cambridge. MA.

Cardak, B.A., and Wilkins, R. (2009). The determinants of household risky asset holdings: Australian evidence on background risk and other factors. Journal of Banking and Finance, 33, 850-860.

Cesarini, D., Johannesson, M., Lichtenstein, P., Sandewall, Ö., and Wallace, B. (2010). Genetic Variation in financial decision-making., *The Journal of Finance*, vol. 65, No.5., pp. 1725-1754.

Chaulk, B., Johnson, P.J., and Bulcroft, R. (2003). Effects of marriage and children on financial risk tolerance. A synthesis of family development and prospect theory. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 24, 257-279.

Cordell, D.M. (2001). RiskPACK: How to evaluate risk tolerance. Journal of Financial Planning, 14, 36-41.

Daly, M., Deleany, L., and McManus, S. (2010). Risk attitudes as an independent predictor of debt. *USD Geary Institute Discussion Paper Series*, WP2010/49.

Dohmen, T., Falk, A., Huffman, D., Sunde, U., Schupp, J., and Wagner, W. (2011). Individual risk attitudes: Measurement, determinants and behavioral consequences. *Journal of European Economic Association*, 9 (3), 522-550.

Dynan, K., and Kohn, D.L. (2007). The rise in US household indebtedness: Causes and consequences. *Finance and Economics Discussion Series 2007-37*. Washington: Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System.

Fan, J.X., and Xiao, J.J. (2006). Cross-cultural differences in risk tolerance. A comparison between Chinese and Americans. *Journal of Personal Finance*, 5, 54-75.

Finke, M.S., and Huston, S.J. (2003). The brighter side of financial risk: Financial risk tolerance and wealth. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, Vol. 24, No.3, pp.233-256.

Finocchiaro, D., Nilsson, C., Nyberg, D., and Soultanaeva, A. (2011). Household indebtedness, house prices and the macroeconomy: A review of the literature, in Sveriges Riksbank (2011). *The Riksbank's inquiry into the risks in the Swedish housing market*, Sveriges Riksbank, Åtta.45 Tryckeri, Stockholm.

Fornell, C. and Larcker, D. G. (1981). Evaluating Structural Equation Models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18 (1, February): 39-50.

Friedman, M. (1957). A Theory of the Consumption Function. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Gerbing, D.W., and Anderson, J.C. (1988). An updated paradigm for scale development incorporating unidimensionality and its assessment, *Journal of Marketing Research*, 25(2), 186-192.

Gollier, C. (2002). What does classical theory have to say about household portfolios? In: Guiso, L., Haliassos, M., and Japelli, T. (2002). *Household Portfolios*, Cambridge: MIT Press.

Grable, J.E., Lytton, R.H., and O'Neill, B. (2004). Projection bias and financial risk tolerance. *The Journal of Behavioral Finance*, 5, 142-147.

Green, W.H. (2003). Econometric Analysis. Fifth Edition. Prentice Hall. New Jersey.

Guiso, L., Haliassos, M., and Japelli, T. (2002). Household Portfolios, Cambridge: MIT Press.

Guiso, L., and Paiella, M. (2008). Risk aversion, wealth and background risk. *Journal of the European Economic Association*, vol. 6 (December), 1109-1150.

Hanna, S.D., and Chen, P. (1997). Subjective and objective risk tolerance. Implications for optimal portfolios. *Financial Counceling and Planning*, 8, pp. 17-26.

Hallahan, T.A., Faff, R.W., and McKenzie, M.D., (2004). An empirical investigation of personal financial risk tolerance. *Financial Services Review*, 8, pp. 163-181.

Heckman, J. (1979), Sample Selection as a Specification Error". Econometrica, 47 (1), 153-161

Hunter, D.R, (2002). *Risk Perception and risk tolerance in aircraft pilots*, Report No. DOT/FAA/AM-02/17 (Washington, DC: Office of the Aerospace Medicine, Federal Aviation Administration, September, 2002):2.

Kahneman, D. and Tversky, A. (1979). *Prospect theory: An analysis of decision under risk. Econometrica,* Vol. 47, No. 2, pp. 263-91.

Loomes, G., and Pogrebna, G. (2014). Measuring individual risk attitudes when preferences are imprecise. *The Economic Journal*, 124 (May), 569-593.

Nagano, M., and Yeom, D-H. (2014). Another determinant of household leverage: Evidence from Japan's mortgage loan data, *International Review of Finance*, 14:1, 105-139.

Roszkowski, M.J., and Davey, G. (2010). Risk perception and risk tolerance changes attributable to the 2008 economic crisis: A subtle but critical difference. *Journal of Financial Services Professionals*, 64, 42-53.

Sveriges Riksbank (2011), *The Riksbank's inquiry into the risks in the Swedish housing market*. Sveriges Riksbank, Åtta.45 Tryckeri AB. Stockholm.

Turinetti, E., and Zhuang, H. (2011). Exploring determinants of US household debt. *The Journal of Applied Business Research*, vol. 27 (6),85-91.

Tversky, A., and Fox, C.R. (1995). Weighing risk and uncertainty, Psychological Review, 102 (2), 269-283.

Van der Venter, G., Michayluk, D., and Davey, G. (2012). A longitudinal study of financial risk tolerance. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 33, pp.394-800.

Wärneryd, K-E. (1996). Risk attitudes and risky behavior. Journal of Economic Psychology, 17, pp.747-770.

Wärneryd, K.-E. (1999). The psychology of saving – A study on economic psychology. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Yao, R., Hanna, S.D., and Lindamood, S. (2004). Changes in financial risk tolerance, 1983-2001. *Financial Services Review*, 13, 249-266.

Yao, R., Sharpe, D.L. and Wang, F. (2011). Decomposing the age effect on risk tolerance. *The Journal of Socio-Economics*, Vol. 40, pp. 879-887.

APPENDICES

A1. OLS regression on Total Debt with focus on Risk Preference

Variables	Description	Risk only		Model 1+Der	mographic	Model 2+Fir	nancials	Model 3 + Sl	kills
		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
		Coefficients	t-stat	Coefficients	t-stat	Coefficients	s t-stat	Coefficients	t-stat
Intercept		174765	25,30	137780	4,47	54635	1,76	77102	2,10
Risk tolerance	cf. 1= Low Risk Preference								
2	2= Medium Risk Preference	139970	13,55	57581	5,48	24483	2,54	6793	0,61
3	3= High Risk Preference	384295	13,71	227763	8,91	175228	6,74	132834	5,32
Age	cf. Group 18-24								
25-34				177491	7,35	24111	1,18	-2796	-0,13
35-54				361084	15,15	60401	3,11	47852	2,35
55-64				269292	9,84	-21559	-0,61	-35795	-0,98
65-74				110933	6,19	-90083	-5,18	-122753	-6,15
75>				282243	1,66	-75146	-4,33	-101704	-5,01
Gender	Male=1 Female=0			255682	18,18	205053	12,16	199430	11,14
Family status	cf. Group Singles								
Single w.children	1			133834	4,01	74993	2,64	78840	2,67
Couple w.children				33232	2,61	-44898	-4,07	-55325	-4,60
Couple w/o children				163636	8,89	15094	0,74	9615	0,46
Other				-21291	-0,64	10448	0,34	19924	0,57
Large city	The four largest cities=1, rest=0			-354604	-11,20	-297676	-9,62	-282598	-9,03
	iddes=1, rest=0								
Homeowner	Homeowner=1					77348	5,12	74642	4,74
Mortgage	Mortgage=1					502703	20,5	509011	19,21
Financial assets	Sum of all fin.assets					0,0094	0,83	0,0022	0,20
	in bank register								
Income	Annual net income					0,4514	3,99	0,2884	2,40
Education	cf. No finalized education								
Pre-gymnasium								5340	0,36
Gymnasium								-40104	-2,57
Higher education < 3yrs								32039	1,01
Higher education >= 3 yrs	I .							75580	3,79
Financial Literacy	cf. 0 answers right								
1	1/6 answer right							-26343	-2,14
2	2/6 answers right							-9098	-0,56
3	3/6 answers right							49540	2,58
4	4/6 answers right							71818	1,57
5	5/6 answers right							104246	3,66
6	6/6 answers right							285094	3,92
Regression		159,5		120,5		243,4		147,6	
F-statistic		0,0000		0,0000		0,0000		0,0000	
R-square		0,0204		0,0825		0,1485		0,1491	
Number of observations		14824		13518		13518		11893	

A2. OLS regression on Total Debt with focus on Objective Risk

Variables	Description	Risk only		Model 1+De	mographic	Model 2+Fir	nancials	Model 3 + Sl	kills
		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
		Coefficient	s t-stat	Coefficients	t-stat	Coefficients	t-stat	Coefficients	t-stat
Intercept		323092	21,85	212504	6,24	110969	3,19	109126	2,82
Risk tolerance	cf. 1= Low Objective Risk								
2	2= Medium Objective Risk	46434	2,59	13748	0,72	-45750	-2,26	-52369	-2,43
3	3= High Objective Risk	412	0,02	-23062	-0,99	-60640	-2,26	-70768	-2,44
Age	cf. Group 18-24								
25-34				186929	7,91	32852	1,61	3965	0,18
35-54				376855	15,97	74407	3,79	62420	2,99
55-64				275098	9,65	-18844	-0,54	-30401	-0,84
65-74				107311	5,83	-95570	-5,69	-125514	-6,29
75>				8189	0,47	-91255	-5,27	-106753	-5,18
Gender	Male=1 Female=0			290248	17,81	227065	11,72	209265	10,76
Family status	cf. Group Singles								
Single w.children	an en eup emgres			132377	4,00	71785	2,58	76974	2,65
Couple w.children				36888	2,9	-44812	-4,09	-57040	-4,77
Couple w/o children				171176	2,3 8,97	17604	0,85	9158	0,44
Other				-26175	-0,77	3542	0,11	12545	0,37
Other				-20173	-0,77	3342	0,11	12343	0,37
Large city	The four largest cities=1, rest=0			-364871	-11,41	-301256	-9,79	-282542	-9,17
Homeowner	Homeowner=1					93412	5,70	84838	5,1
Mortgage	Mortgage=1					505043	20,68	511030	19,37
Financial assets	Sum of all fin.assets					0,0215	1,61	0,0109	0,86
	in bank register								
Income	Annual net income					0,4834	4,38	0,3010	2,55
Education	cf. No finalized education								
Pre-gymnasium								7269	0,49
Gymnasium								-36628	-2,36
Higher education < 3yrs								35527	1,15
Higher education >= 3 yrs	S I							77259	3,89
Financial Literacy	cf. 0 answers right								
1	1/6 answer right							-11507	-0,94
2	2/6 answers right							10424	0,67
3	3/6 answers right							76597	4,17
4	4/6 answers right							103060	2,17
5	5/6 answers right							146013	5,4
6	6/6 answers right							339908	4,48
Regression	Ĭ	4,79		122,06		242,44		147,7	
F-statistic		0,0083		0,0000		0,0000		0,0000	
R-square		0,0005		0,0759		0,1446		0,1472	
Number of observations		14824		13518		13518		12325	

A3. OLS regression on Financial Assets with focus on Risk Preference

Variables	Description	Risk only		Model 1+De	mographics	Model 2+Fi	nancials	Model 3+S	kills
		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
		Coefficient	t-stat	Coefficient	t-stat	Coefficient	t-stat	Coefficient	t-stat
Intercept		375178	25,33	20390	0,51	-77309	-1,88	-151215	-3,42
Risk tolerance	cf. 1= Low Risk Preference								
2	2= Medium Risk Preference	100593	5,55	179849	8,8	158299	8,01	102990	4,47
3	3= High Risk Preference	350415	12,31	417570	13,05	377241	12,64	253748	7,17
Age	cf. Group 18-24								
25-34				37043	2,18	23872	1,13	-5309	-0,22
35-54				213392	10,3	177470	6,49	168796	5,68
55-64				516642	20,89	454987	17,05	447564	15,09
65-74				696165	21,14	598977	16,30	583805	13,29
75>				738012	21,46	605410	17,97	609245	16,68
Gender	Male=1 Female=0			69121	3,53	68761	3,43	25665	1,45
Family status	cf. Group Singles								
Single w.children				-91439	-2,28	-99262	-2,53	-94727	-2,35
Couple w.children				-116380	-3,72	-131714	-4,30	-131436	-4,14
Couple w/o children				-91990	-3,20	-110993	-3,87	-115134	-3,84
Other				-31192	-0,73	-139935	-3,17	-132164	-3,40
Large city	The four largest cities=1, rest=0			-114111	-3,29	-110527	-3,24	-70426	-2,11
Homeowner	Homeowner=1					347193	13,16	296313	9,89
Mortgage	Mortgage=1					-403263	-15,21	-391432	-14,27
Income	Annual net income					0,5512	3,71	0,4117	2,58
Education	cf. No finalized education								
Pre-gymnasium								-26767	-0,84
Gymnasium								66944	1,90
Higher education < 3yrs								34865	1,04
Higher education >= 3 yrs	5							122920	3,29
Financial Literacy	cf. 0 answers right								
1	1/6 answer right							63598	2,50
2	2/6 answers right							89925	3,11
3	3/6 answers right							142818	4,21
4	4/6 answers right							227034	5,32
5	5/6 answers right							354432	6,64
6	6/6 answers right							626138	5,98
Regression		75,80		130,29		101,10		67,37	
F-statistic		0,0000		0,0000		0,0000		0,0000	
R-square		0,0145		0,0705		0,1003		0,1203	
Number of observations		14824		13518		13518		12325	

A4. OLS regression on Financial Assets with focus on Objective Risk

Variables	Description	Risk only		Model 1+Der	nographics	Model 2+Fin	ancials	Model 3 + Sk	tills
		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
		Coefficient	t-stat	Coefficient	t-stat	Coefficient	t-stat	Coefficient	t-stat
Intercept		218538	33,44	44387	1,18	-66398	-1,75	-154938	-3,54
Risk tolerance	cf. 1= Low Objective Risk								
2	2= Medium Objective Risk	330080	19,89	324932	18,45	299332	16,36	276652	14,68
3	3= High Objective Risk	540293	25,72	510227	23,35	492362	23,48	453448	20,71
Age	cf. Group 18-24								
25-34				5761	0,33	-6737	-0,32	-38310	-1,58
35-54				94222	4,43	64062	2,32	63555	2,07
55-64				374179	15,52	324740	12,24	331319	11,01
65-74				541316	17,66	461482	12,99	461850	10,62
75>				558240	17,00 17,75	446402	13,96	472382	12,76
75>				330240	17,73	440402	13,30	472362	12,70
Gender	Male=1 Female=0			144423	7,86	131435	6,79	69344	4,12
Family status	cf. Group Singles								
Single w.children				-90223	-2,24	-98900	-2,51	-95015	-2,35
Couple w.children				-103718	-3,36	-115273	-3,82	-115239	-3,70
Couple w/o children				-89455	-3,11	-103643	-3,65	-107808	-3,63
Other				-47590	-1,14	-144550	-3,34	-128451	-3,36
Large city	The four largest			-144129	-4,11	-132103	-3,83	-86539	-2,59
	cities=1, rest=0								
Homeowner	Homeowner=1					310683	11,79	263954	8,63
Mortgage	Mortgage=1					-408515	-14,71	-392671	-14,12
Total Debt	Sum of all outstanding					0,0259	1,12	0,0120	0,67
	loans in bank register								
Income	Annual net income					0,6035	4,03	0,4336	2,70
Education	cf. No finalized education								
Pre-gymnasium								-35595	1,35
Gymnasium								52538	1,53
Higher education < 3yrs								26893	0,82
Higher education >= 3 yrs	S							115273	3,15
Financial Literacy	cf. 0 answers right								
1	1/6 answer right							33191	1,35
2	2/6 answers right							74612	2,76
3	3/6 answers right							130029	
4	4/6 answers right							221016	4,19 5,52
5	5/6 answers right							356114	5,52 7,18
6	6/6 answers right							642840	6,53
Regression	o, o anowers right	473,09		139,49		109,73		72,67	0,33
F-statistic		0,0000		0,0000		0,0000		0,0000	
, statistic		0,0000		0,000		0,000		0,0000	
R-square		0,0416		0,0886		0,1188		0,1416	
Number of observations		14824		13518		13518		12325	

A5. Questionnaire related to financial literacy

How high is	the Riksbank	a's inflation tai	get?	
□1.0%	□2.0%	□3.0%	□Do not know	
If there is a	risk that infla	tion will excee	d the inflation target, what should the Riksbank	do?
□ Lower the	e repo rate 🗆	Raise the repo	rate □ Do nothing □ Do not know	
If the noming be (approxi		te is 5% and th	ne expected inflation is 2%, how high will the real	l interest rate
□ 2. 5%	□ 3.0%	□ 7 . 0 %	□ Do not know	
equity mark	xet, is called: nd □ Hedge	fund 🗆 Equi	ty-linked security Do not know	
the highest		ent risk ieveis;	which of these mutual fund types is generally vio	ewed as naving
□ Balanced		ond fund \Box	Equity fund	
The definiti	on of the P/E	-ratio is:		
□ Price per	share divided	by earning pe	r share	
□ Price per	share divided	by own capita	l per share	
□ Price per	share divided	by the sales p	er share	
□ Do not kn	iow			

# of right answers	Frequency	Percent	Cum.
0	3002	20.42	20.42
1	3360	22.85	43.27
2	2490	16.94	60.21
3	2116	14.39	74.60
4	1693	11.51	86.11
5	1234	8.39	94.50
6	808	5.50	100.00
Total	14703	100.00	