

Lecture 7 Policy Evaluation and Structural Models

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- The aim in this section is to go back to viewing evaluation through the prism of economic theory

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 - We now search in the support of prices a time/region where the price was equal to the new after tax price.
 - If all else was equal we can then read off the quantity demanded and predict the effects of the reform.
- Of course the key problem here is the “*all else being equal*” assumption. This is where econometric methods come in as well as the issues relating to identification

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- Policy analysis is then carried out by being explicit about how a policy can change the environment/budget constraints and simulating changes in behaviour
- The interpretation of the results is explicitly reliant on theory in a way that all assumptions on which the interpretation is predicated are explicitly stated.
- The effects of a policy is then estimated and the mechanisms by which it operates (income and substitution effects for example) are uncovered

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- The Marginal Treatment Effect is a step towards linking the heterogeneous treatment effects model to the notion of a structural parameter because the estimate we obtain does not depend on the instrument or the specific circumstances that led to treatment choice. However, a full structural model, leading to the identification and estimation of policy invariant parameters requires a complete specification of the underlying economic models.

Randomised Experiments and earnings

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- The evaluation approach is to offer training randomly to a subset of a group of volunteers

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- Now consider what the randomised experiment identifies

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 & [E(S_i | R_i = 1, P_i = 1) - E(S_i | R_i = 0, P_i = 1)] \Pr(P_i = 1 | R_i = 0) \\
 & + [\Pr(P_i = 1 | R_i = 1) - \Pr(P_i = 1 | R_i = 0)] E(S_i | R_i = 1, P_i = 1)
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- Thus earnings increases will occur because of increased employment (the last term) and/or because of the increased earnings of those employed.

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- This would require a model (theory) of employment.

A simple structural model of labour supply

Reading: Meghir and Phillips, Labour Supply and Taxes, in Mirrlees Review

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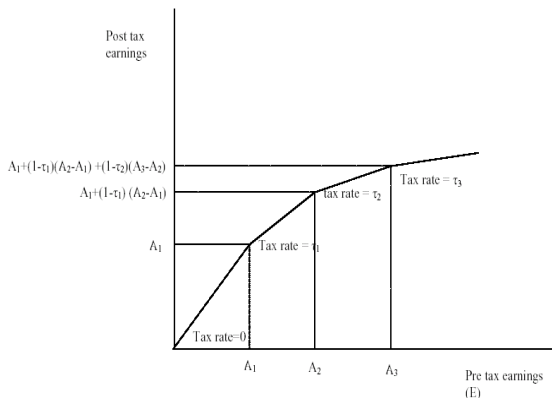
- We can start by a very simple argument in the simplest possible labour supply model under piece-wise linear taxes.
- Suppose labour supply (hours worked) can be written as

$$h = a + b \log w + c\mu + u$$

where w is the hourly wage rate, μ is non-labour income and u is unobservable tastes for work.

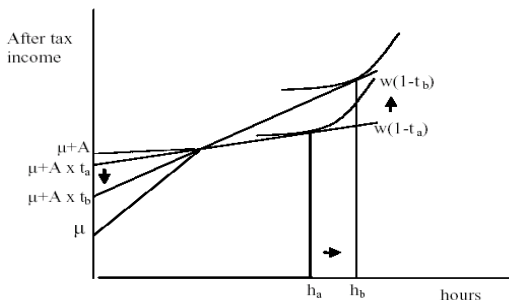
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- Now consider a tax system that gives rise to a convex budget set (no fixed costs, constant or increasing marginal tax rates with earnings)



A simple structural model of labour supply and tax reform

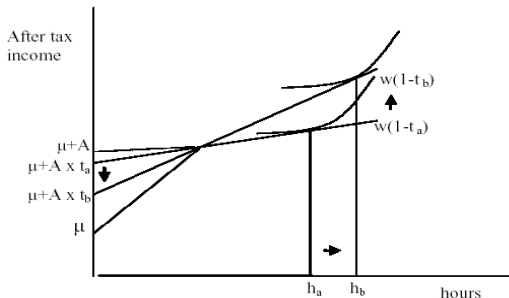
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$$h = a + b \log [(1 - t)w] + c [\mu + tA] + u$$

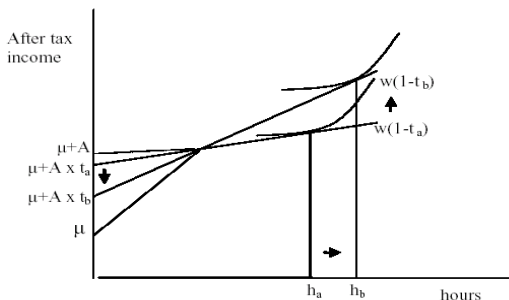


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- The structural parameters here are a , b , c and the distribution of u .



Treatment Effects and Structural Parameters in the Labour Supply Example

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- In our language, how does this relate to the *structural parameters*

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- The kink has a positive mass because all those individuals with u such that $a + b \log w + c\mu + u \geq A/w$ and $a + b \log [(1 - t)w] + c[\mu + tA] + u \leq A/w$ have as preferred point the kink

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- However it is possible that $p_k(t)$ and hence $p_2(t)$ change.

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- Average hours (assuming that everyone works) can be written as

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- Now consider how the treatment effect can be written in terms of the model. (Δ_t means the change induced by a change in t , e.g.

$$\Delta_t [p_2(t)] = p_2(t_1) - p_2(t_2)$$

$$E(h|t_2) - E(h|t_1) \equiv \Delta_t [E(h|t)] = A \times \Delta_t [p_k(t)E(\frac{1}{w}|t, h(t) = \frac{A}{w})]$$

$$+ a\Delta_t [p_2(t)] + b\Delta_t [p_2(t)E(\log w|t, h(t) > \frac{A}{w})]$$

$$+ c\Delta_t [p_2(t)E(\mu|t, h(t) > \frac{A}{w})]$$

$$+ b\Delta_t [p_2(t) \log(1 - t)] + cA\Delta_t [p_2(t)t] + \Delta_t [p_2(t)E(u|t, h(t) > \frac{A}{w})]$$

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- In the simplest world of proportional taxation with no tax allowances ($A = 0$ and $p_2(t) = 1$), we get

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- Nevertheless our use and interpretation of such a parameter is limited by the lack of an interpretative framework and by external validity.
- Our ability to learn from data is limited without a theoretical framework with which to interpret the results.

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- Orcutt & Orcutt (reading list) advocate running experiments with an express aim at identifying structural models.
- In the example provided above, this would imply assigning randomly different wages (through variation in taxes) and different levels of non-labour income to identify the structural labour supply model

Two Alternative Evaluations of Tax Credits

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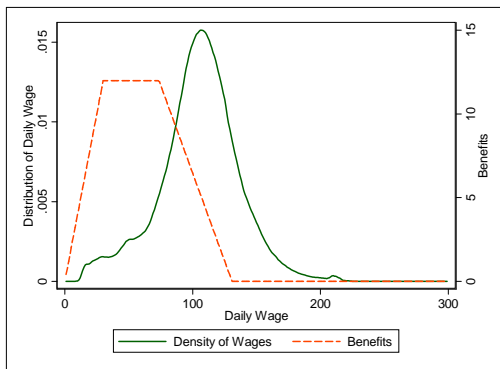
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- A Structural Approach:
 - The Labour Market Impact of the Working Families' Tax Credit by R. Blundell, A. Duncan, J. McRae and C. Meghir, *Fiscal Studies* (2000) vol. 21, no. 1, pp. 75–104

Earned Income Tax Credits

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Earned Income Tax Credits

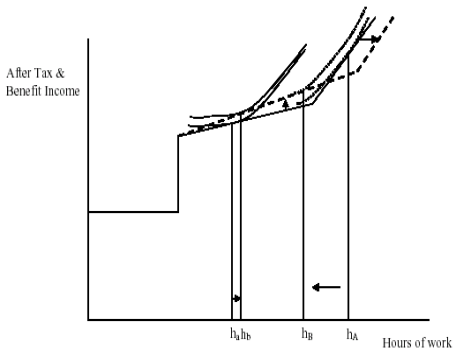
- The Earned Income Tax Credit in the US is effectively a negative marginal tax rate for low earning individuals.
- The general form of benefit looks as in the graph below



Density of Wages and In-Work Benefit Scheme

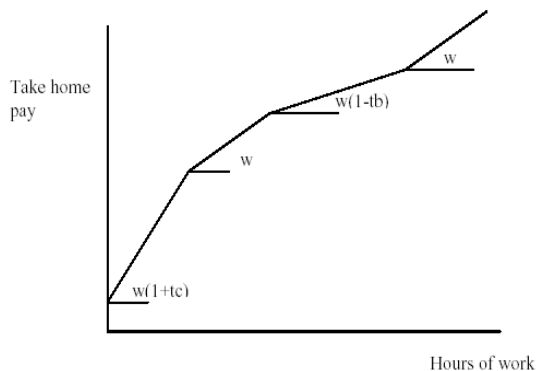
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- Under the US system the budget constraint looks like:



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- The key idea is that the programme transfers income to the working poor.
- The labour supply theory predicts that such a wage subsidy will encourage participation into work but could reduce the hours of work as shown in the figure depicting the UK system.

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Earned Income Tax Credit (Eissa and Liebmann)

- We can now think what is needed to evaluate such a programme or changes to it.
- One approach is a difference in differences method as followed by Eissa and Liebman.
- They exploit an expansion of the system.
- Their comparison group was the group of childless women who were not eligible for the programme.

Earned Income Tax Credit (Eissa and Liebmann)

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- This increased the maximum credit from \$550 to \$851
- The phase-out rate was reduced from 12.22% to 10%. This made individuals between \$11,000 and \$15,000 now eligible for some credit.

Earned Income Tax Credit (Eissa and Liebmann)

TABLE II
LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF UNMARRIED WOMEN

	Pre-TRA86 (1)	Post-TRA86 (2)	Difference (3)	Difference-in- differences (4)
<i>A. Treatment group:</i>				
With children [20,810]	0.729 (0.004)	0.753 (0.004)	0.024 (0.006)	
<i>Control group:</i>				
Without children [46,287]	0.952 (0.001)	0.952 (0.001)	0.000 (0.002)	0.024 (0.006)
<i>B. Treatment group:</i>				
Less than high school, with children [5396]	0.479 (0.010)	0.497 (0.010)	0.018 (0.014)	
<i>Control group 1:</i>				
Less than high school, without children [3958]	0.784 (0.010)	0.761 (0.009)	-0.023 (0.013)	0.041 (0.019)
<i>Control group 2:</i>				
Beyond high school, with children [5712]	0.911 (0.005)	0.920 (0.005)	0.009 (0.007)	0.009 (0.015)
<i>C. Treatment group:</i>				
High school, with children [9702]	0.764 (0.006)	0.787 (0.006)	0.023 (0.008)	
<i>Control group 1:</i>				
High school, without children [16,527]	0.945 (0.002)	0.943 (0.003)	-0.002 (0.004)	0.025 (0.009)
<i>Control group 2:</i>				
Beyond high school, with children [5712]	0.911 (0.005)	0.920 (0.005)	0.009 (0.007)	0.014 (0.011)

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- At first sight this seems to be a very strong set of results:

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- However, the baseline participation rates are completely different, with the comparison group at almost 100% participation
- This raises the issue of whether the assumptions underlying the difference in differences estimator can possibly be valid.
- The next point to note is that the estimated effect is a complicated function of the underlying structural parameters, the baseline and reformed tax system and the distribution of wages

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$$U^w = a_0 + a_1 Y^w(\text{tax credit, wage}) \quad \text{Work}$$

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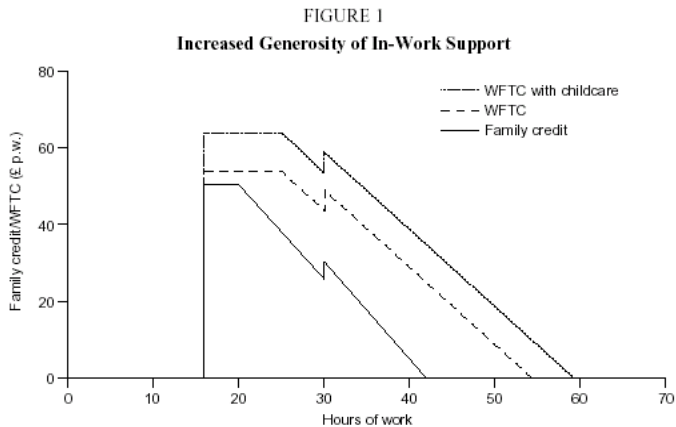
- Assuming no aggregate growth the impact will depend on the is

Effect =

$$\int \{ \Pr [v < (a_0 - b_0) + a_1 Y^w (\text{new credit, wage}) - b_1 Y^{nw} (\text{benefits})] - \Pr [v < (a_0 - b_0) + a_1 Y^w (\text{old credit, wage}) - b_1 Y^{nw} (\text{benefits})] \} dF(w)$$

Working Families Tax Credit (UK)

- The UK had a similar expansion to the tax credit system in 1998.



Working Families Tax Credit (UK) - Towards a Structural Model

- Assume the individual can choose to work one of $H=\{0,10,20,30,40\}$ hours.

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- Denote this level of income by $Y^H(W, T)$ where T denotes the set of parameters that describe the tax and benefit system.
- Denote the utility of working a particular level of hours by

$$U^H = a^H(Q) + b^H(Q)Y^H(W, T) + v^H = G^H(M) + \delta^H f + e^H$$

where a^H and b^H may depend on household characteristics Q such as the number and age of children. We summarize $M = [Q, W, T]$

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- Under these assumptions the probability of observing one particular hours choice $H = h$ is logistic

$$\Pr(H = h | Q, W, f) = \frac{\exp(G^h(M) + \delta^h f)}{\sum_{H=\{0,10,20,30,40\}} \left[\exp(G^H(M) + \delta^H f) \right]}$$

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- There are three key difficulties with this:
 - ① Wages W are not observed for non-workers
 - ② Wages may depend on the unobserved component of preferences f
 - ③ The unobserved component f needs to be accounted for
- In other words we need to complete the model with a specification of wages and of unobserved heterogeneity.

Working Families Tax Credit (UK) - Towards a Structural Model

- We specify a wage model of the form

$$\log W = \gamma'X + \beta(Z) + \gamma f + \varepsilon$$

where $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ and where X will include education and age. Note the presence of f : This reflects the issue of endogeneity of wages for labour supply and is modelled as a one factor model.

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- At this point a central issue is whether wages can vary independently of Q : This depends on having a (set of) credible instruments Z that affect wages but not labour supply.

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- In the past we have used the idea that wages vary *differentially* across education and cohort groups, but that preferences do not depend on interactions between time and cohort.
- This is of course the difference in differences assumption used within a structural model, and can be expressed here as follows

$$a(Q) = a_0 + d_t + a'_1 R$$

and similarly for $b(Z)$, while

$$\beta' Z = \beta_0 + \zeta d_t + a'_1 (d_t \times R)$$

Constructing the Likelihood Function

- Thus, when we know the wage (i.e. for workers) the joint density of wages and the probability of the hours point is given by

$$L_i^{H \neq 0}(f) = \phi \left(\frac{\log W - \gamma'X - \beta(Z) - \gamma f}{\sigma} \right) \times \Pr(H = h|Q, W, f)$$

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- If the individual is not working, her wage is not known and has to be integrated out (i.e. take the average over all possible wages):

$$L_i^0(f) = \int_W \phi \left(\frac{\log W - \gamma'X - \beta(Z) - \gamma f}{\sigma} \right) \times \Pr(H = h | Q, W, f) dW$$

Constructing the Likelihood Function

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- The model likelihood becomes

$$L = \prod_{i \text{ is } nonwork} \sum_{k=1}^3 p_k L_i^0(f_k) \times \prod_{i \text{ is } work} \sum_{k=1}^3 p_k L_i^H(f_k)$$

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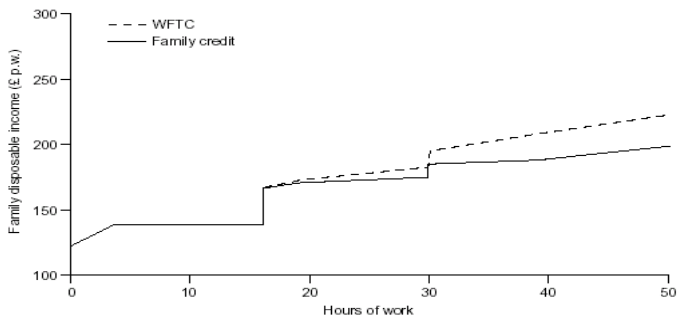
- This function is then maximised to obtain the unknown parameters in preferences, the wage equation and the distribution of unobserved heterogeneity.

Using the Model to Evaluate the Working Families Tax Credit.

- The reform tended to affect people in many different ways, some more than others.

FIGURE 3

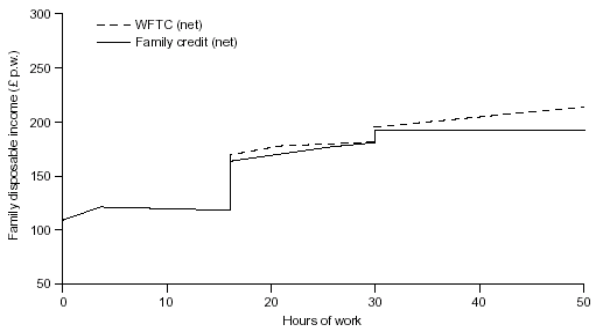
Budget Constraint for Example Lone Parent without Childcare Costs



Notes: One child aged under 11.
Hourly wage £4.39 (median for lone parents).
Rent £41.10 p.w. (median for social renters with children).
No childcare costs.

FIGURE 4

Budget Constraint for Example Lone Parent with Childcare Costs



Notes: One child aged under 11.
 Hourly wage £4.39 (median for lone parents).
 Rent £41.10 p.w. (median for social renters with children).
 Childcare at £1.96 per hour.

FIGURE 7

Budget Constraint for Example Woman in Couple with Childcare Costs

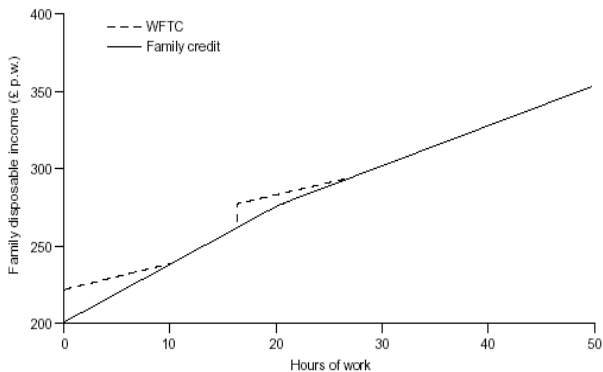


TABLE 5
Proportion of Gainers from WFTC

	<i>Per cent</i>					
	Hours of work (banded)					
	0	1-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	41+
<i>Lone parents</i>						
No pre-school children	.	.	62.1	74.0	52.2	51.1
One or more pre-school children	.	.	75.0	87.9	61.5	61.5
All women	.	.	65.2	78.2	53.8	53.4
<i>Married, partner working</i>						
No pre-school children	30.6	19.0	10.2	4.9	3.6	3.1
One or more pre-school children	35.9	12.7	11.7	5.3	4.4	4.1
All women	33.9	16.2	10.9	5.0	3.9	3.4
<i>Married, partner not working</i>						
No pre-school children	.	.	38.6	53.3	36.7	66.7
One or more pre-school children	.	.	73.1	80.0	45.0	33.3
All women	.	.	51.4	60.0	39.1	61.9

Note: Data are grouped according to observed hours of work for all household members and conditioned on observed childcare expenditure patterns.

Source: TAXBEN, based on Family Resources Survey, 1994-95 and 1995-96.

TABLE 7
Simulated Transitions among Single Parents
(100% take-up of WFTC)

Transitions				
<i>Pre-reform</i>	<i>Post-reform</i>			<i>Pre-reform %</i>
	Out of work	Part-time	Full-time	
Out of work	58.0	0.7	1.5	60.2
Part-time	0.0	18.6	0.5	19.1
Full-time	0.0	0.2	20.6	20.7
Post-reform %	58.0	19.4	22.6	100
Change (% points)	-2.2	0.3	1.9	

TABLE 8
**Simulated Transitions among Married Women with Employed Partners
 (100% take-up of WFTC)**

Transitions				
<i>Pre-reform</i>	<i>Post-reform</i>			<i>Pre-reform %</i>
	Out of work	Part-time	Full-time	
Out of work	32.2	0.1	0.1	32.4
Part-time	0.3	31.6	0.0	32.0
Full-time	0.4	0.1	35.0	35.6
Post-reform %	33.0	31.8	35.2	100
Change (% points)	0.6	-0.1	-0.4	

TABLE 9
**Simulated Transitions among Married Women with Unemployed Partners
 (100% take-up of WFTC)**

<i>Pre-reform</i>	<i>Post-reform</i>			<i>Pre-reform %</i>
	Out of work	Part-time	Full-time	
Out of work	56.8	0.4	0.9	58.1
Part-time	0.0	22.2	0.4	22.6
Full-time	0.0	0.1	19.2	19.3
Post-reform %	56.8	22.8	20.5	100
Change (% points)	-1.3	0.2	1.1	

