## Effects of fiscal policy shocks

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### **Motivation**

Different predictions of response to government spending shocks:

- (Old) Keynesian models: consumption and investment go up after increase in government spending, due to demand effects
- Classical (i.e., RBC) models: consumption and investment go down due to income effect

Empirics: to be explored.

## Public and private consumption in RBC models

Assume government spending G is increased by  $\Delta G$  and financed by lump sum taxes.

• If gov. spending is a perfect substitute for private *C*:

$$U(C+G,L) \tag{1}$$

then private consumption decrease by  $\Delta G$  so that C + G is unchanged, *L* remains unchanged, and the only change is that *G* replaces *C*, with no effect on output and utility.

• If utility is separable in C and public spending G:

$$u(C,L)+v(G) \tag{2}$$

then  $\Delta C = -\Delta G$  with *L* unchanged is not an equilibrum, because  $u_C$  goes up if *C* goes down. This is a negative wealth effect for households. HHs react by reducing both consumption and leisure (they work more). Output goes up.

If spending is financed by distortionary taxation, this tends to
 reduce output and labor supply
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## **Empirical approach**

#### Difficulties

- causality goes in both directions: macroeconomy responds to fiscal (or monetary policy), and policy responds to macroeconomic events.
- anticipation effects: fiscal policy measures are announced before they are implemented
- Possible solutions to reverse-causality problem:
  - Find exogenous fiscal shocks (obvious example: wars)
  - Utilize the fact that fiscal policy moves slowly; does not immediately respond to macroeconomic events

### Main results of Blanchard and Perotti (1999)

- Positive government spending shocks have positive effect on output (not surprising)
- Positive tax shocks have negative effect on output (not surprising)
- Positive effect of government spending shock on private consumption (Keynesian prediction)
- Both positive spending and tax shocks have negative effect on investment (classical prediction; difficult for Keynesian model)

### Variables

- Government spending (log: *G*): expenditures on goods and services, both government consumption and investment
- Net taxes (log: T): tax revenues minus transfers
- GDP (log: *X*)

All variables are measured real and in per capital terms.

## Vector-autoregressive model

$$Y_{t} = \sum_{i=1}^{4} A_{i} Y_{t-i} + U_{t}$$
(3)

where

• 
$$Y_t = [T_t, G_t, X_t]'$$

•  $U_t = [t_t, g_t, x_t]'$  are reduced form residuals, in general correlated across each other.

#### The VAR (3) takes into account

- Trend (either deterministic or unit root)
- Seasonal patterns

### Identification

- Problem: the residuals t<sub>t</sub> cannot be considered as the shock to taxes, because taxes T<sub>t</sub> can respond endogenously to current output X<sub>t</sub> and can also react to current shocks to government spending and GDP.
   Similarly, g<sub>t</sub> is not the government expenditure shock.
- To solve this problem, we need to make identifying assumptions:

$$t_t = a_1 x_t + a_2 e_t^g + e_t^t$$
$$g_t = b_1 x_t + b_2 e_t^t + e_t^g$$
$$x_t = c_1 t_t + c_2 g_t + e_t^x$$

- a<sub>1</sub> = 2.08: captures automatic dependance of taxes on output (can be seen from tax code); no discretionary response within one quarter
- $b_1 = 0$ : no automatic response of spending to output
- Then  $t_t a_1 x_t$  and  $g_t$  are independent of  $e_t^x$ ; can be used as instruments to estimate  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ .
- $a_2$  and  $b_2$  cannot be identified. Whether assuming  $a_2 = 0$  or  $b_2 = 0$  makes little difference (correlation between  $t_t$  and  $g_t$  is always estimated small).

### Deterministic versus stochastic trends

Two ways to think about long-term growth path: it can be

- deterministic: the trend line is a deterministic path about which the economy fluctuations; no matter which shocks hit the economy, in the long run the economy always gravitates back to the deterministic growth path Example: trend of log-GDP is linear Detrending: fit polynomial as trend, subtract from series
- stochastic: some shocks have a persistent effect on economic activity, so that the long-run trend is shifting Example: GDP is an AR process with a unit root Detrending: take first differences in logs

The authors allow for both possibilities.

#### TABLE II ESTIMATED CONTEMPORANEOUS COEFFICIENTS

	<i>c</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>c</i> <sub>2</sub>	$b_2$	$a_2$
		DT		
coeff.	-0.868	0.956	-0.047	-0.187
t-stat.	-3.271	2.392	-1.142	-1.142
<i>p</i> -value	0.001	0.018	0.255	0.255
		ST		
coeff.	-0.876	0.985	-0.057	-0.238
t-stat.	-3.255	2.378	-1.410	-1.410
<i>p</i> -value	0.001	0.019	0.161	0.161

DT: Deterministic Trend; ST: Stochastic Trend.

Sample: 1960:1-1997:4.

 $c_1$ : effect of t on x within quarter;

 $c_2$ : effect of g on x within quarter;

 $a_2$ : effect of g on t within quarter (assuming  $b_2 = 0$ , i.e., when spending is ordered first);

 $b_2$ : effect of t on g within quarter (assuming  $a_2 = 0$ , i.e., when net taxes are ordered first).

All effects are expressed as dollar for dollar

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### TABLE III Responses to Tax Shocks

	1 qrt	4 qrts	8 qrts	12 qrts	20 qrts	peak
			DT			
GDP	-0.69*	$-0.74^{*}$	$-0.72^{*}$	$-0.42^{*}$	-0.22	-0.78*(5)
TAX	$0.74^{*}$	0.13	$-0.21^{*}$	-0.20*	-0.11	
GCN	-0.05*	$-0.12^{*}$	$-0.24^{*}$	$-0.26^{*}$	$-0.16^{*}$	
			ST			
GDP	$-0.70^{*}$	-1.07*	$-1.32^{*}$	-1.30*	-1.29*	-1.33*(7)
TAX	$0.74^{*}$	$0.31^{*}$	0.17	0.16	0.16	
GCN	-0.06*	$-0.10^{*}$	$-0.17^{*}$	-0.20*	-0.20*	

DT: Deterministic Trend; ST: Stochastic Trend. An asterisk indicates that 0 is outside the region between the two one-standard error bands. In parentheses hesides the peak response is the quarter in which it occurs Michael Reiter (IHS, Vienna) Effects of fiscal policy shocks Macro II 12/30

### TABLE IV Responses to Spending Shocks

	1 qrt	4 qrts	8 qrts	12 qrts	20 qrts	peak
			DT			
GDP	0.84*	0.45	0.54	$1.13^{*}$	0.97*	1.29* (15
GCN	$1.00^{*}$	$1.14^{*}$	$0.95^{*}$	$0.70^{*}$	$0.42^{*}$	
TAX	0.13	0.14	0.17	$0.43^{*}$	$0.52^{*}$	
			ST			
GDP	0.90*	0.55	0.65	0.66	0.66	$0.90^{*}(1)$
GCN	$1.00^{*}$	$1.30^{*}$	$1.56^{*}$	$1.61^{*}$	$1.62^{*}$	
TAX	0.10	0.18	0.33	0.36	0.37	

### Robustness

- Subsample stability: a lot depends on the 80s
- Cointegration: assume that taxes and expenditures follow a common trend: leads to very similar results
- Alternative net tax elasticities: quantitative results are sensitive: estimating a higher value of a<sub>1</sub> (stronger direct effect of taxes to GDP) leads to stronger estimated response of GDP to taxes

#### TABLE V

STABILITY OF RESPONSES TO TAX SHOCKS

Net taxes		:	Spending
excl. period	max. GDP response	excl. period	max. GDP respons
	E	T	
60–69	-1.18*(1)	60–69	$1.44^{*}(1)$
70-79	-0.90* (5)	70-79	$1.47^{*}(10)$
80-89	$-0.49^{*}(2)$	80-89	0.96* (3)
90–97	$-1.45^{*}(7)$	90-97	$1.73^{*}(12)$
	S	Т	
60–69	$-1.45^{*}(11)$	60–69	$1.25^{*}(1)$
70–79	-1.48*(4)	70-79	$0.62^{*}(1)$
80-89	$-0.83^{*}(7)$	80-89	1.80* (3)
90–97	$-1.52^{*}(7)$	90-97	0.85* (12)
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# TABLE VI Responses of GDP Components

	1 qrt	4 qrts	8 qrts	12 qrts	20 qrts	peak
			DT, TA	X		
GDP	-0.69*	-0.74*	$-0.72^{*}$	-0.42*	-0.22	$-0.78^{*}(5)$
GCN	-0.05*	$-0.12^{*}$	$-0.24^{*}$	-0.26*	-0.16*	-0.05* (1)
CON	-0.18*	$-0.35^{*}$	$-0.32^{*}$	-0.23*	-0.20*	-0.35* (5)
INV	-0.36*	-0.00	-0.00	0.18*	0.16*	-0.36* (1)
EXP	-0.02	0.01	-0.01	0.02	0.05	-0.08 (3)
IMP	-0.01	0.02	-0.14*	-0.06	0.04	$-0.14^{*}(7)$
SUM	-0.60	-0.48	-0.43	-0.23	-0.18	-0.60 (1)

			DT, SP	Έ		
GDP	0.84*	0.45	0.54	1.13*	0.97*	1.29* (15)
GCN	1.00*	$1.14^{*}$	$0.95^{*}$	0.70*	$0.42^{*}$	$1.14^{*}(4)$
CON	$0.50^{*}$	0.63*	0.91*	1.21*	0.90*	1.26* (14)
INV	0.03	$-0.75^{*}$	$-0.69^{*}$	$-0.41^{*}$	$-0.35^{*}$	-1.00* (5)
EXP	0.20*	-0.47*	-0.76*	-0.70*	-0.06	-0.80* (9)
IMP	0.64*	-0.19*	-0.46*	$-0.42^{*}$	-0.16*	$-0.49^{*}(9)$
SUM	1.03	0.74	0.86	1.22	1.07	1.39 (15)
			ST, SP	Έ		
GDP	0.90*	0.55	0.65	0.66	0.66	0.90* (1)
GCN	$1.00^{*}$	$1.30^{*}$	1.56*	1.61*	$1.61^{*}$	1.00 (1)
CON	$0.33^{*}$	0.34	0.42	0.43	0.44	$0.46^{*}(2)$
INV	0.02	-0.74*	-0.97*	-0.96*	$-0.95^{*}$	-0.98*(9)
EXP	$0.17^{*}$	-0.16	-0.30	-0.37*	-0.37	-0.37*(13)
IMP	0.56*	0.03	-0.06	-0.05	-0.04	-0.08 (9)
SUM	0.95	0.72	0.77	0.76	0.78	0.95 (1)

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## A model to explain the effect of spending shocks

Galí, López-Salido, and Vallés (2007)

- Optimizing (Ricardian) households (fraction  $1 \lambda$ ).
- Rule-of-thumb consumers: consume labor income minus net taxes
- NK setup: Calvo pricing, simple Taylor rule, capital adjustment costs
- Fiscal policy:
  - spending follows AR(1)
  - taxes: depend positively on government debt and spending

### **Figure 1** The Dynamic Effects of a Government Spending Shock



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B. Non-Competitive Labor Market



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### Gali model

Results are sensitive to

- fraction of rule-of-thumb consumers
- working of the labor market (employment response of the two types of households, wage response)
- timing of taxes, distortionary vs. lump sum
- persistence of government spending shocks

### Is the multiplier always the same?

- In a linear(ized) model, impulse responses
  - are independent of the current state of the economy
  - are proportional to the size of the shock
- In a nonlinear model, impulse responses
  - can depend on the current state of the economy
  - can inrease more or less than proportionally with the size of the shock
  - The government spending multiplier can then depend
    - on the size of the govenrment intervention
    - on the state of the business cycle

### Reasons why the multiplier may vary over the cycle

- More "slack" (such as unemployment) in a recession: higher demand is more likley to lead to higher production rather than higher prices
- Different response of monetary policy: if at or close to zero lower bound, monetary policy might be unresponsive to change in fiscal policy
- If government debt is already high
  - government may be forced to raise more taxes in response to higher spending
  - higher government spending may reducing credit rating of government (reduce trust of financial markets in government debt)

## Findings in Auerbach and Gorodnichenko (2012)

- Results for linear model similar to Blanchard and Perotti (1999)
- Expansions: multiplier often negative (exception: government investment)
- Recessions: multiplier very strongly positive
- Recessions and expansions are identified by regime-switching model.

	$max_{h=1}$	, 20 $\{Y_h\}$	$\sum_{h=1}^{20} Y_{h}$	$\sum_{h=1}^{20} Y_h / \sum_{h=1}^{20} G_h$	
	Point estimate	Standard error	Point estimate	Standard error	
Total spending					
Linear	1.00	0.32	0.57	0.25	
Expansion	0.57	0.12	-0.33	0.20	
Recession	2.48	0.28	2.24	0.24	
Defense spending					
Linear	1.16	0.52	-0.21	0.27	
Expansion	0.80	0.22	-0.43	0.24	
Recession	3.56	0.74	1.67	0.72	
Nondefense spending					
Linear	1.17	0.19	1.58	0.18	
Expansion	1.26	0.14	1.03	0.15	
Recession	1.12	0.27	1.09	0.31	
Consumption spending					
Linear	1.21	0.27	1.20	0.31	
Expansion	0.17	0.13	-0.25	0.10	
Recession	2.11	0.54	1.47	0.31	
Investment spending					
Linear	2.12	0.68	2.39	0.67	
Expansion	3.02	0.25	2.27	0.15	
Recession	2.85	0.36	3.42	0.38	

TABLE 1—MULTIPLIERS

 Total spending; multipliers for alternative measures of normalized unanticipated shocks to government spending.

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### Evidence from Ramey and Zubairy (2018)

- Use data starting in 1889
- Find no significant asymmetry in multiplier between expansions and recessions
- Multiplier (correctly defined: cumulative output response divided by cumulative government expenditures) always below 1
- Why do Auerbach and Gorodnichenko (2012) get different results? They compute IRs in recessions based on the assumption that economy stays for at least 20 quarters in recession regime, which is unrealistic.
- Significantly higher multiplier near ZLB

 TABLE 1

 Estimates of Multipliers across States of Slack

	Linear Model	High Unemployment	Low Unemployment	<i>p</i> -Value for Difference in Multipliers across States
Military news shock:				
2-year integral	.66	.60	.59	HAC = .954
, .	(.067)	(.095)	(.091)	Anderson- Rubin = .954
4-year integral	.71	.68	.67	HAC = .924
, 0	(.044)	(.052)	(.121)	Anderson- Rubin = .924
Blanchard-Perotti shock:				
2-year integral	.38	.68	.30	HAC = .005
	(.111)	(.102)	(.111)	Anderson- Rubin = $.070$
4-year integral	.47	.77	.35	HAC = .001
	(.110)	(.075)	(.107)	Anderson- Rubin = .031
Combined:				
2-year integral	.42	.62	.33	HAC = .099
	(.098)	(.098)	(.110)	Anderson- Rubin = .228
4-year integral	.56	.68	.39	HAC = .021
	(.084)	(.052)	(.110)	Anderson- Rubin = .199

NOTE.—The values in parentheses under the multipliers give the standard errors. HAC indicates HAC-robust p-values and Anderson-Rubin indicates weak instrument robust Anderson-Rubin to values

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#### TABLE 4

#### ESTIMATES OF MULTIPLIERS ACROSS MONETARY POLICY REGIMES

Baseline	Linear Model	Near Zero Lower Bond	Normal	<i>p</i> -Value for Difference in Multipliers across States
Military news shock:				
2-year integral	.66	.77	.63	HAC = .429
, 0	(.067)	(.106)	(.149)	Anderson-Rubin $= .504$
4-year integral	.71	.77	.77	HAC = .992
	(.044)	(.058)	(.376)	Anderson-Rubin = .992
Blanchard-Perotti shock:				
2-year integral	.38	.64	.10	HAC = .000
, ,	(.111)	(.033)	(.112)	Anderson-Rubin = .066
4-year integral	.47	.71	.12	HAC = .000
	(.110)	(.033)	(.115)	Anderson-Rubin $= .062$
Combined:				
2-year integral	.42	.67	.26	HAC = .000
	(.098)	(.027)	(.103)	Anderson-Rubin = .184
4-year integral	.56	.76	.21	HAC = .000
	(.084)	(.040)	(.136)	Anderson-Rubin = .208
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# Blanchard, IMF EO Oct 2012

- Assume forecasters (at IMF, OECD etc.)
  - use all available information,
  - know what the multiplier is
  - Then GDP forecast errors should be independent of fiscal consolidation programs that were known at the time of the forecast
- Result:
  - Correlation of forecast errors with fiscal consolidation is significantly negative
  - Interpretation: multiplier is much higher (by up to one percentage point) than what forecasters were assuming (multiplier about 0.5)



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