

# The Macroeconomic Consequences of Family Policies

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**This Paper:** **What are the macroeconomic consequences of family policies?**

- ① Effects on fertility, human capital, social mobility, and welfare
- ② Short-run versus long-run effects, and transition
- ③ Compare in-cash versus in-kind family policies

**A quantitative heterogeneous-agent GE-OLG model that combines:**

- ① Joint determination of **child quantity** and **child quality**
- ② Rich life cycle with **endogenous demographic structure**
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**Parameter(s) governing the trade-off between child quality and quantity:**

- Disciplined by matching U.S. data and RCT evidence
- Validated using the Alaska Permanent Fund Dividend and other existing policies

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  - ④ Government needs to finance higher child-related expenditures in transition
- Subsidized childcare and public education are less cost-effective in raising fertility, but offer other advantages

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### Fertility, Family Policies, and the Aggregate Economy

- **Empirical:** Milligan (2005), Laroque and Salanié (2008), Drago et al. (2011), Luci-Greulich and Thévenon (2013), González (2013), Raute (2019)...
- **Structural:** [de la Croix and Doepke \(2003\)](#), [Kim, Tertilt and Yum \(2021\)](#)
- **Contribution:** [Develop a structural model tailored to analyzing family policies](#)

### Income transfers, Children's Outcomes, and Social Mobility

- Benabou (2002), Heckman and Mosso (2014), Bastian and Michelmore (2018), [Daruich \(2019\)](#), Abbott, Gallipoli, Meghir and Violante (2019), Mullins (2019), [Guner, Kaygusuz and Ventura \(2020\)](#)...
- **Contribution:** [Endogenize fertility choice and demographic structure](#)

- ① Model
- ② Calibration (2010 USA)
- ③ Validation – the Alaska Permanent Fund Dividend (APFD)
- ④ Counterfactual – Steady-State & Transition
- ⑤ Compare In-Cash vs In-Kind Policy Instruments
- ⑥ Conclusion

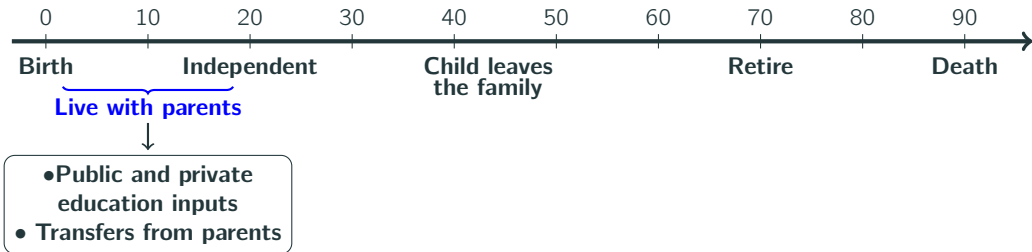
## Model

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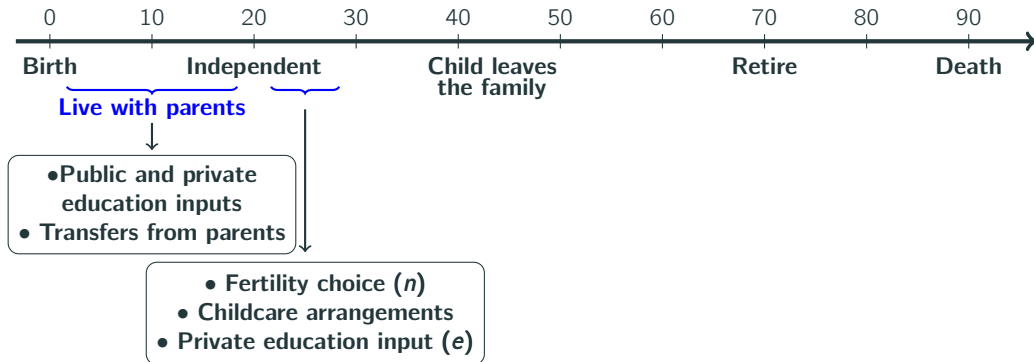
## Model: Life Cycle



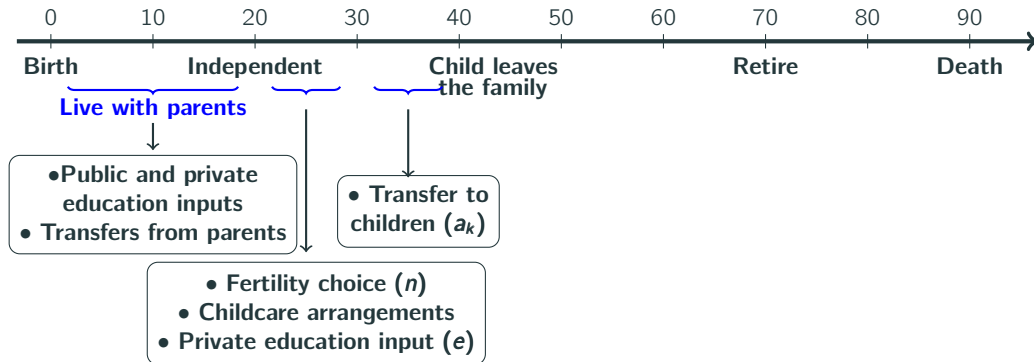
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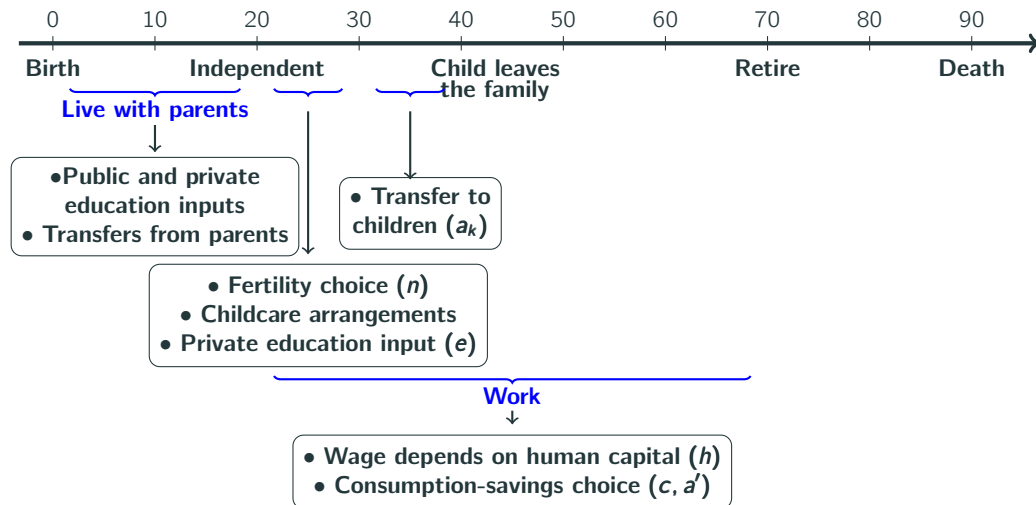
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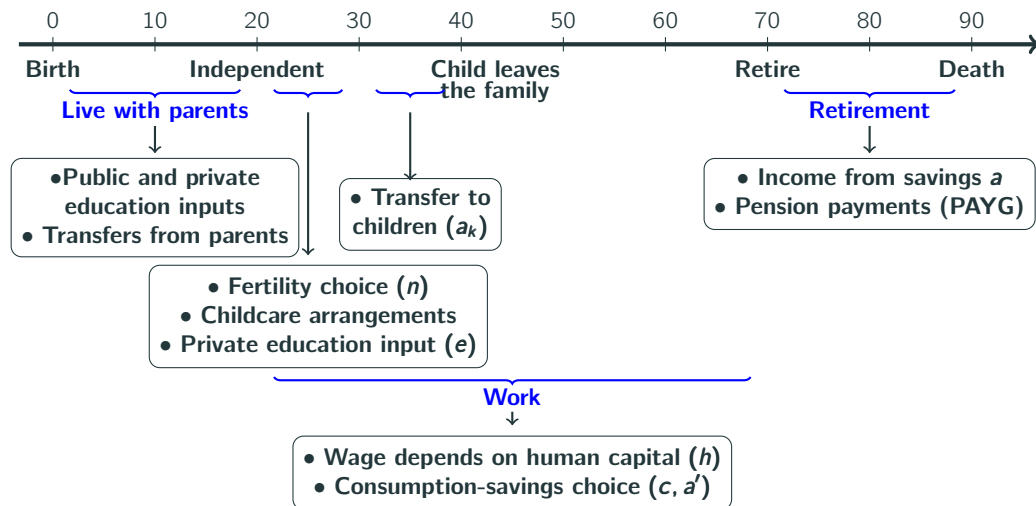


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# Fertility, Childcare and Skill Formation



$$V_2(h, a) = \max_{c, a', n, e, t_h, m \geq 0} u(c/\Lambda(n)) + \beta \mathbb{E} V_3(h', a', n, \mathbb{E} h_k)$$

$h$  : parents' skills

$a$  : assets

$n$  : fertility

$t_h$  : total home care

$m$  : market care

$e$  : private educ. input

$\chi$  : childcare time

$p_m$  : market care price

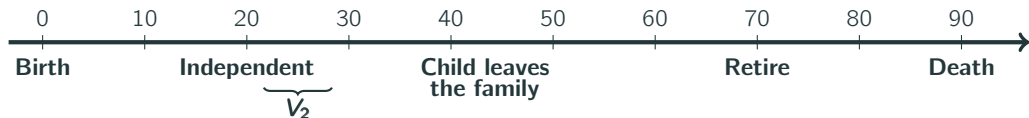
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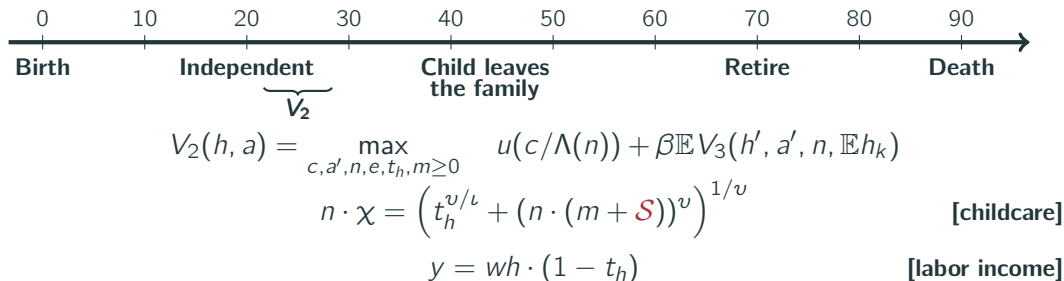
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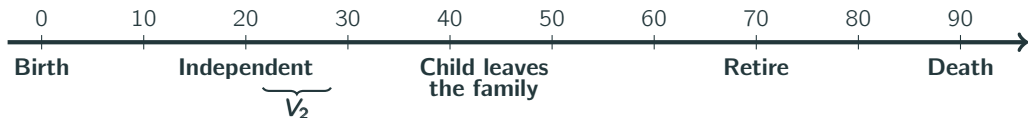
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$$y = wh \cdot (1 - t_h) \quad [\text{labor income}]$$

$$(1 + \tau_c)(c + (p_m \cdot m + e) \cdot n) + a' = (1 + r)a + y - \mathcal{T}(y, a, n) + \mathcal{B} \cdot n \quad [\text{BC}]$$

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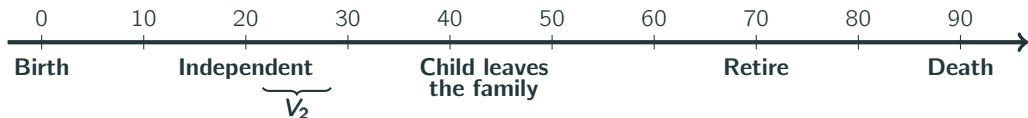
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$$h' = L_2(h, 1 - t_h, z') \quad h_k = G(h, \mathcal{E}, e, \epsilon) \quad [\text{technology}]$$

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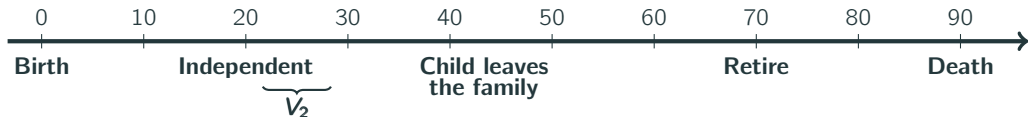
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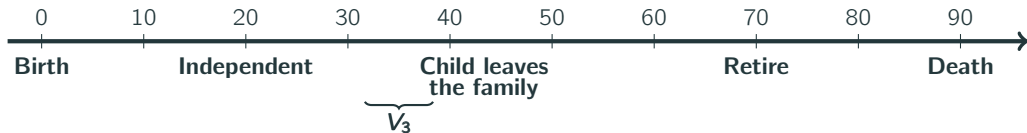
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Two simplifying modeling assumptions:

- ①  $G(h, \mathcal{E}, e, \epsilon)$  captures the overall skill formation of children from age 0 to 20
- ② Time cost  $\chi$  is non-educational and parents investments are summarized by  $e$ .

High-quality public childcare can be implemented by raising  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  jointly in the model

# Parent-to-Child Transfer



$$V_3(h, a, n, \mathbb{E}h_k) = \max_{c, a', a_k \geq 0} u(c/\Lambda(n)) + \beta \mathbb{E}V_4(h', a') + \underbrace{v(n, \mathbb{E}h_k, a_k)}_{\text{utility from quantity and quality}}$$

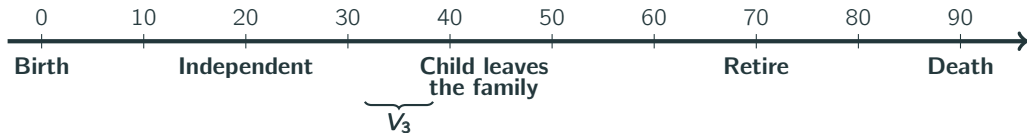
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Child quantity ( $n$ ) interacts with child quality ( $\mathbb{E}h_k, a_k$ ) in two ways:

- ① [BC]: higher  $n$  raises marginal costs of ( $\mathbb{E}h_k, a_k$ ) à la Becker and Lewis (1973)
- ② Preferences: complements or substitutes – calibrated to match data

## quantity-quality Trade-off

- Consider increase in  $\mathcal{B}$  on private educational input  $e$ :

$$\underbrace{MU_c \cdot n}_{\text{marginal costs of } e} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial v(n, \mathbb{E}h_k, a_k)}{\partial \mathbb{E}h_k} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}h_k}{\partial e}}_{\text{marginal benefits of } e} \quad \text{FOC [e]}$$

- When  $n$  is fixed,  $\mathcal{B} \uparrow$  (income effect),  $MU_c \downarrow \implies e \uparrow$
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## Composition Effects

- Average child human capital:

$$\underbrace{\bar{h}_k}_{\text{average } h_k} = \iint \underbrace{\frac{n^*(h, a)}{N}}_{\text{fertility weight}} \cdot \underbrace{h_k^*(h, a, \cdot)}_{\text{individual child's } h_k} d \underbrace{\mu_2}_{\text{parents' dist.}} d\epsilon$$

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- Government fiscal budget:

$$\underbrace{\left( \sum_{j=2}^6 \omega_j \int \mathcal{T}(y_j^*, a_j^*, n_j^*) d\mu_j \right)}_{\text{labor and capital income taxes}} + \underbrace{\tau_c \left( \sum_{j=2}^8 \omega_j \int c_j^* d\mu_j + \omega_2 \int n^* \cdot (p_m \cdot m^* + e^*) d\mu_2 \right)}_{\text{consumption taxes}} =$$

$$\underbrace{(\omega_0 + \omega_1) \cdot \mathcal{E}}_{\substack{\text{mass of children} \\ \text{public education}}} + \underbrace{\omega_2 \left( \underbrace{\int n^* \cdot \mathcal{B} d\mu_2}_{\text{baby bonus}} + \underbrace{\int (1 + \tau_c) \cdot n^* \cdot p_m \cdot \mathcal{S} d\mu_2}_{\text{subsidized childcare}} \right)}_{\text{family policy expenditures}} + \underbrace{\pi \left( \sum_{j=7}^8 \omega_j \int wh d\mu_j \right)}_{\text{pension payments}} + \underbrace{\mathcal{X}}_{\text{others}}$$

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- **Demographic Structure Effects:** Family policies change  $\{\omega_j\}_{j=0}^8$ . Effects on fiscal burden depends on relative costs of old versus child

# Calibration

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# Model Parameters

**Table 1: Model Parameters**

Interpretation		Value	Source	Interpretation		Value	Source
Preferences				Child human capital production			
$\beta$	discount rate	0.98 <sup>10</sup>	standard	$Z$	normalizing scalar	2.50	median income =1
$\gamma$	elasticity of substitution	0.73	CPS	$\sigma_\epsilon$	ability shock dispersion	0.58	PSID
$\psi$	fertility preference	2.30	CPS	$\rho$	intergenerational spillover	0.30	Chetty et al. (2014)
$\theta$	human capital preference	2.85	PSID	$\xi$	substitution of education	0.9	CEX
$\nu$	transfer preference	0.29	PSID	$\mathcal{E}$	public education	\$12,000	NCES
Childcare arrangement				$\kappa$	input productivity	0.13	Gárcia et al. (2020)
$\chi$	childcare cost	0.18	ATUS	Adults' human capital evolution			
$\iota$	economies of scale at home	0.7	ATUS	$\eta$	learning curvature	1.22	PSID
$\upsilon$	substitutability of care	0.38	SIPP	$\{\zeta\}_{j=2}^5$	learning level	misc.	PSID
$p_m$	price of full-time care	\$6,860	NACCRRA	$\mu_z$	skill depreciation	-0.23	PSID
Taxes and pension				$\sigma_z$	shock dispersion	0.38	PSID
$\tau_y^0, \lambda_y^0$	tax levels and progressivity	misc.	TAXSIM	Firm production function			
$\tau_c$	consumption tax	0.07	McDaniel (2007)	$A$	total factor productivity	1	normalization
$\tau_a$	capital income tax	0.27	McDaniel (2007)	$\alpha$	capital share	0.33	standard
$\pi$	pension replacement rate	0.40	OECD Database	$\delta_k$	capital depreciation	0.04 <sup>10</sup>	standard

- 14 parameters are **calibrated** within the model

► moment fit

► childcare ► adult skill ► firm and gov.

## Utility from child quantity and quality:

$$v(n, \mathbb{E}h_k, a_k) = \underbrace{\Psi(n)}_{\text{child discounting}} \cdot \underbrace{(\theta \cdot u(\mathbb{E}h_k) + \nu \cdot u(a_k))}_{\text{utility from child quality}}$$

$$\underbrace{\Psi(n) = 1 - \exp(-\psi n)}_{\text{increasing \& concave in } n} \quad u(x) = \frac{x^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma} \quad \gamma \in (0, 1) \quad x \in \{\mathbb{E}h_k, a_k, c\}$$

- Results robust to dynastic altruism and separable preferences

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$$\underbrace{\Psi(n) = 1 - \exp(-\psi n)}_{\text{increasing \& concave in } n} \quad u(x) = \frac{x^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma} \quad \gamma \in (0, 1) \quad x \in \{\mathbb{E}h_k, a_k, c\}$$

- Results robust to dynastic altruism and separable preferences
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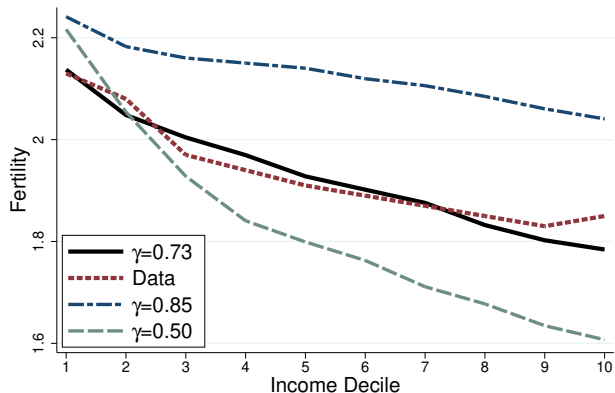
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- $\{\psi, \theta, \nu\}$  matches aggregate fertility and average spendings on quality
- $\gamma$  - elasticity of intergenerational substitution (EGS) (Córdoba and Ripoll 2019)
- Conditional on other parameters,  **$\gamma$  determines fertility elasticity**. Higher  $\gamma \implies$  smaller fertility responses, larger quality responses (c.f. Soares 2005) ▶ intuition



# Identification of $\gamma$

- $\gamma$  identified by **fertility-income profile** (Córdoba, Ripoll and Liu 2016). Higher  $\gamma \implies$  Higher MRS of quantity for quality  $\implies$  flatter profile



- Calibrated  $\gamma$  generates realistic life-cycle profile of net worth

► net worth

# Children's Skill Production Function

- Children's skill production function:

$$h_k = \underbrace{Z}_{\text{scalar}} \cdot \underbrace{\epsilon}_{\text{shock}} \cdot \underbrace{h^\rho}_{\text{spillover}} \cdot \left( \underbrace{\mathcal{E}^\xi}_{\text{public education}} + \underbrace{e^\xi}_{\text{private input}} \right)^{\kappa/\xi}$$

$$\log(\epsilon) \sim \mathcal{N}\left(-\frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2}{2}, \sigma_\epsilon^2\right)$$

- Highlight of parameters:
  - $\rho = 0.3$  - rank-rank mobility (Chetty, Hendren, Kline and Saez 2014)
  - $\mathcal{E} = 0.16$  - \$12k per pupil per year (NCES)
  - $\kappa = 0.13$  - **RCT evidence** from García, Heckman, Leaf and Prados (2020)

## Validation

---

# Does the model generate responses that match empirical estimates?

External validation using **Alaska Permanent Fund Dividends (APFD)**

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- Ideal setting to test fertility responses:
  - ① Large in scale ( $\approx$  \$1.5k per year) relative to other family policies
  - ② Simple implementation that is income- or work-tested
- Recalibrate  $\{\mathcal{T}(\cdot), \psi, \gamma\}$ . Implement APFD in the model: universal basic income (UBI) to parents and children by \$1.5k. The model predicts:
  - ① Completed fertility rises by **0.16** children per women
  - ② Larger responses from households with lower human capital

## Difference-in-Difference Analysis

- CPS June Fertility Supplement 1982-2018, Alaskan women aged 40-55 divided into “not treated”, “partially treated” ( $T_1 = 1$ ), and “fully treated” ( $T_2 = 1$ )



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$$\text{fertility} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 T_1 + \beta_2 T_2 + \text{State FE} + \text{Year FE} + \epsilon$$

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$$\text{fertility} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 T_1 + \beta_2 T_2 + \text{State FE} + \text{Year FE} + \epsilon$$

- Regression results confirm model predictions:

		(1)	(2)	(3)
	Model	Full Sample	Low Education	High Education
$\beta_1$		0.098*** (0.027)	0.216*** (0.036)	0.074*** (0.021)
$\beta_2$	0.16	0.172*** (0.032)	0.296*** (0.041)	0.105*** (0.025)
# Obs		146,804	69,511	77,293

# Counterfactual

---

# Main Counterfactual

- Evaluate **baby bonuses**  $\mathcal{B}$  of different sizes
  - Timing: unexpected and permanent policy change
  - Source of funds:  $\tau_c$  balances budget each period

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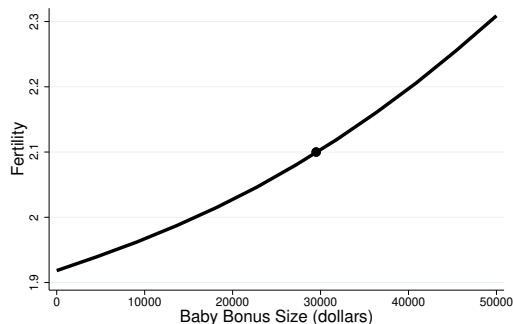
- Evaluate **baby bonuses**  $\mathcal{B}$  of different sizes
  - Timing: unexpected and permanent policy change
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- Consider two (pragmatic) welfare measures:
  - ① Long-run welfare  $\mathcal{W} = \int V_2 d\mu_2$ : average value of newborn
  - ② Welfare of existing households and those born in transition

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  - ② Welfare of existing households and those born in transition
- Roadmap of results:
  - Long-run effects
  - Transition and distributional effects across generations
- Other policies: subsidized childcare  $\mathcal{S}$  and public education  $\mathcal{E}$

# Fertility Effects of Cash Rewards to Childbirth

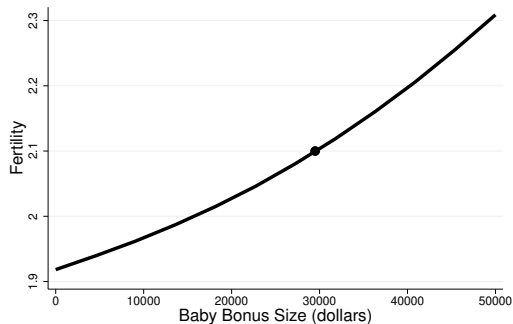
**Figure 1:** Effects on aggregate fertility



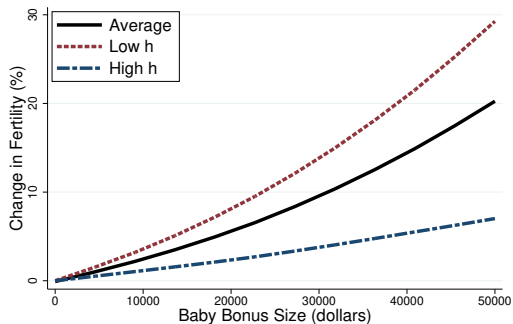
- **$B = \$30k$**  raises aggregate fertility rate to the replacement level (benchmark policy), costing around 1.8% of GDP in the new equilibrium

# Fertility Effects of Cash Rewards to Childbirth

**Figure 1:** Effects on aggregate fertility



**Figure 2:** Heterogeneous fertility response

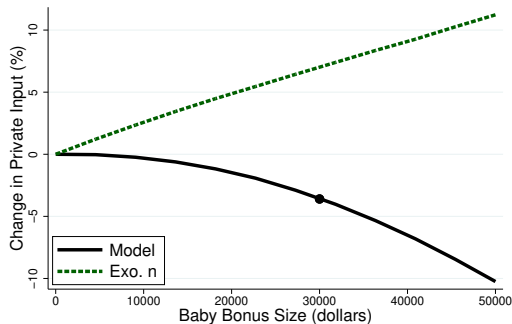


- **$B = \$30k$**  raises aggregate fertility rate to the replacement level (benchmark policy), costing around 1.8% of GDP in the new equilibrium
- Parents with lower human capital respond more in fertility – larger proportional change in the shadow price of child ( $e^*(h)$  and  $wh$ )



# Effects on $e$ and Average Human Capital

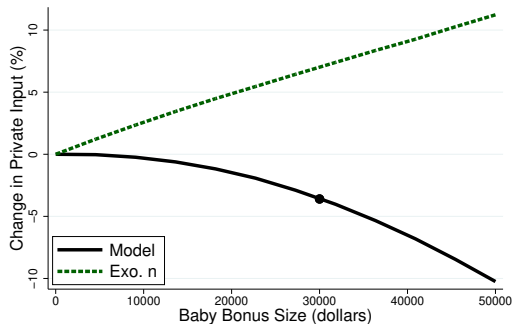
**Figure 3:** Average private input  $e$



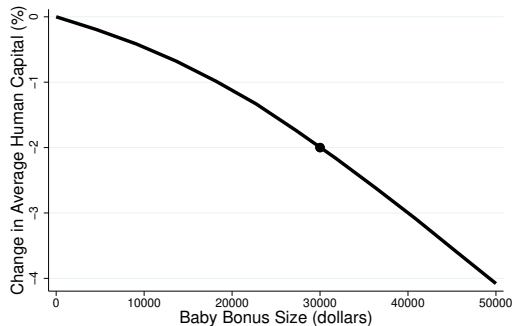
- Average private input ( $e$ ) **falls by 4%** – **quantity-quality trade-off**

# Effects on $e$ and Average Human Capital

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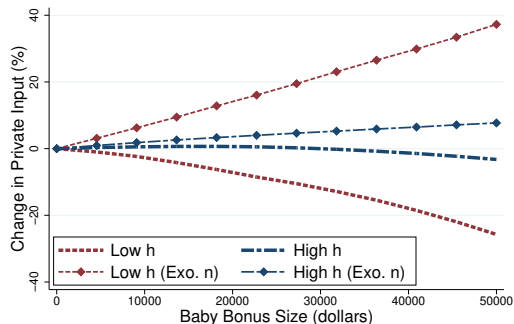
**Figure 4:** Average human capital



- Average private input ( $e$ ) **falls by 4%** – **quantity-quality trade-off**
- Average human capital **falls by 2%** due to **composition effects** and reduced private input  $e$

# Average Human Capital and Social Mobility

**Figure 5:** Heterogeneous response in  $e$



- Larger reductions in  $e$  among parents with low  $h$  as their  $n$  increases more

# Average Human Capital and Social Mobility

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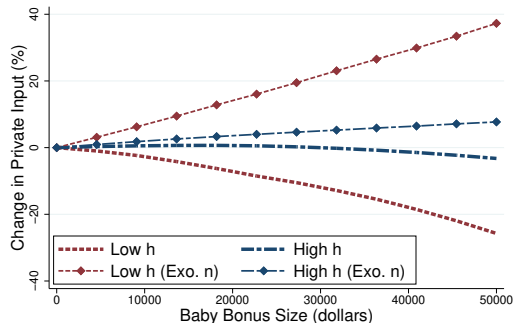
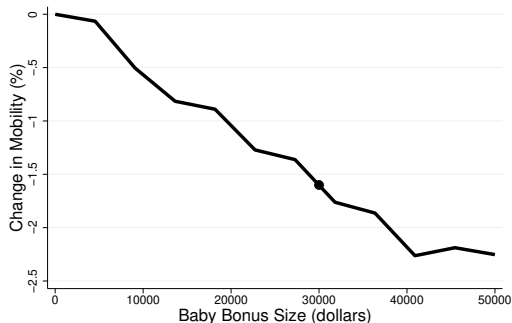


Figure 6: Intergenerational mobility



- Larger reductions in  $e$  among parents with low  $h$  as their  $n$  increases more
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# Average Human Capital and Social Mobility

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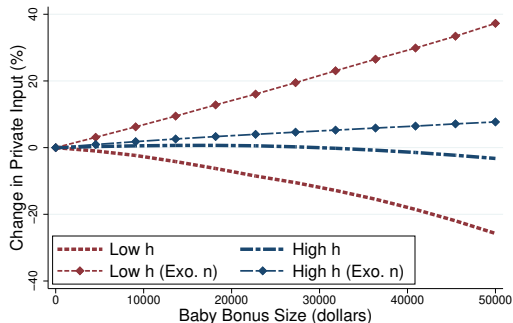
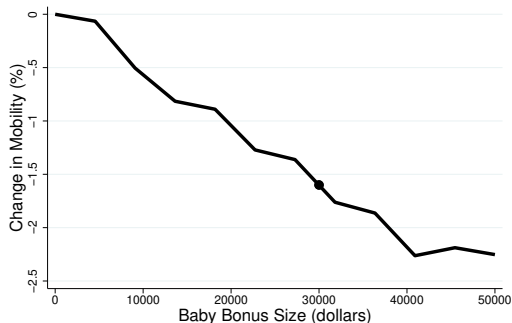
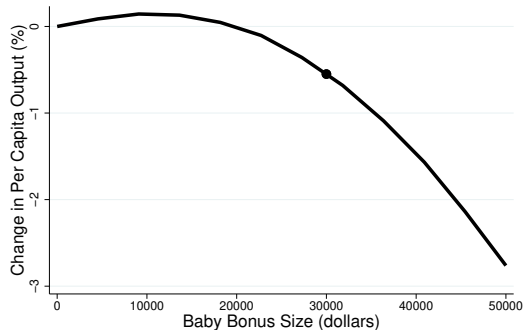


Figure 6: Intergenerational mobility



- Larger reductions in  $e$  among parents with low  $h$  as their  $n$  increases more
- Intergenerational mobility **decreases by 1.8%**
- Results will be **stronger** when baby bonus is targeted at low-income households

**Figure 7:** Per capita output



- Per capita output **falls by 0.6%**

# Output and Tax

Figure 7: Per capita output

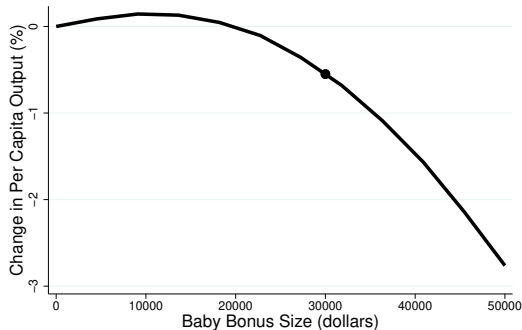
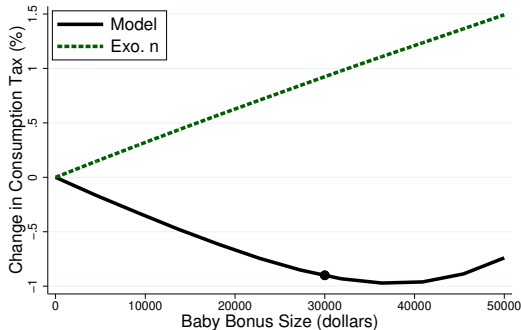
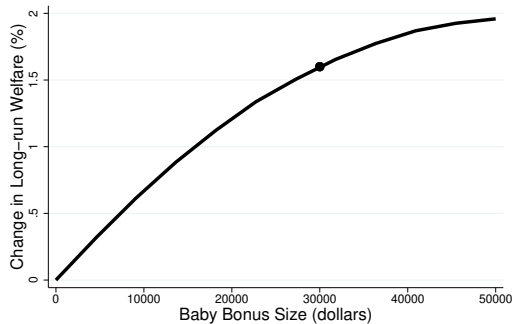


Figure 8: Change in consumption tax



- Per capita output **falls by 0.6%**
- **Demographic structure effects:** consumption taxes **reduces by 0.9%**

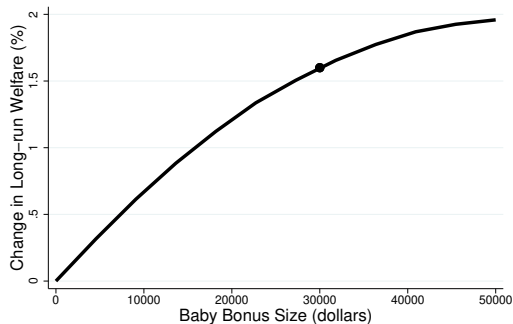
**Figure 9:** Change in welfare



- Long-run welfare  $\mathcal{W}$  increases by 1.6% as (1) higher fertility, (2) lower taxes, and (3) "social safety net"



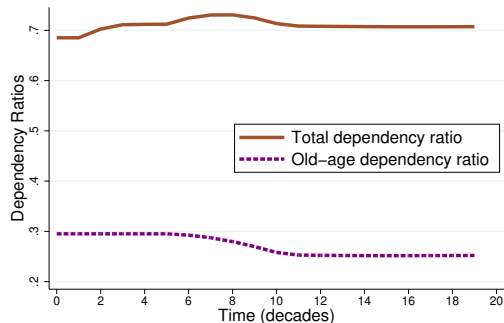
**Figure 9:** Change in welfare



- Long-run welfare  $\mathcal{W}$  increases by 1.6% as (1) higher fertility, (2) lower taxes, and (3) "social safety net"
- FSD in  $\mu$  is **neither necessary nor sufficient** for better policies - need to consider  $\omega$  (c.f. Chu and Koo 1990)

## Transition Path of $\mathcal{B} = \$30,000$ - Replacement Fertility

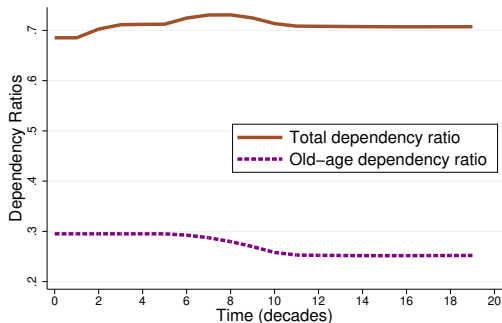
**Figure 10:** Change in dependency ratios



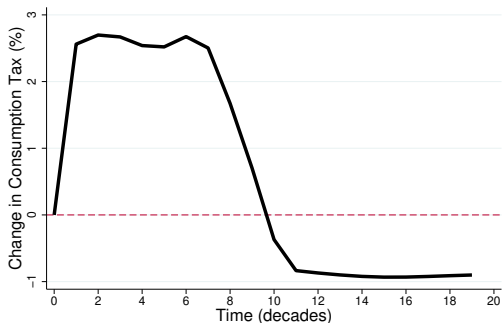
- Higher child-related government expenditures in the first few decades beyond the direct policy costs ( $\mathcal{E}$  and  $\mathcal{T}(n, \cdot)$ )

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**Figure 11:** Change in consumption tax

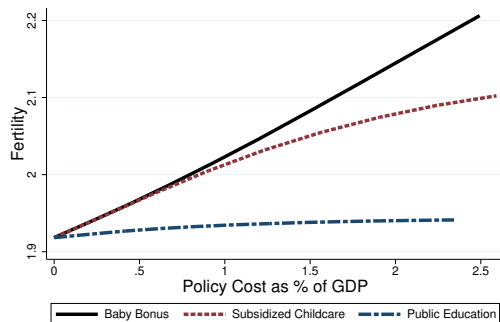


- Higher child-related government expenditures in the first few decades beyond the direct policy costs ( $\mathcal{E}$  and  $\mathcal{T}(n, \cdot)$ )
- With  $\tau_c$  changing to balance the budget, welfare effects for:
  - Newborns in transition – positive but smaller than 1.6%
  - Existing baby bonus recipients – positive, existing non-recipients – negative

► plot

# Highlights of Policy Comparisons

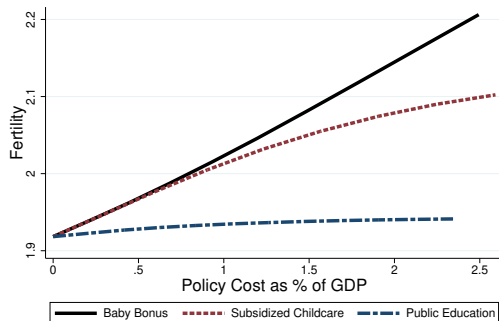
**Figure 12:** Effects on Fertility



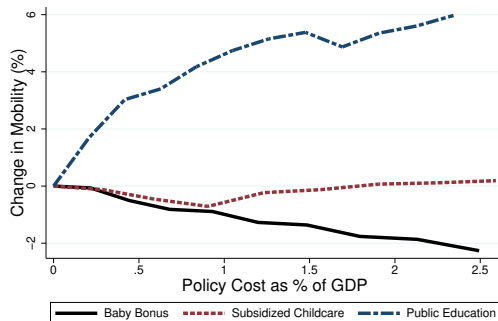
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# Highlights of Policy Comparisons

**Figure 12: Effects on Fertility**



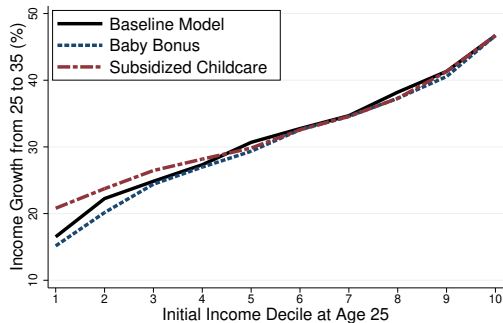
**Figure 13: Effects on Mobility**



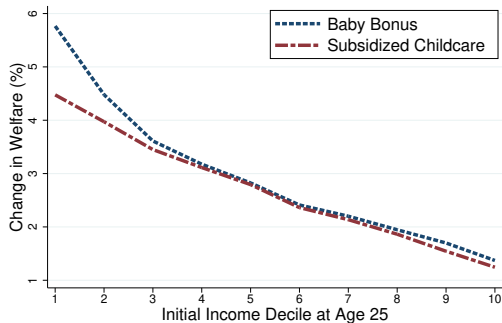
- $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  are less cost-effective in raising fertility
- $\mathcal{E}$  is most effective in improving mobility - larger effects when targeted at low-income families

# Baby Bonus versus Subsidized Childcare

**Figure 14:** Effects on Income Growth



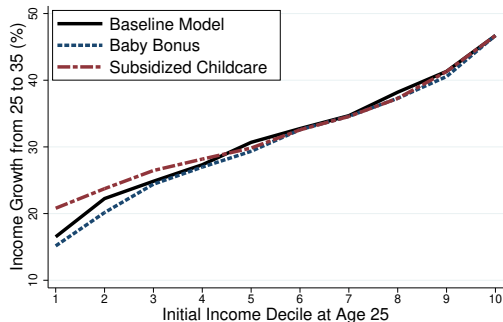
**Figure 15:** Effects on Welfare



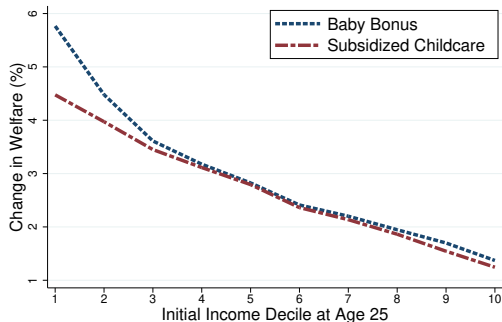
- Subsidized childcare reduces inequality in income growth

# Baby Bonus versus Subsidized Childcare

**Figure 14:** Effects on Income Growth



**Figure 15:** Effects on Welfare



- Subsidized childcare reduces inequality in income growth
- Low-income households prefer cash transfers of the same face value

## What I do:

- Develop a quantitative GE-OLG model to study the macroeconomic consequences of family policies
- Calibrate the model to match U.S. data and validate using empirical evidence



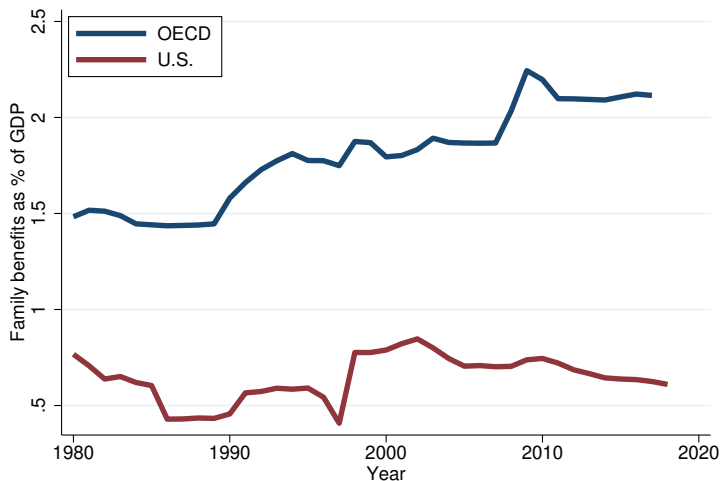
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## What I Find:

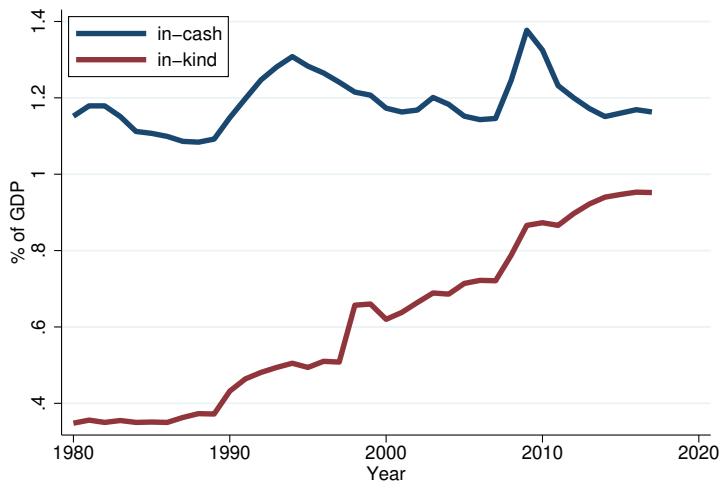
- ① \$30k cash benefit at birth raises fertility to the replacement level, but reduces average human capital and social mobility by 2%
- ② Long-run welfare rises 1.6% due to endogenous demographic structure changes
- ③ Government needs to finance higher child-related expenditures in transition
- ④ In-kind policies have smaller fertility effects, but offer other advantages

# Time Trend of Public Expenditures on Child Benefits



Source: OECD database

# Expenditure Breakdown



Source: OECD database

# Working Without Children and Retirement

- For households working without children,  $j \in \{4, 5, 6\}$ :

$$V_j(h, a) = \max_{c, a' \geq 0} u(c/\Lambda(0)) + \beta \mathbb{E} V_{j+1}(h', a')$$

$$(1 + \tau_c)c + a' = (1 + r)a + y - \mathcal{T}(y, a, 0)$$

$$h' = L_j(h, 1, z)$$

- For retired households,  $j \in \{7, 8\}$ :

$$V_j(h, a) = \max_{c, a' \geq 0} u(c/\Lambda(0)) + \beta \delta_j V_{j+1}(h, a')$$

$$(1 + \tau_c)c + a' = (1 + r)a + \pi \cdot wh - \mathcal{T}(0, a, 0)$$

$$V_9(\cdot) \equiv 0$$

where  $\pi$  is pension replacement rate

# Stationary Equilibrium

- Invariant distribution: Demographic structure  $\{\omega_j\}_{j=0}^8$  and distribution of agents over states  $\{\mu_j\}_{j=0}^8$  are invariant over time periods
- Households optimize utility and firms maximize profits
- Prices clear markets
- Government balances budget in period to period
- Externalities/incompleteness that government could address:
  - ① **Fiscal externalities of childbearing and childrearing**
    - Private returns  $\neq$  social returns (i.e.  $\{\omega_j\}_{j=0}^8$  and  $\{\mu_j\}_{j=0}^8$ )
  - ② **Borrowing constraints** (Daruich 2019, Abbott et al. 2019 ...)

# Endogenous Childcare Arrangements

- Standard models where a child costs fixed amount of time, total income  $y$ :

$$y = wh \underbrace{(1 - (\chi - \mathcal{S}) \cdot n)}_{\text{time cost}} + \underbrace{n \cdot \mathcal{B}}_{\text{labor supply}}$$

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- Empirical evidence indicates the opposite:
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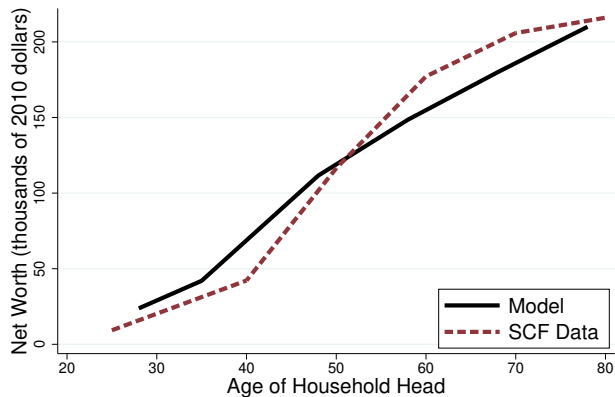
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  - Baby bonus: labor supply  $\downarrow$  market care enrollment  $\downarrow$  (González 2013)
- Endogenous childcare arrangements:** (in-kind) subsidized childcare induces more labor supply from parents with  $m^*(h, a) \leq \mathcal{S}$
- Affects inequalities in wage growth since  $h_{j+1} = L_j(\cdot, t_w)$



# Model Fit

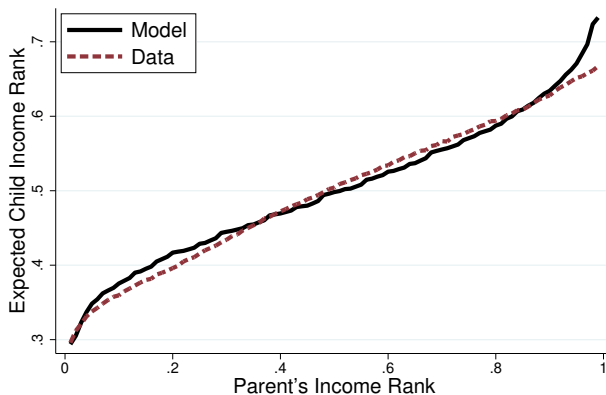
Parameter	Interpretation	Moment	Data	Model
$\gamma$	elasticity of substitution	fertility differential	0.12	0.12
$\psi$	fertility preference	average fertility	1.92	1.92
$\theta$	human capital preference	average investment as % of income	13.4	13.5
$\nu$	transfer preference	average transfer	\$48,381	\$48,400
$\iota$	economies of scale at home	childcare time by # children	1.7	1.7
$\upsilon$	substitutability of care	average care spending as % of income	16	16
$Z$	normalizing scalar	median income = 1	N/A	N/A
$\sigma_{\epsilon}$	ability shock dispersion	Gini of earnings at $j = 2$	0.29	0.29
$\rho$	intergenerational spillover	intergenerational elasticity of earnings	0.34	0.33
$\xi$	substitution of education	investment by parents' education	misc.	misc.
$\kappa$	input productivity	return on per dollar investment (NPV)	\$1.3	\$1.29
$\eta$	learning curvature	income growth by initial decile	0.1	0.09
$\{\zeta\}_{j=2}^5$	learning level	income growth by age	misc.	misc.
$\sigma_z$	shock dispersion	Gini of earnings at $j = 6$	0.39	0.39

# Net Worth by Age: Model and Data



- Net worth by age of household head from SCF summary tables

# Intergenerational Mobility: Model vs Data



- Rank-rank slope = 0.34 (Chetty, Hendren, Kline and Saez 2014)

## Child's Skill Production Function Cont'd

Use **RCT evidence** to estimate the productivity of inputs  $\kappa$ :

$$h_k = Z \cdot \epsilon \cdot h^\rho (\mathcal{E}^\xi + e^\xi)^{\kappa/\xi}$$

- García, Heckman, Leaf and Prados (2020)
  - Two US early childhood development programs (ABC, CARE) in 1970s
  - Cost  $\approx$  \$13.5k per year for five years - total \$67.5k per child
  - Followed up into adulthood and observe education/income
  - For every dollar invested, children's lifetime labor income increases by **\$1.3**
- Apply similar policy in the model: expand existing  $\mathcal{E}$  by \$67.5k
  - **Small scale**: prices and taxes remain unchanged
  - **Target**: children of parents at 10th percentile of earnings
- Comparing labor income changes with program costs gives  $\kappa = 0.13$

# Costs of Child and Childcare

- OECD equivalence scale:

$$\Lambda(n) = 1.7 + 0.5 \cdot n$$

- **Childcare arrangements:**

$$n \cdot \chi = \left( t_h^{v/\iota} + (n \cdot m)^v \right)^{1/v}$$

Set  $\chi = 0.18$  (Folbre 2008). Returns to scale within family calibrated to be  $\iota = 0.7$

- Elasticity of substitution:  $v = 0.38$  - average share of income spent on childcare by education (SIPP) (Herbst 2018)
- **Price of full-time childcare:**  $p_m = \$6,860$  per year for child aged 0-10 (The National Association of Child Care Resource & Referral Agencies 2011)

# Fertility Response

- Consider simplified problem for low- $h$  parents, i.e. quality margin not operative

$$\max_{c,n} \quad u(c) + \Psi(n)u(\mathcal{E})$$
$$c + n \cdot \chi = 1$$

- First-order condition for  $n$ :

$$\underbrace{\Psi'(n) \cdot u(\mathcal{E})}_{\text{MB of } n} = \underbrace{\lambda \cdot \chi}_{\text{MC of } n}$$

- Plug in  $u(c) = \frac{c^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma}$ , we have

$$\Psi'(n) = (1-\gamma) \cdot \chi \cdot \frac{\lambda}{\mathcal{E}^{1-\gamma}} \implies \Delta \Psi'(n) \propto (1-\gamma) \cdot \Delta \chi$$

Conditional on other parameters, higher  $\gamma \implies$  smaller  $n$  response

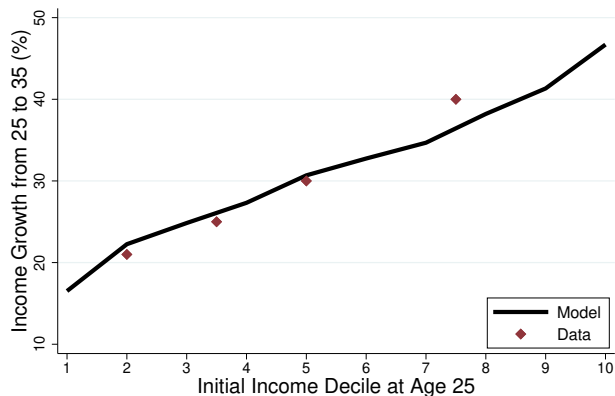
- **Human capital of working adults** evolves:

$$h_{j+1} = L_j(h_j, t_w, z') = \exp(z') [h_j + \zeta_j (h_j \cdot t_w)^\eta]$$

$$\log(z) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_z, \sigma_z)$$

- $\{\zeta_j\}_{j=2}^5$  - age-earnings profile (CPS)
- $\eta = 1.22$  - inequality in wage growth (CPS)
- $\mu_z = -0.23$  - 2% skill depreciation
- $\sigma_z = 0.38$  - life-cycle Gini coefficient of earnings (Huggett, Ventura and Yaron 2011)

# Inequality in Wage Growth: Model vs Data



- Growth rate of average income from age 25 to 35 by education in CPS-ASEC data (2008-2014)



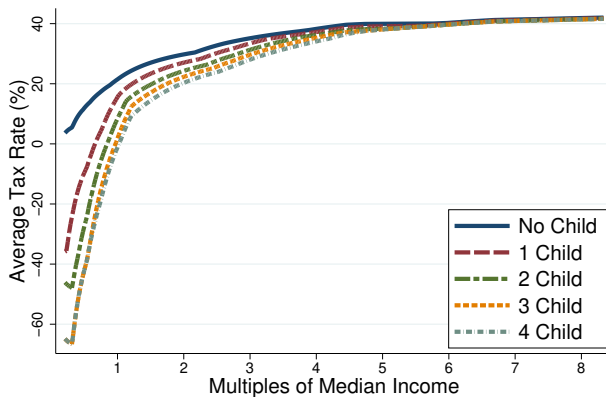
- **Firms' production function:** capital share  $\alpha = 0.33$  and 4% capital depreciation
- **Government taxes**
  - **Income taxes:**

$$\mathcal{T}(y, a, n) = y \cdot (1 - \tau_y^n y^{-\lambda_y^n}) + \tau_a r a$$

where  $\{\tau_y^n, \lambda_y^n\}_{n=0}^6$  estimated using TAXSIM

- **Tax rates** from McDaniel (2014):  $\tau_c = 0.07$  and  $\tau_a = 0.27$
- **Pension replacement rate:**  $\pi = 40\%$

# Income Taxes: Model vs Data



- Child tax benefits (reduction in tax rates) are larger for low-income households

# Australian Baby Bonus

- **A\$3,000 baby bonus**<sup>1</sup> to every child born on or after July 1st 2004
- Risse (2010) and Drago et al. (2011) find:
  - Significant fertility responses and evidence for long-term/quantum effects
  - Baby bonus needed for additional birth around A\$126,000  $\approx 4 \times \text{GDPPC}$
  - Larger fertility responses from low-income households
- Gaitz and Schurer (2017) finds that the baby bonus was **ineffective** in boosting learning, socio-emotional or physical health outcomes of pre-school children

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<sup>1</sup>More details: (1) Announced on Mar 12<sup>th</sup> 2004, (2) universal coverage, lump-sum payment, (3) Equivalent to 4 times average weekly earnings, (4) Equivalent to \$2,800 in 2010 USD.

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- Gaitz and Schurer (2017) finds that the baby bonus was **ineffective** in boosting learning, socio-emotional or physical health outcomes of pre-school children
- Results from baby bonus counterfactual are consistent with above findings:
  - Significant fertility effects that are larger among low-income households
  - Baby bonus needed for additional birth =  $3.5 \times \text{GDPPC}$
  - Child human capital reduces due to quantity-quality trade-off

► [back to validation](#)

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<sup>1</sup>More details: (1) Announced on Mar 12<sup>th</sup> 2004, (2) universal coverage, lump-sum payment, (3) Equivalent to 4 times average weekly earnings, (4) Equivalent to \$2,800 in 2010 USD.

# Spanish Baby Bonus

- **€\$2,500 baby bonus**<sup>2</sup> to every child born on or after July 1st 2007
- González (2013) finds:
  - Total fertility rate increased
  - Mothers reduced labor supply
  - Fewer children were enrolled in formal childcare

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<sup>2</sup>More details: (1) Announced on July 3<sup>rd</sup> 2007, (2) universal coverage, lump-sum payment, (3) Equivalent to 4.5 times the monthly gross minimum wage for full-time worker, (4) Equivalent to \$3,500 in 2010 USD.

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- González (2013) finds:
  - Total fertility rate increased
  - Mothers reduced labor supply
  - Fewer children were enrolled in formal childcare
- Results from model are consistent with above findings:
  - Baby bonus needed for additional birth / GDPPC = 3.6 (data) vs 3.5 (model)
  - Parents reduce labor supply as fertility raises → more childcare needs
  - Parents demand less market care as relative costs of home care falls due to economies of scale in home production of childcare

► back to validation

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<sup>2</sup>More details: (1) Announced on July 3<sup>rd</sup> 2007, (2) universal coverage, lump-sum payment, (3) Equivalent to 4.5 times the monthly gross minimum wage for full-time worker, (4) Equivalent to \$3,500 in 2010 USD.

## Georgia's Cherokee Land Lottery in 1832

- Georgia allocated more than 18,000 parcels of land via large-scale lottery in 1832. More than 98% of eligible man participated
- Shock in wealth rather than change in price of child
- Winners were about \$748 wealthier than losers by 1850<sup>3</sup>
- Bleakley and Ferrie (2016) finds:
  - Parents increase fertility slightly
  - Decedents of winners have no better adult outcomes than the sons of nonwinners

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<sup>3</sup>Equivalent to 1,010 days of earnings for an unskilled laborer in the South

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- Bleakley and Ferrie (2016) finds:
  - Parents increase fertility slightly
  - Decedents of winners have no better adult outcomes than the sons of nonwinners
- As skill price increases, Cherokee results provides:
  - ① Upper bound for fertility responses
  - ② Lower bound for child quality responses
- Model predictions consistent with these predictions:

$$n^*(h, a') \leq n^*(h, a) \quad e^*(h, a') \gg e^*(h, a)$$

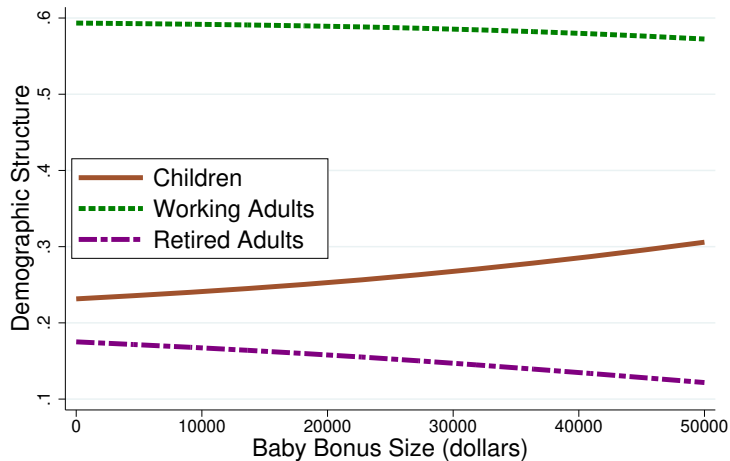
for fixed  $h$  and  $a' > a$

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<sup>3</sup>Equivalent to 1,010 days of earnings for an unskilled laborer in the South

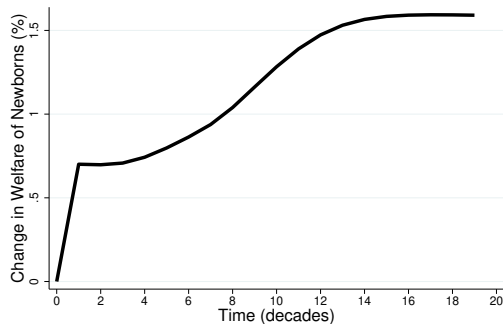


# Change in Demographic Structure



# Distributional Welfare Consequences

**Figure 16:** Newborns in Transition



**Figure 17:** Long-run and Existing Households

