

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

PART II

UNIT 5

HOUSEHOLD APPROACH: MODELS

José Alberto Molina



Grupo de Investigación en
Economía de la Población, Mercado
de Trabajo y Economía Industrial

Universidad Zaragoza

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

CONTENT

1. Intra-temporal models:
 - 1.1. El enfoque unitario en un contexto familiar
 - 1.2. Modelo cooperativo: negociación exógena y puntos de ruptura
 - 1.3. Modelos cooperativo à la Chiappori: negociación endógena, demanda de bienes, oferta de trabajo y producción doméstica
 - 1.4. Modelo no cooperativo: equilibrio Cournot-Nash
 - 1.5. Evidencia empírica
2. Inter-temporal/inter-generational models:
 - 2.1. Fundamentos y evidencia micro-econométrica
 - 2.2. Modelo experimental en redes sociales
 - 2.3. Modelo cooperativo intertemporal

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

1. MODELOS INTRA-TEMPORALES

1.1.- EL ENFOQUE UNITARIO EN UN CONTEXTO FAMILIAR

El estudio de la conducta de los hogares o unidades familiares ha partido tradicionalmente del supuesto según el cual se ha identificado la familia como un ente individual, de tal forma que las preferencias de dicha unidad colectiva se han venido representando por una única función de comportamiento.

Este supuesto inicial constituye la piedra angular de la aproximación tradicional o unitaria de la microeconomía del individuo (consumidor de bienes y oferente de trabajo), esto es, los deseos y gustos de las familias se recogen en sus preferencias racionales, las cuales pueden representarse mediante una función de utilidad₃

Partiendo de los axiomas básicos de la conducta individual (Complejitud, Reflexividad, Transitividad, Insaciabilidad, Continuidad, Convexidad Estricta, Suavidad y Racionalidad) y suponiendo un hogar formado por dos individuos en edad de trabajar, A y B, el enfoque unitario en un contexto familiar implica la existencia de la siguiente función de utilidad para el hogar:

$$u = u(\mathbf{q}, l^A, l^B)$$

donde u posee las propiedades clásicas (creciente, continua, estrictamente cuasicóncava y diferenciable), $\mathbf{q} = (q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n)$ es el vector de consumo familiar, y l^A, l^B son las cantidades individuales de ocio.

Recordando la formulación del modelo
trabajo-ocio, la restricción
presupuestaria del hogar es:

$$\mathbf{p}\mathbf{q} + \omega^A l^A + \omega^B l^B \leq y^A + y^B + \omega^A T + \omega^B T$$

donde $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n)$ es el vector de
precios, ω^i el salario del miembro
familiar, y^i ($i = A, B$) es el ingreso no
laboral del miembro familiar y T es el
tiempo total disponible.

En este contexto, el problema de optimización condicionada es:

$$\text{Max } u = u(\mathbf{q}, l^A, l^B)$$

s.a

$$\mathbf{p}\mathbf{q} + \omega^A l^A + \omega^B l^B \leq y^A + y^B + \omega^A T + \omega^B T$$

de cuya resolución resulta un conjunto de funciones de demanda de bienes y ocio que satisfacen las propiedades de aditividad, homogeneidad, simetría y negatividad:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{q} &= \mathbf{q}(\mathbf{p}, \omega^A, \omega^B, y^A, y^B) \\ l^i &= l^i(\mathbf{p}, \omega^A, \omega^B, y^A, y^B) \quad i = A, B \end{aligned}$$

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Esta aproximación unitaria, basada en el supuesto fundamental de la microeconomía tradicional, esto es, el hecho de que no se distingue entre agente individual ("consumidor") y agente colectivo ("hogar" o "familia"), está sujeta a una serie de críticas metodológicas, empíricas y de bienestar.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

En términos metodológicos, el supuesto tradicional de que las preferencias subjetivas son individuales no se ajusta a la estructura habitual de un hogar formado por un grupo de individuos con preferencias diferentes entre los cuales tiene lugar un proceso de decisión intra-familiar

(sólo cuando el hogar es unifamiliar o cuando las preferencias de un miembro del mismo se toman explícitamente como preferencias de la familia, será metodológicamente correcto utilizar la aproximación unitaria).

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Ahora bien, cuando asumimos que un hogar constituye una micro-sociedad consistente en varios individuos con sus propias preferencias racionales, la aproximación unitaria actúa como una camisa de fuerza imponiendo una serie de restricciones sobre el comportamiento observado.

Entre dichas restricciones destacamos que dicha aproximación implica la hipótesis de que los ingresos no laborales individuales se agregan en uno solo familiar, de tal forma que la fuente de este ingreso exógeno no juega ningún papel en la distribución intra-familiar de consumo de bienes o de oferta de trabajo.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Además, la aproximación unitaria no permite determinar la distribución intra-familiar del consumo ni de la oferta de trabajo y, consecuentemente, del bienestar.

En otras palabras, esta aproximación tradicional no permite caracterizar la desigualdad intra-familiar.

La aproximación unitaria al comportamiento del individuo está dejando paso en la literatura a un nuevo planteamiento general que se ocupa de analizar las cuestiones que surgen en la negociación intra-familiar.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

De acuerdo con este nuevo planteamiento, la presencia de individuos con preferencias distintas se instrumenta admitiendo la existencia de dos funciones individuales de utilidad, una para cada cónyuge.

Este planteamiento general ha dado lugar a dos enfoques:

el enfoque cooperativo basado en la eficiencia paretiana (negociación y modelo à la Chiappori)

y el enfoque no cooperativo basado en la teoría de juegos (equilibrio Cournot-Nash).

Respecto al primero de ellos, el análisis del comportamiento familiar se sitúa en un contexto cooperativo con negociación tras suponer que las decisiones intra-familiares son Pareto eficientes:

- i. En el modelo de negociación con puntos de ruptura, los miembros del hogar intentan llegar a un acuerdo sobre cómo dividir las ganancias de la cooperación, esto es, las ganancias que se derivan de la vida en común, a través de las soluciones de Nash o de Kalai-Smorodinsky.
- ii. En el enfoque à la Chiappori, el acuerdo intra-familiar se alcanza a través de la denominada regla de reparto en la demanda de bienes, oferta de trabajo y función de producción doméstica. ¹²

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

El enfoque no cooperativo se basa en el equilibrio Cournot-Nash, asumiendo que los individuos actúan maximizando su utilidad sujeto a su restricción presupuestaria, teniendo en cuenta también la decisión de su cónyuge.

1.2.- MODELO COOPERATIVO: NEGOCIACIÓN EXÓGENA Y PUNTOS DE RUPTURA

Suponemos dos individuos con funciones de utilidad individuales u^i ($i=A, B$) de buen comportamiento definidas sobre consumos q^i y ocio l^i propios.

Estos individuos se enfrentaran a una restricción temporal $T = l^i + h^i$, donde h_i es el tiempo dedicado al trabajo del total disponible T ; y a una restricción presupuestaria

$\mathbf{p}^i \mathbf{q}^i + \omega^i l^i \leq y^i + \omega^i T$, donde \mathbf{p}^i es un vector de precios de \mathbf{q}^i , ω^i es el salario del individuo i , e y^i es el ingreso no salarial individual.

Además de considerar bienes privados puros, $\mathbf{q}^i = (q_{11}^i, q_{12}^i, \dots, q_{1n}^i)$, suponemos que existe un vector de bienes públicos en el hogar cuyo precio normalizamos a la unidad,

$$\mathbf{Q} = (Q_1, \dots, Q_n).$$

El problema de cuya solución obtenemos los pares de utilidad Pareto eficientes, es decir, la curva de contrato, es el siguiente:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Max} \quad & u^i(\mathbf{q}^i, Q, l^i) \\ \text{s.a.} \quad & \text{i) } u^j(\mathbf{q}^j, Q, l^j) - \bar{u}^j \geq 0 \\ & \text{ii) } \mathbf{p}\mathbf{q} + \boldsymbol{\omega}\mathbf{l} - Y \leq 0 \\ & \text{iii) } \mathbf{l} + \mathbf{h} = \bar{\mathbf{T}} \\ & \text{iv) } \tilde{\mathbf{q}} \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

donde $\mathbf{p} = (\mathbf{p}^A, \mathbf{p}^B)$ es el vector de precios, $\boldsymbol{\omega} = (\omega^A, \omega^B)$ el vector salarial, $\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{q}^A + \mathbf{q}^B + Q$ es el vector de consumo, $\mathbf{l} = (l^A, l^B)$ el vector de cantidades de ocio, $\mathbf{h} = (h^A, h^B)$ el vector de ofertas de trabajo, $Y = y^A + y^B$ es el ingreso no laboral total y $\tilde{\mathbf{q}} = (\mathbf{q}^A, \mathbf{q}^B, Q, \mathbf{l})$ representa el vector total de cantidades.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Bajo este planteamiento, es conveniente realizar algunos comentarios sobre los bienes y sobre las preferencias de los individuos.

Algunos bienes tienen un carácter privado, denominado exclusivo (p.ej. ropa diferenciada por género o alimentos que sólo reportan utilidad a un cónyuge) que se diferencian de los bienes privados normales (p.ej. consumos individuales de alimentos que reportan utilidad a ambos cónyuges).

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Por otro lado, algunos bienes pueden tener un componente público en el hogar y otro privado individual que deben separarse adecuadamente con el objetivo de resolver óptimamente el problema de elección (p.ej. consumo de teléfono basado en la suma del gasto de alta en la compañía más un gasto individual; o el ocio que se puede descomponer entre tiempo dedicado a las aficiones individuales y tiempo dedicado al juego con los hijos comunes).

Respecto a las preferencias, podemos
asumir inicialmente que los individuos
son egoístas:

$$u^i = u^i(\mathbf{q}^i, l^i, \mathbf{Q})$$

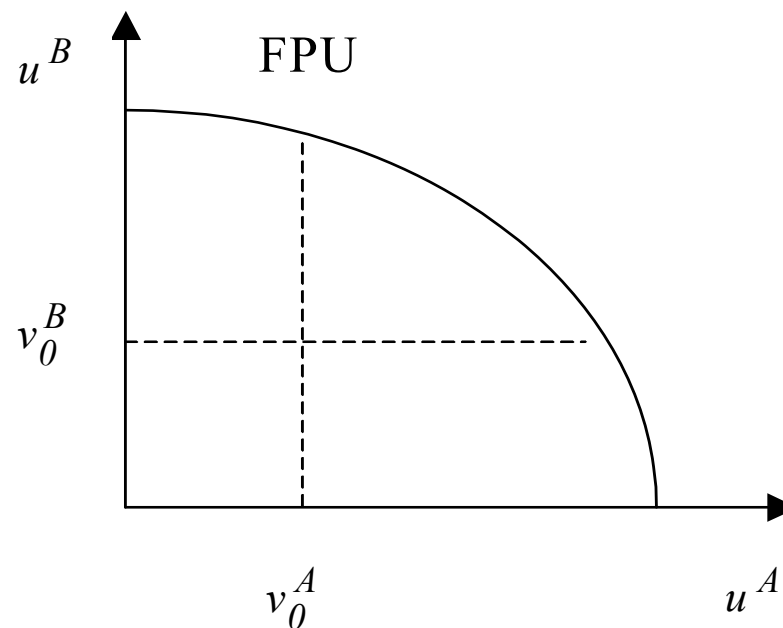
pero pueden también actuar de forma
altruista:

$$u^i = u^i(\mathbf{q}^A, \mathbf{q}^B, l^A, l^B, \mathbf{Q})$$

Una formulación intermedia de las
preferencias es la del altruismo en el
sentido de Becker en el que no existen
externalidades entre los individuos:

$$u^i = u^i(u^A(\mathbf{q}^A, l^A, \mathbf{Q}), u^B(\mathbf{q}^B, l^B, \mathbf{Q})) \quad 18$$

Asumiendo cónyuges altruistas y a partir de la curva de contrato definida sobre el espacio de cantidades, se obtiene la frontera de posibilidades de utilidad en el espacio de utilidades, de tal forma que si el punto de ruptura (v_0^A, v_0^B) se encuentra por debajo de dicha frontera, entonces existirá un claro incentivo para la mejora individual a través de una negociación exógena (no depende explícitamente de variables económicas y/o sociodemográficas):



Dicho vector de utilidades individuales, (v_0^A, v_0^B) , constituye el denominado punto de amenaza o ruptura, es decir, el vector de utilidades deseadas en el caso de no llegar a acuerdo entre los miembros del hogar.

Normalmente, este punto de ruptura se representa por las utilidades en el caso de divorcio, aunque también puede interpretarse como el vector en el caso no cooperativo de las esferas separadas (cada cónyuge tiene sus gastos propios dependiendo de su género y cada uno de ellos llevará a cabo sus propios gastos sujeto a su propia restricción presupuestaria).

Por encima del punto de ruptura (v_0^A, v_0^B) , los individuos constituyen un hogar alcanzando mayores utilidades individuales que estando solteros y, adicionalmente, negocian entre sí para mejorar progresivamente hasta la eficiencia paretiana.

Por debajo de (v_0^A, v_0^B) , los individuos no constituyen un hogar dado que alcanzan mayores utilidades individuales estando separados.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Las soluciones concretas de negociación de Nash y Kalai-Smorodinsky satisfacen la propiedad de simetría o anonimato, de tal manera que la capacidad de negociación sea independiente de las características individuales del cónyuge.

La solución de Nash se obtiene resolviendo el siguiente programa:

$$\mathbf{Max} \left[u^A(\mathbf{q}^A, l^A) - v_0^A(\mathbf{p}, \omega^A, y^A) \right] \left[u^B(\mathbf{q}^B, l^B) - v_0^B(\mathbf{p}, \omega^B, y^B) \right]$$

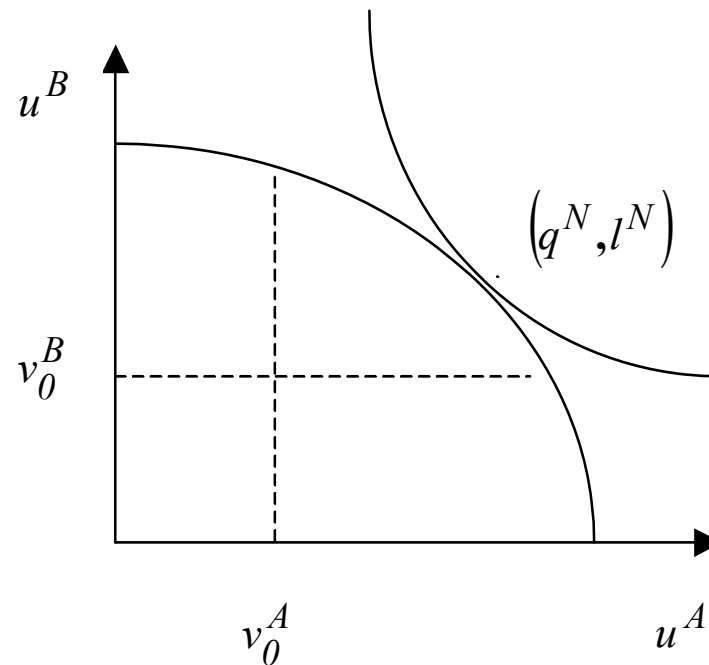
- s.a. i) $\mathbf{p}\mathbf{q} + \omega\mathbf{l} - Y \leq 0$
 ii) $\mathbf{l} + \mathbf{h} = \bar{T}$
 iii) $\tilde{\mathbf{q}} \geq 0$

Si ambas funciones de utilidad individuales son cóncavas, entonces podemos asegurar que existe una solución y que ésta es única:

$$\mathbf{q}^N = \mathbf{q}^N(\mathbf{p}, \omega, Y)$$
$$\mathbf{l}^N = \mathbf{l}^N(\mathbf{p}, \omega, Y)$$

donde las funciones \mathbf{q}^N y \mathbf{l}^N son continuas y diferenciables.

En términos gráficos, la solución Pareto eficiente de Nash se alcanza como punto de tangencia entre la frontera de posibilidades de utilidad (la restricción de utilidades se ha introducido en la función objetivo concretada en el punto de ruptura) y la línea isobienestar de la función de bienestar (hipérbola decreciente y convexa):



La solución de Kalai-Smorodinsky se obtiene resolviendo el programa:

$$\text{Max } \left[u^A(\mathbf{q}^A, l^A) - v_0^A(\mathbf{p}, \omega^A, y^A) \right]$$

s.a. i) $\mathbf{p}\mathbf{q} + \omega\mathbf{l} - Y \leq 0$

ii) $\mathbf{l} + \mathbf{h} = \bar{T}$

iii) $\tilde{\mathbf{q}} \geq 0$

iv)
$$\frac{\left[u^A(\mathbf{q}^A, l^A) - v_0^A(\mathbf{p}, \omega^A, y^A) \right]}{\left[u^B(\mathbf{q}^B, l^B) - v_0^B(\mathbf{p}, \omega^B, y^B) \right]} - \frac{\left[v^{Ai*} - v_0^A(\mathbf{p}, \omega^A, y^A) \right]}{\left[v^{B*} - v_0^B(\mathbf{p}, \omega^B, y^B) \right]} = 0$$

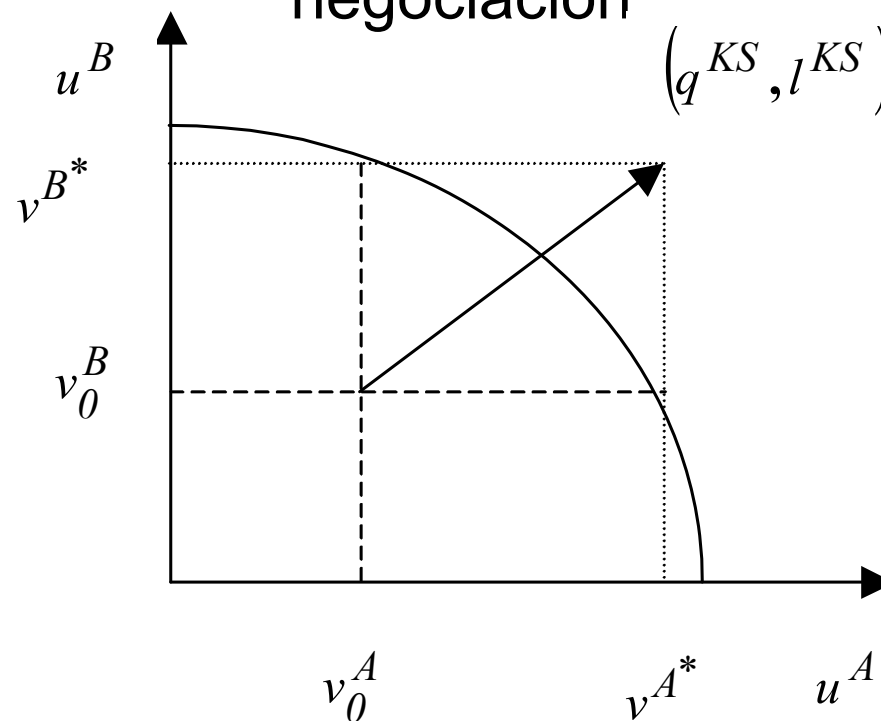
donde $v^{i*} y = A, B$ es el punto que se alcanza asumiendo las dos situaciones de matrimonio dictatorial, es decir, domina uno y otro completamente.

De dicho problema obtenemos la solución:

$$\mathbf{q}^{\text{KS}} = \mathbf{q}^{\text{KS}}(\mathbf{p}, \omega, Y)$$

$$l^{\text{KS}} = l^{\text{KS}}(\mathbf{p}, \omega, Y)$$

En términos gráficos, la solución Pareto eficiente de Kalai-Smorodinsky se alcanza sobre la frontera de posibilidades de utilidad que determina el rayo vector definido por las proyecciones que se derivan cuando uno y otro cónyuges tienen todo el poder de negociación:



1.3.- MODELO COOPERATIVO À LA CHIAPPORI: NEGOCIACIÓN ENDÓGENA

Generalizamos en este epígrafe el proceso de negociación descrito anteriormente a través de las soluciones concretas Nash y Kalai-Smorodinsky.

Recordamos las preferencias generales:

$$u^i = u^i(\mathbf{q}^A, \mathbf{q}^B, l^A, l^B, \mathbf{Q})$$

donde u^i es una función de utilidad con las propiedades clásicas y los argumentos incluyen los vectores de consumo $\mathbf{q}^A = (q_1^A, \dots, q_n^A)$ y $\mathbf{q}^B = (q_1^B, \dots, q_n^B)$, las cantidades de ocio l^A y l^B , así como el vector de consumo público $\mathbf{Q} = (Q_1, \dots, Q_n)$ cuyo precio normalizamos a la unidad.

La restricción presupuestaria para el hogar es:

$$\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{q}^A + \mathbf{q}^B) + \mathbf{Q} + \omega^A l^A + \omega^B l^B \leq y^A + y^B + (\omega^A + \omega^B)T$$

donde \mathbf{p} , ω^A , ω^B , y^A , y^B se definen como anteriormente

Una cesta (q^A, q^B, l^A, l^B, Q) es una asignación Pareto eficiente si es solución del siguiente problema:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Max} \quad & u^A(q^A, q^B, l^A, l^B, Q) \\ \text{s.a.} \quad & \text{i) } u^B(q^A, q^B, l^A, l^B, Q) - \bar{u}^B \geq 0 \\ & \text{ii) } pq + \omega^A l^A + \omega^B l^B \leq y^A + y^B + (\omega^A + \omega^B)T \\ & \text{iii) } l + h = \bar{T} \\ & \text{iv) } q, l^A, l^B \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

donde p es el vector de precios, $q = q_A + q_B + Q$ un vector de consumo, $l = (l^A, l^B)$ el vector de cantidades de ocio demandadas, $h = (h^A, h^B)$ el vector de ofertas de trabajo individuales,

$\bar{T} = (T, T)$ con T el tiempo total disponible y, finalmente, \bar{u}^B es algún nivel concreto de utilidad predeterminado para el individuo B, cuya variación permite determinar todas las asignaciones Pareto eficientes.

Dado que las funciones de utilidad son estrictamente cuasicóncavas y que la restricción define un conjunto convexo, el conjunto de posibilidades de utilidad es estrictamente convexo, lo cual permite caracterizar las asignaciones Pareto eficientes como la única solución de:

$$\text{Max} \quad \mu(\mathbf{p}, \boldsymbol{\omega}, \mathbf{y}) u^A(\mathbf{q}^A, \mathbf{q}^B, l^A, l^B, \mathbf{Q}) + [1 - \mu(\mathbf{p}, \boldsymbol{\omega}, \mathbf{y})] u^B(\mathbf{q}^A, \mathbf{q}^B, l^A, l^B, \mathbf{Q})$$

$$\text{s.a.} \quad \text{i) } \mathbf{p}\mathbf{q} + \omega^A l^A + \omega^B l^B \leq y^A + y^B + (\omega^A + \omega^B)T$$

$$\text{ii) } \mathbf{l} + \mathbf{h} = \bar{T}$$

$$\text{iii) } \mathbf{q}, l^A, l^B \geq 0$$

donde , $\boldsymbol{\omega} = (\omega^A, \omega^B)$, $\mathbf{y} = (y_A, y_B)$ mientras que los pesos relativos

$$\mu(\mathbf{p}, \boldsymbol{\omega}, \mathbf{y}) \text{ y } [1 - \mu(\mathbf{p}, \boldsymbol{\omega}, \mathbf{y})]$$

son funciones que representan el poder de negociación respectivo de cada uno de los miembros del hogar en el proceso de decisión intra-familiar (negociación endógena dado que depende explícitamente de variables económicas y/o sociodemográficas)

Si los individuos tienen funciones de utilidad egoístas (la utilidad dependen de variables propias) o altruistas (la utilidad depende positivamente de las variables del cónyuge), el programa de asignación (suponiendo, por simplificar, que no hay bien público):

$$\text{Max } \mu(p, \omega, y) u^A(q^A, q^B, l^A, l^B) + [1 - \mu(p, \omega, y)] u^B(q^A, q^B, l^A, l^B)$$

$$\text{s.a. i) } pq + \omega^A l^A + \omega^B l^B \leq y^A + y^B + (\omega^A + \omega^B) T$$

$$\text{ii) } l + h = \bar{T}$$

$$\text{iii) } q, l^A, l^B \geq 0$$

es equivalente, según el Segundo Teorema de la Economía del Bienestar, a un proceso bietápico de decisión:

En la primera etapa, los componentes del hogar deciden una regla de reparto para la renta no laboral que caracteriza el proceso de negociación intra-familiar:

$$\phi^A = \phi(\mathbf{p}, \omega^A, \omega^B, y^A, y^B)$$

$$\phi^B = y^A + y^B - \phi^A(\mathbf{p}, \omega^A, \omega^B, y^A, y^B)$$

donde ϕ^i es la cantidad recibida por el individuo i

Dada esta regla de reparto, en la segunda etapa cada individuo resuelve su equilibrio competitivo, de cuyas CPO se derivan las funciones de demanda de los bienes y del ocio:

$$\text{Max} \quad u^i(\mathbf{q}^i, l^i)$$

$$\text{s.a.} \quad \text{i) } \mathbf{p}\mathbf{q}^i + \omega^i l^i \leq \phi^i(\mathbf{p}, \omega, \mathbf{y}) + \omega^i T$$

$$\text{ii) } l^i + h^i = T$$

$$\text{iii) } \mathbf{q}^i, l^i \geq 0$$

1.3.1. La demanda de bienes

Sobre la base de la estructura general anterior, determinamos en este epígrafe la estructura de la demanda de los bienes.

El modelo cooperativo basado en la optimalidad paretiana implica que el resultado final sobre la frontera eficiente depende de variables que reflejan la situación familiar.

Ahora bien, este grupo de determinantes no son sólo estrictamente económicos, sino que otras variables, fundamentalmente sociodemográficas pueden jugar un papel importante en el proceso de decisión intra-familiar (demanda de bienes y oferta de trabajo)

Las variables sociodemográficas en el modelo colectivo son de dos tipos:

- i. las variables individuales y colectivas (household) sociodemográficas, pej, la edad, el nivel educativo, el tamaño familiar,....las cuales suelen hacerse explícitas en la especificación empírica, aunque no en el modelo teórico.
- ii. los factores distributivos, que sí se hacen explícitas en el modelo teórico y que se caracterizan porque no afectan las preferencias individuales ni la restricción presupuestaria, pej la legislación sobre matrimonio y divorcio, o el sex-ratio (número de varones por cada mujer, reflejando el peso del sex/género)

Asumiendo un vector de J factores distributivos, $\mathbf{s} = (s_1, \dots, s_J)$, la solución Pareto eficiente puede derivarse de la maximización de la siguiente función de bienestar social utilitarista:

$$\text{Max} \quad \mu(\mathbf{p}, \omega, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{s}) u^A(q^A, q^B, l^A, l^B, \mathbf{Q}) + \\ [1 - \mu(\mathbf{p}, \omega, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{s})] u^B(q^A, q^B, l^A, l^B, \mathbf{Q})$$

donde la función $\mu(\mathbf{p}, \omega, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{s}) \in [0; 1]$ se puede interpretar como un índice de la distribución del poder dentro de la familia: si $\mu = 0$, las preferencias de B se imponen dictatorialmente y viceversa si $\mu = 1$.

Asumimos que, en general, $\mu(\mathbf{p}, \omega, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{s})$ es una función continua, diferenciable y homogénea de grado cero en precios y renta

La resolución de la optimización anterior da lugar a las funciones de demanda de los bienes:

$$q^i = q^i(\mathbf{p}, \omega, \mathbf{y}, \mu(\mathbf{p}, \omega, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{s}))$$

$$l^i = l^i(\mathbf{p}, \omega, \mathbf{y}, \mu(\mathbf{p}, \omega, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{s}))$$

$$Q = Q(\mathbf{p}, \omega, \mathbf{y}, \mu(\mathbf{p}, \omega, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{s}))$$

1.3.2. La oferta de trabajo

Si asumimos, por ejemplo, en este epígrafe que el consumo de los bienes es privado y que los agentes son egoístas, de tal forma que la función de utilidad es $u^i(q^i, h^i)$, donde h^i es la oferta de trabajo, q^i su consumo privado, T el tiempo disponible y ω^i el salario por hora, podemos abordar el proceso de decisión en dos fases: los miembros reciben ϕ^i , con $\phi^A + \phi^B = y$, donde y representa el gasto total del hogar, incluyendo el gasto en ocio, tras lo cual cada individuo maximiza su utilidad sin tener en cuenta la conducta del otro.

La optimización correspondiente da lugar a las ofertas:

$$h^i = h^i(p^i, \omega^i, y, \mu(p, \omega, y))$$

dependiendo directamente del propio salario e indirectamente del otro vía regla de reparto.

Si relajamos la hipótesis inicial de consumos privados, asumiendo las preferencias egoistas $u^i(h^i, Q)$ en función de un bien público, entonces las ofertas de trabajo se expresarán análogamente, pero teniendo en cuenta que el precio individual del bien público será el precio de Lindhal.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Otros autores han desarrollado modelos de oferta de trabajo incluyendo bienes públicos y privados en las preferencias individuales:

$$u^i(q^i, h^i, Q),$$

o asumiendo formulaciones en las que se puede descomponer el ocio en privado y público:

$u^i(q^i, l^i, L)$, donde L denota público y l^i privado.

1.3.3. La producción doméstica

Una generalización de la estructura anterior implica que las preferencias también incluyen el consumo de los bienes producidos en el hogar, asumiendo una función como $u^i(q^i, l^i, z^i)$, donde z^i es producido según la tecnología

$$z^A + z^B = F(t^A, t^B)$$

donde F es una función de producción y t^i es el tiempo dedicado por i a la producción doméstica.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies
University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Si las ofertas de trabajo (domésticas y de mercado) son comerciables (tradeable) entonces la resolución de la optimización es directa.

Sin embargo, si no es así, de tal forma que el precio es endógeno a las decisiones familiares, pueden existir problemas de identificación que dificulten la resolución de la optimización.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

1.4.- MODELO NO COOPERATIVO: EQUILIBRIO COURNOT-NASH

Los modelos no cooperativos, basados en la teoría de juegos y, particularmente en el equilibrio Cournot-Nash, se basan en que los miembros del hogar actúan maximizando sus propias utilidades sujeto a sus propias restricciones económicas, teniendo en cuenta las decisiones de sus cónyuges. Se asume que y se divide entre los miembros según una determinada regla según la cual A recibe ϕ^A y B ϕ^B .

Siendo las preferencias (3) y los bienes públicos y privados disjuntos, las demandas resultan del equilibrio Cournot-Nash:

$$\text{Max } u^i(q^i, Q^A + Q^B)$$

$$\text{s.a } p q^i + P Q^i = \phi^i(p, P, y)$$

donde Q^i denota la contribución de i al bien público.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Este planteamiento es similar a la descentralización en la distribución de bienes privados en el enfoque cooperativo, con la diferencia de que la descentralización en este nuevo enfoque cubre simultáneamente los bienes privados y públicos y, por lo tanto, la distribución resultante no será Pareto eficiente (la condición de eficiencia en los públicos es diferente de la de los privados).

Por lo tanto, los dos enfoques, cooperativo y no cooperativo, producirán el mismo resultado en el caso restringido de que todos sean privados.

El enfoque no cooperativo se ha utilizado en el análisis de la demanda de bienes y también de la oferta de trabajo, en ambos casos con diferentes preferencias individuales y tipos de bienes.

1.5.- EVIDENCIA EMPÍRICA

La satisfacción individual en la UE

El objetivo es concretar los determinantes de la satisfacción individual de cada uno de los esposos en relación a su tiempo disponible de ocio.

Con este propósito, adoptamos el modelo colectivo familiar que nos permite sustituir las funciones de demanda obtenidas bajo la condición de optimalidad paretiana en las funciones de utilidad individuales de los esposos dando lugar así a las respectivas funciones indirectas de utilidad:

$$v^J = v^J \left[v_{q^J}^J(\omega^A, \omega^B, y^A, y^B; z), v_{q^I}^I(\omega^A, \omega^B, y^A, y^B; z), v_{q_0^I}^I(\omega^A, \omega^B, y^A, y^B; z), v_{q_0^J}^J(\omega^A, \omega^B, y^A, y^B; z) \right]$$

Centrándonos en las utilidades óptimas derivadas del tiempo disponible de ocio y sabiendo que esta satisfacción esta afectada por los niveles propios y del cónyuge de consumo y ocio obtenemos:

$$v_{q_0^J}^J = v_{q_0^J}^J \left[q^{A*}(\omega^A, \omega^B, y^A, y^B; z), q^{B*}(\omega^A, \omega^B, y^A, y^B; z), q_0^{A*}(\omega^A, \omega^B, y^A, y^B; z), q_0^{B*}(\omega^A, \omega^B, y^A, y^B; z) \right]$$

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

La aplicación empírica se realiza utilizando las ocho olas disponibles del European Community Household Panel (1994-2001) para 14 países de la UE.

La variable dependiente se obtiene tras preguntar "Cuánto satisfecho está usted con respecto a su tiempo de ocio?" Las respuestas toman valores entre 1 (no satisfecho) y 6 (completamente satisfecho).

Las variables exógenas incluyen características sociodemográficas (edad, educación o presencia de niños en el hogar), y económicas (salario, renta no salarial o tipo de empleo).

Respecto a la especificación empírica, comenzamos asumiendo funciones de comportamiento lineales que permiten ser estimadas fácilmente con datos de panel:

$$v_{it}^I = \mu_{it}^I + \beta_1^A \omega_{it}^A + \beta_2^B \omega_{it}^B + \beta_3^A y_{it}^A + \beta_4^B y_{it}^B + \delta z_{it} + \alpha_i^I + e_{it}^I$$
$$i = 1, \dots, N; t = 1, \dots, T; I = A, B$$

donde los parámetros β y δ acompañan a las variables, μ y α_i son términos constantes, con μ siendo la media poblacional y α_i la desviación individual respecto a esta media y, finalmente, u_{it} los términos de error que se suponen independientes, con media nula y varianza constante.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

La estrategia de estimación incluye varias etapas. En primer lugar, estimamos cada ecuación de forma separada, considerando los datos agregados pool. En segundo lugar, empleamos la estructura de datos de panel para estimar considerando los efectos individuales fijos y aleatorios (en el caso de los efectos fijos, los coeficientes α_i son considerados valores fijos para cada individuo, mientras que en la especificación de los efectos aleatorios los aspectos específicos de cada esposo se toman como variables aleatorias independientes). Asimismo, adoptamos el método Efficient Generalized Instrumental Variables (EGIV) (Hausman and Taylor, 1981), utilizando como instrumentos medias individuales temporales de las variables. Una vez realizadas las cuatro estimaciones, aplicamos un contraste LM para determinar qué estimación, pool o panel, es preferida, aplicando posteriormente dos tests de Hausman para concretar qué estimación de panel (efectos fijos o aleatorios), o EGIV resulta más adecuada.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

“Household
Approach: Models”

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Satisfacción de los hombres

Variables	Austria	Belgium	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany	Greece	Ireland	Italy	Luxembourg	The Netherlands	Portugal	Spain	United Kingdom
Constant	3.926** (33.92)	6.655** (6.60)	5.045** (7.96)	2.573** (7.69)	4.668** (18.67)	4.797** (12.22)	3.688** (44.36)	3.562** (14.99)	2.972** (9.65)	4.667** (7.73)	4.304** (15.39)	3.791** (68.61)	3.108** (34.08)	7.200** (13.93)
HusbAge	0.024** (12.88)	0.007** (2.37)	0.018** (7.13)	0.008 (1.31)	0.007** (3.99)	-0.007 (-0.90)	0.011** (7.86)	0.022** (4.94)	-0.013** (-3.57)	0.014** (2.07)	0.004 (1.55)	0.006** (6.47)	0.024** (14.99)	-0.006* (-1.70)
AgeDifference		0.007 (0.45)	-0.006 (-0.64)		-0.004 (-0.57)				-0.005 (-0.53)	0.002 (0.08)	0.007 (0.37)			-0.016 (-1.26)
Children < 12	-0.023 (-0.54)	-0.017 (-0.67)	-0.054* (-1.66)	-0.008 (-0.12)	-0.040** (-1.96)	-0.078* (-1.86)	-0.136** (-5.16)	-0.014 (-0.36)	-0.106** (-2.72)	-0.004 (-0.05)	-0.077** (-3.40)	-0.050** (-2.79)	0.000 (0.01)	-0.055 (-1.53)
Children < 16	-0.040 (-1.51)	-0.063** (-2.82)	-0.034 (-1.53)	-0.143** (-3.80)	-0.055** (-3.84)	-0.134** (-2.31)	0.044** (2.52)	-0.077** (-3.15)	-0.031 (-1.00)	0.074 (0.83)	-0.031** (-2.07)	0.002 (0.16)	-0.058** (-3.14)	-0.160** (-4.41)
HusbSeconEduc		-6.287** (-2.26)	-1.412 (-1.29)		-2.097** (-2.59)				1.024* (1.71)	-1.719 (-1.14)	0.533 (1.02)			-8.834** (-5.93)
HusbHighEduc		-1.053 (-0.90)	-0.662 (-0.75)		-0.192 (-0.38)				2.038* (1.90)	-0.053 (-0.03)	0.952 (0.97)			-0.357 (-0.53)
WifeHighEduc		-0.387 (-0.51)	-0.350 (-0.53)		0.792 (1.38)				-2.034* (-1.74)	-1.637 (-0.94)	-2.225** (-2.20)			-0.726 (-1.22)
HusbWage	-0.100** (-11.54)	-0.085** (-11.86)	-0.076** (-8.17)	0.227** (4.67)	-0.047** (-10.09)	-0.078** (-3.52)	-0.082** (-18.77)	-0.089** (-3.88)	0.305** (5.27)	-0.043* (-1.72)	-0.096** (-9.92)	-0.040** (-12.63)	-0.087** (-20.17)	-0.130** (-5.81)
WifeWage	0.013 (1.55)	0.001 (0.08)	-0.014* (-1.70)	0.008 (0.23)	0.002 (0.40)	-0.013 (-0.62)	-0.018** (-3.45)	-0.006 (-0.20)	-0.201** (-3.74)	-0.022 (-1.04)	-0.009 (-0.98)	0.001 (0.33)	0.006 (1.01)	0.067** (3.10)
HusbNon-WageInc	0.111 (0.75)	-0.011 (-0.52)	1.399** (4.89)	1.593** (4.04)	1.047** (5.38)	-2.761** (-1.99)	0.022** (2.44)	-2.252 (-0.58)	6.059** (3.01)	0.237** (2.44)	2.362** (3.89)	0.023** (2.17)	0.045** (3.83)	1.668 (0.43)
WifeNon-WageInc	0.097 (0.51)	0.063 (1.35)	-0.738** (-2.00)	-1.044* (-1.68)	0.408 (1.20)	-4.821 (-1.55)	-0.032* (-1.75)	6.143 (0.56)	-6.291* (-1.71)	-0.165 (-0.91)	-1.284 (-0.89)	0.003 (0.12)	-0.013 (-0.33)	8.449 (1.31)
WifeParticipation	-0.227** (-2.72)	-0.126 (-1.53)	-0.079 (-0.75)	0.453 (1.52)	-0.110** (-1.99)	0.165 (1.19)	0.040 (0.68)	0.047 (0.37)	1.108** (4.15)	0.226 (0.76)	0.050 (0.80)	-0.060 (-1.52)	-0.204** (-3.15)	-0.099 (-0.89)
HusbSelf-Employed	-0.682** (-11.74)	-0.291** (-4.29)	-0.417** (-7.18)	-0.189** (-2.13)	-0.611** (-13.92)	-0.176 (-1.28)	-0.395** (-12.65)	-0.074 (-1.11)	-0.253** (-3.74)	-0.263 (-1.38)	-0.298** (-6.56)	-0.051** (-2.55)	-0.489** (-12.46)	-0.035 (-0.58)
LM	5805.94 0.0000	7546.08 0.0000	4845.16 0.0000	1975.21 0.0000	12550.27 0.0000	1283.07 0.0000	2770.73 0.0000	2980.80 0.0000	2924.81 0.0000	267.24 0.0000	10877.65 0.0000	13603.89 0.0000	4535.39 0.0000	2671.19 0.0000
Hausman 1	105.90 0.0000	67.63 0.0000	44.15 0.0000	54.54 0.0000	72.42 0.0000	118.55 0.0000	264.42 0.0000	53.79 0.0000	59.04 0.0000	32.62 0.0002	121.65 0.0000	177.76 0.0000	135.22 0.0000	134.14 0.0000
Hausman 2	40.01 0.0000	3.56 0.9378	6.31 0.7080	36.89 0.0000	9.64 0.3805	18.08 0.0343	27.33 0.0012	23.70 0.0048	9.79 0.3680	8.57 0.4775	3.16 0.9578	48.43 0.0000	27.69 0.0011	3.49 0.9414
Selected estimation	FE	HT	HT	FE	HT	FE	FE	FE	HT	HT	HT	FE	FE	HT
Number of observations	14392	14129	12083	6236	31083	9228	27817	11378	9376	2041	24446	29097	34027	14612

Note: t ratio in brackets. *: indicates individual significance at the 10% level. **: indicates individual significance at the 5% level. ***: indicates individual significance at the 1% level.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

“Household
Approach: Models”

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Satisfacción de las mujeres

Variables	Austria	Belgium	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany	Greece	Ireland	Italy	Luxembourg	The Netherlands	Portugal	Spain	United Kingdom
Constant	4.101** (19.19)	4.334** (9.67)	5.680** (18.40)	6.579** (10.69)	4.667** (41.83)	4.960** (13.44)	3.248** (31.30)	5.315** (13.00)	4.853** (14.97)	4.180** (5.31)	4.755** (30.76)	3.907** (74.30)	2.949** (25.36)	4.861** (14.41)
WifeAge	0.018** (9.54)	0.010** (3.11)	0.005* (1.68)	-0.013** (-2.26)	-0.005** (-2.05)	-0.011 (-1.43)	0.012** (8.89)	0.004 (0.94)	-0.020** (-4.20)	0.012 (1.31)	0.001 (0.64)	0.002** (1.96)	0.017** (10.45)	0.005 (1.23)
AgeDifference	-0.010 (-1.59)	-0.012* (-1.67)	-0.001 (-0.18)	-0.025** (-2.36)			-0.009* (-1.71)	0.008 (0.72)	-0.024** (-2.32)	0.001 (0.06)	-0.011 (-1.13)		0.004 (0.65)	0.014** (2.36)
Children < 12	0.013 (0.30)	-0.073** (-2.66)	-0.146** (-4.18)	0.070 (1.09)	-0.031 (-1.38)	-0.168** (-3.95)	-0.282** (-10.21)	0.011 (0.31)	-0.164** (-4.12)	-0.296** (-4.14)	0.030 (1.29)	-0.110** (-6.19)	-0.148** (-5.74)	-0.045 (-1.19)
Children < 16	-0.110** (-4.05)	-0.131** (-5.56)	-0.114** (-4.76)	-0.175** (-4.75)	-0.149** (-9.68)	-0.223** (-3.75)	-0.107** (-5.89)	-0.136** (-5.74)	-0.150** (-4.85)	-0.013 (-0.14)	-0.175** (-11.01)	-0.023* (-1.82)	-0.198** (-10.85)	-0.285** (-7.73)
HusbHighEduc	2.982** (3.98)	1.122** (2.39)	1.272** (3.48)	-0.270 (-0.46)			1.498** (2.40)	3.192** (3.94)	2.129** (2.27)	0.715 (0.52)	1.081** (2.06)		0.917** (2.11)	2.155** (6.35)
WifeSeconEduc	-0.595 (-1.55)	-0.384 (-0.32)	-1.555** (-3.16)	-2.447** (-3.30)			1.035** (2.11)	-3.093** (-3.49)	-0.429 (-0.97)	0.079 (0.03)	0.242 (0.70)		1.879** (2.33)	-2.777** (-3.21)
WifeHighEduc	-0.130 (-0.12)	-1.659** (-4.79)	-1.496** (-3.64)	-1.655** (-2.68)			-1.809** (-3.33)	-1.573** (-2.42)	-0.642 (-0.47)	-2.642** (-2.39)	-3.290** (-6.24)		-1.445** (-4.10)	-1.947** (-5.52)
HusbWage	0.007 (0.81)	-0.009 (-1.17)	-0.010 (-1.00)	-0.077 (-1.60)	0.004 (0.74)	0.013 (0.57)	-0.012** (-3.01)	0.018 (0.83)	-0.151** (-2.67)	0.016 (0.60)	0.003 (0.31)	0.004 (1.41)	0.007* (1.65)	-0.031 (-1.37)
WifeWage	-0.029** (-3.38)	-0.062** (-8.29)	-0.108** (-12.00)	0.222** (6.16)	-0.065** (-11.27)	-0.056** (-2.65)	-0.077** (-13.50)	0.008 (0.28)	0.093* (1.72)	-0.065** (-2.77)	-0.056** (-5.91)	-0.042** (-11.80)	-0.067** (-11.97)	-0.099** (-4.38)
HusbNon-WageInc	0.234 (1.54)	0.008 (0.39)	0.296 (0.98)	-0.062 (-0.19)	0.031 (0.15)	-0.062 (-0.04)	-0.014 (-1.50)	1.672 (0.45)	-4.893** (-2.44)	0.099 (1.01)	0.574 (0.90)	0.008 (0.79)	0.025** (2.17)	2.278 (0.62)
WifeNon-WageInc	0.063 (0.33)	0.069 (1.40)	-1.316** (-3.34)	0.736 (1.32)	0.304 (0.82)	-7.299** (-2.30)	0.015 (0.81)	-3.451 (-0.34)	6.485* (1.77)	-0.316 (-1.62)	2.298 (1.52)	-0.005 (-0.21)	0.070* (1.84)	8.650 (1.36)
WifeParticipation	0.178** (2.08)	0.016 (0.19)	-0.061 (-0.54)	-1.163** (-3.97)	-0.038 (-0.63)	0.147 (1.04)	0.278** (4.54)	-0.184 (-1.49)	-0.484* (-1.82)	0.278 (0.87)	-0.020 (-0.31)	0.129** (3.32)	0.172** (2.65)	0.091 (0.78)
WifeSelf-Employed	-0.810** (-15.13)	-0.234** (-3.05)	-0.159** (-2.09)	-0.539** (-6.01)	-0.364** (-5.47)	0.041 (0.27)	-0.279** (-6.99)	-0.268** (-2.33)	-0.392** (-5.18)	0.466** (2.26)	-0.130** (-2.50)	-0.054** (-2.43)	-0.555** (-12.14)	-0.074 (-0.98)
LM	5971.88 0.0000	7346.04 0.0000	3679.28 0.0000	1884.46 0.0000	12779.95 0.0000	1091.11 0.0000	2884.07 0.0000	2991.52 0.0000	2631.52 0.0000	356.91 0.0000	10351.89 0.0000	14665.37 0.0000	3925.47 0.0000	2460.63 0.0000
Hausman 1	110.45 0.0000	72.58 0.0000	54.60 0.0000	34.49 0.0001	137.69 0.0000	90.14 0.0000	83.57 0.0000	44.14 0.0000	71.39 0.0000	30.45 0.0004	140.48 0.0000	183.07 0.0000	119.13 0.0000	81.99 0.0000
Hausman 2	15.06 0.0893	10.29 0.3274	2.05 0.9906	8.41 0.4932	17.32 0.0440	20.98 0.0128	9.62 0.3819	0.85 0.9997	7.34 0.6022	6.14 0.7258	7.62 0.5727	31.79 0.0002	7.66 0.5683	5.03 0.8318
Selected estimation	HT	HT	HT	HT	FE	FE	HT	HT	HT	HT	HT	FE	HT	HT
Number of observations	14392	14129	12083	6236	31083	9228	27817	11378	9376	2041	24446	29097	34027	14612

Note: t ratio in brackets. *: indicates individual significance at the 10% level. **: indicates individual significance at the 5% level. ***: indicates individual significance at the 1% level.

La distribución intrafamiliar de la oferta de trabajo en Europa

Este trabajo analiza la distribución intra-familiar del tiempo disponible para trabajo remunerado fuera del hogar en cinco países representativos europeos (Francia, Alemania, Italia, España y GB). Adoptamos el enfoque colectivo familiar que permite la especificación de un modelo bi-ecuacional formado por las dos ecuaciones de oferta de trabajo de los dos esposos (semi-logarítmica y cuadrática), las cuales serán posteriormente estimadas de forma simultánea:

$$h^A = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \log \omega^A + \alpha_2 \log \omega^B + \alpha_3 \log \omega^A \log \omega^B + \alpha_4 y + \alpha_5 s + \alpha_6 z$$

$$h^B = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log \omega^A + \beta_2 \log \omega^B + \beta_3 \log \omega^A \log \omega^B + \beta_4 y + \beta_5 s + \beta_6 z$$

$$h^A = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \omega^{A2} + \gamma_2 \omega^{B2} + \gamma_3 \omega^A \omega^B + \gamma_4 \omega^A + \gamma_5 \omega^B + \gamma_6 y + \gamma_7 s + \gamma_8 z$$

$$h^B = \delta_0 + \delta_1 \omega^{A2} + \delta_2 \omega^{B2} + \delta_3 \omega^A \omega^B + \delta_4 \omega^A + \delta_5 \omega^B + \delta_6 y + \delta_7 s + \delta_8 z$$

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

La aplicación empírica se realiza utilizando las ocho olas disponibles del European Community Household Panel (1994-2001).

La variable dependiente en ambas formulaciones (semi-logarítmica y cuadrática) es el número de horas semanales que cada uno de los esposos dedican a trabajo remunerado fuera del hogar.

Respecto a las variables exógenas, nos centramos fundamentalmente en características económicas (salario, renta no salarial o tipo de empleo).

Las especificaciones empíricas vienen dadas por:

$$h^A = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \log \omega^A + \alpha_2 \log \omega^B + \alpha_3 \log \omega^A \log \omega^B + \alpha_4 y + \alpha_5 s + \alpha_6 z + \varepsilon^A$$

$$h^B = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log \omega^A + \beta_2 \log \omega^B + \beta_3 \log \omega^A \log \omega^B + \beta_4 y + \beta_5 s + \beta_6 z + \varepsilon^B$$

$$h^A = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \omega^{A2} + \gamma_2 \omega^{B2} + \gamma_3 \omega^A \omega^B + \gamma_4 \omega^A + \gamma_5 \omega^B + \gamma_6 y + \gamma_7 s + \gamma_8 z + \varepsilon^A$$

$$h^B = \delta_0 + \delta_1 \omega^{A2} + \delta_2 \omega^{B2} + \delta_3 \omega^A \omega^B + \delta_4 \omega^A + \delta_5 \omega^B + \delta_6 y + \delta_7 s + \delta_8 z + \varepsilon^B$$

donde s es el denominado factor de distribución que indica la proporción de renta no salarial familiar que corresponde a la esposa, mientras que z incluye un número de variables exógenas que influyen sobre las decisiones individuales. Por otro lado, $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon^A, \varepsilon^B)$ es el vector de términos de error que incluyen variables individuales inobservables, posiblemente correlacionadas entre los esposos.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Para los cinco países muestrales, realizamos tres estimaciones para cada una de las dos especificaciones empíricas.

En primer lugar, estimamos considerando los datos agregados (estimación pool) y, en segundo lugar, empleamos la estructura de datos de panel para estimar considerando los efectos individuales fijos y aleatorios.

Una vez realizadas las tres estimaciones para todos los países, aplicamos un contraste LM para determinar qué estimación, pool o panel, es preferida, aplicando posteriormente dos tests de Hausman para concretar qué estimación de panel (efectos fijos o aleatorios) resulta más adecuada.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Parámetros estimados

	France		Germany		Italy		Spain		UK	
	W	H	W	H	W	H	W	H	W	H
Semilog										
log _w	-0.025 (-0.44)	0.358 (3.62)	0.800 (12.54)	-0.341 (-3.06)	0.014 (0.10)	0.209 (1.07)	-0.177 (-3.73)	0.576 (7.92)	1.901 (16.39)	0.913 (4.05)
log _h	0.046 (0.56)	0.056 (0.74)	-0.613 (-7.37)	0.637 (7.68)	0.446 (2.00)	-0.046 (-0.24)	-0.683 (-8.95)	-0.380 (-7.63)	-0.609 (-4.25)	0.678 (3.99)
log _w log _w	-0.071 (-1.90)	-0.072 (-1.90)	0.220 (5.99)	0.220 (5.99)	-0.074 (-0.77)	-0.074 (-0.77)	0.084 (6.46)	0.084 (6.46)	0.644 (7.83)	0.644 (7.83)
y	-0.825 (-4.96)	1.027 (6.04)	-0.897 (-2.02)	-1.708 (-4.00)	-1.223 (-2.45)	-1.054 (-2.11)	-0.097 (-5.27)	0.028 (1.56)	-5.386 (-3.23)	-6.224 (-3.8)
s	-2.444 (-11.42)	2.944 (14.01)	-1.724 (-5.21)	-0.861 (-2.81)	-0.826 (-1.99)	-0.375 (-0.91)	-4.315 (-12.13)	2.131 (6.30)	1.734 (5.11)	-0.867 (-2.6)
Children (<14)	-1.312 (-12.98)	0.645 (6.72)	-1.551 (-10.75)	0.133 (0.98)	-1.101 (-3.58)	-0.118 (-0.39)	-1.311 (-7.37)	0.314 (1.96)	-2.728 (-16.86)	0.142 (0.96)
LM	18393 (0.000)		23729 (0.0000)		4199 (0.0000)		3766 (0.0000)		16808 (0.0000)	
Hausman	97.78 (0.000)		508.63 (0.0000)		47.38 (0.0000)		215.23 (0.0000)		272.23 (0.0000)	
t-ratio	15.54		3.70		-0.45		7.25		3.50	
Quadratic										
w _w ²	-0.0002 (-2.95)	-0.0002 (-2.38)	-0.017 (-9.64)	-0.0003 (-0.16)	-0.006 (-1.54)	-0.006 (-1.54)	1.94 10 ⁻⁶ (-6.06)	9.32 10 ⁻⁷ (2.74)	-0.037 (-13.10)	-0.018 (-3.12)
w _h ²	0.0001 (0.43)	0.0002 (1.04)	0.005 (2.28)	0.005 (3.56)	0.001 (0.32)	-0.005 (-1.33)	1.20 10 ⁻⁷ (0.57)	1.26 10 ⁻⁶ (7.45)	-0.004 (-1.14)	0.004 (0.25)
w _w w _h	-0.0008 (-0.43)	-0.0001 (-0.55)	0.002 (1.38)	-0.095 (-2.38)	-0.005 (-1.38)	-0.0005 (-0.15)	1.79 10 ⁻⁶ (6.22)	-1.64 10 ⁻⁶ (-5.86)	-0.005 (-1.48)	0.001 (0.30)
w _w	-0.001 (-0.14)	0.041 (4.26)	0.530 (13.54)	0.217 (4.93)	0.123 (1.53)	0.046 (0.57)	0.001 (1.92)	0.0005 (0.88)	1.392 (20.44)	0.261 (2.95)
w _h	-0.006 (-0.34)	-0.004 (-0.28)	-0.172 (-3.87)	-1.785 (-4.18)	0.087 (1.09)	-1.071 (-2.14)	-0.004 (-6.48)	-0.004 (-8.46)	0.024 (0.34)	0.084 (1.70)
y	-0.786 (-4.72)	0.990 (5.81)	-0.895 (-2.01)	0.140 (1.03)	-1.241 (-2.49)	0.120 (1.54)	-0.094 (-5.12)	0.032 (1.73)	-4.737 (-2.84)	-6.525 (-4.0)
s	-2.390 (-11.10)	2.867 (13.57)	-2.457 (-5.44)	-0.817 (2.66)	-0.827 (-2.00)	-0.413 (-1.00)	-4.285 (-11.76)	2.315 (6.75)	1.552 (4.56)	-0.870 (-2.6)
Children (<14)	-1.927 (-14.50)	0.638 (6.62)	-1.523 (-10.54)	0.140 (1.03)	-1.088 (-3.54)	-0.148 (-0.49)	-1.668 (-9.21)	0.344 (2.12)	-2.666 (-16.43)	0.113 (0.76)
N	11555		12795		10465		8983		10069	
LM	9591 (0.000)		23461 (0.000)		4264 (0.000)		3565 (0.0000)		16443 (0.000)	
Hausman	382.43 (0.000)		542.72 (0.000)		47.16 (0.000)		68.00 (0.0000)		223.73 (0.000)	
t-ratio	0.69		2.61		0.12		1.70		-0.19	

The collective labour supply in the US

The objective is to estimate a collective model á la Chiappori by using a semilog functional form with one distribution factor d (the sex ratio) and a vector of household preference variables \mathbf{z} :

$$h_f = a_{\alpha_f} + a_{1f} \log \omega_f + a_{2f} \log \omega_m + a_{3f} \log Y + \\ a_{4f} \log \omega_f \log \omega_m + a_{5f} \log d + \mathbf{f}_{\delta_f} \mathbf{z} + \varepsilon_f$$

$$h_m = a_{\alpha_m} + a_{1m} \log \omega_f + a_{2m} \log \omega_m + a_{3m} \log Y \\ + a_{4m} \log \omega_f \log \omega_m + a_{5m} \log d + \mathbf{f}_{\delta_m} \mathbf{z} + \varepsilon_m$$

$$\frac{a_{4m}}{a_{4f}} = \frac{a_{5m}}{a_{5f}}$$

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Given the separability of preferences, the restrictions imposed by the collective model suggest that:

- i. the distributional factors d_1 and d_2 should have a significant effect on the labour supply functions,
and
- ii. the ratio of the marginal effects of the cross-terms in $\log \omega_f$ and $\log \omega_m$ should be equal to the corresponding ratio of the marginal effects of the distributional factor on the labour supplies:

$$\frac{a_{4m}}{a_{4f}} = \frac{a_{5m}}{a_{5f}}$$

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

A representative panel data of United States (Panel Study of Income Dynamics) covering over 18,000 individuals in 5,000 families.

Data covers employment, income, wealth, expenditures, marriage, education and other topics.

We use the waves from 1997 to 2015.

We define the following variables: total labor supply of household members (hours of work), total labor income of household members, total family non-labor income, and socio-demographic variables.

We define sex ratios as the number of males to females, by State of residence and 5-year-old age groups.

Sample restricted to husband+wife families

23318 males and females from 4078 families:

VARIABLE	Husbands		Wives	
	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.Dev.</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.Dev.</u>
Age	41.93421	10.59916	40.20029	10.432
Years education	13.75091	2.388801	14.03039	2.242985
Black	0.1942967	0.3956686	0.179804	0.3840341
Labor supply/1000	2.22108	0.6352944	1.744308	0.6629689
Labor income	55870.43	77552.13	33760.49	31480.18
Non-labor income/1000	11.62132	37.34682	-	-
Sex-ratio	0.9081844	0.1917392	-	-

We observe higher wages and labor supplies
among husbands than among wives

Ages, education and race rates are similar
Non-labor income and sex-ratios are defined at
household level (not at individual level)

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

GMM Estimates

	(2)	(4)
VARIABLES	<u>xb</u>	xc
<u>log_head_salary</u>	3.549***	1.193
	(0.975)	(0.818)
<u>log_wife_salary</u>	3.020***	1.884**
	(1.017)	(0.889)
<u>log_cross_salary</u>	-0.305***	-0.137
	(0.0981)	(0.0839)
<u>nonlabor_income</u>	-0.00705**	-0.00408
	(0.00359)	(0.00379)
<u>sex_ratio</u>	-0.0198	-0.00820
	(0.0630)	(0.0494)
Constant	-32.59***	-14.67*
	(10.03)	(8.580)
Observations	4,078	4,078

- Robust standard errors in parentheses. Estimates also include the number of children under 6 and between 7 and 17, education years, ages, and raze (black vs non-black). Instruments for endogenous covariates: sex-ratio, second order polynomial on age and education, fathers' education, and religion. 58
- *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Accepted collective model:

$$\frac{a_{4m}}{a_{4f}} = \frac{a_{5m}}{a_{5f}} : 2.2 = 2.3$$

Hansen test for over-identification: 0.116 =>
endogenous cov. are correctly instrumented.

- a) Males:** If they or they wives earn more, they will work more hours. However, cross-wages have an opposite effect. Non-labor income also has a negative effect. The sex-ratio (the distribution factor) has non-significant effect on the labor supply
- b) Females:** Only work more if they earn more, and the effect is smaller than that of males.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

2. MODELOS INTER-TEMPORALES/ INTER-GENERACIONALES

2.1. FUNDAMENTOS Y EVIDENCIA MICROECONOMÉTRICA

Foundations

Equality of opportunity is generally considered as an important goal for society.

It refers equality of opportunity when all individuals have the same chances to move up (or down) the social hierarchy, regardless of family background.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

“Household
Approach: Models”

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

There are strong economic motivations for equality of opportunity being a desirable social outcome, given that barriers to lifetime achievement can hinder economic efficiency because the aptitudes and abilities of some individuals are more likely to be misallocated or underutilised.

Inequality of opportunity can also have implications for social cohesion and society's faith.

A usual indicator of the degree of equality of opportunity is intergenerational mobility: parents and children are, in the majority of cases, genetically related and, additionally, they usually live together.

We can expect transmissions of behaviors, with two fundamentals motivations: altruism and exchange.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

“Household
Approach: Models”

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

The economic study of altruism dates from the initial work of Adam Smith (1759), who argued that inter-dependence among individuals provides positive utility, measured in economic terms. Similarly, Edgeworth (1881) justified this inter-dependence in terms of the “social distance” between individuals. Becker (1981) established that, in altruism, the transfer is motivated by the donor’s concern for the well-being of the recipient, with no expectation of compensation.

The alternative approach, the exchange or self-interest motivation, widely developed by Cox (1987), Cox and Rank (1992), Altonji et al. (1992), and Cigno (1993), is based on the fact that individuals obtain utility from transfers to children because they expect to receive some form of compensation in the future.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

The relationship between intergenerational transfers and equality of opportunities has been studied in the literature which identifies some kind of circumstances through which parents may give their children in advantage (Roemer, 2004):

- i. Parents may influence life chances through the genetic transmissions of personality, preferences or health.
- ii. Parents may influence the lifetime earnings of their children through monetary and non-monetary investments
- iii. Parents may transmit economic advantages through social connections facilitating access to jobs or access to sources of human capital.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

“Household
Approach: Models”

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

The study of transfers across generations (intergenerational mobility), which refers to the relationship between the socio-economic status of parents and the status of their children when they will attain as adults, reflects the extent to which individuals move up, or down, the “social ladder” compared with their parents.

Understanding this concept of intergenerational mobility requires to appreciate the interactions of three fundamental institutions: the family, the market and the state.

It is clear that the degree of intergenerational mobility will not change significantly without there being important behavioural changes in parents’ habits and social norms.

Intergenerational income mobility typically uses the following model:

$$\ln Y_i^C = \alpha + \beta \ln Y_i^P + \varepsilon_i$$

where the endogenous variable is the \ln of the children's income and β is the elasticity of this children's income with respect to their parents' income

(if the parents' income is one percent higher than the average of this generation, by how many percentage points will their children's income exceed the average of the second generation?).

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

A larger elasticity indicates greater intergenerational constancy and, vice versa, a lower elasticity means a society with more mobility.

An elasticity of 0.8 implies that one per cent higher of parents' income is related with a 0.8 per cent higher of their children's income with respect to the average of their own generation.

This high transmission rate implies that parents' income does determine the children's income.

The following Figure (Corak, IZA DP 9929, 2016) shows different international values of the intergenerational earnings elasticity:

Master in
Economics

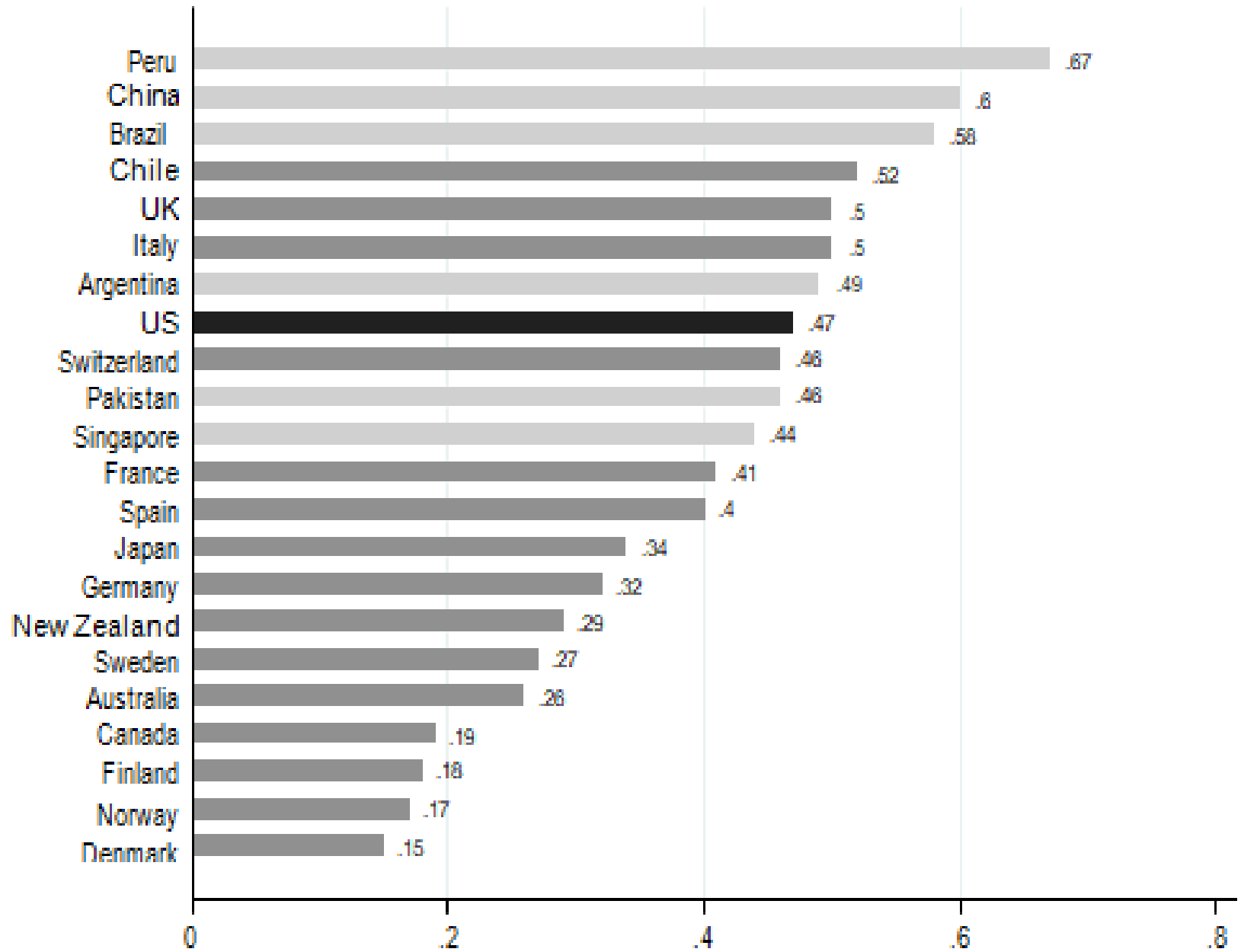
Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

“Household
Approach: Models”

Prof. José
Alberto Molina



Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

The low levels (less than 0.2) of the intergenerational earnings elasticity appear in the Nordic countries (Denmark, Norway and Finland), in this way indicating societies with more mobility from the parent's generation to the following one.

The high values (more than 0.6) appear in developing countries (Peru and China), showing a higher persistence or, in other words, a lower evolution/growth between generations.

It is also interesting to note that Spain shows at the mean of the table (0.4), with a similar value with respect to France or Germany. It is surprising the high values of some developed countries such as the UK, Italy and the US (about 0.5).

Another standard model of intergenerational transmission refers to the association between fathers' and children's education:

$$Y_i^c = \alpha + \beta Y_i^p + \varepsilon_i$$

where variables represents the educational attainments (years of schooling). If β is one, parental education perfectly predicts the educational outcome of the next generation (children with relatively poorly/highly educated parents will themselves become relatively poorly/highly educated).

Stella (2013) found for Europe that the mother's schooling has a stronger impact than her husband's in the educational success of their offspring. 69

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

The study of economic transfers also includes the effects of family structure on time transfers.

Albertini et al., (2007) confirm the existence of substantial financial and time transfers between parents and their offsprings, with these being less frequent but more intense in the Southern European countries than in the Nordic ones.

Giménez, Molina and Ortega (2016) find that in Germany, both fathers' and mothers' housework is positively related to the time devoted to housework by their children, while in Spain this relationship only holds for fathers' time (the intergenerational persistence is only valid for fathers' time: the father's behavior is followed by his children, but not the mother's behavior).

Micro-econometric evidence: GMO (2016)

We estimate the following OLS model:

$$\ln \text{Time}_{ih} = \alpha + \beta_1 \ln \text{Father's Time}_{ih} + \beta_2 \ln \text{Mother's Time}_{ih} + \gamma X_{ih} + \varepsilon_{ih}$$

where the dependent variable denotes the log of the time devoted to housework by child “*i*” in household “*h*”, expressed as a linear function of (log) time dedicated to housework by parents. The set of socio-demographic variables includes the children’s characteristics (gender, age, and work status), parent’s characteristics (age, education, work status) and household characteristics (household size, age of the youngest child of the household, whether the household owns the dwelling, the presence of any computer at home, and urban residence).

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies
University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics
"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	Germany 2001				Spain 2002			
	Sons		Daughters		Sons		Daughters	
<i>Housework time</i>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>
Children's participation housework	0.68	(0.46)	0.83	(0.37)	0.52	(0.50)	0.80	(0.40)
Children's housework	0.95	(1.38)	1.44	(1.62)	0.66	(1.27)	1.56	(1.80)
Father's housework	2.04	(2.15)	2.02	(2.12)	1.45	(2.03)	1.32	(1.84)
Mother's housework	4.46	(2.54)	4.51	(2.50)	6.13	(2.84)	5.85	(2.85)
N. Obs	3,440		3,122		3,959		3,686	
<i>Children's characteristics</i>								
Age of respondent	17.11	(5.14)	16.31	(4.19)	21.67	(7.26)	20.81	(6.81)
Student	0.57	(0.49)	0.65	(0.48)	0.48	(0.50)	0.56	(0.50)
Unemployed	0.01	(0.12)	0.01	(0.11)	0.07	(0.26)	0.09	(0.28)
Working part-/full-time	0.40	(0.49)	0.34	(0.47)	0.44	(0.50)	0.33	(0.47)
N. Obs	1,153		1,046		3,959		3,686	
<i>Parents-Household Characteristics</i>								
Father's secondary education	0.48		(0.48)		0.50		(0.50)	
Mother's secondary education	0.65		(0.62)		0.53		(0.50)	
Father's university education	0.45		(0.46)		0.18		(0.38)	
Mother's university education	0.23		(0.25)		0.12		(0.32)	
Father's age	48.08		(47.54)		52.32		(10.01)	
Mother's age	44.84		(44.33)		49.43		(9.56)	
Father working part-/full-time	0.88		(0.91)		0.73		(0.45)	
Mother working part-/full-time	0.74		(0.74)		0.38		(0.49)	
Household size	3.94		(4.22)		4.08		(1.01)	
Age of youngest child	14.60		(13.69)		17.76		(8.63)	
Household owns dwelling	0.75		(0.77)		0.89		(0.31)	
Computer at home	0.98		(0.98)		0.66		(0.48)	
Urban residence					0.58		(0.49)	
N. Obs	1,470				4,981			

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies
University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

	(1)	Germany		(4)	(5)	Spain		(8)
	Probit son	OLS son	Probit daughter	OLS daughter	Probit son	OLS son	Probit daughter	OLS daughter
Father's housework (log)	0.21*** (0.04)	0.13*** (0.02)	0.18*** (0.05)	0.10*** (0.02)	0.24*** (0.03)	0.12*** (0.01)	0.17*** (0.04)	0.04*** (0.02)
Mother's housework (log)	0.02 (0.05)	0.03 (0.02)	0.14** (0.06)	0.12*** (0.03)	0.02 (0.05)	0.02 (0.02)	0.00 (0.06)	0.01 (0.02)
Age of respondent	0.02 (0.01)	0.02*** (0.01)	0.02 (0.02)	0.01 (0.01)	0.03*** (0.01)	0.01*** (0.00)	0.04*** (0.01)	0.02*** (0.00)
Student	0.31 (0.29)	-0.12 (0.16)	-0.13 (0.47)	-0.26* (0.15)	0.43*** (0.13)	0.07 (0.05)	-0.07 (0.12)	-0.30*** (0.06)
Unemployed	0.67* (0.37)	0.20 (0.18)	0.27 (0.51)	0.23 (0.18)	0.52*** (0.14)	0.26*** (0.06)	0.46*** (0.15)	0.14** (0.06)
Working part-/full-time	0.15 (0.29)	-0.16 (0.16)	-0.25 (0.46)	-0.22 (0.15)	-0.08 (0.12)	-0.09** (0.05)	-0.28** (0.12)	-0.40*** (0.05)
Father's secondary education	0.22* (0.11)	0.04 (0.05)	0.13 (0.12)	0.05 (0.05)	0.10* (0.06)	0.02 (0.02)	-0.05 (0.07)	-0.05* (0.03)
Mother's secondary education	-0.21** (0.09)	-0.07* (0.04)	0.08 (0.10)	-0.01 (0.04)	0.03 (0.06)	0.02 (0.02)	-0.13* (0.07)	-0.08*** (0.03)
Father's university education	0.23** (0.11)	0.02 (0.05)	0.16 (0.12)	0.06 (0.05)	0.12 (0.08)	-0.01 (0.03)	-0.02 (0.10)	-0.12*** (0.03)
Mother's university education	-0.10 (0.11)	-0.04 (0.04)	0.15 (0.12)	0.03 (0.05)	0.13 (0.09)	0.04 (0.03)	0.03 (0.11)	-0.08* (0.04)
Father's age	0.01 (0.01)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.00)
Mother's age	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.00)	-0.01 (0.01)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00** (0.00)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.00)
Father working part-/full-time	0.08 (0.09)	0.12*** (0.04)	0.07 (0.12)	0.00 (0.05)	0.09 (0.06)	0.05** (0.02)	-0.04 (0.07)	0.02 (0.03)
Mother working part-/full-time	0.05 (0.07)	0.05* (0.03)	0.13* (0.08)	0.09*** (0.03)	0.14*** (0.05)	0.04* (0.02)	0.11* (0.06)	0.05** (0.02)
Household size	-0.06 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.02)	-0.04 (0.05)	-0.03 (0.02)	-0.04 (0.02)	-0.01 (0.01)	0.02 (0.03)	0.02* (0.01)
Observations	3,440	3,440	3,122	3,122	3,959	3,959	3,686	3,686
(Pseudo) R-squared	0.02	0.08	0.02	0.08	0.06	0.10	0.04	0.19

2.2. MODELO EXPERIMENTAL EN REDES SOCIALES.

Although we can begin by assuming that human behavior is essentially competitive, a number of relationships between individuals often show examples of cooperative and altruistic behaviors.

The model that best explains the existence of individuals who cooperate is based on the family relationship, so that individuals within the family, who share genes, present the clearest examples of cooperative behavior motivated by generosity.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

“Household
Approach: Models”

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Economists began to address cooperative behaviors from the time of Adam Smith (1759), whilst the analysis of cooperation from the experimental sciences has a reference milestone in Nowak and May (1992), who developed a Prisoner's Dilemma (PD) to prove the survival of the cooperative agent in a complex network.

Different versions of the PD have been used to analyze cooperative behaviors, with a general result being that, in repeated PD games, the global cooperation level rapidly declines given the effect of free riders.

It was also observed in numerous Public Goods experiments that observed cooperation being declining over time.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

“Household
Approach: Models”

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Prior research on cooperation using experiments has found mixed results from a gender perspective, although recent evidence appears to point toward women being more cooperative than men (Molina et al. 2013).

With respect to age, experimental research has shown that younger children are less altruistic (Fehr et al. 2008; Fehr et al. 2011).

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Very little is known about how cooperative behavior changes inter-temporally across generations:

Peters et al. (2005) place parents and children in a laboratory to participate in a public goods experiment, with the main result being that parents may behave more altruistically than do their children.

Bauer et al. (2014) uses individuals of two generations to prove that children of parents with a lower level of education are less altruistic.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Experimental evidence: Molina et al. (2016)

The novelty of Molina et al. (2016) is that we analyze how kinship among family members affects the intergenerational behaviors between three generations (youth, parent, and grandparent) when individuals of different generations play a PG game.

Individuals aged between 17 and 19 were recruited to participate in an experiment where the only information given a-priori was that the volunteers will play with one of their parents and one of their grandparents.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

We performed our experiments involving 165 volunteers: 55 volunteers aged between 17 and 19 years old, one of their parents and one of their grandparents.

Each volunteer participated in three different 3-player games, corresponding to three different treatments:

(a) one in which three members of the same family (i.e., youth, parent, and grandparent) played each other (family treatment),

(b) a second with the youth and two non-family members but preserving the previous generational structure (intergenerational treatment),

and (c) a third in which three randomly-selected players played each other (random treatment)

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

In the first treatment including all family members, the game is played by 3 generations of the same family: youth, parent, and grandparent (with independence of the gender and age of the players).

In the second treatment including non-family members, but maintaining the structure of the population, there is still one youth, one parent, and one grandparent, but they are not related.

In the third treatment, where the assignment is random, each player is matched randomly, independent of the relationship and generation of the players.

These treatments allow us to isolate the effect of kinship from other effects, which includes the generation (prior research has found that cooperation increases with age) and gender (prior research has found that cooperation is more common in women than in men).

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

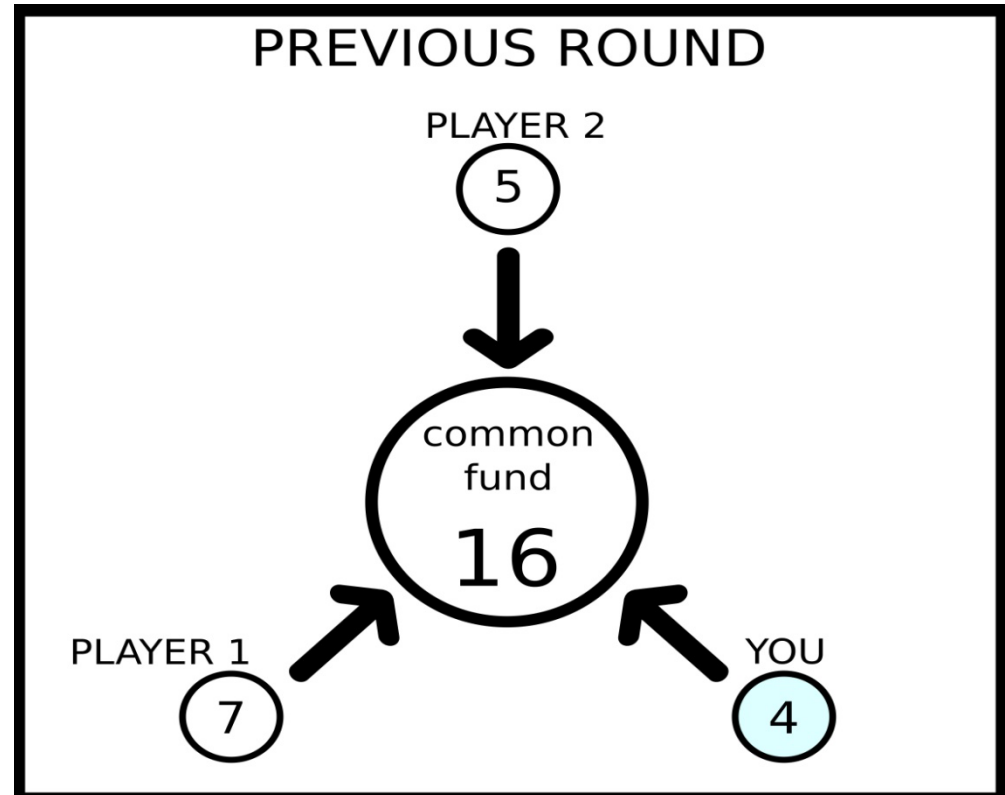
In the Public Good game, participants played a 10 rounds in each treatment.

In each round, participants had to decide how many monetary units (ECUs) they wanted to "invest" (from "0" to "10") in the common fund, and they also had information on how many units the other players had invested in the previous round (except in the first round of each treatment).

In each round, the sum of the contributions made by all 3 players was calculated, and the total contribution was multiplied by a factor of 1.5 and then shared equally by the 3 players. The obtained payoff in each round was the sum of this share plus the ECUs not invested in the common fund.

The participants played 10 rounds in each treatment (30 rounds/games per individual). At the end of the experiment, each player received the sum of the payoffs corresponding to all rounds of the three treatments, including a 5 euro attendance fee. 81

The large central circle represents the common fund. The number inside indicates the total amount the three players contributed to the fund during the previous round. Regarding the three small circles, the blue circle is you and the other two correspond to your companions. The number in each circle indicates how much each contributed to the pool in the previous round.



TIME REMAINING: 18

HOW MUCH WILL YOU CONTRIBUTE?

0	1	2	3	4	5
6	7	8	9	10	

At the bottom of the screen are 11 buttons, from 0 to 10. Simply click on the corresponding amount to invest in the pool.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Next panels show the average contribution per round, computed over all the volunteers of the same generation.

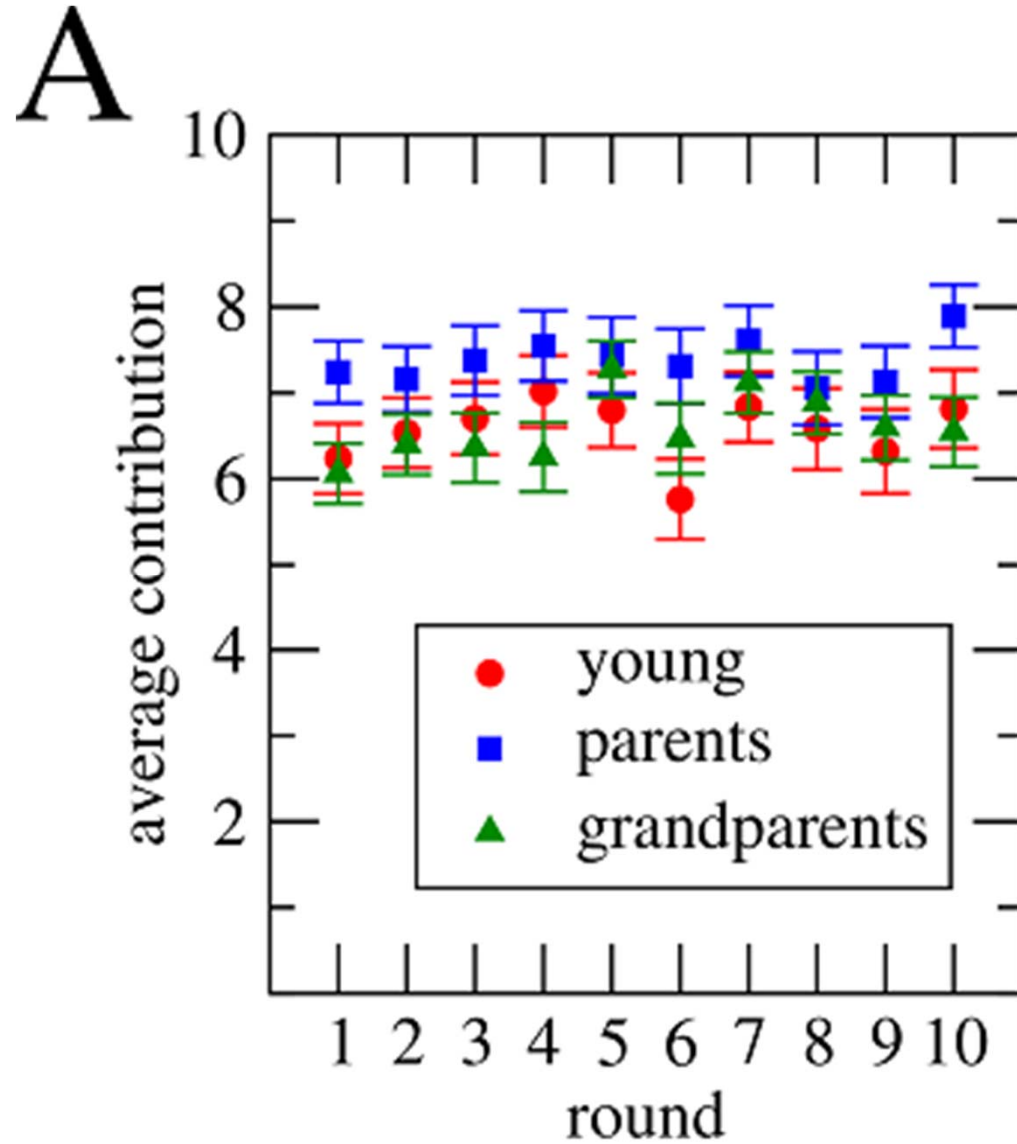
Different symbols represent different generations (a red circle for the youth, a blue square for the parent, and a green triangle for the grandparent) while different panels correspond to different treatments (A for family treatment, B for inter-generational, and C for random). As shown, regardless of the nature of the partners and the generation membership, the average contributions to the public good remain roughly constant over time.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies
University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics
"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina



Master in
Economics

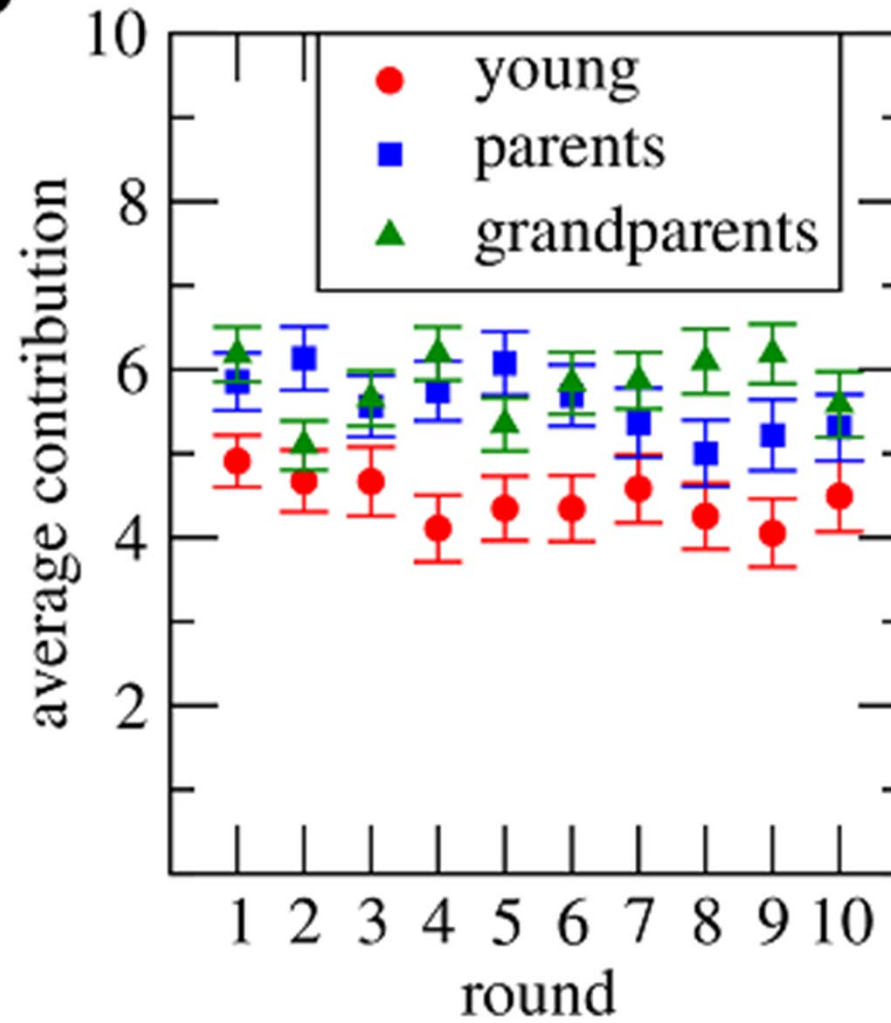
Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies
University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

“Household
Approach: Models”

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

B



Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

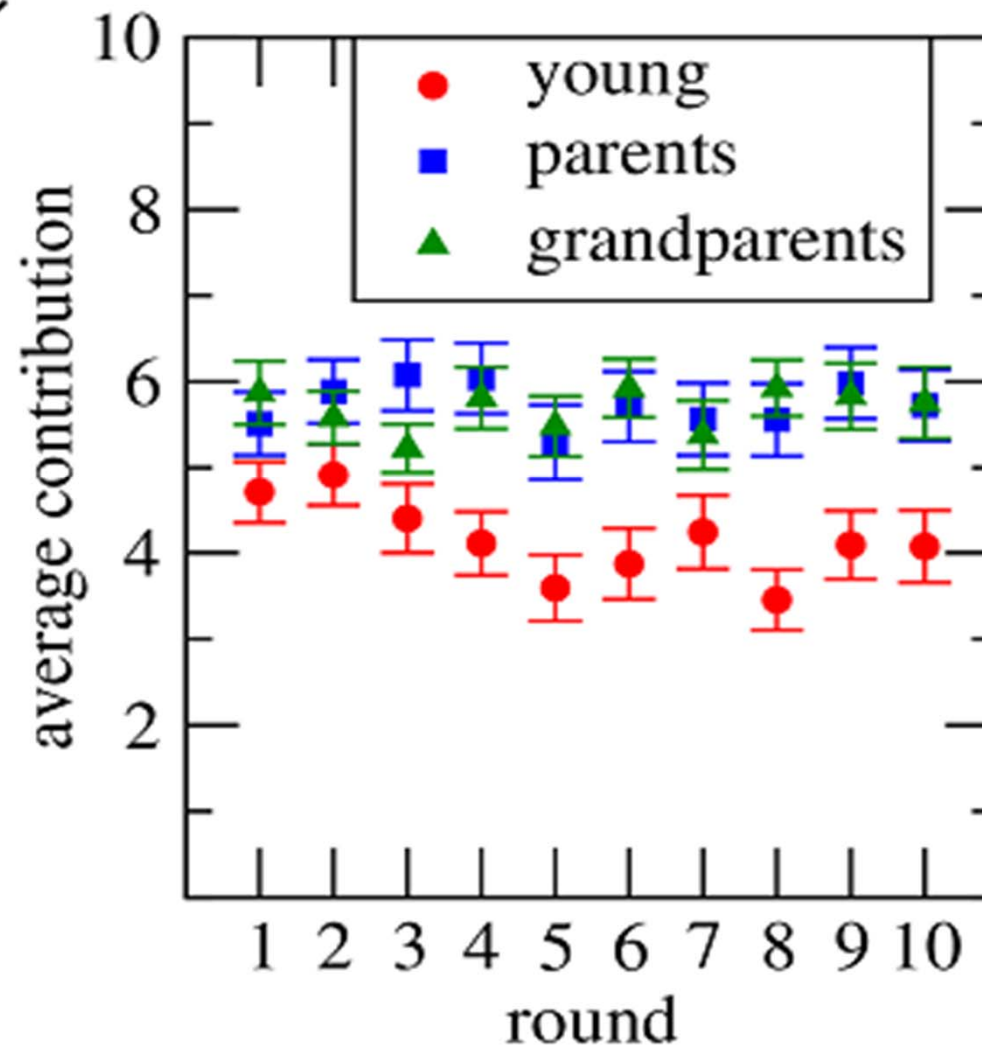
University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

“Household
Approach: Models”

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

C



Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Next panels represent the average contributions to the common fund, averaged over all the rounds.

Panel A of shows the results per generation (i.e., youth, parents, grandparents) aggregated over all the treatments. As can be seen, the level of cooperation of the youths (5.05) is significantly lower than that of the parents (6.21) and the grandparents (5.95).

Panel B of shows the average contributions per treatment (i.e., family, inter-generational, random), showing that, when an individual played with other members of the family, more is invested in the public good (6.77) than when interacting with strangers, whether they interact with members of different generations (5.27) or random participants (5.17). There was no significant difference between these two latter cases. The absence of significant differences in contributions between inter-generational and random treatments shows that the generational structure, by itself, does not have a significant impact on the common good contributions.

Master in
Economics

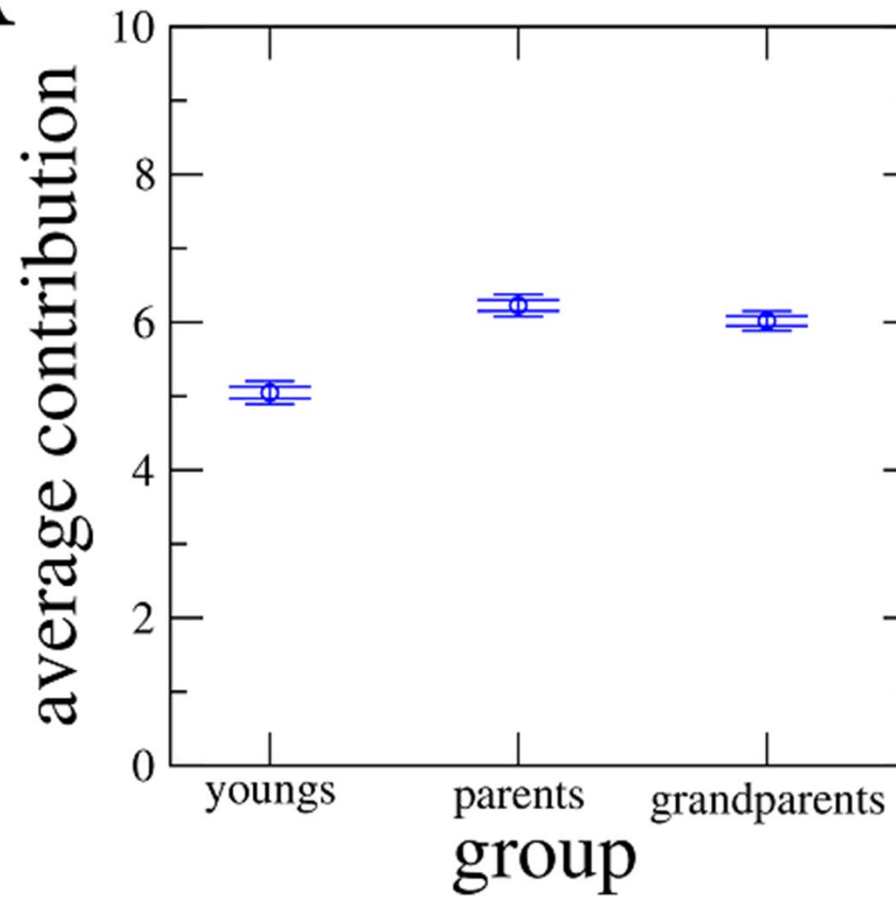
Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies
University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

“Household
Approach: Models”

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

A



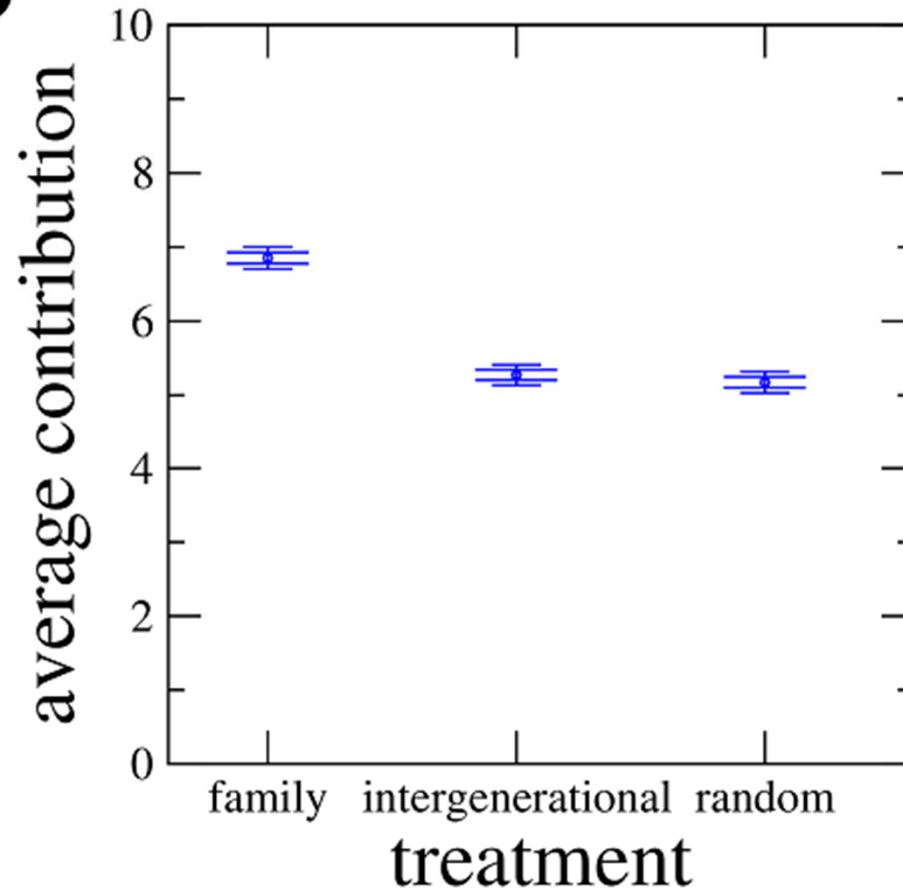
Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies
University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics
"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

B



Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Finally, panel C shows the contributions per generation and per treatment, averaged over all rounds of a given treatment and generation.

It can be observed that kinship promotes cooperation across all generations, given that, for all age groups, the contributions to the public good when interacting with relatives are higher than when playing with strangers. Although all the age groups cooperate more when playing with relatives, this trend is more evident for the parents and the grandparents than for youths, which suggests that youths are less influenced by kinship with respect to the common good contributions

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

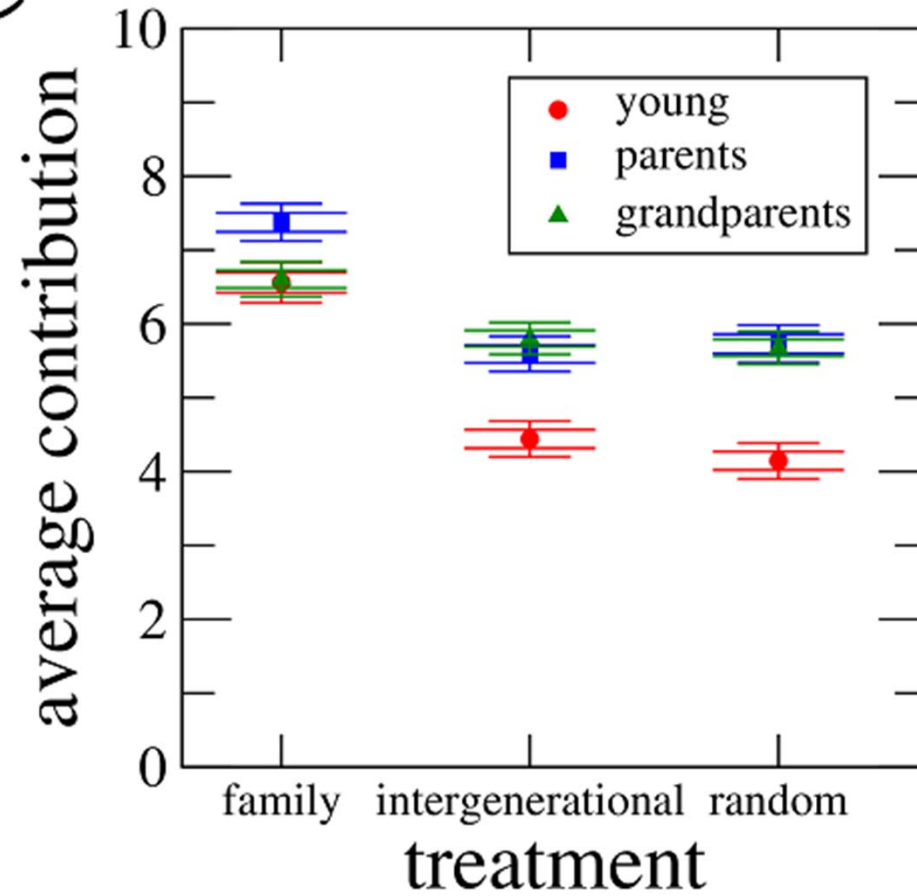
University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

C



2.3. MODELO COOPERATIVO INTERTEMPORAL.

Considers that the household consists of two working-age persons, $A =$ husband and $B =$ wife, in a two-period horizon.

The rational preferences can be represented by egoistic individual utility functions, in such a way that each of them is defined on their own vectors of consumption goods and hours of work, with no household public goods being considered for reasons of simplicity:

$$u^i = u^i(q_t^i, h_t^i)$$

where u^i are strongly quasi-concave, increasing and twice continuously differentiable functions.

We assume cooperative behaviour which leads to a Pareto efficient outcome, in such a way that the spouses choose consumption and hours of work each period to maximize a weighted sum of the spouses' expected present discounted values of lifetime utility:

$$\mu^A E \sum_{t=1}^2 u^A(q_t^A, h_t^A) + \mu^B E \sum_{t=1}^2 u^B(q_t^B, h_t^B)$$

with respect to consumption and hours or work each period, subject to the budget restrictions.

μ^i is the *ex ante* bargaining power, or Pareto weight of the household members at the time the match is formed in the intra-family distributions process, with these being a function of the distribution factors; and

E is the expectations operator. For simplicity, we assume discounting and that the interest rate is zero

The budget restrictions are based on the assumption that resources are pooled within the household, a key element of cooperative bargaining models, with the restriction corresponding to the first period being:

$$q_1^A + q_1^B = A_0 + \omega^A h_1^A + \omega^B h_1^B - A_1$$

where A_1 is savings

and the budget restriction in period 2 is:

$$q_2^A + q_2^B = A_1 + \omega^A h_2^A + \omega^B h_2^B + I^{A*} + I^{B*}$$

where I^{i*} is the realization of the random variable I^i

The model can be solved recursively starting from period 2 and the solutions can be written in the form of a regression function for period 2 hours of work for spouse i (Blau and Goodstein, 2016):

$$h_2^A = \beta_1^A \omega^A + \beta_2^A \omega^B + \alpha_1^A I^{A*} + \alpha_2^A I^{B*} + \gamma^A A_1 + g^A (f(I^A, I^B)) + \varepsilon_2^A$$

$$h_1^B = \beta_1^B \omega^A + \beta_2^B \omega^B + \alpha_1^B I^{A*} + \alpha_2^B I^{B*} + \gamma^B A_1 + g^B (f(I^A, I^B)) + \varepsilon_2^B$$

g^j is a function of *ex ante* IT (intergenerational transfers) expectations. It is important to control for IT expectations, since they will naturally covary with IT realizations

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies
University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Table 2: Estimated Effects of Inheritance Receipt, Alternative Specifications

	Men			Women		
	Self	Spouse	Other	Self	Spouse	Other
<i>(a) Alternative measures of Labor Supply</i>						
Labor Force Participation	-0.040** (0.020)	-0.004 (0.021)	-0.089*** (0.031)	-0.038* (0.022)	-0.005 (0.018)	0.036* (0.022)
Currently working for pay	-0.046** (0.021)	0.006 (0.021)	-0.097*** (0.032)	-0.038* (0.022)	-0.021 (0.020)	0.046** (0.022)
Year round	-0.047* (0.024)	0.007 (0.022)	-0.121*** (0.034)	-0.042* (0.023)	-0.023 (0.022)	0.032 (0.029)
Full time	-0.032 (0.025)	-0.018 (0.023)	-0.073** (0.035)	-0.060** (0.023)	0.006 (0.021)	0.012 (0.035)
YRFT	-0.044* (0.025)	-0.010 (0.023)	-0.095*** (0.035)	-0.060*** (0.023)	-0.006 (0.021)	-0.003 (0.034)
Weekly Hours of Work	-1.845* (0.797)	-0.300 (0.914)	-3.986*** (1.514)	-2.705*** (0.797)	-0.412 (0.693)	1.368 (1.004)
Annual Hours of Work	-112.567** (52.148)	-16.756 (46.595)	-222.844*** (77.424)	-112.007*** (39.220)	-25.039 (32.756)	65.030 (50.270)
<i>(b) Alternative Samples</i>						
Strong LF Attachment	-0.038 (0.025)	-0.007 (0.022)	-0.103*** (0.037)	-0.037 (0.028)	0.005 (0.023)	0.061** (0.026)
Include Previously Married	-0.024 (0.016)	-0.016 (0.017)	-0.069*** (0.025)	-0.037** (0.018)	-0.006 (0.014)	-0.008 (0.021)

The intertemporal collective labour supply in the US

The objective is to estimate an intertemporal collective model of the labor supply of household members, and derive the subsequent intertemporal and intra-household sharing rule.

We propose a theoretical framework *a la Chiappori*, where we assume two-member households: $i = 1, 2$ (husband and wife, respectively).

We define $t = 0, \dots, T$ periods of time.

With the usual utility functions $u_i(c_i, 1 - h_i)$:

$$\max_{\{h_{it}, c_{it}\}_{i=1,2}^{t=0, \dots, T}} \sum_{i=1,2} \left\{ \mu_i E_0 \sum_{t=0}^T u_i(c_{it}, 1 - h_{it}) \right\}$$

$$\text{s. t.: } c_t + s_t = w_{1t}h_{1t} + w_{2t}h_{2t} + y_t + s_{t-1}, \quad t = 0, \dots, T$$

$$s_0 = 0, \quad s_t \geq 0, \quad t = 1, \dots, T$$

2nd Fundamental Welfare Theorem: the household problem is decomposed in a sharing rule for non-labor income, φ_t , and two individual maximization processes.

Figure. Outline of the model

$$\text{For } i = 1, 2: \max_{\{h_{it}, c_{it}\}_{t=0}^T} E_0 \sum_{t=0}^T u_i(c_{it}, 1 - h_{it})$$

$$\text{s.t.: } c_{it} + s_{it} = w_{it}h_{it} + \varphi_{it}, \quad t = 0, \dots, T$$

$$h_{1t} = H^{1t}(w_{1t}, \varphi_t(w_{1t}, w_{2t}, y_t, s_{t-1}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{d}), h_{1t-1}, \mathbf{z}),$$

$$h_{2t} = H^{2t}(w_{2t}, y_t + s_{t-1} - \varphi_t(w_{1t}, w_{2t}, y_t, s_{t-1}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{d}), h_{2t-1}, \mathbf{z}).$$

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

Empirical evidence from PSID Data

VARIABLES	Labor supply	
	(1) Husbands	(2) Wives
<u>laged labor supply</u>	0.460*** (0.00777)	0.400*** (0.00771)
<u>log head salary</u>	0.577*** (0.0613)	-0.184*** (0.0550)
<u>laged log head salary</u>	-0.619*** (0.0618)	-0.0316 (0.0554)
<u>log wife salary</u>	0.183*** (0.0641)	0.273*** (0.0575)
<u>laged log wife salary</u>	-0.415*** (0.0651)	-0.152*** (0.0584)
<u>log cross salary</u>	-0.0186*** (0.00591)	0.0134** (0.00530)
<u>laged log cross salary</u>	0.0372*** (0.00603)	0.00008 (0.00541)
<u>nonlabor income</u>	7.92e-05 (0.000109)	-5.96e-05 (9.77e-05)
<u>sex ratio</u>	0.0568* (0.0301)	0.00363 (0.0263)

- El cociente de los efectos asociados a sex-ratios y efectos cruzados de salarios no coinciden a priori: no hay evidencia a favor de la racionalidad colectiva en un marco intertemporal: evidencia en contra de un proceso de reparto intrafamiliar constante en el tiempo. Aspectos a considerar: ¿Renegociación? ¿"Outside option" (divorcio)?
- **Efecto positivo de la oferta laboral sobre la futura oferta laboral.**
- **Husbands:** Los salarios (propios y del cónyuge) incentivan en el presente pero desincentivan desde el pasado. Efecto de los salarios cruzados inverso.
- **Wives:** Efectos salariales cuantitativamente menores. Efecto del cónyuge en el pasado: no significativo, tanto directamente como a través del efecto cruzado.

Master in
Economics

Faculty of
Economics and
Business Studies

University of
Zaragoza

Microeconomics

"Household
Approach: Models"

Prof. José
Alberto Molina

REFERENCIAS BÁSICAS

Blau, D.M. and Goodstein, R.M. (2016). "Commitment in the household: evidence from the effects of inheritances on the labor supply of older married couples", *Labour Economics*, 42, 123-137.

Donni, O. and Chiappori, P.A. (2011). "Nonunitary models of household behaviour: a survey of the literature", In *Household Economic Behaviors* (Ed. J.A. Molina), 1-40. Springer.

García, I., Molina, J.A. and Montuenga, V. (2011). "Gender differences in childcare: time allocation in five European countries", *Feminist Economics*, 17 (1), 119-150.

Giménez, J.I., Molina, J.A. and Ortega, R. (2016). "As my parents at home? Gender differences in childrens' housework in Germany and Spain". *Empirical Economics*, forthcoming. DOI:10.1007/500181-016-1100-x.

Giménez, J.I., Molina, J.A. and Sevilla, A. (2012). "Social norms, partnerships and children", *Review of Economics of the Household*, 10, 215-236.

Molina, JA, Alfredo Ferrer, José Ignacio Gimenez-Nadal, Carlos Gracia-Lazaro, Yamir Moreno, and Angel Sanchez (2016). "[The effect of kinship on intergenerational cooperation: A lab experiment with three generations](#)" (03/2016; PDF). Boston College, WP 905.