

# How to close the skill gap?

Parental Background and Children's Skill Development in Indonesia

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# Motivation

- ▶ Parental investments are an important determinant of human capital
- ▶ In the context of developing countries, not only education, but also nutrition investments play a role

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- ▶ Parental investments are an important determinant of human capital
- ▶ In the context of developing countries, not only education, but also nutrition investments play a role
- ▶ In these countries, financial constraints make it difficult to invest, especially for poorer households
  - 20% of children under age 5 have extremely low height-for-age
  - 53% of children unable to understand a simple text by age 10
  - In Indonesia, 43% cannot perform one-digit multiplication by the end of 3rd grade

# Motivation

Development policies can be used to increase children's skills



Parents play important role as they decide on investment inputs for their children



Understanding parental investment decisions is fundamental to design effective policies

⇒ I quantitatively evaluate effects of different policies taking into account parents' decisions

# This paper

1. I model **parental investment decisions** in **low/middle income country** setting
  - Parents get utility from their children's skills and consumption
  - They decide on investment in children: **nutrition** and **schooling expenditure**  
→ subject to financial constraints
  - Children's skill dynamically accumulate in **multi-period skill production function**  
→ parental characteristics influence skill production

# This paper

2. I **structurally estimate** the model using panel **data from Indonesia** (IFLS, 1993-2014)
  - Long panel
    - childhood stages modelled: early childhood to adulthood
  - Measurements of **schooling expenditure** and **nutrition** (food diversity)
  - Measurements of skills (math, logic and language test scores)
    - allows to identify **cognitive skills**
3. I **simulate** the impact of policies: **nutrition** and **schooling subsidies**, and **cash transfers**

# Contribution to the literature

## ► Role of nutrition in child development

Hoddinott et al. (2008), Belot and James (2011), Sánchez (2017), Lee et al. (2018), Aurino et al. (2020), Bailey et al. (2020), Behrman et al. (2020), Filmer et al. (2021)

→ I use a structural model which allows me to include parents' investment decisions and reactions to **policies**

→ I can estimate the **complementarity of schooling and nutrition**

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## ► Dynamic models of skill formation

Cunha and Heckman (2008), Cunha et al. (2010), Villa (2017), Attanasio et al. (2017, 2020a,b)

→ I model **endogeneous parental investment choices**



# Contribution to the literature

- Models of skill formation with endogenous parental choices

Todd and Wolpin (2007), Bernal (2008), Del Boca et al. (2014), Daruich (2018), Lee and Seshadri (2019), Caucutt et al. (2020)

→ I model [nutrition](#) as [investment input](#)

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→ I model **nutrition** as **investment input**

- Evaluations of child development policies in low- and middle-income countries

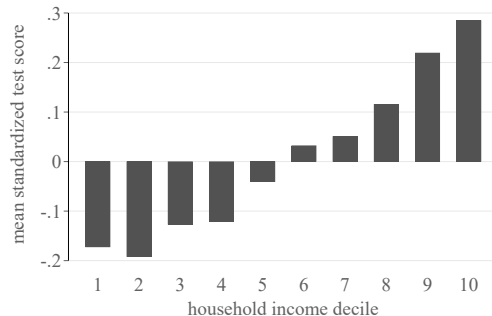
Duflo (2001), Todd and Wolpin (2006), Macours et al. (2012), Krishnamurthy et al. (2017), Kaul (2018), Cahyadi et al. (2020), Ashraf et al. (2020), Bobba et al. (2021)

→ I conduct **ex-ante policy evaluation** and test for dynamic complementarities

## Data: Indonesian family life survey

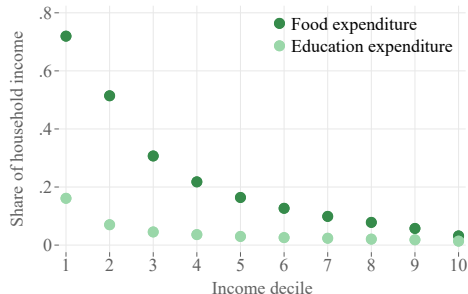
- ▶ **Panel survey** with 7,200 households (1993, 1997, 2000, 2007, 2014)
  - ▶ Representative of 83% of Indonesian population
  - ▶ Data on **children's outcomes**: height, weight, math, logic and language test scores
  - ▶ Investment measures:
    - **Food groups consumed** (staples, proteins, fruits, vegetables, dairy)
    - **Schooling expenditure** (fees, books, transport, special courses, uniform, food)
- 43.6% of population lives with **less than \$2.15 a day** in 2000
- 42.4% of children under age 5 display **extremely low height-for-age** in 2000

Figure: Mean standardized test scores by household income decile in Indonesia



→ Persistent skill gap by income

Figure: Investments as shares of household income



*Note:* Data from Indonesian family life survey. Household income adjusted by household size.

→ Higher income households spend **lower share of income** on investments and have **lower share of nutrition** investments

## Model set-up:

- ▶ 3 childhood stages  $t \in \{1, 2, 3\}$
- ▶ Parents divided into 3 education groups

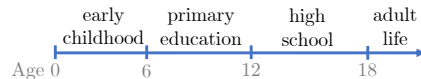


Figure: Model stages

## Model set-up:

- ▶ 3 childhood stages  $t \in \{1, 2, 3\}$
- ▶ Parents divided into 3 education groups
- ▶ Choices: consumption, assets and child investments
- ▶ Investments  $I_t$  are composed of nutrition  $n_t$  and schooling  $s_t$

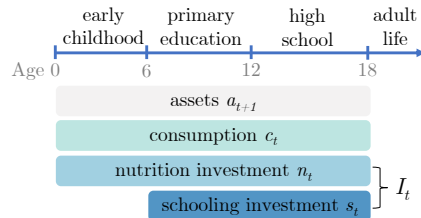


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household budget

Figure: Exemplary model period





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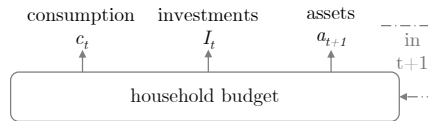


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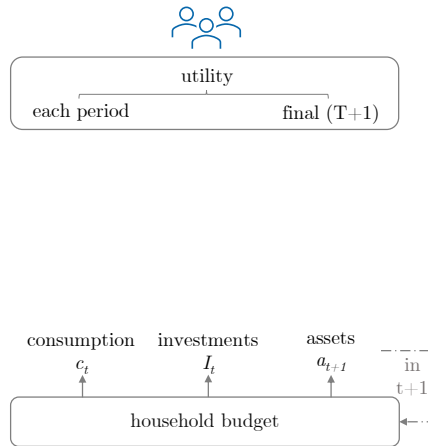


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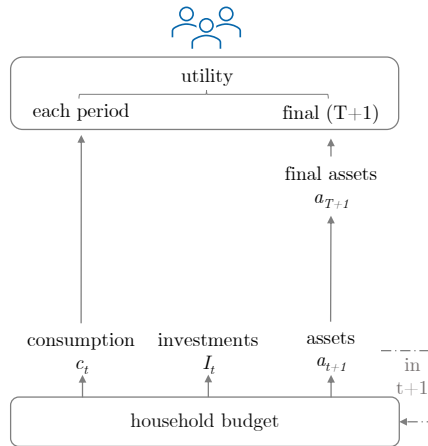


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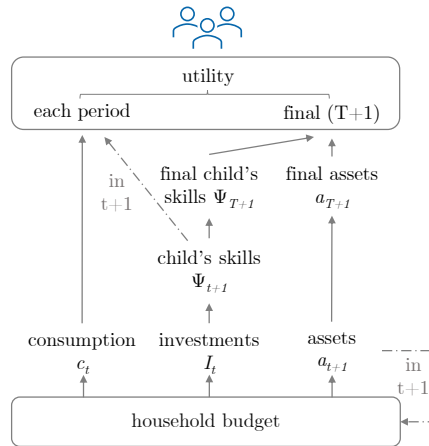


Figure: Exemplary model period

Socioeconomic status influences choices via:

- preferences for skills
- household income and assets
- skill formation (differences in productivity)

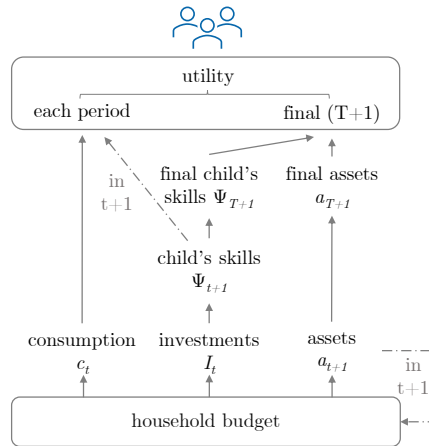


Figure: Exemplary model period

## Skill formation:

- ▶ investments:  
nutrition + schooling  
→ substitutes or complements?
- ▶ future skills:  
investments + skills  
→ timing
- ▶ productivity of inputs varies by  
parental education and parenting skill  
type

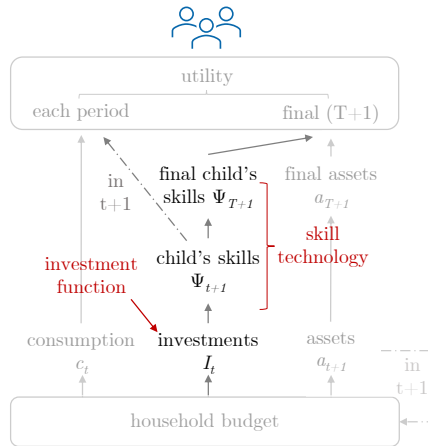


Figure: Exemplary model period

# Overview estimation

## Parameters

## Strategy

### *Outside of the model:*

Annual discount factor

Dutu (2016): 0.98

Unobserved parenting skill types

Bonhomme et al. (2022): k-means clustering

Household income

OLS prediction

### *Structural model:*

Investment function parameters

Estimation by joint GMM

Skill production function parameters

→ Inv → HC

Preference parameters

Simulated method of moments

# Estimation of dynamic structural model

**Step 1:** Parameters of children's skill formation (generalized method of moments)

- ▶ Regional and time variation in food prices: [substitutability of investments](#)
- ▶ Variation in investment levels and skills across periods and children: [impact of parental characteristics and investment](#) by period
- ▶ Two measures for cognitive skills: accounting for measurement error



# Estimation of dynamic structural model

**Step 1:** Parameters of children's skill formation (generalized method of moments)

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- ▶ Two measures for cognitive skills: accounting for measurement error

**Step 2:** [Preference parameters](#) (simulated method of moments)

- ▶ Estimated using model solution for investments and assets

# Summary of estimation results

1. How does higher parental education impact skill development?
  - Parents produce higher future skills with same level of inputs
  - They are more effective in using schooling inputs
    - Spend larger share of their investments on schooling
  - They value cognitive skills less
    - Parents mainly constrained by budget and productivity
2. Are nutrition and schooling complements or substitutes?
  - Complements, with higher complementarity in high school
    - parents react to price decreases with increasing both inputs

# Policy scenarios

1. Nutrition price subsidy (20%)
2. Schooling price subsidy (99%)
3. Unconditional cash transfer (3% of mean income)
  - Implemented for [lowest 20% of income distribution](#)
  - Implemented at [primary and high school](#) stage
  - Simulated to be [cost-equivalent](#)

# Policy scenarios - results

1. Nutrition price subsidy (20%)  $\uparrow$  **0.04 SD**
  2. Schooling price subsidy (99%)  $\uparrow$  0.03 SD
  3. Unconditional cash transfer (3% of mean income)  $\uparrow\downarrow$  negligible effects
- Implemented for lowest 20% of income distribution
- Implemented at primary and high school stage
- Simulated to be cost-equivalent

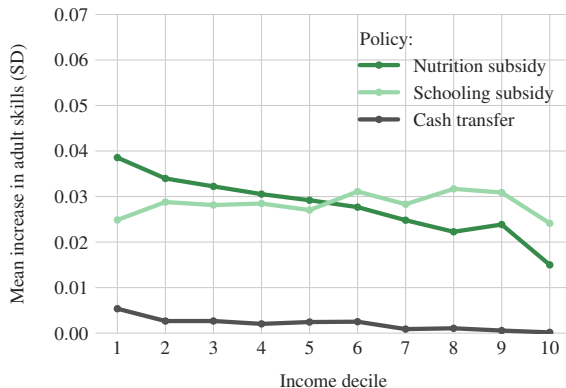
# Inequality reduction of policies

**Can nutrition subsidies decrease inequality? If so, why?**

→ Simulate policies **for each household income decile**:

1. Nutrition price subsidy (20%)
2. Schooling price subsidy (99%)
3. Unconditional cash transfer (3% of mean income of lowest 20%)

Figure: Policy impacts by income decile



→ Effect of cash transfer and nutrition subsidy decreases with income

→ Nutrition subsidy most effective to reduce skill gap

# Mechanism

- ▶ Nutrition subsidies can **reduce inequality**

Low income parents spend higher share on nutrition investments  
(lower productivity of schooling)



React stronger to nutrition price changes



Increase both inputs (complements)



Adult cognitive skills ↑

- ▶ **More cost-effective** to implement **nutrition subsidy alone** instead of splitting costs and combine policies

# Recap

► In this paper:

- I estimate a **dynamic structural model** of skill formation with **endogenous investment decisions** in schooling and nutrition
- I decompose the **skill gap by socioeconomic status** in Indonesia
- I simulate **long-run impacts** of **cash transfers, nutrition and schooling subsidies** on cognitive skills

► Main finding:

- Nutrition subsidy: **↑ 0.04 SD** in adult skills
- Schooling subsidy: **↑ 0.03 SD** in adult skills
- Nutrition subsidies more cost-effective than splitting the budget into two policies



# THANK YOU!

If you have any further feedback, please feel free to contact me!

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# APPENDIX

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# Differences to high-income countries

- ▶ schooling is not for free
  - 6.6% of children going to school in Indonesia do not pay fees
- ▶ nutrition situation worse
  - 20% of children undernourished in 2000 (US 3%)
  - 35% stunted
- ▶ larger share of children affected by poverty, more severe income constraints
  - extreme poverty rate: 35% below 1.90 USD a day (US 0.7%)
- ▶ family structure: average household size 4 (US: 2.6), fertility rate: 2.5 (US: 2.1)
- ▶ in the 90's no/little formal child care

# Indonesian context - advantages

- ▶ data available
- ▶ lower fertility than in other low/middle income countries  
→ 2.5 children per women in 2000 (e.g. India: 3.3)
- ▶ setting with school availability and markets  
→ paper about parental choices not environment's constraints
- ▶ inequalities rise with economic growth  
→ room for policy interventions to avoid divide

# Indonesian context

- ▶ rural areas: 60%
- ▶ education: universal primary schooling, 48% secondary schooling, 14% tertiary schooling
- ▶ female labor market participation: 69.9%
- ▶ since 90's transition from low to middle income country
- ▶ financial crisis 1998

# Data advantages

- ▶ adult's skill outcomes available
- ▶ panel for unobserved heterogeneity
- ▶ prices for investments available
- ▶ low attrition (90%)
- ▶ variation by region and time, all HH characteristics needed recorded

# Parents' investments influencing cognitive skill development

## ► Nutrition

Hoddinott et al. (2008), Belot and James (2011), Sánchez (2017), Galasso et al. (2019), Aurino et al. (2020), Behrman et al. (2020)

## ► Education

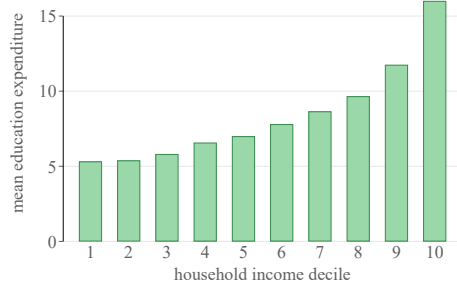
Todd and Wolpin (2006), Doepke and Zilibotti (2019), Dizon-Ross (2019), Ashraf et al. (2020), Behrman et al. (2021) Beuermann et al. (2022)

→ Interaction between investment inputs matters

→ Parents' reaction to policy important for long run effects

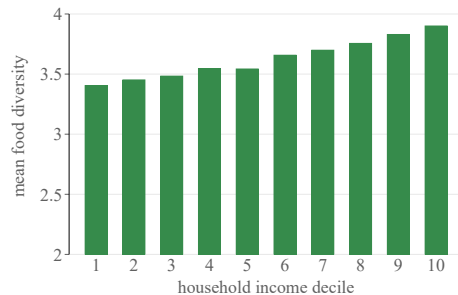
→ Reactions might vary by socioeconomic status influencing inequality impacts

Figure: Mean education expenditure



*Note:* Data from Indonesian family life survey.

Figure: Mean food diversity

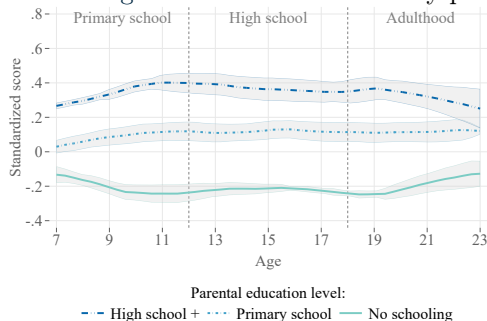


*Note:* Diversity equals number of food groups consumed.

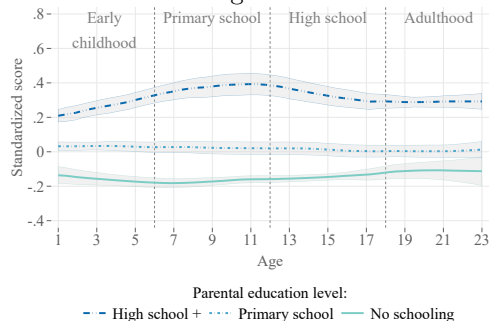
→ within-country socioeconomic gradient in investments



Figure: Children outcomes by parental education over age in Indonesia



(a) Test score



(b) Height

*Note:* Corresponding skills are fitted with local mean smoothing by age and parental education groups. Parental education groups correspond to the average education of both parents. Confidence intervals displayed are at 95% level. Scores are standardized by age to have mean 0 and sd of 1.

→ persistent skill gap opening early in life in Indonesia

# Skill production function

$$\Psi_{t+1} = \theta_t(Z_{\theta,t}) I_t^{\delta_{1,t}} \Psi_t^{\delta_{2,t}}$$

$\delta_{t,1}$ : impact of investments  $I_t$  on future skills  $\Psi_{t+1}$

$\delta_{t,2}$ : impact of current skills  $\Psi_t$  on future skills  $\Psi_{t+1}$

→ policy implications: differential returns from higher investments/skills by childhood period

$\theta_t(Z_{\theta,t}) = \exp(Z'_{\theta,t} \phi_{\theta,t})$ : total factor productivity

→ effectiveness of converting given level of skills and investments into future skills

→ depends on characteristics  $Z_{\theta,t}$  (parental education  $e$ , age)

# Investment function

$$I_t = [a_{s,t}(Z_{s,t}, \eta) s_t^{\rho_t} + n_t^{\rho_t}]^{\frac{1}{\rho_t}}$$

$\rho_t$ : substitution parameter for investment inputs nutrition  $n_t$  and schooling  $s_t$

→ complements or substitutes

→ policy implications: different reactions to price subsidies

$a_{s,t}(Z_{s,t}, \eta) = \exp(Z'_{s,t}\phi_{s,t} + \eta'\phi_{\eta,t})$ : relative productivity of schooling  $s_t$

→ determines share spend on schooling vs. nutrition for given level of investments

→ depends on characteristics  $Z_{s,t}$  (e.g. parental education  $e$ ) and parenting skill type  $\eta$

# Maximisation problem

$$V_t(a_t, y_t, \Pi_t, \Psi_t, Z_t, \eta, e) = \max_{c_t, n_t, s_t, a_{t+1}} \ln(c_t) + \alpha_e \ln(\Psi_t) + \\ + \beta V_{t+1}(a_{t+1}, y_{t+1}, \Pi_{t+1}, \Psi_{t+1}, Z_{t+1}, \eta, e),$$

$$\text{s.t. } c_t + p_{n,t}n_t + p_{s,t}s_t + a_{t+1} = (1 + r)a_t + y_t$$

$$a_{t+1} \geq a_{\min}$$

$$\text{with: } V_{T+1}(\Psi_{T+1}, a_{T+1}) = \alpha_e \gamma \ln(\Psi_{T+1}) + \zeta \ln(a_{T+1})$$

$$y_t = f_t(Z_t, \eta) + \epsilon_{y,t}$$

$a_t$ : assets,  $y_t$ : household income,  $\Pi_t$ : price vector for investments,  $\Psi_t$ : child's skills,  $Z_t$ : household characteristics,  $c_t$ : consumption,  $n_t$ : nutrition,  $s_t$ : schooling,  $p_{n,t}$ : price nutrition,  $p_{s,t}$ : price schooling,  $e$ : parental education

# Estimation investment function

$$I_t = [a_{s,t}(Z_{s,t}, \eta) s_t^{\rho_t} + n_t^{\rho_t}]^{\frac{1}{\rho_t}}, \quad \rho_t < 1$$

- ▶ derive relative demand ratios
- ▶ exploit variation in food prices for substitution parameter

## Relative demands moments for nutrition and schooling:

$$\underbrace{\ln\left(\frac{p_{n,t} n_t}{p_{s,t} s_t}\right)}_{\substack{\text{investment} \\ \text{expenditure} \\ \text{ratio}}} = \frac{1}{\rho_t - 1} \underbrace{Z'_{s,t} \phi_{s,t}}_{\substack{\text{productivity} \\ \text{(by education)}}} + \frac{1}{\rho_t - 1} \underbrace{\eta' \phi_{\eta,t}}_{\substack{\text{unobserved} \\ \text{parenting} \\ \text{skills}}} + \frac{\rho_t}{\rho_t - 1} \underbrace{\ln\left(\frac{p_{n,t}}{p_{s,t}}\right)}_{\substack{\text{price} \\ \text{ratio}}}$$

with:  $a_{s,t}(Z_{s,t}, \eta) = \exp(Z'_{s,t} \phi_{s,t} + \eta' \phi_{\eta,t})$

Table: Estimation results for investment parameters

	Primary school		High school	
<i>Investment elasticity:</i>				
$\rho_t$	-3.75	(0.86)***	-11.38	(5.11)**
Implied elasticity	0.21		0.08	
<i>Schooling investment productivity <math>\phi_{s,t}</math>:</i>				
Constant	-3.68	(0.51)***	-42.17	(16.55)**
Mother primary	1.10	(0.25)***	3.06	(1.32)**
Mother high	1.87	(0.39)***	5.04	(2.15)**
Father primary	0.09	(0.16)	0.63	(0.47)
Father high	-0.08	(0.19)	0.51	(0.50)
N	27,366			

Note: Standard errors in parenthesis, \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.

→ nutrition and schooling are complements, higher complementarity in high school

→ mothers with higher education invest more in schooling

# Estimation skill production function

$$\Psi_{t+1} = \theta_t(Z_{\theta,t}) I_t^{\delta_{1,t}} \Psi_t^{\delta_{2,t}}$$

- measures  $S_{j,t}$  with  $j \in \{1, 2\}$  for skills  $\Psi_t$ : height/weight (period 1) and math/logic test scores (after)
- measurement system following Cunha et al. (2010) and Caucutt et al. (2020):

$$S_{j,t} = \lambda_{j,t} \ln(\Psi_t) + \epsilon_{j,t}$$

## Skill formation moments:

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_{j,t+1}} S_{j,t+1} - \left( \underbrace{Z'_{\theta,t} \phi_{\theta,t}}_{\substack{\text{productivity} \\ \text{(by education)}}} + \delta_{1,t} \ln(I_t) + \delta_{2,t} \frac{1}{\lambda_{j,t}} S_{j,t} \right) = 0, \text{ with } \theta_t(Z_{\theta,t}) = \exp(Z'_{\theta,t} \phi_{\theta,t})$$

# Factor loadings

$$S_{j,t} = \lambda_{j,t} \ln(\Psi_t) + \epsilon_{j,t}$$

→ normalization like Caucutt et al. (2020):  $\lambda_{1,t} = 1$

→ exploit covariance structure for  $\lambda_{2,t}$  as in Cunha et al. (2010):

$$\lambda_{2,t} = \frac{Cov(S_{1,t}, S_{1,t+1})}{Cov(S_{2,t}, S_{1,t+1})} \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_{2,t+1} = \frac{Cov(S_{1,t}, S_{1,t+1})}{Cov(S_{1,t}, S_{2,t+1})}$$

## Factor loading moments:

$$E[(S_{1,t+1} - \lambda_{2,t+1}S_{2,t+1})S_{ts_1,t}] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad E[(S_{1,t}S - \lambda_{2,t}S_{2,t})S_{1,t+1}] = 0$$



Table: Estimation results for human capital parameters

	Early childhood		Primary school		High school	
<i>Human capital parameters:</i>						
$\delta_{1,t}$ (investment)	<b>0.28</b>	(0.06)***	<b>0.16</b>	(0.05)***	<b>0.18</b>	(0.03)***
$\delta_{2,t}$ (skills)	<b>0.10</b>	(0.02)***	<b>0.19</b>	(0.02)***	<b>0.22</b>	(0.01)***
<i>Total factor productivity <math>\phi_{\theta,t}</math>:</i>						
Constant	-0.73	(0.08)***	-0.02	(0.12)	-0.22	(0.09)**
Mother primary	0.02	(0.04)	0.06	(0.04)	0.05	(0.02)**
Mother high	<b>0.22</b>	(0.03)***	<b>0.25</b>	(0.04)***	<b>0.16</b>	(0.03)***
Father primary	0.02	(0.04)	0.13	(0.04)***	0.03	(0.03)
Father high	<b>0.11</b>	(0.03)***	<b>0.07</b>	(0.04)*	<b>0.11</b>	(0.03)***
N	27,366					

Note: Standard errors in parenthesis, \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.

→ investments highest impact in early childhood + overall low persistence in skills

→ parents with high school education lead to high factor productivity

Table: Calibrated preference parameters

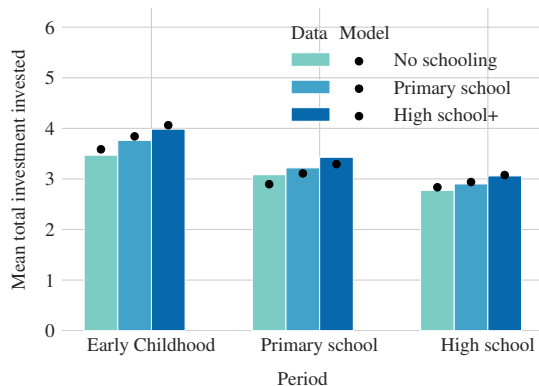
	Parental education:		
	No schooling	Primary school	High school+
<i>For current skills:</i>			
$\alpha_e$	2.38	1.62	0.98
<i>For final skills:</i>			
$\gamma_e$	1.40	1.38	1.45
<i>For final assets:</i>			
$\zeta$	9.98	9.98	9.98

*Note:* Calibration method used: simulated methods of moments. Moments targeted were investments by parental education and by childhood period.

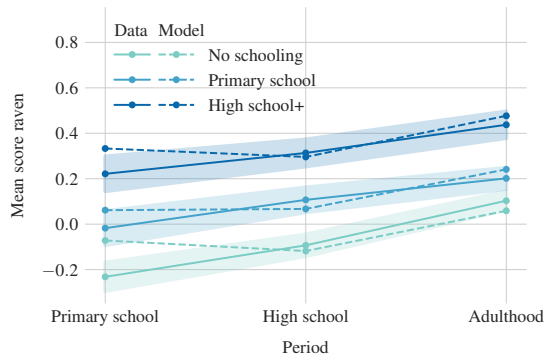
→ parents with lower education value current skills higher

→ similar additional valuation for final skills

Figure: Model fit



(a) Targeted moments: investments



(b) Untargeted moments: skills

# Price for education

- ▶  $p_{s,t} = 1$  for all households
- ▶  $s_t$  is then schooling expenditure observed in the data (fees, registration, books)

# Price for food

- ▶ median price for 1 kg of grains/vegetables and meat for each locality  $m$
- ▶ adjusted for fraction median amount of each food group purchased by households:
  - $fp_{m,t} = (0.43price_{grain,m,t} + 0.14price_{veg,m,t} + 0.43price_{meat,m,t})$
- ▶ to get yearly price, I use household expenditure divided by estimated food price, adjust it by household equivalence scale and calculate kg consumption for children  $kg_{cons}$
- ▶ food price  $p_{g,t} = fp_{m,t} \times kg_{cons}$

# Skill gap simulations

Main drivers:

- ▶ preference differences (−)
- ▶ technology differences (+)
- ▶ income differences (+)

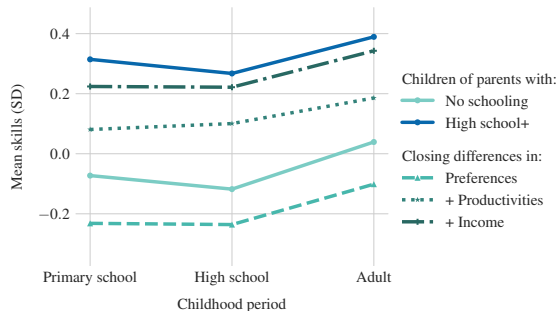


Table: Policy counterfactuals - investment and skill change

	Cash transfer	Nutrition subsidy	Schooling subsidy
<i>Change in mean adult skills (SD):</i>			
All targeted	0.00	0.04	0.03
<i>Change in mean investments (%):</i>			
Investments	1.65	16.29	8.87
Nutrition	1.57	15.92	6.80
Schooling	1.46	18.44	90.54
<i>Costs in 100,000 rupees per child:</i>			
Per 0.01 SD increase	1676.02	210.28	288.96
Total amount	7.60	7.60	7.60

*Note:* Policies are designed to have the same costs (in 100,000 rupees  $\sim$  \$7), resulting in a 3% cash transfer, 20% nutrition subsidy and 99% schooling subsidy.

→ **Nutrition subsidy most effective** followed by schooling subsidy

Table: Policy combination counterfactuals - investment and skill change

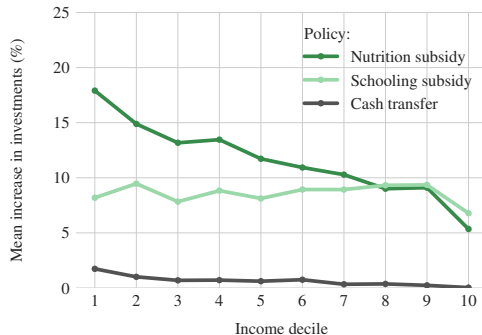
	Cash+ nutrition	Cash+ schooling	Nutrition+ schooling	Nutrition subsidy
<i>Change in mean adult skills (SD):</i>				
All targeted	0.04	0.03	0.06	0.10
<i>Change in mean investments (%):</i>				
Investments	17.55	10.51	26.49	48.17
Nutrition	17.09	8.37	23.94	47.26
Schooling	20.16	93.30	131.66	63.61
<i>Costs in 100,000 rupees per child:</i>				
Per 0.01 SD increase	387.52	483.49	267.80	157.45
Total amount	15.25	15.31	17.31	15.25

*Note:* Costs are expressed in 100,000 rupees ( $\sim$  \$7), combined policies are a 3% cash transfer, 20% nutrition subsidy and 99% schooling subsidy. The nutrition subsidy is 51% to be cost-equivalent to the cheapest combination.

→ Nutrition subsidy [alone more effective](#)



Figure: Policy impacts on investment by income decile



→ decrease in investments with nutrition subsidy, stable with schooling

→ period dynamics and higher productivity lead to higher impact of schooling subsidy for upper income distribution

## Policy scenarios - combinations

**Is splitting the budget and combining policies more effective than a nutrition subsidy alone?**

Simulation of policy combinations:

1. Nutrition price subsidy + cash transfer
2. Schooling price subsidy + cash transfer
3. Nutrition + schooling price subsidy
4. Nutrition subsidy alone (benchmark)

Table: Combinations of policies and their effectiveness

	Policy combinations			
	1	2	3	4
Nutrition subsidy (20%)	✓		✓	
Schooling subsidy (99%)		✓	✓	
Cash transfer (3%)	✓	✓		
Nutrition subsidy (51%)				✓
Impact on adult skills (in SD)	0.04	0.03	0.07	0.10
Costs (in 100,000 rupees)	15.36	15.39	17.42	15.36

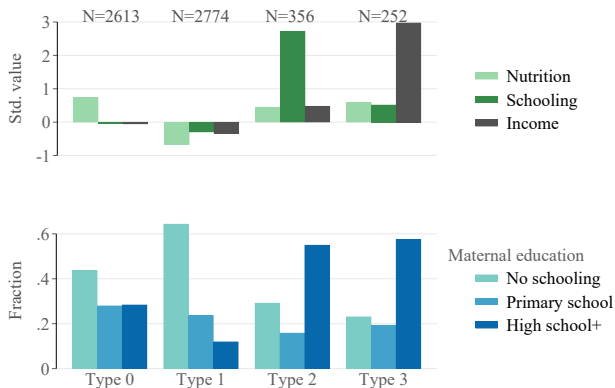
*Note:* Costs are expressed in 100,000 rupees per child ( $\sim$  \$7), combined policies are a cash transfer (3% of mean income), nutrition subsidy (20%) and schooling subsidy (99%). The benchmark nutrition subsidy is 51% to be cost-equivalent to the cheapest combination.

→ Nutrition subsidy **alone** is **more effective**

# Unobserved parenting skills

- ▶ K-means clustering to discretize parenting types  $\eta$  (Bonhomme et al. (2022))
- ▶ Assumption: moments of same type converge on the long run
- ▶ Standardized life-cycle moments:
  - Average schooling investments by household
  - Average nutrition investments by household
  - Household income
- ▶ Number of types chosen by Ellbow/silhouette criteria (4 types)

Figure: Characteristics of parenting types  $\eta$  (investments/resources and education)



*Note:* Nutrition is food groups consumed, schooling education expenditure and income annual household income (life-time averages by parenting pair).

→ Variation in parenting types across education and within education categories