

Chapter 1: Introduction
(read on your own)

Chapter 1 Appendix: Regression Analysis
(read on your own)

Chapter 2: Labor Supply

1. Terms and concepts

P=Population

L=Labor force

= E + U (employed + unemployed)

L/P = labor force participation rate

U/L = unemployment rate

E/P = employment-population ratio

unemployed = not working, but looking *actively* for work

**"hidden" unemployed = not working, would like to work,
but not looking actively**

over time, LFPR's, hours of work have...

fallen for men, risen for women (for more, see Blau & Kahn reading)

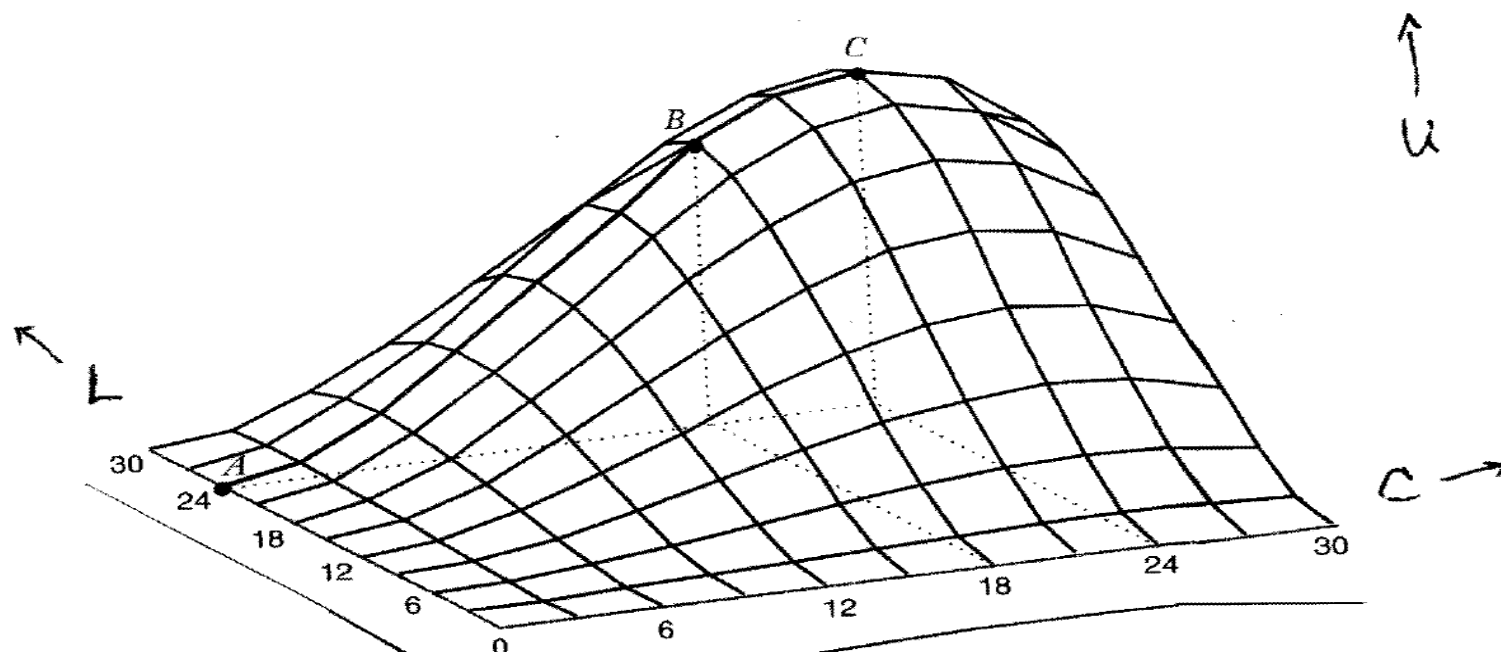
- ### 2. basic model of labor-leisure choice: optimization subject to constraints
- (maximize utility subject to budget constraint and time constraint)**
(note: basic model has many extensions)

3. Utility function: $U = f(C, L, \dots)$

C = consumption, L = leisure,

$\dots$ = many other things (to simplify, assume they're constant)

A. utility surface graphs the function



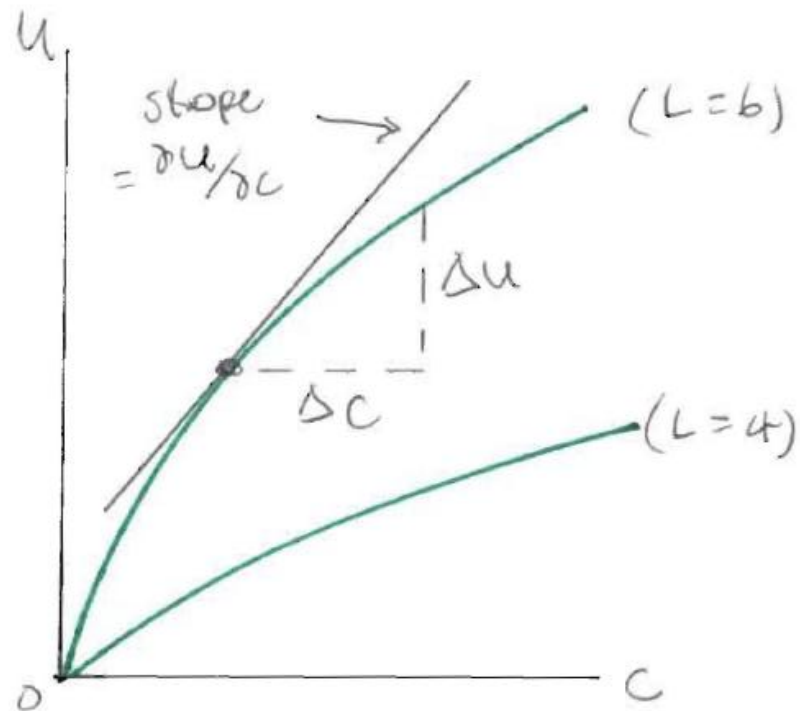
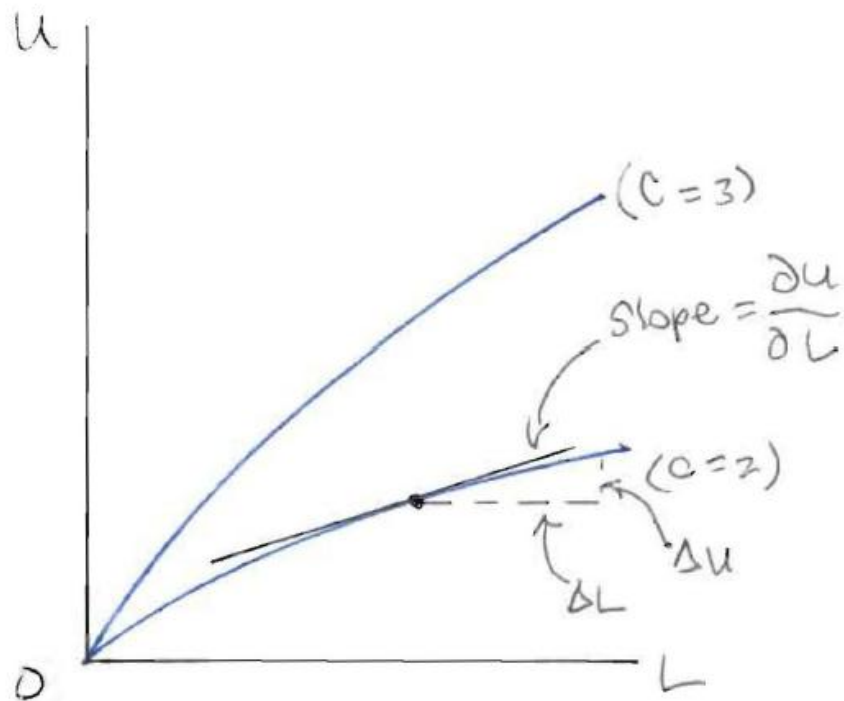
B. slice into the utility surface vertically to get total-utility curves:
U vs. C with L constant, U vs. L with C constant

Slope of total-utility curve

= marginal utility

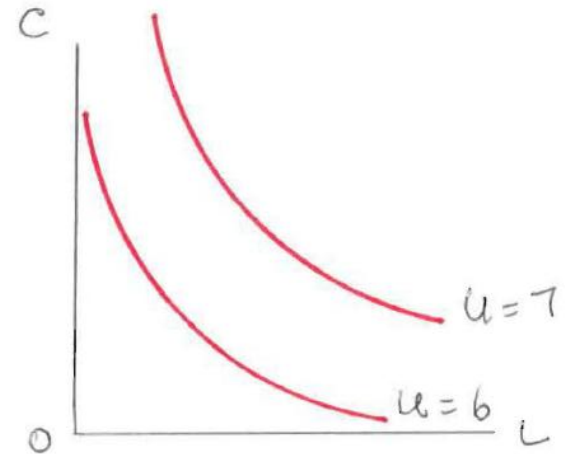
= $\partial U / \partial L$ in graph of U vs. L (see graph on the left)

= $\partial U / \partial C$ in graph of U vs. C (see graph on the right)



C. slice into the utility surface horizontally to get the indifference curve:
shows C vs. L with U constant

- indifference curves have negative slope
- higher indifference curves have higher U
- indifference curves don't intersect
- indifference curves are convex to origin



D. slope of indifference curve = marginal rate of substitution = $-MUL/MUC$

Now, $U = f(C, L)$,

$$\text{so } dU = (\partial U / \partial C)dC + (\partial U / \partial L)dL$$

since $dU = 0$ along an indifference curve, $(\partial U / \partial C)dC + (\partial U / \partial L)dL = 0$

so, solve for dC/dL to get $dC/dL = -(\partial U / \partial L) / (\partial U / \partial C)$

NB: convexity of indifference curves implies diminishing MRS

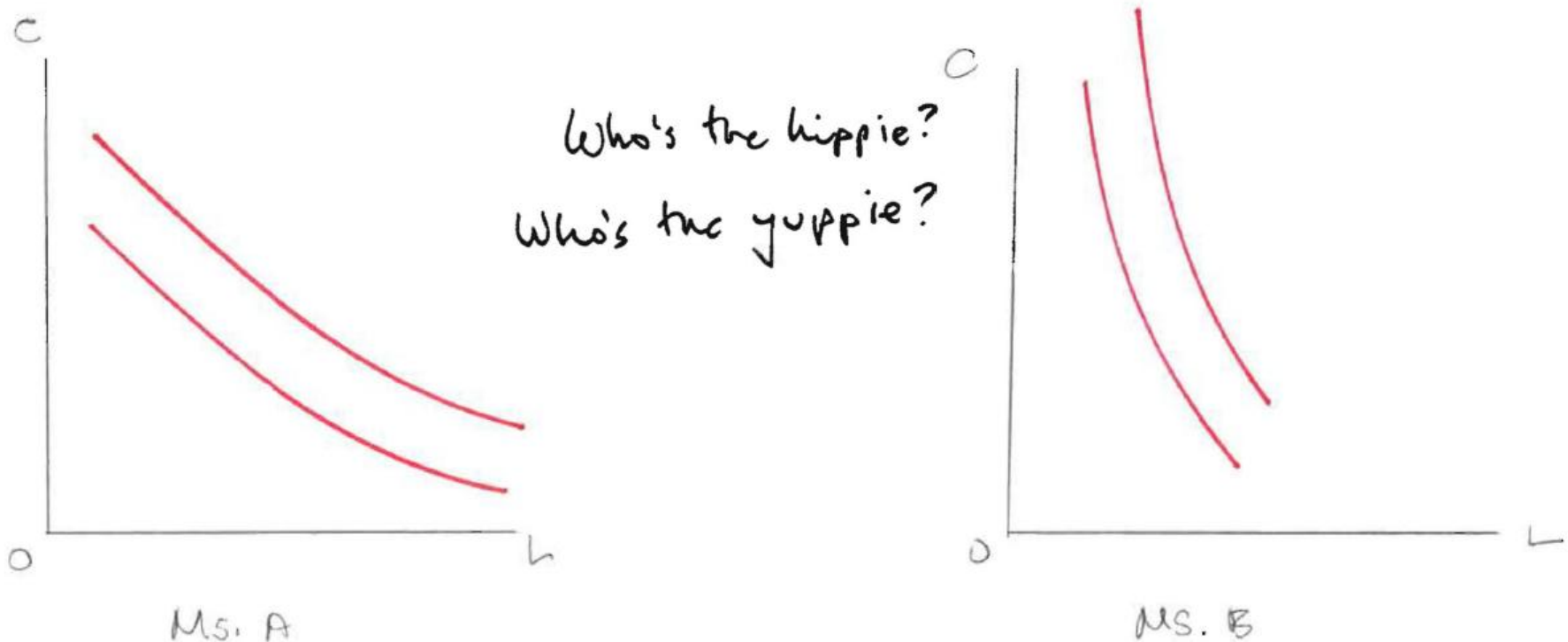
(i.e., MRS gets smaller in absolute value/flatter in slope as L rises,
C falls as we move along a given indifference curve)

NB: MRS measures "subjective value of L" relative to "subjective value of C"
= the "value of time to the individual" (relative to consumption)

e.g., high MRS (high indifference curve slope) means

you'd require *large* increase in C to be willing to give up a unit of L

- E. different workers have different tastes,
so their indifference curves have different shapes
so indifference curves for *different* persons can certainly cross



(indifference curves for the same person cannot cross –
that would imply inconsistent tastes)

4. Time and budget constraints

A. Time constraint: Total available time T per period is divided between work hours H and "leisure" (nonwork) hours L :

$$T = H + L \quad \text{so } H = (T - L)$$

B. Budget constraint: Total expenditure cannot exceed income
(NB: can expand the analysis to allow for borrowing and saving, but not yet)

P = cost of consumer goods per unit

W = wage rate per hour

V = nonwork income (dividends, etc.)

so budget constraint says that

$$PC \leq WH + V$$

or
$$PC \leq W(T - L) + V \quad \text{(substitute in the time constraint)}$$

C. rewrite budget constraint with C on left-hand side, L on right-hand side (like the indifference curve):

$$C \leq \frac{W}{P} (T - L) + \frac{V}{P} \quad \text{or} \quad C \leq w(T - L) + v$$

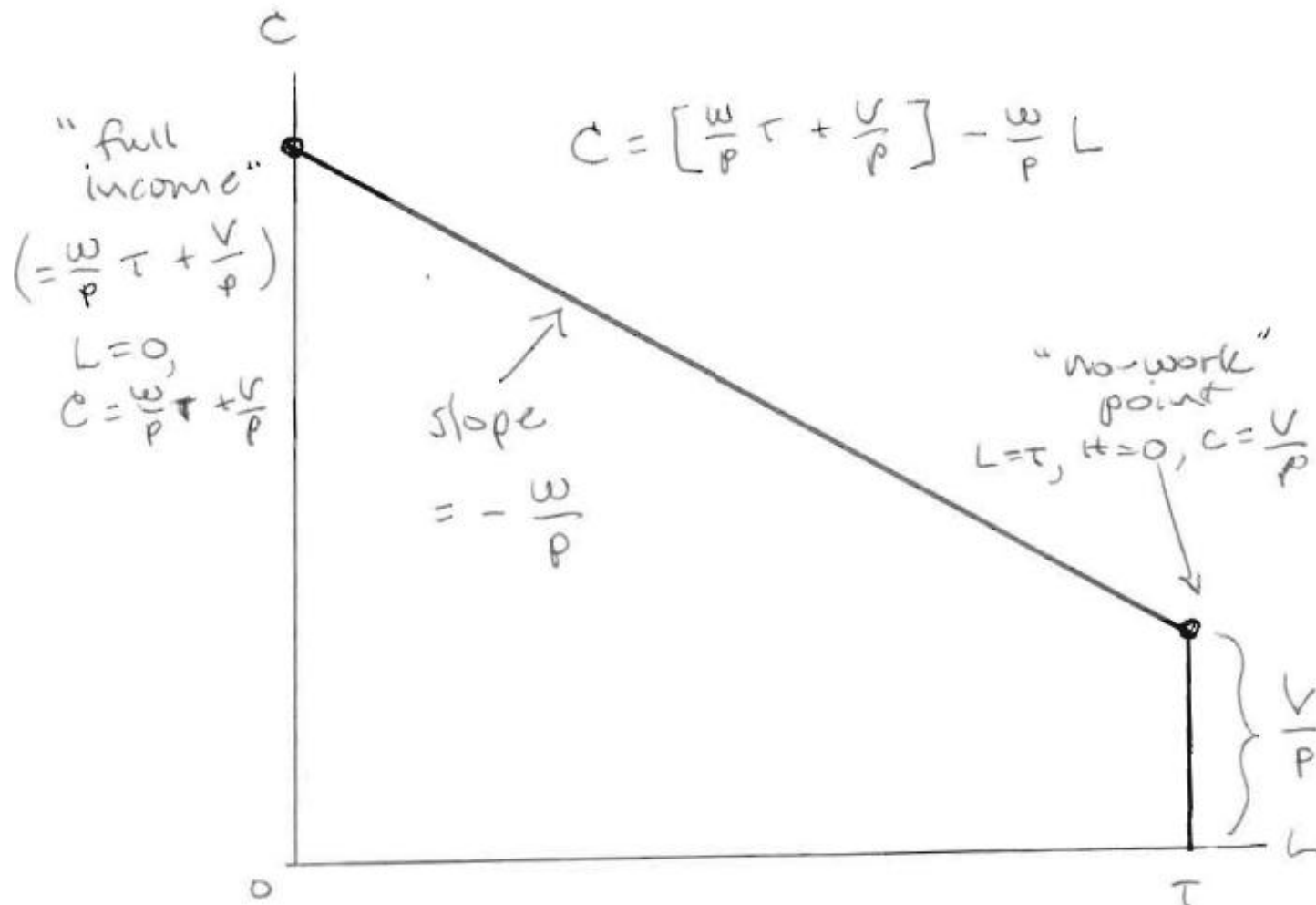
where $w = W/P$ = "real" wage, $v = V/P$ = "real" nonwork income
(thus, no "money illusion")

5. See graph of budget line:

when $L = 0$, $C = wT + v =$ "full income" (= max. possible consumption C)

when $L = T$, $C = v$ (= real nonwork income)

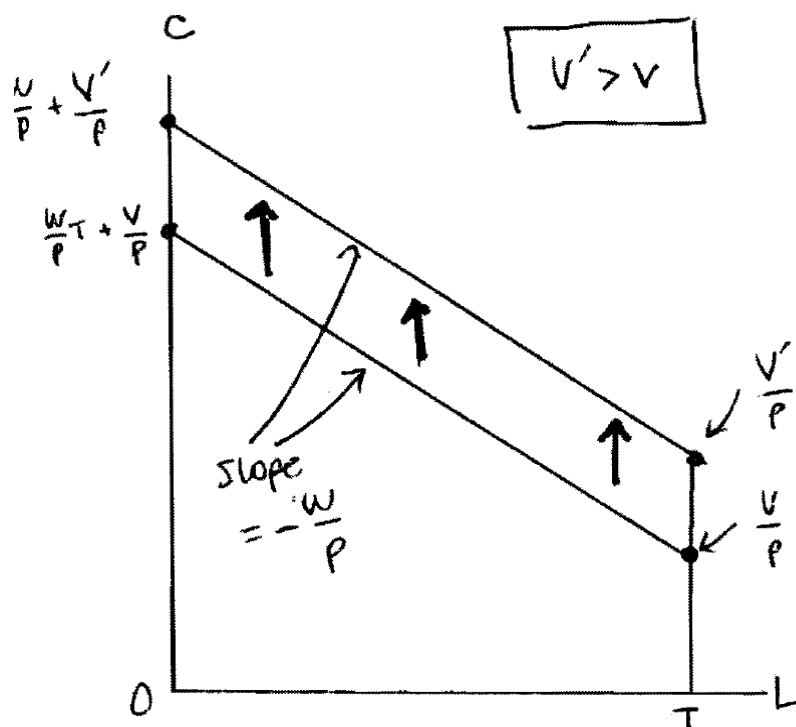
note that $wH = w(T-L) =$ real *earnings*, and $wH + v =$ real *income*



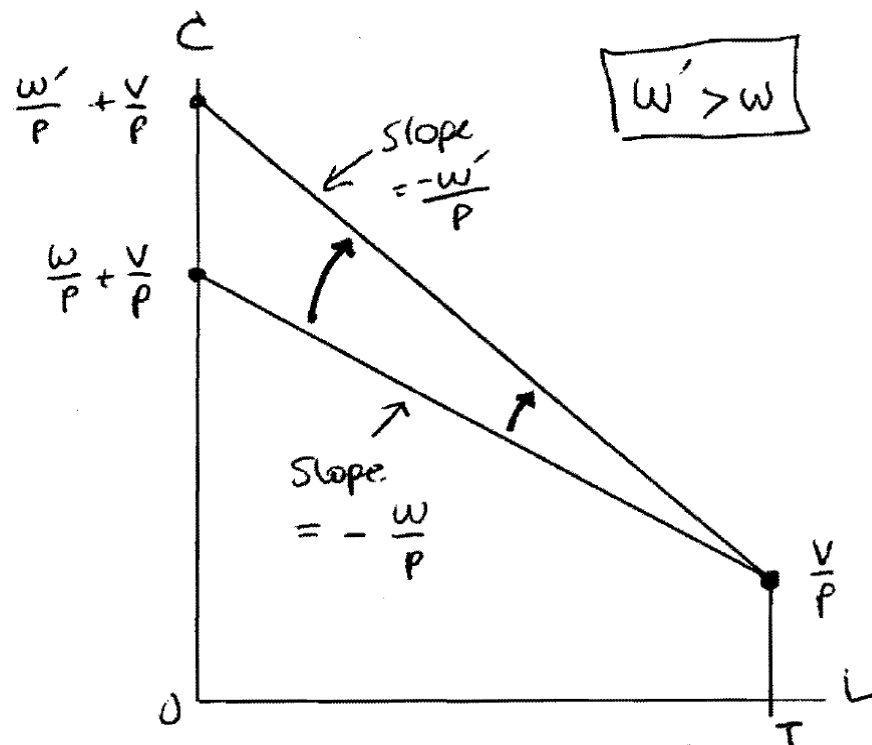
6. Budget line changes when w or v changes

when v changes, budget line shifts up but its slope stays the same

when w changes, budget line slope changes, but its location at $L = T$ stays the same



shift in budget line
due to rise in V



shift in budget line
due to rise in w

Note that, when $w = W/P$ rises, the shift in the budget line means that...

**(a) more $\{C, L\}$ combinations are available – individual is better off
* the “income effect”**

**(b) the budget line’s slope changes – price of L relative to C changes
* the “substitution effect”**

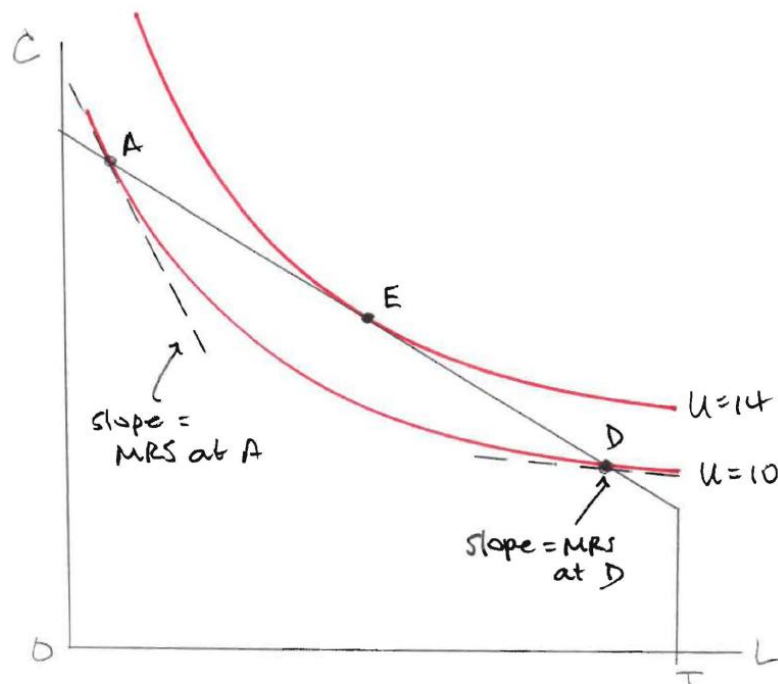
In contrast, when $v = V/P$ rises, the shift in the budget line means *only* that

**more $\{C, L\}$ combinations are available – individual is better off
* the “income effect”**

(but note that here, the budget line slope doesn’t change)

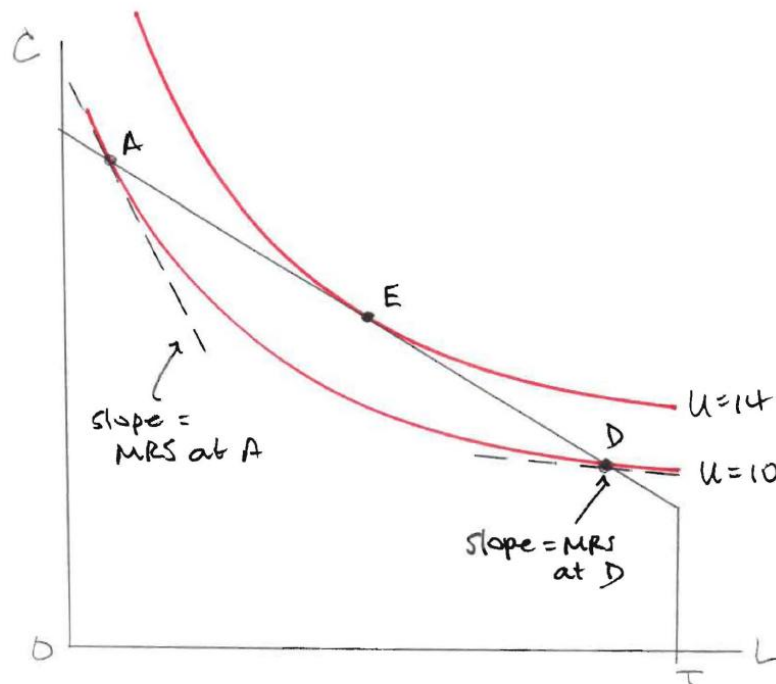
7. Equilibrium: the hours-of-work decision

- A. Constrained utility maximization involves getting on the highest indifference curve that is consistent with the budget line
- B. at an "interior optimum" (with $0 < L < T$),
we have $MRS = W/P$ or $MRS = w$ or $MUL/MUC = W/P$
or $MUL/W = MUC/P$ (e.g., point E)
(an "equal bang per buck" criterion)
(NOTE: later on, we consider "corner optimum," with $L = T$ and $H = 0$)



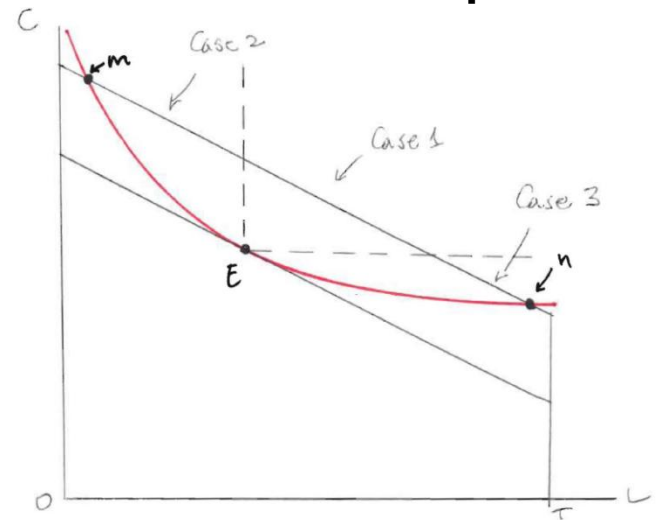
C. in contrast, consider point A
here, $MRS > W/P$, or $MUL/W > MUC/P$
so L has bigger “bang” per dollar of cost than does C
so at point A, we would want more L, less C
so we would move away from point A towards point E

likewise, at point D, $MUL/W < MUC/P$
so at point D, we would want less L, more C
so we would move from point D towards point E



8. Comparative statics: Effect of a rise in nonwork income, $V/P = v$

- A. rise in v shifts budget line up, but doesn't change budget line slope**
- B. in response to the rise in v , the individual will move somewhere between point m and point n (other points would involve less utility)**
- C. if L is a "normal" good, then L will rise
if L is an "inferior" good, then L will fall
if C is a "normal" good, then C will rise
if C is an "inferior" good, then C will fall**
- D. both C and L can't be inferior (why?)**
- E. so there are three possible outcomes:**
 - 1. C rises, L rises (both are normal) (this case seems the most plausible)**
 - 2. C rises, L falls (C normal, L inferior)**
 - 3. C falls, L rises (C inferior, L normal)**



9. Comparative statics: Effect of a rise in the wage, W (ceteris paribus)

A. rise in W changes *slope* of budget line –
moves budget line like a windshield wiper
(budget line stays “anchored” at the no-work point,
where W isn’t relevant)

B. the income effect of a rise in W

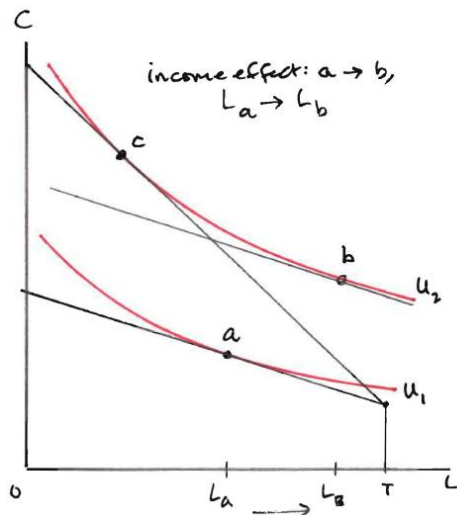
the rise in W makes the individual better off:

more $\{C, L\}$ points are now available

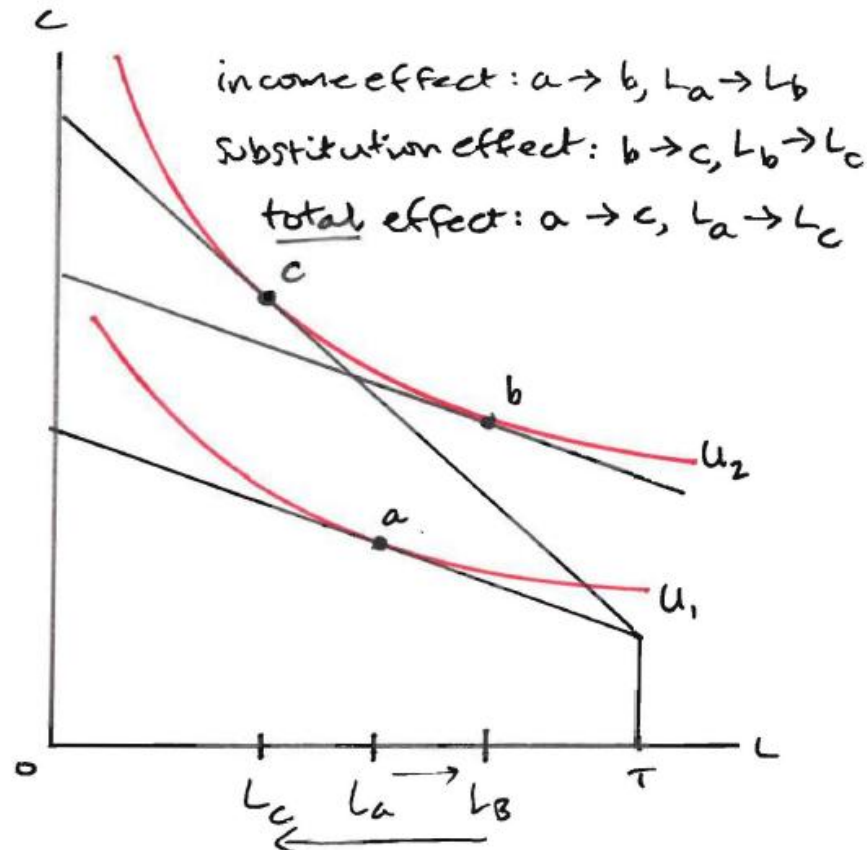
so utility rises, just as if V or $v = V/P$ had increased

C. to measure the “pure income effect” of a rise in W ,
raise V (or v) by just enough to increase U by the same amount
as will occur due to the wage increase – BUT,
keep the slope of the budget line constant

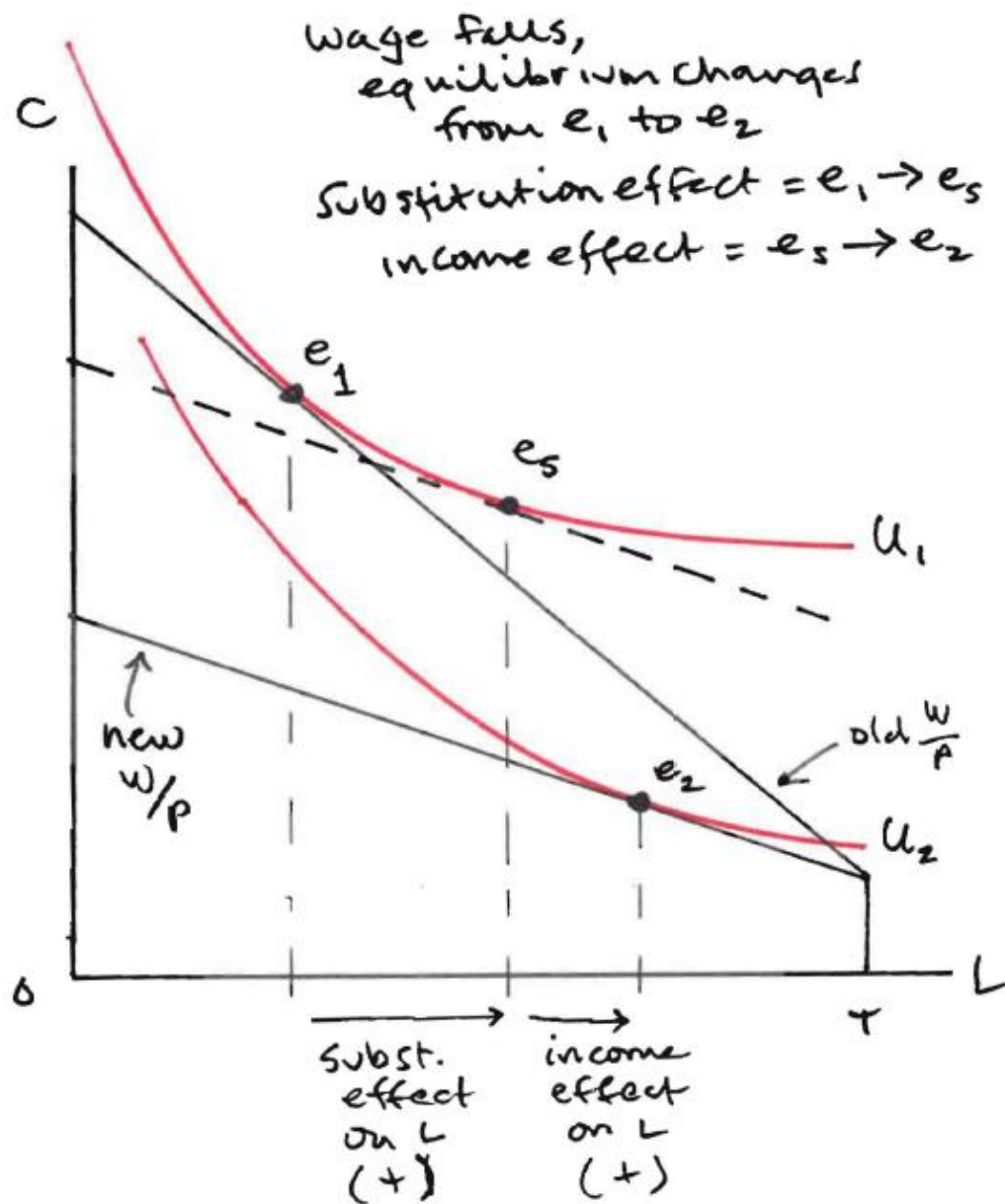
(note that the income effect on H and L of a higher W could be either
positive *or* negative – depends on whether L is normal or inferior)



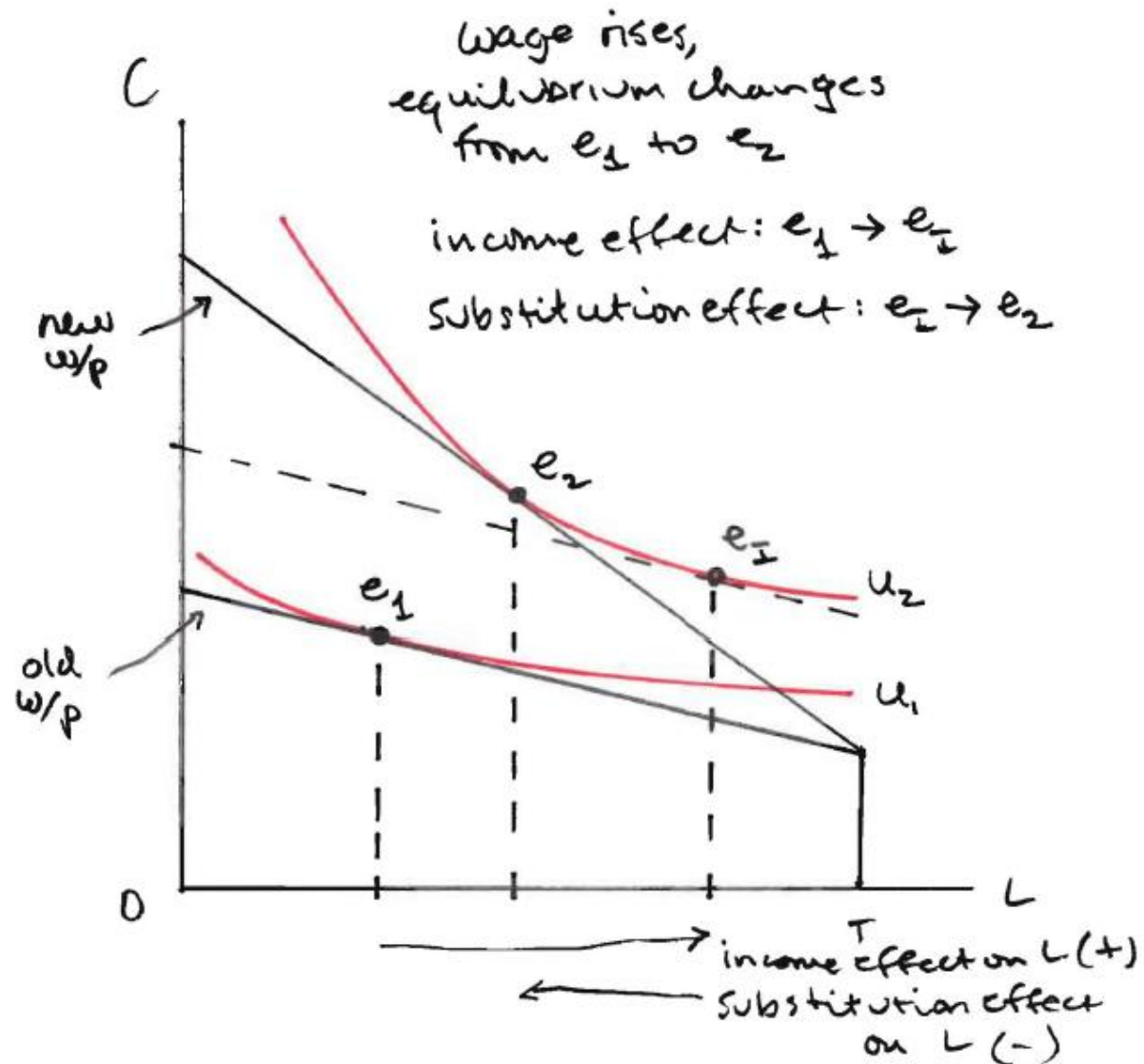
- D. the substitution effect of a rise in W
 the rise in W increases the slope of the budget line – makes it steeper, increasing the “price of leisure”
- E. to measure the “pure substitution effect” of the higher W ,
 increase W by as much as will occur due to the wage increase, BUT,
 keep utility constant
 (note that substitution effect of higher W must always raise C and H ,
 and must always reduce L)



Income and substitution effects: another example



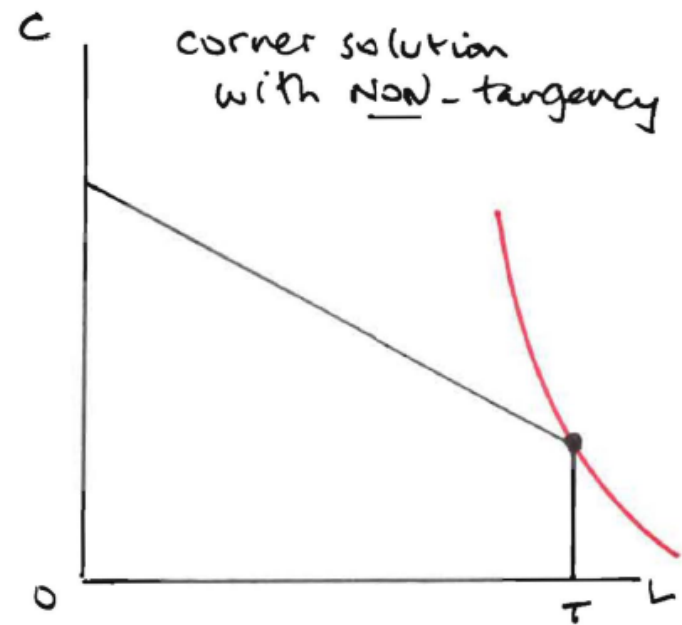
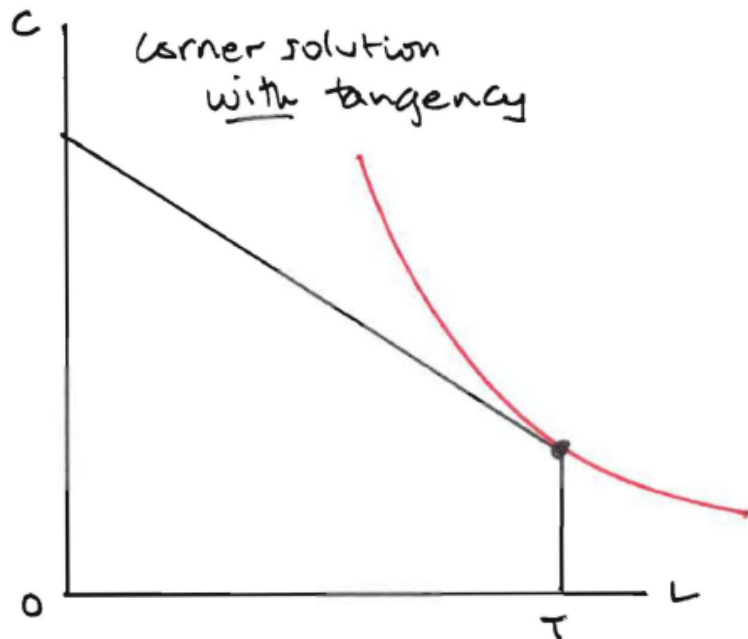
Income and substitution effects: one more example



- F. **Total effect of the rise in W is the *sum* of the income and substitution effects**
- G. **note that substitution effect involves a change in W with U constant, whereas income effect involves a change in U with W constant**
→ of course, a change in the wage changes *both* U and W !

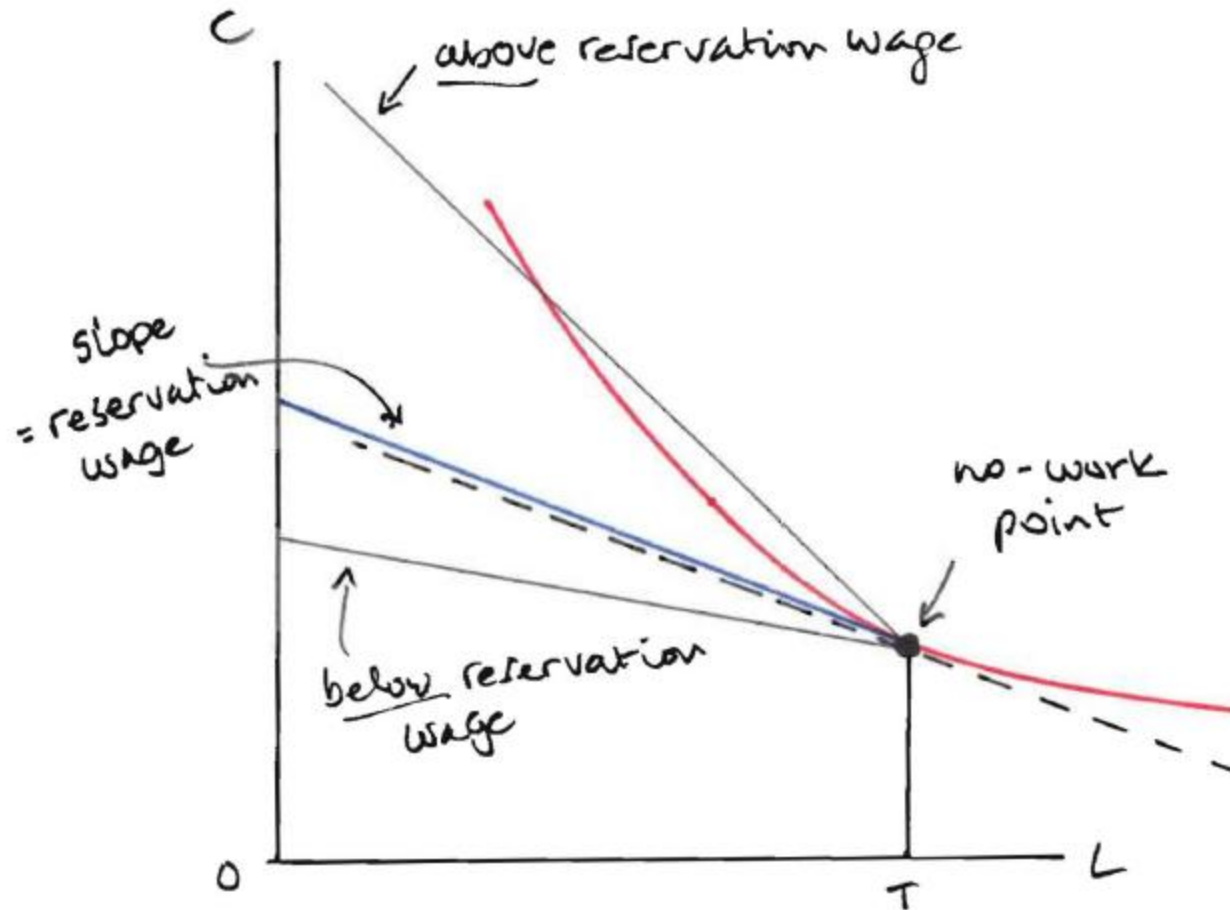
10. Corner solutions and the decision to work

- A. **“corner solution” is an equilibrium with $H = 0$, $L = T$ (fulltime “leisure,” zero hours of work)**
- B. **note that this does NOT necessarily involve a tangency – in a corner solution we locate at the “no-work point” with $MRS \geq W/P$, where $L = T$, $H = 0$, and $C = V/P$.**



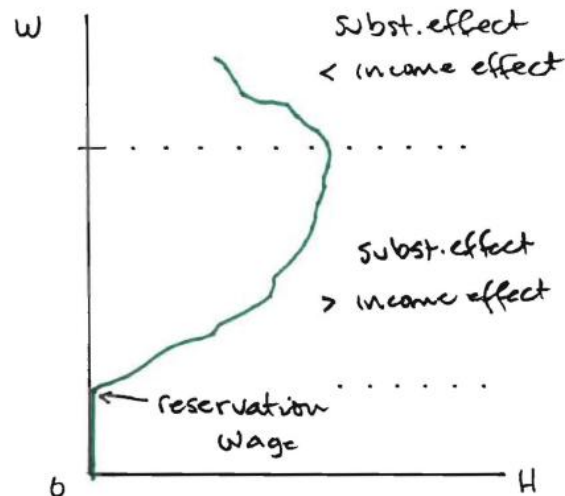
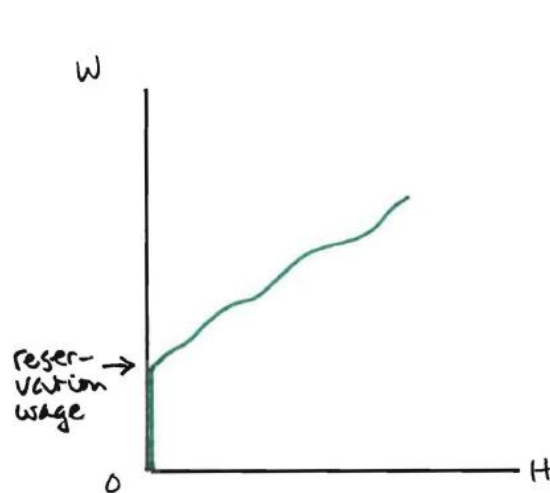
C. reservation wage: wage rate that makes the individual indifferent between not working and working ($H = 0$ vs. $H > 0$):

reservation wage is equal to the slope of the indifference curve (= MRS) at the “no-work” point



11. The labor supply curve

- A. Change w (or W), ceteris paribus, and see how H changes
- B. corner solution: for all values of W below the reservation wage, $H = 0$ and $L = T$ – the individual doesn't work
- C. interior solution: for all values of W above the reservation wage, $H > 0$ and $L < T$ – the individual does work
- D. so labor supply schedule will look as shown below left
(note that W is on the vertical axis, H is on the horizontal axis):



- E. Shape of labor supply curve *above* the reservation wage depends on income and substitution effects

e.g., “backward-bending” labor supply curve – see above right:
at lower values of W , substitution effect of higher $W >$ income effect, so H rises as W rises; then, at higher values of W , the income effect is stronger than substitution effect, so H falls as W rises

12. Empirical analysis of labor supply

A. run a regression for hours of work, e.g.,

$$H = a + bW + cV + \text{other variables} + e \quad (e = \text{error term/unobservables})$$

(the other variables – age, education, etc. – are interpreted as representing factors that shift the intercept, e.g., “taste shifters”)

B. if L is normal, $c < 0$

if income effect of wage increase $>$ substitution effect, $b < 0$

if income effect of wage increase $<$ substitution effect, $b > 0$

C. to measure the income effect of a higher W:

a rise in W (at constant H) raises income by $H \times dW$;

a rise in V (at constant W) changes labor supply by $dH = c \times dV$

so the income effect of a wage increase is given by

$$\frac{dH_I}{dW} = \frac{\text{change in H due to higher income}}{\times \text{change in income due to higher W}} = c \times H$$

D. so we get the substitution effect by *subtracting* the income effect (above) from the total effect:

$$\frac{dH_S}{dW} = \frac{dH}{dW} - \frac{dH_I}{dW} = b - cH \quad (\text{note that theory says this must be positive})$$

12. Empirical analysis of labor supply (continued)

E. many challenges in empirical analyses of labor supply: e.g.,

- * data on W not available for people who don't work
(thus, difficult to include non-workers in the analysis)**
- * labor supply schedule is “segmented” (not a straight line):
flat, with $H = 0$, for all wages below the reservation level
curved (?), with $H > 0$, for all wages above the reservation level**
- * the labor supply equation may be affected by omitted-variables bias
(i.e., e and W could be correlated for given values of V and the
other variables):**

$$H = a + bW + cV + \text{other variables} + e$$

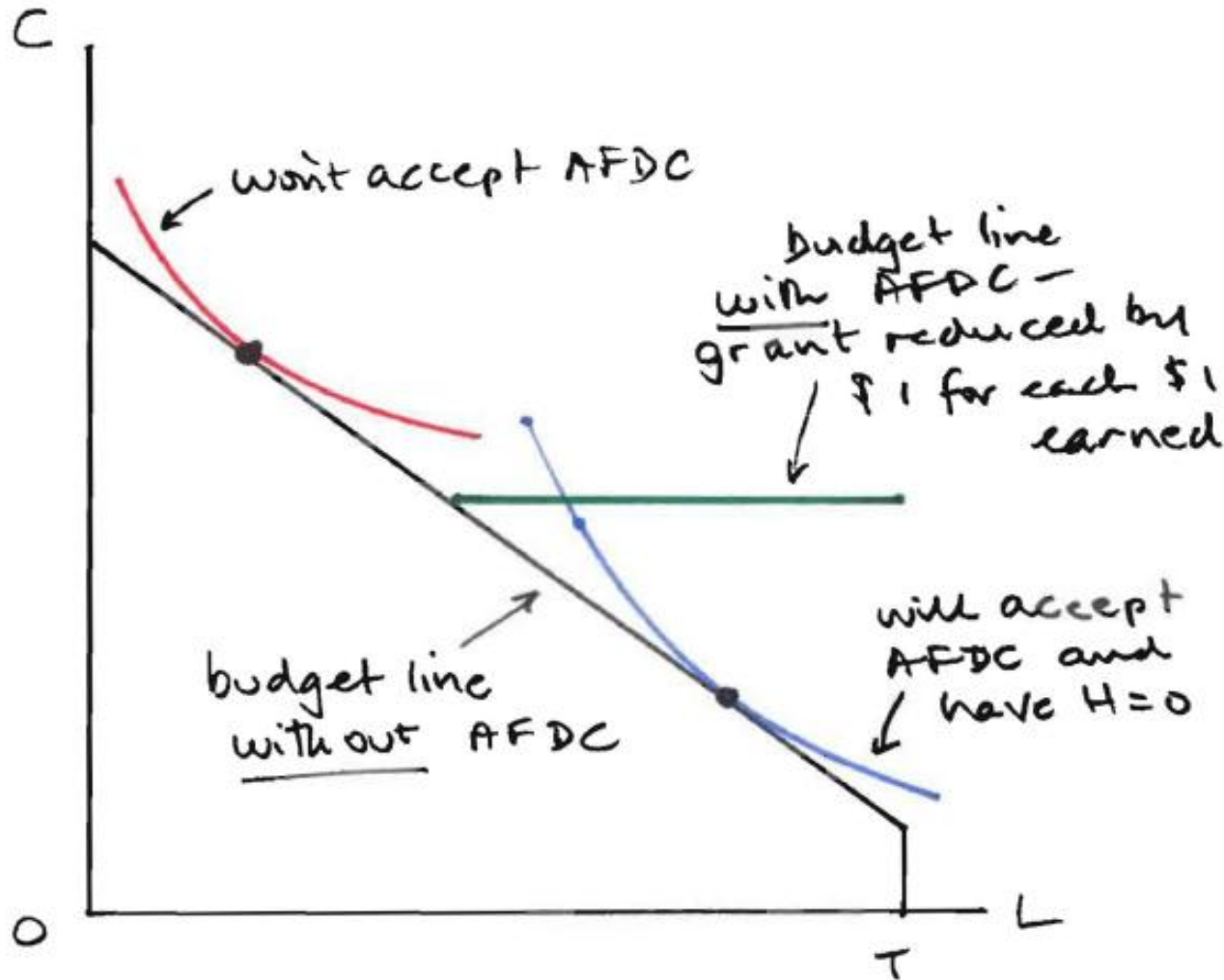
**F. Female labor supply seems to be lower, but more elastic, than
male labor supply**

**Female labor supply has risen sharply over time in most developed
economies (U.S., Europe, etc.)**

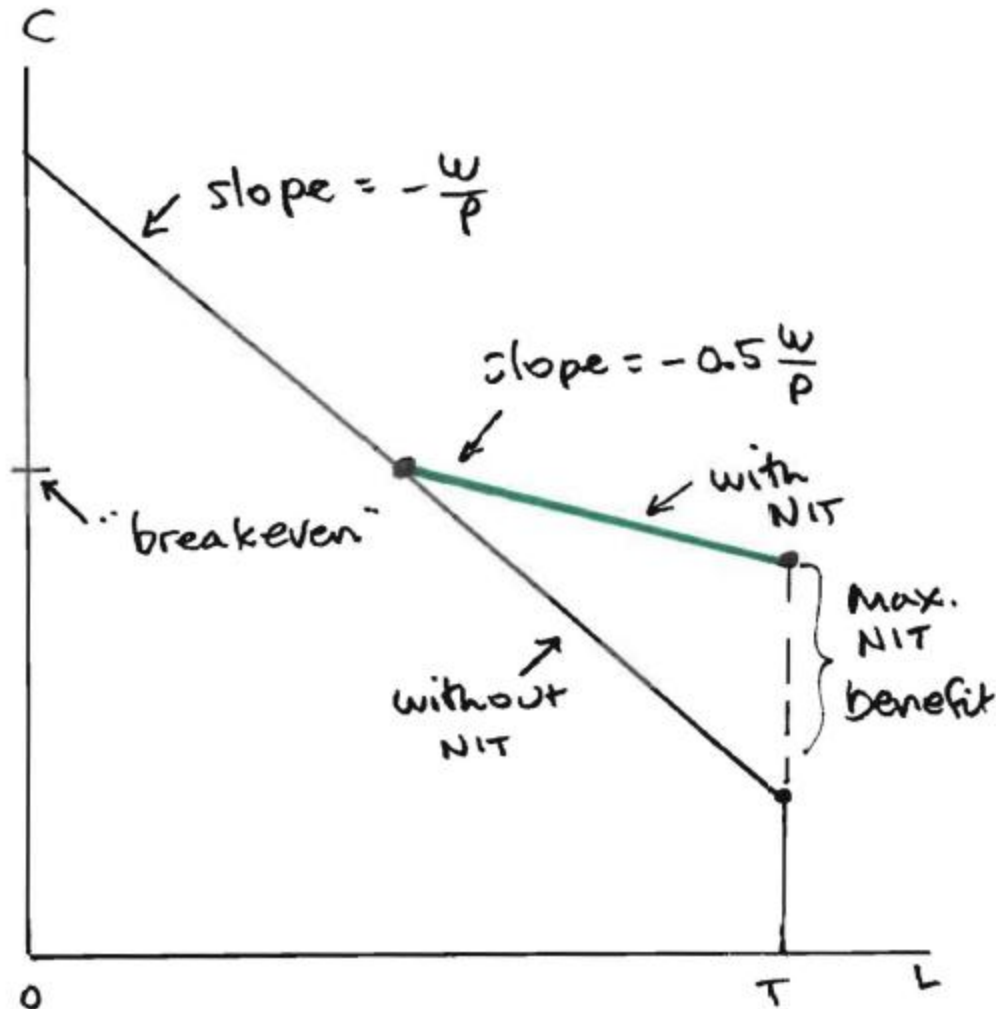
**Male labor supply remained basically the same over time
in most economies; at older ages, male labor supply has fallen**

13. Welfare programs and work incentives

- A. typical AFDC program: grant that is reduced, dollar for dollar, as income rises (equivalent to a 100% marginal “tax” rate!)

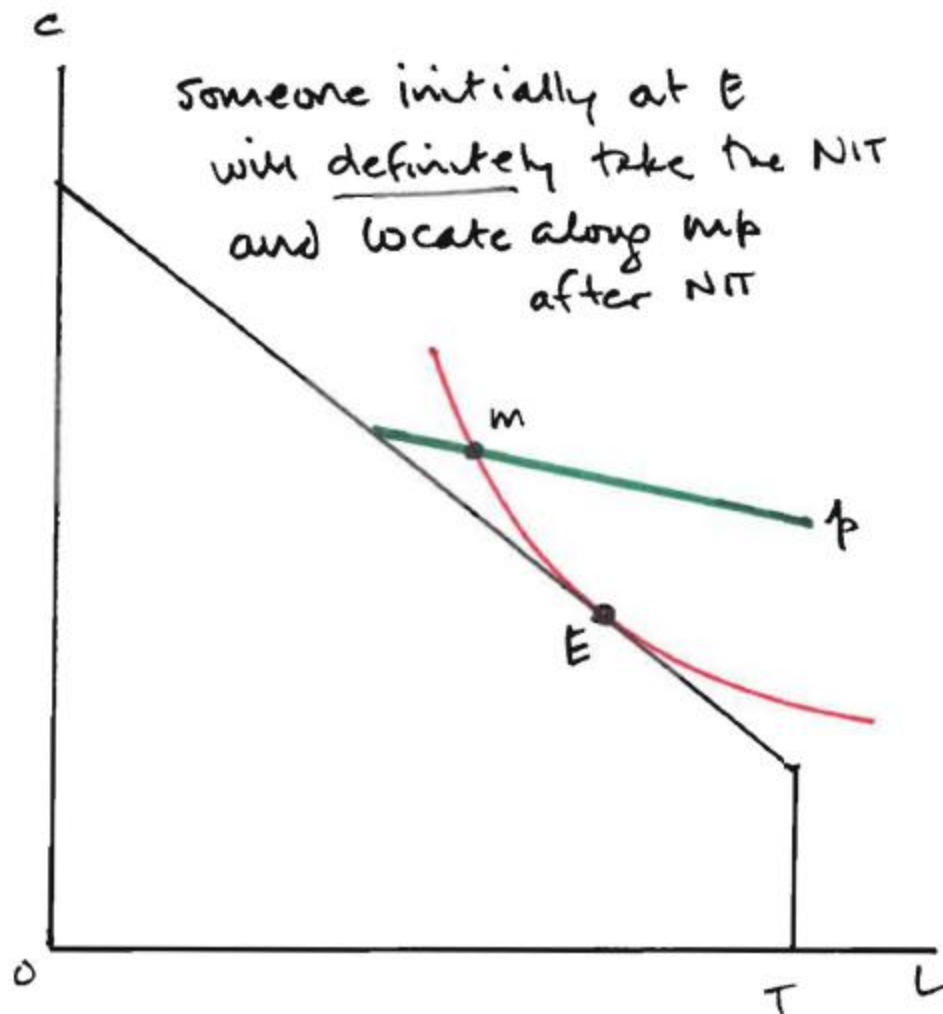


- B. Negative income tax (NIT): income “guarantee,” with 50% “tax rate”
(benefits cut by 50 cents for each dollar earned)
as earnings increase, subsidy gradually falls
subsidy equals zero at the “breakeven” level of real income



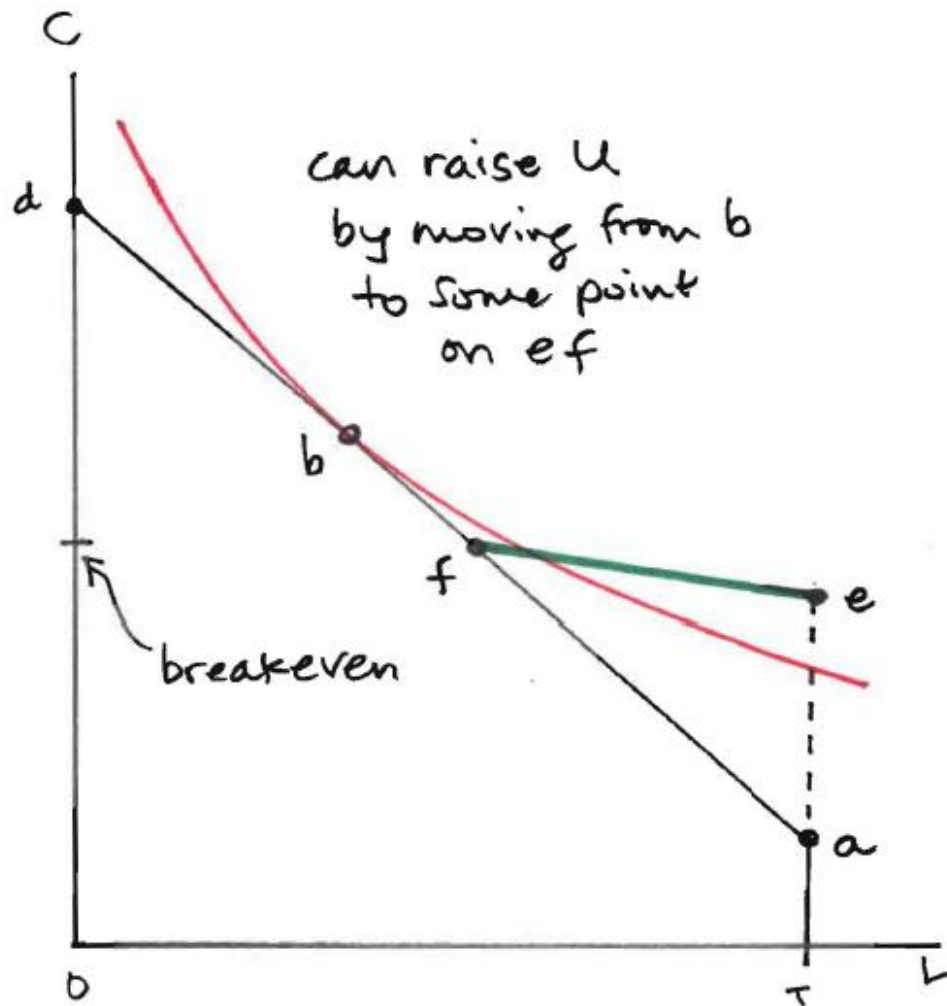
- C. such programs sharply reduce incentives to work –
e.g., AFDC and NIT both raise income and reduce the (net) wage

below, note the situation for someone getting NIT payments
who is initially *below* the breakeven level of income –
provided L is normal, this person must reduce H , raise L



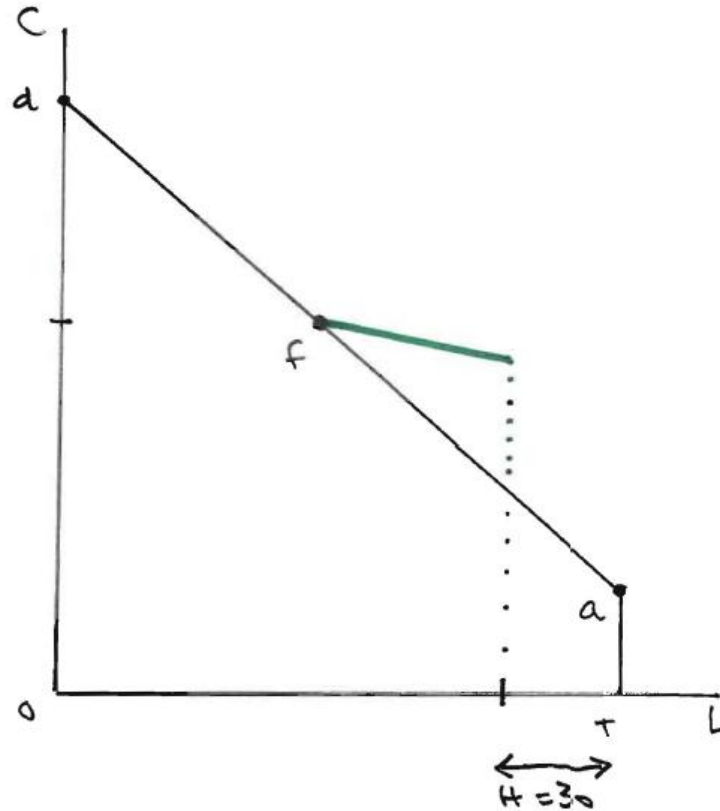
D. such programs also encourage “opting in” (or “dropping down”) for persons *not* initially on welfare

(e.g., persons above break-even with relatively flat indifference curves could go on NIT by sharply reducing H , yet still be better off



E. “MINIT” (negative income tax with minimum work hours requirement) provides a grant and requires minimum H (note that the budget line below *starts* at $H = 30/\text{week}$)

people working *less* than 30 hours/week have a strong incentive to work just a little *more*, in order to get the subsidy
however, people already working *more* than 30 hours/week have some incentive to work somewhat *less* (as with a NIT)

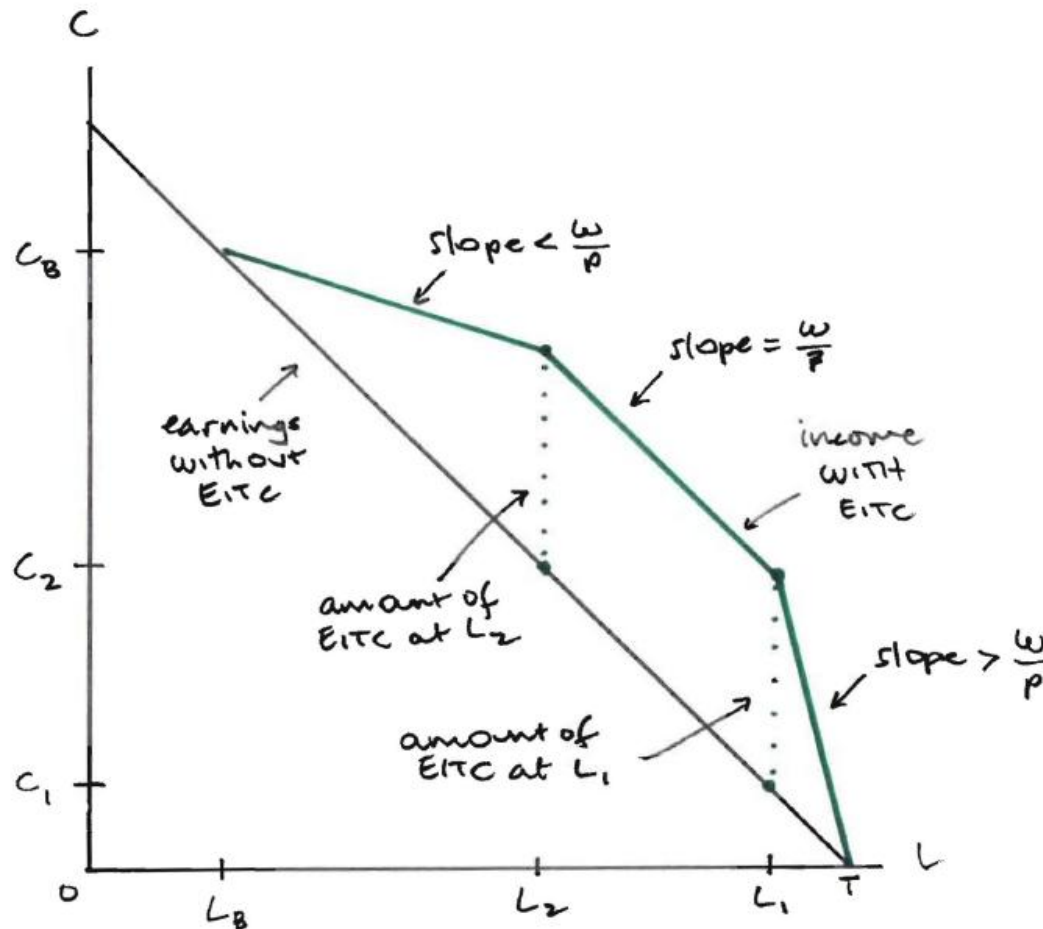


F. another program: EITC (see text, esp. Figs. 2.16-17)

raises the (net) wage for lowest earners – should raise labor force participation

“flat” zone at intermediate income levels where grant is constant – pure income effect tending to reduce hours of work

“tapering off” zone at higher income levels where grant gradually falls to zero – similar to NIT



G. Empirical evidence on the EITC: “difference-in-difference” regression

% in labor force =

$$a + b_1 \text{ AFTER} + b_2 \text{ TREATMENT} + b_3 [\text{AFTER} \times \text{TREATMENT}] + \dots + e$$

AFTER = 1 if date is after passage of EITC, = 0 otherwise

TREATMENT = 1 if eligible to receive EITC, = 0 otherwise

eligible (TREATMENT = 1):

$$\text{new \% in LF} = a + b_1 + b_2 + b_3 \quad (\text{TREATMENT} = 1, \text{AFTER} = 1)$$

$$\text{old \% in LF} = a + b_2 \quad (\text{TREATMENT} = 1, \text{AFTER} = 0)$$

$$\text{difference, new} - \text{old \%} = b_1 + b_3$$

not eligible (“controls,” TREATMENT = 0):

$$\text{new \% in LF} = a + b_1 \quad (\text{AFTER} = 1)$$

$$\text{old \% in LF} = a \quad (\text{AFTER} = 0)$$

$$\text{difference, new} - \text{old \%} = b_1$$

“difference-in-difference” = difference for TREATMENT - CONTROLS

$$= (b_1 + b_3) - b_1 = b_3$$

So the effect of the “treatment” is given by the coefficient b_3 ,
i.e., by the coefficient on the AFTER $\times$ TREATMENT interaction term

A few caveats:

- What if the effect of time (b_1) isn't the same for treated and the controls?
- Spillovers: what if the "experiment" affected the controls as well as the treated group

effects of EITC:

"difference in difference" estimate of effect of EITC

found that EITC raised labor force participation of eligible women by 2.4%, *relative to ineligible women* (see Table 2.5)

group	% participating in the labor market		difference	difference-in- differences
	before EITC	after EITC		
"Treatment" (eligible) (unmarried women w/ children)	72.9	75.3	2.4	2.4
"Controls" (ineligible) (unmarried women w/o children)	95.2	95.2	0.0	