

# **Plenary Session V:**

# **Microsimulation methodology**

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# MDG 1 is part of our analysis

- MDG 1: half the population leaving with less than a \$1 per day between 1990 and 2015 (or according to national poverty lines – or more ambitious goals)
- For all MDGs (1, 2, 4, 5, 7a and 7b) MAMS generates an indicator
  - For MDG 1 simply the headcount ratio depending on a per-capita income elasticity
  - For all other MDG indicators scenarios are defined to scaled up public spending to reach the 2015 targets
  - MDG 1 is generated in all scenarios as a result of general equilibrium effects affecting:
    - simply per-capita income or
    - a more comprehensive set of labour-market variables

# Why do we need a microsimulation methodology?

- A typical CGE model is composed of groups of representative households and representative workers
  - Only between-group income distribution
  - Omits within-group income distribution
    - can influence poverty outcomes notably
  - And, even if we have the detail on within-group income distribution: how do we know which workers are more likely to change position in the labour market?
    - E.g.: if, as a result of a policy simulation, the unemployment rate increases: Who is expected to lose her/his job?
- How can this methodological limitation be overcome?

# Three alternative approaches (1)

- 1. Use distribution function in CGE model:
  - A distribution curve is assumed for each group (e.g., Beta-Lorenz)
    - defines within-group distribution
    - enables simulation of shifts in distribution curve and how these affect poverty
  - Limitation: we still do not know who will move in the distribution and where to.
    - that is, we assume a stable, unchanged within-group distribution (fixed shape of distribution curve)

# Three alternative approaches (2)

## 2. Two types of top-down approaches:

- Top-down

- CGE simulation results are taken and applied to the full distribution as given by a micro data set (i.e., the household survey)
- Assumption: there are no further feedback effects

- Modelling labour market adjustment:

- **2.A: Household income generation model:** system of equations that determine occupational choice, returns to labour and human capital, consumer prices and other household (individual) income components (Bourguignon et al.).
- **2.B: Occupational shifts proxied by a random selection procedure within a segmented labour-market structure** (Paes de Barros et al.)

# Modelling of the labour market

- The two methods (2A and 2B) define total per capita household income as follows:

$$ypc_h = \frac{1}{n_h} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{n_h} yp_{hi} + yq_h \right]$$

where:

- $n_h$  = size of household  $h$ ,
- $yp_{hi}$  = labour income of member  $i$  of household  $h$ ,
- $yq_h$  = sum of all non-labour incomes of the household

# Modelling of the labour market

- Focuses on the effects of changes in employment and labour income. Non-labour incomes ( $yq_h$ ) are assumed to be constant.
- **Bourguignon et al:**
  - Labour income  $Y_p = f(O; S, E, X)$
  - Probability of being employed  $O = f(S, E, X)$
  - Probability of participating  $P = f(X, Z)$

O = type of occupation (sector)  
S = level of education (education)  
E = age (labour-market experience)  
X = individual characteristics, socio-demographic  
Z = household characteristics

# Modelling of the labour market (Bourguignon)

- Micro-simulations:
  - CGE results for “representative” labour categories
  - Probabilities (parameters) from labour supply and remuneration functions are used to simulate:
    - who has larger probability to move in the labour market
      - from one sector to another
      - between categories of workers
    - And given that: how new levels of remuneration are distributed



# Modelling of the labour market

- Paes de Barros, Ganuza and Vos (2002)
  - Segmented labour market approach
  - No actual modelling (non-parametric approach)
  - Assumes **random** labour market adjustment processes

# Modelling of the labour market (Paes de Barros et al.)

- The labour market structure  $\lambda$  is a function of the following parameters:

$$\lambda = \lambda (P, U, S, O, W_1, W_2, M)$$

- $P$  - participation rates for labour type  $j$
  - $U$  - unemployment rate for labour type  $j$
  - $S$  - employment structure by production sector
  - $O$  - employment structure by occupational category
  - $W_1$  – remuneration structure by sector
  - $W_2$  – overall average remuneration
  - $M$  - composition of employment by skill level
- 
- Labour type  $j$  is defined by sex and skills
  - Segments  $k$  are defined based on economic sector and occupational category

# Classification of population in working age

		Men		Women	
		Skilled	Unskilled	Skilled	Unskilled
Active	Employed				
	Un-employed				
Inactive					

# Classification of employed population (EXAMPLE = 16 labour categories)

		Men		Women	
		Skilled	Unskilled	Skilled	Unskilled
Tradables sector	Wage				
	Non-wage				
Non-tradables sector	Wage				
	Non-wage				

# Paes de Barros method

## Basic approach:

- Changes in the parameters of the labour market result in a new labour market structure  $\lambda^*$

## Alternative applications:

- “*Before or after approach*”: a counterfactual labour market structure is defined according to micro data from a previous or posterior year
- “*Top-down approach*”, the counterfactual labour market structure is derived from a macro model, i.e., a CGE model

# Paes de Barros method

## How does it work?

- A random number is assigned to each person at working age
- Population at working age is ordered according to:
  - activity condition (active versus inactive),
  - economic sector,
  - occupational category and
  - education level, and...
  - ... within “segments”, according to random numbers
- Income (YPI) is assigned to all those individuals who, according to  $\lambda^*$ , become employed, or change their occupational position and/or level of education
- Income of all those individuals that become unemployed or inactive are set equal to zero

# Example: effect of a change in the unemployment rate of skilled men workers (N=100)

		Simulation 1		Simulation 2		
	N	Un-employment rate falls to 6%	Simulated	Un-employment rate increases to 12%	Simulated	
Employed	90	Unchanged	90	↓ The last 2 employed become unemployed ↓ ↓ ↓	88	Employed
		↑ The first 4 unemployed become employed ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑	4		2	
Un-employed	10			6	Unchanged	10

# Paes de Barros method

- Same procedure as for shifts between employed and unemployed (U) for shifts by labour category (O) and sector (S)
- To simulate changes in  $W_1$  all YPIs within each of the 16 labour categories are multiplied by an adjustment factor, maintaining the overall average wage/labour income level fixed
- To simulate changes in  $W_2$  all YPIs are multiplied by an adjustment factor such that the overall average labour income level is adjusted in accordance with the average wage increase derived from the counterfactual scenario



# Paes de Barros method

## Final steps

- Based on the simulated YPIs the new total per capita household incomes (YPC) are computed obtaining a new, counterfactual income distribution
- New inequality indicators (for YPI and YPC), using alternative measures (Gini, Theil, entropy), and poverty indicators (for alternative poverty lines) are computed

# Paes de Barros method

## Key assumptions:

- We do not need a full model of the labour market
  - there are only “segments”, but individuals can move from one “segment” to another under certain restrictions (sex, skilled level, and so on)
- A randomized process is applied to simulate the effects of changes in the labour-market structure
  - It assumes that, on average, the effect of the random changes correctly reflects the impact of the actual changes in the labour market
- Because of the introduction of a process of random assignation, the micro-simulations are repeated a large number of times in **Monte Carlo fashion** → this allows constructing 95 per cent confidence intervals for the indices of inequality and poverty

# Paes de Barros method

- In summary:
  - From CGE model, changes in the labour market structure are applied (individually or sequentially) to micro data, affecting the overall income distribution:

$$\lambda^* = \lambda^*(P^*, U^*, S^*, O^*, W^*_1, W^*_2, M^*)$$

- Who moves? Determined through a random process which generates a new income distribution
- Micro-simulations are repeated many times in Monte Carlo fashion to compute confidence intervals for inequality and poverty indicators that are statistically significant

# Paes de Barros method

## Advantages:

- Enables to analyse the impact of a wide range of labour-market parameters, individually or sequentially
- Shows separate and combined effects of each type of labour market shift (e.g. Unemployment change, wage change, etc.) on poverty and inequality outcomes
- It does not demand econometric estimation

## Possible disadvantages:

- Behaviour is not modelled
- Results in sequential application may depend on the order in which the sequence of labour-market parameter changes is applied (“path dependence”)

# Paes de Barros method

- Static micro-simulations: as explained earlier
- “Dynamic” micro-simulations:
  - a number of additional, restrictive assumptions are required as observed survey data may only be available for the base year and perhaps a few years beyond that, but **certainly not** for the forward simulation period.
  - CGE outcomes (deviations from base year for any given simulation year) are imposed on base year household survey data

# Paes de Barros method

- Dynamic micro-simulations:
  - beyond the base year and for lack of additional modelling of demographic shifts and labour participation, it is assumed that no changes in the population structure (such as migration or population ageing) take place during the simulation period.
  - hence, only one household survey is used, to which labour market structures for  $t$  periods are imposed
  - obvious limitation of the methodology, but justifiable to the extent that the CGE model does not consider such demographic changes either.

## **Real GDP growth and labour-market, poverty and inequality results in a baseline scenario for Costa Rica**

	2008	2010	2012
Real GDP (at factor cost)	2.6	2.2	4.4
Total unemployment rate (%)	6.0	5.9	5.9
Employment (in thousands of workers)	1,958	2,035	2,115
Labour income per worker	239,984	242,083	254,820
Total poverty incidence (% of population)	20.7	19.5	16.5
Extreme poverty incidence (% of population)	4.3	4.1	3.6
Gini coefficient for labour income	0.461	0.456	0.447
Gini coefficient for per-capita household income	0.497	0.49	0.478

Source: CGE model and microsimulation results for Costa Rica.

## Real labour income of workers by skill, sex and occupational category

	Real labour income per worker ( <i>colones</i> )			Relative remuneration ( $W_I$ ) <sup>1/</sup>		
	2008	2010	2012	2008	2010	2012
Unskilled female workers						
Wage earners	167,077	165,631	167,821	0.696	0.684	0.659
Non-wage earners	44,021	44,820	47,644	0.183	0.185	0.187
Unskilled male workers						
Wage earners	243,219	258,632	293,963	1.013	1.068	1.154
Non-wage earners	160,052	166,719	190,108	0.667	0.689	0.746
Skilled female workers						
Wage earners	396,095	388,726	389,430	1.651	1.606	1.528
Non-wage earners	90,935	84,048	81,142	0.379	0.347	0.318
Skilled male workers						
Wage earners	390,806	383,148	384,967	1.628	1.583	1.511
Non-wage earners	165,769	155,686	158,703	0.691	0.643	0.623
Average labour income economy	239,984	242,083	254,820	1.000	1.000	1.000

<sup>1/</sup> Changes in relative remuneration are similar across sector of activity.

Source: Baseline estimates of CGE model for Costa Rica.



## Sequential and cumulative effects for changes in the labour-market parameters for the baseline scenario for Costa Rica

	Total poverty incidence (% of population)	Extreme poverty incidence (% of population)	Gini coefficient for labour income	Gini coefficient for per-capita household income
<b>2008</b>				
<i>U</i>	20.7	4.3	0.461	0.497
<i>U+S</i>	20.7	4.3	0.461	0.497
<i>U+S+O</i>	20.7	4.3	0.461	0.497
<i>U+S+O+W<sub>1</sub></i>	20.7	4.3	0.461	0.497
<i>U+S+O+W<sub>1</sub>+W<sub>2</sub></i>	20.7	4.3	0.461	0.497
<i>U+S+O+W<sub>1</sub>+W<sub>2</sub>+M</i>	20.7	4.3	0.461	0.497
<b>2010</b>				
<i>U</i>	20.6	4.3	0.461	0.497
<i>U+S</i>	20.6	4.3	0.461	0.497
<i>U+S+O</i>	20.6	4.3	0.461	0.497
<i>U+S+O+W<sub>1</sub></i>	19.8	4.1	0.456	0.491
<i>U+S+O+W<sub>1</sub>+W<sub>2</sub></i>	19.6	4.1	0.456	0.491
<i>U+S+O+W<sub>1</sub>+W<sub>2</sub>+M</i>	19.5	4.1	0.456	0.49
<b>2012</b>				
<i>U</i>	20.5	4.2	0.461	0.497
<i>U+S</i>	20.5	4.2	0.461	0.497
<i>U+S+O</i>	20.4	4.2	0.461	0.496
<i>U+S+O+W<sub>1</sub></i>	18.1	3.8	0.447	0.479
<i>U+S+O+W<sub>1</sub>+W<sub>2</sub></i>	16.6	3.6	0.447	0.479
<i>U+S+O+W<sub>1</sub>+W<sub>2</sub>+M</i>	16.5	3.6	0.447	0.478

Source: CGE model and microsimulation results for Costa Rica.

# References:

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