

The Skill Composition of Migration and the generosity of the Welfare state

by

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Abstract

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~~Implications of the Skill~~ and Composition of Migration for the Generosity of the Welfare State

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1 Introduction

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In Cohen and Razin (2008) voters make decisions on migration policy. Specifically, they choose which skill-type of migrants to admit in the policy-controlled migration regime. That is, they choose the skill composition of migrants. We then ask how the generosity of the welfare state, taking as an exogenous variable, affect their decisions. We find that in free migration regimes, there is a clear negative effect of welfare-state benefits on the skill composition of immigrants in the host country, whereas within policy-controlled migration regime, this effect is set off by the migration screening policy of the host country. In this chapter, we adopt, in essence, the inverse approach. Specifically, we let the voters choose the generosity of the welfare state and investigate how the skill composition of migration, taking as an exogenous variable, affect their decisions.¹

¹A similar approach is taken by Razin, Sadka, and Swagel (2002), but they restrict their attention to the volume of migration rather than the skill composition. They

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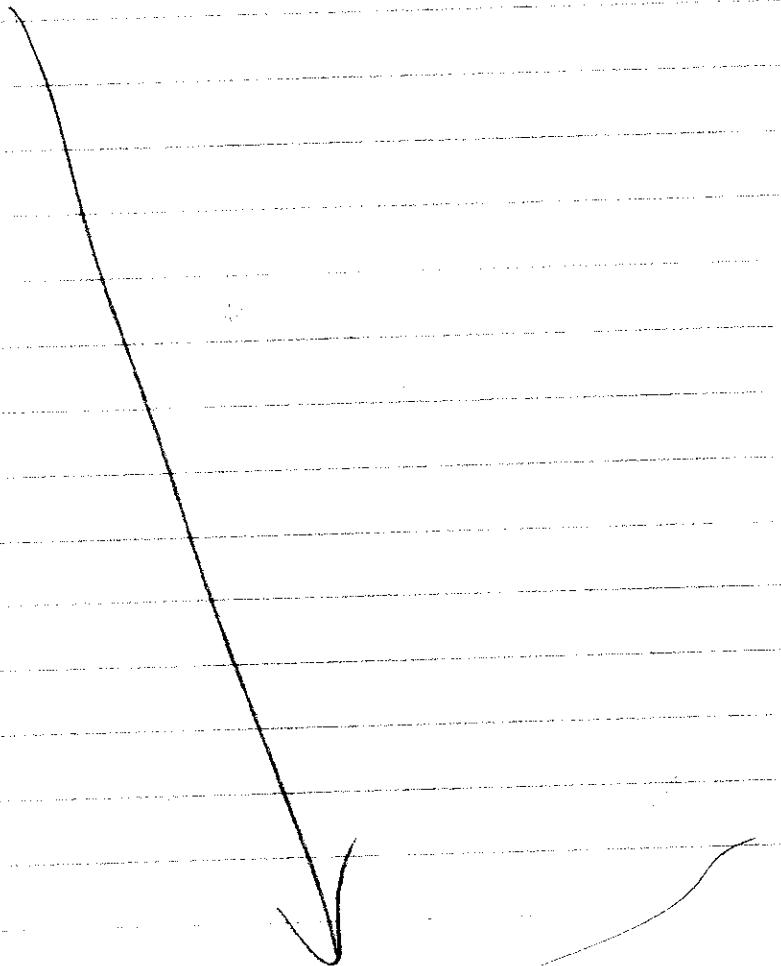
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Migration

Skilled migrants are typically contributors to the welfare state (in tax payments) more than they receive from it. The opposite is true in the case of unskilled migrants who are typically impose a net fiscal burden on the welfare state.



(1b)

(2)

~~Europe, both "old" and "new", faces also a severe aging problem. This shakes the financial soundness of the welfare state, especially its old-age security and medical health components, because there are fewer workers asked to support increasing numbers of retirees (that is, the dependency ratio rises).¹ As put metaphorically by the Economist (March 15th, 2003, 80): "the fiscal burden on the diminishing number of worker-bees will rise as more people turn into pensioner drops."~~ Note that migration of young workers (as distinct from retirees), even when driven in by the generosity of the welfare state, slows down the trend of increasing dependency ratio. However, intuition suggests that even though low-skill migration improves the dependency ratio, it nevertheless burdens the welfare state.² This is because low-skill migrants are typically net beneficiaries of a generous welfare state. Indeed, in 1997 the U.S. National Research Council sponsored a study on the overall fiscal impact of immigration into the U.S.; see Smith and Edmonston (1997).³ The study looks carefully at all layers of government (federal, state, and local), all programs (benefits), and all types of taxes. For each cohort, defined by age of arrival to the U.S., the benefits (cash or in-kind) received by migrants over their own lifetimes and the lifetimes of their first-generation descendants were projected. These benefits include Medicare, Medicaid, Supplementary Security Income (SSI), Aid for Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), food stamps, Old Age, Survivors, and Disability Insurance (OASDI), etc. Similarly, taxes paid directly by migrants and the incidence on migrants of other taxes (such as corporate taxes) were also projected for the lifetimes of the migrants and their first-generation descendants. Accordingly, the net fiscal burden was projected and discounted to the present. In this way, the net fiscal burden for each age cohort of migrants was calculated in present value terms. Within each age cohort, these calculations were disaggregated according to three educational levels: less than high school education, high school education, and more than high school education. The findings suggest that migrants with less than high school education are typically a

1 In Razin and Sadka (forthcoming) we provide a political-economy analysis of the effect of this aging on the welfare state.

2 Simon (1984) is one of the first studies that brought out this argument.

3 Responding to concerns in the U.S. (with foreign-born population of roughly 11.5 percent) about the effect of immigration on the economic prospects of native-born, Congress in 1990 appointed a bipartisan Commission on Immigration Reform to review the nation's policies and laws and to recommend changes. In turn, in 1995 the commission asked the National Research Council to convene a panel of experts to assess the demographic, economic, and fiscal consequences of immigration.

net fiscal burden that can reach as high as approximately US-\$100,000 in present value, when the migrants' age on arrival is between 20–30 years.¹¹

Similarly, a comprehensive study by the Ifo Institute estimated the flows of state benefits to the stock of immigrants in Germany in 1997. Account was taken of taxes, contributions, pensions, welfare benefits as well as all indirect benefits from so-called public goods; see Sinn et al (2001).¹² The findings suggest, for instance, that a migrant family with three children that came to Germany in 1997 and stays there for ten years, receives a net benefit totalling about EUR 120,000.

Indeed, typically the net fiscal effect of the unskilled migrating generation is usually negative. However, in evaluating benefits of low-skill migration to the current (as well as the future) native-born population, it is important to assess the very long-term effect of this migration on the fiscal system. One has to take into account the infinite horizon of the economy, as distinct from the finite lives of its individuals. When the migrants' descendants gradually integrate into the economy, the current native-born population (both workers and retirees), as well as all future generation, may well gain from low-skill migration.⁶

2 The infinite-horizon argument

We present, briefly, the gist of the infinite-horizon argument, as developed in Razin and Sadka (1999). Consider an overlapping-generations model, where each generation lives for two periods.⁷ In each period a new generation with a continuum of individuals is born. Each individual possesses a one unit of labor-schooling time endowment in the first period when young. There is a pay-as-you-go (PAYG) pension system, which employs payroll taxes (at a flat rate t) on the working young in order to finance a uniform benefit (b) to the aged.

¹¹* See also Auerbach and Oreopoulos (1999) for a further analysis of these findings. Storesletten (2000) calibrated a general-equilibrium, overlapping generations model to capture the effects of inflows of working-age immigrants to the U.S. on the fiscal system, taking into account changes in factor prices.

¹²* The findings are also summarized in Table 1 of Sinn (forthcoming). Obviously, pure public goods, such as defense, are not included in the calculations, because immigrants consumption of these services of these goods do not reduce consumption of native born.

⁶ This point was independently shown in Razin and Sadka (1999) and Sinn (2001).

⁷ We sketch here only the backbones of the analytical framework behind the infinite-horizon argument. A detailed derivation of equations (1)-(4) is contained in Razin and Sadka (1999).

On the other hand, a young migrants, aged approximately 20 years on arrival, with more than high-school education, is expected to make a positive net fiscal contribution of approximately \$300,000 in present values.

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~~1e~~

The aforementioned findings suggest that a host country is likely to boost its welfare system when ~~receiv~~ absorbing high-skill migration,²¹ and curtail it when absorbing low-skill migration. This is indeed the hypothesis that is studied in this paper. We first develop a parsimonious model of skill and low-skill ~~and~~ in which the extent of the welfare state is determined by majority voting. We then study how the skill composition of a given migration volume affects the politico-economic equilibrium level of the welfare state. Indeed, the parsimonious model confirms this hypothesis.

²¹ For a comprehensive survey of the economic consequences of migration see for instance, Hanson (2008).

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(b) (c)

on the effect of migration on the generosity of the welfare state.

We then turn to study some evidence. In

doing so we have to deal with some ^{serious} endogeneity problems. Note that migrants may indeed

affect the generosity of welfare state, as our

model suggests, but this generosity itself may

affect the skill composition of migration, as

in Cohn and Razin (2008). To overcome

the endogeneity problem, we adopt a twofold

identification strategy. First, we employ two commonly used in gravity models instruments - whether or not the host country shares a common language and the distance between them - as proxies for the

and low-skill migration. Second, we select a sample of countries within which there is free migration. OLS estimates for the effect of the

Cohn and
Razin (2008), An
as shown

if

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generosity of the welfare state on skilled migration
is biased upward and the corresponding estimate
in a regime of free migration.
for unskilled migration is biased downward. The
opposite holds true in the case where the skill
composition of migrants is controlled by the
host country. Therefore, we chose a sample
consisting only of one regime, - the free
migration.

The organization of the paper is as
follows. The next section describes the
analytical framework. Section 3 provides the
evidence. Section 4 concludes.

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In this paper we address skilled migrants typically contribute to the welfare state more than they draw in benefits from it. The opposite holds for unskilled migrants. This suggests that a host country is likely to boost (or respectively curtail) its welfare system when absorbing high-skill (respectively low-skill) migration. In this paper we examine this hypothesisⁱⁿ a politico-economic setup, and provides evi We then confront the predictions of the theory with evidence. In doing so, we reckon with the endogeneity issue problem that arises ^{an} the skill composition of ^{is itself} because migration itself affected by the generosity of the welfare state.

(2)

Recall that migration has strong fiscal implications for the welfare state. It brings into the welfare state both net fiscal contributors (skilled migrants) and net fiscal consumers (unskilled migrants). As a result, migration can affect the appetite of the native-born towards redistribution. Arguably, as the skill composition of immigrants decreases, the fiscal leakage to the new comers increases (at the expense of the domestic). This induces a reduction of the welfare-state benefits (see Razin, Sadka and Swagel (2002)). This hypothesis embodies an assumption that all immigrants are as eligible to welfare-state benefits as the domestic citizens. However, it is not necessarily the case in countries wherein immigration is restricted. One way to regulate and restrict migration is by denying access to the welfare benefits of the host country. EU countries specifically favor their domestic and EU-originated migrants over non-EU-originated migrants - within the labor markets (Brucker et al. (2002)). Possibly, denying welfare eligibility is also a possibility to control migration (see Sinn (2004)). In this case, a low composition of skills among immigrants, who may not be eligible to all welfare benefits, impose a much less burden upon the fiscal system of the host country. Hence the leakage is smaller, thus the expected reduction of the tax-welfare program is smaller.

Analytical 2 Theory Framework

We employ the policy-controlled migration version of the parsimonious model of Cohen and Razin (2008). In particular, we consider the volume of migration (μ) and its skill composition (σ) as the exogenous variables, and we let the native-born voters choose the tax rate (τ); and, also do not separate their analysis between country-pairs which enable free migration and those who do not. Additionally, the econometric strategy in this work is different, and is based on instrumental variable estimation.

¹⁾ This model was first employed in Cohen and Razin (2008).

in the vicinity of the level of ~~the~~ ^{respectively,} at the levels
 4) More precisely, we show that this results hold if given
 of σ that each skill type would have chosen, if given
 per-capita spending
 their options. (3)

consequently, the generosity of the welfare state (b) . We then ask how
 an exogenous change in the skill composition of the migrants (σ) affect
 the chosen parameters of the welfare state (τ and b). **INSEKT A**

For this purpose, we recall that the indirect utility of a native-born
 individual of skill level $i = s, u$ is given by equation ~~(2.11)~~ by:

$$V_i(\tau; \sigma) = b + \frac{1}{1+\varepsilon} [(1-\tau)w_i(\sigma)]^{1+\varepsilon}, \quad (11)$$

where μ is suppressed.

Note that w_i does not depend on τ due to the Cobb-Douglas specification
 of the production function; from equation ~~(4.9)~~.

An individual of a skill type i opts for a tax rate (τ_i) which is ~~given~~ ^{utility.} This tax rate
 is given implicitly by the first order condition (g)

$$\frac{\partial V_i}{\partial \tau} = \frac{\partial b}{\partial \tau} - [(1-\tau)w_i]^\varepsilon = 0 \quad (2)(12)$$

for each $i = s, u$. Note also that the second-order condition is $\frac{\partial^2 V_i}{\partial \tau^2} \leq 0$.

Because $w_s > w_u$, it follows from equation ~~(2.1)~~ that $\frac{\partial V_u}{\partial \tau} > 0$, when

$\frac{\partial V_s}{\partial \tau} = 0$. Thus, as expected, an unskilled voter prefers a more generous

welfare state (a higher tax rate, τ) than the skilled voter. ^{This implies that the} outcome of the voting is determined by the median voter, whether skilled or unskilled.

The effect of a change in the skill composition of migrants on the

generosity of the welfare state preferred by the individual of skill level

$i = s, u$ is found upon the total differentiation of equation ~~(2.1)~~ with

respect to σ : (2)(12)

$$\frac{\partial^2 V_i}{\partial \sigma \partial \tau} + \frac{\partial^2 V_i}{\partial \tau^2} \frac{d\tau}{d\sigma} = 0. \quad (2)(13)$$

Because of the second-order condition, $\frac{\partial^2 V_i}{\partial \tau^2} \leq 0$, it follows that

$$\text{sign}\left(\frac{d\tau}{d\sigma}\right) = \text{sign}\left(\frac{\partial^2 V_i}{\partial \sigma \partial \tau}\right) \quad (2)(14)$$

^{Colvin and Regin (2008)} In the appendix we show
 for $i = s, u$. In the appendix to Chapter 2, we show that $\frac{\partial^2 V_s}{\partial \sigma \partial \tau} > 0$, and

¹⁴ Similarly, one can show that $\frac{\partial^2 V_u}{\partial \sigma \partial \tau} > 0$. Therefore, we can conclude that

$$\frac{d\tau}{d\sigma} \geq 0 \text{ for both } i = s, u. \quad (2)(15)$$

2/ This model differs from the one employed in ³ Regin, Sacka and Swagel
 (2002) in two main features: First, it considers both skilled and unskilled



8CHAPTER 2 IMPLICATIONS OF THE GENEROSITY OF THE WELFARE

2.2 Parsimonious Model of Migration

P

Assume a Cobb-Douglas production function, with two labor inputs, skilled and unskilled³:

$$Y = AL_s^\alpha L_u^{1-\alpha}, \quad 0 < \alpha < 1 \quad (1.1)$$

where, Y is the GDP, A denotes a Hicks-neutral productivity parameter, and L_i denotes the input of labor of skill level i , where $i = s, u$ for skilled and unskilled, respectively.

The competitive wages of skilled and unskilled labor are, respectively, *by their marginal products*:

$$w_s = \alpha Y / L_s \quad (1.2)$$

$$w_u = (1 - \alpha) Y / L_u.$$

ies of

Aggregate labor supply, for skilled and unskilled workers, respectively, *is given* are given by:

$$L_s = (s + \sigma\mu) l_s \quad (1.3)$$

$$L_u = (1 - s + (1 - \sigma)\mu) l_u.$$

There is a continuum of workers, where the number of native born is normalized to 1; s denotes the share of native born skilled in the total native born labor supply; σ denotes the share of skilled migrants in the total number of migrants; μ denotes the total number of migrants; and l_i is the labor supply of an individual with skill level $i \in \{s, u\}$

Total population (native born and migrants) is as follows

$$N = 1 + \mu. \quad (1.4)$$

We specify a simple welfare-state system which levies a proportional labor income tax at the rate τ , with the revenues *we spent on* redistributed equally to all residents (native born and migrants alike) as a *demogrant, b, per capita*. The *demogrant captures not only a cash transfer but also outlays on public services such as education, health, and other provisions, that benefit all workers, regardless of their contribution to the tax revenues.*

The government budget constraint is therefore

$$Nb = \tau Y. \quad (1.5)$$

³ The parsimonious model is developed with the cross-section data in mind. The migration variable is the stock of migrants; not flows (as relevant for dynamic analysis).

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2.3 POLICY-CONTROLLED MIGRATION

The utility function for skill-type $i \in \{s, u\}$ is

$$u_i = c_i - \frac{\varepsilon}{1+\varepsilon} l_i^{\frac{1+\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}} + g(b), \quad (6.6)$$

where c_i denotes consumption of an individual with skill level i , and $\varepsilon > 0$, and $g(b)$

The budget constraint of an individual with skill level i is

$$c_i = (1 - \tau) l_i w_i. \quad (6.7)$$

Individual utility-maximization yields the following ~~the~~ labor supply equation

$$l_i = ((1 - \tau) w_i)^{\varepsilon}. \quad (6.8)$$

It is then straightforward to calculate the equilibrium wages for the skilled and unskilled workers, which are given respectively by

$$\begin{aligned} w_s &= A (\alpha \delta^\varepsilon \theta^{1-\alpha})^{\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon}} \\ w_u &= A ((1-\alpha) \delta^\varepsilon \theta^{-\alpha})^{\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon}}, \end{aligned} \quad (6.9)$$

where $\delta \equiv \alpha^\alpha (1-\alpha)^{1-\alpha}$
and $\theta \equiv \frac{1-s+(1-\sigma)\mu}{s+\sigma\mu}$.

In order to ensure that the skilled wage always exceeds the unskilled wage, ~~that of b.~~ we assume that $(w_s > w_u)$, we assume that

$$\frac{\alpha(1-s)}{(1-\alpha)(s+\mu)} > 1. \quad (6.10)$$

We now use this model to analyze the policy-controlled regime. the policy-economic choice of the welfare state variables τ and b . This choice is done by majority voting. Given that there is

2.3 Policy-controlled Migration

Assume that the host country faces a perfectly elastic supply of migrants of each one of the two skill types, so that host-country migration policy is the sole determinant of migration flows. The policy is determined by the median voter in the host country. We assume that the policy decisions on the tax rate, τ , and the total volume of migration, μ , are exogenous. We do this in order to focus the analysis on a single endogenous policy variable, which is

~~essentially independent~~
~~only one endogenous variable in this voting (note that once~~
one the two variable - τ , b - is chosen, the other is
determined by the budget constraint), it turns out that the
outcomes of the voting is determined by the choice of the

denotes the utility generated by the per-capita public spending. 9

5

We further assume that $g'(0) \rightarrow \infty$ so (an inada-condition), so that ~~all~~ everyone (skilled and unskilled) would like the government to levy some taxes in order to provide some positive level

This result follows because skilled migrants are net ^{skill} contributors, that is their tax payments exceed ~~over the benefits~~ what the welfare state spend on them.

6

That is, the two types of voters (skilled and unskilled) opt for more generous welfare state, reflected in ~~a~~ higher τ , when the skill composition of migration shifts more towards the skilled migrants (higher σ). Host countries with relatively more skilled migrants choose to have a more generous welfare system. This testable hypothesis is confronted with ~~at this derived in this section~~

~~**** Assaf Efrat: if you want to extend this work so as to examine the effect of σ on τ - separated into free- and policy controlled migration regimes, where in the latter, eligibility for benefits is restricted, the theory section should be revised accordingly. If you are not interested in such extension (which requires additional work on the empirical section and data collection), then we should not make such distinction the introduction****~~

3 Empirical Evidence

This section provides some empirical evidence to the notion that the ~~proportion of skilled~~ ^{skill} composition of immigrants has a positive effect on the welfare-state generosity of the host country, ~~where this generosity is determined in majority voting (regardless of whether the median voter~~ ^{when} ~~is skilled or unskilled~~).

3.1 Econometric Model

~~per capita spending~~ ^{is}

Assume that welfare-state ~~benefits~~ in country i are determined according to the following equation:

$$b_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_s m_{s,i} + \alpha_u m_{u,i} + X_i \beta + \epsilon_i^b \quad (16) \quad (5)$$

~~the per capita spending~~

where b is a measure of welfare state benefits; m_s and m_u denote the stocks of skilled and unskilled immigrants, respectively; X is a vector of other control variables and ϵ is the error term. The respective coefficients of these variables are depicted by α_s , α_u , and β .

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Further assume that bilateral migration stocks between any source-

We therefore introduce ~~two~~ instrumental variables. We

for

the two types of migrant

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(7)

Note that there is an endogeneity problem concerning the equation (16). It is difficult to identify the causality between spending (b_i) and the migrations of the two types.

Indeed the m_i 's affect b_i as specified in this equation. But, on the other hand,

the generosity of the welfare state also

affects the level of migrations of the two types. Specifically, as demonstrated in

Cohen and Rajin (2008), the generosity

of the welfare state has a negative effect (who are net fiscal contributors)

on the migration of skilled individuals, but a

positive effects on the migration of unskilled (who are net fiscal beneficiaries)

individuals, when migration is free. \rightarrow

movements of EU citizens \rightarrow

host country pair (i, j) , are determined in accordance with the following equation:

$$m_{e,i,j} = a_0 + a_1 \text{Comlang}_{i,j} + a_2 \text{Dist}_{i,j} + X_{i,j}^{\text{m}} b + \tilde{\epsilon}_{i,j}^{\text{m}} \quad (6) \quad (17)$$

$$e = \{s, u\}$$

where Comlang depicts a dummy variable, with the value 1 if the source and host countries share a common language, and 0 otherwise, Dist captures the geographical (great circle) distance between the source-host pair, $X_{i,j}^{\text{m}}$ is the vector of control variables (note that it may be pairwise specific) and $\tilde{\epsilon}_{i,j}^{\text{m}}$ is the error term.

~~Our identification is based on that equation (6) includes variables that are excluded from equation (5). Namely, we argue that the distance and common language between a host country and either source country, is not correlated with the error term of equation (5). On the other hand, it is well established that both those variables indeed affect migration. This is our identifying assumption (a similar approach was taken by Frankel and Romer (1999), analyzing the effect of trade on growth).~~

Esimating equations (6) yields the fitted values for the bilateral skill-dependent ~~migration~~ stocks. We sum these fitted values across source countries:

$$\hat{m}_{e,i} = \sum_{j \neq i} \hat{m}_{e,i,j} \quad (7) \quad (18)$$

where the hat symbol denotes the fitted value estimation.

Therefore, our estimated equation is:

$$b_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_s \hat{m}_{s,i} + \alpha_u \hat{m}_{u,i} + X_i^{\text{b}} \beta + \tilde{\epsilon}_i^{\text{b}} \quad (8) \quad (19)$$

~~Given our identifying assumption, the coefficient of our variables of interests are unbiased~~

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Our identification strategy is twofold. First, we choose the distance and common-language variables as instruments in ^{equally or} ~~equity~~ equation (17).

We assume that these two variables are not correlated with the error term in

equation (16). On the other hand, it is

quite plausible and well-established that these

variables affect migration as in all gravity equations. ^{(A similar approach was first employed by Frankel and Rose (1993), who studied the effect of trade ~~complex~~ on growth.)} Second, we choose a sample of EU countries ^{among} ~~who~~ within which there is free migration, so that the OLS biases ^{is with} respect concerning the coefficients of α_S and α_H in equation (16) are unambiguous: upward for the

first ¹ former and downward for the second.

As indicated, the biases are opposite in the cases where the welfare state can choose both the volume and the skill composition of migrants. Therefore, if we were to have both EU and non-EU ~~countries~~ countries in our sample, that is ~~in~~ from

3.2 Data

European countries, 14 EU members

Our country sample includes 16 OECD members, European countries, within which free migration is allowed: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Portugal, Spain and the U.K.)

(See Cohen and Razin (2008) for detailed description of the free labor mobility treaties among the EU countries, and the two other non-EU countries enjoy bilateral agreements with the EU, ensuring free labor mobility.

The dependent variable, b , is social expenditure, in cash or in kind, per capita, at constant (2000) prices, PPP converted into ~~USD~~, averaged between 2000 and 2005 (source: OECD.stat). Social expenditure encompass all kinds of social public expenditures, in cash or in kind, including, for instance, old age transfers, incapacity related benefits, health care, unemployment compensations and other social expenditures. The stocks of ~~immigrants~~ migrants in either country, originated in all of the remaining countries, by education attainment, is our variables of interest. ~~Immigrants~~ Migrants are at working age (25+), defined as foreign born, subdivided into ~~three~~ ^{two} classes of schooling years: low (0-~~8~~¹²), medium (0-12) and high (13+). We also use lagged stocks of ~~immigrants~~ migrants (1990) (source: Docquier and Marfouk (2006)).

We control for the domestic labor force for each skill level in each country in 2000 (source: Docquier and Marfouk (2006)). This control variable captures the relative power of the different interests groups, as manifested in the political economy equilibrium. It also neutralizes size effect of host countries on the stock of their ~~immigrants~~ migrants. Additionally, we include GDP per capita, PPP adjusted to ~~USD~~ in constant prices (2000), averaged between 2000 and 2004 (source: Penn World Tables 6.2). Normally, as a country's production is higher, its ability to dispense welfare-state benefits is higher. Given that the GDP per capita is also

The averaging is done in order to filter out business-cycle variations.

Also, this variable is essential in light of the fact that we employ the number of migrants rather than the proportions of migrants, as dependent variables. It also

and the effect of migration on wages.

potentially

a proxy for income, it should also be correlated with migration stocks, thus its inclusion is necessary. We also control for old age (65+) share in the population, averaged between 2000 and 2007 (source: U.S. Census Bureau, International). Pension benefits captures a vast portion of the welfare-state ~~benefit~~, thus, this variable should be highly positively correlated

~~spending~~; therefore should be included as a control variable. Given the small number (16) of observations in the main equation (19), we must focus on the two variables of interest ($m_{i,t}$ and $n_{i,t}$) and employ only the most important exogenous variables.

3.3 Results of observations in the main equation (19), we must focus on the two variables of interest ($m_{i,t}$ and $n_{i,t}$) and employ only the most important exogenous variables.

The results of the regression, confined to 16 OECD European countries are described among which migration is free, is given in Table 1.

	OLS benefits	2SLS benefits
High skilled migrants (1990) [^]	-17.532 (8.348)*	
Low skilled migrants (1990) [^]	1.866 (0.245)***	
Fitted-high skilled migration (1990) [^]		49.423 (14.206)***
Fitted-low skilled migration (1990) [^]		-6.678 (2.324)**
GDP per capita (2000-2004) [^]	368.130 (58.054)***	446.791 (100.640)***
Old age share (2000-2007)	521.675 (137.087)***	776.090 (140.853)***
High-skilled domestic (2000) [^]	0.045 (0.109)	-0.471 (0.157)**
Low-skilled domestic [^]	-0.053 (0.015)***	0.047 (0.033)
Observations	16	16
R-squared	0.884	0.835

[^] in thousands
Robust standard errors in parentheses
* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

Table 1: The effect of Skill Composition of ~~immigrants~~ Migrants on Welfare-State ~~spendings~~. Benefits in Free Migration Regimes

Consider first

Observe the first column. ~~M~~ immigrants with high (low) education level ~~spendings~~ have a negative (positive) effect on the welfare-state ~~benefits~~ in the host

countries. This result could be due to reverse causality (despite the lagging of ~~immigration~~ ^{spending} stocks): higher benefits reduce the skill composition of ~~immigration~~ ^{employs} in free migration regimes (Cohen and Razin (2008)).

The second column uses the fitted ~~immigration~~ stocks from the first stage regression. The result is exactly opposite: high (low) skilled ~~immigrants~~

migrants have a positive (negative) effect ^{on} of the level of welfare state ~~spending~~ ^{is in line with the conclusions of our parsimonious} benefits. This can indicate the fiscal leakage and fiscal relief effects in model. ~~the host country favors high-skill migrants who are~~ ^{model} the politico-economic equilibrium. Namely, as the skill composition of ~~not~~ ^{adopts a more generous welfare system when high-skilled} ~~immigrants increases, so is the welfare generosity of the host country.~~ ^{immigrants} (who are net fiscal contributors) enter the country. The opposite applies in the case of low-skill migration.

References:

~~Cohen and Alon and Assaf Razin (2008), "The Skill Composition of Immigrants and the Generosity of the Welfare State: Free versus Policy-controlled Migration," NBER Working Paper No. 14459, October.~~

~~Frankel, Jeffery and David Romer (1999), "Does Trade Cause Growth?", American Economic Review, June, 379 - 399 89(2),~~

~~A host country is reluctant to increase its welfare generosity when these ^{such} migrants who are not fiscal beneficiaries arrive.~~

4. Conclusive

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In this paper we address skilled migrants typically contribute to the welfare state more than they draw in benefits from it. The opposite holds for unskilled migrants. This suggests that a host country is likely to boost (respectively curtail) its welfare system when absorbing high-skill (respectively low-skill) migration. In this paper we examined this hypothesis in a politico-economic setup. We first constructed a parsimonious model. We also showed that indeed ~~skill has~~ and provides ~~for~~ We then confronted this prediction from EU countries. of the theory with evidence. In doing so, we reckon with the endogeneity issue problem that arises ^{on} (the skill composition) ~~is itself~~ because migration itself is affected by the generosity of the welfare state, ~~we showed that it over ignores~~ this ~~and~~ We indeed ~~found~~ ^{found} that the evidence

At 4. Conclusion

supports the prediction of the theory. Furthermore, if one ignores their endogeneity problem (and employs OLS estimation) the estimates of the effects of the skilled and unskilled migration on the generosity of the welfare state are severely biased, ^{so} much ^{so} as to reverse the ~~orig~~ directions of these effects.

We conjecture that ~~essentially also~~ Our theoretical model predicts ~~that there~~ in the same parsimonious model a ~~sover~~ brain drain from the source country will

push it towards adopt curtailing the extent of its welfare system. A useful direction for future research is to confront this hypothesis with evidence.

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A Proof

We first show that $\frac{\partial b(\sigma; \tau)}{\partial \sigma} > 0$:

$$\frac{\partial b(\sigma; \tau)}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{A\mu\tau(1-\tau)^\varepsilon}{1+\mu} \left\{ \alpha w_s^\varepsilon \left[\frac{(1-\alpha)\theta^\varepsilon}{\alpha} \right]^{\frac{1-\alpha}{1+\varepsilon}} \left[1 - \frac{\varepsilon(1-\alpha)(1+\mu)}{(1+\varepsilon)(1-s+(1-\sigma)\mu)} \right] \right. \\ \left. - (1-\alpha) w_u^\varepsilon \left[\frac{(1-\alpha)\theta^\varepsilon}{\alpha} \right]^{\frac{-\alpha}{1+\varepsilon}} \left[1 - \frac{\varepsilon\alpha(1+\mu)}{(1+\varepsilon)(s+\sigma\mu)} \right] \right\} > 0 \quad (20)$$

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(Handwritten note: Flexible, the pressure may drive wages down; see Storesletten (2000) and Razin and Sadka (2000). However, the decline in wages may well be just a short-term phenomena, as it triggers accumulation of new capital, through both domestic savings and international capital inflows. Indeed, the massive immigration into Israel from the former Soviet Union, following the collapse of communism, was met by a fairly flexible labor market, and a massive influx of capital; see Razin and Sadka (1993) for an early account.)

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countries. This result could be due to reverse causality (despite the lagging of ~~immigration~~ ^{spending} stocks): higher benefits reduce the skill composition of ~~immigration~~ in free migration regimes (Cohen and Razin (2008)).

The second column uses the fitted ~~immigration~~ stocks from the first stage regression. The result is exactly opposite: high (low) skilled ~~immigrants~~ ^{on}

migrants have a positive (negative) effect of the level of welfare state ~~spending~~ ^{is in line with the conclusions of our parsimonious model: the host country favors high-skill migrants who are not a drain on the generous welfare system when high-skilled immigrants increase, so is the welfare generosity of the host country.}

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89(2),

(2)

Appendix

Differentiating equation (12) with respect to σ , we get:

$$\frac{\partial v_i^2}{\partial \sigma} = g'' \frac{\partial b}{\partial \sigma} \frac{\partial b}{\partial \tau} + g' \frac{\partial^2 b}{\partial \sigma \partial \tau} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} [(1-\tau)(g-\tau) w_i] \frac{\varepsilon \partial w_i}{\partial \sigma} \quad (A.1)$$

In Cohen and Rogin (2008) it is shown that
when g is linear (more precisely,
 $g''=0$ and $g' \neq 1$), then the expression

in equation (A.1) is positive in the vicinity

of $\partial v_i / \partial \sigma = 0$; that is at the level of σ

most preferred by an individual of skill level

i.e., u. In fact, the reason we made g

nonlinear with $g' \rightarrow \infty$ as $b \rightarrow 0$ is to

ensure that all skill types would prefer a

positive level of government spending (an ~~impossible~~ quite

condition). But it ~~is~~ is perfectly plausible (to make g approximately linear beyond a very small

that b
level of b and v is perfectly substitutable to

private consumption ~~or~~ (that is, $g'' = 0$
and $g' = 1$), \Rightarrow in this case, indeed $\partial v_i^2 / \partial b^2$.