Intergenerational transmission of skills during childhood and optimal public policy

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Abstract We characterize the optimal tax policy and quality of day care services in an OLG model in which child care arrangements chosen by parents of different skill types affect the probability that children become high-skilled adults in a type-specific way. With respect to previous contributions, optimal tax formulas incorporate type-specific Pigouvian terms which correct for the intergenerational externality in human capital accumulation. The optimal quality of day care services is determined by equating the total private marginal benefits of a quality increase to its marginal cost,

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adjusted for the presence of three additional terms capturing respectively the budgetary impact of a change in demand for day care services, the intergenerational externality in human capital accumulation, and the self-selection constraint.

Keywords Optimal taxation · Day care quality · Intergenerational transmission of skills · Early childhood environment · Warm glow

JEL Classifications H21 · J22 · J24

1 Introduction

The paper aims at characterizing the optimal tax policy and quality of day care services in an overlapping generations (OLG) model in which child care arrangements chosen by parents of different skill type affect the probability that children become high-skilled adults in a type-specific way. By child care arrangements we mean parental time and time spent in day care centers.

The role of child care for human capital acquisition has been widely studied in the psychology and sociology literature. Economists have more recently recognized the importance of child care on skills' acquisition. This is documented by two recent strands of the literature. The first one describes the individual's skill formation as a dynamic process, characterized by strong complementarities between early and late investments in human capital (Cunha et al. 2005; Cunha and Heckman 2007). The second one looks at the importance of parental time, and especially maternal time, vs. other types of child care in producing children abilities. Whereas the earlier contributions—as surveyed, for instance, by Ruhm (2004)—reached mixed conclusions, more recent research (see, for instance, Bernal 2008; Bernal and Keane 2011, 2010) highlights that, on average, the substitution of maternal time with other child care sources produces negative and rather sizable effects on children's skills. However, this literature also shows that the sign of the impact depends on the type of child care that substitutes maternal time and on the level of maternal education. For instance, formal care (i.e., center-based care and preschool) may have positive effects on children of poorly educated mothers.[1] This is also documented by Heckman and Masterov (2007), who review the evidence supporting the idea that high-quality preschool centers available to disadvantaged children are highly effective in promoting achievement.

Though the existing empirical literature supports the appropriateness of explicitly including child care in the skill formation process and it also indicates that the impact of parental time and day care services on the accumulation of human capital may be type-specific, the theoretical literature focusing on the design of public policies

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[1]Havnes and Mogstad (2010) show that the focus on mean impact of day care services on child development can also mask important differences along the earnings distribution. The effects are positive and sizable below the median of the earnings distribution.

generally ignores these features. For instance, previous contributions in the optimal tax literature (see, e.g., Balestrino 2000 and Blomquist et al. 2010) have typically treated day care services as merely one prominent example of goods/services that are complements to labor and that, as such, should be subsidized in order to either mitigate the distortion on labor supply determined by income taxation or to soften self-selection constraints in models of nonlinear income taxation. This way of looking at day care services is, however, in our opinion, limited.[2]

The inclusion of child care in the skill formation process and the type-specific impact of child care arrangements on human capital accumulation will be the key aspects of our setup. In our model, parents derive utility from their own consumption, from leisure time with and without children, and from the children's human capital. The direct dependency of the parents' utility on the children's human capital represents a warm-glow component. We assume that agents are heterogeneous in human capital, whose distribution across individuals is endogenous, that is, it depends on parental choices over child care and on the parents' skill type.[3]

The government is empowered with a nonlinear tax on labor income and a linear tax/subsidy on day care expenditures; in addition, it can enforce a level of day care quality which is optimally selected. We theoretically characterize the social welfare-maximizing policy and also perform a numerical analysis to shed light on the quantitative relevance of the inclusion of child care in the human capital production function, both in terms of the optimal values of the policy variables and in terms of the welfare losses caused by setting a policy neglecting its effect on child care arrangements and on the skill formation process.

The way parental altruism is specified is a crucial modeling issue in our model. There are several possible motivations behind child care decisions, including pure altruism (parents care about the utility of their children) and impure (warm-glow) altruism (parents derive joy from the level of human capital that child care arrangements deliver to their children). To the best of our knowledge, no direct empirical test exists on the type of altruism involved in the parental decision to devote time to children. However, the evidence on intrafamily income transfers, though not conclusive, rejects the predictions of pure altruism but tends to be consistent with warm-glow altruism (see Schokkaert 2006 for an exhaustive survey). Accordingly, we rely on the warm-glow assumption, which is shared by many papers on intergenerational

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[2]A model in which child care enters the human capital production function is analyzed by Casarico and Sommacal (2012) who study the impact on growth of changes in labor income taxation. However, their analysis is not concerned with the design of optimal public policies, which is instead the focus of the current paper.

[3]Heterogeneity in the ability to raise children is also considered by Balestrino et al. (2002, 2003). In these papers, however, the authors only allow for two possible uses of time, market labor supply and parental care, do not explicitly focus on external day care, and work within a static framework. On the other hand, they consider the possibility of endogenous fertility, which we neglect in our paper, and use weaker assumptions regarding the correlation between market ability and ability to raise children.

transmission of human capital and wealth (e.g., Glomm and Ravikumar 1992; Glomm and Kaganovich 2008), and it can also be found in the optimal taxation literature (e.g., Cremer and Pestieau 2006, Kopczuk 2013).

Another important assumption in our model is that the quality of day care services is uniform and can be set optimally by the government. Of course, this assumption better captures a situation in which day care is mainly publicly provided. This is not to disregard the role of private provision of day care services and the possibility for parents to select the provider that better matches their preferences. It is rather a first attempt to formally analyze the influence of day care quality on human capital accumulation, and it indirectly captures the setting of (minimum) quality standards by the government, which is pervasive even in countries in which private provision is dominant.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the basic ingredients of the model and provides a description of the behavior of agents, the productive technology, and the evolution over time of the skill distribution in the population. Section 3 characterizes the optimal public policy. Section 4 provides a numerical analysis. Section 5 offers concluding remarks.

2 The model

2.1 The consumers

We consider a two-period OLG model with intragenerational heterogeneity: agents differ in their skill level H^j, which can only take two values, i.e., $j = 1, 2$, with $H^2 > H^1$. In the first period, agents (children) do not take any active choice; depending on child care arrangements and on the skill type of their parents, they have a certain probability to become highly or lowly skilled. In the second period, each agent learns his own skill type, has a child, and decides how to allocate time between labor, leisure time with children (i.e., parental time devoted to children), and leisure time without children. Denoting time indices by a subscript, a parent of skill type j (hereafter labeled simply as parent of type j), maximizes the following expected utility function:

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\begin{aligned}
E\left(U_t^j\right) &= \pi^j\left(n_t^j\right)\left[u\left(c_t^j, z_t^j, n_t^j\right) + \eta(H^2)\right] + \left(1 - \pi^j\left(n_t^j\right)\right)\left[u\left(c_t^j, z_t^j, n_t^j\right) + \eta(H^1)\right] \\
&= u\left(c_t^j, z_t^j, n_t^j\right) + \pi^j\left(n_t^j\right)\eta(H^2) + \left(1 - \pi^j\left(n_t^j\right)\right)\eta(H^1),
\end{aligned}
\tag{1}
$$

with $u''(\cdot) < 0 < u'(\cdot)$. We denote by c_t^j, z_t^j and n_t^j respectively consumption, leisure time without children, and leisure time with children by a j-type agent. The underlying assumption is that leisure time with and without children are imperfect substitutes. The term $\eta(H^j)$ reflects the warm-glow altruism of parents towards the level of human capital of their children H^j, $j = 1, 2$, and $\eta'(\cdot) > 0$. The term $\pi^j(n_t^j)$ is the probability of having a high-skilled child, and it stands for $\pi\left(n_t^j, H^j, e_t\right)$: the

probability of being a high human capital agent is a function of the time n_t^j parents dedicate to children, the parents' type j, and the quality of day care services e_t, which individuals take as given and which we treat as a choice variable for the government. High (resp. low)-skilled parents are assumed to have, other things being equal, a higher (resp. lower) probability to raise a child who will become a high-skilled adult. The implicit underlying assumption is that there is perfect correlation between human capital and ability to raise children (where ability to raise children is meant to capture ability to turn them into high-skilled adults). [4]

The time constraints subject to which agents maximize their objective function are the following:

$$1 = l_t^j + n_t^j + z_t^j, \tag{2}$$

$$\overline{a} = n_t^j + d_t^j, \tag{3}$$

with l_t^j indicating the labor supply, d_t^j indicating the time spent in day care centers, and $\overline{a} \leq 1$ indicating the care time required by each child. Hereafter we assume for the sake of exposition that $\overline{a} = 1$. We posit that parents buy nonparental time and bear a resource cost per hour equal to $p(e_t)$, which is increasing in the quality level e_t enforced by the government, i.e., $p'(e_t) > 0$.

2.2 Output and evolution of skills' distribution

Output Q_t is produced according to the following linear technology:

$$Q_t = f_t^1 l_t^1 H^1 + f_t^2 l_t^2 H^2, \tag{4}$$

where f^j is the fraction of people of type j. Total population is normalized to 1, and the population growth rate is equal to 0. Output can be used for consumption or for purchases of day care services.

The dynamics of the fraction of high-skilled agents is described by

$$f_{t+1}^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{2} \pi^j \left(n_t^j \right) \cdot f_t^j. \tag{5}$$

The fraction of lowly skilled is then residually determined as $f_{t+1}^1 = 1 - f_{t+1}^2$.

3 Optimal public policy under a mixed tax system

In this section, we characterize the optimal public policy chosen by a benevolent government. The public policy consists of the design of an optimal tax system and of the enforcement of an optimally chosen quality level of day care services.

In the tradition of the optimal income tax literature à la Mirrlees (1971), we assume that an individual's type and labor supply are not publicly observable, but that labor

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[4]In a background version of the paper (Casarico et al. 2011), we relax the assumption of perfect correlation between the two types of skills and consider a four-type model.

income $Y_t^j = wH^j l_t^j$ is, where w denotes the wage in efficiency units, which is constant following the linear technology in Eq. (4). The nonobservability assumption rules out the possibility for the government to levy type-specific lump-sum taxes, but allows labor income to be taxed via a general (nonlinear) tax schedule $T\left(Y_t^j\right)$. We also assume that the government can subject the purchases of goods/services to a set of differentiated linear taxes. Thus, we focus on what is known in the literature as a "mixed" tax system. Choosing the consumption good c as the untaxed numeraire, the choice of the indirect tax structure boils down to the choice of the optimal tax/subsidy rate on day care services, which will be denoted by τ_t. Thus, the consumer price of one unit of day care services at time t is given by $p(e_t) + \tau_t$.

The government chooses the optimal fiscal policy maximizing the following objective function:

$$W = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \rho^t \sum_{j=1}^{2} f_t^j \cdot G\left(u\left(c_t^j, z_t^j, n_t^j\right) + \left(\pi^j\left(n_t^j\right)\eta(H^2) + \left(1 - \pi^j\left(n_t^j\right)\right)\eta(H^1)\right)\right),$$

(6)

where ρ is the government's discount factor, and $G(\cdot)$ is a concave function which controls the degree of social aversion to inequality.

Defining by $B_t^j \equiv Y_t^j - T_t\left(Y_t^j\right)$ the net income of agent j, the government's problem can be equivalently stated as the problem of offering at each time t two different bundles in the (Y, B)-space, one for the highly skilled and one for the lowly skilled, subject to a public budget constraint and a set of self-selection constraints. These constraints require that each agent must prefer the point on the income tax schedule intended for his type, rather than to misrepresent his true ability type and choose a point intended for another type. An agent misrepresenting his ability type is called a mimicker. Following the bulk of the literature, we focus on the so-called "normal" case in which the only binding self-selection constraint is the one ruling out the possibility that high-skilled agents mimic low-skilled ones.

Denoting by V_t^j the maximum utility that can be attained by a type j agent who chooses the (Y, B)-bundle intended for him by the government, and by $\widehat{V}_t^2$ the maximum utility that can be attained by a highly able mimicker, we have (remembering that, from (3), $d_t^j = 1 - n_t^j$) the following:

$$V_t^j = V\left(Y_t^j, B_t^j; wH^j\right) = \max_{n_t^j} u\left(B_t^j - (p(e_t) + \tau_t)\left(1 - n_t^j\right), 1 - \frac{Y_t^j}{wH^j} - n_t^j, n_t^j\right)$$
$$+ \pi^j\left(n_t^j\right)\eta(H^2) + \left(1 - \pi^j\left(n_t^j\right)\right)\eta(H^1);$$

$$\widehat{V}_t^2 = V\left(Y_t^1, B_t^1; wH^2\right) = \max_{\widehat{n}_t^2} u\left(B_t^1 - (p(e_t) + \tau_t)\left(1 - \widehat{n}_t^2\right), 1 - \frac{Y_t^1}{wH^2} - \widehat{n}_t^2, \widehat{n}_t^2\right)$$
$$+ \pi^2\left(\widehat{n}_t^2\right)\eta(H^2) + \left(1 - \pi^2\left(\widehat{n}_t^2\right)\right)\eta(H^1).$$

The government's problem can then be summarized by the following Lagrangian:

$$\pounds = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \rho^t \sum_{j=1}^{2} f_t^j G\left(V_t^j\right) + \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \rho^t \lambda_t \left(V_t^2 - \widehat{V}_t^2\right)$$

$$+ \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \rho^t \mu_t \sum_{j=1}^{2} f_t^j \left(Y_t^j - B_t^j + \tau_t d_t^j\right) - \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \rho^t \upsilon_t \left[f_{t+1}^2 - \sum_{j=1}^{2} f_t^j \pi^j\left(n_t^j\right) \right],$$

(7)

where λ_t, μ_t, and υ_t are a set of positive Lagrange multipliers associated respectively with the self-selection constraint, the government's budget constraint, and the evolution of the skills' distribution.[5]

Below, we begin by characterizing the optimal tax structure and then move to the analysis of the optimal quality of day care services.

3.1 The optimal tax structure

As a measure of the distortions imposed by an optimal tax structure on the agents' labor supply, we consider the concept of marginal effective tax rate, which is a measure of the distortion on labor supply produced by the combined effect of income and commodity taxation.

The marginal effective tax rate (METR) is defined as the variation in total (income and commodity) taxes paid by an agent if he were to earn an additional unit of gross income. Formally, the marginal effective tax rate faced by agents of type j ($j = 1, 2$) is defined as follows:

$$\text{METR}_t^j \equiv T'\left(Y_t^j\right) + \left[\frac{\partial d_t^j}{\partial Y_t^j} + \left(1 - T'\left(Y_t^j\right)\right) \frac{\partial d_t^j}{\partial B_t^j} \right] \tau_t, \tag{8}$$

where $T'\left(Y_t^j\right)$ denotes the marginal income tax rate.

We can now state the following result:

Proposition 1 *Under a mixed tax system, the optimal marginal effective tax rates can be expressed as follows:*

$$\text{METR}_t^1 = \frac{\lambda_t}{\mu_t f_t^1} \frac{\partial \widehat{V}_t^2}{\partial B_t^1} \left(\frac{\frac{\partial \widehat{V}_t^2}{\partial Y_t^1}}{\frac{\partial \widehat{V}_t^2}{\partial B_t^1}} - \frac{\frac{\partial V_t^1}{\partial Y_t^1}}{\frac{\partial V_t^1}{\partial B_t^1}} \right) - \frac{\upsilon_t}{\mu_t} \frac{\partial \pi^1}{\partial n_t^1} \left(\frac{dn_t^1}{dY_t^1} \right)_{dV_t^1=0}, \tag{9}$$

$$\text{METR}_t^2 = -\frac{\upsilon_t}{\mu_t} \frac{\partial \pi^2}{\partial n_t^2} \left(\frac{dn_t^2}{dY_t^2} \right)_{dV_t^2=0}, \tag{10}$$

where $\left(\dfrac{dn_t^j}{dY_t^j} \right)_{dV_t^j=0} \equiv \dfrac{\partial n_t^j}{\partial Y_t^j} - \left(\dfrac{\partial V_t^j}{\partial Y_t^j} \Big/ \dfrac{\partial V_t^j}{\partial B_t^j} \right) \dfrac{\partial n_t^j}{\partial B_t^j}.$

Proof See online Appendix. □

Equation (9) provides an expression for the METR faced by low-skilled agents at an optimum. The first term on the right-hand side reflects the distortion that the tax system ought to impose on the labor supply of the low-skilled agents in order to prevent the high-skilled agents from becoming mimickers by choosing the (Y, B)-bundle intended for the lowly skilled. The sign of this self-selection term coincides with the sign of the expression within brackets. In standard models of nonlinear redistributive income taxation,[6] an agent-monotonicity assumption is usually invoked for the purpose of signing the distortion produced by the self-selection term. This assumption requires that, at any given point in the (Y, B)-space, the higher the wage rate of an agent, the flatter the indifference curves are. Under this assumption, the sign of the first term on the right side of (9) is positive, therefore calling for a downward distortion on the labor supply of low-skilled agents.[7]

The second term on the right-hand side of Eq. (9) has the same structure of that appearing on the right-hand side of Eq. (10). Both correct for the intergenerational externality in human capital accumulation due to warm-glow altruism. Being unable to directly control the amount of time that parents devote to their children, the government affects the agents' incentives to engage in labor market activities in order to influence the time they spend with their children and to let them internalize the social welfare effect generated by the link between their time allocation decision and the proportion of high-skilled adults at time $t + 1$. The sign of $\partial \pi^j / \partial n_t^j$ in Eqs. (9) and (10) could be either positive or negative. In this discussion, we focus on the case in which $\partial \pi^1 / \partial n_t^1 < 0$ and $\partial \pi^2 / \partial n_t^2 > 0$. In this instance, at the margin and in the neighborhood of a social optimum, substituting time spent with children for time spent in day care centers increases (decreases) the probability that children of low(high)-skilled parents become high-skilled adults.[8] Under the plausible assumption that $\left(dn_t^j / dY_t^j \right)_{dV_t^j = 0} < 0$ (i.e., an increase in labor supply is accommodated by adjusting downwards both uses of leisure time), the second term on the right-hand side of Eq. (9) is negative, and it tends to reduce the METR faced by low-skilled agents, whereas the METR in Eq. (10) faced by high-skilled agents is positive. These corrections represent, on the one side, a way to induce low-skilled agents to work

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[6]See, for example, Stiglitz (1982) or Edwards et al. (1994).

[7]Note, however, that the conditions required to satisfy the agent-monotonicity assumption are stronger in our setting than those in standard optimal taxation models. In the latter, normality of consumption is a sufficient condition for agent monotonicity. In our setting, this is not enough since a high-skilled mimicker and a true low-skilled agent do not differ only with respect to their labor supply but also with respect to the amount available for private consumption (once expenses on day care services have been subtracted). A more thorough discussion of this issue is provided in a background version of this paper (see Appendix A in Casarico et al. 2011).

[8]We recall that children must be taken care of all the time, either by parents themselves or at day care centers. Therefore, if time spent with parents goes up, time spent in day care centers necessarily goes down.

more and substitute consumption for leisure time (including that spent with children) and, on the other side, an incentive to high-skilled agents to under-provide labor supply in order to make them spend more time with their children.

Having characterized the optimal distortions imposed by taxation on the labor supply of the different types of agents, we can look at the optimal tax/subsidy on day care expenditures. Denoting Hicksian demands by a "tilde," the next proposition provides the main result.

Proposition 2 *Under a mixed tax system, the optimal tax rate on day care expenditures is given by*

$$\tau_t = \frac{\frac{\lambda_t}{\mu_t} \frac{\partial \widehat{V}_t^2}{\partial B_t^1} \left(d_t^1 - \widehat{d}_t^2 \right)}{\sum\limits_{j=1}^{2} \frac{\partial \widetilde{d}_t^j}{\partial \tau_t} f_t^j} + \frac{\upsilon_t}{\mu_t} \sum\limits_{j=1}^{2} \frac{\partial \pi^j}{\partial n_t^j} \zeta_t^j, \tag{11}$$

where $\zeta_t^j \equiv \frac{\partial \widetilde{d}_t^j}{\partial \tau_t} f_t^j / \sum\limits_{j=1}^{2} \frac{\partial \widetilde{d}_t^j}{\partial \tau_t} f_t^j.$

Proof See online Appendix. □

The denominator of the first term on the right-hand side of (11) is negative, and it provides a measure of the deadweight loss generated by distortionary commodity taxation. The numerator depends on the difference between the amount of day care used by a true low-skilled and by a high-skilled mimicker. Since a mimicker's labor supply is lower than that of a true lowly skilled, it is reasonable to assume that $d_t^1 - \widehat{d}_t^2 > 0$. Thus, the first term on the right-hand side of (11) calls for a subsidy on the purchase of day care services. Intuitively, given that $d_t^1 > \widehat{d}_t^2$, starting from a situation where $\tau_t = 0$, it is possible to relax the binding self-selection constraint by introducing a small subsidy to day care expenditures and at the same time leaving the utility of all nonmimicking agents unaffected, by raising their income tax payments (lowering B_t^1 and B_t^2 by, respectively, d_t^1 and d_t^2).

As to the second term of Eq. (11), ζ_t^j represents the normalized change, generated by a marginal increase in τ_t in the compensated demand for day care services by agents of skill type j. This second term is reminiscent of a similar term appearing in (9) and (10). The main difference is that in (11), we take a sum over $j = 1, 2$. This is due to the different degree of sophistication of the available tax instruments. Since labor income is assumed to be taxable nonlinearly, the government can offer agents type-specific marginal income tax rates. Purchases of day care services, on the other hand, are assumed to be taxable only linearly, meaning that the commodity tax (or subsidy) rate on day care purchases is the same for all agents, irrespective of the skill type. Thus, a single tax rate, τ_t, has to be tailored in a way that strikes a balance between the adjustments ideally required to correct the behavior of the low-skilled and of the high-skilled agents. Since $\zeta_t^j > 0$ for all j, whereas the sign of $\partial \pi^j / \partial n_t^j$ is assumed to be type-specific, the direction of the required adjustment in τ_t will be opposite for high- and low-skilled agents. Thus, the optimal value of τ_t tends to be pushed up (down) by the concern to affect the time allocation of high(low)-skilled

parents. Note also that a high value of ζ_t^j reflects an instance in which the commodity tax is a very effective instrument to alter the demand for day care services by agents of type j. It is therefore very effective also in influencing the amount of time they spend with children. In this case, the optimal value chosen for τ_t will tend to reflect more strongly how it can be used to indirectly affect, in the socially optimal direction, the time spent with children by parents of skill type j.

We can now turn our attention to the quality of day care services.

3.2 The optimal quality of day care services

Defining by $\mathrm{MRS}_{ec}^{j,t}$ the marginal rate of substitution between the quality of day care services and private consumption for an agent of type j at time t (keeping the consumer price of day care services fixed), we have

$$\mathrm{MRS}_{ec}^{j,t} \equiv \frac{\partial V_t^j}{\partial e_t} \Big/ \frac{\partial V_t^j}{\partial B_t^j} = \left[\eta(H^2) - \eta(H^1) \right] \frac{\partial \pi^j}{\partial e_t} \Big/ \frac{\partial V_t^j}{\partial B_t^j}. \tag{12}$$

With the help of (12), Proposition 3 provides a characterization of the optimal quality of day care services under a mixed tax system.

Proposition 3 *Under a mixed tax system, the optimal quality of day care services abides by the following rule:*

$$\sum_{j=1}^{2} f_t^j \mathrm{MRS}_{ec}^{j,t} = p'(e_t) \sum_{j=1}^{2} d_t^j f_t^j - \frac{\upsilon_t}{\mu_t} \sum_{j=1}^{2} \left(\frac{d\pi^j}{de_t} \right)_{dV_t^j = 0} f_t^j$$

$$+ \frac{\lambda_t}{\mu_t} \frac{\partial \widehat{V_t^2}}{\partial B_t^1} \left(\widehat{\mathrm{MRS}}_{ec}^{2,t} - \mathrm{MRS}_{ec}^{1,t} \right) - \tau_t \sum_{j=1}^{2} \left(\frac{\partial d_t^j}{\partial e_t} \right)_{dV_t^j = 0} f_t^j, \tag{13}$$

where $\left(\frac{d\pi^j}{de_t} \right)_{dV_t^j = 0}$ *and* $\left(\frac{\partial d_t^j}{\partial e_t} \right)_{dV_t^j = 0}$ *are defined as follows:*

$$\left(\frac{d\pi^j}{de_t} \right)_{dV_t^j = 0} \equiv \frac{\partial \pi^j}{\partial e_t} + \left(\frac{\partial n_t^j}{\partial e_t} - \frac{\partial n_t^j}{\partial B_t^j} \frac{\frac{\partial V_t^j}{\partial e_t}}{\frac{\partial V_t^j}{\partial B_t^j}} \right) \frac{\partial \pi^j}{\partial n_t^j}, \tag{14}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial d_t^j}{\partial e_t} \right)_{dV_t^j = 0} \equiv \frac{\partial d_t^j}{\partial e_t} - \frac{\partial d_t^j}{\partial B_t^j} \frac{\frac{\partial V_t^j}{\partial e_t}}{\frac{\partial V_t^j}{\partial B_t^j}}. \tag{15}$$

Proof See online Appendix. $\square$

Equation (13) can be interpreted as a modified Samuelson-type condition, although it does not refer to the efficient level of provision of a public good. The

term on the left-hand side of (13) measures the sum of the agents' marginal willingness to pay for an increased level of quality of day care services. The first term on the right-hand side of (13) represents the additional resource cost of raising the quality of day care services, for given number of day care hours. Discounting the fact that we are forcing agents to consume the same quality level of day care services, we could regard the condition $\sum_{j=1}^{2} f_t^j \mathrm{MRS}_{ec}^{j,t} = p'(e_t) \sum_{j=1}^{2} d_t^j f_t^j$ as a first-best benchmark equating the sum of marginal benefits with the marginal cost of raising quality. Thus, the remaining terms on the right side of (13) describe how an optimizing policy maker should deviate from the first-best rule to take into account self-selection problems and externalities. One can note that the presence of the last term on the right side of (13) does not challenge this interpretation because, as evident from (11), a commodity tax/subsidy on day care services can only be justified by self-selection reasons or externalities.

The second term on the right side of (13) reflects how a compensated variation in the quality of day care services can be used for externality correction purposes. An increase in the quality of day care services exerts both a direct and an indirect effect on the probability that the child of a type j parent becomes a high-skilled adult. The direct effect originates from the fact that the quality of day care services enters as an argument into the function π^j. The indirect effect is due to the fact that a change in the quality level will, in general, induce parents to modify their decisions on the allocation of time. Both these effects are captured by $(d\pi^j/de_t)_{dV_t^j=0}$, which also reflects how parents vary the time spent with their children following a reduction in disposable income intended to leave their utility unchanged. The sign of $(d\pi^j/de_t)_{dV_t^j=0}$ is therefore, in general, ambiguous. However, making the assumption that the direct effect of an increase in the quality level dominates the indirect ones, $(d\pi^j/de_t)_{dV_t^j=0} > 0$ and the sign of the second term on the right side of (13) is negative, calling for an increase in the second-best efficient level of day care quality.

As to the third term on the right side of (13), it is a self-selection term that depends on the difference between a mimicker's marginal willingness to pay for increased day care quality and the corresponding marginal willingness to pay of a true lowly skilled. Assuming that, having more time to devote to nonmarket activities, a mimicker spends more time with his child and therefore less money on day care services, the marginal utility of consumption is likely to be lower for a mimicker than that for a true lowly skilled. Taking this into account, (12) tends to imply that the marginal willingness to pay for increased quality is larger for a mimicker than that for a true lowly skilled.[9] According to the third term on the right-hand side of Eq. (13), this determines an increase in the net marginal cost of raising quality. The underlying intuition is that, as the mimicker's marginal willingness to pay for quality is larger, a marginal increase in quality, accompanied by a change in the income tax payment of

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[9]It is, however, clear from (12) that one should also consider how the numerator of the expression defining the marginal willingness to pay for quality differs for a mimicker and for a true lowly skilled. For simplicity, in our discussion here, we disregard the possibility that this effect more than offsets the effect that works through the difference in the denominators.

the low-skilled agent that leaves his utility unaffected, would make a mimicker better off and therefore tighten the self-selection constraint.

Finally, the last term on the right side of (13) provides an account of how the government's (commodity tax) revenues are affected by a change in the agents' consumption pattern when a compensated increase in day care quality is implemented. Assuming that agents' consumption of day care services goes up when the quality of services increases, the last term on the right-hand side of (13) raises (resp. lowers) the net marginal cost of quality whenever the purchase of day care services is subsidized (resp. taxed at a positive rate) by the government.

4 Numerical analysis

Since the formulas derived in the previous section have, in most cases, components working in opposite directions, here we develop a numerical analysis. Its purpose is to illustrate the quantitative relevance of including child care in the human capital production function, both in terms of the optimal values of the policy variables and in terms of the welfare loss caused by setting policy neglecting its effect on child care arrangements and on the skill formation process. We maintain the two-period, two-type structure developed in the theoretical part. We focus on the steady state, and therefore we omit time subscripts.

4.1 Functional forms

To perform the numerical exercise, we need to assume specific parametric functional forms for the utility function, for the probability of becoming highly skilled and for the relationship between the cost of day care services and their quality.

As to the utility function, we assume

$$U^j = \alpha c^j + \beta \log z^j + \gamma \log n^j + \delta[\pi^j(n^j) \log H^2 + (1 - \pi^j(n^j)) \log H^1], \quad (16)$$

with $\alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta = 1, \alpha > 0, \beta > 0, \gamma > 0, \delta > 0$.[10]

The probability of becoming highly skilled is

$$\pi^j(n^j) = \sigma^j \frac{x^j}{1 + x^j}, \quad (17)$$

where $\sigma^j > 0$ is a type-specific parameter capturing in a reduced form other factors besides the quality of early childhood environment x^j, which can affect the probability of becoming a high-skilled agent. The assumption is that, for a given value of x^j, high-skilled parents can positively influence the chances of their offspring to become highly skilled, for instance, through the transmission of genetic ability, higher income, and better schooling.

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[10]This objective function is of the Greenwood-Hercowitz-Huffman type. Note that it is linear in consumption, which implies that there is no income effect on the labor supply, and it is often used in the optimal taxation literature (e.g., see Kleven et al. 2009).

Quality x^j is produced combining parental time and day care services using the following constant elasticity of substitution function:

$$x^j = \left[(n^j H^j)^v + (d^j e)^v \right]^{\frac{1}{v}}.$$ (18)

Note that Eqs. (17) and (18), jointly with (3), imply that the relationship between π^j and n^j is hump shaped. When parental time n^j is low, its increase (i.e., a decrease in time spent in day care) generates a rise in the probability that the children will be highly skilled in the next period. When it is high, a further increase determines a decline in the same probability.

The relationship between the price p of day care services (i.e., the price without tax or subsidy components) and their quality e is specified as follows:

$$p = \left(\frac{e}{\omega} \right),$$ (19)

where $\omega > 0$ is a scale parameter. The higher is the quality of day care services, the higher is the price.

As to the government, the objective function is the following:

$$W = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \rho^t \sum_{j=1}^{2} f_t^j \cdot \frac{(U^j)^\psi}{\psi}.$$ (20)

The parameter $\psi \in (-\infty, 1)$ measures the degree of social aversion to inequality: the lower is ψ, the higher is the aversion to inequality.[11]

4.2 Parameterization and calibration

We interpret each period in the model as having a length of 25 years. We set $\bar{a} = 0.24$, which means that over a period of 25 years, 6 years is spent receiving child care. Though we only aim at performing a numerical example, we try to make it realistic, and we rely, whenever possible, on actual data. More specifically, we use Italian data.[12] We classify as agents of type 1 all the individuals with no college education (up to ISCED level 4 included), whereas agents of type 2 are those with college education and above (ISCED level 5 and above). We normalize to 1 the market productivity of agents of type 1: $H^1 = 1$. In order to set H^2, we use IT-Silc 2004 data and calculate hourly gross wages for the two groups. As the resulting ratio is equal to 1.5, we set $H^2 = 1.5$.

Utility function Concerning the parameters of the utility function, we select them in order to match data on time allocation. Assuming, as it is usually done (e.g., Juster 1985), that nonpersonal time available for discretionary use amounts to 100 h per week, according to the Harmonised Time Use Survey (HETUS) data for Italy for 2002–2003 for the age group 25–50 (the parents' group in the model), we have the

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[11] Given that we focus on the steady state, the discount factor ρ is just a scale parameter which does not affect the optimal policies.

[12] Data used are not all available for a single year. The reference period is 1998–2004.

following: $l^1 = 31\% < l^2 = 36\%$, $n^1 = n^2 = 4\%$, $z^1 = 65\% > z^2 = 60\%$.[13] It should be stressed that high-skilled agents work more even though they do not devote less time to their children (see also Guryan et al. 2008). Time use data provide six targets (l^1, l^2, n^1, n^2, z^1, and z^2). Two of them, e.g., leisure time z^1 and z^2, can be residually determined through the time constraint (2). To match the other four targets, we only have three parameters—α, β, and γ—given that $\alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta = 1$ and δ is residually determined by this constraint. We set these parameters in order to match time devoted to children by type 1 and type 2 agents (n^1 and n^2, respectively) and the labor supply of type 1 agents l^1.[14] The implied value of the labor supply of type 2 agents l^2 is equal to 33 %. This value is slightly lower than the value we observe in the data, but it qualitatively matches well the behavior of the labor supply across educational groups.

Child care and human capital The parameter ν in Eq. (18) determines the elasticity of substitution between parental time n^j and day care services d^j in the production of the quality of the early childhood environment x^j. This elasticity is equal to $1/(1 - \nu)$. When $\nu = 1$ ($\nu = -\infty$), n^j and d^j are perfect substitutes (perfect complements). To the best of our knowledge, direct estimates of the elasticity of substitution between nonparental time and parental time in the production of the quality of the early childhood environment are not available. As a benchmark, we consider the case $\nu = 0.98$, and in the online Appendix, we provide a sensitivity analysis.

The parameters of the probability function (17) σ^j are chosen to match the probabilities of becoming a high-skilled agent, namely $\pi^1 = 0.065$ and $\pi^2 = 0.59$,[15] which, together with the assumed values for time devoted to child care n^1 and n^2, imply fractions of low- and high-skilled agents respectively equal to 0.86 and 0.14.[16]

As to the quality of day care e, we recall that in our model, there is perfect correlation between productivity on the market and ability to rear children. Accordingly, a plausible empirical counterpart of e can be the productivity of people providing

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[13] A few remarks are important in interpreting these data. First, we recall that in our model, parents devote time to the child only during his first 6 years of life. In collecting time use data, we therefore only consider time devoted to children over this time span, whereas the overall time endowment refers to a 25-year period. This partly explains the low share of time devoted to child care. Moreover, parental time with children is defined as the sum of the minutes devoted to primary and secondary child care: this amount of time is lower than the total time spent with children, but it better captures deliberate child care by parents. Finally, leisure is defined as a residual category, that is, it is the time not spent either working or doing primary and secondary child care: as a consequence, it is not a measure of pure leisure as it also includes, for instance, housework.

[14] The resulting values of α, β, and γ are, respectively, 0.78, 0.19, and 0.01.

[15] See Giuliano 2008. Similar estimates are provided by Checchi et al. (1999) on older data (1985 rather than 1998). The calibration delivers $\sigma^1 = 0.31$ and $\sigma^2 = 2.69$.

[16] According to the OECD (2011), the share of Italian graduates in the age group of 25–64 years was 15 % in 2009.

nonparental care, who typically in Italy have high school education. Using IT-Silc data for 2004, we calculate the hourly gross wages for workers with a high school diploma. The ratio between the wage for this group and the wage for the group of agents of type 1 (which also include agents without a high school diploma) is 1.09, and therefore, we set $e = 1.09$.

We now turn to the relationship between the quality of day care services e and the price p. The scale parameter ω is chosen, so that the ratio between the price of day care services and the wage of agents of type 1, $p/(wH^1)$, is equal to 31 %.[17]

Fiscal variables We approximate the current income tax schedule using the following simple parametric tax function (see Li and Sarte 2004):

$$T^j = \chi \cdot (Y^j)^{1+\phi}, \tag{21}$$

with $Y^j = wH^j l^j$. The parameter χ is chosen to match an average tax rate equal to 38 %. The parameter ϕ is set equal to 0.5 to match a ratio between the marginal and the average tax rate equal to 1.5.[18] The current tax system is also characterized by an ad valorem tax on day care, whose rate τ^d is set equal to -87 % (see Zollino 2008), and by an ad valorem tax on consumption, whose rate τ^c is equal to 22 % (see McDaniel 2007 tax data series for 2004). We allow the government to also use a lump-sum transfer, which is residually determined in order to have a balanced government budget.

Note that the (parametric) fiscal system described above is simply used for the purpose of calibrating the model: the social planner will choose a fully nonlinear income tax to maximize the social welfare function (20), in which the social aversion to inequality ψ is set to -2.[19] Moreover, the tax rate on consumption is normalized to zero.

4.3 Simulation: optimal policy

In order to analyze how the presence of child care in the human capital production function affects the design of the optimal public policy, we introduce as a term of comparison a standard model in which child care arrangements do not have an impact

[17] The unitary cost of day care services is calculated by averaging OECD data on the Italian public and private per-child expenditure on preprimary education (children aged 3–6) and Bank of Italy data presented by Zollino (2008) on the public and private per-child expenditure on day care (children aged 0–3). The obtained per-child cost is then converted into an hourly cost assuming that care is available for 11 months, at 8 h per day. The hourly cost is finally divided by the wage rate of type 1 agents: the resulting value is 31 %. The calibration delivers $\omega = 0.28$.

[18] OECD data for a two-earner married couple, with one spouse earning the average wage, the other spouse earning 33 % of the average wage, and two children.

[19] We perform a sensitivity analysis on ψ in the online Appendix.

Table 1 Optimal policies

	Standard	Quality fixed	Quality optimized
e	1.09	1.09	1.50
T^1/Y^1	$-0.99\,\%$	$-1.28\,\%$	$-0.56\,\%$
T^2/Y^2	$18.32\,\%$	$18.15\,\%$	$19.40\,\%$
T'^1	$7.38\,\%$	$7.06\,\%$	$11.91\,\%$
T'^2	$0.52\,\%$	$3.16\,\%$	$1.67\,\%$
$METR^1$	$6.44\,\%$	$6.23\,\%$	$9.97\,\%$
$METR^2$	$0.00\,\%$	$2.69\,\%$	$0.61\,\%$
τ^d	$-36.28\,\%$	$-31.01\,\%$	$-53.41\,\%$

on human capital accumulation, that is $\pi^j\left(n_t^j\right) = \pi^j$. The calibration procedure is analogous to the one implemented in the previous section.[20]

We compute the optimal policies, and we present the results in Table 1. In the first column, we report the results of the simulation performed in a standard model in which the process of skills' transmission is entirely exogenous. In the second and third columns, we report the optimal policies for the model in which the skills' transmission depends on parental time. More precisely, in the second column, we assume that the quality of day care is fixed at a level equal to the productivity of people currently working in the day care sector, i.e., $e = 1.09$; in the third column, we include the quality of day care among the government's policy instruments. The comparison of the optimal policies across the different cases allow us to isolate the roles played by the relationship between child care arrangements and the distribution of skills, and by the quality of day care, which are the novelties of our model.

We first highlight that the main difference in results between the standard model and ours is the degree of subsidization of day care. Also, the marginal income tax rates change, though at a smaller extent. This shows that it is the direct instrument of taxing/subsidizing the purchases of day care services which is mostly affected by the intergenerational externality in the skill transmission.

We first compare the results in columns 1 and 2, starting from the marginal effective tax rates. To this end, we recall Eqs. (9) and (10) and note that they hold also in the standard model, in which, however, $\frac{\partial \pi^j}{\partial n^j} = 0$. The marginal effective tax rate on the high-skilled individuals ($METR^2$) is zero in the standard model, as it is customary, whereas it is positive in our model. This positive marginal effective tax rate corrects for the externality stemming from the intergenerational transmission of skills: high-skilled agents are induced to spend more time with their children as this

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[20]The only difference concerns the parameters of the utility function. Since the probability of becoming highly skilled π^j does not depend on parental time n^j, the parameter δ does not affect the allocation of time, and we normalize it to 0. Thus, to match the allocation of time of the two groups, we only have two parameters α and β, given the restriction $\alpha + \beta + \gamma = 1$. These two parameters are used to match the labor supply and the time devoted to children by the lowly skilled l^1 and n^1; l^2 and n^2 are generated by the model.

additional time has—at the optimum—a positive impact on the probability that they will be highly skilled. The marginal effective tax rate on the low-skilled individuals (METR^1) is slightly lower in our model compared to the standard one, given that, at the optimum, the time they spend with their children generates a negative externality on the probability of becoming highly skilled.

As to the tax on day care τ^d, it is negative in both columns 1 and 2, calling for a subsidy on day care. This subsidy is lower in our model than that in the standard one. The intuition can be grasped looking at Eq. (11).[21] The denominator of this equation is negative, given that an increase in taxation on day care reduces its demand. Moreover, a low-skilled agent buys a higher amount of day care than a high-skilled mimicker, and therefore self-selection considerations always call for a negative value of τ^d. In the standard model, there are no additional determinants of τ^d besides self-selection. In our model, the setting of the tax rate on day care depends also on how it affects the probability that children of both types become high-skilled individuals. In our simulation, the need to discourage the highly skilled from using day care services prevails on the need to decrease parental time provided to children by low-skilled parents, and this implies that τ^d is less negative in our model that in the standard one.

Column 3 of Table 1 shows the effects of including the quality of day care services e among the policy instruments of the government. The range of values of e goes from $H^1 = 1$, which is the productivity of low-skilled agents, to $H^2 = 1.5$, which is the productivity of high-skilled agents. We find that the government sets the optimal quality of day care services at the highest possible value, that is H^2. It follows that METR^2 is lower than the one observed in column 2 which reports the value for the case in which the quality of day care services is exogenously fixed at a lower level. When the quality of day care is higher, a reduction in parental time by high-skilled agents determines a smaller decrease in the probability that their children will become highly skilled. METR^1 is instead higher when the quality is endogenous. This result occurs since, as we pointed out in Section 3.2, the marginal willingness to pay for increased quality is larger for a mimicker than that for a true lowly skilled. Therefore, an increase in day care quality tends to tighten the binding self-selection constraint which prevents high-skilled agents to mimic low-skilled ones. To counteract this effect, the government raises the distortion, i.e., the marginal effective tax rate faced by the low-skilled agents. Finally, as to the tax on day care τ^d, we observe that the size of the subsidy increases significantly, since its positive impact on low-skilled agents weighs much more than the small negative impact on the highly skilled in determining the overall effect.

4.4 Simulation: welfare effects

In this section, we assess the welfare implications of choosing the optimal public policy ignoring child care arrangements as an input of the human capital production function.

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[21] We here consider an ad valorem tax τ^d, whereas Eq. (11) refers to an excise tax τ. Note that setting $\tau^d = \tau/p$, we obtain for an ad valorem tax an equation which is equivalent to that in (11).

To this end, we use the following two-step procedure. First, we implement in our model (in which the probability of becoming highly skilled $\pi^j(n_t^j)$ is given by Eq. (17)) the optimal policies calculated in the standard model (in which $\pi^j(n_t^j) = \pi^j$). This amounts to describing the government as using a *mistaken* environment when selecting the optimal public policies. Taking these policies as given, agents maximize their objective function in the *right* environment, in which their choices affect the human capital of the next generation. We find that the incentive compatibility constraint of high-skilled agents is violated: the highly skilled find it optimal to mimic the lowly skilled, and the mimicking generates a deficit. We calculate the welfare level in this case. Second, we compute the deficit which guarantees this very same level of welfare, when however the government uses the right environment, both allowing and not allowing for an endogenous choice of the quality of day care. The difference in the deficit generated by the government which uses the right environment and by the government which uses the wrong environment represents a revenue-based measure of the welfare loss: the loss amounts respectively to 3.8 % of GDP when the quality of day care is fixed and to 4.3 % of GDP when the quality of day care is optimally chosen.[22] This suggests that ignoring the role of child care arrangements in the process of human capital accumulation when setting the optimal public policies can generate a sizable welfare loss.

5 Conclusions

This paper has characterized the optimal structure of a mixed tax system and the optimal level of quality of day care in an OLG model in which parental choices over child care arrangements affect the probability that a child becomes a high-skilled adult in a type-specific way. As far as we know, this is the first model to include child care arrangements in the human capital production function to analyze optimal public policies.

With respect to previous contributions, optimal tax formulas incorporate type-specific Pigouvian terms which correct for the intergenerational externality in the human capital accumulation process. The Pigouvian terms work in the direction of lowering (increasing) the marginal *effective* tax rate when, at the optimum, parental time devoted to children generates a negative (positive) externality on the probability of becoming highly skilled. As to the tax on day care services, given that it is assumed to be linear, it has to be tailored in a way that strikes a balance between the adjustments ideally required to correct the behavior of the different types of agents. As far as the optimal choice of the quality of day care is concerned, this represents a new policy instrument motivated by the existence of a link between child care arrangements and human capital accumulation. We find that the optimal quality is determined by equating the total private marginal benefits of a quality increase to its marginal cost, adjusted for the presence of additional terms capturing respectively the

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[22]GDP is measured at the optimum of the government's problem when the right environment is used.

budgetary impact of a change in demand for day care services, the intergenerational externality in human capital accumulation, and the self-selection constraint.

We also perform a numerical analysis to illustrate the working of the model, the ensuing optimal public policies, and the welfare loss from designing the public policy without taking into account the effects of parental time on children's human capital. We find that the presence of child care arrangements in the human capital production function mainly influences the degree of subsidization of day care. Designing the public policy without taking into account the effects of parental time on children's human capital causes a welfare loss ranging from 3.8 to 4.3 % of GDP depending on whether the quality is optimally set or not. The numerical analysis is just meant to give a first assessment of the relevance of introducing child care arrangements in the human capital production function. An interesting extension would concern the use of a multiperiod OLG model, with many types and imperfect correlation between the ability to rear children and the market ability of parents. This setting would allow to draw more precise quantitative predictions on the optimal policies, but would require a deeper knowledge of the technology of skill formation than the one currently available. Although there is an increasing literature on the effects of parental time on children's human capital, to the best of our knowledge, there is no consensus on the effects of child care arrangements on children's skills conditional on parental education, and on the degree of correlation between the ability to rear children and the market ability of parents. The analysis presented in this paper, despite its simplifying assumptions, shows that the existence of a link between parental time devoted to children and children human capital can be relevant for the design of public policies and provides the ground and motivation for further empirical analysis to improve our knowledge of how alternative child care arrangements can shape the human capital accumulation process.

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