

ProfNet TextService

-Prüfbericht-



Münster, den 22.04.2024



ProfNet TextService - Zusammenfassung

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 Prüfbericht
 258497
 22.04.2024
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• Autor	Dr. Sarah Wagenknecht	
• Titel	The Limits of Choice. Saving D ...	
• Typ	Dissertation	
• Abgabetermin	31.12.2013	
• Hochschule	TU Chemnitz	
• Fachbereich	Fakultät für Wirtschaftswissenschaften	
• Studiengang		
• Fachrichtung	VWL	
• Erstgutachter		
• Zweitgutachter		
• Prüfdatum	22.04.2024	
• Dateigröße	592.729	• Abbildungsverzeichnis <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
• Seiten	323	• Abkürzungsverzeichnis <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
• Absätze	738	• Anhang <input type="checkbox"/>
• Sätze	4.464	• Eidesstattliche Erklärung <input type="checkbox"/>
• Wörter	83.487	• Inhaltsverzeichnis <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
• Zeichen	460.195	• Literaturverzeichnis <input type="checkbox"/>
• Abbildungen	2	• Quellenverzeichnis <input type="checkbox"/>
• Tabellen	0	• Stichwortverzeichnis <input type="checkbox"/>
• Fußnoten	38	• Sperrvermerk <input type="checkbox"/>
• Literatur (geplant)	0	• Symbolverzeichnis <input type="checkbox"/>
• Wörter (netto)	76.797	• Tabellenverzeichnis <input type="checkbox"/>
		• Vorwort <input type="checkbox"/>

Analysetyp	Indizien
• Ähnlichkeitsplagiat	4
• Bauernopfer-Absatz	5
• Bauernopfer-Satz	12
• Bauernopfer-Wort	1
• Teilplagiat	2
• Zitat-Veränderung	8
• Zitierungsfehler	5
Anteil Fremdtex te (netto): 0 % (356 von 76.797 Wörtern)	
• Phrase-allgemein	728
• Phrase-fachspezifisch	320
• Phrase-Redewendung	1
• Zitat-Fremdtext-ohne Quelle	6
• Zitat-Fremdtext-vollständig	7
• Zitat-im Text-ohne Quelle	13
• Zitat-im Text-vollständig	8
Anteil Fremdtex te (brutto): 7 % (6.159 von 83.487 Wörtern)	

● **20%** Gesamtplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit

Alle Ergebnisse dieses Reports werden von der Software automatisch berechnet, so dass alle Angaben jeweils den Stand der Software-Entwicklung wiedergeben.

ProfNet TextService - Ergebnisse Textanalyse (Indizien/netto/alle Analysen)

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Kriterium	Dimension	Prüfdokument	Erstgutachter	Fachbereich	Hochschule	Fachrichtung	Beiträge	Seminararbeiten	Bachelorarbeiten	Diplomarbeiten	Masterarbeiten	Dissertationen	Habilitationen	alle
Dokumente	Anzahl	1	0	1	3	251	6927	1312	9316	10123	2566	49176	1426	1796149
Abbildungen	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	2	0	0	13	5	0	2	9	8	6	6	2	1
Absätze	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	738	0	875	501	527	139	114	215	339	305	559	475	285
Fußnoten	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	38	0	419	157	167	14	35	57	63	58	120	96	30
Literatur (geplant)	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	3	1	1
Sätze	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	4464	0	3296	1896	2213	452	477	938	1442	1398	2521	2031	953
Seiten	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	323	0	175	129	159	22	30	69	101	94	167	116	56
Tabellen	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	0	0	0	7	5	0	0	2	3	3	4	1	1
Wörter	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	83487	0	52582	28337	36986	7961	7417	14627	22307	22635	40598	32904	15956
Zeichen	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	460195	0	377906	204114	259158	48728	49045	97143	148631	147627	271392	223017	103263
Zitate	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	64	0	448	562	209	47	60	96	155	165	235	199	99



Die statistischen Ergebnisse der Textanalyse des Prüfdokumentes werden mit den Ergebnissen aller analysieren Texte verglichen.

ProfNet TextService - Ergebnisse Textvergleich (Indizien/alle Vergleiche)

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Kriterium	Dimension	Prüfdokument	Erstgutachter	Fachbereich	Hochschule	Fachrichtung	Beiträge	Seminararbeiten	Bachelorarbeiten	Diplomarbeiten	Masterarbeiten	Dissertationen	Habilitationen	alle
Dokumente	Anzahl	1	0	1	3	206	329	297	6668	7603	1863	39046	1078	147698
Ähnlichkeitsplagiat	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	4	0	0	0	3	4	0	8	1	9	4	4	3
Bauernopfer-Absatz	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	5	0	6	2	3	0	0	1	2	2	4	2	2
Bauernopfer - Satz	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	12	0	2	4	31	7	3	13	13	13	35	26	19
Bauernopfer - Zitat	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1
Eigenplagiat	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	0	0	0	0	1	5	1	0	0	0	1	3	2
Mischpl.-eine	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
Mischpl.-mehrere	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	0	0	1	0	2	2	0	1	1	1	3	2	2
Teilplagiat	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	2	0	4	2	10	5	2	4	5	5	10	8	6
Zitatveränderung	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	8	0	19	6	4	1	1	1	2	3	3	4	2
Zitierungsfehler	Anzahl (Durchschnitt)	5	0	8	3	8	1	3	10	5	6	10	10	6

● **20%** Gesamtplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit

Die Textvergleichsergebnisse des Prüfdokumentes werden mit allen analysierten Texten verglichen. Die Plagiatswahrscheinlichkeit wird grob vom Programm automatisch berechnet.

Textstelle (Prüfdokument) S. 35

from wealth accumulation as in the German statistics. FOF saving by households exactly corresponds to their net acquisition of **financial assets** plus net investment in tangible assets minus net increase in liabilities of the personal sector. **Financial assets** include **foreign deposits, checkable deposits and currency, time and savings deposits, money market fund shares, open market papers, U.S. saving bonds, other treasury securities, agencybacked and GSE-backed securities, municipal securities, corporate and foreign bonds, corporate equities, mutual fund shares** as well as net contributions to life insurances and pension funds. Tangible assets mainly correspond to residential investment. Additionally, they cover consumer durables such as automobiles and investment as well as inventories of unincorporated

Textstelle (Originalquellen)

the Flow of Funds Accounts? It comes from a wide variety of public and private sources. For example, information on lending and Asset and Liability Items 1980 1990 2000 2006* 1. Total **Financial Assets** \$6,602.2 \$14,827.7 \$33,108.4 \$39,806.3 2. Deposits 1,520.7 3,259.3 4,394.9 6,251.4 3. **Foreign deposits** 0.0 13.4 48.3 66.9 4. **Checkable deposits and currency** 219.5 412.4 279.4 338.5 5. **Time and savings deposits** 1,239.0 2,465.0 3,062.4 4,889.2 6. **Money market fund shares** 62.2 368.6 959.8 956.7 7. Credit market instruments 425.4 1,555.3 2,345.7 3,215.9 8. **Open market paper** 38.3 63.2 97.3 169.3 9. Treasury securities 160.0 471.2 584.0 464.2 10. Savings **bonds** 72.5 126.2 184.8 205.9 11. **Other Treasury securities** 87.5 345.0 399.3 258.2 12. Federal agency securities 5.3 68.9 509.0 691.3 13. Municipal securities 104.5 575.0 539.3 860.1 14. Corporate and foreign bonds 30.0 233.5 548.8 854.2 15. Mortgages 87.2 143.5 117.3 176.8 16. Corporate equities 875.4 1,781.4 8035.6 5,684.5 17. Mutual fund shares 45.6 456.6 2,855.9 4,537.4 18. Security

Reserve Board, "Flow of Fund Accounts," December 2010. www.federalreserve.gov Total Assets \$5,052.5 100.0% Checkable deposits and currency 55.7 1.1 Money market fund shares 25.7 0.5 Credit market instruments 3,118.6 61.7 Open market paper 36.3 0.7 Treasury securities 161.8 3.2 Agency- and **GSE-backed securities** 360.7 7.1 **Municipal securities** 76.7 1.5 **Corporate and foreign bonds** 2,004.2 39.7 Policy loans and advances 160.9 3.2 Mortgages 318.0 6.3 **Corporate equities** 1,321.8 26.2 **Mutual fund shares** 144.1 2.8 Miscellaneous assets 386.6 7.7 Total Liabilities \$4,712.5 93.3% Other loans and advances 45.3 0.9 Life insurance reserves 1,252.2 24.8 Pension Fund Reserves \$2,410.6 47.7% Taxes payable 32.0 0.6 Miscellaneous liabilities 1,036.4 20.5 Figure 18 1

- 1 Rose, Peter S./Marquis, Milton H.: ..., 2008, S. 82
- 2 Mishkin, Frederic/Eakins, Stanley (...), 2011, S. 558

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● 59% Einzelplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit

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the data is questionable and has been strongly criticised, among others by Atkinson & Brandolini (2001). The authors argue that rather different types of figures are mixed up in the World Bank data set. **The University- of Texas' Inequality Project (UTIP) has produced an alternative global inequality data set, based on the Industrial Statistics database published annually by the UN Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO).** These data do not measure income inequality in general, but the dispersion of wages in the manufacturing sector. The trends clearly conflict

Textstelle (Originalquellen)

single year. We think changes of such speed and magnitudes are unlikely, except when they coincide with moments of major social upheaval. **The University of Texas Inequality Project (UTIP) has produced an alternative global inequality data set, based on the Industrial Statistics database published annually by the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO).** This data set has approximately 3,200 observations over 36 years (1963-1999). It is also

- 3 Galbraith, James K./Kum, Hyunsub: E..., 2003, S. 3

● 15% Einzelplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit

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of PSID data from 1982 to 1991 Sabelhaus & Groen (2000) find hardly any indicator of sizeable income mobility. Computing permanent income as the average (growth adjusted) annual income of a household over the ten year period covered by the data, they conclude that, "...a family whose permanent income places it in the bottom decile ... has a 69.6 % chance of being in the bottom annual decile... It has a 23.8% chance of being in the second annual decile..., a 4.2% chance of being in the third annual decile"³ and a much smaller chance of being in any of the fourth through tenth annual deciles. They summarise, "...that families decile rankings are relatively stable, particularly among the very 73 poor and very rich. About 70% of the permanent poor are annual poor, and about 70% of the permanent rich are annual rich. Almost all income variability is restricted to plus or minus one decile. There is almost no overlap between the extremes of the permanent and annual income distribution. ..."⁴ The assumption of a strong persistency in the income position is confirmed by available income-mobility tables in other countries. Of course, to accept this general proposition does not mean to deny any change in relative income over the life

● 38% Einzelplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit

Textstelle (Originalquellen)

less than \$7,600, table 2) has a 69.6% chance of being in the bottom annual decile (less than \$6,420). It has a 23.8 % chance of being in the second annual decile (between \$7,660 and \$11,750), a 4.2% chance of being in the third annual decile, and a much smaller chance of being in any of the fourth through tenth annual deciles. A similar decomposition for annual income groups can be read off the rows of table 3. Again, a family whose annual income places them in the bottom decile in a given year has a 69.6%

average consumption in the bottom permanent³ income group) + (0.171) X (average consumption in the³ second permanent income group) + (0.067) X (average³ consumption in the third permanent income group), and so³ on.⁸³ Table 3 suggests that families' decile rankings are relatively stable, particularly among the very poor and very rich.³ Assuming income is measured without error, one would³ conclude that about 70% of the permanent poor are annual³ poor, and about 70% of the permanent rich are annual rich.³ Almost all income variability is restricted to plus or minus³ one decile. There is virtually no overlap between the³ extremes of the permanent and annual income distributions,³ although it is much more likely for a permanent-rich person³ to have a bad year and show up in the lower annual deciles³ than for a permanent-poor person to

- 4 Sabelhaus, John/Groen, Jeffrey A.: ..., 2000, S. 0
- 4 Sabelhaus, John/Groen, Jeffrey A.: ..., 2000, S.

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of a minority, might be responsible for lower average saving. In any case, to assume that saving efforts cease as a consequence of prospering wealth holdings clearly conflicts empirical evidence at the microeconomic level. Percentage of families holding any financial asset **Median value of holdings for families holding financial assets (thousands of 2001 dollars) All families** Percentile of income **Less than 20** Percentile of net **Less than 25** Table 1. Financial Wealth Holdings, Source: SCF 2001¹ Although the richest save overproportionally, extremely high levels of wealth are hardly accumulated by a single household alone. Most literature scrutinising the relevance

Textstelle (Originalquellen)

or Hispanic Current work status of head Working for someone else Self-employed Retired Other not working Housing status Owner Renter or other Percentiles of net worth Less than 25 25 49.9 50 74.9 75 89.9 90 100 **Median value of holdings for families holding asset (thousands of 1998 dollars) All families** Income (1998 dollars) **Less than 10,000** 10,000 24,999 25,000 49,999 50,000 99,999 100,000 or more Age of head (years) Less than 35 35 44 45 54 55 64 65 74 75 or more Race or ethnicity of respondent White non-Hispanic Nonwhite or Hispanic Current work status of

- 5 Kennickell, A.B./Starr-McCluer, M.:..., 2000, S. 17

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● 20% Einzelplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit

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wealth, while the remaining third is the result of saving. Atkinson (1971) and Oulton (1976) analyse **how much of** British wealth inequality could be explained by Life-cycle-saving. Their answer: **very little. After taking into account the inequality in earning profiles and realized rates of 1 SCF 2001 77 return, Oulton concludes:** "The results indicate that none of these factors, neither singly nor in combination are capable of accounting for a substantial proportion of actual wealth inequality."⁷ Other authors (e.g. Modigliani (1988)) provide lower estimates for the role of **intergenerational transfers**; however, these studies account for wealth accumulation out of revenues from inherited or transferred fortune as part of **life-cycle** saving, not as part of transfer wealth.

⁷ Oulton (1976)

Textstelle (Originalquellen)

models to determine **how much of** observed British inequality of wealth may be explained by this theory. The answer is, **very little. After taking into account inequality in ageearnings profiles and realized rates of return, Oulton concludes,** "results indicate that none of these factors, either singly or in combination, are capable of accounting for a substantial proportion of actual wealth inequality" (1976, p. 99). Section I presents a theoretical framework for considering the importance of **intergenerational transfers** to aggregate capital accumulation. Section II discusses the procedure to estimate the stock of **life-cycle** wealth. The data

- 6 Kotlikoff, Laurence J./Summers, Law..., 1981, S. 708

● 13% Einzelplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit

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literature. Even by exploiting the same data sets, studies have drawn completely divergent conclusions. Most of them differ considerably in the derivation of what is considered to be the predictable component of income growth. As Browning & Lusardi (1996) emphasise, only **very few studies present measures of fit for the auxiliary equation used to predict income growth**; those who do **report very low** R-squares.¹ Authors who took special **care to increase** the predictive power of their estimation find stronger evidence of excess sensitivity. However, if relative income is in reality more relevant with respect

¹ (Browning/Lusardi 1996)

Textstelle (Originalquellen)

findings are the result of low power rather than a nonrejection of the orthogonality conditions. There is also other evidence that many tests of excess sensitivity may have low power. **Very few studies present measures of fit for the auxiliary equation used to predict income growth** but those that do (Altonji and Siow 1987; Lusardi 1996; and Attanasio and Guglielmo Weber 1995) **report very low** R²'s. In the three cases where authors take especial **care to increase**

- 7 Browning, Martin/Lusardi, Annamaria..., 1996, S. 1834

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long-term income expectations, the degree of uncertainty about the development of income in the future appears to have an impact on current saving decisions. The major problem of economic research exploring **the role of uncertainty**, however, **is to identify an observable and exogenous source of risk that varies** sufficiently across the population to analyse this effect. Similar to the case of income expectations, measures of uncertainty used in the regressions differ widely across studies. Consequently, the results diverge as well. Carroll (1994) finds "...**that consumption responds strongly to uncertainty in future income**" and therefore "**consumers with greater income uncertainty, ceteris paribus, have lower current consumption.**"¹¹ The author estimates that one standard deviation increase in uncertainty decreases consumption by 3 to 5 percent. Skinner (1988) and Kuehlwein (1991), in contrast, using CEX and PSID data, find no evidence of a precautionary motive at all. Guiso, Jappelli, Terlizzese (1992a), employing Italian statistical

Textstelle (Originalquellen)

side variables and measures of risk have been used. The central problem that faces anyone who wishes to determine **the role of** precautionary saving in this way **is to identify** some **observable and exogenous source of risk that varies** significantly across the population. All three adjectives (observable, exogenous, and variable) are operative here. As regards observability: we obviously need to observe either some measure of risk directly or

current consumption is influenced by predictable changes in income. On the other hand, further investigation finds that the degree of uncertainty in future income does have an important effect: **consumers with greater income uncertainty, ceteris paribus, have lower current consumption.** These two results seem contradictory, because the first suggests that consumers ignore the future and the second indicates that they prudently prepare against future contingencies. I argue, however, that both

- 7 Browning, Martin/Lusardi, Annamaria..., 1996, S. 1835
- 8 Carroll, Christopher D.: How Does F..., 1994, S. 00

● **26%** Einzelplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit

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than those over the age profile within the same income class. Indeed, no stylized pattern in saving rates over the age profile across income classes is found."¹³ Other authors in Poterba (1994) almost unanimously confirm this proposition. Poterba summarises, that "...the country studies provide very little evidence that supports the lifecycle model"¹⁴. Exploring German data, Fachinger (2001) finds that the variance of income shares spent for different kinds of consumption (including the share of income that is not spent but saved) is significantly smaller within income deciles than within age groups. Moreover, Banks & Blundell (1994), analysing UK data, find the elderly not only continuing to save this is a common finding in all studies included in Poterba et al. (1994)

13 Takayama, Kitamura (1994)

14 Poterba et al. (1994)

Textstelle (Originalquellen)

falls.¹² Negative reports on the life-cycle hypothesis when tested in other countries (e.g. Canada, Japan, Italy, and the United Kingdom) led James Poterba to summarize this research by stating "country studies provide very little evidence that supports the life-cycle model" [Poterba 1994: 7]. Franco Modigliani countered this conclusion by pointing out that these studies defined income and wealth too narrowly. All the income produced by labor should be

- 9 Sutch, Richard: Hard Work, Nonemplo..., 2011, S. 82

● 0% Einzelplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit

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continuing to save this is a common finding in all studies included in Poterba et al. (1994) but being in fact the only age group displaying positive saving rates in all income quartiles. Danziger et al. (1983) reach a similar result reporting that "...the elderly spend less than the nonelderly at the same level of income and (with) the very oldest of the elderly having the lowest average propensity to consume."¹⁵ If there is a stylised fact concerning saving during the life-cycle, an increasing propensity to save in higher ages may be noted. 87

1.4.9 Saving Motives Finally, let us consider the saving motives which are explicitly mentioned in opinion polls. Out

¹⁵ Danziger et al. (1983)

Textstelle (Originalquellen)

holding tends to increase with age. Thurow reports positive saving rates for persons in all age groups, while Danziger et.al. report that saving rates increase with age with "...the elderly spend(ing) less than the nonelderly at the same level of income and (with) the very oldest of the elderly having the lowest average propensity to consume". A number of questions can be raised about these and other analyses of age wealth profiles including possible selection biases and their failure to take account of the effects of

- 10 Kotlikoff, Laurence J./Summers, Law..., 1986, S. 4

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is a stylised fact concerning saving during the life-cycle, an increasing propensity to save in higher ages may be noted. 87 1.4.9 Saving Motives Finally, let us consider the saving motives which are explicitly mentioned in opinion polls. Out of the consumers who participated in the Federal Reserve Board's 1983 Survey of Consumer Finances, 43 percent said that being prepared for emergencies is their most important reason for saving; only 15 percent stated that preparing for retirement is the primary saving goal. Once more in 2001, maintaining liquidity was mentioned as the most important saving motive by 31.2 percent of the respondents. Yet, saving for retirement is the primary

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the "consumption/ income divergence" first documented in the 1930s; and the stability of the household age/wealth profile over time despite the unpredictability of idiosyncratic wealth changes. I. INTRODUCTION Of the consumers who participated in the Federal Reserve Board's 1983 Survey of Consumer Finances, 43 percent said that being prepared for emergencies was the most important reason for saving. Only 15 percent said that preparing for retirement was the most important saving motive.¹ These are not the answers that standard interpretations of the Life Cycle/Permanent Income

- 11 Carroll, Christopher D.: Buffer-Sto..., 1997, S. 2024

● 61% Einzelplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit

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schedule guiding desired consumption growth: (2.21) Hence, the magnitude of the response of consumption growth to differentials between the real interest rate and the rate of time preference is the reciprocal of the elasticity of the marginal utility of consumption, i.e. the intertemporal elasticity of substitution. The effect of a change in the interest rate on the desired rate of consumption growth, consistently, is called the substitution effect. 101 The income effect, on the other hand, concerns the level of consumption. Clearly, for a consumer that saves or runs into debt, the entire level of lifetime-consumption changes with the rate of interest. Hence, an increase in the interest rate will increase the desired rate of

Textstelle (Originalquellen)

changed interest rates with little change in consumption. Note that if the felicity functions take the isoelastic form (1.11) for parameter $\eta > 0$, then the elasticity of the marginal utility of consumption is $-\eta$ and the intertemporal elasticity of substitution is $1/\eta$. The curvature of the utility function plays an important role in consumer theory in general since it controls attitudes towards risk, and indeed the standard Arrow Pratt coefficient

- 12 Deaton, Angus: Understanding Consum..., 1993, S. 6

● 13% Einzelplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit

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given conditions, marginal consumption evolves as a random walk. It is a walk with trend if **time preference** and **interest rate** differ, and a trendless walk if they are equal. In the latter case including appropriate assumptions about the error distribution the **stochastic process governing marginal utility is a martingale: this period's expectation** of the next period's marginal utility is equal to the current value of **marginal utility**. **If the** expectation is fulfilled, consumption remains constant otherwise current consumption, and hence **expectations of the next period's** consumption, will be adjusted according to modified **expectations of** life-time wealth. An important special case occurs when we

● **26%** Einzelplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit

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felicity functions are independent of age see equation (8) without the z_t variables. If the real **interest rate** is constant and equal to the rate of **time-preference** ?, (45) becomes (1.46) The **stochastic process governing marginal utility is a martingale; this period's expectation of next period's marginal utility** is equal to the current value of marginal utility, as indeed are the current **expectations of** all future values of marginal utility. **If the**

- 12 Deaton, Angus: Understanding Consum..., 1993, S. 26

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habits and to introduce them into the general model is given by Deaton (1992). In this approach utility depends directly on a stock variable, **which might** be a **psychological stock of habits** or simply a **stock of durable goods**, both affecting **the utility obtained from current consumption**. Such a model could look like:² (2.59) where the state variable $S(t)$ itself evolves **with** current consumption, **governed by** the rule: (2.60) Here, δ **can be thought of as a depreciation parameter**. The parameter α has to exceed zero, while β should be positive if we deal with habits reducing the utility of a certain consumption level, and negative if durable goods

² (Deaton 1992)

Textstelle (Originalquellen)

say, **which might** represent the **stock of durable goods**, or more vaguely, a **psychological stock of habits** or of preference capital the presence of which affects **the utility to be obtained from current consumption**. The state variable itself evolves with current consumption. For example, write preferences as (1.34) **with** the evolution of stocks **governed by** (1.35) where δ **can be thought of as a depreciation parameter**. Stocks or habits wear off over time, but grow with consumption. In the simplest form

- 12 Deaton, Angus: Understanding Consum..., 1993, S. 16

● 12% Einzelplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit

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modelled in continuous time and, for simplicity, is non-stochastic. The employed instantaneous utility function is: (2.61) where C is the instantaneous flow of consumption, h denotes the stock of habits and y indexes the importance of habits. If $y = 0$, only the level of consumption is important as in the standard CRRA model, while if $y = 1$, consumption relative to the habit stock is all that matters. Realistically, values between the two extremes should be used. The stock of habits is assumed to evolve according to the equation of motion: (2.62) So, the habit stock is a weighted average of past consumption with a determining the relative weights of consumption at different times. The infinite horizon felicity function, based on (2.61), is: (2.63) If, additionally, a budget constraint is included, the problem can be solved analytically. The outcome differs considerably from the usual Euler equation determining consumption growth. Now, the optimal rate of change of consumption growth is determined as a function of the taste parameters and the real rate of return r . This result arises because

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stock of habits, c is the instantaneous flow of consumption, a is the coefficient of relative risk aversion, and y indexes the importance of habits. If $y = 0$ then only the absolute level of consumption is important (the standard CRRA model), while if $y = 1$, then consumption relative to the habit stock is all that matters. For values of y between zero and one, both the absolute and the relative levels are important. For example, if $y = 0.5$, then a person with consumption of 2 and habit stock of 1 would
of 1 would have the same utility as a person with both consumption and habit stock equal to 4. Finally, we assume $0 < y < 1$ and $0 < p < 1$. The stock of habits evolves according to (2) $\dot{h} = p(c - h)$. Thus, the habit stock is a weighted average of past consumption, with the parameter p determining the relative weights of consumption at different times. We assume $0 < p$. The larger is p , the more important is consumption in the recent past. If $p = 0.1$, for example, then the half-life with which habits would adjust toward a permanent change

- 13 Carroll, Christopher D./Overland, J..., 2000, S. 345

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current consumption, as in the standard framework, but also by the growth rate of consumption due to its effect on c/hy . Therefore, the intertemporal evolution of the growth rate of consumption as such must satisfy an optimality condition. Hence, habit-forming consumers will have a desire to smooth consumption growth rates for the same reasons that Modigliani/Hall-consumers have a desire to smooth the level of consumption. Consequently, the model predicts a different response of saving rates to growth than the standard framework. In the latter, higher income growth

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of the growth rate must satisfy an optimality condition, just as in the Ramsey model the temporal evolution of the level of consumption must satisfy an optimality condition. Intuitively, habit-forming consumers will desire to smooth consumption growth rates for essentially the same reasons that ¹⁰ We are treating the economy as closed to international borrowing and lending here, both because it is hard to make sense

- 13 Carroll, Christopher D./Overland, J..., 2000, S. 346

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subsequent labour income and consumption to conclude that at most 29 percent of U.S. private net worth is dedicated to future consumption. This contradiction has been widely neglected in the recent saving literature. One of the exemptions is Carroll (2000c), who acknowledges "that the saving behaviour of the richest households cannot be explained by models in which the only purpose of wealth accumulation is to finance future consumption, either their own or that of heirs."³ Carroll, proposing a "Capitalist Spirit"-model, suggests including wealth as such in the utility function. Wealth is considered a luxury good, only becoming relevant if high levels are already reached. As private wealth creation is the source as well as the outcome of capital accumulation in the current economic system, the volume of financial wealth must definitely not be restricted to the purpose of being eaten up in a later lifespan since under these circumstances it would never reach the level

³ Carroll (2000c)

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higher levels of lifetime income ('the rich') have higher lifetime saving rates (Dynan, Skinner, and Zeldes (1995)); Lillard and Karoly (1997)). The paper argues that the saving behavior of the richest households cannot be explained by models in which the only purpose of wealth accumulation is to finance future consumption, either their own or that of heirs. The paper concludes that the simplest model that explains the relevant facts is one in which either consumers regard the accumulation of wealth as an end in itself, or

- 14 Carroll, Christopher D.: Why Do the..., 1998, S. 0

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demand system. Hence, although the homotheticity assumption is of undeniable convenience, realism strongly suggests a departing from it. 136 concerning the possibility of aggregation is not only true for homothetic CES-utility, but for a more general class of "quasi-homothetic" or "hyperbolic absolute risk aversion" (HARA) preferences. The perfect foresight assumption, of course, has to be preserved. The general structure of marginal utility under HARA-preferences is: (2.75) This functional form includes CRRA-preferences where $c^* = 0$ and $\beta = a > 0$, quadratic utility with $G = 1$, and constant absolute risk aversion (CARA) utility with $a = c_0$ and $c = 1$. The important property of HARA-preferences is a linear relationship between current and future consumption. This can be shown as follows: if marginal utility has the form of equation (2.75), we can write $u'(c) = \beta Q(c)$, where $Q(\cdot)$ is a power function and $g(\cdot)$ is an affine (constant slope) function. Therefore, the Euler equation can be written as: (2.76) Rearranging terms gives: (2.77) The function on the right-hand side of this expression is linear in $c(t+1)$, since the slope of $g(\cdot)$ and of its inverse $g^{-1}(\cdot)$ is constant. Hence, individual consumption levels in adjoining periods are linked in a linear way. If additionally $r(t+1)$ and p are assumed to be equal for all individuals, the Euler equation can simply be aggregated by replacing individual consumption by aggregate consumption. The same is true with respect to lifetime-income. $c(t) = g$ rent consumption and life-time income is linear under HARA-preferences. HARA-preferences are called quasi-homothetic, since they generally guarantee a linear income expansion path, although other than in the constant elasticity of substitution case this path

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promote individual savings. The first part of this paper demonstrates that existing models have difficulties explaining income expansion paths for saving rates and equity shares. I consider the case of hyperbolic absolute risk aversion (HARA) preferences and of (standard) loss aversion (SLA) preferences. These are the most promising candidates among existing preference models for explaining how total and equity savings vary with income.

using dynamic programming. Closed form solutions obtain when returns are generated by a Brownian motion process, and for HARA utility functions, a class that includes constant relative risk aversion (CRRA) and constant absolute risk aversion (CARA). One important result that emerges from Merton's analysis is a two-fund separation theorem. It states that given n assets with log-normally distributed prices, there exists a unique pair of "mutual funds" consisting of a linear combination of

property of the HARA class (3.3) is a linear relationship between current and future consumption that is implied by the intertemporal Euler condition. With HARA preferences (3.3), we can write $u'(x) = f(g(x))$ where $f(\cdot)$ is a power function and $g(\cdot)$ is an affine (constant slope) function. Using this in the Euler equation $u'(c_t) = u'(c_{t+1}) (1 + R_{t+1}) / (1 + \beta)$, we get $f(g(c_t)) = f(g(c_{t+1})) (1 + R_{t+1}) / (1 + \beta)$. Applying the inverse function $f^{-1}(y)$ to both sides, $g(c_t) = f^{-1}((1 + R_{t+1}) / (1 + \beta) f(g(c_{t+1})))$. Power functions (and only power

well defined. Thus, we can write $g(c_t) = f^{-1}((1 + R_{t+1}) / (1 + \beta) f(g(c_{t+1}))) = f^{-1}((1 + R_{t+1}) / (1 + \beta)) g(c_{t+1})$. or, defining $1 / (1 + \beta) f^{-1}((1 + R_{t+1}) / (1 + \beta)) = g^{-1}((1 + R_{t+1}) / (1 + \beta))$, $g(c_t) = g^{-1}((1 + R_{t+1}) / (1 + \beta)) g(c_{t+1})$. (3.4) The function on the right-hand side of this expression is linear in c since the slope of $g(\cdot)$, and of its $g^{-1}(\cdot)$ inverse, is constant. To see this, suppose $g(c) = a + bc$, so $g^{-1}(y) = (y - a) / b$: consumption levels at time $t + 1$ and t are then linked by the relationship $c_{t+1} = (1 + \beta) (a + bc_t) / (1 + R_{t+1})$, which is linear with slope $1 + \beta$. This establishes our result: For

- 15 Binswanger, Johannes: A new behavior..., 2007, S. 1
- 16 Curcuro, Stephanie/u.a.: Heterogene..., 2004, S. 11
- 17 Bertola, Giuseppe/Foellmi, Reto/Zwe..., 2006, S. 31
- 17 Bertola, Giuseppe/Foellmi, Reto/Zwe..., 2006, S. 32

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not go through the origin. In this case utility is perhaps not well defined below a certain level of individual income, but if everybody reaches at least that level, **macroeconomic dynamics can be interpreted in terms of representative agent saving choices even when the economy features persistent and variable heterogeneity of individual consumption paths.**¹ Hence, if all households have the same HARA-preferences, face the same real interest rate (that is known in advance) and maximise utility intertemporally under perfect foresight or certainty equivalent conditions, the distribution of income and wealth has no effect on aggregate consumption and saving. Yet as soon as we accept that individual income paths are uncertain, that consumers cannot fully ensure themselves against idiosyncratic risks and utility is not quadratic, the likely outcome is a nonlinear

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qualification to the distributional dynamics results discussed above. Recall that if preferences lend themselves nicely to aggregation, then **macroeconomic dynamics can be interpreted in terms of representative agent savings choices even as the economy features persistent and variable heterogeneity of individual consumption paths.** The observed dynamics of consumption distribution have little economic significance under complete markets, however, because the apparent dynamics of inequality are just a by-product of efficient once-and-for-

- 17 Bertola, Guiseppe/Foellmi, Reto/Zwe..., 2006, S. 44

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framework of a buffer-stock model the ratio of consumption to permanent labour income is a concave function of the ratio of cash on hand to permanent labour income.² Hence, under such circumstances **the distribution of wealth** affects **the level of aggregate consumption** and **the average marginal propensity to consume**. If wealth is distributed very unequally, the results derived for a representative consumer will differ considerably from the behaviour of the real aggregate. Since in reality the distribution of wealth is extremely rightskewed, Carroll (2000b) concludes, that a model with uninsurable idiosyncratic

² (Carroll 2000b)

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consumer for whom interest rates, wages, and labor supply are fixed at their steady-state levels. This nonlinearity implies that **the distribution of wealth** will affect **the level of aggregate consumption, the average marginal propensity to consume**, and other aggregate statistics. Despite the global nonlinearity of $c(x)$, it is relatively smooth and is almost linear at large values of x . If aggregate wealth were distributed relatively tightly around

- 18 Carroll, Christopher D.: Requiem fo..., 2000, S. 111

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level of consumption in ever)? period obviously consists of a long list of goods and services. To actually grasp this situation, one has to reformulate the life-time utility function by replacing the consumption level $c(t)$ with vectors $q(t)$ of a dimension large enough to capture all the richness of variety⁷ and product differentiation that exists in reality. Assuming weak separability, one would get a Life-time felicity- function of following structure: $V(u_1(q_1), u_2(q_2), \dots, u_T(q_T))$.¹³⁹ These consumption vectors, however, can be translated into money values by replacing each one-period utility function $u(t)(q(t))$ by the corresponding

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on those in Gorman (1959). A general starting-point is to work with the life-cycle utility function (4), but to replace the consumption aggregates c_t by vectors q_t , with dimension large enough to capture all the richness of variety and product differentiation that exists in reality. I shall confine myself to a restricted version of this, in which there is weak separability between periods, so that life-time utility can be written (1.12) We can translate (12)

- 12 Deaton, Angus: Understanding Consum..., 1993, S. 7

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this approach means assumption of quasi-homothetic preferences: Beyond a certain outlay the expenditure expansion path is supposed to be linear, although it no longer passes the origin. If intertemporal utility is additive and we define $c(t)$ as $y(t)/n(t)$, the intertemporal utility function can be written: (2.82) Since the second term on the right-hand side appears additively, it has no consequence for the choice of the path of consumption $c(t)$. Therefore, intertemporal optimisation generates the same result as maximisation of the first term alone. However, the additive second term certainly influences current cash on hand.

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second concave, linearly homogeneous function. For the general preferences (12), the specification (16) is not useful, but if intertemporal utility is additive, and if we define c_t as before, the utility function can be written (1.17) Since the second term on the right-hand side of (17) appears additively, it has no consequences for the choice of the period consumption aggregates, so that maximization of (17) generates the

- 12 Deaton, Angus: Understanding Consum..., 1993, S. 9

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elementary needs are not satisfied. Beyond the subsistence point, intertemporal reflections might be undertaken while when close to the survival level, other considerations are incomparably more urgent. Confirming such an assumption, Kraay (2000) finds that in Chinese rural districts the **share of food consumption in total consumption**, which can be taken as a **proxy for the importance of subsistence effects**, "...is a **robust predictor of saving rates in a panel of provincial saving rates**."¹ An even more comprehensive test of a model of saving that takes note of subsistence requirements has been offered by Ogaki, Ostry & Reinhart (1996). The authors consider the hypothesis that consumption in developing countries "**may be more related to subsistence considerations (...) than 155 to intertemporal consumption smoothing. If households must first achieve a subsistence consumption level, letting intertemporal considerations guide their decisions only for that portion of their budget left after subsistence has been satisfied, then the intertemporal elasticity of substitution and the interest rate sensitivity of private saving will be close to zero for countries at or near subsistence consumption levels (...)**".¹ Moreover, the authors consider the possibility that different parts of consumption may display a differing intertemporal elasticity of substitution, so that consumption smoothing actually does not occur with regard to the level of expenditures as such, but to certain goods and sendees separately. Hence, they argue that a **second reason** for the low intertemporal elasticity of substitution in developing countries is possibly the relatively high share of necessities in the budget

¹ (Kraay 2000)

¹ Ogaki, Ostry, Reinhart (1996)

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of standard intertemporal models of consumption, at least for rural households. In addition, the declining importance of subsistence consumption offers a promising explanation for China's rising saving rates, as the **share of food consumption in total consumption (a proxy for the importance of subsistence effects) is a robust predictor of saving rates in a panel of provincial saving rates**.

However, these modest empirical successes are tempered by at least two factors. First, the much poorer performance of the model for urban households and the modest fit of the regressions warn that

to subsistence considerations-particularly in the case of low-income coun tries-than to intertemporal consumption smoothing.³ If households must first achieve a subsistence consumption level, letting intertemporal consid erations guide their decisions only for that portion of their budget left after subsistence has been satisfied, then the intertemporal elasticity of substitu tion and the interest-rate sensitivity of private saving will be close to zero for countries at or near subsistence consumption levels, and will rise thereafter. A **second reason**

- 19 Kraay, Aart: Household Saving in Ch..., 2000, S. 561
- 20 Ogaki, Masao/Ostry, Jonathan/Reinha..., 1996, S. 39

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as such, but to certain goods and sendees separately. Hence, they argue that a **second reason** for the low **intertemporal elasticity of substitution** in developing countries is possibly the relatively high **share of necessities in the budget of poor households**: "If necessities (for example, food) are less substitutable through time than other goods, then the intertemporal elasticity of substitution will be lower for households with a larger **proportion of necessities in their budgets (...)**"² Stone-Geary preferences replace the usual assumption of homothetic preferences that has been refuted by empirical research. While non-homothetic preferences in general are difficult to check at the macroeconomic level, Stone-Geary preferences are quasi-homothetic, i.e. the expenditure

² Ogaki, Ostry, Reinhart (1996)

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thereafter. A **second reason** why the **intertemporal elasticity of substitution** may be lower for low-income countries concerns the relative **share of necessities in the budgets of relatively poor households**. **If necessities (for example, food) are less substitutable through time than other goods, then the intertemporal elasticity of substitution will be lower for households with a larger proportion of necessities in their budgets than for households in which such goods are less important**. The implication is that for relatively poor countries, where budget shares of

- 20 Ogaki, Masao/Ostry, Jonathan/Reinha..., 1996, S. 40

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distribution of income. Such a model can be tested referring to mean values of consumption and saving in the respective countries. Estimating the parameters of an intertemporal utility function with subsistence consumption employing annual time-series data for thirteen countries, Ogaki, Ostry & Reinhart (1996) conclude, "that a model, in which the intertemporal elasticity of substitution is an increasing function of the gap between permanent income and the subsistence consumption level cannot be rejected"³. 156 3.1.3 Necessities in Developed Countries In the debate about saving and consumption in developed countries, subsistence needs are typically not regarded to be crucial since subsistence in a biological sense of naked survival is not a major concern. However, subsistence needs which

³ Ogaki, Ostry, Reinhart (1996)

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on. Under the plausible assumption that intertemporal considerations only play a role in consumption behavior once a "subsistence" level of consumption has been achieved (in the spirit of Stone-Geary preferences), Ogaki, Ostry and Reinhart argue that the intertemporal elasticity of substitution, and therefore the interest sensitivity of saving, would be close to zero for poorer consumers, and higher for richer ones. The empirical support for this

systematically across countries. In what follows, we take a particularly simple approach motivated by a Stone-Geary preference specification (as described, for example, by Rebelo (1992)). We adopt a specification in which the intertemporal elasticity of substitution is an increasing function of the gap between permanent income and the subsistence level of consumption, namely, $\sigma_i = \sigma_0 + \sigma_1 \frac{y_i - y_i^s}{y_i}$ (8) where σ_i denotes the intertemporal elasticity of substitution in country i ; σ_0 is a constant that reflects subsistence consumption, and y_i^s is a measure of permanent income in country i . Clearly, equation (8) is similar

- 21 Schmidt-Hebbel, K./Serven, L.: Savi..., 1997, S. 61
- 20 Ogaki, Masao/Ostry, Jonathan/Reinha..., 1996, S. 50

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Thus, a theoretical approach defining momentary utility as a positive function of the difference between actual consumption and a basic level of consumption does not appear to be unjustified in the case of developed countries either. Ravn, Schmitt-Grohe & Uribe (2008) suggest that "subsistence points might be appropriately modelled as an increasing function of long-run measures of output."|6 Indeed, it seems to be adequate not to assume a fixed subsistence level as in the Rebelo model considered above. Instead, those expenditures that are devoted to satisfying basic needs according to the common standard of living, will most likely increase with this standard. A telephone or a car was still a luxury in the mid twentieth century, but is hardly avoidable for most households today. The same has occurred with many household devices. Mobile

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those dictated by social norms. A luxury in a poor society, such as tap water, indoor plumbing, and health care are considered necessities in developed countries. Thus, it is conceivable that subsistence points might be appropriately modeled as an increasing function of long-run measures of output. In this case, non-homotheticities in preferences may remain relevant for understanding business cycle fluctuations even for economies traveling along a stable development path. The remainder of the paper is

- 22 Ravn, Morten O./Schmitt-Grohé, Stepan, 2008, S. 2

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the same system of classification. The general trends are in fact similar in both statistics. While the expenditure share of food and clothes, but also of **furniture and household appliances** has been decreasing, the share of shelter (that includes **rents, imputed rents for owner occupied housing**, water, electricity, and heating) has strongly shifted upwards. The same is true for the portion of expenditure spent on transportation and communication. The share of entertainment and recreation appears to be more or less identical in the national accounts, but slightly rising in the EVS. The share dedicated to eating out and hotel stays (domestic expenses only) somewhat increases in the national data but has been diminishing since 1978 in the EVS. With respect to

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goods, such as purchases of cars, **furniture and** any kind of electronic equipment as well as rents. The consumption-flows aggregate includes, in addition to the non-durable aggregate, **rents, imputed rents for owner-occupied housing** and imputed expenditures on the service of cars owned by the household. We exclude 4 certain expenditures, especially fuel, because they are to a large extent work-related, and would therefore

- 23 Beznoska, Martin/Stiener, Viktor: D..., 2012, S. 4

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- 25 Slesnick, D.T. (1993), Gaining Grou..., 1993, S.

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Glossar

- Ähnlichkeitsfehler Indizien auf mangelhafte Zitierung von inhaltlichen Übernahmen.
- Ampel Entsprechend der Gesamtwahrscheinlichkeit wird ein Rating der Schwere durch die Ampelfarbe berechnet: grün (bis 19 %) = wenige Indizien unterhalb der Bagatellschwelle; gelb (20 bis 49 %) - deutliche Indizien enthalten, die eine Plagiatsbegutachtung durch den Prüfer notwendig machen; rot (ab 50 %) = Plagiate liegen mit sehr hoher Wahrscheinlichkeit vor, die eine Täuschungsabsicht dokumentieren. Bei publizierten Dissertationen sollte ein offizielles Verfahren zur Prüfung und/oder zum Entzug des Dokortitels eröffnet werden.
- Anteil Fremdtex te (brutto) Anteil aller durch die Software automatisch gefundenen Bestandteile aus anderen Texten am Prüftext (von mindestens 7 Wörtern) in Prozent und Anzahl der Wörter gemessen. Dabei wird noch keine Interpretation auf Plagiatsindizien oder korrekte Übernahmen (z.B. Zitat, Literaturquelle) vorgenommen.
- Anzahl Fremdtext (netto) Anteil aller durch die Software automatisch gefundenen und als Plagiatsindizien interpretierten Bestandteile aus anderen Texten am Prüftext (von mindestens 7 Wörtern) in Prozent und Anzahl der Wörter gemessen.
- Bauernopfer Fehlende Quellenangabe bei einer inhaltlichen oder wörtlichen Textübernahme, wobei die Originalquelle an anderer Stelle des Textes (außerhalb des Absatzes, des Satzes, des Halbsatzes oder des Wortes) angegeben wird.
- Compilation Zusammensetzen des Textes als "Patchwork" aus verschiedenen nicht oder unzureichend zitierten Quellen.
- Eigenplagiat Inhaltliche oder wörtliche Übernahme eines eigenen Textes des Autors ohne oder mit unzureichender Kennzeichnung des Autors. Auch wenn hier nur eigene Texte und Gedanken übernommen werden, handelt es sich um eine Täuschung. Die Prüfer oder Leser gehen davon aus, dass es sich hier um neue Texte und Gedanken des Autors handelt.
- Einzelplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit Grobe Berechnung der Wahrscheinlichkeit des Vorliegens eines Plagiats des einzelnen Treffers (oder der Treffer) auf einer Seite im Prüfbericht.

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- **Gesamtplagiatswahrscheinlichkeit** Berechnung der Wahrscheinlichkeit des Vorliegens von Plagiaten durch Verknüpfung der Indizienanzahl, des Netto-Fremdtextanteils und der Schwere der einzelnen Plagiatsindizien.
- **Ghostwritersuche** Über den statistischen Vergleich der Texte (Stilometrie) wird eine Wahrscheinlichkeit berechnet, ob die Texte von demselben Autor stammen.
- **Indizien** Dieser Prüfbericht gibt nur die von der Software automatisch ermittelten Indizien auf eine bestimmte Plagiatsart wieder. Die Feststellung eines Plagiats kann nur durch den Gutachter erfolgen.
- **Literaturanalyse** Die im Prüftext enthaltenen Literatureinträge im Literaturverzeichnis werden analysiert: Wird die Quelle im Text zitiert? Handelt es sich um eine wissenschaftliche Quelle? Wie alt sind die Quellen?
- **Mischplagiat - eine Quelle** Der Text wird hierbei aus verschiedenen Versatzstücken einer einzigen Quelle zusammengesetzt, also gemischt.
- **Mischplagiat - mehrere Quellen** Der Text wird hierbei aus verschiedenen Versatzstücken aus verschiedenen Quellen zusammengesetzt, also gemischt.
- **Phrase** Die übernommenen Textstellen stellen allgemeintypische oder fachspezifische Wortkombinationen der deutschen Sprache dar, die viele Autoren üblicherweise verwenden. Solche Übernahmen gelten nicht als Plagiate.
- **Plagiat** Übernahme von Leistungen wie Ideen, Daten oder Texten von anderen - ohne vollständige oder ausreichende Angabe der Originalquelle.
- **Plagiatsanalyse** Gefundene gleiche Textstellen (= Treffer) werden durch die Software automatisch auf spezifische Plagiatsindizien analysiert.
- **Plagiatssuche** Mit Hilfe von Suchmaschinen wird im Internet, in der Nationalbibliothek und im eigenen Dokumentenbestand nach Originalquellen mit gleichen oder ähnlichen Textstellen gesucht. Diese Quellen werden alle vollständig Wort für Wort mit

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- dem Prüftext verglichen. Plagiatsindizes werden für Textstellen ab 7 Wörtern berechnet.
- **Plagiatswahrscheinlichkeit**

Grobe Berechnung der Wahrscheinlichkeit des Vorliegens eines Plagiates auf der Basis der Plagiatsindizes. Die Ampel zeigt drei Ergebnisse an: grün - keine Wahrscheinlichkeit des Vorliegens eines Plagiates und somit keine weitere Überprüfung notwendig, gelb - mögliches Vorliegen eines Plagiates und somit eine weitere Überprüfung empfohlen, rot - hohe Wahrscheinlichkeit des Vorliegens eines Plagiates und somit weitere Überprüfung unbedingt notwendig.
- **Stilometrie**

Texte werden dabei einzeln nach statistischen Kennzahlen (z.B. durchschnittliche Länge der Wörter, Häufigkeit bestimmter Wörter) analysiert. Sind diese Kennzahlen für zwei Texte ähnlich, liegt hier statistisch der gleiche "Stil" und somit mit hoher Sicherheit der selbe Autor vor.
- **Teilplagiat**

Ein Textbestandteil einer Quelle wurde vollständig ohne ausreichende Zitierung kopiert.
- **Textanalyse**

Der einzelne Text wird durch die Software automatisch für sich allein analysiert, z.B. nach statistischen Kennzahlen, benutzter Literatur, Rechtschreibfehlern oder Bestandteilen. Je nach Stand der Softwareentwicklung sind die absoluten Ergebnisse (z.B. Erkennung von Abbildungen, Fußnoten, Tabellen, Zitaten) im einzelnen eingeschränkt aussagefähig. Aufgrund der immer für alle Texte durchgeführten Analysen sind die relativen Unterschiede zwischen den Spalten (z.B. Diplomarbeit vs. Dissertation) uneingeschränkt aussagefähig.
- **Textvergleich**

Jeder Text wird mit anderen älteren Texten vollständig verglichen. Gefundene gleiche Textstellen werden in einem weiteren Schritt z.B. auf Plagiatsindizes hin untersucht.
- **Übersetzungsplagiat**

Nutzung eines fremdsprachigen Textes durch Übersetzung.
- **Verschleierung**

Ein Text wird ohne eindeutige Kennzeichnung (i.d.R. durch Anführungszeichen) Wort für Wort übernommen, aber mit Angabe der Quelle in der Fußnote. Dadurch wird der Prüfer getäuscht, der von einer nur inhaltlichen Übernahme ausgehen

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- Vollplagiat
Der gesamte Text wird vollständig ohne Zitierung kopiert.
- Zitat - wörtlich
Übernommener Text wird z.B. mit Anführungszeichen korrekt dargestellt. Dieses wörtliche Zitat darf keine Veränderungen, Ergänzungen oder Auslassungen enthalten. Fehlt für das Zitat nach der Plagiatssuche ein Nachweis in einer Originalquelle, so wird der Treffer als "Zitat-wörtlich-im Text" bezeichnet.
- Zitat - wörtlich - Veränderung
Einzelne Wörter einer korrekt gekennzeichneten wörtlichen Übernahme werden verändert oder weggelassen, ohne dass der Sinn verändert wird. Z.B.: "Unternehmung" wird durch "Unternehmen" ersetzt.
- Zitat - wörtlich - Verdrehung
In dem korrekt gekennzeichneten übernommenen wörtlichen Text wird der Sinn durch Austausch einzelner Wörter deutlich verändert. Beispiel: "überentwickelten" statt "unterentwickelten".
- Zitierungsfehler
Arbeitsbezeichnung für eine wörtliche Textübernahme, die nur als inhaltliche Textübernahme (Paraphrase) gekennzeichnet wird.

muss.

