

Human Capital Formation in Childhood and Adolescence

Flávio Cunha

Rice University

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Evolution of Inequality in USA

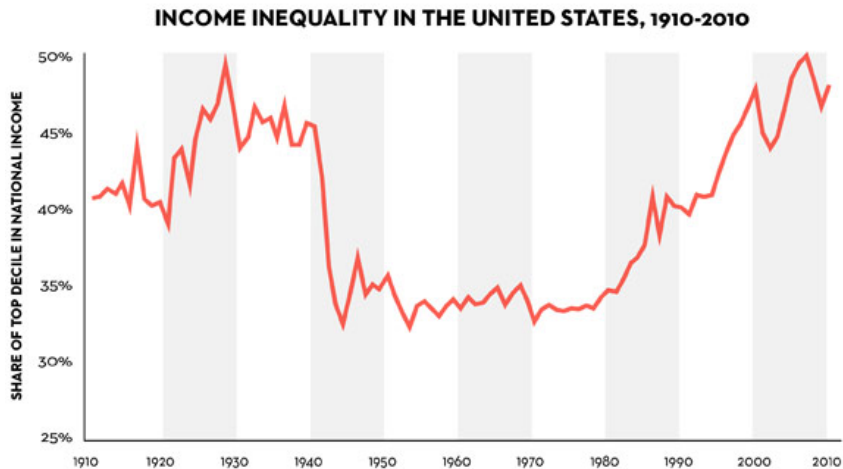


Figure
Relative Supply and Demand of Skilled Labor
Case 1: Supply and Demand Grow at Same Rate

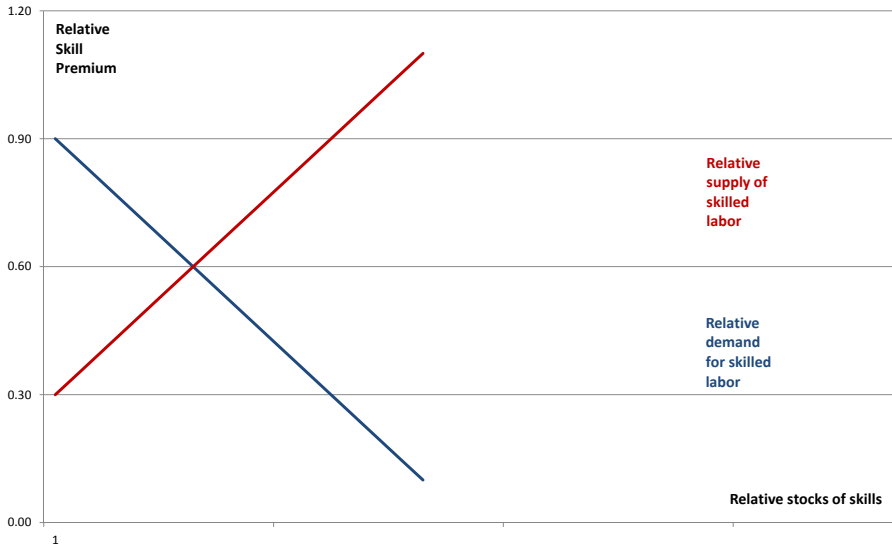


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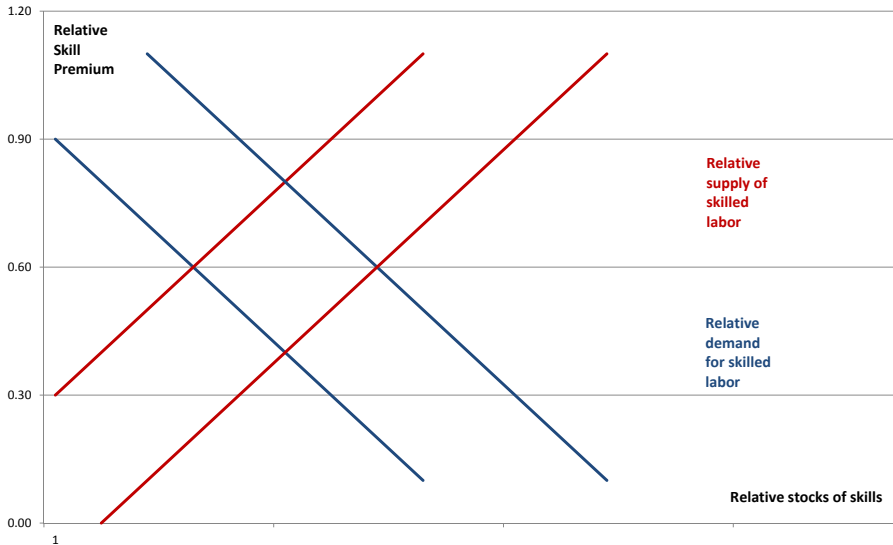


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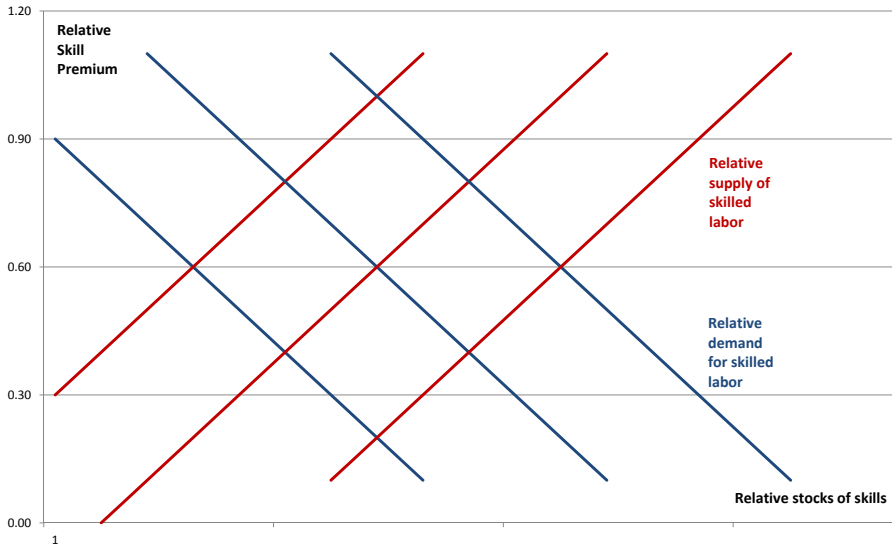


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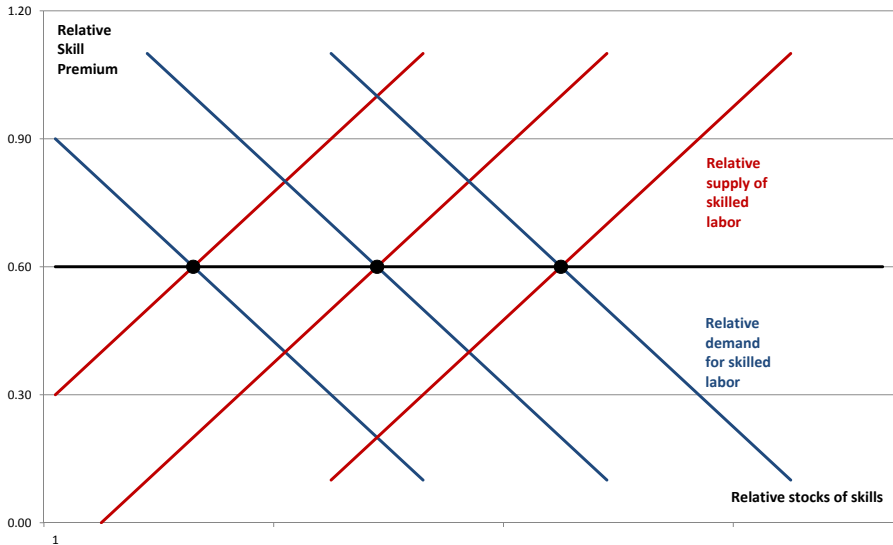


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Case 2: SBTC - Relative Demand Starts to Grow at a Faster Rate

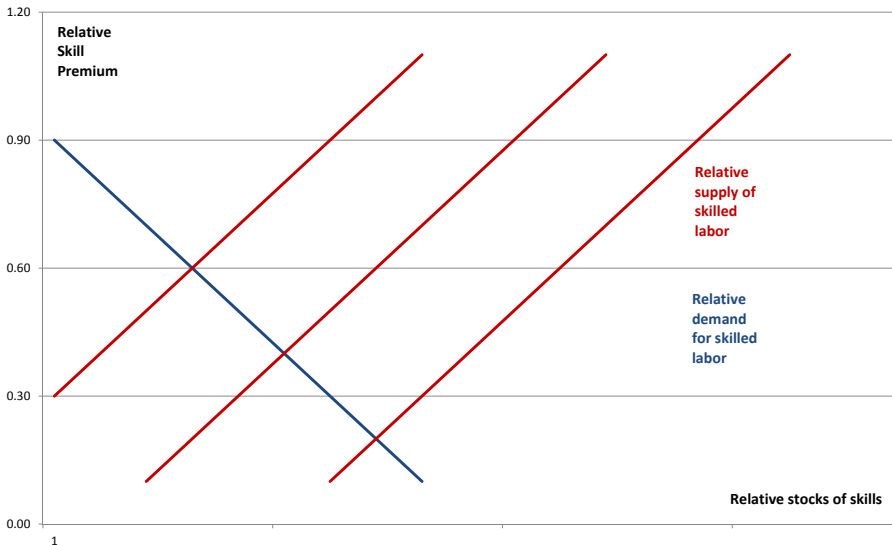


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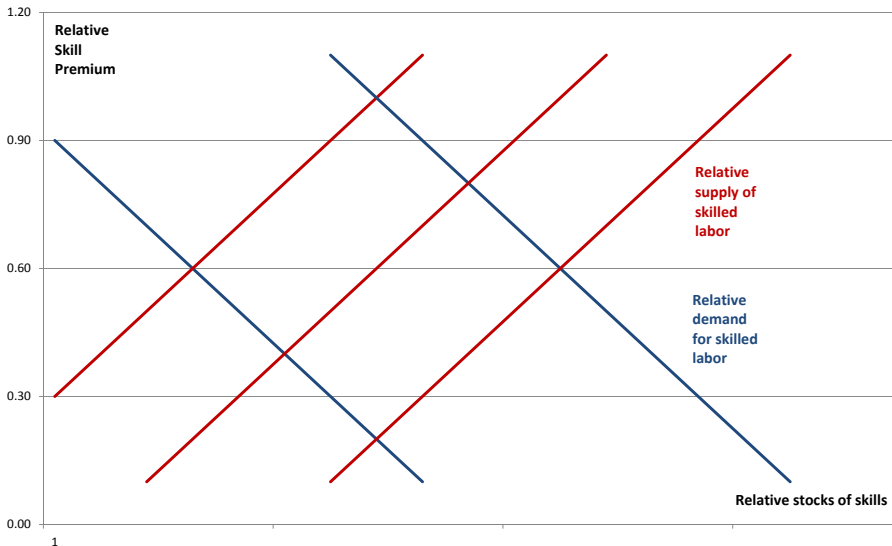


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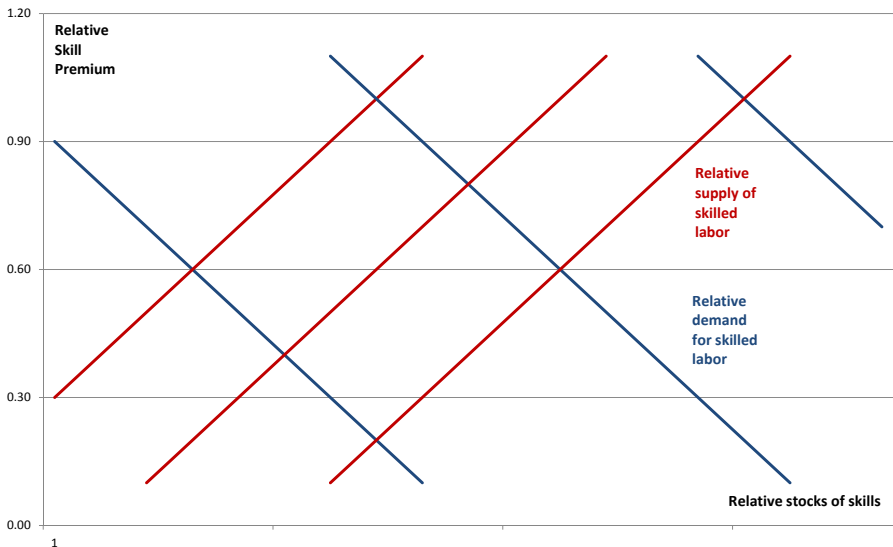


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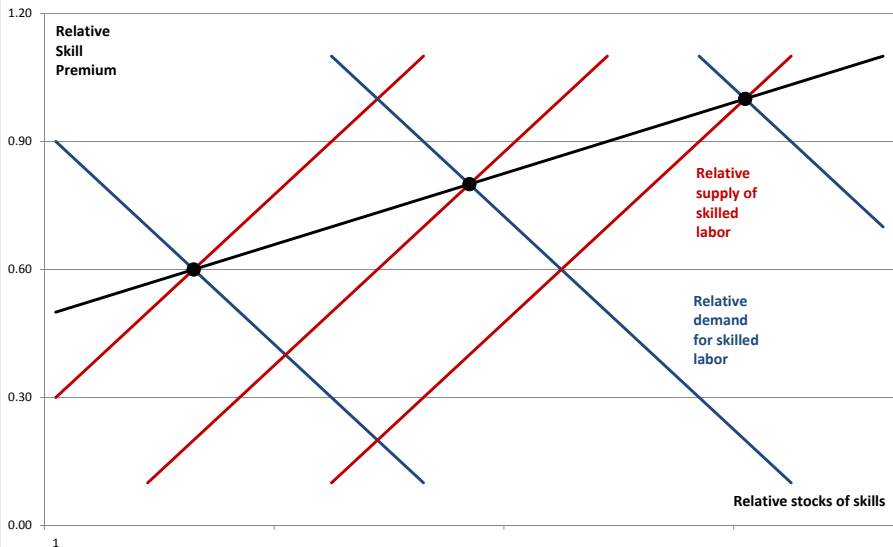


Figure
Relative Demand and Supply of Skilled Labor
Case 3: Relative Supply Starts to Grow at Slower Rate

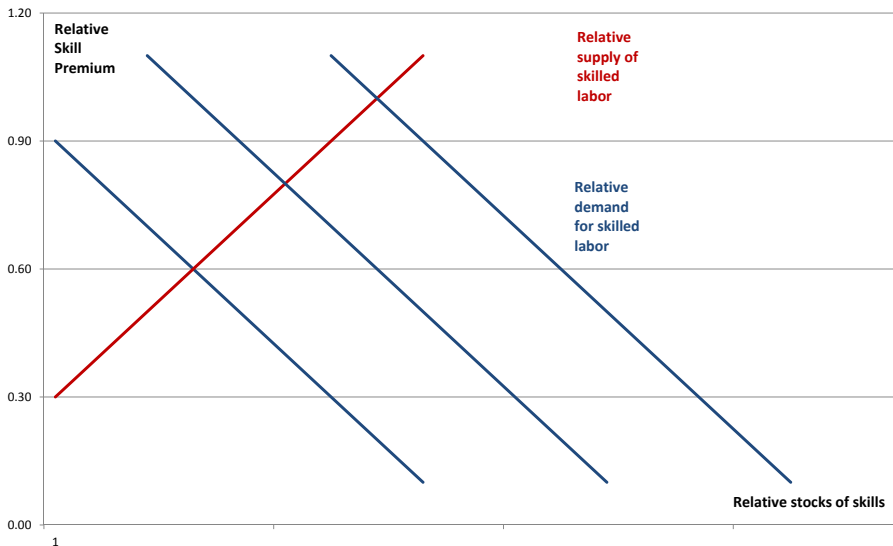


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Relative Demand and Supply of Skilled Labor
Case 3: Relative Supply Starts to Grow at Slower Rate

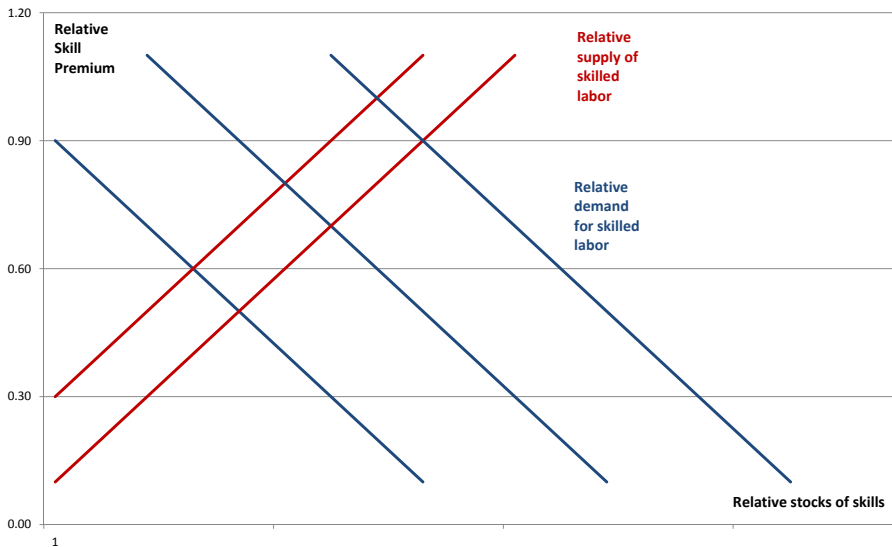


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Relative Demand and Supply of Skilled Labor
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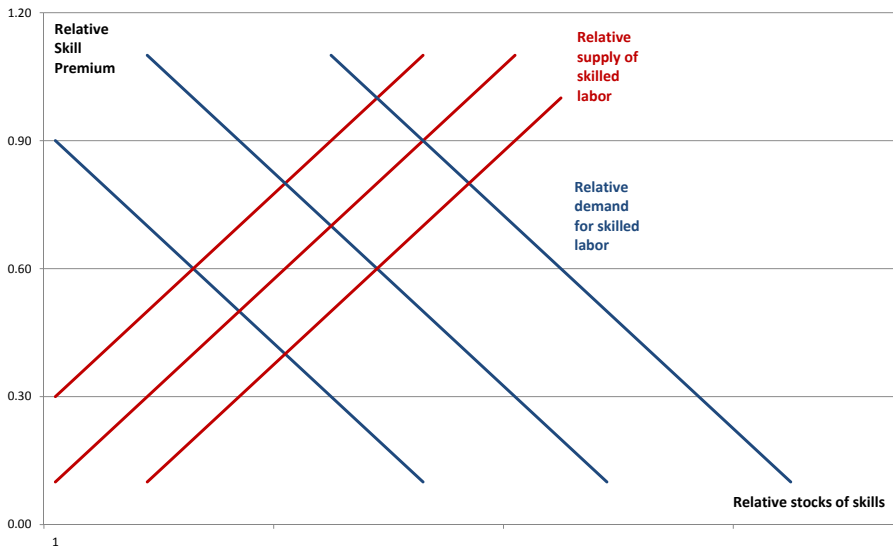
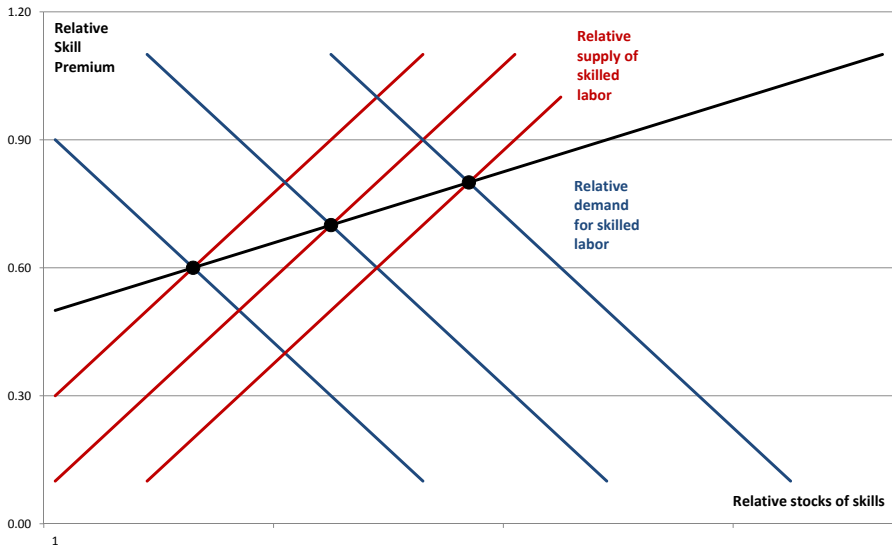


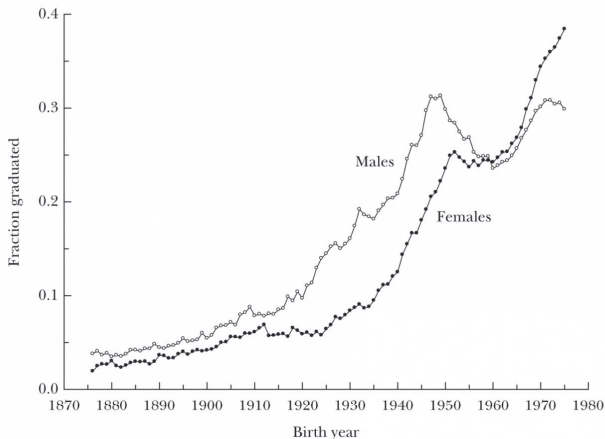
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Relative Demand and Supply of Skilled Labor
Case 3: Relative Supply Starts to Grow at Slower Rate



Evolution of Inequality in USA

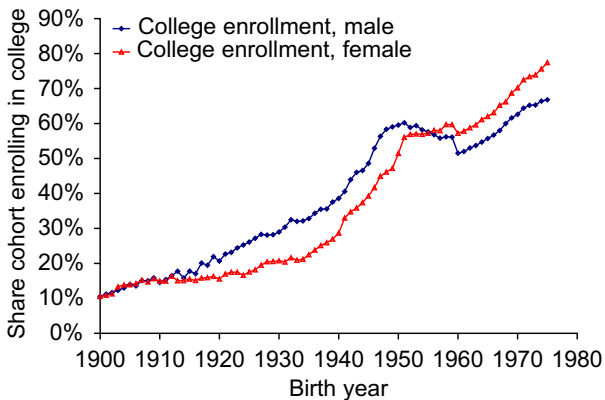
Figure 1

College Graduation Rates (by 35 years) for Men and Women: Cohorts Born from 1876 to 1975



Sources: 1940 to 2000 Census of Population Integrated Public Use Micro-data Samples (IPUMS).

Evolution of Inequality in USA



Evolution of Inequality in USA

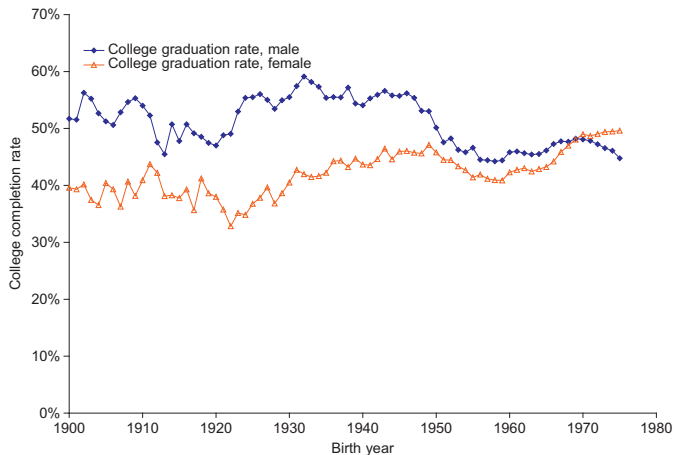
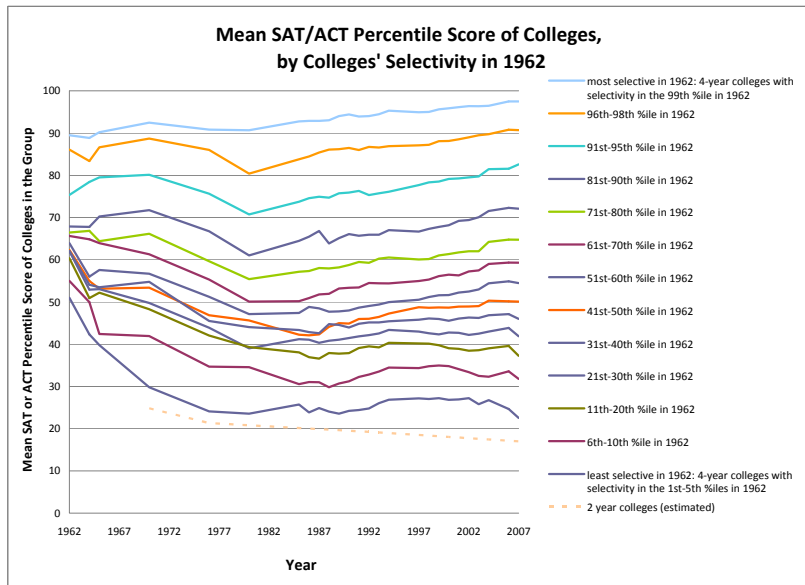


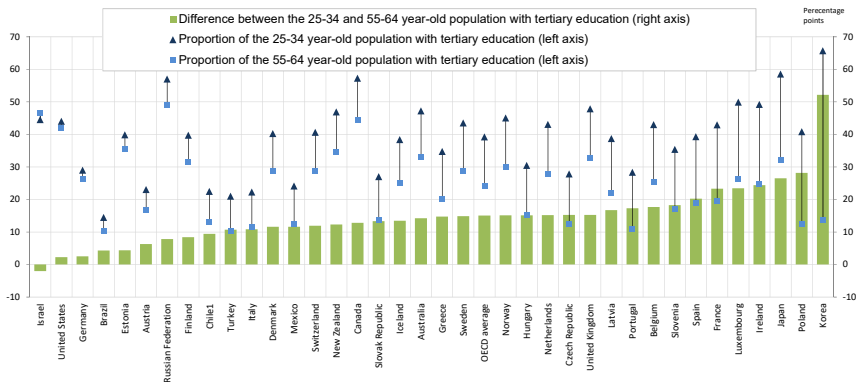
Figure 8.4 Share of College Entrants Receiving BA Degree.

Evolution of Inequality in USA



Evolution of Inequality in USA

Figure 3
Percentage of Younger and Older Adults with Tertiary Education



Simple Model

- Let L_S and L_U denote, respectively, skilled and unskilled labor.
- Let w_S and w_U denote, respectively, skilled and unskilled wage rates.
- Consider the following problem:
-

$$\min w_S L_S + w_U L_U$$

subject to the technology of skill formation:

$$Y = \left[\gamma L_S^\phi + (1 - \gamma) L_U^\phi \right]^{\frac{1}{\phi}}$$

where $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ and $\phi \leq 1$.

Simple Model

- Taking first-order conditions:

$$w_S = \lambda \left[\gamma L_S^\phi + (1 - \gamma) L_U^\phi \right]^{\frac{1-\phi}{\phi}} \gamma L_S^{\phi-1}$$

$$w_U = \lambda \left[\gamma L_S^\phi + (1 - \gamma) L_U^\phi \right]^{\frac{1-\phi}{\phi}} (1 - \gamma) L_U^{\phi-1}$$

which yields:

$$\ln \frac{w_S}{w_U} = \ln \frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma} + (\phi - 1) \ln \frac{L_S}{L_U}$$

Evolution of Inequality in USA

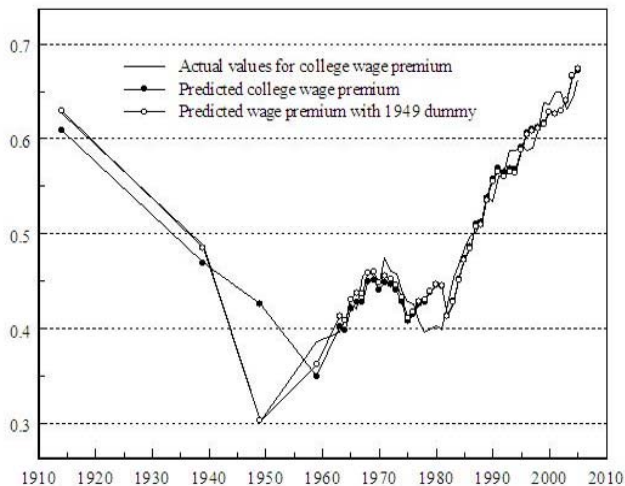


Figure 1: The Probability of Educational Decisions, by Endowment Levels, Dropping from Secondary School vs. Graduating

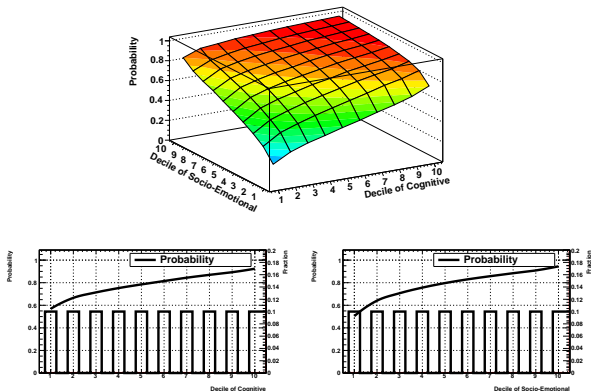


Figure 2: The Probability of Educational Decisions, by Endowment Levels, **HS Graduate** vs. College Enrollment

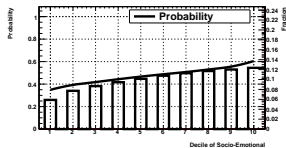
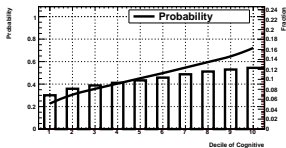
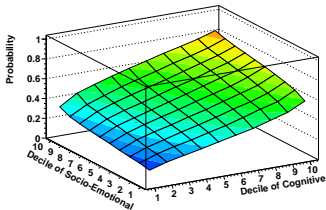


Figure 3: The Probability of Educational Decisions, by Endowment Levels, **Some College** vs. **4-year college degree**

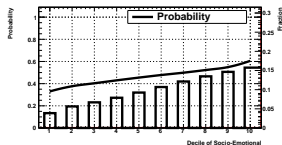
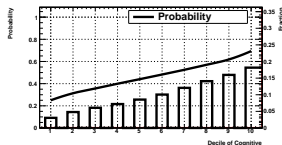
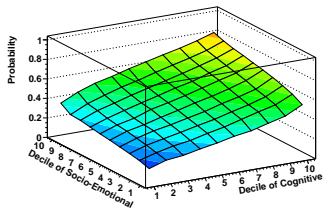


Figure 4: The Effect of Cognitive and Socio-emotional endowments, (log) Wages

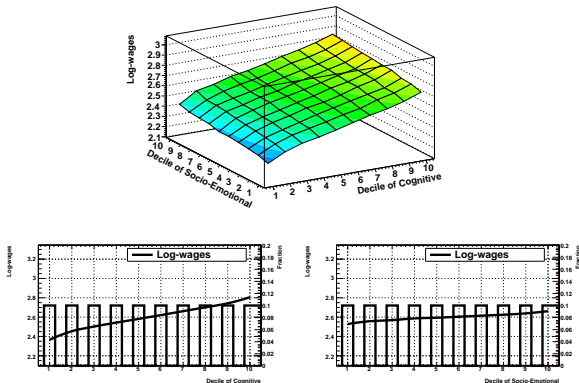


Figure 5: The Effect of Cognitive and Socio-emotional endowments, Daily Smoking

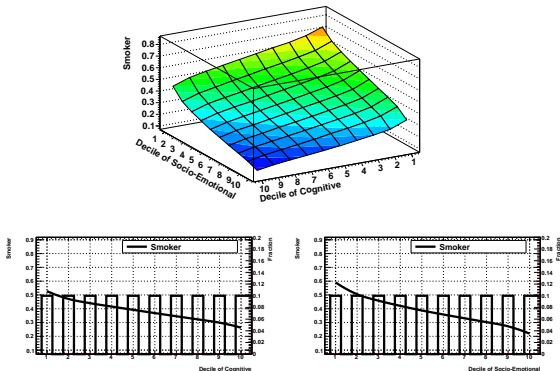


Figure 7: The Effect of Cognitive and Socio-emotional endowments, Participated in 2006 election

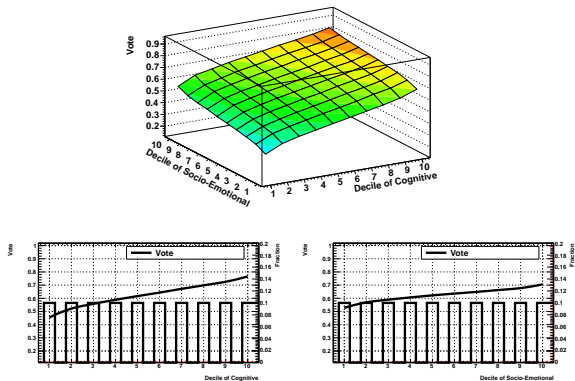
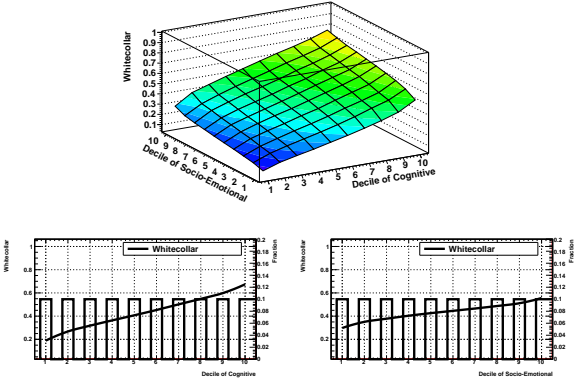
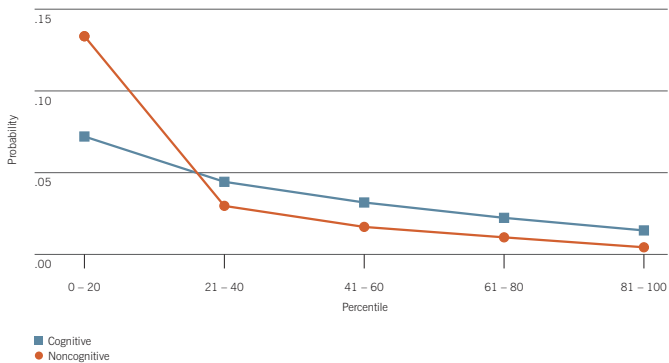


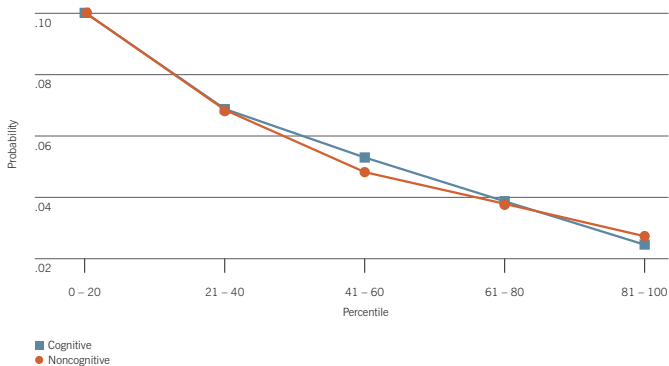
Figure 8: The Effect of Cognitive and Socio-emotional endowments on Probability of White-collar occupation (age 30)



Ever been in jail by age 30, by ability (males)

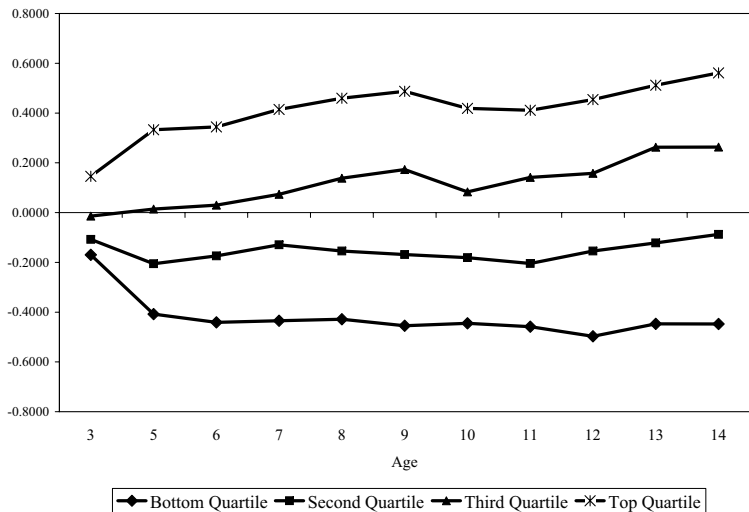


Probability of being teenage and single with children (females)



Gaps in Skills in Childhood and Adolescence

CNLSY/79 Data



Gaps in Skills in Early Childhood

Hart and Risley (1995)

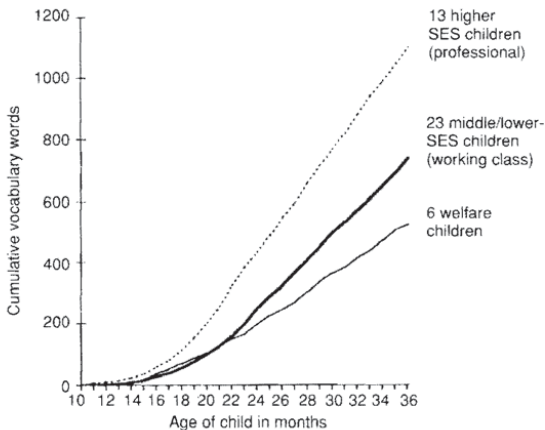
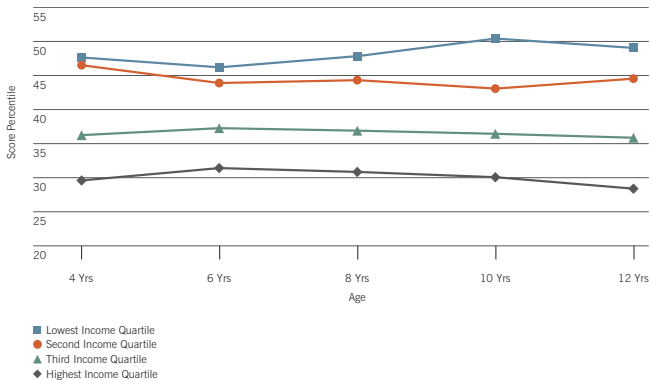


Figure 2. The widening gap we saw in the vocabulary growth of children from professional, working-class, and welfare families across their first 3 years of life. (See Appendix B for a detailed explanation of this figure.)

Gaps in Skills in Early Childhood

Carneiro and Heckman (2003)

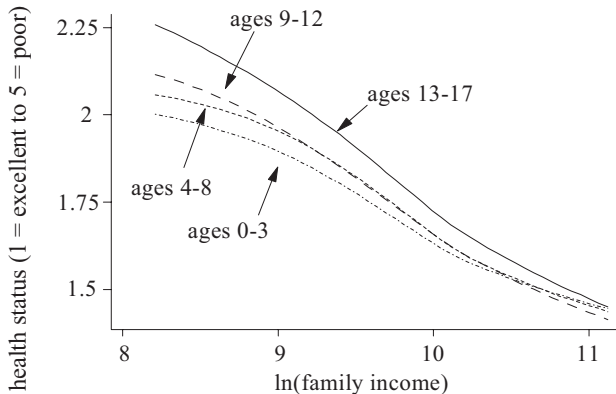
Average percentile rank on anti-social behavior score, by income quartile



Gaps in Skills in Early Childhood

Casey, Lubotsky, and Paxson (2002)

Health and income for children and adults, U.S. National Health Interview Survey 1986-1995.*

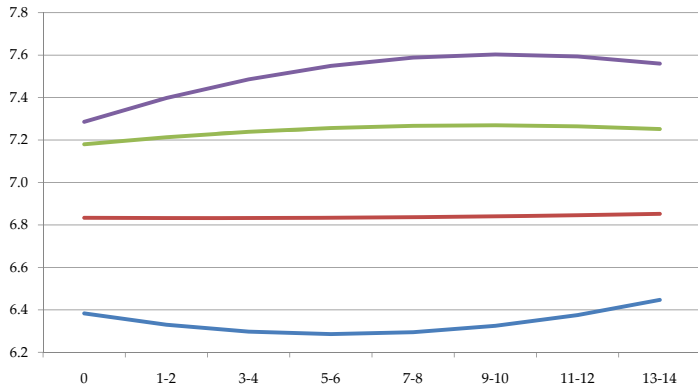


* From Case, A., Lubotsky, D. & Paxson, C. (2002), American Economic Review, Vol. 92, 1308-1334.

Gaps in Investments in Early Childhood

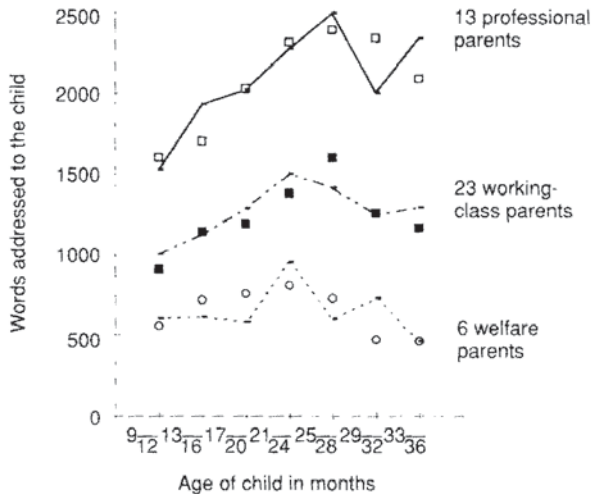
Carneiro and Heckman (2003)

Figure
Unadjusted Mean Home Score
by Quartile of Permanent Income of the Family



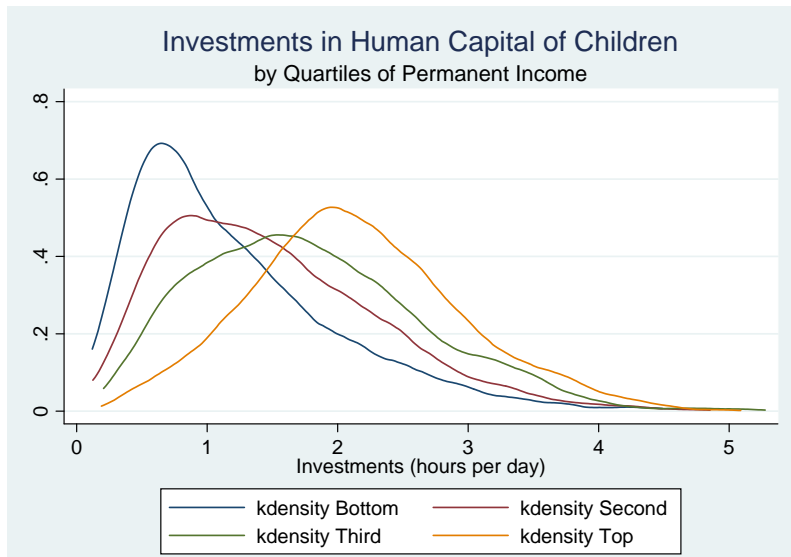
Gaps in Investments in Early Childhood

Hart and Risley (1995)



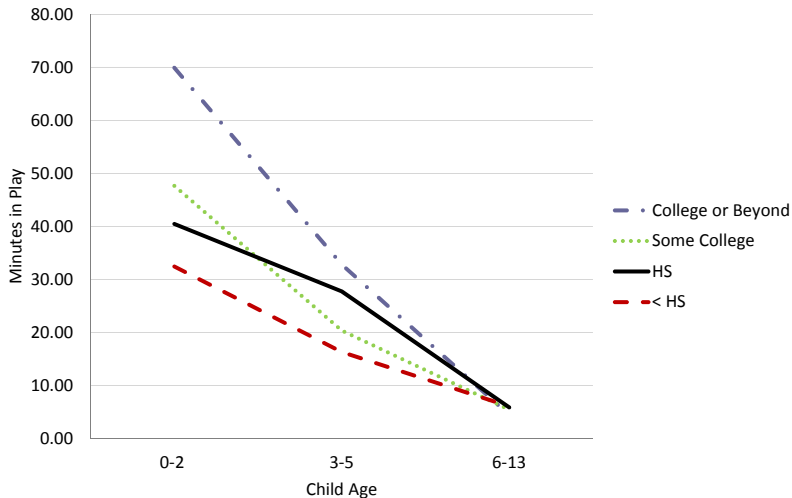
Gaps in Investments in Early Childhood

PSID, CDS



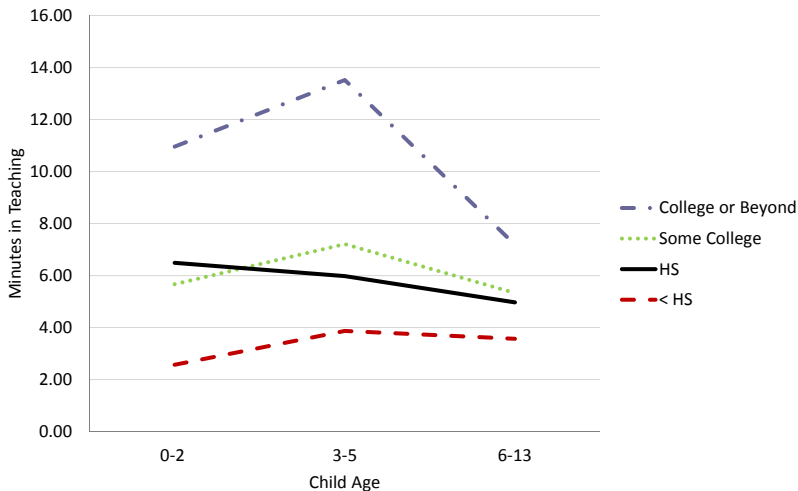
Gaps in Investments in Early Childhood

Kalil, Ryan, and Corey (2012)



Gaps in Investments in Early Childhood

Kalil, Ryan, and Corey (2012)



Gaps in Investments in Adolescence

Kalil, Ryan, and Corey (2012)

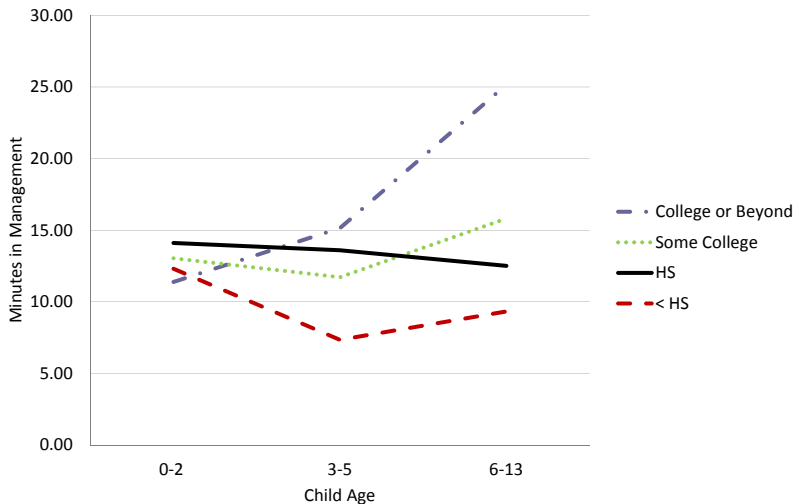
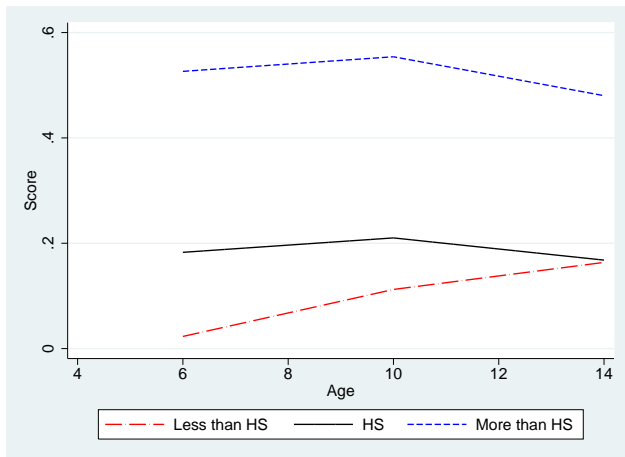


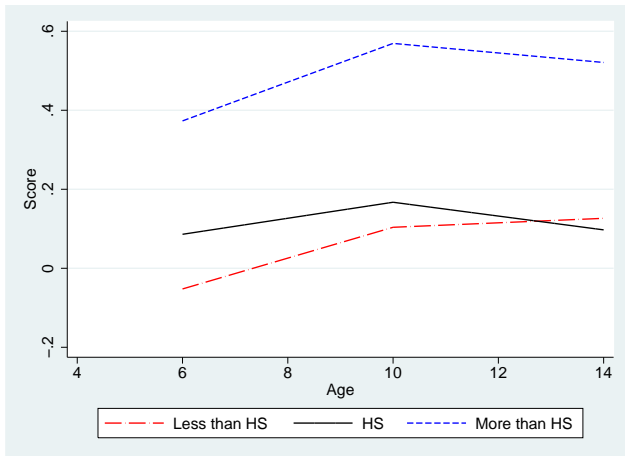
Figure 15: Parental Investment over Childhood among Whites by Mother's Education: Material Resources



Data: A balanced panel from Children of National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1979.

Source: Moon (2012).

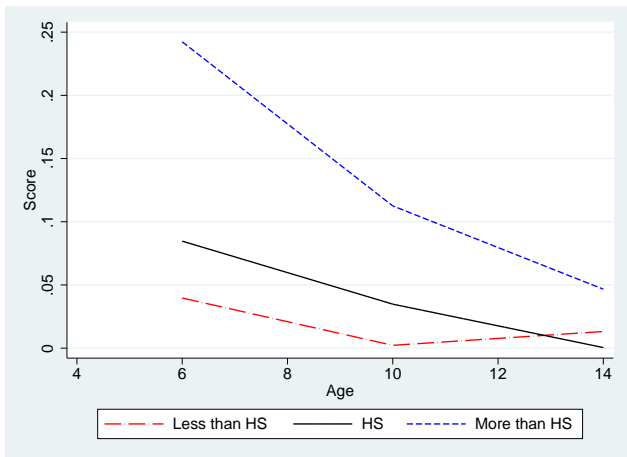
Figure 16: Parental Investment over Childhood among Whites by Mother's Education: Cognitive Stimulation



Data: A balanced panel from Children of National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1979.

Source: Moon (2012).

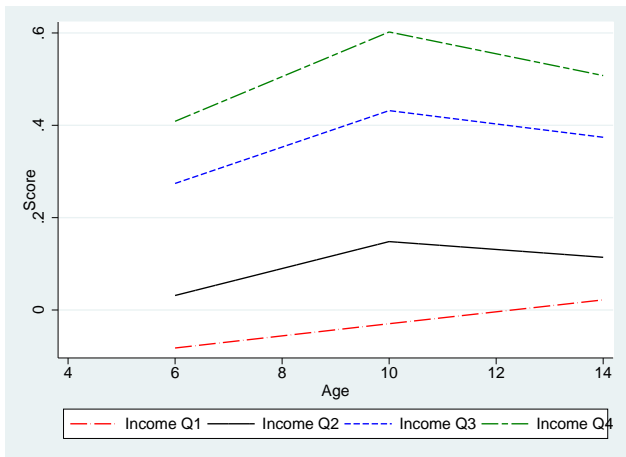
Figure 17: Parental Investment over Childhood among Whites by Mother's Education: Emotional Support



Data: A balanced panel from Children of National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1979.

Source: Moon (2012).

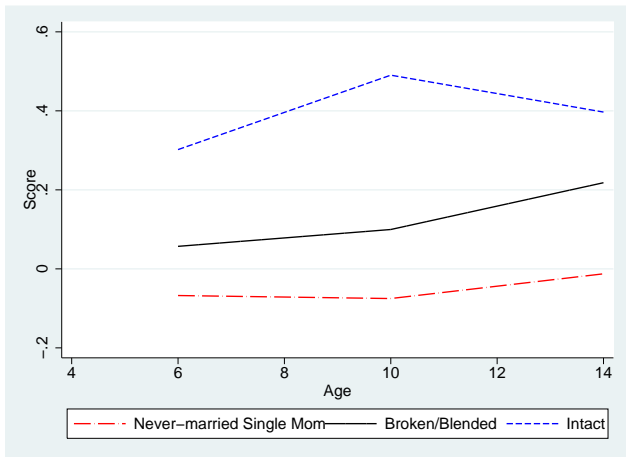
Figure 18: Parental Investment over Childhood among Whites by Family Income Quartile: Cognitive Stimulation



Data: A balanced panel from Children of National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1979.

Source: Moon (2012).

Figure 19: Parental Investment over Childhood among Whites by Family Type: Cognitive Stimulation



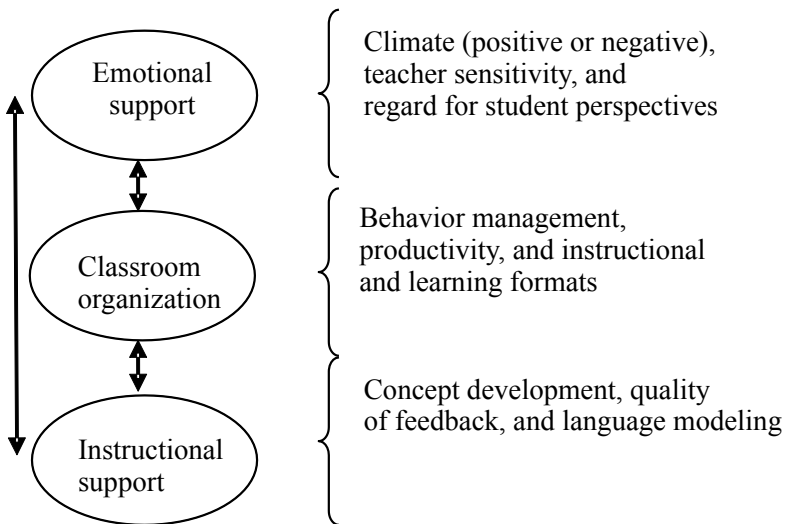
Data: A balanced panel from Children of National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1979.

Source: Moon (2012).

The Role of Schools: Araujo et al (2015)

- How much, and in what ways, do kindergarten teachers matter for learning outcomes?
- Two challenges:
 - Sorting of students to teachers.
 - Solution: Randomly match students to teachers.
 - Data on teachers are weakly correlated with student gain.
 - Improve the quality of data on teachers.

Classroom observation tool



Example: Teacher Behaviors and CLASS Scores for Behavior Management Dimension

Behavior Management			
Encompasses the teacher's ability to provide clear behavioral expectations and use effective methods to prevent and redirect misbehavior.			
	Low (1,2)	Mid (3,4,5)	High (6,7)
<u>Clear Behavior Expectations</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clear expectations Consistency Clarity of rules 	Rules and expectations are absent, unclear, or inconsistently enforced.	Rules and expectations may be stated clearly, but are inconsistently enforced.	Rules and expectations for behavior are clear and are consistently enforced.
<u>Proactive</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Anticipates problem behavior or escalation Rarely reactive Monitoring 	Teacher is reactive and monitoring is absent or ineffective.	Teacher uses a mix of proactive and reactive responses; sometimes monitors but at other times misses early indicators of problems.	Teacher is consistently proactive and monitors effectively to prevent problems from developing.
<u>Redirection of Misbehavior</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Effectively reduces misbehavior Attention to the positive Uses subtle cues to redirect Efficient 	Attempts to redirect misbehavior are ineffective; teacher rarely focuses on positives or uses subtle cues. As a result, misbehavior continues/escalates and takes time away from learning.	Some attempts to redirect misbehavior are effective; teacher sometimes focuses on positives and uses subtle cues. As a result, there are few times when misbehavior continue/escalate or takes time away from learning.	Teacher effectively redirects misbehavior by focusing on positives and making use of subtle cues. Behavior management does not take time away from learning.
<u>Student Behavior</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Frequent compliance Little aggression & defiance 	There are frequent instances of misbehavior in the classroom.	There are periodic episodes of misbehavior in the classroom.	There are few, if any, instances of student misbehavior in the classroom.

The Role of Schools: Araujo et al (2015)

- Break analysis in two parts:
 - Estimate teacher effects: How much does it matter whether a child was assigned to teacher A or B in a school?
 - Estimate the associations between within-school differences in teacher characteristics or behaviors and child learning outcomes

The Role of Schools: Araujo et al (2015)

- One standard error in teacher quality leads to increases in child learning of
 - 11% of standard deviation in math.
 - 13% of standard deviation in language.
 - 7% of standard deviation in executive function.
- Same teachers have their students learn more math and more language year after year.
 - Cross-year correlation of teacher effects in math is 0.32
 - Cross-year correlation of teacher effects in language is 0.42.

The Role of Schools: Araujo et al (2015)

- What explains differences in teacher effectiveness?
 - One standard deviation in teacher IQ increases child's performance by 4% of a standard deviation.
 - Students randomly assigned to "rookie" teachers learn 16% of standard deviation less.
 - No correlation between teacher personality scores (Big Five) and student learning.
 - One standard deviation in CLASS explains 59% of a standard deviation in student learning.
 - Teachers with better CLASS scores get all their students to learn more: Effects are not concentrated on girls or boys, on children with high or low levels of development when they enter school, or on children of high or low socioeconomic status

The Role of Schools: Araujo et al (2015)

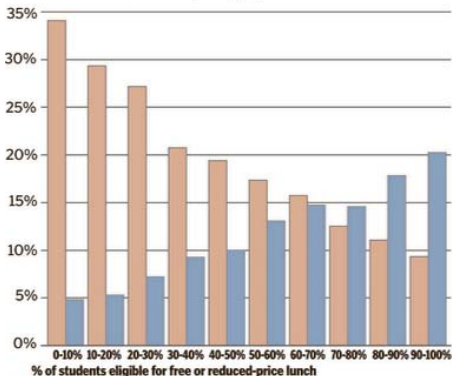
- Interestingly, parental reports of teacher quality correlate (very imperfectly) with teacher effectiveness:
 - Teachers who produce one standard deviation more learning are given a 0.44 higher score (on a scale from 1 to 5).
 - Rookie teachers are given 0.33 lower score by parents.
 - Teachers with higher CLASS scores also get higher scores reported by parents.
- However, parents do not adjust behaviors in response to differences in teacher quality.
 - There is no effect on the quality or quantity of parent-child interaction at home.
 - There is no effect on the child's dropping out or absenteeism.

How teacher ratings relate to a school's poverty level

Teachers who receive the state's top value-added rating — "Most Effective" — are likely to be in schools with fewer poor students, based on value-added ratings for teachers at 1,720 public schools. Of 1,035 teachers at the wealthiest schools, 34 percent got the top rating. In contrast, of 2,411 teachers at the poorest schools, just over 9 percent were rated "Most Effective."

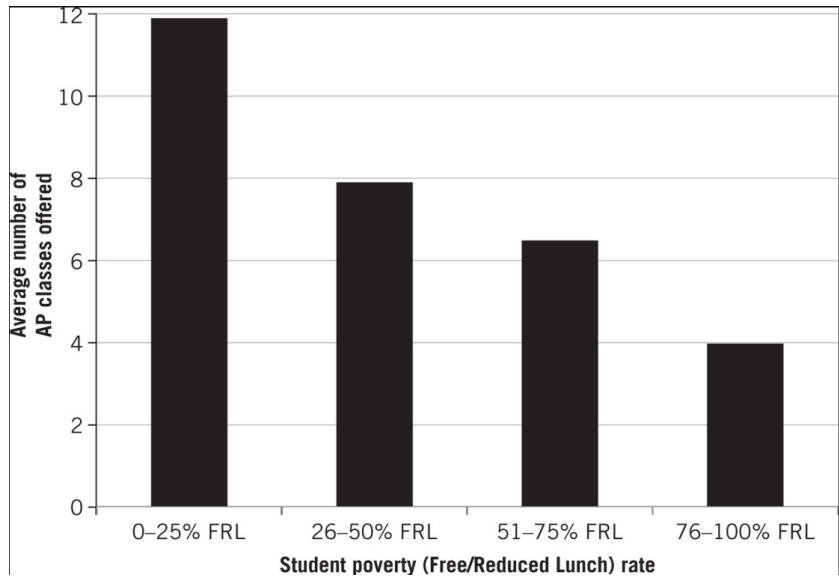
Teachers rated Most Effective Teachers rated Least Effective

Percent of teachers in rating category



SOURCE: Ohio Department of Education

RICH EXNER, JAMES OWENS | THE PLAIN DEALER



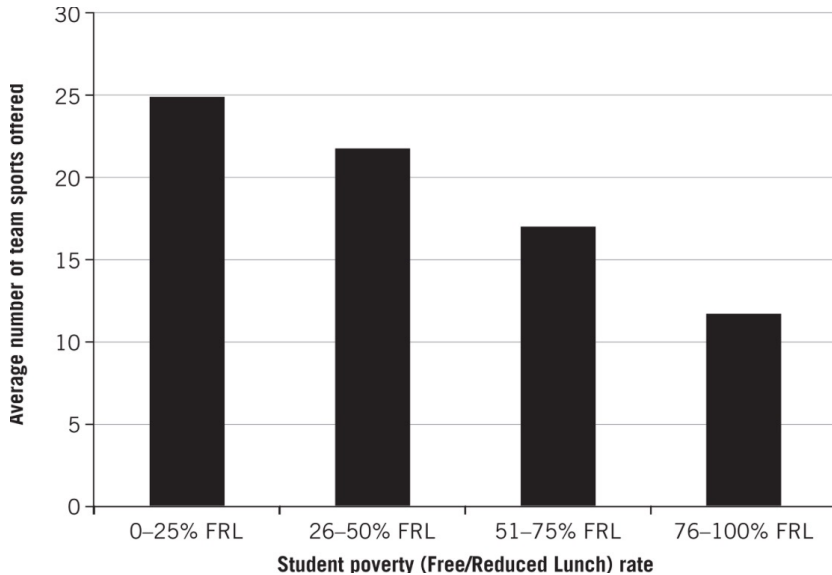
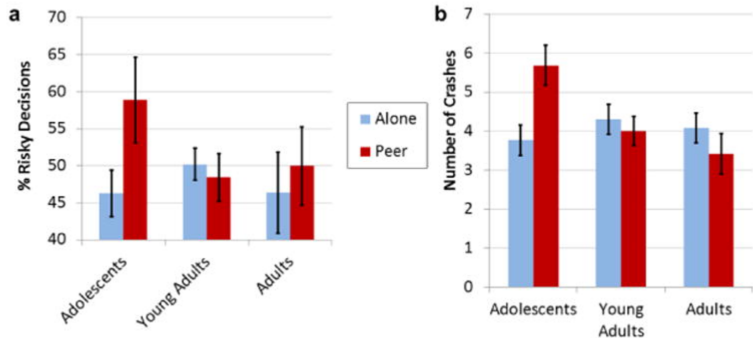


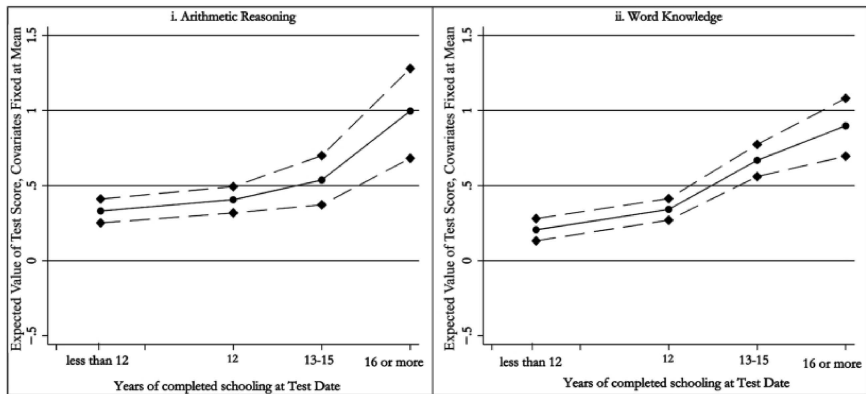
Figure 2



Differential susceptibility of adolescents to peer influences on Stoplight task performance

Mean (a) percentage of risky decisions and (b) number of crashes for adolescent, young adult, and adult participants when playing the Stoplight driving game either alone or with a peer audience. Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean.

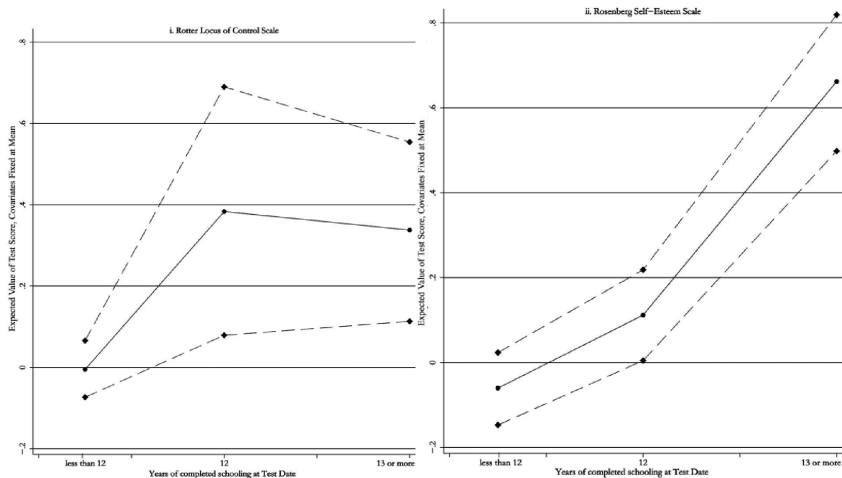
Figure 22: Causal Effect of Schooling on ASVAB Measures of Cognition



Notes: Effect of schooling on components of the ASVAB. The first four components are averaged to create male's with average ability. We standardize the test scores to have within-sample mean zero, variance one. The model is estimated using the NLSY79 sample. Solid lines depict average test scores, and dashed lines, confidence intervals.

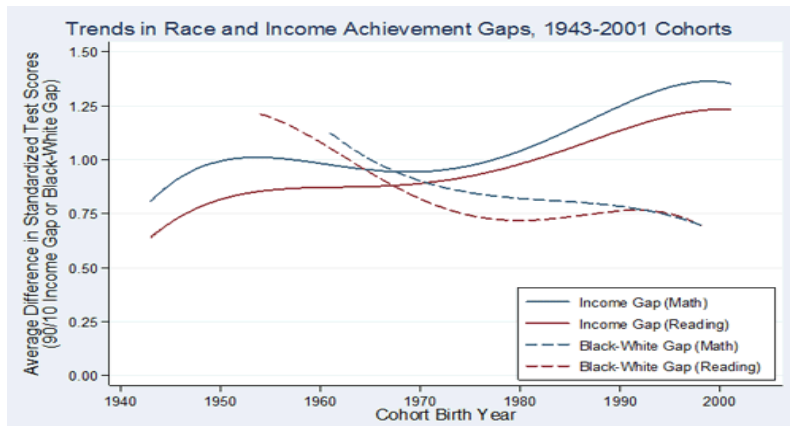
Source: Heckman, Stixrud and Urzua [2006, Figure 4].

Figure 23: Causal Effect of Schooling on Two Measures of Personality



Increasing Inequality in Skills

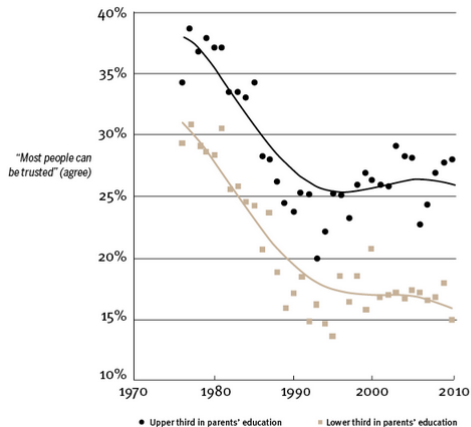
Reardon (2013)



Increasing Inequality in Skills

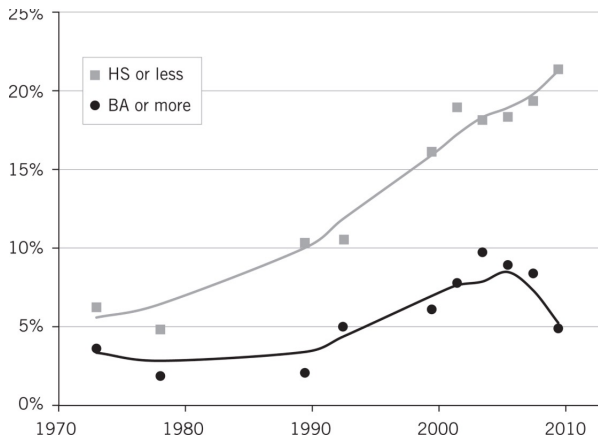
Social Trust

By parents' education, 12th graders, 1976–2011



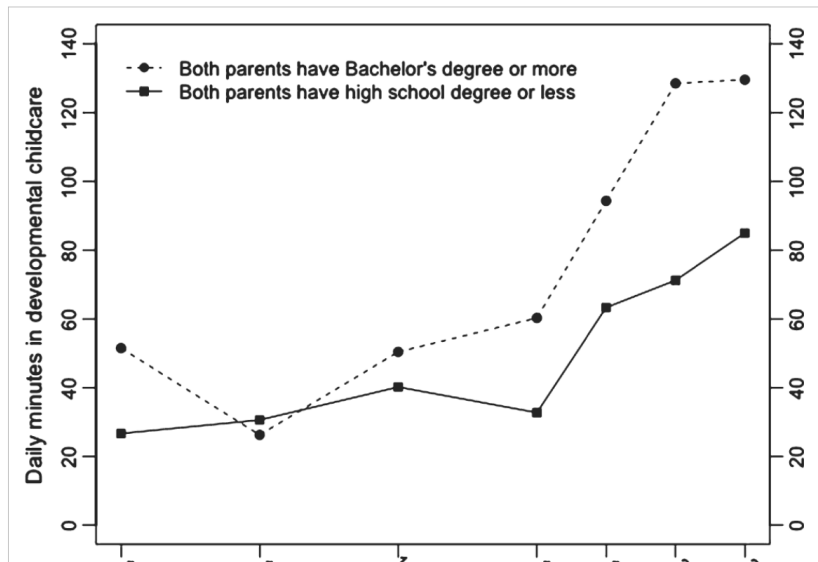
Source: *Monitoring the Future*

Trends in Health: Child obesity



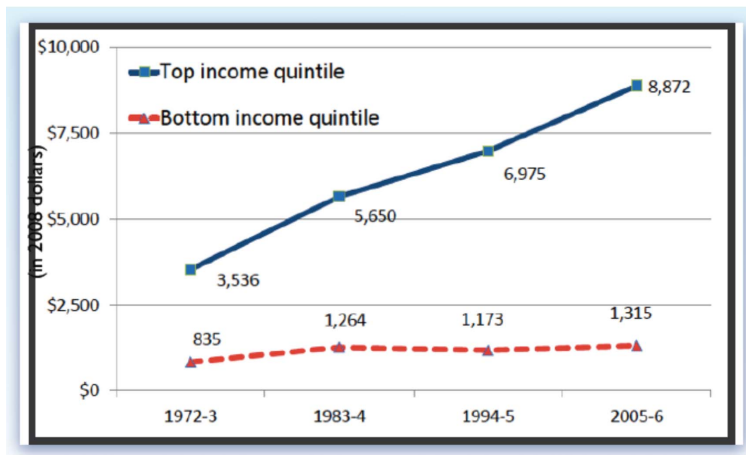
Increasing Inequality in Investments

Altintas (2016)



Increasing Inequality in Investments

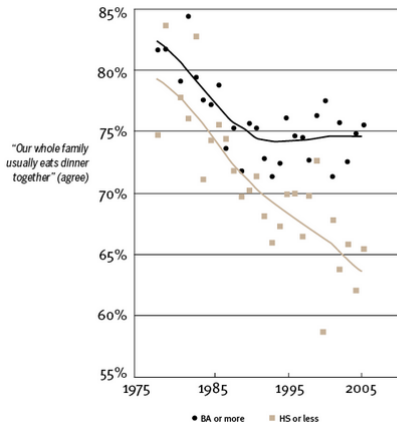
Kornrich and Furstenberg (2011)



Increasing Inequality in Investments

Trends in Family Dinners

By parental education, 1978–2005

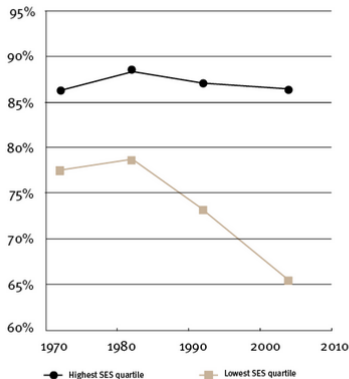


Source: DDB Lifestyle surveys, 1978–2005

Increasing Inequality in Investments

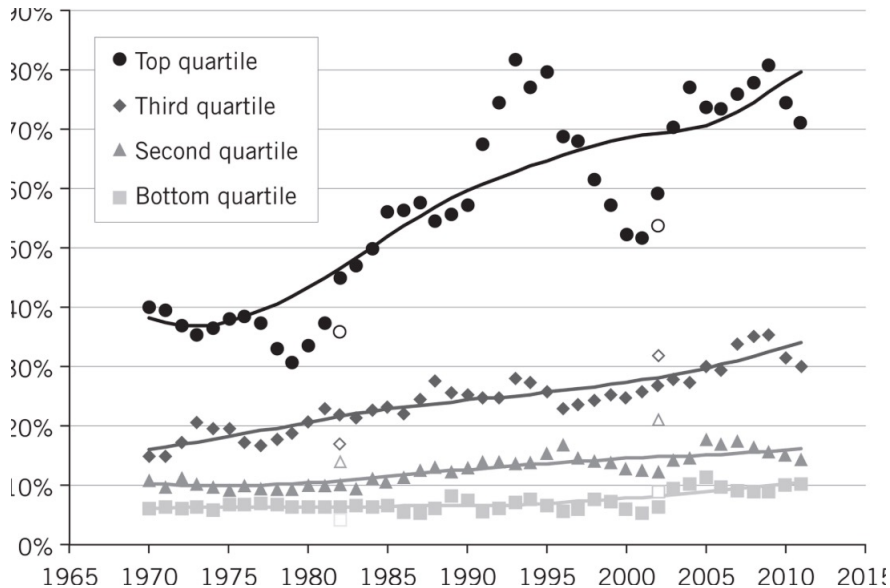
Participation in School-Based Extracurriculars

1972-2002



Source: National Longitudinal Study of 1972, High School & Beyond (1980),
National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988, Education Longitudinal Study of 2002

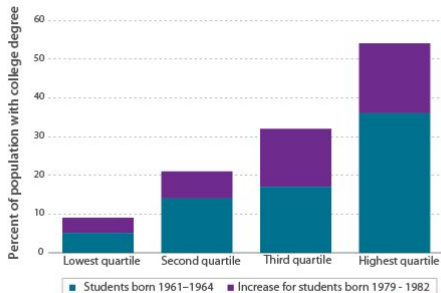
Full Circle: College Attendance



Full Circle: College Graduation

FIGURE 7.
Share of Population with College Degree, by Income Level and Birth Year

The graduation rate for low-income individuals has not increased very much over the past few decades.

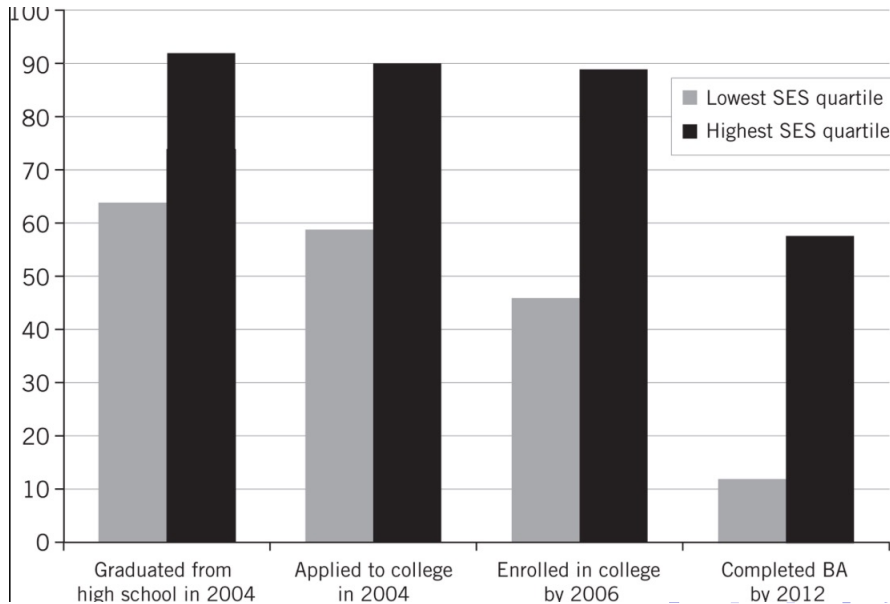


Source: Bailey and Dynarski (2011).

Note: Original data come from National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, 1979 and 1997.

THE HAMILTON
PROJECT
BROOKINGS

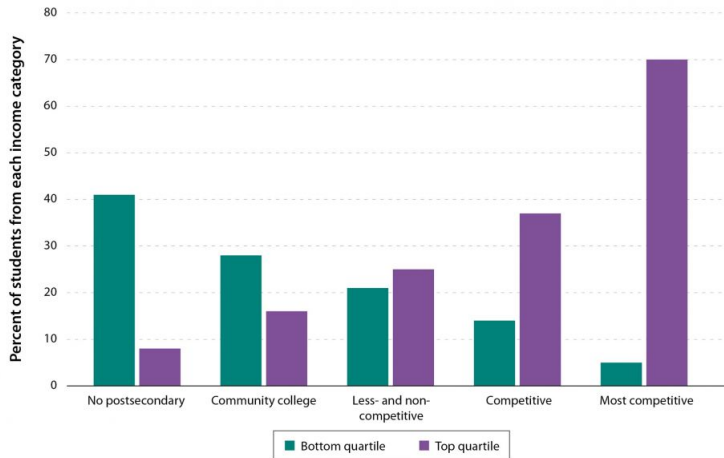
Full Circle: Transition to College



Full Circle: Transition to College

Socioeconomic Distribution at Colleges by Selectivity

A student at one of America's most-selective universities is fourteen times more likely to be from a high-income family than from a low-income family.

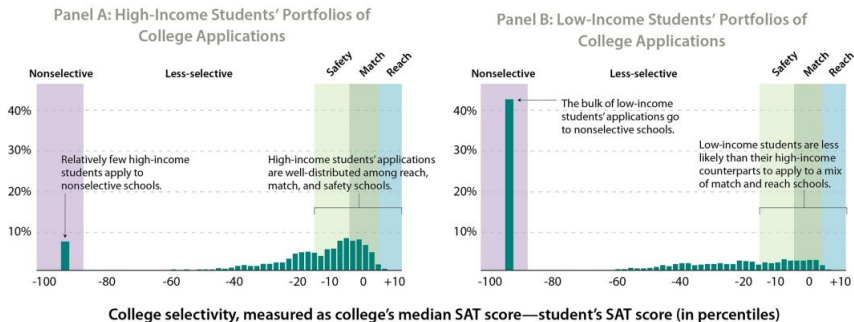


Source: Carnevale and Strohl (2010).

Note: Figure shows college attendance as of 2006. See technical appendix for full description of college selectivity categories.

Full Circle: Transition to College

Application Behavior of High-Achieving Students



Evidence is Reinforced from Evidence from RCT

- Early interventions:
 - Perry Preschool Program
 - Abecedarian
 - Infant Health and Development Program (IHDP)
 - Head Start
- Interventions at School Age
 - Montreal Longitudinal Study

Early Childhood Education: Elango, Garcia, Heckman, and Hojman (2015)

		Treatment Effect	Permutation, one-sided	Permutation, two-sided
Perry	IQ, Age 5	11.422	0.000	0.000
	IQ, Age 8	1.254	0.080	0.430
	Achievement Test Score, Ages 5–10	0.394	0.000	0.000
	Conscientiousness, Ages 4–7	0.273	0.040	0.060
	Achievement Test Score, Age 27	1.795	0.020	0.070
ABC	IQ, Age 5	6.398	0.030	0.030
	IQ, Age 8	4.500	0.080	0.080
	Achievement Test Score Ages 5–10	0.544	0.010	0.010
	Conscientiousness Ages 4–7	0.047	0.400	0.680
	Achievement Test Score, Age 21	0.422	0.010	0.010
IHDP	IQ, Age 3	8.475	0.000	0.000
	IQ, Age 8	-0.671	0.680	0.420
	Achievement Test Score, Ages 5–10	-0.012	0.570	0.840
	Conscientiousness, Ages 4–7	0.075	0.060	0.140
----	Achievement Test Score, Age 18	0.108	0.470	0.950

Early Childhood Education: Elango, Garcia, Heckman, and Hojman (2015)

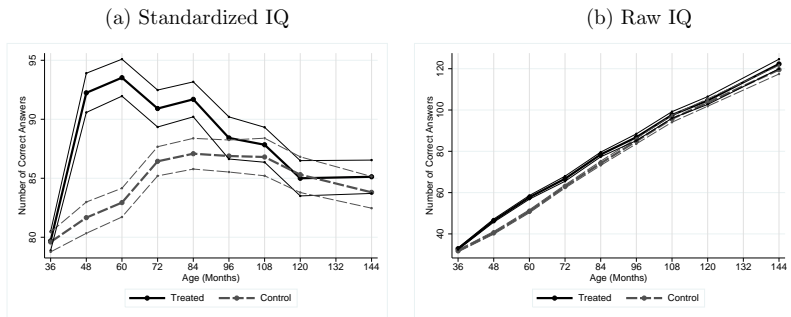
		Treatment Effect	Permutation, one-sided	Permutation, two-sided
Perry	IQ, Age 5	12.666	0.000	0.000
	IQ, Age 8	4.240	0.410	0.900
	Achievement Test Score, Ages 5–10	0.564	0.180	0.400
	Conscientiousness, Ages, 4–7	0.515	0.380	0.850
	Achievement Test Score, Age 27	0.407	0.110	0.390
ABC	IQ, Age 5	3.051	0.050	0.050
	IQ, Age 8	4.573	0.110	0.150
	Achievement Test Score, Ages 5–10	0.822	0.260	0.280
	Conscientiousness, Ages 4–7	0.110	0.600	0.960
	Achievement Test Score, Age 21	0.737	0.240	0.600
IHDP	IQ Age 3	9.877	0.000	0.000
	IQ Age 8	-0.158	0.780	0.490
	Achievement Test Score Ages 5–10	-0.034	0.500	0.920
	Conscientiousness, Ages 4–7	0.089	0.240	0.440
	Achievement Test Score, Age 18	0.517	0.650	0.790

Early Childhood Education: Elango, Garcia, Heckman, and Hojman (2015)

		Treatment Effect	Permutation, one-sided	Permutation, two-sided
Perry	IQ, Age 5	10.607	0.000	0.000
	IQ, Age 8	-0.721	0.060	0.250
	Achievement Test Score, Ages 5–10	0.269	0.000	0.020
	Conscientiousness, Ages 4–7	0.087	0.030	0.040
	Achievement Test Score, Age 27	0.214	0.110	0.230
ABC	IQ, Age 5	9.962	0.530	0.540
	IQ, Age 8	4.174	0.410	0.410
	Achievement Test Score, Ages 5–10	0.277	0.010	0.010
	Conscientiousness, Ages 4–7	0.009	0.590	0.690
	Achievement Test Score, Age 21	0.095	0.070	0.070
IHDP	IQ, Age 3	6.988	0.000	0.000
	IQ, Age 8	-1.206	0.450	0.930
	Achievement Test Score Ages 5–10	0.012	0.720	0.650
	Conscientiousness, Ages 4–7	0.065	0.090	0.170
	Achievement Test Score, Age 18	-0.456	0.500	0.820

Early Childhood Education: Elango, Garcia, Heckman, and Hojman (2015)

Figure 2: Dynamics of IQ in PPP



Source: Reproduced from Hojman (2015). Note: The solid line represents the trajectory of the treated group, and the dotted line represents the trajectory of the control group. Thin lines surrounding trajectories are asymptotic standard errors. It shows standardized IQ as measured by the Stanford-Binnet test in each year. IQ is age-standardized based on a national sample to have a US national mean of 100

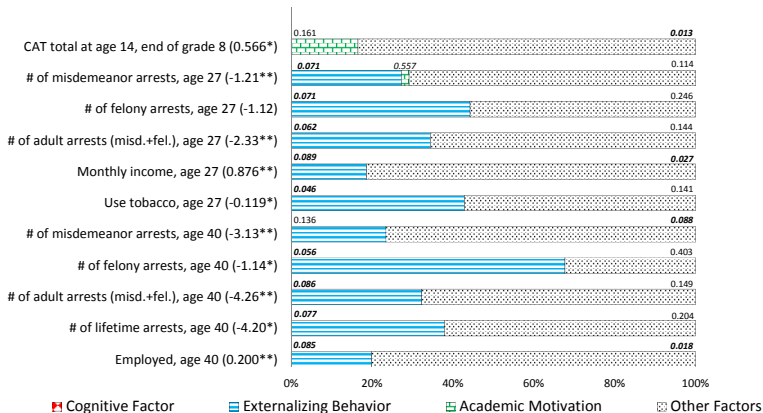
Early Childhood Education: Elango, Garcia, Heckman, and Hojman (2015)

Table 7: Life-Cycle Outcomes, PPP and ABC

	PPP			ABC		
	Age	Female	Male	Age	Female	Male
Cognition and Education						
Adult IQ	-	-	-	21 ^c	10.275 (0.005)	2.588 (0.130)
High School Graduation	19 ^a	0.56 (0.000)	0.02 (0.416)	21 ^c	0.238 (0.090)	0.176 (0.100)
Economic						
Employed	40 ^a	-0.01 (0.615)	.29 (0.011)	30 ^c	0.147 (0.135)	0.302 (0.005)
Yearly Labor Income, 2014 USD	40 ^a	\$6,166 (0.224)	\$8,213 (0.150)	30 ^c	\$3,578 (0.000)	\$17,214 (0.110)
HI by Employer	40 ^a	0.129 (0.055)	0.206 (0.103)	31 ^b	0.043 (0.512)	0.296 (0.035)
Ever on Welfare	18-27 ^a	-0.27 (0.049)	0.03 (0.590)	30 ^c	0.006 (0.517)	-0.062 (0.000)
Crime						
No. of Arrests^d	≤40 ^a	-2.77 (0.041)	-4.88 (0.036)	≤34 ^c	-5.061 (0.051)	-6.834 (0.187)
No. of Non-Juv. Arrests One-sided permutation	≤40 ^a	-2.45 (0.051)	-4.85 (0.025)	≤34 ^c	-4.531 (0.061)	-6.031 (0.181)
Lifestyle						
Self-reported Drug User	-	-	-	30 ^c	0.031 (0.590)	-0.438 (0.030)
Not a Daily Smoker	27 ^a	0.111 (0.110)	0.119 (0.089)	-	-	-
Not a Daily Smoker	40 ^a	0.067 (0.206)	0.194 (0.010)	-	-	-
Physical Activity	40 ^a	0.330 (0.002)	0.090 (0.545)	21 ^b	0.249 (0.004)	0.084 (0.866)
Health						
Obesity (BMI >30)	-	-	-	30-34 ^c	0.221 (0.221)	-0.292 (0.292)

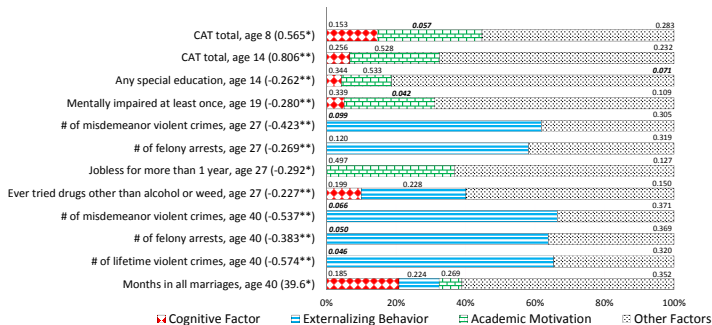
Early Childhood Education: Elango, Garcia, Heckman, and Hojman (2015)

Figure 3: Decompositions of Treatment Effects of PPP on Male Adult Outcomes



Early Childhood Education: Elango, Garcia, Heckman, and Hojman (2015)

Figure 4: Decompositions of Treatment Effects of PPP on Female Adult Outcomes



Source: Reproduced from Heckman et al. (2013). See note in Figure 3.

Early Childhood Education: Elango, Garcia, Heckman, and Hojman (2015)

Table 9: Evidence Across Studies of the Impacts of Head Start

Study	Currie and Thomas (1995)	Garces et al. (2002)	Ludwig and Miller (2007)	Deming (2009)	Carneiro and Ginja (2014)	Feller et al. (2014)	Kline and Walters (2014)
Dataset	C-NLSY AA	PSID AA, mother edu. \leq high school	Multiple	C-NLSY AA	C-NLSY Males	HSIS	HSIS
Subpopulation							
Years of birth	1979-1987	1966-1977	1960-1975	1979-1986	1977-1996	1998-1999	1998-1999
Impacts							
IQ/achievement, ages 3-4	-	-	-	-	-	0.230 (0.038)	0.375 (0.047)
Behavior, ages 3-4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
IQ/achievement, ages 5-6	0.46 (0.129)	-	-	0.287 (0.095)	-	-	-
IQ/achievement, ages 7-21	0.201 (NA)	-	-	0.031 (0.076)	-	-	-
Grade retention ever	-0.008 (0.098)	-	-	-0.107 (0.056)	-	-	-
High School Grad. (no GED)	-	0.00 (0.071)	0.117 (0.080)	0.067 (0.044)	-	-	-
Attended some college	-	0.031 (0.067)	0.028 (0.019)	0.136 0.049	-	-	-
Earnings, ages 23-40	-	0.051 (0.357)	-	-	-	-	-
Idle	-	-	-	-0.030 (0.053)	-	-	-
Ever booked crime	-	-0.126 (0.05)	-	0.051 0.050	-	-	-
Behavior Index, ages 12-13	-	-	-	-	-0.647 (0.582)	-	-
Depression Scale, ages 16-17	-	-	-	-	-0.552 (0.489)	-	-

Early Childhood Education: Duncan and Sojourner (2015)

Table 4

Treatment effects on IQ z-score by low-income status using IHDP HLBW sample with ECLS-B weights.

Outcome (sample size)		Model		
		A	B	C
Age 1 IQ (n=330)	Treatment	0.109 (0.132)	0.112 (0.133)	0.065 (0.177)
	Low income		-0.037 (0.122)	-0.072 (0.171)
	Treatment x (Low income)			0.097 (0.253)
	<hr/>			
Age 2 IQ (n=322)	Treatment	0.793*** (0.160)	0.878*** (0.223)	0.433* (0.219)
	Low income		-0.875*** (0.244)	-1.181*** (0.270)
	Treatment x (Low income)			0.872** (0.280)
	<hr/>			
Age 3 IQ (n=328)	Treatment	0.903*** (0.147)	1.001*** (0.181)	0.323 (0.210)

MELS: Algan et al (2014)

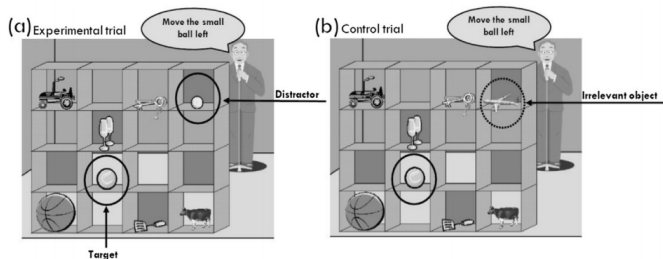
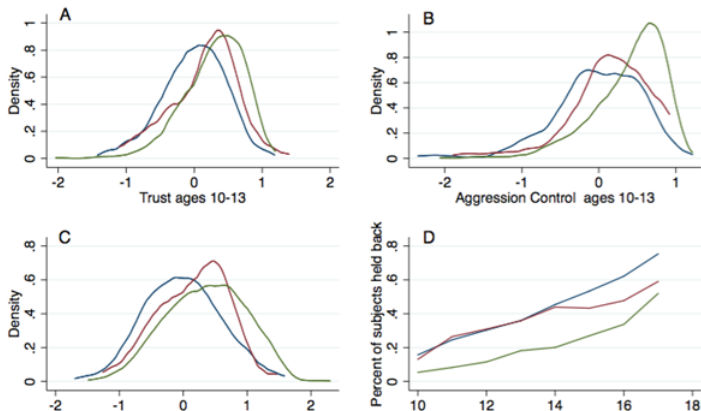


Fig. 1. Example of an Experimental (a) and a Control trial (b) in the Director condition. *Note.* The participant heard the instruction: 'Move the small ball left' from the director. Experimental trial (a): if the participant ignored the director's perspective he would move the distractor ball (golf ball, cannot be seen by the director), which is the smallest ball in the shelves instead of the larger target ball (tennis ball) that is visible from the participant's and the director's perspective. In the Control trial (b), an irrelevant object (plane) replaces the distractor item.

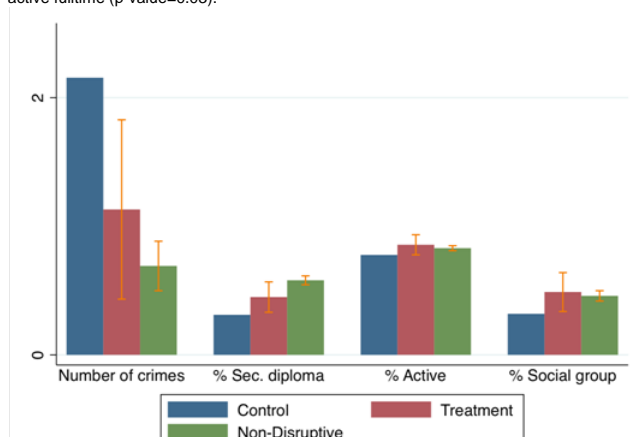
MELS: Algan et al (2014)

Figure 1. Non-cognitive skills and school performance during adolescence. A, B and C show distributions for non-cognitive skills measured in early adolescence for the control, treatment and non-disruptive groups (the non-disruptive boys being those who were not disruptive in kindergarten and did not participate in the experiment as treatment or control: they serve as a normative population baseline). Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for equality of Treatment and Control distributions gives p-value of 0.003 for Trust, 0.036 for Aggression Control, and 0.023 for Attention-Impulse Control. D shows the increasing gap in the percent of subjects held back at each age. P-value from χ^2 test between Treatment and Control groups is 0.60 at age 10 and 0.01 at age 17.



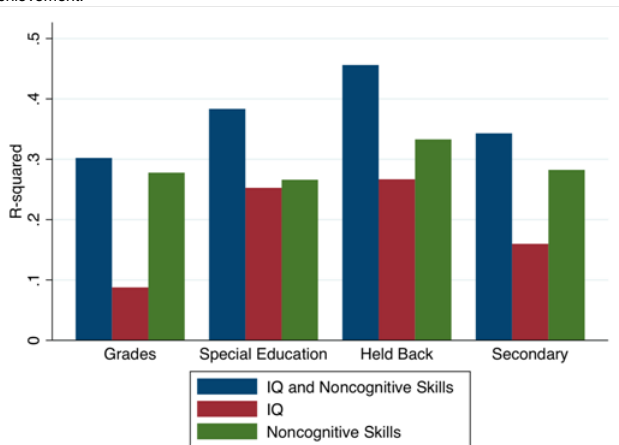
MELS: Algan et al (2014)

Figure 2. Young Adult Outcomes. As young adults, treatment subjects commit fewer crimes, are more likely to graduate from secondary school, are more likely to be active fulltime in school or work, and are more likely to belong to a social or civic group. The intervention closed part or all of the gap between boys ranked as disruptive in kindergarten but not treated (the control group) and the non-disruptive boys (who represent the normative population). Raw differences are significant for secondary diploma (p-value=0.04) and group membership (p-value=0.05), conditional differences (controlling for group imbalances) are significant for number of crimes (p-value=0.09) and percent active fulltime (p-value=0.03).



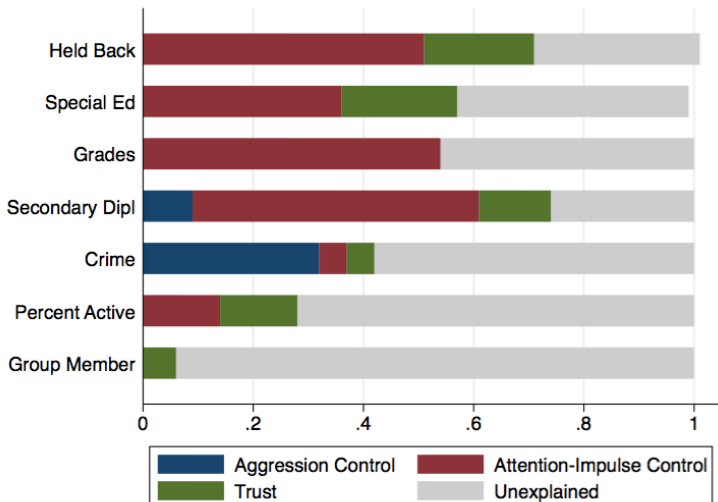
Early Childhood Education: Algan et al (2014)

Figure 3. School achievement explained by IQ and non-cognitive skills. The non-cognitive skills measured in this paper explain a higher proportion of school performance than IQ. The bars plot the adjusted R-squared from uncontrolled OLS regressions of IQ or non-cognitive skills (Trust, Aggression Control, and Attention-Impulse Control), or both, on different measures of school achievement.



Early Childhood Education: Algan et al (2014)

Figure 4. Proportion of impact on Grades and Young Adult Outcomes explained by Aggression Control, Attention-Impulse Control, and Trust. Increases in non-cognitive skills explain a substantial portion of the impact on several outcomes. Calculated percentages and p-values presented in Supplementary materials section F.



- Next, I will try to make sense of this data by proposing a very simple model of human capital formation.
- At the core of this model, there will be two important parameters:
 - Self-productivity of skills: I learn how to read, then I use reading to learn other skills.
 - Dynamic complementarity: The returns to the development of advanced skills are higher for the individuals who learned basic skills.

Optimal Early and Late Investments in Children

- Consider the following cost minimization problem:

$$\min x_E + \frac{1}{1+r}x_L$$

subject to the technology of skill formation:

$$h = \left[\gamma x_E^\phi + (1 - \gamma) x_L^\phi \right]^{\frac{1}{\phi}}$$

where $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ and $\phi \leq 1$.

- Note that:
 - The parameter γ captures self-productivity.
 - The parameter ϕ captures dynamic complementarity.

Boundary Solution when $\phi = 1$

- In this case, $h = \gamma x_E + (1 - \gamma) x_L$.
- Two investment strategies: Invest early and produce γ units of human capital per unit of investment.
- Save in physical assets early and invest $1 + r$ late and produce $(1 + r)(1 - \gamma)$ units of human capital.
- Should invest all early if, and only if:

$$\gamma > \frac{1 + r}{2 + r}$$

Boundary Solution when $\phi \rightarrow -\infty$

- In this case, $h = \min \{x_E, x_L\}$
- The solution to this problem is $x_E = x_L$ for whatever values of r .

Interior Solution when $-\infty < \phi < 1$

- The solution to this problem is:

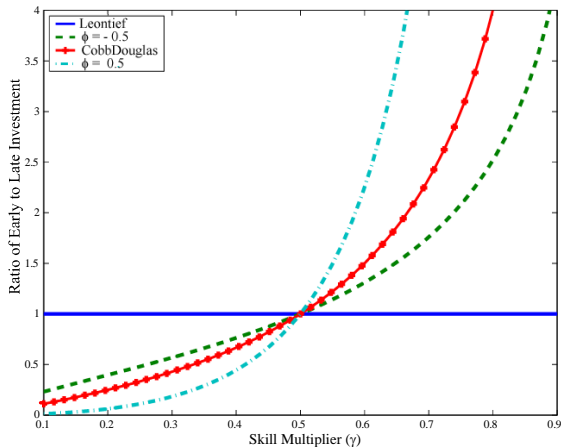
$$x_E = \frac{\gamma^{\frac{1}{1-\phi}}}{\left[\gamma^{\frac{1}{1-\phi}} + (1-\gamma)^{\frac{1}{1-\phi}} (1+r)^{\frac{\phi}{1-\phi}} \right]^{\frac{1}{\phi}}} h$$

$$x_L = \frac{(1-\gamma)^{\frac{1}{1-\phi}} (1+r)^{\frac{1}{1-\phi}}}{\left[\gamma^{\frac{1}{1-\phi}} + (1-\gamma)^{\frac{1}{1-\phi}} (1+r)^{\frac{\phi}{1-\phi}} \right]^{\frac{1}{\phi}}} h$$

- Note that we have the following ratio:

$$\ln \frac{x_E}{x_L} = \frac{1}{1-\phi} \ln \left(\frac{\gamma}{1-\gamma} \right) + \frac{1}{1-\phi} \ln \left(\frac{1}{1+r} \right)$$

Textbook Model of Investments in Children



(Assumes $r = 0$)

Dual Side of Dynamic Complementarity

- Returns to late investments are higher for the individuals that have high early investments.
- BUT
- Returns to early investments are higher for the individuals who will also have high late investments.
- In other words, if the child will not receive high late investments, then the impacts of early investments will be diminished.

Estimating Parameters of the Technology of Skill Formation: Parameterization

- There are S different developmental stages: $s = 1, \dots, S$. The technology for skill k , at period t and stage s is:

$$\theta_{k,t+1} = e^{\eta_{c,t+1}} \times f_{s,k}$$

where

$$f_{s,k} = [\gamma_{s,k,1}\theta_{c,t}^{\phi_{s,c}} + \gamma_{s,k,2}\theta_{n,t}^{\phi_{s,c}} + \gamma_{s,k,3}x_{k,t}^{\phi_{s,c}} + \gamma_{s,k,4}\theta_{c,p}^{\phi_{s,c}} + \gamma_{s,k,5}\theta_{n,p}^{\phi_{s,c}}]^{\frac{1}{\phi_{s,c}}}$$

Estimates of the Technology of Skill Formation

Table V
 The Technology for Cognitive and Noncognitive Skill Formation
 Estimated Along With Investment Equation With Linear Anchoring on Educational
 Attainment (Years of Schooling); Factors Normally Distributed
 Panel A: Technology of Cognitive Skill Formation (Next Period Cognitive Skills)

		First Stage Parameters		Second Stage Parameters
Current Period Cognitive Skills (Self-Productivity)	$\gamma_{1,C,1}$	0.426 (0.03)	$\gamma_{2,C,1}$	0.901 (0.01)
Current Period Noncognitive Skills (Cross-Productivity)	$\gamma_{1,C,2}$	0.127 (0.04)	$\gamma_{2,C,2}$	0.014 (0.01)
Current Period Investments	$\gamma_{1,C,3}$	0.322 (0.04)	$\gamma_{2,C,3}$	0.024 (0.01)
Parental Cognitive Skills	$\gamma_{1,C,4}$	0.059 (0.02)	$\gamma_{2,C,4}$	0.062 (0.01)
Parental Noncognitive Skills	$\gamma_{1,C,5}$	0.066 (0.04)	$\gamma_{2,C,5}$	0.000 (0.01)
Complementarity Parameter	$\phi_{1,C}$	0.748 (0.25)	$\phi_{2,C}$	-1.207 (0.16)
Implied Elasticity Parameter	$1/(1-\phi_{1,C})$	3.968	$1/(1-\phi_{2,C})$	0.453
Variance of Shocks $\eta_{C,t}$	$\delta^2_{1,C}$	0.159 (0.01)	$\delta^2_{2,C}$	0.092 (0.00)

Estimates of the Technology of Skill Formation

Panel B: Technology of Noncognitive Skill Formation (Next Period Noncognitive Skills)

		First Stage Parameters		Second Stage Parameters
Current Period Cognitive Skills (Cross-Productivity)	$\gamma_{1,N,1}$	0.000 (0.02)	$\gamma_{2,N,1}$	0.000 (0.01)
Current Period Noncognitive Skills (Self-Productivity)	$\gamma_{1,N,2}$	0.712 (0.03)	$\gamma_{2,N,2}$	0.868 (0.01)
Current Period Investments	$\gamma_{1,N,3}$	0.195 (0.03)	$\gamma_{2,N,3}$	0.121 (0.03)
Parental Cognitive Skills	$\gamma_{1,N,4}$	0.000 (0.01)	$\gamma_{2,N,4}$	0.000 (0.01)
Parental Noncognitive Skills	$\gamma_{1,N,5}$	0.093 (0.03)	$\gamma_{2,N,5}$	0.011 (0.02)
Complementarity Parameter	$\phi_{1,N}$	0.017 (0.27)	$\phi_{2,N}$	-0.323 (0.21)
Elasticity Parameter	$1/(1-\phi_{1,N})$	1.017	$1/(1-\phi_{2,N})$	0.756
Variance of Shocks $\eta_{N,t}$	$\delta^2_{1,N}$	0.170 (0.01)	$\delta^2_{2,N}$	0.104 (0.00)

Note: Standard errors in parenthesis.

Interpretation of Findings: Maximizing Average Education

- Suppose that H children are born, $h = 1, \dots, H$.
- These children represent draws from the distribution of initial conditions $F(\theta_{c,1,h}, \theta_{n,1,h}, \theta_{c,p}, \theta_{n,p}, \pi)$.
- We want to allocate finite resources B across these children for early and late investments.
- Formally:

$$S^* = \max \frac{1}{H} \left[\sum_{h=1}^H S(\theta_{c,3}, \theta_{n,3}, \pi_h) \right]$$

subject to the technologies for the formation of cognitive and noncognitive skills as well as:

$$\sum_{h=1}^H (x_{1,h} + x_{2,h}) = B$$

Interpretation of Findings: Minimizing Average Crime

- Another possibility is to minimize aggregate crime (average crime per individual).
- This will lead to different optimal ratios as crime is more sensitive to changes in noncognitive skills.
- Relative to cognitive skills, noncognitive skills are more malleable at later ages.

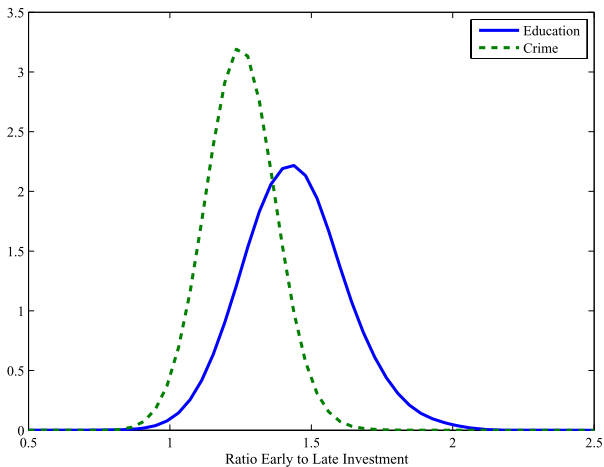


FIGURE 6.—Densities of ratio of early to late investments maximizing aggregate education versus minimizing aggregate crime.

Figure 5A
Share of Residual Variance in Measurements of Investments
Due to the Variance of Investment Factor (Signal)
and Due to the Variance of Measurement Error (Noise)

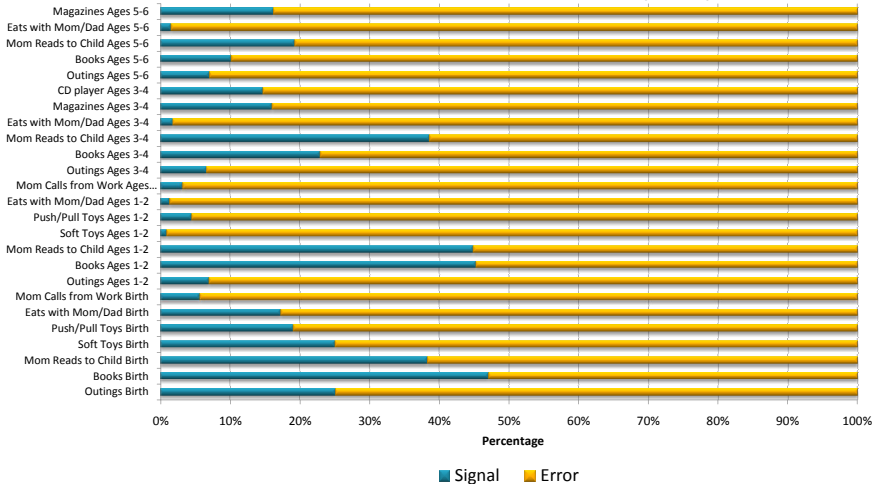


Figure 5B
Share of Residual Variance in Measurements of Investments
Due to the Variance of Investment Factor (Signal)
and Due to the Variance of Measurement Error (Noise)

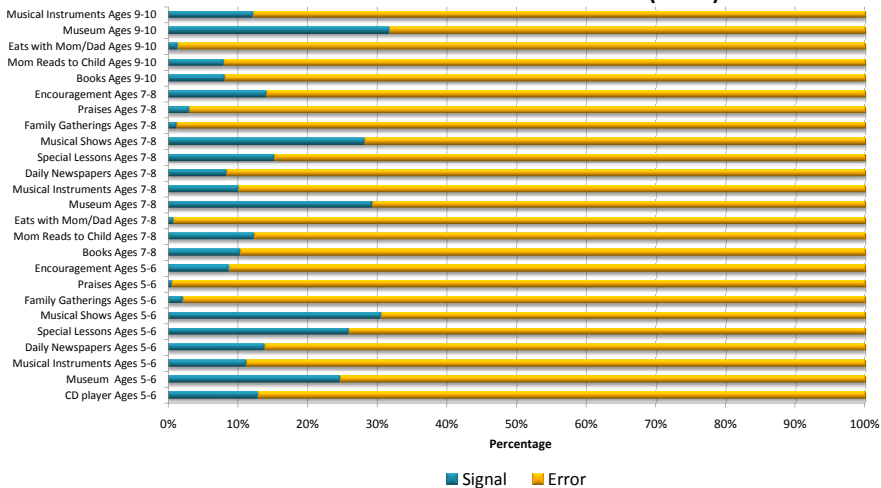
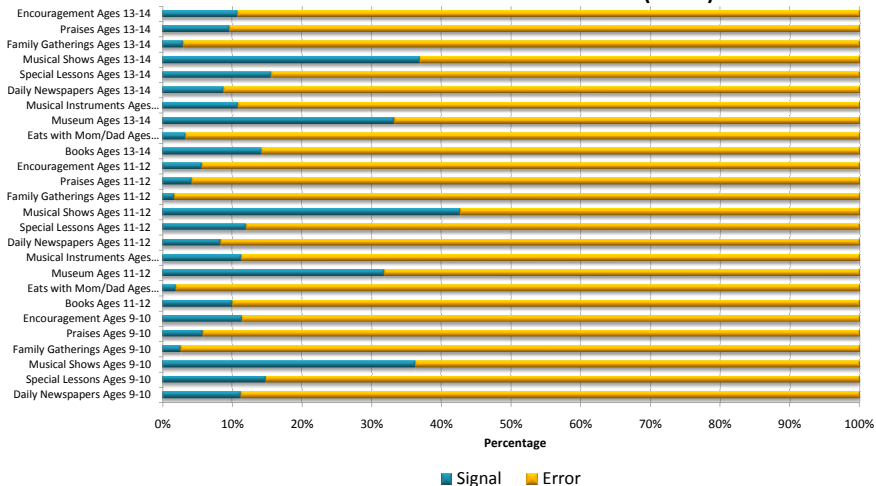


Figure 5C
Share of Residual Variance in Measurements of Investments
Due to the Variance of Investment Factor (Signal)
and Due to the Variance of Measurement Error (Noise)



Home Observation for the Measurement of the Environment

- Created by Bettye Caldwell and Robert Bradley in late 1960s, early 1970s (first published in 1980s)
- Evaluates a child's home environment as well as parent-child interaction.
- Administered by trained professional at the child's home with both child and primary caregiver present.
- Semi-structured interview and observation period: 45-60 minutes.

HOME: Strengths and Weaknesses

- Strengths
 - Easy to administer and score.
 - Reliability and validity.
 - Easy to adapt for specific purposes.
 - Provides objective information on home, child, and parent-child interaction.
- Weaknesses:
 - Training of administrators to follow standardized measurement.
 - Only Yes/No questions.
 - Score: Simple summation gives “too much” weight to items that do not vary a lot across households.

HOME: IRT Analysis

- Let θ_i denote the latent quality of the environment experienced by child i .
- Let $d_{i,j}^* = a_j (\theta_i - b_j) + \epsilon_{i,j}$ and define $d_{i,j} = 0$ if $d_{i,j}^* \leq 0$ and $d_{i,j} = 1$, otherwise.
- Assume $\epsilon_{i,j}$ has logistic distribution and let θ_i be normally distributed with mean zero and variance σ^2 .
- Parameter a_j is item discrimination while b_j is item difficulty.

Interpretation of IRT Parameters

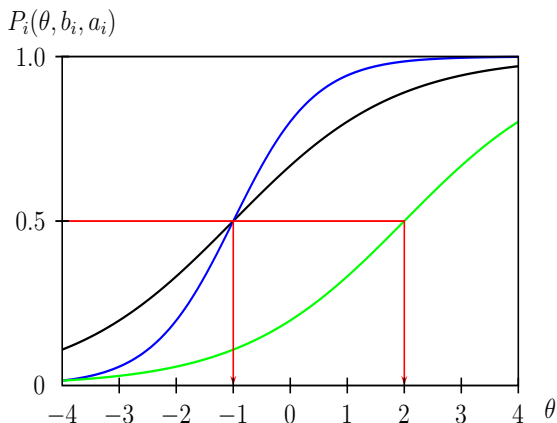
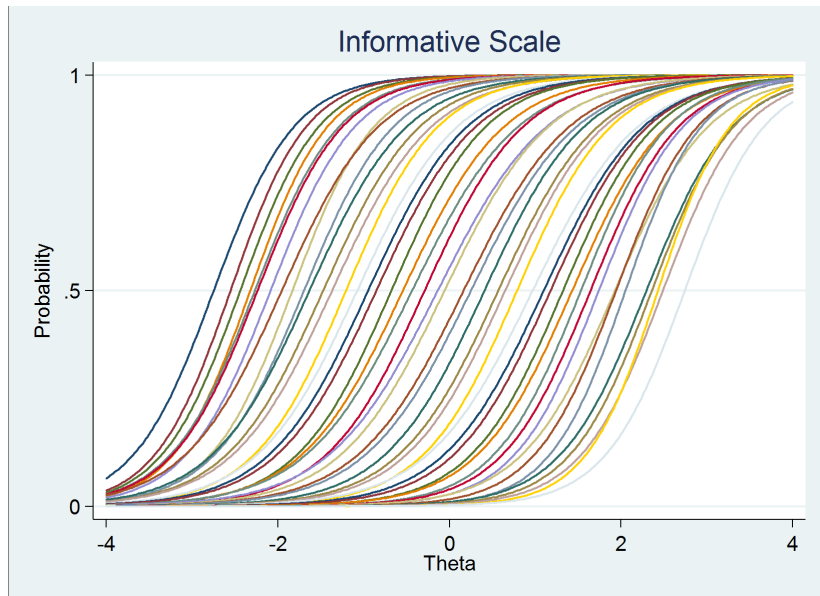
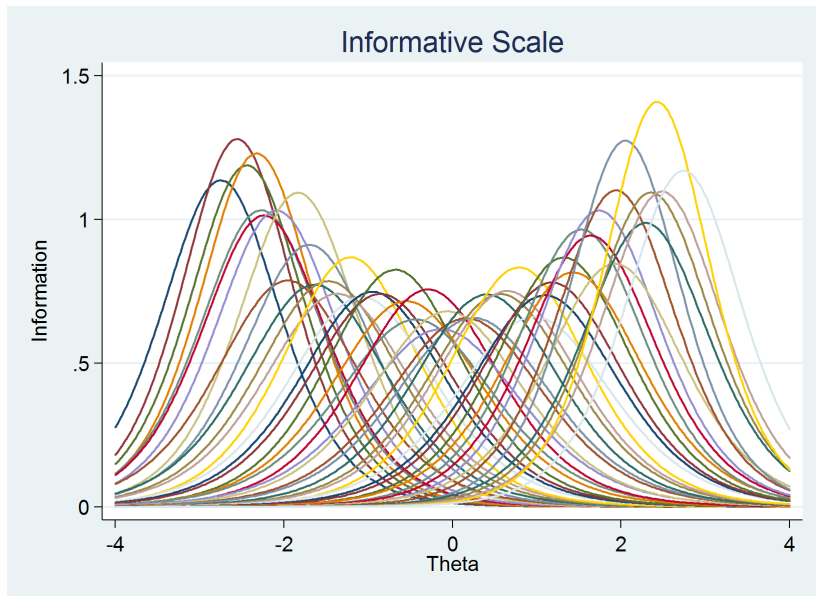


Figure 13: The item response functions of three 2PL items

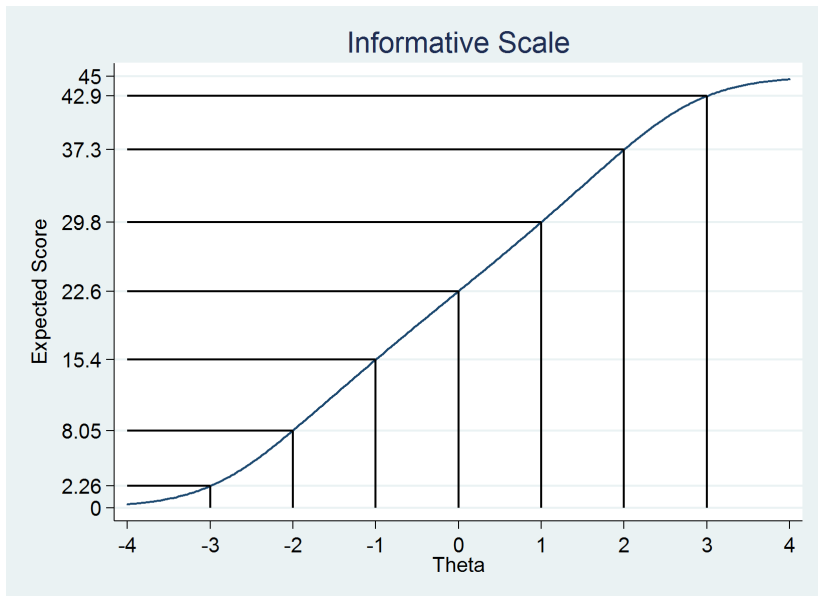
Properties of an Informative IRT Scale



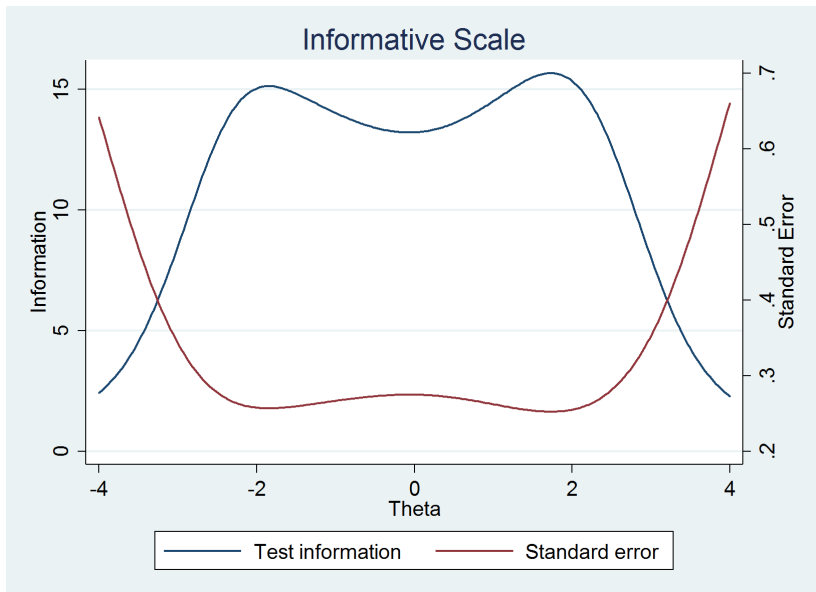
Properties of an Informative IRT Scale: IIF



Properties of an Informative IRT Scale: TCC



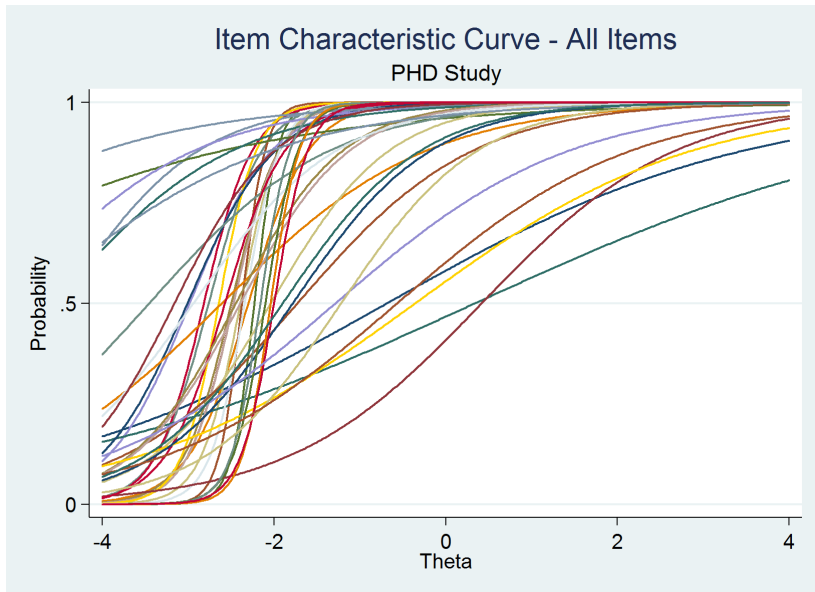
Properties of an Informative IRT Scale: TIF



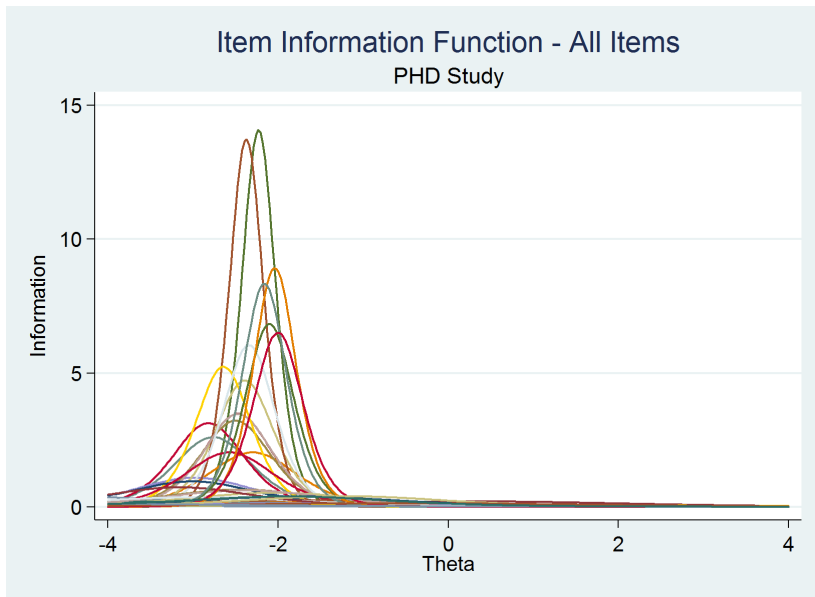
HOME: IRT Analysis

- In few words, an informative scale (as presented in the last four graphs) would have items that have good discriminatory power as well as variability in difficulty.
- This combination allows us to identify, with a lot of precision, households that have low, medium, and high quality environments.
- Unfortunately, the HOME Scale does not have this property.
- As I will show below, that are “too many” easy items and “too few” medium and difficult items.
- For this reason, the HOME Scale will be able to separate very low quality home environments from okay ones, but it will not have power to separate okay from great home environments.

IRT Properties of Full Scale HOME

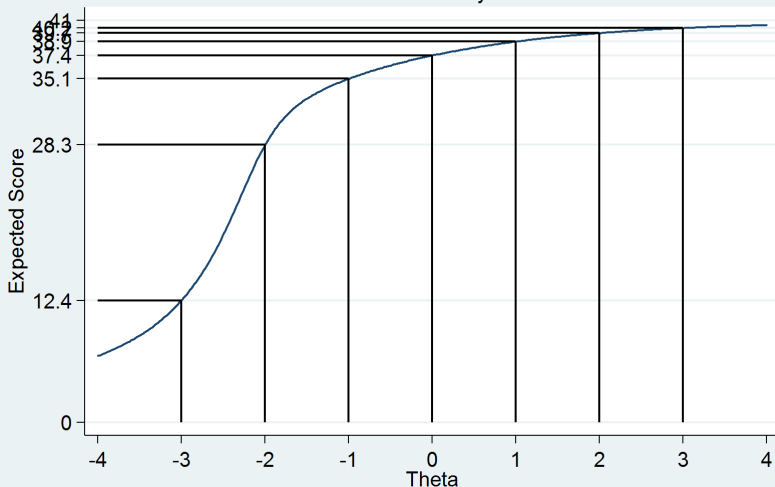


IRT Properties of Full Scale HOME



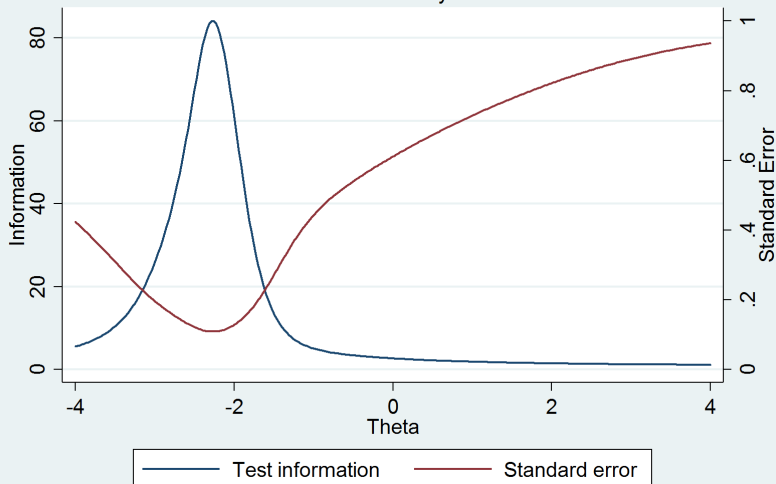
IRT Properties of Full Scale HOME

Test Characteristic Curve of the HOME Scale - All Items
PHD Study



IRT Properties of Full Scale HOME

Information Function of the HOME Scale - All Items
PHD Study



Why does the IRT Properties of the HOME Matter?

- It probably affects the estimation of the technology of skill formation.
- Why? Medium and high quality environments are difficult to separate.
- It is possible that differences between medium and high quality environments are more (or less) important for child development than differences between medium and low quality environments.
- Either case may lead to biases in the estimation of the technology of skill formation.

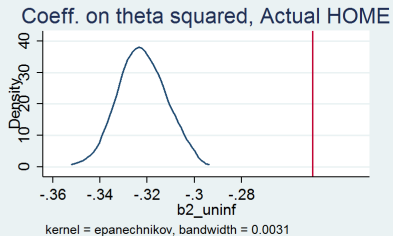
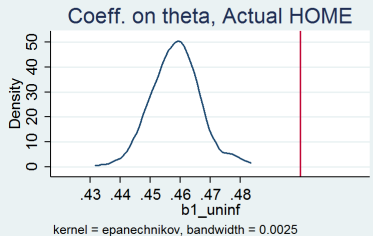
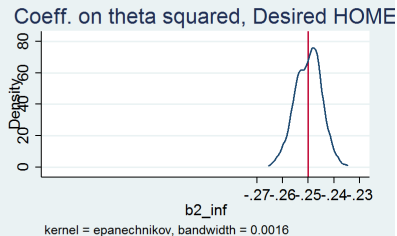
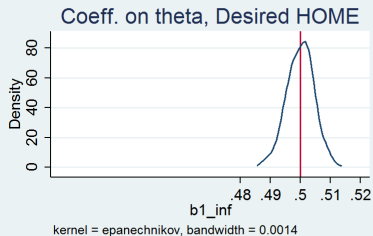
Monte Carlo Exercise

- Let h_1 denote human capital, θ denote investments, and ζ denote uncorrelated shocks. Consider the simple technology of skill formation:

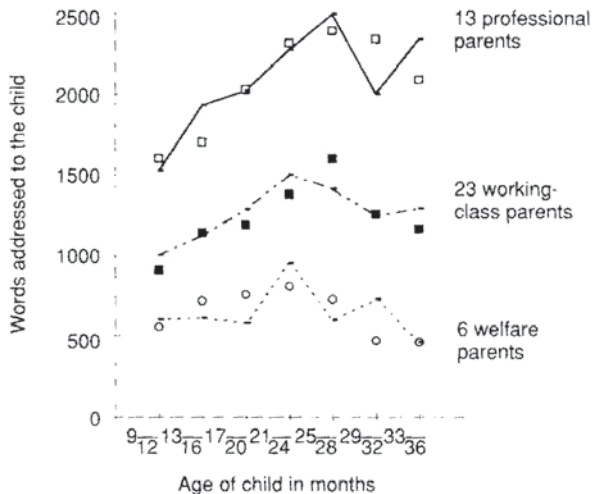
$$h_1 = 1.0 + 0.5\theta - 0.25\theta^2 + \zeta \quad (1)$$

- To obtain an idea about potential problems of using the HOME as a measure of investment to be used in the estimation of (1):
 - Generate a HOME Scale with desirable IRT properties as the “desired” HOME Scale;
 - Generate a HOME Scale that has “flawed” IRT properties as the “actual” HOME Scale;
 - Estimate $\theta_{desired}$ from “desired” HOME Scale and θ_{flawed} from “actual” HOME Scale;
 - Regress h_1 on quadratic function of $\theta_{desired}$ and compare estimated with true coefficients;
 - Regress h_1 on quadratic function of θ_{flawed} and compare estimated with true coefficients.

Monte Carlo Exercise



Measuring Quality and Quantity of Time: LENA Pro



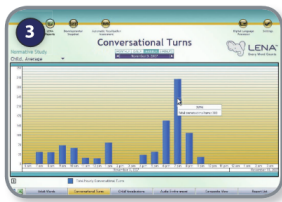
Measuring Quality and Quantity of Time: LENA Pro



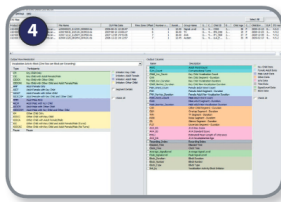
Turn on the DLP and place it in the pocket of the child's LENA clothing.



After completing recording, plug the DLP into a PC running LENA Pro. The sophisticated language environment analysis software automatically uploads and processes the audio file.



The software generates the LENA reports and other analyses.



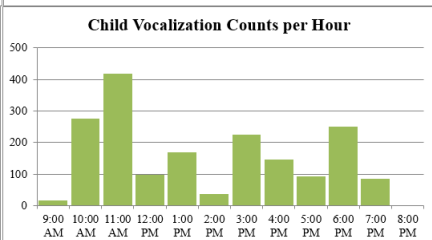
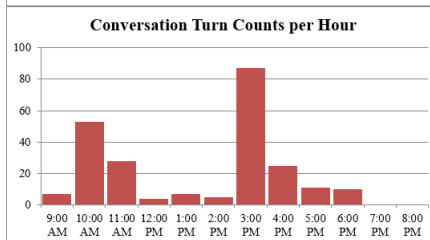
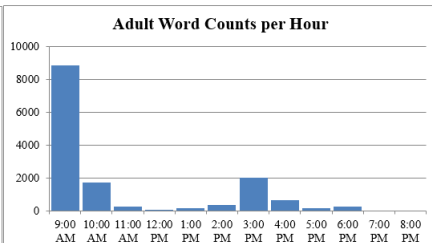
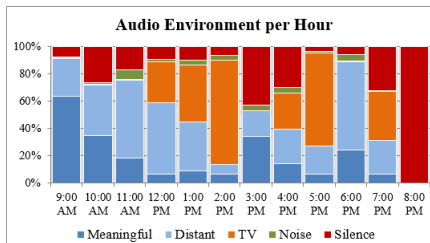
Export data from LENA Pro to mine your LENA data and perform custom in-depth analyses.

Reliability: Adult Word Counts



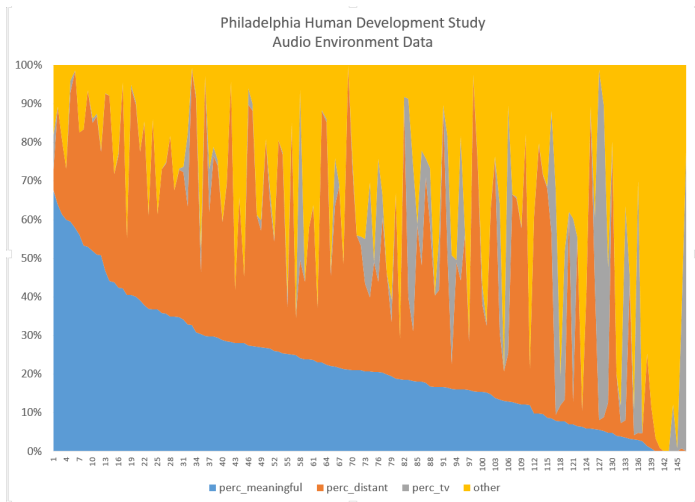
Figure 1. Human and LENA-based AWC estimates for 70 test files.

Measuring Quality and Quantity of Time: LENA Pro



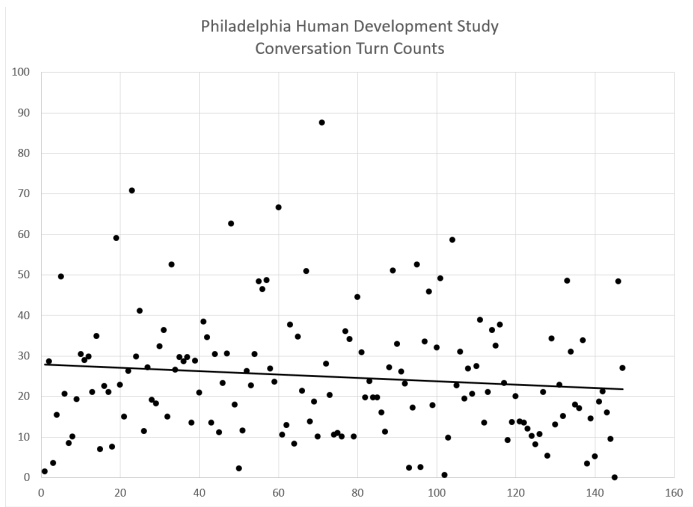
Measuring Quantity of Time: Meaningful Time

Philadelphia Human Development Study



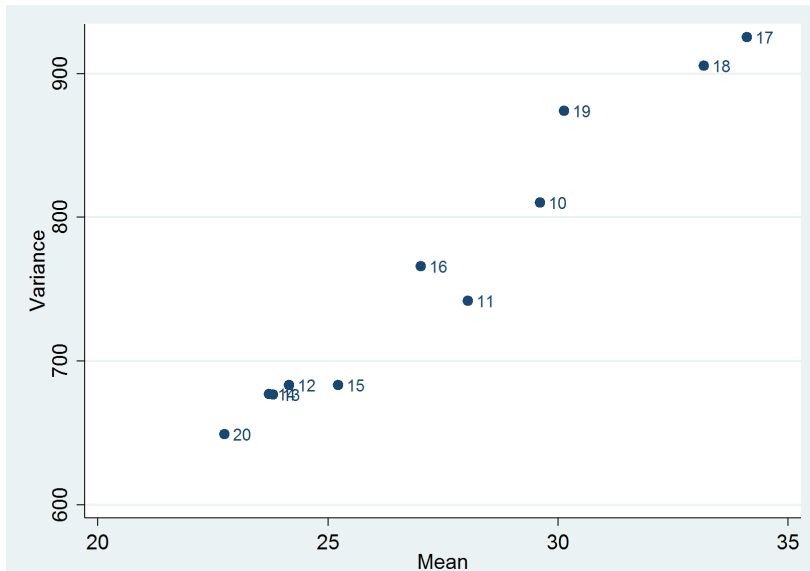
Measuring Quality of Time: Conversation Turn Counts

Philadelphia Human Development Study



Measuring Quality and Quantity of Time: LENA Pro

Philadelphia Human Development Study



Count Data

- This dependence between mean and variance (in hours when the mean is high, the variance is also high) is typical in count data.
- One may think of taking the natural log of conversation turn counts and proceed with OLS-type analysis.
- Not a good idea with count data:
 - There are many zeros; taking the logs will eliminate the zeros from the analysis, which means it reduces cases of poor language environment.
 - We want to identify households in terms of expected number of counts, not the expected log of number of counts (nonlinear transformation).

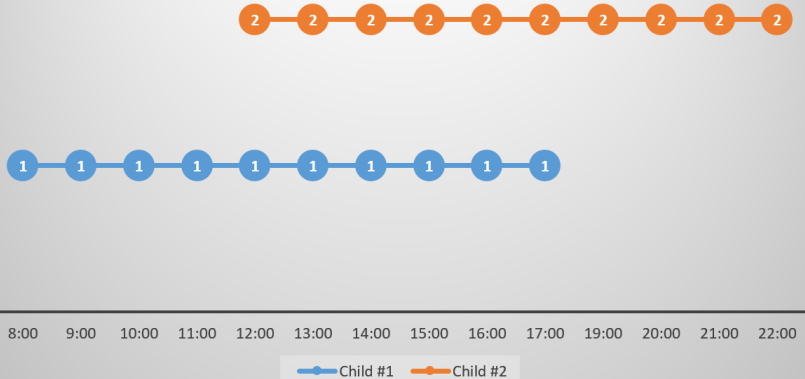
Analysis of LENA Conversation Turn Counts Data

- Let $Y_{i,j}$ denote the j th observation on conversation turn counts between an adult and child i .
- Because these are counts, we model each observation as a Poisson random variable with parameter $\epsilon_i \lambda_{i,j}$ where ϵ_i is a random effect term and $\lambda_{i,j}$ is such that:

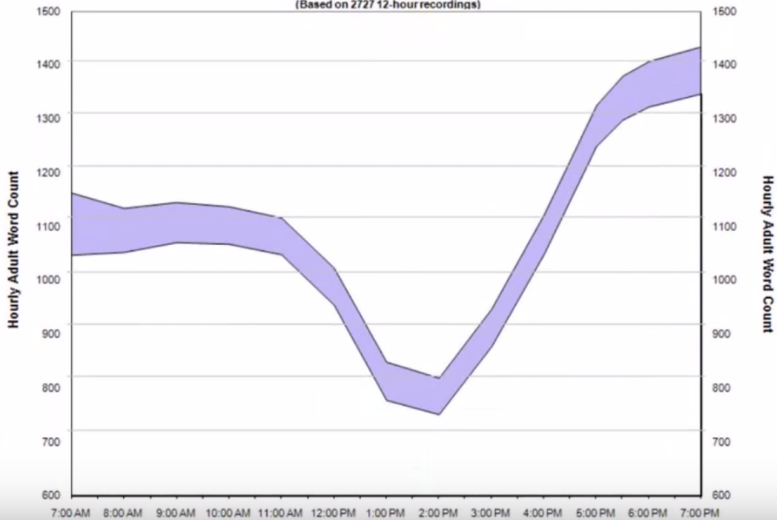
$$\ln \lambda_{i,j} = X_{i,j} \delta_j + \ln s_{i,j} \quad (2)$$

- Vector $X_{i,j}$ contains variables that describe the context of measurement and $s_{i,j}$ is “exposure” (i.e., number of seconds that the LENA device was on during the j th measurement).

LENA Measurement in Practice

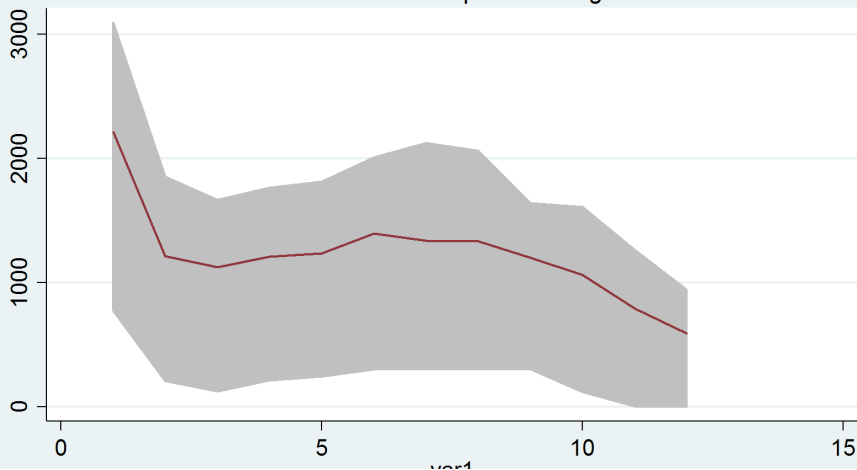


Daily Pattern of Talk for Typical Families
(Based on 2727 12-hour recordings)



Measurement Order

Mean and Interquartile Range



Analysis of LENA Conversation Turn Counts Data

- Conditional on ϵ_i , the probability of observing a count equal to:

$$\Pr(y_{i,j} | \epsilon_i) = \frac{(\epsilon_i \lambda_{i,j})^{y_{i,j}}}{y_{i,j}!} e^{-\epsilon_i \lambda_{i,j}}$$

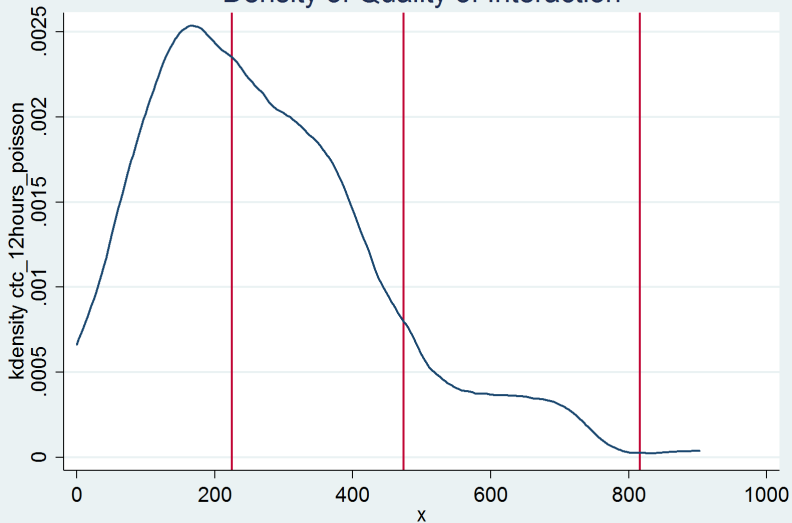
where $\Pr(y_{i,j} | \epsilon_i) = \Pr(Y_{i,j} = y_{i,j} | \epsilon_i)$ is the probability that the count of variable $Y_{i,j}$ is equal to $y_{i,j}$ conditional on ϵ_i .

- Assume that, conditional on ϵ_i , the events are independent. Thus:

$$\Pr(y_{i,1}, \dots, y_{i,J} | \epsilon_i) = \left\{ \left[\prod_{j=1}^J \frac{(\lambda_{i,j})^{y_{i,j}}}{y_{i,j}!} \right] \epsilon_i^{\sum_{j=1}^J y_{i,j}} e^{-\epsilon_i \sum_{j=1}^J \lambda_{i,j}} \right\} \quad (3)$$

- Because we don't observe the random effect ϵ_i , we need to integrate it out.
- We assume that ϵ_i has gamma distribution with mean one and variance $\frac{1}{\alpha}$

Density of Quality of Interaction



Analysis of LENA Conversation Turn Counts Data

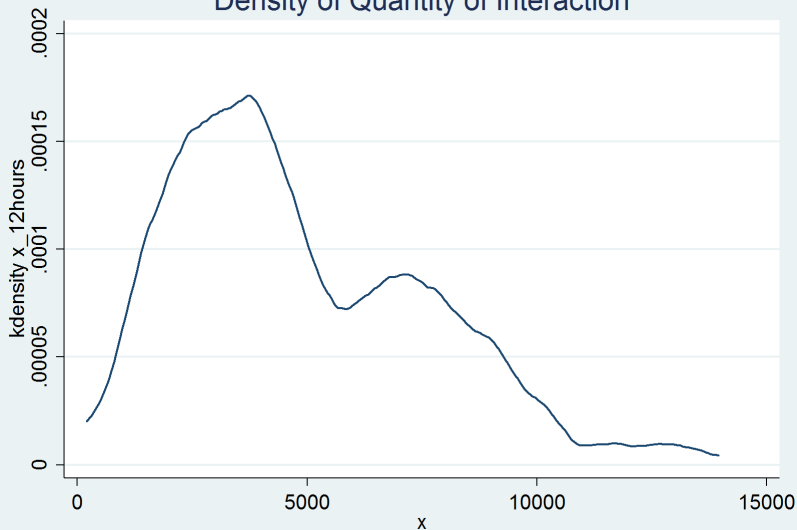
- Let $M_{i,j}$ denote the share of meaningful time of adult-child interaction in j th observation.
- Because these are proportion data, we model each observation as the following logistic regression:

$$\ln \left\{ \frac{M_{i,j}}{1 - M_{i,j}} \right\} = X_{i,j} \rho_j + \mu_i + v_{i,j}$$

where μ_i is a random effect with mean zero and variance σ_μ^2 .

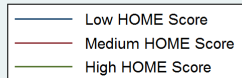
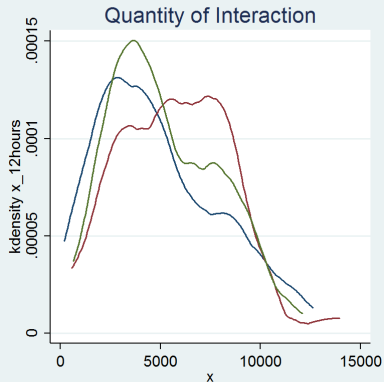
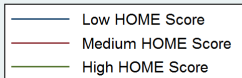
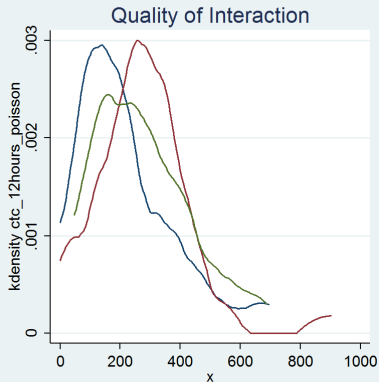
- We are interested in estimating the unobserved heterogeneity captured by μ_i across families.

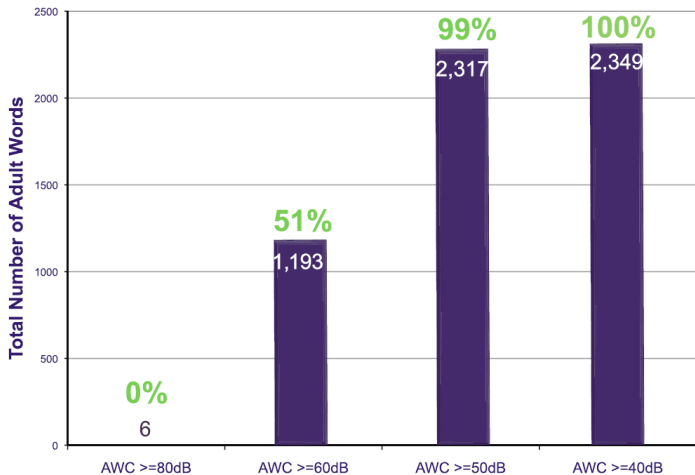
Density of Quantity of Interaction



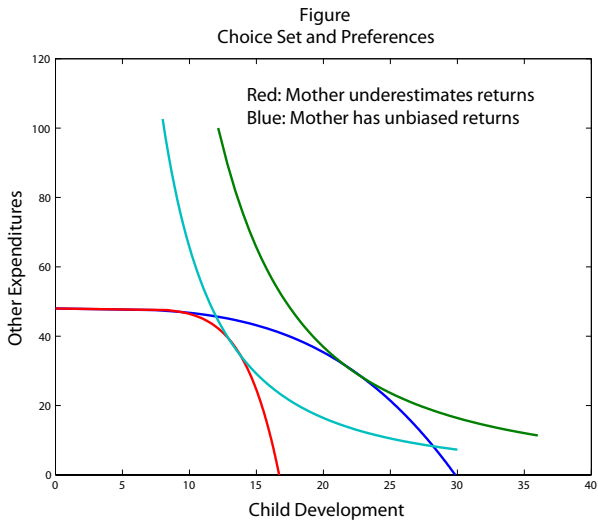
Quality and Quantity of Interaction by HOME

PHD Study





Introducing Heterogeneity in Beliefs



Why Heterogeneity in Beliefs?

- Language acquisition: Hart and Risley (1995); Rowe (2008).
- Time spent in activities that are appropriate for the child's age (Kalil et al, 2012).
- Home visitation programs on parenting:
 - Nurse-Family Partnership (Olds et al, 2012).
 - Jamaican Nutrition Supplementation and Cognitive Stimulation Program (Gertler et al, 2014; Attanasio et al, 2014).
 - HIPPY Program (Baker et al, 2002).
 - Parent as Teachers (PAT, Wagner et al, 1998)
 - Play and Learning Strategies (PALS, Landry et al, 1996).
 - Thirty Million Words Program (Suskind and Lefler, 2013).
 - Many others (Healthy Families, Healthy Start, CHIP of Virginia, MOM of Philadelphia, etc.)

Research Questions

- My current research aims to answer the following questions:
 - Can we measure parental beliefs about the technology of skill formation?
 - If so:
 - How do parental beliefs compare with objective estimates of the technology of skill formation?
 - Is there heterogeneity in parental beliefs?
 - If so, does the heterogeneity in beliefs predict heterogeneity in investments?
 - If so, can we change parental investments by affecting parental beliefs?

Model: The technology of skill formation

- The technology of skill formation is:

$$\ln h_{i,1} = \psi_0 + \psi_1 \ln h_{0,i} + \psi_2 \ln x_i + \psi_3 \ln h_{0,i} \ln X_i + v_i$$

Model: The mother's information set

- Let Ψ_i denote the mother's information set.
- Let $E(\psi_j | h_{0,i}, x_i, \Psi_i) = \mu_{i,j}$ and assume that $E(v_i | \Psi_i) = 0$.
- From the point of view of the mother:

$$E(\ln h_{i,1} | h_{0,i}, x_i, \Psi_i) = \mu_{i,0} + \mu_{i,1} \ln h_{0,i} + \mu_{i,2} \ln x_i + \mu_{i,3} \ln h_{0,i} \ln x_i$$

Model: Preferences and budget constraint

- Consider a simple static model. Parent's utility is:

$$u(c_i, h_{i,1}; \alpha_{i,1}, \alpha_{i,2}) = \ln c_i + \alpha_{i,1} \ln h_{i,1} + \alpha_{i,2} \ln x_i$$

- Budget constraint is:

$$c_i + px_i = y_i.$$

Model

- The problem of the mother is to maximize expected utility subject to the mother's information set, the budget constraint, and the technology of skill formation.
- The solution is

$$x_i = \left[\frac{\alpha_{i,1} (\mu_{i,2} + \mu_{i,3} \ln h_{0,i}) + \alpha_{i,2}}{1 + \alpha_{i,1} (\mu_{i,2} + \mu_{i,3} \ln h_{0,i}) + \alpha_{i,2}} \right] \frac{y_i}{p}$$

- Clearly, we cannot separately identify α_i from $\mu_{i,\gamma}$ if we only observe x_i , y_i , and p .

Identification

- Elicit maternal beliefs.
- Elicit maternal preferences.
- Estimate the technology of skill formation.

Eliciting beliefs: Steps

- Measure actual child development: MSD and Item Response Theory (IRT).
- Develop the survey instrument to elicit beliefs $E [\ln h_{i,1} | h_0, x, \psi_i]$:
 - Reword MSD items.
 - Create hypothetical scenarios of h_0 and x .
- Estimate beliefs from answers allowing for error in responses.

SECTION 3: MOTOR AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

PART H: (22 MONTHS - 3 YEARS, 11 MONTHS)

MOTHER/GUARDIAN:

If _____ is at least 22 months old, but not yet 4 years old,
Child's Name please answer these 15 questions.

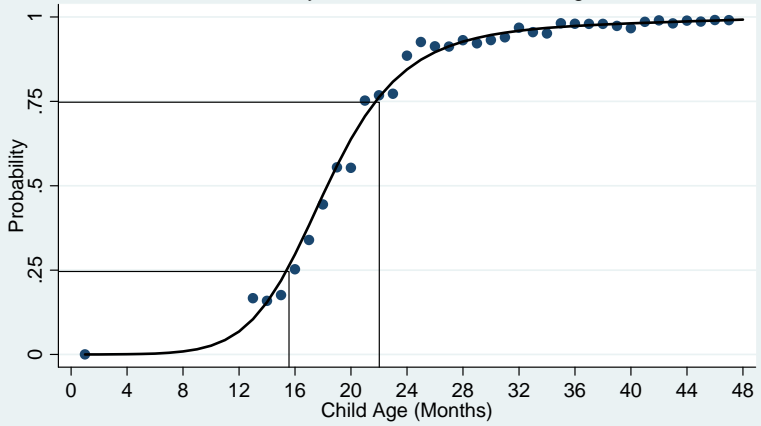
- | | | |
|---|------------------------|-----|
| 1. Has your child ever let someone know, without crying, that wearing wet (soiled) pants or diapers bothered him/her? | YES.... 1
NO..... 0 | 72/ |
| <hr/> | | |
| 2. Has your child ever spoken a partial sentence of 3 words or more? | YES.... 1
NO..... 0 | 73/ |
| <hr/> | | |
| 3. Has your child ever walked upstairs by himself/herself without holding on to a rail? | YES.... 1
NO..... 0 | 74/ |
| <hr/> | | |
| 4. Has your child ever washed and dried his/her hands without any help except for turning the water on and off? | YES.... 1
NO..... 0 | 75/ |
| <hr/> | | |
| 5. Has your child ever counted 3 objects correctly? | YES.... 1
NO..... 0 | 76/ |
| <hr/> | | |

Eliciting beliefs: Item response theory

- Let $d_{i,j}^* = b_{0,j} + b_{1,j} \left(\ln a_i + \frac{b_{2,j}}{b_{1,j}} \theta_i \right) + \eta_{i,j}$
- We observe $d_{i,j} = 1$ if $d_{i,j}^* \geq 0$ and $d_{i,j} = 0$, otherwise.
- Measure of (log of) human capital: $\ln h_i = \ln a_i + \frac{b_{2,j}}{b_{1,j}} \theta_i$.
- In this sense, θ_i is deviation from typical development for age.

Figure 4

Probability as a Function of Child's Age



● Speak partial sentence, data — Speak partial sentence, predicted

Eliciting beliefs: Changing wording of the MSD Instrument

- In order to measure $E [\ln h_{i,1} | h_0, x, \psi_i]$, we take the tasks from the MSD Scale, but instead of asking: “*Has your child ever spoken a partial sentence with three words or more?*”, we ask:
- **Method 1: How likely is it that a baby will speak a partial sentence with three words or more by age 24 months?**
- **Method 2: What is the youngest and oldest age a baby learns to speak a partial sentence with three words or more?**

Eliciting beliefs: Scenarios of human capital and investments

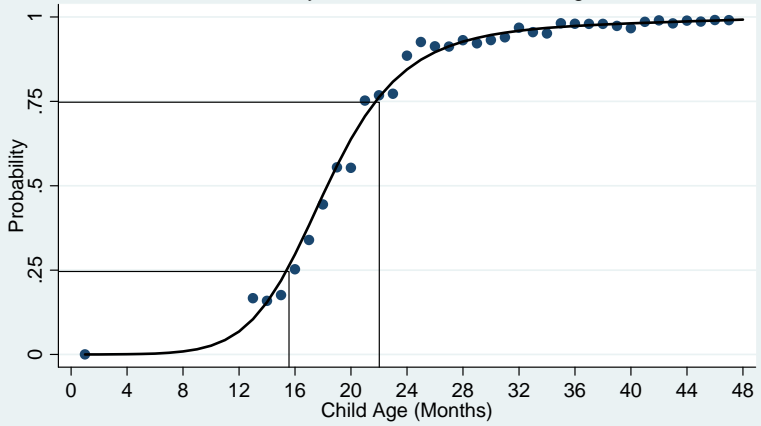
- We consider four scenarios:
 - Scenario 1: Child is healthy at birth (e.g., normal gestation, birth weight, and birth length) and investment is high (e.g., six hours per day).
 - Scenario 2: Child is healthy at birth and investment is low (e.g., two hours per day).
 - Scenario 3: Child is not healthy at birth (e.g., premature, low birth weight, and small at birth) and investment is high.
 - Scenario 4: Child is not healthy at birth and investment is low.
- Scenarios are described to survey respondents through a video.

Method 1: Transforming probabilities into mean beliefs

- **Method 1: How likely is it that a baby will speak a partial sentence with three words or more by age 24 months?**
- Let's say that when investment is high – that is, when $x = \bar{x}$ – the mother states that there is a 75% chance that the child will learn how to speak a partial sentence with three words or more.
- And when investment is low – that is, when $x = \underline{x}$ – the mother states that there is a 25% chance that the child will learn how to speak a partial sentence with three words or more.
- We convert this probability statement into an age-equivalent statement using the NHANES data.

Figure 4

Probability as a Function of Child's Age



● Speak partial sentence, data — Speak partial sentence, predicted

Method 2: Transforming age ranges into probabilities

- **Method 2: What is the youngest and oldest age a baby learns to speak a partial sentence with three words or more?**
- Let's say that when investment is high, so that $x = \bar{x}$, the mother states that the youngest and oldest ages a baby will learn how to speak a sentence with three words or more are, respectively, 18 and 28 months.
- And when investment is low, so that $x = \underline{x}$, the mother states that the ages are 20 and 30 months.
- We need to transform the age ranges into probabilities. We use the age ranges to estimate a mother-specific IRT model.

Figure 3

Transforming age range into probability

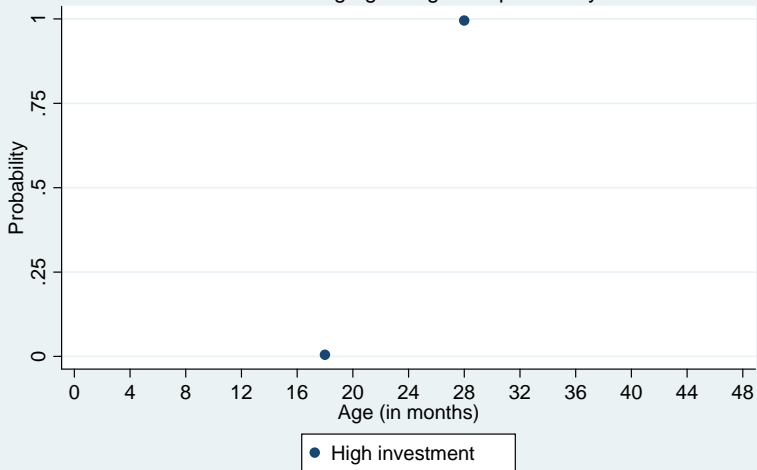
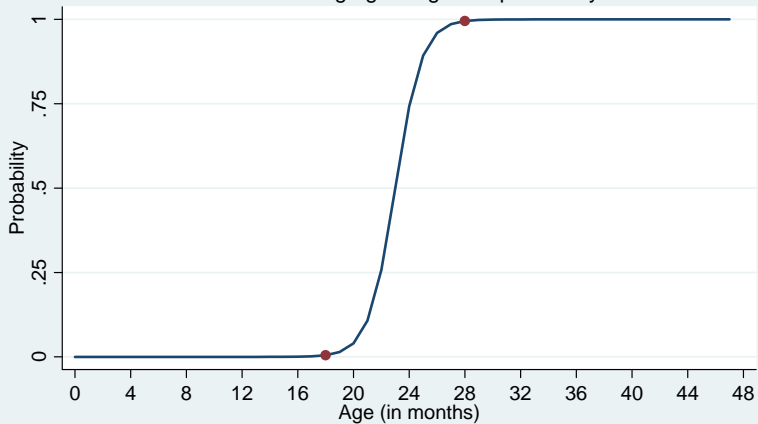


Figure 3

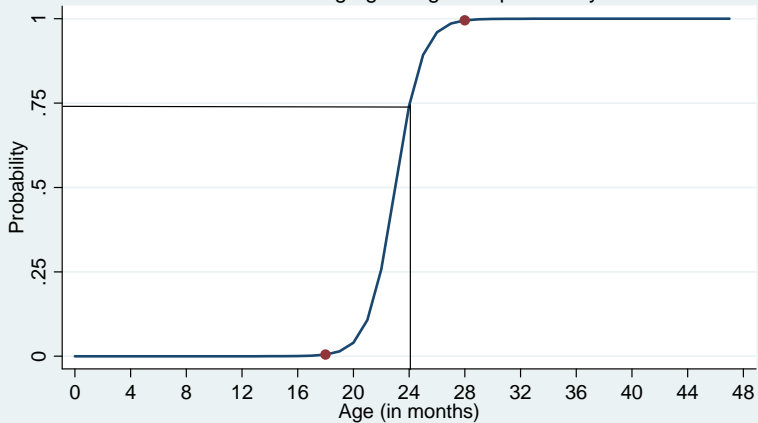
Transforming age range into probability



— Logistic prediction, high ● High investment

Figure 3

Transforming age range into probability

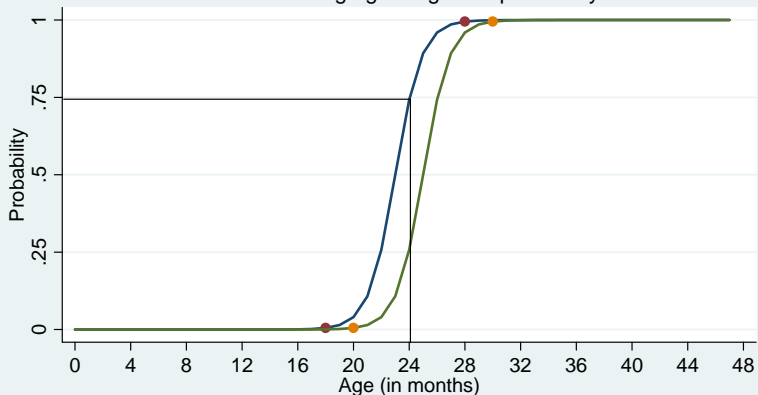


— Logistic prediction, high ● High investment

STATA™

Figure 3

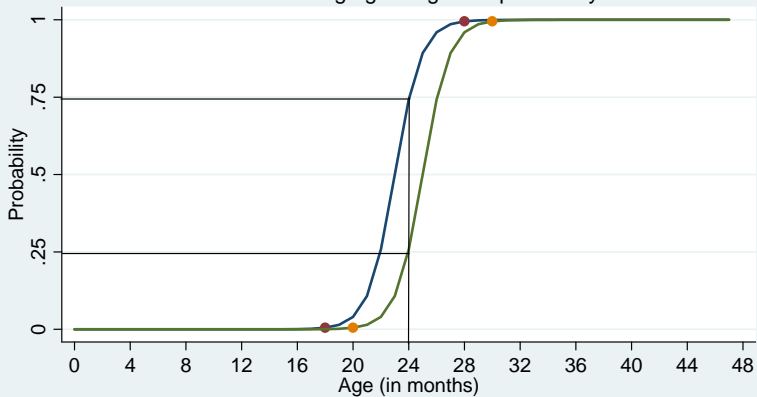
Transforming age range into probability



— Logistic prediction, high ● High investment
— Logistic prediction, low ● Low investment

Figure 3

Transforming age range into probability



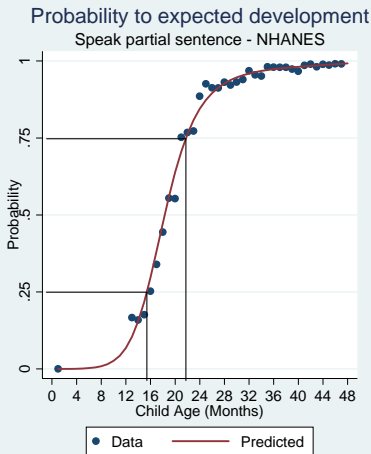
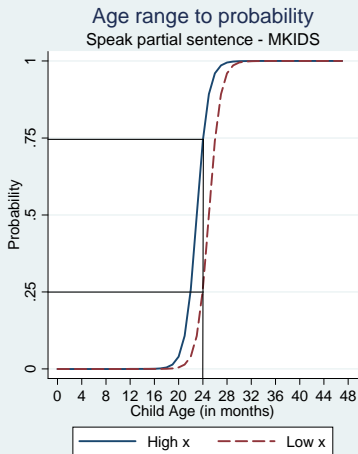
— Logistic prediction, high ● High investment
— Logistic prediction, low ● Low investment

Method 2: Transforming probabilities into mean beliefs

- **Method 2: Given scenario for h_0 and x , how likely is it that a baby will speak a partial sentence with three words or more by age 24 months?**
- Given maternal supplied age range and the logistic assumption, we conclude that when $x = \bar{x}$, the mother believes that there is a 75% chance that the child will learn how to speak a partial sentence with three words or more.
- Analogously, when $x = \underline{x}$, the mother believes that there is a 25% chance that the child will learn how to speak a partial sentence with three words or more.
- We convert this probability statement into an age-equivalent statement using the NHANES data.

Figure 3

Expected development for two levels of investments (x)



STATA™

Recovering mean beliefs: Measurement error model

- Let $\ln q_{i,j,k}^L$ denote an error-ridden measure of $E [\ln h_{i,1} | h_{0,k}, x_k, \psi_i]$ generated by “how likely” questions:

$$\ln q_{i,j,k}^L = E [\ln h_{i,1} | h_{0,k}, x_k, \psi_i] + \epsilon_{i,j,k}^L.$$

- Let $\ln q_{i,j,k}^A$ denote an error-ridden measure of $E [\ln h_{i,1} | h_{0,k}, x_k, \psi_i]$ generated by “age range” questions:

$$\ln q_{i,j,k}^A = E [\ln h_{i,1} | h_{0,k}, x_k, \psi_i] + \epsilon_{i,j,k}^A.$$

- For each scenario, we have multiple measures of the same underlying latent variable.

Recovering mean beliefs:

- Use technology of skill formation, and the mother's information set, to obtain:

$$\ln q_{i,j,k}^L = \mu_{i,0} + \mu_{i,1} \ln h_{0,k} + \mu_{i,2} \ln x_k + \mu_{i,3} \ln h_{0,k} \ln x_k + \epsilon_{i,j,k}^L$$

$$\ln q_{i,j,k}^A = \mu_{i,0} + \mu_{i,1} \ln h_{0,k} + \mu_{i,2} \ln x_k + \mu_{i,3} \ln h_{0,k} \ln x_k + \epsilon_{i,j,k}^A$$

- We have a factor model where:
 - $\mu_i = (\mu_{i,0}, \mu_{i,1}, \mu_{i,2}, \mu_{i,3})$ are the latent factors;
 - $\lambda_k = (1, h_{0,k}, \ln x_k, \ln h_{0,k} \ln x_k)$ are the factor loadings;
 - $\epsilon_{i,j,k} = (\epsilon_{i,j,k}^L, \epsilon_{i,j,k}^A)$ are the uniquenesses.

Eliciting beliefs: Intuitive explanation

- Let $E [\ln h_{i,1} | h_0, h, \Psi_i]$ denote maternal expectation of child development at age 24 months conditional on the child's initial level of human capital, investments, and the mother's information set.
- Assume, for now, technology is Cobb-Douglas.
- Suppose we measure $E [\ln h_{i,1} | h_0, x, \Psi_i]$ at two different levels of investments:

$$E [\ln h_{i,1} | h_0, \bar{x}, \Psi_i] = \mu_{i,0} + \mu_{i,1} \ln h_0 + \mu_{i,2} \ln \bar{x}$$

$$E [\ln h_{i,1} | h_0, \underline{x}, \Psi_i] = \mu_{i,0} + \mu_{i,1} \ln h_0 + \mu_{i,2} \ln \underline{x}$$

- Subtracting and re-organizing terms:

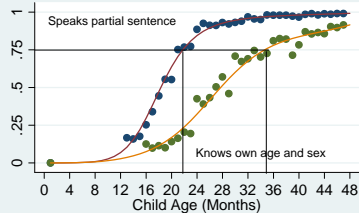
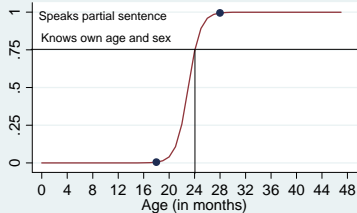
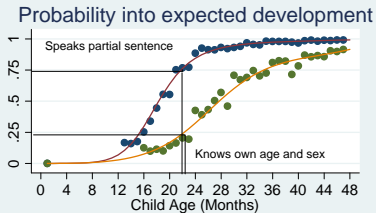
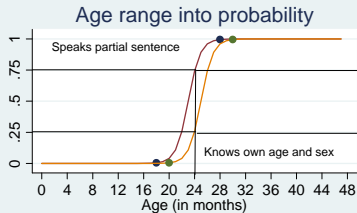
$$\mu_{i,2} = \frac{E [\ln h_{i,1} | h_0, \bar{x}, \Psi_i] - E [\ln h_{i,1} | h_0, \underline{x}, \Psi_i]}{\ln \bar{x} - \ln \underline{x}}$$

Important issue

- We could use only one MSD item to elicit beliefs.
- But, if we use more items, we can relax assumptions about measurement error.
- And, we can check for consistency in answers.

Figure 5

Comparing answers across scenarios



Estimation of Preferences

- The investment policy function is:

$$x_i = \left[\frac{\alpha_{i,1} (\mu_{i,2} + \mu_{i,3} \ln h_{0,i}) + \alpha_{i,2}}{1 + \alpha_{i,1} (\mu_{i,2} + \mu_{i,3} \ln h_{0,i}) + \alpha_{i,2}} \right] \frac{y_i}{p}$$

where $\alpha_{i,1}$ and $\alpha_{i,2}$ captures heterogeneity in preferences.

- The usual procedure is to work with observed investment data.
- We are in the field collecting these investment data.

Estimation of Preferences

- Today, we elicit the preference parameters by stated-choice data (as it is commonly applied in Marketing).
- We tell the respondent to assume that the child's initial level of human capital is high.
- Then, we create nine hypothetical scenarios of monthly income and prices:

		Price		
		\$30	\$45	\$60
Income	\$1500	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3
	\$2000	Scenario 4	Scenario 5	Scenario 6
	\$2500	Scenario 7	Scenario 8	Scenario 9

Estimation of Preferences

- In order to link investment to time, we prepared a three-minute video in which we explain to the respondent that the more time that the mother interacts with the child, the more money she has to spend every month buying educational goods such as child books and educational toys.
- Our goal is to pass on to the respondent the idea that investment is costly.
- Respondents are not familiar with the concept of “opportunity cost.”

Estimation of Preferences

- For each combination of prices and income, we ask the respondents the following question: *Suppose that your household income is \$y per month and that for each hour per day that the mother spends interacting with the child she has to spend \$p per month on educational goods. Consider the following four options:*
- The four options correspond to two, three, four, and five hours of investments per day.
- Thus, if the respondent reports $x_{i,m,n}$ hours of investment per day when price is p_m and income is y_n , then share of income allocated to investments, $s_{m,n}$ is:

$$s_{i,m,n} = \frac{p_m x_{i,m,n}}{y_n}$$

Estimation of Preferences

- Note that the ratio, $r_{i,m,n}$ is:

$$r_{i,m,n} = \frac{S_{i,m,n}}{1 - S_{i,m,n}} = \alpha_{i,1} (\mu_{i,2} + \mu_{i,3} \ln h_{0,i}) + \alpha_{i,2} + \zeta_{i,m,n}$$

- The parameters $\alpha_{i,1}$ and $\alpha_{i,2}$ can be estimated as a simple random-effects model.

Descriptive Information about Participants: MKIDS and PHD

Pilot Study: Maternal Knowledge of Infant Development Study (MKIDS)

- 777 participants, all African-American.
- MKIDS: 60% are primiparous; PHD: 100% are primiparous.
- 80% are single (not cohabiting or married).
- 80% are at most 25 years-old.
- Median household income is below the second decile of U.S. distribution.
- Low education sample: only 12% of respondents have a two-year college degree or more.

Table 1
Comparison of Datasets

Number of observations	MKIDS		PHD		Total	
	323		454		777	
Type of Elicitation Method	N	%	N	%	N	%
Only probability	20	6.2	0	0.0	20	2.6
Only age ranges	233	72.1	0	0.0	233	30.0
Both methods	70	21.7	454	100.0	524	67.4
MSD Items						
Wearing wet pants bothers child	323	100.0	0	0.0	323	41.6
Speak partial sentence	323	100.0	454	100.0	777	100.0
Say first and last name	323	100.0	454	100.0	777	100.0
Count 3 objects correctly	323	100.0	454	100.0	777	100.0
Know own age and sex	323	100.0	454	100.0	777	100.0
Says the names of 4 colors	323	100.0	0	0.0	323	41.6
Count out loud up to 10	323	100.0	0	0.0	323	41.6
Draw picture of man/woman	323	100.0	0	0.0	323	41.6
Hypothetical scenarios						
Baseline	158	48.9	454	100.0	612	78.8
Alternative scenario #1	42	13.0	0	0.0	42	5.4
Alternative scenario #2	91	28.2	0	0.0	91	11.7
Alternative scenario #3	32	9.9	0	0.0	32	4.1
Stated choice data						
Hypothetical scenarios for prices of investment and income	158	48.9	0	0.0	158	20.3

Table 2
Basic Features of Raw Data

MSD Items ranked in ascending order of difficulty		NHANES	Probability Scenarios				Age ranges Scenarios					
Rank	Item Description		Obs.	1	2	3	4	Obs.	1	2	3	4
1	Child lets someone know that wearing wet pants bothers him/her?	0.99	90	0.78 (0.24)	0.55 (0.27)	0.70 (0.27)	0.51 (0.26)	303	0.64 (0.33)	0.55 (0.36)	0.50 (0.36)	0.43 (0.37)
2	Child speaks a partial sentence of 3 words or more	0.72	544	0.81 (0.18)	0.63 (0.22)	0.61 (0.20)	0.45 (0.20)	757	0.60 (0.36)	0.44 (0.38)	0.42 (0.38)	0.31 (0.36)
3	Child counts 3 objects correctly?	0.39	544	0.84 (0.18)	0.67 (0.22)	0.62 (0.20)	0.47 (0.20)	757	0.41 (0.38)	0.32 (0.36)	0.26 (0.33)	0.19 (0.30)
4	Child knows own age and sex	0.31	544	0.83 (0.19)	0.66 (0.23)	0.62 (0.21)	0.47 (0.21)	757	0.33 (0.36)	0.26 (0.33)	0.23 (0.31)	0.17 (0.29)
5	Child says first and last name together without someone's help	0.26	544	0.80 (0.20)	0.64 (0.22)	0.60 (0.21)	0.46 (0.21)	757	0.31 (0.36)	0.24 (0.33)	0.22 (0.31)	0.17 (0.29)
6	Child says the names of at least 4 colors	0.20	90	0.81 (0.23)	0.59 (0.28)	0.74 (0.22)	0.56 (0.27)	303	0.26 (0.31)	0.22 (0.29)	0.19 (0.28)	0.16 (0.26)
7	Child counts out loud up to 10?	0.07	90	0.80 (0.20)	0.58 (0.27)	0.75 (0.19)	0.53 (0.27)	303	0.24 (0.30)	0.20 (0.28)	0.19 (0.28)	0.16 (0.27)
8	Child draws a picture of a man/woman, 2 parts besides head	0.02	90	0.71 (0.25)	0.51 (0.28)	0.67 (0.21)	0.48 (0.26)	303	0.15 (0.26)	0.15 (0.26)	0.14 (0.26)	0.13 (0.25)

Note: Standard errors in parenthesis.

Beliefs about the technology of skill formation

Table 3

Maternal Beliefs about the Technology of Skill Formation

	25th percentile	Median	75th percentile	Mean	Variance
$\mu_{\psi,0}$	-0.015 (0.009)	0.101 (0.008)	0.236 (0.009)	0.115 (0.007)	0.035 (0.002)
$\mu_{\psi,1}$	0.077 (0.011)	0.296 (0.016)	0.554 (0.022)	0.365 (0.016)	0.204 (0.026)
$\mu_{\psi,2}$	0.065 (0.006)	0.166 (0.007)	0.285 (0.010)	0.192 (0.008)	0.046 (0.005)
$\mu_{\psi,3}$	-0.008 (0.007)	0.094 (0.010)	0.335 (0.024)	0.190 (0.020)	0.320 (0.051)

Note: Standard errors in parenthesis.

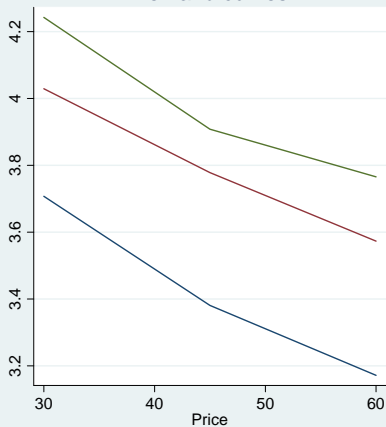
Sensitivity analysis

Regressors	Dependent variables				F Test
	$\mu_{\psi,0}$	$\mu_{\psi,1}$	$\mu_{\psi,2}$	$\mu_{\psi,3}$	(p-value)
Intercept (baseline)	0.018 (0.017)	0.147 (0.043)	0.112 (0.022)	0.070 (0.062)	- -
Dummy for alternative scenario #1	0.067 (0.037)	-0.027 (0.094)	-0.032 (0.048)	-0.081 (0.136)	1.080 (0.364)
Dummy for alternative scenario #2	0.280 (0.028)	0.469 (0.071)	0.175 (0.037)	0.424 (0.103)	33.910 (0.000)
Dummy for alternative scenario #3	0.206 (0.041)	0.027 (0.104)	0.051 (0.054)	0.091 (0.152)	6.750 (0.000)

Note: Standard errors in parenthesis, except in the F-test column where we report p-values.

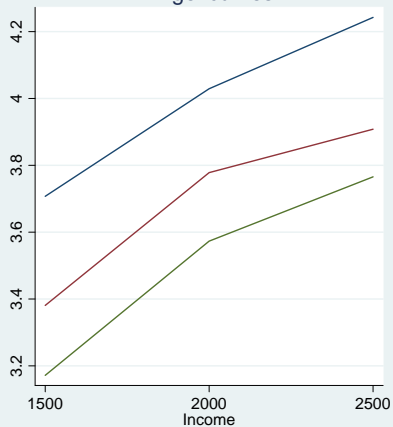
Figure 9

Demand curves



Income = \$1500 Income = \$2000
Income = \$2500

Engel curves



Price = \$30 Price = \$45
Price = \$45

Table 5
Maternal Beliefs about the Technology of Skill Formation

	25th percentile	Median	75th percentile	Mean	Variance
$\alpha_{i,1}$	0.0261 (0.0004)	0.0312 (0.0002)	0.0400 (0.0007)	0.0313 (0.0004)	0.0002 (0.0000)
$\alpha_{i,2}$	0.0669 (0.0005)	0.0777 (0.0008)	0.0942 (0.0007)	0.0795 (0.0005)	0.0003 (0.0000)

Note: Standard errors in parenthesis.

Table 7

Comparative Statics of Investments

	Median	75th percentile	% Change in investments	% Change in parameter	Elasticity
α_1	1.70	1.73	1.6%	28.0%	5.8%
α_2	1.70	2.01	18.3%	21.4%	85.2%
$\mu_{\psi,2}$	1.70	1.77	4.1%	72.0%	5.8%
$\mu_{\psi,3}$	1.70	1.70	0.2%	257.1%	0.1%
$\mu_{\psi,3}$	1.70	1.86	9.3%	257.1%	3.6%

This table shows the comparative statics of optimal investments in relation to preference and belief parameters. Each row shows what happens to investments as we move one parameter and fix the other parameters at the median value. In the last row, we replace the human capital at birth from the mean value to the value at the first percentile.

Table 8

Maternal Beliefs and Technology

Cases	Factual investment	Counterfactual investment	% Change	Effect size
$\mu_{\psi,2} = 0.267$ $\mu_{\psi,3} = 0.000$	1.84	1.92	4.4%	10.3%
$\mu_{\psi,2} = 0.454$ $\mu_{\psi,3} = 0.000$	1.84	2.05	11.7%	26.9%

Beliefs and Investments: Anthropology

- !Kung San in the Kalahari desert in Botswana and Namibia (e.g., Lee, 1979) vs. Ache in Paraguay (see Kaplan and Dove, 1987; Hill and Hurtado, 1996).
 - Both groups believe that the development of motor skills by children depends on parental encouragement and teaching.
 - Different environments lead both groups to behave in very different ways.
- Gusii in Kenya (see LeVine et al, 1994).

Expectations and Investments: Psychology

- The argument that low subjective expectations about returns may affect investments has been recognized in developmental psychology for over 50 years (Hunt, 1961; Vygostky, 1978).
- Huge empirical literature attempting to estimate what parents know about child developmental milestones (Epstein, 1979; Hess et al., 1980; Ninio, 1988; Mansbach and Greenbaum, 1999).

Epstein (1979)

Expecting too little, too late however is not characteristic of teenagers' knowledge in all areas of development. In fact, when we look at items about basic care, health and nutrition, and perceptual and motor development, we discover that their expectations are quite accurate. By contrast, when we look at how they view infant needs and abilities in the areas of mental development – cognitive, social, and language, it is here that we find teenagers attributing skills to babies many months too late. And, not surprisingly, our analyses show that it is the younger infant who is most likely viewed as a creature of physical needs and growth without corresponding mental activity.

This view of the infant is also evident in teenagers' responses to the videotape measure. Mean ratings indicate that they can neither observe the signs of learning in babies nor recognize the appropriate activities by which adults support this learning.

Beliefs and Investments: Sociology

- Lynd and Lynd (1929, 1937) reported that working-class mothers ranked “strict obedience” as their most important childrearing goal more frequently than higher-SES mothers did. Many studies, conducted in the US in the 1990s or in other developed countries, replicate these findings.
- Kohn (1963) argues that the stronger preferences towards socio-emotional skills by lower-SES mothers reflect those mothers’ forecasts for their children choosing occupations in which obedience and conformity have relatively higher returns.
- This finding is also reported in Lareau’s ethnographic study *Unequal Childhood: “Natural Accomplishment of Growth” and “Concerted Cultivation.”*

Beliefs and Investments: Economics

- Aizer and Stroud (2010) track the smoking habits of educated and non-educated pregnant women before and after the release of the 1964 Surgeon General Report on Smoking and Health.
- Before the release of the report, educated and non-educated pregnant women smoked at roughly the same rates.
- After the report, the smoking habits of educated women decreased immediately, and there was suddenly a ten-percentage point gap between pregnant women who were educated and non-educated in smoking.
- Could the divergence of early investments in the last 20 years be the result of divergence in expectations? We don't know, but it is possible that this is the case.

Discussion

- I presented research in which we aim to formulate a model of human development in which mothers have subjective expectations about a parameter of the technology of skill formation.
- The model is useful to understand how maternal knowledge about the importance of investments in children affect investment choices.
- Large body of literature in many fields suggest that beliefs may play an important role in determining familial investments in children.

Discussion

- At the same time, the literature suggests that these beliefs are endogenous.
- Parents expectations about future occupations of children, or the skills that will be most important for their survival, determine parental beliefs about what skills children should learn, and what skills they believe are malleable.
- So, if correct, this framework suggests that it may be difficult to change parental beliefs.
- At the same time, research in economics shows that most educated parents react to information that improves children's health.
- And some home visitation programs have been very successful in positively affecting children's health (but not all).
- So, future research should aim to understand the process of belief formation.