

Intergenerational Effects of Child-Related Tax Benefits in the US

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Introduction

- Very low fertility rates in developed countries
 - 1.2 in ITA & ESP, 1.4 in AUT, 1.7 in NOR, 1.8 in US, 1.9 in FRA & SWE
 - Increasing attention to pronatalist policies

Neyer et al (2017) show that EU activities related to fertility relevant family policies have increased over time
 - Examples: paid parental leaves, subsidized childcare, tax benefits, transfers

Björklund (2006), Erosa et al. (2010), González (2013), Bick (2016)
- Tax benefits are very extended across countries...

... and very generous in the US: \$3,400 per family w/ children (Maag, 2013)
- Little work on their effects

Tax Benefits in the US

Table: Average tax rate, married couples

HH Income (× avg. income)	Tax rate by # of children				Benefits (2 kids)	
	0	1	2	3	\$, 2005	%
0.50	0.06	0.05	0.02	0.00	1,791	0.68
1.00	0.14	0.11	0.09	0.08	3,536	0.30
1.50	0.18	0.16	0.15	0.14	3,778	0.16

Source: CPS data, 2000-2010.

- Lower and more progressive taxes for larger families
- Where are benefits coming from:
 - Specific programs: Child Tax Credit, Child and Dependent Care Tax Credit
 - Others: Standard deduction, Personal Exemption, Earned Income Tax Credit

This Paper

- Quantify the impact of child-related tax benefits in the US tax system on fertility and intergenerational mobility within a GE framework
 - Life cycle model with overlapping generations of heterogeneous households
 - Fertility decisions and parental investments in children's human capital
 - Children's skill formation as in Cunha et al (2010)
 - Progressive taxes with child-related benefits

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 - Today's children will be tomorrow's parents: intergenerational effects
 - Demographic structure has GE implications

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 - Today's children will be tomorrow's parents: intergenerational effects
 - Demographic structure has GE implications
- Why to study effects on intergenerational mobility?
 - Family Economics *meets* Macro → *Who have the children matters*

Who have the children matters

- Parents in the US face a quantity-quality trade-off
 - Juhn, et al. (2015, 2018): arrival of a sibling decreases performance on cognitive tests, and the quantity-quality trade-off is stronger among low income mothers
- As a result, high educated parents...
 - Have lower fertility: 1.7 children, while HS mothers have 2.1 children (CPS)
 - Spend more time with their children: 12% more time (PSID-CDS)
 - Spend more money with their children: 30% more money (Daruich, 2018)

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- As a result, high educated parents...
 - Have **lower fertility**: 1.7 children, while HS mothers have 2.1 children (**CPS**)
 - Spend **more time** with their children: 12% more time (**PSID-CDS**)
 - Spend **more money** with their children: 30% more money (**Daruich, 2018**)
- Therefore:
 - (a) If tax benefits increase fertility, do they decrease children's human capital?
 - (b) Are poor families more or less affected?
 - (c) How do differences in initial conditions change?
Keane and Wolpin (1997), Hugget, et al. (2011): Large share of inequality explained by differences in initial conditions

Preview of results

- Tax benefits increase fertility by 16%...
... but they increase intergenerational persistence of education by 30%

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- Can we foster fertility without damaging mobility? **Education subsidies**
 - Cheaper education breaks (to some extent) the quantity-quality trade-off
 - Regressive transfer: high-educated are more affected

Related Literature

- Macro models with quantity-quality:

Caucutt et al. (2002), Restuccia and Urrutia (2004), Córdoba et al. (2016), Daruich and Kozlowski (2016), Sommer (2016), Lee and Seshadri (2018), Daruich (2018)

Contribution: policy & endogenous fertility, parental investments and transfers

- Fertility and Public Policy:

Milligan (2005), Björklund (2006), Baughman and Dickert-Conlin (2009), Azmat and González (2010), González (2013)

Contribution: macro framework (GE & intergenerational effects)

Erosa et al. (2010), Bick (2016)

Contribution: evaluation of tax benefits, parental investments

Today's talk

1. Model economy
2. Calibration
3. Policy evaluation
4. Conclusions

The Model

Main features

- Life-cycle economy with overlapping generations of **married** households
 - GE: Aggregate firm combines capital, low-educated labor and high-educated labor
 - LC: childhood, working age (fertile & infertile ages), and retirement
- + Endogenous fertility and initial conditions (investments and transfer)
 - College choice at independence → depends on human capital
 - After college, random matching with marital sorting
- Individual **heterogeneity**: age, gender, education and productivity
 - Spouses share assets, children and children's human capital

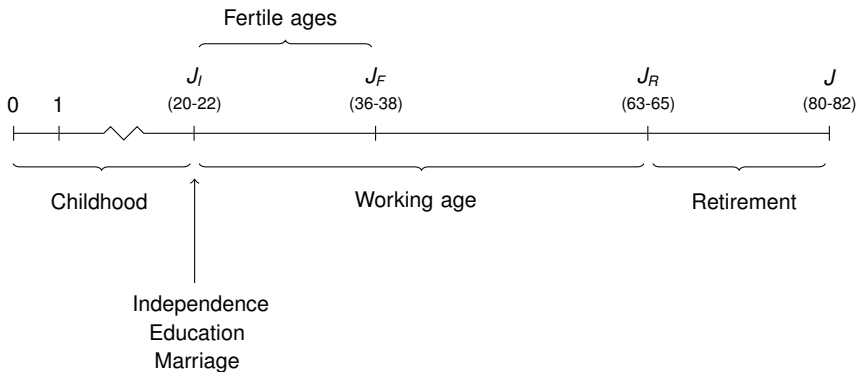
Main features

- **Government taxes** income to finance some (exogenous) expenditures
 - Tax rate function depends on income, y , and number of kids, n :
Heathcote, Storesletten, and Violante (2017)

$$T(y, n) = t(y, n)y \Rightarrow t(y, n) = 1 - \lambda(n) \left(\frac{y}{\bar{y}} \right)^{-\tau(n)}$$

- $\lambda(n)$ drives the level of taxes
- $\tau(n)$ drives the degree of progressivity of taxes

Life-cycle structure



Childhood



- Children are born with an exogenous level of human capital q_0
- Children's human capital exhibits dynamic complementarities

▷ Age profile

Cunha et al. (2010), del Boca et al. (2014), Attanasio et al. (2017)

$$q' = \left[\mu \bar{q}^\theta + (1 - \mu) \mathcal{I}(n, m, t)^\theta \right]^{\frac{1}{\theta}}$$

- \bar{q} is the average human capital of children in the hh: $\bar{q} = q + (q_0 + q) \frac{n_0}{n}$.
- μ controls the persistence of human capital $\rightarrow \Delta q' = \alpha + \beta q + \epsilon$
- θ drives how parental investments affect human capital $\rightarrow \Delta q' = \alpha + \beta \ln y + \epsilon$

Childhood



- Parents invest time and money/goods, (t, m) :

$$\mathcal{I}(n, m, t) = A_{\mathcal{I}} \left[\varsigma \left(\frac{m}{n^{\psi_1}} \right)^{\gamma} + (1 - \varsigma) \left(\frac{t}{n^{\psi_2}} \right)^{\gamma} \right]^{\frac{1}{\gamma}}$$

- $A_{\mathcal{I}}$ is a productivity parameter \rightarrow average growth of human capital
- ς controls the relative weight of money investments \rightarrow ave. time investment
- γ drives the ES between time and money \rightarrow diff. in time investment
- ψ_1 and ψ_2 captures economies of scale in time and money investments

Independence

- Initial state given by (gender, skills, assets) $\equiv (g, q, a)$.
 - q from parental investments
 - a from parental transfer
- College choice:

$$E(g, q, a) = E_{\xi_E|q,a} \max \left\{ \overbrace{M(g, \bar{e}, a)}^{\text{Value of CG}} - \underbrace{\xi_E(g, q)}_{\text{Effort cost}}, \overbrace{M(g, \underline{e}, a)}^{\text{Value of HS}} \right\}$$

effort cost ξ_E , decreasing in human capital:

$$\ln \xi_E(g, q) \sim N(\mu_E(g, q), 1), \quad \mu_E(g, q) = \mu_E^g \exp(-\mu_E^q q) \geq 0$$

- Then, meet spouse and begin adult life \rightarrow sorting: $\text{Prob}(e_m = e_f) = p_M$

Adults



- Standard LC problem: consumption, savings and labor supply of spouses
- Wage rates given by age, gender, education and productivity:

$$\ln \omega(g, e, z, j) = \ln w(e) + \mu(g, e, j) + z_g$$

- $w(e)$: wage rate per efficiency unit of time
 - $\mu(g, e, j)$: deterministic age-profile
 - z_g : labor productivity \rightarrow education-specific AR(1)
- Retirees: receive a pension and solve consumption-savings problem

Adults

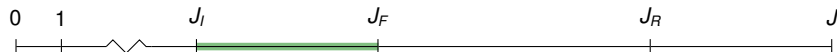


- Gender-specific utility function:

$$U_g(c, l_g, t) = \frac{c^{1-\sigma_c}}{1-\sigma_c} - \kappa_g \frac{(l_g + \alpha_g t)^{1+\frac{1}{\psi}}}{1+\frac{1}{\psi}}$$

- ψ is the Frisch elasticity
- $\alpha_g \in [0, 1]$ captures the fraction of t spent by gender- g parent
- Household maximize joint utility: $U_m(c, l_m, t) + U_f(c, l_f, t)$

Fertile ages



- Fertile households make a pregnancy choice: $k \in \{0, 1\}$
 - Fertility risk: pregnant females have a newborn next period w.p. $p_0(j) \in [0, 1]$
 - Labor productivity loss from childbirth: z_t falls by $\delta_0 \in (0, 1)$
- Children stay at home until J_I :
 - While at home, parents invest time and money on their children's human capital
 - Stochastic independence: probability $p_I(n, j) \in [0, 1]$
 - \Rightarrow Parents make a transfer b to independent children
- But... why do parents want to have children?
 - Parents derive utility from having kids, and from their kids' human capital

Why do parents have children?

$$U_k(n, q, b) = \eta_n \left(\frac{n^{\sigma_n}}{\sigma_n} \right) + \eta_q n^\varphi \left(\frac{q^{\sigma_q}}{\sigma_q} \right) + \eta_b \left(\frac{b^{\sigma_b}}{\sigma_b} \right) - \eta_0 \mathbf{1}\{n > 0\}$$

- Posit a utility function to capture intergenerational altruism:
 - where b is the amount of transfer to independent children
 - η_0 is a fixed cost (example: quality of leisure) \rightarrow % childless
- Marginal utility from q increasing in number of children (if $\varphi > 0$).
 - The lower the value of φ the more costly it is to have another child in terms of q
 - φ controls the magnitude of the q - q trade-off \rightarrow Differential fertility

Dynamic program

$$\begin{aligned} V(e_m, e_f, z_m, z_f, a, n, q, n_0, n_l, j) = \\ = \max_{\mathbf{x}} U_m(c, l_m, t) + U_f(c, l_f, t) + U_k(n', q', b) + \\ + \beta E_j [V(e_m, e_f, z'_m, z'_f, a', n', q', n'_0, n'_l, j + 1)] \end{aligned}$$

with $n' = n - n_l + n_0$ and $\mathbf{x} = (c, a', l_m, l_f, k, m, t, b)$

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with $n' = n - n_l + n_0$ and $\mathbf{x} = (c, a', l_m, l_f, k, m, t, b)$, and subject to

- Budget constraint: $a' + \Psi(n')c + m + b = y + (1+r)a - T(y, n') - \tau_{ss}y$

with labor income given by $y = \omega_m(e_m, z_m, j)l_m + \omega_f(e_f, z_f - \delta_0 n_0, j)l_f$

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- Time constraint: $l_g + \alpha_g t \in [0, 1]$

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- Time constraint: $l_g + \alpha_g t \in [0, 1]$
- Other constraints: $k = 0$ if $j > J_F$, $m = t = 0$ if $n' = 0$ and $b = 0$ if $n_l = 0$

Calibration

Data

- **Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID)**
 - Panel of US households. Use waves from 2001 to 2009 (biannual).
 - Information on education, family structure, income.
- **Child Development Supplement (CDS)**
 - Supplementary study covering children aged 0 to 12 from 1997 PSID families.
 - I use the 2002 and 2007 waves: children aged 5 to 18.
 - Time diary and child's scores in three of the Woodcock Johnson Tests
- **Current Population Survey (CPS)**
 - Large cross-section of US households.
 - ASEC Supplement for the years 2000 to 2010
 - Information on tax liabilities and income.

Calibration

- **Measurement** with CDS data: children's human capital & time investment
- **Estimate** directly from data:
 - Tax function: standard parametric function estimated with CPS data.
 - Income process: age profiles and labor productivity process from PSID.
 - Fertility risk as in **Sommer (2016)**
 - Children's independence: estimate transition probabilities from PSID.
- Set some parameters to **standard values** or from related papers.
- **Calibrate** remaining parameters internally.

Measurement

- Time investments:

- CDS data contains a detailed time diary: nature and duration of activity, whether parents participate, etc.
- I define t as the total time parents **actively participate** in child's activity.

	Time/day	% Share
Mother	1h 6 min	42%
Father	30 min	19%
Both	1h 1m	39%

▷ Sample

▷ Density t

Measurement

- Children's human capital:

- CDS data contains children's scores in the Woodcock Johnson Tests.
 - Standard measure of child's skills
Daruich (2018), Lee and Seshadri (2018), Del Boca et al. (2014)
- Follow Del Boca et al. (2014): prob. of correct answer, $p_i(q) = q/(1 + q)$.
- Answer to question i is $d_i \in \{0, 1\}$, then:

$$\bar{d} = N^{-1} \sum_i^N d_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad q = \frac{\bar{d}}{1 - \bar{d}}$$

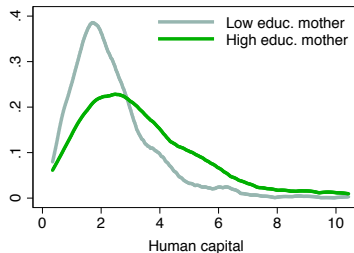
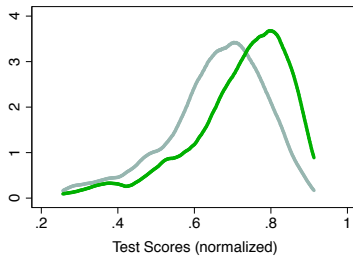
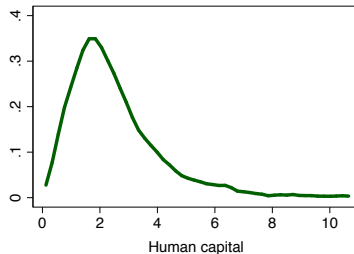
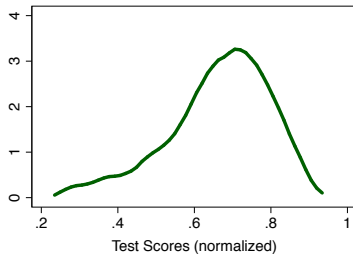
- Highly correlated with college graduation: $\text{Corr}(e, q) = 0.482$

▷ Sample

▷ Stats q

▷ Age profile

Children's human capital



Tax function

Table: Parameters of the tax function

Number of children	0	1	2	3
Level, λ	0.858	0.880	0.893	0.910
Progressivity, τ	0.097	0.101	0.114	0.119
Obs. (1,000)	65.9	40.3	44.9	15.8

Note: standard errors are all less than 0.01. Tax rate computed as total tax liabilities before tax credits over total household income

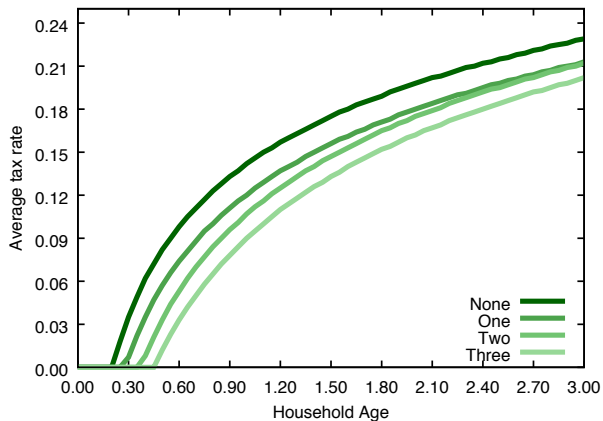
- Parametric tax function:

Heathcote, Storesletten, and Violante (2017)

$$t(y, n) = 1 - \lambda(n) \left(\frac{y}{\bar{y}} \right)^{-\tau(n)}$$

Tax function

Figure: Estimated Tax Functions



Aggregate production function

- Standard function:

$$Y = AK^{\alpha}L^{1-\alpha}, \quad \text{with } L = [aL_0^b + (1-a)L_1^b]^{\frac{1}{b}}$$

where K is capital, L_0 is low-educated labor and L_1 is high-educated labor

- Set $\alpha = 0.33$ and choose parameters (A, a, b) such that:
 - Interest rate of 3% (annual)
 - Wage of low educated of 10 (normalization)
 - Relative wage of 1.28 (PSID)
- $A = 47.9, a = 0.44, b = 0.65$

Others

- Income process

- Fit 2nd order polynomial in age by gender and education
- Use residuals as measure of labor productivity: fit a AR(1) process.

- Fertility risk

- Follow Sommer (2016) (% of infertile females by age)

$$p_0(j) = 1 - \exp(\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 j)$$

- Children independence

- Estimate transition probabilities from the data

$$p_0(n, j) = \text{Prob}(n_{i,t} < n_{i,t-3} | n_{i,t-3} = n, \text{age} = j)$$

Exogenous parameters

Parameter		Description	Source
β	0.98	Discount factor (annual)	Standard value
σ_c	0.80	Curvature utility from consumption	Córdoba et al (2016)
ψ	0.50	Frisch elasticity of labor supply	Standard value
α_m	0.54	% time invested by fathers	CDS
α_f	0.82	% time invested by mothers	CDS
ξ_1	0.92	Economies of scale, money investments	Sommer (2016)
ξ_2	0.54	Economies of scale, time investments	Sommer (2016)
q_0	1.42	Initial level of human capital	25th percentile of q
δ_0	0.10	Child penalty	Kleven et al. (2018)
ρ_R	0.13	Replacement rate	50% labor supply, ages 62-65
ρ_M	0.75	Share of household with $e_m = e_f$	PSID

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Calibrated Parameters

- Calibrate 19 parameters using SMM.
 - Preference parameters.
 - Human capital technology and investment function.
 - College effort cost.
- Targets key moments:
 - Fertility, child's human capital and time investments profiles by maternal education.
 - Labor supply by gender.
 - Dynamics of child's human capital.
 - Share of college graduates and elasticity of education to human capital.

Calibrated Parameters

Preferences

Parameter		Description	Moment	Model	Data
κ_m	4.74	Disutility labor, males	Average labor supply, male	0.36	0.35
κ_f	4.32	Disutility labor, females	Average labor supply, female	0.24	0.23
η_n	1.05	Utility n , weight	Completed fertility, HS mother	2.41	2.52
σ_n	0.51	Utility n , slope	% of households with 2+ children	0.53	0.52
η_q	0.96	Utility q , weight	Average human capital, HS mother	2.75	2.67
σ_q	0.76	Utility q , slope	Differential q by maternal educ.	0.44	0.56
φ	0.16	Utility q , fam. size param.	Differential fertility by maternal educ.	-0.26	-0.23
η_b	0.40	Utility from b , weight	Rel. wealth at age J_I , HS mother	0.11	0.11
σ_b	0.51	Utility from b , slope	Rel. wealth at age J_I , CG mother	0.16	0.17
η_0^0	2.70	Fixed cost, HS mothers	% of childless HS mothers	0.08	0.08
η_0^1	2.80	Fixed cost, CG mothers	% of childless CG mothers	0.12	0.13

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κ_m	4.74	Disutility labor, males	Average labor supply, male	0.36	0.35
κ_f	4.32	Disutility labor, females	Average labor supply, female	0.24	0.23
η_n	1.05	Utility n , weight	Completed fertility, HS mother	2.41	2.52
σ_n	0.51	Utility n , slope	% of households with 2+ children	0.53	0.52
η_q	0.96	Utility q , weight	Average human capital, HS mother	2.75	2.67
σ_q	0.76	Utility q , slope	Differential q by maternal educ.	0.44	0.56
φ	0.16	Utility q , fam. size param.	Differential fertility by maternal educ.	-0.26	-0.23
η_b	0.40	Utility from b , weight	Rel. wealth at age J_I , HS mother	0.11	0.11
σ_b	0.51	Utility from b , slope	Rel. wealth at age J_I , CG mother	0.16	0.17
η_0^0	2.70	Fixed cost, HS mothers	% of childless HS mothers	0.08	0.08
η_0^1	2.80	Fixed cost, CG mothers	% of childless CG mothers	0.12	0.13

Calibrated Parameters

Human capital, Investment and College choice

Parameter		Description	Moment	Model	Data
<u>Law of motion of human capital:</u>					
μ	0.30	Share parameter, q	Slope: $\Delta q = \alpha + \beta q + u$	0.22	0.25
θ	-1.84	Elasticity parameter	Slope: $\Delta q = \alpha + \beta \ln(y) + u$	0.18	0.14
<u>Investment function:</u>					
A_I	6.31	Productivity of investments	Average growth rate of q	0.22	0.25
ς	0.58	Share parameter, m	Time investment, HS mothers	0.23	0.25
γ	0.31	Elasticity parameter	Time investment, CG mothers	0.25	0.28
<u>College choice:</u>					
μ_E^f	0.96	Fixed effort cost, females	Share of high educated females	0.27	0.26
μ_E^m	11.6	Fixed effort cost, males	Share of high educated males	0.29	0.27
μ_E^1	0.23	Variable cost of education	Slope of $e = \alpha + \beta q + u$	0.11	0.12

Calibrated Parameters

Human capital, Investment and College choice

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Model evaluation

Nontargeted moments	Data	Model	Source
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Model evaluation

Nontargeted moments	Data	Model	Source
Intergenerational persistence of education	0.16	0.15	PSID

Model evaluation

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Income elasticity of fertility, HS mother	-0.21	-0.17	PSID
Income elasticity of fertility, CG mother	-0.02	-0.01	PSID

Model evaluation

Nontargeted moments	Data	Model	Source
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Income elasticity of fertility, HS mother	-0.21	-0.17	PSID
Income elasticity of fertility, CG mother	-0.02	-0.01	PSID
Correlation time and goods investments	0.88	0.87	Daruich (2018)
Share of expenditures spent on children ($n = 1$)	0.26	0.22	Lino et al. (2015)
Share of expenditures spent on children ($n = 2$)	0.39	0.39	Lino et al. (2015)

Model evaluation

Nontargeted moments	Data	Model	Source
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Share of expenditures spent on children ($n = 2$)	0.39	0.39	Lino et al. (2015)

Replicating Spanish transfer policy *	Data	Model	Source
Fertility increase (%)	6.32	7.50	González (2013)

(*) A universal transfer of 2.1 median female monthly income per birth. Spain 2007

Policy Evaluation

Policy Evaluation

- Question: what are the effects of child-related tax benefits?
 - Do they increase fertility?
 - If so, do they generate a fall in human capital?
 - How is intergenerational mobility affected?
- Policy implementation: eliminate child-dependent benefits

$$t^*(y, n) = t(y, 0) - \tau_0$$

where $\tau_0 = 0.05$ is such that the policy is revenue neutral

$$\int_S t(y, n) y(\mathbf{s}) dF(\mathbf{s}) = \int_S [t(y, 0) - \tau_0] y(\mathbf{s}) dF^*(\mathbf{s})$$

Aggregate effects

	No Benefits	Tax Benefits (Baseline)	% Change
Completed fertility	1.81	2.11	16.3
<i>Fertility of mothers</i>	2.08	2.32	12.0
<i>Share of mothers</i>	0.87	0.91	3.82
Human capital at J_t	6.11	5.07	-17.1
College graduation rate	0.37	0.28	-25.0

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- Tax benefits are effective at fostering fertility. Two channels
 - **Effect (a):** Benefits reduce the cost of children
 - **Effect (b):** \uparrow Fertility $\rightarrow \uparrow$ Labor share $\rightarrow \downarrow K/L \rightarrow \downarrow$ Wages $\rightarrow \uparrow$ Fertility

Why? parents cannot afford sufficiently high level of human capital \rightarrow more kids
- Both intensive and extensive margin

Aggregate effects

	No Benefits	Tax Benefits (Baseline)	% Change
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- But they decrease children's human capital...
 - Families are now larger: lower productivity of parental investments
 - ⇒ Number of children is a key determinant of the cost of human capital
 - Lower income: money investments relatively more expensive
- Reduction in college graduation rate: higher effort cost

Heterogeneous effects

	High School			College Graduate		
	No	Tax	% Chg	No	Tax	% Chg
Completed fertility	1.86	2.21	18.8	1.74	1.90	8.74
<i>Fertility of mothers</i>	2.10	2.41	14.9	2.05	2.14	4.92
<i>Share of mothers</i>	0.90	0.92	3.41	0.86	0.88	3.63
Human capital at J_t	5.54	4.61	-19.1	6.59	6.12	-9.36
College graduation	0.30	0.23	-29.1	0.41	0.39	-12.3

Heterogeneous effects

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Human capital at J_t	5.54	4.61	-19.1	6.59	6.12	-9.36
College graduation	0.30	0.23	-29.1	0.41	0.39	-12.3

- HS mothers are relatively more affected: 18.8% vs. 8.7%
 - Effect (a): Tax benefits are highly progressive
 - Effect (b): Wage of low educated fall relatively more (13% vs. 7%)

Heterogeneous effects

	High School			College Graduate		
	No	Tax	% Chg	No	Tax	% Chg
Completed fertility	1.86	2.21	18.8	1.74	1.90	8.74
<i>Fertility of mothers</i>	2.10	2.41	14.9	2.05	2.14	4.92
<i>Share of mothers</i>	0.90	0.92	3.41	0.86	0.88	3.63
Human capital at J_t	5.54	4.61	-19.1	6.59	6.12	-9.36
College graduation	0.30	0.23	-29.1	0.41	0.39	-12.3

- Consequently, human capital of children with HS mothers fall relatively more
 - Increase in differential human capital
 - Increase in differential college graduation rate
- Intergenerational persistence of education increases from 0.11 to 0.15

Policy Evaluation

- Two forces at play:

- (a) Relative Price Effect:

- Taxes distort relative price between number of children and their human capital.

- (b) Income Effect:

- Decreases in income induce parents to substitute children by children's human capital (quantity-quality trade-off)

- Disentangle relative importance:

- Taking the economy without tax benefits as starting point...

- 1. Add tax benefits without adjusting prices nor taxes → effect (a)

- 2. Let prices and taxes adjust → effect (b)

Results decomposition

	No Ben.		Benefits		Prices		Tax Ben.
Completed fertility	1.81	+	0.62	—	0.32	=	2.11
<i>Fertility mothers</i>	2.08	+	0.18	+	0.06	=	2.32
<i>Share of mothers</i>	0.87	+	0.17	—	0.13	=	0.91
<i>Differential fertility</i>	-0.12	—	0.23	+	0.03	=	-0.32
Human capital at J_I	6.11	—	0.43	—	0.61	=	5.07
<i>Differential human capital</i>	1.05	+	0.30	+	0.16	=	1.51
College graduation rate	0.37	—	0.04	—	0.05	=	0.28

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Human capital at J_1	6.11	−	0.43	−	0.61	=	5.07
<i>Differential human capital</i>	1.05	+	0.30	+	0.16	=	1.51
College graduation rate	0.37	−	0.04	−	0.05	=	0.28

- GE and intergenerational effects (“Prices”) are quantitatively important:
 - Significant reduction in the share of mothers
 - 25% of the effects on fertility of mothers
 - More than 50% of the effects on children’s human capital

Results decomposition

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- GE and intergenerational effects (“Prices”) are quantitatively important:
 - 25% of the effects on fertility
 - More than 50% of the effects on children's human capital
- Most of the inequality effect due to design of benefits

Education subsidies

- Problem:

Tax benefits foster fertility at the expense of lower interg. mobility

- Question:

Is there a policy able to foster both fertility and children's human capital?

- Subsidies to education reduce the cost of children's human capital, which in turn, reduces the cost of children.

- Implementation:

$$\mathcal{I}(n, m, t) = A_{\mathcal{I}} \left[\varsigma \left(\frac{m(1 + \tau)}{n^{\psi_1}} \right)^{\gamma} + (1 - \varsigma) \left(\frac{t}{n^{\psi_2}} \right)^{\gamma} \right]^{\frac{1}{\gamma}}$$

Key difference: CG parents spend more on children's human capital (regressive transfer)

Education subsidies

	No Benefits	Tax Benefits	Subsidy
Completed fertility	1.82	2.11	2.01
<i>Differential fertility</i>	-0.12	-0.32	-0.10
<i>Share of mothers</i>	0.87	0.91	0.95
Human capital at J_t	6.11	5.07	6.30
<i>Differential human capital</i>	1.05	1.51	1.06
College graduation	0.37	0.28	0.38
Interg. Persist. education	0.11	0.15	0.10

Education subsidies

	No Benefits	Tax Benefits	Subsidy
Completed fertility	1.82	2.11	2.01
<i>Differential fertility</i>	-0.12	-0.32	-0.10
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Human capital at J_1	6.11	5.07	6.30
<i>Differential human capital</i>	1.05	1.51	1.06
College graduation	0.37	0.28	0.38
Interg. Persist. education	0.11	0.15	0.10

- Effective at increasing fertility: 62% of the increase with tax benefits
 - **Regressive transfer**: 12% increase among CG and 10% among HS
 - Education subsidies reduce the cost of children for CG relatively more.
- More effective than tax benefits at the extensive margin
 - Cost of education is an important barrier for parenthood

Education subsidies

	No Benefits	Tax Benefits	Subsidy
Completed fertility	1.82	2.11	2.01
<i>Differential fertility</i>	-0.12	-0.32	-0.10
<i>Share of mothers</i>	0.87	0.91	0.95
Human capital at J_t	6.11	5.07	6.30
<i>Differential human capital</i>	1.05	1.51	1.06
College graduation	0.37	0.28	0.38
Interg. Persist. education	0.11	0.15	0.10

- As opposed to tax benefits, education subsidies do not reduce human capital
 - Reduce the cost of children **by** reducing the cost of human capital
 - Parents spend less money, and the government more than compensates
- No cost in terms of intergenerational mobility

Conclusions

Conclusions

- I propose a **GE life cycle model with fertility choices and parental investments** in children's human capital, estimated with US data
 - Rich degree of heterogeneity
 - Suitable for family-policy analysis
- Evaluate quantitative impact of **child-related tax benefits**:
 - Significant effects on fertility and parental investments
 - Stronger for low income families: reduces the gap in initial conditions
 - Both relative price distortion and GE effects are important
- Education subsidies increases fertility w/o damaging intergenerational mobility
- **Take-aways**
 1. We should evaluate pronatalist policies beyond their effects on fertility
 2. Short-run inequality *versus* long-run inequality

Thanks for your attention

Some references

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Additional material

Low fertility rates

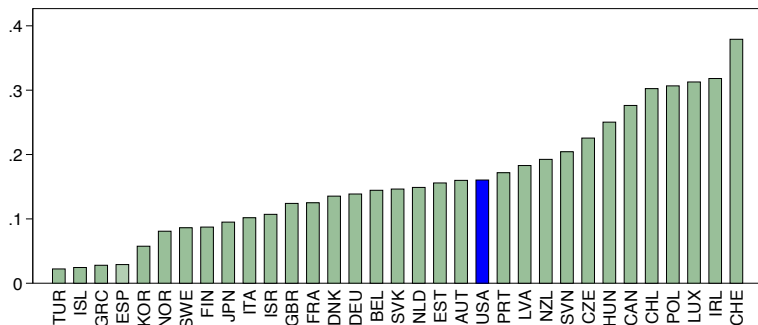
Figure: Total Fertility Rate (2016)



Source: OECD Family Database.

Tax benefits are widely extended

Figure: Tax Benefits for families with 2 children (2017)



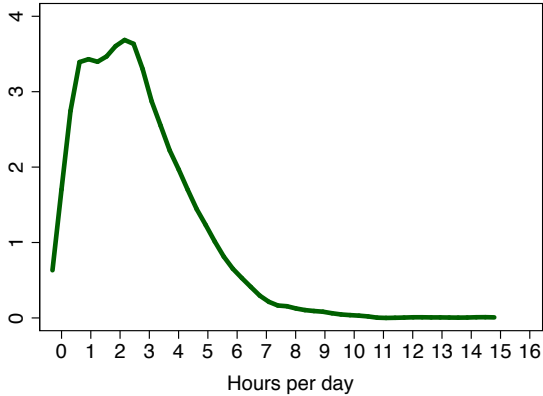
Source: OECD Family Database.

Notes: Tax benefits measured as the relative difference in tax rates between a married household with 133% of the average income and 2 children and a family with the same level of income but no children. *Example:* in Italy, the tax benefits are of 10%, meaning that a family with 2 kids and 133% of the average Italian household income pays 10% lower taxes than a family with the same level of income and no children.

CDS Sample

- Start in 1997 collecting info on children aged 0 to 12 from PSID families, and follow them over time.
- I use the 2002 and 2007 waves (children aged 6 to 18).
- Time diary:
 - Detailed info on child's activities: nature, duration, whether parents participate, etc.
- Test scores (Woodcock Johnson Tests)
 - Standard measure of child's cognitive skills.
 - Large number of yes-or-no questions.
- Includes individual identifiers for children and parents: link with PSID data.
- Information on 4,530 children: 1,892 also in PSID when adult.

Time Investments



Children's Human Capital

Table: Children's (normalized) scores in the Woodcock Johnson Tests

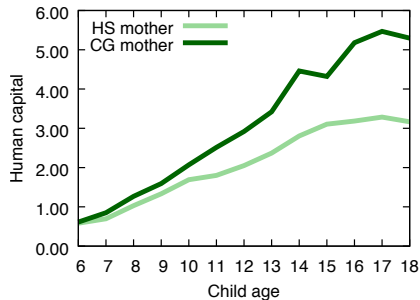
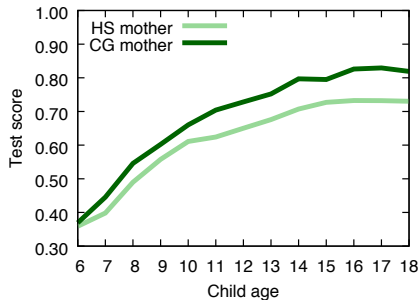
	Obs.	Mean	Std	Min	Max
Applied Problem Solving	4,125	0.608	0.144	0.050	1.000
Passage Comprehension	4,047	0.590	0.159	0.023	1.000
Letter-Word	4,125	0.741	0.170	0.086	0.983

Children's Human Capital

Table: Summary statistics, children's human capital measures

	Obs	Mean	Std	Corr(q, e)
Applied Problem Solving	4,122	2.091	2.358	0.449
Passage Comprehension	4,037	1.875	1.678	0.300
Letter-Word	4,109	6.303	8.274	0.336
All test	4,024	2.590	1.981	0.482

Human capital by age



[▷ Back - Model](#)

[▷ Back - Calibration](#)

Income taxes in the US

	Gross income
—	Adjustments to gross income
<hr/>	
=	Adjusted gross income
—	Standard deduction
—	Personal exemptions, or Itemized deductions
<hr/>	
=	Taxable Income
—	Taxes
<hr/>	
=	Tax imposed
—	Nonrefundable credits
—	Refundable credits.
<hr/>	
=	Tax liability after credits

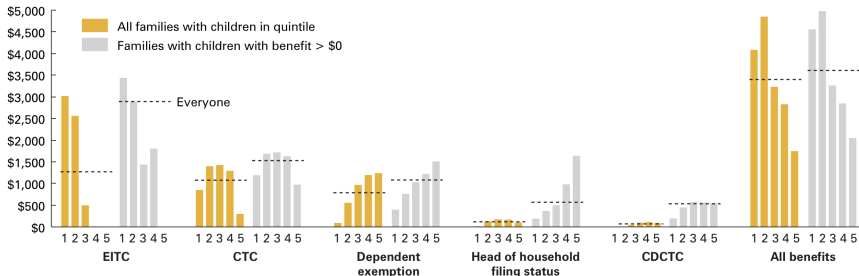
Income taxes in the US

Sources of child-dependencies

- **Standard deduction**: singles w/ children can claim “head of household” filling status, who enjoy higher standard deduction.
- **Personal exemptions**: extra amount per dependent child (phase out)
- **Itemized deductions**: interests paid on education loans, and higher education expenses (both limited and for higher education).
- **Children and dependent care tax credit (CDCTC)**: non-refundable credit for the care of dependents (phase out)
- **Child tax credit (CTC)**: refundable credit of \$1,000 per eligible child (phase out)
- **Earned income tax credit (EITC)**: higher credit rate, maximum credit and phase out threshold.
- **Tax rates**: heads of households enjoy lower tax rates.

Average Benefit of Child-Related Tax Benefits for Families with Children at Various Income Levels

BY INCOME QUINTILE



Total Benefit

BILLIONS OF DOLLARS



\$63.88
EITC



\$54.15
CTC



\$39.61
Dependent
exemption



\$5.92
Head of household
filing status



\$3.51
CDCTC

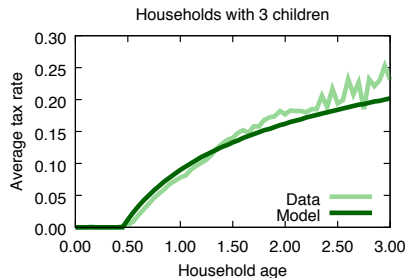
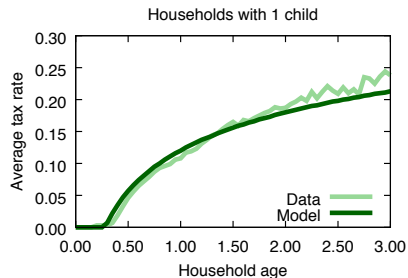
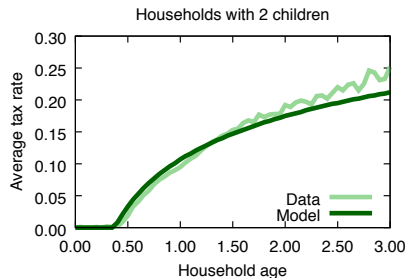
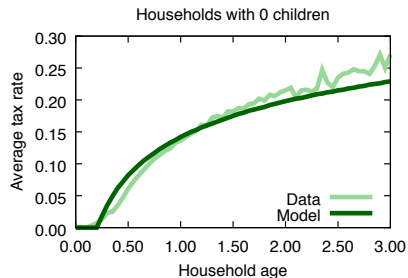


\$170.84
All benefits

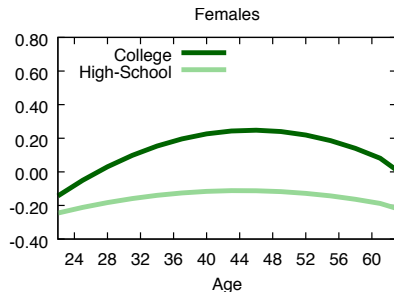
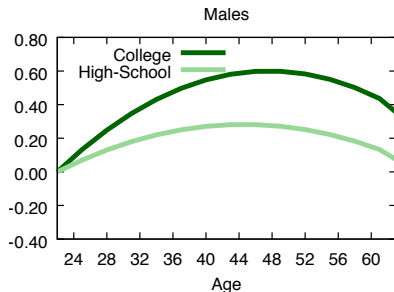
CPS Sample

- Annual Survey of Economic Conditions Supplement to the CPS.
 - Years 2000 to 2010.
 - Large sample size:
Allows for clustering by the number of children in the household.
- Tax-related variables from the Census Bureau's tax model
 - Using info from: IRS, the American Housing Survey, and the State Tax Handbook.
- Sample selection:
Keep married households filling joint returns and positive income.

Tax function



Income profiles



- Construct hourly wages for full-time workers.
- Fit 2nd order polynomial in age, by education and gender.
- Normalize $\mu(m, \bar{e}, J_I) = \mu(m, \underline{e}, J_I) = 0$.

Income profiles

- Take residuals as our measure of labor productivity. Estimate (by education):

$$z_{i,t} = \alpha + \rho z_{i,t-2} + \epsilon_{i,t}$$

- Measurement error: instrument $z_{i,t-2}$ with $z_{i,t-4}$ (biannual observations)

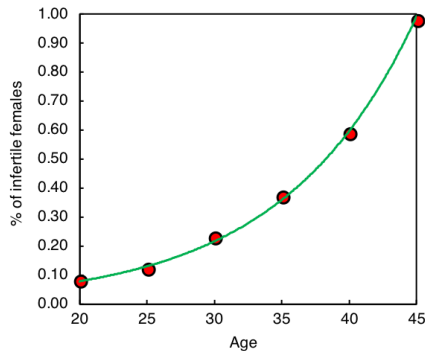
Table: Labor productivity process estimation

	Low educated	High educated
Autocorrelation, ρ_e	0.824	0.902
Std of innovations, σ_e	0.406	0.392

Fertility risk

- Follow Sommer (JME 2016): use data from medical literature on infertility.

$$p_0(b, j) = \begin{cases} 1 - \exp(\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 j) & \text{if } b = 1 \text{ and } j \leq J_F \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Children independence

- Probability that a child becomes adult given by:

$$p_I(n, j) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{n_{i,t} < n \wedge n_{i,t-3} = n \wedge \text{age} = j\}}{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{n_{i,t-3} = n \wedge \text{age} = j\}}$$

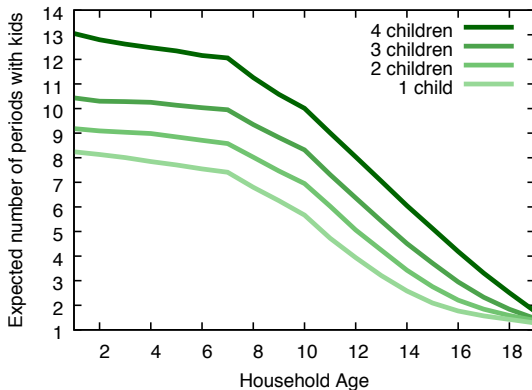
- Results (PSID data):

Table: Children ageing process

Age Model age (j)	Mother's age			
	20-28 1-3	29-37 4-6	38-46 7-9	>46 >9
$p_I(n = 1, j)$	0.029	0.037	0.288	0.501
$p_I(n = 2, j)$	0.025	0.041	0.309	0.579
$p_I(n = 3, j)$	0.049	0.105	0.399	0.718
$p_I(n \geq 4, j)$	0.125	0.140	0.455	0.720

Children independence

Figure: Expected number of years with children, by age and number of children



Computation

- High dimensional problem: more than 120,000 grid points in the state space
- Choice set depends on the state
 - Young households choose whether to have a kid
 - Parents decide on investments
 - etc.
- Up to 6 continuous choice variables (+1 discrete)
- Value function is not differentiable: solution requires global methods
- Solution:
 - Parallel computing (OpenMP)
 - Solve household problem using Nelder–Mead method