

DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS

Working Paper

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Working Paper No. 1998-9



ISSN 1396-2426

UNIVERSITY OF AARHUS • DENMARK

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SOCIAL INSURANCE AND THE PUBLIC BUDGET

May 1998

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Abstract

Restraints on the public budget limit the ability of the public sector to provide insurance for intertemporal substitution. This interferes with the role of the public sector as a buffer which provides insurance and possibly stabilizes income consumption. We consider this insurance or stabilizing role of public consumption and why a progressive taxation system may be optimal even when the distortionary effects of taxation are taken into account. Balanced budget restrictions interfere with this role and they do not necessarily imply that a lower level of public consumption is optimal.

JEL: H20, H61, E62, D61, D80.

Keywords: Insurance, Optimal Taxation, Budget Regimes.

Comments and suggestions from Alvaro Forteza, Peter Raahauge and participants at the conference "Dynamic General Equilibrium Models: Policy Issues", Paris, 1997, and Hubert Kempf are gratefully acknowledged.

This paper is part of the project "Prospects and Problems for the Welfare State" supported by the Danish Social Science Research Council.

1. Introduction

What is the role of budget deficits? It is a widespread view that it stems from a political bias in policy-making inducing politicians to prefer increased public consumption to precede the costs. In a large part of the literature has focused on the crowding out effects of public sector run costs. Accordingly, it is often advocated that the public sector should be subject to a balanced budget constraint or that the possibility for running budget deficits should be restricted.

In the US many states have adopted a balanced budget rule and together with the federal budget there is a continuous debate on the Gramm-Rudmann-Hollings amendment which requires the government to finance current expenditures from current revenues. In Europe budget norms on the maximum size of budget deficits relative to GDP are part of the convergence criteria for the Economic and Monetary Union. The Stability and Growth Pact strengthens the interpretation of this norm and imposes sanctions towards member states violating it.

Most countries have a public budget which is very sensitive to the business cycle. In a number of European countries it has been estimated (CEC(1997)) that the borrowing requirement measured relative to GDP increases by between 0.5 and 1 percentage points when GDP drops by 1%. The sensitivity of budget revenues to the business cycle is significantly higher than that of government spending. The sensitivity of the budget to the business cycle is positively related to the size of the public sector. Empirical evidence also indicates that the automatic stabilizers in

¹ This bias is discussed in a growing political economy literature, see eg Alesina Corsetti and Roubini (1997).

² For a discussion, see eg Chang (1990) and Ball and Mankiw (1995).

³ See Poterba (1996) for an outline of how these are formulated and implemented.

may stabilize economic activity. There is thus a negative correlation between government size and macroeconomic volatility (Gali (1994)). Empirical evidence from single states of the USA shows that a consistent and stable budget position is the cyclical responsiveness of public finances and therefore potential automatic stabilizers among other things by forcing tax rates to move (Bayoumi and Eichengreen⁴.(1995))

The primary budget position depends on the timing of taxation and the insight of the "tax-smoothing" principle (Barro 1979) is that minimizing distortions of income taxation (the dynamic Ramsey problem) calls for a constant tax rate. Accordingly, temporary increases in public expenditures can be financed by revenue would optimally be accommodated by running a public deficit. This result for an income tax in a partial model with exogenous variables has later been cast in a general equilibrium setting by Lucas and

The timing of taxes should also take into account the possible ways in which deficits interfere with market failures (the dynamic Pigou problem). One important role here is the fact that the public budget may serve as a buffer against impinging on the economy. Thereby, the public budget may stabilize and smooth private consumption providing an insurance or stabilization function.

The recent literature on the welfare state has pointed out that public provision of social insurance in many cases serve an insurance function to the extent that it is not possible on the private insurance market there may be a welfare case for such continuous provision. In the current discussion it is particularly noteworthy that taxes and tran-

⁴ Bayoumi and Eichengreen (1995) conclude based on simulations with the MULTIMOD model that large government size and macroeconomic volatility may have severe consequences for macroeconomic volatility.

implicit insurance function (See eg Varian (1980)). Redistribution progressive taxation may be associated with efficiency gains to the extent that the public sector provides diversification possibilities for idiosyncratic shocks that are not available in private markets. In a macroeconomic context it has also been argued that taxation may affect the impact of idiosyncratic shocks and the level of precautionary savings (Barsky, Mankiw and Zeldes (1986)). To deal with aggregate shocks there is however neither a need nor a welfare gain from running budget deficits as the question is to design a transfer scheme from "lucky" to "unlucky" agents (Fremling and Lott (1997)). This is an atemporal problem and from this it is often inferred that budget deficits as such provide no insurance.

This conclusion needs not hold in the case of aggregate shocks: diversification possibilities for such shocks exists in a closed economy as well as in an open economy. An important channel for risk diversification is international capital markets. By running deficits or surpluses the government can use these markets to attain social insurance of aggregate shocks. A balance of payments constraint is effectively a constraint on the ability of the public sector to use international capital markets. This may mean nothing if capital markets are perfect and the public sector can use international capital markets better than the private sector. However, it is possible that capital markets are not perfect and private agents are not able to use international capital markets fully. Under such circumstances restraints on public budgets may have significant consequences.

⁵ Croushore (1996) endogenizes labour supply to analyse how insurance of idiosyncratic shocks affects savings and labour supply decision.

⁶ An important example of this is the failure for private agents to fully diversify idiosyncratic shocks in international capital markets, see Lewis (1996).

We explore this issue in an open economy with fluctuations driven by (productivity) shocks. The focus is thus on the interplay between income taxation. The optimal design of the income taxation system to finance public expenditures is considered by taking account of both the insurance and the distortionary effects of tax and by the tax system arising in the case of a balanced budget. This makes it possible both to evaluate the consequences of budget restraints and the implications for macroeconomics. Also analysed how the financing rules for the government affect the public consumption.

The analysis is performed by use of a model for a small open economy over two generations. This is a convenient way by which to formulate a full intertemporal general equilibrium model in which there is a capital market creating a role for social insurance. By the very nature of this social insurance is an imperfection in the sense that no private market can diversify this risk because of the reason being that this should be diversified among different generations. The means by which current generations can extract resources from yet unborn generations and no mechanisms by which the latter can ensure that resources are available to them (the problem of insurance at zero age). However, the government may intervene and we analyse how this works in a small open economy with liberalized capital markets. This provides a simple way by which to model capital market insurance. Over time, it highlights the relationship between budget deficits and capital markets.

Possibilities for diversification of aggregate risk have in an open economy been analysed by Aizenman (1981). The idea is that the balance of payments

⁷ Barro (1979) considers how distortionary taxes should be smoothed to finance variations driven by e.g. wars.

absorbed and changes in the stock of international reserves can be aggregated shocks and smooth consumption so as to increase welfare. The market and the scope for diversification is determined by the size of Gordon and Varian (1988) show how the government can implement a scheme between different generations alive at a given period so as to allocate between generations in a way which implies welfare improvement. In these cases, the capital market and the public budget play no role. Moreover, the economy is exogenous, and the issue of distortionary taxation does not arise.

The paper is organized as follows: section 2 develops a small overlapping generations economy with liberalized capital movements. Section 3 develops the implications of a balanced budget regime and regimes allowing for current account imbalances by considering the case of exogenous production, while section 4 discusses distortionary taxation by endogenizing production. Finally, section 5 contains concluding comments.

2. A Small Open Overlapping Generations Economy

Consider a small open economy producing a commodity which is a perfect substitute for internationally traded goods being traded at a price P (in domestic currency). The exchange rate is fixed, and there are no restrictions on access to international capital markets implying that the rate of interest equals the world rate.

Households

The population is constant, and individuals live for two periods. The young (c_t) and old (c_{t+1}) can work only as young. Moreover, they obtain utility :

access to a public good available in the time utility for the representative household is given by

$$u(c_{1,t}, c_{2,t+1}) - v(l_{1,t}) + s(g)$$

where

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial c_{j,t+j-1}} > 0 \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial c_{j,t+j-1}^2} < 0 \quad j = 1, 2$$

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial l_{1,t}} > 0$$

$$\frac{\partial s}{\partial g} > 0 \quad \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial g^2} < 0$$

The consumer problem can conveniently be analysed in two steps, namely first by considering the consumption decision given income and second by considering the supply decision to generate income. Households inherit ownership of the public good and are entitled to profit income generated by firms.

For a given disposable income level I_t , the consumption problem is to choose the level of consumption subject to the budget constraint

$$c_{1t} + (1+r_t)^{-1}c_{2t+1} = I_t/P_t \equiv i_t$$

where r_t denotes the real rate of interest and i_t is the real income.

The consumption while young and old can now be stated

⁸ This good may yield utility either as young, old or both. This does not matter as long as the supply of the public good is exogenous to the agent and there is no uncertainty concerning the supply of the public good.

$$c_{1t} = c_1(1 + r_t, i_t)$$

$$c_{2t+1} = c_2(1 + r_t, i_t)$$

The utility of consumption following from the optimal consumption decision is summarized by the indirect utility function

$$U(1 + r_t, i_t) \tag{1}$$

where

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial i_t} > 0; \quad \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial i_t^2} < 0$$

The real rate of interest is exogenous due to the small open economy since the focus here is on income variability, we simplify and assume that the real disposable income⁹⁾ is given by

$$i_t = (1 - \tau_t)(w_t l_t + \pi_t) \tag{2}$$

where w_t is the real wage rate, π_t is the real profit, and τ_t is the tax rate applying to income.

Given (2), the labour supply decision is easily found as the solution to the following problem

$$\max_{l_t} U((1 - \tau_t)(w_t l_t + \pi_t)) - v(l_t)$$

The labour supply decision is characterized by the following condition

$$\underline{(1 - \tau_t)w_t U'(i_t) = v'(l_t)} \tag{3}$$

⁹ Notice that this formulation presumes that the only form of taxation is income tax. It is possible to tax e.g. capital income, but this is disregarded to focus on the interplay between income and income taxation.

Firms

All firms are price and wage takers and produce subject to a production function

$$y_t = a_t f(l_t); \quad f' > 0, f'' \leq 0$$

where l_t is labour input, a_t is an indicator for productivity. The labour decision of the firms is characterized by the condition

$$a_t f'(l_t) = w_t \tag{4}$$

Note that the production decision is taken under full certainty, i.e. a_t is known. This also implies that it is not sequential whether profits accrue in $t+1$ as long as there is perfect information and perfect capital markets.

Shocks

Since the focus is social insurance, we want to rule out transfers/redistributions (generations) which is motivated by changes in the perceived permanent income for the economy. It is therefore convenient to specify a productivity variable that it does not induce shifts in the perceived permanent income. This requires that the expected present value of the shock is that

$$E_t \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (1+r)^{-j} a_{t+j} = \text{constant} \quad \forall t$$

This condition is fulfilled by the following process

$$a_t - \bar{a} = - (1+r)(a_{t-1} - \bar{a}) + v_t \tag{5}$$

where \bar{a} is the permanent level of a_t and having a symmetric density function $f(v)$ with support $v \in \mathbb{R}$. This specification implies that there will be

¹⁰ It is well-known that changes in permanent income may be a reason for redistribution (Fatás (1997)).

states, but it is ex ante uncertain which generation will be lucky unlucky.

Notethat for a more general process for the shock variable, (5) can transfers across generations which can be justified on pure insurance as pure redistribution.

Government

The government supplies a public good g which is financed by an inc

The real value of the primary public budget is

$$b_t = \tau_t y_t - g \quad (6)$$

The public sector has - as the private sector - access to the inter and the real debt level d develops according to

$$d_t = b_t + (1+r)d_{t-1}$$

The initial debt level is assumed $d_1 = 0$ to be zero, ie d

We shall consider different budgetary regimes for the public secto continuously balanced budget, ie

$$b_t = 0 \quad \forall t \quad (7)$$

implyingthat the intertemporal solvency condition is automatically f regimeallows for budget imbalances within the constraint set by the i which we operationalize by imposing that the expected¹¹⁾ budget bala

¹¹ This is a more strict condition than needed to have a sustainable debt level for Chang (1990).

$$E_t b_t = 0 \quad \forall t$$

which is sufficient to ensure that the expected level of debt is bounded

$$E_t d_{t+j} < \bar{d}, \quad \forall t, j > 0$$

This regime corresponds to the argument often made in policy debates that the budget should be balanced over the business cycle. We consider both how the schemes operate to finance a given level of public expenditures, and the optimal level of public consumption.

Equilibrium Conditions

The labour market is competitive and the equilibrium condition reads

$$l_t^d = l_t^s \tag{8}$$

As the good produced is traded internationally, there is no product market condition. The trade balance in period t reads

$$t b_t = y_t - c_t - g \tag{9}$$

where c_t is total private consumption in period t , i.e. the sum of consumption given by

$$c_t = c_{1t} + c_{2t} \tag{10}$$

3. Exogenous Production

To clarify the mechanisms through which the government can provide social insurance, useful to start by considering the case with exogenous production. Labour is assumed to be supplied inelastically ($l = 1, v(l) = 0$) and production is given by $y = a (f(l) = 1)$.

Assume that the level of public consumption is given and the problem is to find the tax rate that the budget is required to be balanced period by period it follows that the tax rate has to be

$$\tau(a_t) = \frac{g}{a_t}$$

that is, the tax rate moves countercyclical

$$\frac{\partial \tau(a_t)}{\partial a_t} = - \frac{g}{a_t^2} < 0 \quad (11)$$

In periods with high production, the given level of public consumption is financed by a low tax rate and vice versa in states of nature with low production.

The utility to the generation born in period t can thus be written

$$U(a_t - g)$$

implying that the ex ante or expected utility to a member of any generation is

$$EU(a_t - g)$$

With a balanced budget it follows that the public sector does not use capital markets. Clearly this may imply a welfare loss as such markets could be used for smoothing the tax burden and thereby allowing a diversification of production. One possibility for achieving this would be to choose a tax rate that varies with the state of nature equal to

$$\tau = \frac{g}{E a_t} \quad (12)$$

In this case utility of a period t generation becomes

$$U\left(a_t - g \frac{a_t}{E a_t}\right)$$

and the expected utility can be written

$$EU\left(a_t - g \frac{a_t}{E a_t}\right)$$

Clearly, generations are better off in terms of expected utility under a constant tax rate as compared to a balanced budget system as is seen by noting that the expected after-tax income is the same

$$E\left(a_t - g \frac{a_t}{E a_t}\right) = E a_t - g$$

but its variance is lower in the constant tax-rate regime, ie

$$\text{Var}\left(a_t - g \frac{a_t}{E a_t}\right) < \text{Var}(a_t - g)$$

It follows that the expected utility is higher in the constant tax balanced budget regime

$$EU\left(a_t - g \frac{a_t}{E a_t}\right) > EU(a_t - g)$$

It is easily seen how this policy works by considering how the public chooses the state of nature, ie

$$b_t = \left(\frac{a_t}{E a_t} - 1\right) g$$

In bad (good) states, there is a budget deficit (surplus). The public can smooth consumption by borrowing tax-payments before when income is low and vice versa. Notice that this is not attainable due to the fact that the shock is an aggregate and thus non-diversifiable given generation and due to the prohibitions for private households to take such risk in the international capital market due to their fixed liabilities¹²

It is easily checked that this policy is feasible as

$$E_t d_{t+1} = E_t \left((1+r)b_t + b_{t+1} \right) = E_t \left(\frac{g}{a} v_{t+1} \right) = 0$$

Although holding a constant tax rate does achieve some insurance, it is not the optimal tax policy in the sense of being the best way of financing public expenditures so as to maximize expected utility across generations. There exists a tax policy which will remove all risk and thereby equalize consumption level for all generations. This can be accomplished by the following function

$$\tau(a) = \frac{g}{a_t} + \left(1 - \frac{E a_t}{a_t} \right) \quad (13)$$

It is easily verified that it implies that

$$a_t(1 - \tau(a_t)) = E a_t - g$$

and that

$$\text{Var}(a_t(1 - \tau(a_t))) = \text{Var}(E a_t - g) = 0$$

¹² A direct transfer scheme between generations would attain some diversification, see Gale (1988). However, this cannot be decentralized as a market outcome.

and this policy is moreover consistent with the budget constraint.

Notice that the optimal policy implies that the tax rate becomes progressive, i.e. is high when income is high and vice versa, i.e.

$$\frac{\partial \tau(a_t)}{\partial a_t} > 0$$

This provides an argument for a progressive taxation system which sensitivizes the public budget to the business cycle situation (moves thereby provides social insurance. It is also noted that the progressive size of the public sector as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial g} \left(\frac{\partial \tau(a_t)}{\partial a_t} \right) < 0$$

It is worth stressing that it is an implication of the optimal tax policy even if lump-sum taxation is feasible, it is not optimal to use this if it is unconditional and therefore achieves no diversification.

Having considered the optimal tax policy as given by (13) in the case of balanced budgets, it is natural to question the extent to which a budget imbalance affects the optimal level of public consumption. Budget deficits are as instrumental to the objective of reducing the relative size of public consumption to be of a type which cannot easily be changed (e.g. infrastructure etc.) and it is thus most preferable to consider public consumption before the state of nature is known. The optimal level of public consumption is determined by maximizing expected utility including the value of public goods in the budget regime (indexed by B) is determined by the condition

$$EU'(a_t - g_B) = s'(g_B)$$

while it under the optimal tax rule (13) (indexed by D) in the absence of a balance rule reads

$$U'(E a_t - g_D) = s'(g_D)$$

It follows that

$$g_D \underset{<}{\geq} g_B \quad \text{for } U''' \underset{<}{\geq} 0$$

This shows that the institutional rules on the mode of financing in the optimal level of public consumption even when the level of public consumption is decided before the veil of ignorance is lifted. It is in particular generally the case that the balanced budget regime delivers the lowest level of public consumption.

4. Endogenous Production

The preceding analysis disregarded the distortionary effects of taxation on the level of public consumption. This may be critical as the distortionary effects may inflict with the insurance effects in a non-trivial way. We consider in the present section by allowing for endogenous production

It is useful to start by considering in more detail how activity and consumption depend on the state of nature for a given tax rate. Next we consider the different financing rules.

Equilibrium employment can be written as a function of the state of nature variable a , ie (S)

$$l = e(\hat{a}) \quad \hat{a} \equiv a(1 - \tau(a)) \quad (14)$$

¹³ On the other hand - the positive effects of private incentives are neglected by assuming that all private decisions are contingent on a , see eg Sinn (1995).

and

$$\text{sign} \left(\frac{d\hat{a}}{d\pi} \right) = \text{sign}(1 - R_U) \quad R_U \equiv - \frac{U''(i)}{U'(i)}$$

To simplify the notation, the time index is suppressed. Note that relative risk aversion for the indirect utility function U . Attention where the labour supply function is upward sloping which follows if

$$R_U < \frac{1}{\gamma} ; \quad \gamma \equiv \frac{w l}{\pi + w l}$$

An upward sloping labour supply function and a linear production technology are sufficient conditions to ensure that equilibrium employment is

Using (14) we can summarize the utility of consumption and the disutility of labour at equilibrium as a function of \hat{a} (see appendix (ii)), i.e.

$$V(\hat{a}) \equiv \arg \max_l U(i) - v(l)$$

where (see appendix (ii))

$$V'(\hat{a}) = U' \cdot f > 0 \tag{15}$$

One important and surprising finding is that although the underlying functions are characterized by risk aversion, this does not generally affect the sign of the utility as

$$V''(\hat{a}) \begin{matrix} \geq \\ < \end{matrix} 0 \quad \text{for } R_U \begin{matrix} \geq \\ < \end{matrix} R_U^* = \frac{\hat{a} f' e'}{f + \hat{a} f' e'}$$

The reason is that the marginal utility of a given change in the product of the marginal utility of consumption and the production level (f). Hence, even if an increase in a increases consumption and thus lowers the marginal utility ($U'' < 0$), this may be counteracted by an increase in production

Balanced Budget

Consider first the case of a balanced budget regime where the tax-rate is such that the budget condition

$$\tau a f(e(a(1-\tau))) = g \quad (16)$$

implying that

$$\frac{\partial \tau}{\partial a} = - \frac{\tau f + \tau a^2 f' e' (1-\tau)}{a f - \tau a^2 f' e'} \geq 0$$

The tax rate may thus move pro- or countercyclically. Notice that a tax rate implies that the effects of variations in a are amplified and vice versa: pro-cyclically.

To see more clearly the effects at stake here, we start by noting that if $\frac{\partial \tau}{\partial a} > 0$, then the tax rate always moves counter-cyclical in a balanced budget regime. For the tax to move procyclically, it is necessary to induce such a large fall in employment that total income moves counter-cyclically. Clearly, this is an extreme case and the assumption that labour supply is perfectly elastic combined with a linear production technology is sufficient to rule it out.

Social Insurance

We shall prove that there always exists a budgetary system which dominates the balanced budget regime. Let $\tau(a)$ be the tax-function with constant budget, cf. (16). Consider then an alternative tax function

$$\tilde{\tau}(a) = \tau(a) + \epsilon \left(\frac{Ea}{a} - 1 \right)$$

Under this tax-function expected utility is

$$EV \left(a \left(1 - \tau(a) - \epsilon \left(\frac{Ea}{a} - 1 \right) \right) \right)$$

and it is easily proven that (see appendix)

$$\left. \frac{\partial EV}{\partial \epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=0} \neq 0 \quad \text{for } V'' \neq 0$$

That is, unless the indirect utility function is linear in \hat{a} , there exists a regime which yields higher expected utility than the balanced budget regime.

The direction in which deviations from the budget should go is seen from the fact that

$$\left. \frac{\partial EV}{\partial \epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=0} < 0 \quad \text{for } V'' < 0$$

That is, if there is risk aversion with respect to variations in \hat{a} , the balanced budget regime ($\epsilon = 0$) can be dominated by a regime which takes state in bad states of nature and vice versa, i.e.

$$\tilde{\tau}(a) \begin{matrix} \geq \\ < \end{matrix} \tau(a) \quad \text{for } a \begin{matrix} \geq \\ < \end{matrix} Ea$$

This means that there will be a budget deficit (surplus) in bad (good)

If the indirect utility function displays risk-aversion, we get that

$$\left. \frac{\partial EV}{\partial \epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=0} > 0 \quad \text{for } V'' > 0$$

and hence deviations from the balanced budget regime should go in making taxes move countercyclically, i.e.

$$\tilde{\tau}(a) \begin{matrix} \leq \\ > \end{matrix} \tau(a) \quad \text{for } a \begin{matrix} \geq \\ < \end{matrix} E a$$

which means that there will be a budget surplus (deficit) in bad (good)

Full Insurance

Even with endogenous production, it is possible to design a tax system that attains the level of public consumption g and at the same time attains full private consumption risk free. Consider the possibility of designing a

$$\hat{a} = a(1-\tau) = \kappa$$

where κ is the highest obtainable consumption which requires

$$\tau = 1 - \frac{\kappa}{a}$$

To check whether this can be consistent with budget balance on average, revenue in state a is

$$(a-\kappa)f(e(\kappa))$$

The expected value of which is

$$(Ea - \kappa) f(e(\kappa)) = g$$

Hence κ is defined by this relation and can be attained with full ce¹⁴

Optimal Taxation

Next we have to consider the optimal tax policy to see if it entails what extent it is influenced by the distortionary and insurance effect. The optimal tax-policy solves the following problem

$$\max_{\{\tau(a)\}} EV(a - a\tau(a)) \quad (17)$$

subject to

$$E aR(a, \tau(a)) = g \quad (18)$$

where

$$R(a, \tau(a)) \equiv \tau(a) f(e(\hat{a}))$$

that is, $R(a, \tau(a))$ denotes the revenue attained in state a for a tax rate $\tau(a)$.

The first-order condition to the problem given in (17) and (18) can

$$\frac{V'_a(a - a\tau(a))}{R'_\tau(a, \tau(a))} = \lambda \quad (19)$$

¹⁴ A solution exists provided g is not too large.

¹⁵ Notice that ex-ante the expected level of productivity is the same for all generations. This specification of a process for the shock implying a constant expected permanent time.

where λ is a Lagrange-multiplier associated with the constraint (18)

$$aR'_\tau(a, \tau(a)) = a[f(e(\hat{a})) + \tau(a)f'e'(\hat{a})(-a)]$$

Note that R'_τ is the marginal revenue effect of changing the tax rate :

$$aR'_\tau(a, \tau(a)) < af(e(\hat{a})) \quad \text{for } e' > 0$$

which reflects the distortionary effects of taxes.

For two different states of nature, we find from (19) that the optimal policy implies

$$\frac{V'_a(a_1 - a_1 \tau(a_2))}{R'_\tau(a_1, \tau(a_1))} = \frac{V'_a(a_2 - a_2 \tau(a_2))}{R'_\tau(a_2, \tau(a_2))} \quad (20)$$

Condition (20) says that the optimal tax structure ensures that the private consumption relative to the "marginal tax revenue" must be equal in nature.

Full insurance requires that

$$a_1 - a_1 \tau(a_1) = a_2 - \tau_2(a_2) \quad \forall a_1, a_2 (a_1 \neq a_2)$$

That full insurance is not in general implied by the optimal tax structure from (20) as it would require that $R'_\tau(a_1, \tau(a_1)) = R'_\tau(a_2, \tau(a_2)) \quad \forall a_1, a_2 (a_1 \neq a_2)$. A

condition which

is not generally fulfilled.

Notice that in the case where taxes are non-distortionary, it follows that $R'_\tau(a_1, \tau(a)) = f(e(\hat{a}))$ and hence full insurance is optimal. Notice, that this

with the finding in section 3 where production was exogenously given, taxation therefore by assumption did not have any distortionary effects.

Hence, when taxes are distortionary, it is not optimal via the public health insurance although it is a feasible option.

To consider in more detail the properties of the optimal tax policy, that sufficient conditions for procyclical tax rates (progressive taxes)

$$\frac{\partial \tau(a)}{\partial a} > 0$$

are that (i) agents are risk averse, (ii) tax-distortions are increasing in the tax rate ($R_{\tau\tau}'' < 0$) and (iii) the tax-distortion is lower in good states of nature ($R_{\tau a}'' < 0$).

According to the "tax-smoothing" principle, the optimal policy is a constant tax rate (Barro (1979)). This result takes into account only the distortionary effects of taxation. By also including the insurance effects of taxation, we find that a constant tax rate is in general not optimal although it is optimal relative to the balanced budget case without health insurance. Under plausible assumptions the optimal tax rate is procyclical.

Notice that even in the case where agents effectively are risk-neutral, the optimal tax policy is not a constant tax rate as

$$\text{sign} \left(\frac{\partial \tau}{\partial a} \right) \Big|_{V''=0} = - \text{sign} \left(\frac{R_{\tau a}''}{R_{\tau\tau}''} \right)$$

¹⁶ In Andersen and Døgnowski (1998) we show that an explicit modelling of tax distortions and intertemporal substitution in labour supply does not support a constant tax rate as in Barro (1979).

Hence only if the distortionary effects of taxation are independent of the state of nature does it follow that the optimal policy is a constant tax rate.

Finally, it should be pointed out that even by allowing for lump-sum taxes, it is not optimal to fully finance public expenditures by this non-distortionary method (see appendix iv)). This shows that the insurance effect at the margin in fact outweighs the distortions of income taxation.

Macroeconomic Stability

The financing regime for public expenditures has implications for macroeconomic volatility. For output we find

$$\epsilon_{ya} = 1 + \eta_y \epsilon_{\hat{a},a}$$

where

$$\epsilon_{xy} \equiv \frac{\partial x}{\partial y} \frac{y}{x}$$

$$\eta_y \equiv f' e' \frac{\hat{a}}{f}$$

We find that output is more sensitive to the state of nature under the optimal tax structure (indexed by B) than under the optimal tax structure (indexed by D)

$$\epsilon_{ya|B} > \epsilon_{ya|D}$$

¹⁷ See Röell and Sussman (1997) for a case where taxes provide implicit insurance, but the optimal tax structure is not stabilizing.

if $e' > 0$ (output and employment is increasing in the state of nature) optimal taxes are non regressive. This is consistent with the empirical findings of Gali (1994). As should be expected, this also lowers the sensitivity

$$\epsilon_{ca|B} > \epsilon_{ca|D}$$

It is also easily verified that both private and public net-savings are variables in this case. This implies that the trade balance moves procyclically in accordance with stylized empirical facts (see eg Backus and Kehoe).

Optimal Public Consumption

Finally we consider the optimal level of public consumption under a lump-sum (g) rule and under the optimal tax rule. As for the case with exogenous production, we find that there is no unambiguous relation between the two. (see appendix (vii)), ie

$$g_D \begin{matrix} > \\ < \end{matrix} g_B$$

It may surprise that public consumption is not generally larger in the regime as the budget balance restriction is lifted. Although this effect has an opposite effect from the fact that providing insurance may increase the marginal value of private consumption.

5. Concluding Remarks

Policy restrictions on public deficits means limitations on the possibilities to use international capital markets for intertemporal smoothing. This is with the insurance or stabilizing effects of "automatic stabilizers" in the public budgets.¹⁸⁾

¹⁸⁾ In a European perspective the insurance or stabilizing aspects of the public budget are important as there is no federal budget to compensate for the loss of fiscal flexibility in member states.

Solving for the optimal tax policy we find that it is under plausible assumptions both the tax rate (progressive taxation) and the primary public budget and moreover this also produces macroeconomic stability.

This insurance argument relies on a capital market imperfection implying that the private sector has diversification possibilities to aggregate shocks which are not feasible in the private sector. While this possibility easily arises in an economy with an operative bequest motive, we think of this as an interesting modelling aspect which goes beyond the specificities of intergenerational diversification of shocks.

The present analysis has not dealt with the political decision process which may influence debt policy and lead to a deficit bias (see eg Alesina and Wacziarg 2007). The present argument that there are welfare gains from allowing public budget imbalances suggests that there is a traditional rules vs. discretion problem to the extent that there is a political deficit bias (see eg Corsetti and

Appendix

(i) Equilibrium Employment

Using the conditions determining labour supply and demand (3), (4), equilibrium employment from the relation

$$(1-\tau)af'(l)U'(1-\tau)af(l) - v'(l) = 0 \quad (\text{A-1})$$

This gives equilibrium employment as an implicit function of \hat{a}

$$l = e(\hat{a})$$

Differentiation of (A-1) yields

$$e'(\hat{a}) = \frac{\frac{1}{\hat{a}}(R_U - 1)}{\frac{f''l}{f'} - R_U\gamma + R_v}$$

where

$$\gamma \equiv \frac{wl}{\pi + wl}, \quad R_v \equiv \frac{-v''(l)l}{v'(l)}, \quad R_U \equiv \frac{-U''(1)l}{U'(1)}$$

From the second order condition to the household optimization problem

$$-R_U\gamma + R_v < 0$$

Hence, given that $f'' < 0$, it follows that

$$\text{sign}(e'(\hat{a})) = \text{sign}(1 - R_U)$$

From the labour supply function (3), we find

$$\frac{\partial l}{\partial w} = \frac{\frac{1}{w}(1 - R_U\gamma)}{R_U\gamma - R_v}$$

For labour supply to be increasing in the wage rate, we require

$$R_U < \frac{1}{\gamma}$$

(ii) The Indirect Utility Function $V(\hat{a})$

Since

$$i = (1-\tau)(\pi + w l) = (1-\tau)af(l)$$

and

$$l = e(\hat{a})$$

we can write the sum of utility of consumption and disutility of lab

$$V(\hat{a}) \equiv U(\hat{a}f(e(\hat{a}))) - v(e(\hat{a}))$$

We find by use of the first order condition (3) that

$$V'(\hat{a}) = U'f$$

and

$$V''(\hat{a}) \equiv U''f^2 + f'e'U'(1-R_U)$$

We have that $V''(\hat{a}) < 0$ if

$$U''f + f'e'U'(1-R_U) < 0$$

or

$$-R_U \frac{f}{\hat{a}} + f'e'(1-R_U) < 0$$

which can be rewritten

$$R_U > \frac{\hat{a}f'e'}{f + \hat{a}f'e'} \equiv R_U^*$$

Similarly, $V'' > 0$ if

$$R_U < R_U^*$$

(iii) Derivation of Expected Utility wrt

We have that

$$\frac{\partial \text{EV} \left(a \left(1 - \tau(a) - \epsilon \left(\frac{Ea}{a} - 1 \right) \right) \right)}{\partial \epsilon} = \text{EV}' \left(a \left(1 - \tau(a) - \epsilon \left(\frac{Ea}{a} - 1 \right) \right) \right) \left(- \left(\frac{Ea}{a} - 1 \right) \right)$$

and hence

$$\left. \frac{\partial \text{EV} \left(a \left(1 - \tau(a) - \left(\frac{Ea}{a} - 1 \right) \right) \right)}{\partial \epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=0} = \text{EV}'(a(1 - \tau(a))) \left(- \left(\frac{Ea}{a} - 1 \right) \right)$$

Next we shall prove that $\left. \frac{\partial \text{EV}}{\partial \epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=0} < 0$ for $V'' < 0$.

By the symmetry of the density function h around the mean Ea , it follows for which λ and $Ea + \lambda$ belong to the support of $h(a)$ that

$$h(Ea - \lambda) = h(Ea + \lambda) \quad \forall \lambda \in [0, \bar{\lambda}]$$

As $V'' < 0$ we have

$$V'((Ea - \lambda)(1 - \tau(Ea - \lambda))) > V'((Ea + \lambda)(1 - \tau(Ea + \lambda)))$$

or

$$V'((Ea - \lambda)(1 - \tau(Ea - \lambda)))h(Ea - \lambda)(-\lambda) < V'((Ea + \lambda)(1 - \tau(Ea + \lambda)))h(Ea + \lambda)(-$$

Hence,

$$V'((Ea - \lambda)(1 - \tau(Ea - \lambda)))h(Ea - \lambda)(-\lambda) + V'((Ea + \lambda)(1 - \tau(Ea + \lambda)))h(Ea + \lambda)(\lambda) < 0$$

from which it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} & EV' \left(a(1 - \tau(a)) \right) (-Ea - a) \\ &= \int_0^{\bar{\lambda}} \left[V'((Ea - \lambda)(1 - \tau(Ea - \lambda)))h(Ea - \lambda) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + V'((Ea + \lambda)(1 - \tau(Ea + \lambda)))h(Ea + \lambda) \right] < 0 \end{aligned}$$

Using the same procedure, it can be proved that

$$\frac{\partial EV' \left(a \left(1 - \tau(a) - \epsilon \left(\frac{Ea}{a} - 1 \right) \right) \right)}{\partial \epsilon} \Bigg|_{\epsilon=0} > 0 \quad \text{for } V'' > 0$$

(iv) Progression of the Optimal Tax System with Endogenous Productive

The first order condition characterizing the optimal tax system read

$$V'_a(a - a\tau(a)) = \lambda R'_\tau(a, \tau(a))$$

when transformed by log

$$\log V'_a(a - a\tau(a)) = \log \lambda + \log R'_\tau(a, \tau(a))$$

where $\log \lambda$ is fixed.

We take the derivative with respect to a and get

$$\frac{V''_{\hat{a}\hat{a}} \left(1 - \tau - a \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial a} \right)}{V'_{\hat{a}}} = \frac{1}{R'_\tau} \left\{ R''_{\tau a} + R''_{\tau, \tau} \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial a} \right\}$$

If we solve $\frac{\partial \tau}{\partial a}$ for, we get

$$\frac{\partial \tau}{\partial a} = \frac{\frac{V''_{\hat{a}\hat{a}}}{V'_{\hat{a}}} (1 - \tau) - \frac{R''_{\tau a}}{R'_\tau}}{\frac{R''_{\tau\tau}}{R'_\tau} + \frac{V''_{\hat{a}\hat{a}}}{V'_{\hat{a}}} a}$$

If risk averse (convex), $R''_{\tau a} > 0$ and $R''_{\tau\tau} < 0$, then $\frac{\partial \tau}{\partial a} > 0$.

If risk neutral (linear) then $\text{sign} \left(\frac{\partial \tau}{\partial a} \right) = - \text{sign} \left(\frac{R''_{\tau a}}{R''_{\tau\tau}} \right)$

If risk seeking (concave), then the $\left(\frac{\partial \tau}{\partial a} \right)$ sign is ambiguous.

(v) Risk Neutrality and a Constant Tax Rate

The optimal tax system is given by

$$\lambda = \frac{V'(\hat{a})}{R_\tau(\hat{a}, \tau)} = \frac{U'f}{f - \tau f'e'/a} = \frac{U'}{1 - \frac{\tau}{1-\tau} \frac{e'\hat{a}}{a}}$$

Sufficient conditions for a constant optimal tax rate are that i) f has a constant elasticity wrt e , and iii) the employment function e has an elasticity independent of a .

The employment elasticity is given as

$$\frac{\partial e}{\partial \hat{a}} \frac{\hat{a}}{e} = \frac{-1}{\frac{f''e}{f'} + R_v}$$

and for this to be independent of a it is required that f has a constant elasticity wrt e and R_v is independent of a . This will be the case if v belongs to the CR

(vi) Non-optimality of Pure Lump-sum Taxation

If we introduce a lump-sum tax T , the problem for the optimal tax system is

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{T, \tau} & E[V(a(1-\tau), T)] \\ \text{s.t.} & g = E[a\tau H(a(1-\tau), T) + T] \end{aligned}$$

where

$$H(a(1-\tau), T) = f(e(a(1-\tau), T))$$

The first order conditions for the optimal choice of

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{V_1'(a(1-\tau), T)}{H(a(1-\tau), T) - a\tau H_1'(a(1-\tau), T)} \quad (B-1)$$

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{-E[V_1'(a(1-\tau), T)]}{E[a\tau H_2'(a(1-\tau), T) + 1]} \quad (B-2)$$

where λ is the Lagrange multiplier to the problem.

We will show that this is inconsistent with the conditions (B-1) and (B-2) optimal tax structure.

The first order condition for optimal labour supply requires condition (B-1) = $U'(i)$, where income $i = f(e(a, T)) - T = i(a, T)$ is a function of a , and therefore not constant for all possible values of a , as required.

So we have a contradiction, pure lump-sum taxation is not optimal.

(vii) The Optimal Level of Public Consumption with Endogenous Production

When solving for the optimal public consumption (and the optimal tax regime (indexed by D) the problem reads

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{g, \tau} & E[V(a(1-\tau))] + s(g) \\ \text{st } & g = E[aR(a, \tau)] \end{aligned}$$

The shadow price of one extra unit of the public good in terms of utility of the household may be expressed as

$$\lambda_D = \frac{E[aV'(a(1-\tau^D))]}{E[aR_\tau(a,\tau^D)]}$$

For the balanced budget regime (indexed by B) the problem reads

$$\begin{aligned} \max_g E[V(a(1-\tau^B))] + s(g) \\ \text{st } g = aR(a,\tau^B) \end{aligned}$$

and the shadow price reads

$$\lambda_B = E \left[\frac{aV'(a(1-\tau^B))}{aR_\tau(a,\tau^B)} \right]$$

We will next identify the condition for

We know that $g(g) = \lambda$ in an optimum such that

$$g_D \underset{<}{\overset{>}{>}} g_B \quad \text{for } \lambda_D \underset{>}{\overset{<}{<}} \lambda_B$$

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