Welfare Resilience in the Immediate Aftermath of the COVID-19 Outbreak in Italy

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Abstract
This paper analyses the extent to which the Italian welfare system provides monetary compensation for those who lost their earnings due to the lockdown imposed by the government in order to contain the COVID-19 pandemic in March 2020. In assessing first-order effects of the businesses temporarily shut down and the government’s policy measures on household income, counterfactual scenarios are simulated with EUROMOD, the EU-wide microsimulation model, integrated with information on the workers who the lockdown is more likely to affect. This paper provides timely evidence on the differing degrees of relative and absolute resilience of the household incomes of the individuals affected by the lockdown. These arise from the variations in the protection offered by the tax-benefit system, coupled with personal and household circumstances of the individuals at risk of income loss.

JEL: C81, D31, H55, I30

Keywords: pandemic, household income, microsimulation, Italy

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* We thank Manos Matsaganis, Holly Sutherland and Alberto Tumino for comments on a preliminary version. The methodology draws on Fernandez Salgado et al. (2014). We use EUROMOD (version 12.0+). EUROMOD is maintained, developed and managed jointly by the Institute for Social and Economic Research (ISER) at the University of Essex and the Joint Research Centre of the European Commission, in collaboration with national teams from the EU member states. We are indebted to the many people who have contributed to the development of EUROMOD. The process of extending and updating EUROMOD is financially supported by the European Union Programme for Employment and Social Innovation 'Easi' (2014-2020). We make use of the national EU-SILC PDB data for Italy made available by ISTAT. Data providers bear no responsibility for the analysis or interpretation of the data reported here. Any mistakes are the authors' only.
1. Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic can lead to a worldwide economic downturn worse than the one that characterised the 2008 Great Recession. The potential impact on GDP, although mostly unpredictable today without a clear knowledge of the boundaries of the health emergency, can lead to a massive slump in economic development (Dorn et al. 2020) depending on the scenarios.

Italy has been the European front runner in terms of infection rates and deaths in the population, as it experienced a sudden outbreak at the end of February 2020. As a consequence, the Italian government issued various decree laws which limited and shut down economic activity, in order to prevent contagion through social contacts and to limit the virus spread. Dorn et al. (2020) estimates that a two-month shutdown would lead to a reduction of annual GDP growth by 8–13 percentage points. Qualitative indicators already show the effect of unprecedented demand and supply shocks due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The business confidence climate index crashed from 97.8 to 81.7. The confidence index in manufacturing reduced sharply from 98.8 to 89.5 (Istat, 2020).

OECD estimates of the initial direct impact of shutdowns reveal that the output decline would be of roughly 20%-25%, with consumer expenditure dropping by 33%. Such a decline in the level of output would correspond to a decline in annual GDP growth of around 2 percentage points for each month of shutdown (OECD 2020a).

Focusing on the situations faced by workers, the International Labour Organization estimates a rise in global unemployment of between 3% and 13%, with underemployment expected to increase on a large scale and the decline in economic activity and travel limits impacting both manufacturing and services (ILO, 2020).

The adverse impact of the necessary containment measures to the COVID-19 pandemic has determined unprecedented demand and supply shocks to international growth prospects. Financial markets reacted with a sharp increase of volatility and fall in asset prices. The outlook for world trade, which was already declining in January, worsened dramatically in March (Istat, 2020). Despite the negative outlook, the cost of a government inaction would have been much higher in terms of human lives and long-term recovery.

The picture described above, as well as the lessons of previous recessions, suggest that the downturn due to the COVID-19 pandemic will overshadow European economies for years to come, through a legacy of unemployment, public debt and long-lasting impacts on household incomes as already experienced during the Great Recession (Jenkins et al., 2013). Furthermore, Saez and Zucman (2020) argue that governments “can prevent a very sharp but short recession from becoming a long-lasting depression” by acting as payer of last resort: providing insurance to the affected workers and making sure that cash flows to idle workers and businesses immediately. To this end, governments have introduced discretionary policy measures to support the most vulnerable (OECD, 2020b).

However, a word of caution should be cast in that Dolls et al. (2012) show that automatic stabilizers differ greatly across countries, particularly in the case of asymmetric shocks. The observation is particularly relevant in the case of the Italian tax-benefit system, whose income stabilisation mechanisms may be limited by design in times of emergency.

The primary aim of this paper is to offer a scenario, rather than a forecast, in order to understand in a timely fashion the extent to which the Italian tax-benefit system provides income stabilisation in the first month of the health emergency for those who lost their earnings at the very beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic. In particular, we aim to measure the amount of
income insurance that individuals and their households receive from the Welfare State against the hazard of the economic shutdown. The consequences of the shutdown on the most vulnerable individuals depend on their individual characteristics and the interaction between their labour market participation, their living arrangements and the capacity of the tax and benefit systems. We do not consider other aspects such as the reduced likelihood to get a job for those who are looking for one and the wider consequences of macroeconomic feedbacks.

Lack of longitudinal up-to-date information on household income and labour market circumstances, usually available a few years after the economic shock and in a limited number of countries only, constrains the possibilities for empirical analysis. To address this limitation, we assess the impact of the economic lockdown on household income by means of simulating counterfactual scenarios with a fiscal microsimulation approach (Figari, Paulus, Sutherland, 2015). First, we attempt to identify the workers affected by the lockdown by using aggregate data on employment shares by activity sectors. Second, we estimate the household incomes for individuals who lose their earnings, considering the direct cushioning effect of the tax-benefit system in relation to how they depend on the remaining household market income as well as personal and household characteristics. The use of tax-benefit microsimulation models to consider how the welfare systems protect people from an extreme shock is known as a “stress test” of the tax-benefit system (Atkinson, 2009) and has become increasingly popular in analysing consequences of the Great Recession (Figari et al., 2014, Jenkins et al., 2013).

We highlight the main motivations to exploit such an approach in Section 2. Therewithin we introduce EUROMOD and we describe the indicators we apply to capture the resilience of the welfare system in both relative and absolute terms. Section 3 provides a snapshot of the characteristics of those affected by earning loss.

The current analysis focuses on Italy but it is about to be extended to other EU countries in order to highlight the interaction between the country-specific effects of the pandemic and the policy responses implemented by national governments, and also to generalise the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic in a cross-country perspective. The most relevant features of the policy measures included in the analysis are described in Section 4.

Empirical evidence on the different income stabilisation aspects of the Italian tax-benefit system is presented in Section 5, which shows differing degrees of how individual loss of earnings can reduce household incomes, as well as to what extent those incomes are resilient upon intervention. Section 6 concludes, summarising the main findings and suggesting future work and improvements in light of ongoing developments as data is made available.

2. Empirical methodology

2.1. Stress testing the tax-benefit systems

In the presence of a sudden economic shock with direct consequences for the labour market participation of individuals, coupled with fiscal policies implemented to react to unexpected earning losses, understanding how contemporary tax-benefit systems react to changes in individual circumstances is essential. More importantly, it is fundamental to assess the extent to which household incomes are protected by the tax-benefit systems.

The stress test approach is common in financial institutions to test the sensitivity of a portfolio to a set of extreme but plausible shocks and to assess the significance of the system’s vulnerabilities (Jones et al., 2004). We follow Tony Atkinson’s suggestion of extending the same approach to tax-benefit systems in order to predict the cushioning effects of the social protection schemes in the event of a loss of market incomes and to assess overall income stabilisation after a macroeconomic shock (Atkinson 2009, Fernandez Salgado et al., 2014).
A stress test exercise can provide evidence of the effects of either a hypothetical macroeconomic shock or a contemporary shock for which survey data covering the period of interest are not yet available. The latter option is the approach we follow to assess the variation in the social impact of the earning loss due to the economic shutdown at the very beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic in Italy. In due course, survey data collected over the period of the pandemic will provide evidence of the evolution of income distribution, while analysis of longitudinal data will show how incomes changed for those directly affected by the lockdown.

Moreover, it is important to assess the economic impact of specific aspects of the pandemic and to inform the policy debate in a timely fashion. By using a fiscal microsimulation model which combines detailed survey data, representative of the national population, on market incomes and household characteristics with tax-benefit rules (Figari, Paulus, Sutherland, 2015), we can determine the different components of household disposable income under different counterfactual scenarios in which we identify the individuals more likely to lose their earnings as a result of an economic shock.

The simulated household disposable income as related to the individuals losing from the lockdown depends on the cushioning effect of automatic stabilizers existing in the country in the form of (a) income taxes and social contributions, (b) contributory benefits for those who lose their earnings (if entitled), (c) other means-tested benefits and tax credits designed to protect families on low income, and (d) other household incomes, in the form of earnings of those still in work as well as pensions and benefits, received by other household members. In addition, it is crucial to capture the effects of the discretionary policies that the government might decide to implement in order to prevent a sudden fall in household income.

The stress test approach allows us to focus on a specific aspect of the economic shock, highlighting the direct compensation provided by tax-benefit systems rather than that arising from other adaptive changes in individual behaviours. In this paper we focus exclusively on the loss of earnings as one of the channels through which the COVID-19 pandemic directly affects individual well-being. The overall effect of the pandemic on income distribution is likely to be affected by general equilibrium consequences and other behavioural responses. However, individuals and households directly affected by earning loss suffer to a large extent and it is important to assess the extent to which the welfare system helps to stabilise their income, and whether there are specific weaknesses in the policy instruments in operation.

2.2. Counterfactual scenario derived using EUROMOD

We exploit the potential of the microsimulation techniques to define the counterfactual scenario (Figari et al., 2015), based on survey data representative of the national population before the onset of the pandemic, in which we impute the earning loss as observed in March 2020 and we simulate the discretionary policy measured implemented in the same month.

We make use of EUROMOD, the EU-wide tax-benefit microsimulation model. EUROMOD simulates tax liabilities (direct tax and social insurance contributions) and benefit entitlements for the household populations of EU Member States in a comparable way across countries on the basis of the tax-benefit rules in place and information available in the underlying datasets. The components of the tax-benefit systems which are not simulated (e.g. old age pensions) are extracted from the data, along with information on original incomes. The simulation of the Wage Supplementation Scheme (Cassa Integrazione Guadagni) is based on reported earnings, where relevant, and under assumptions about past contributions derived from the limited information available in the data. See Sutherland and Figari (2013) for further information.
The underlying micro data come from the 2017 national version of the EU-SILC provided by Istat. The analysis in this paper is based on the tax-benefit rules in place in 2019 (as of June 30th), which are essentially identical to those in place in March 2020. Monetary values of non-simulated income components referring to 2016 were updated to 2019 according to actual changes in prices and incomes over the relevant period, as documented in the Italian EUROMOD Country Report (Ceriani et al. 2019). No adjustment is made for changes in population composition between 2016 and 2019.

In the analysis we focus on what happens in a single month, i.e. March 2020. We compute household disposable income, taking account of the discretionary measures included in the Decree Law 18/2020 (“Cura Italia”) and detailed in the next section.

Given the extraordinary and sudden decision of the government to impose a generalised economic lockdown, the traditional automatic stabilizers embedded in the tax-benefit systems are not allowed to operate, with the exception of income tax and social contributions which are lower due to the lower level of earnings. The existing income-tested benefits (I.e. bonus IRPEF, Family allowances (ANF), Citizenship income (RdC)) based on the income and means-test of the previous fiscal year do not react to the loss of earnings experienced in March 2020. The opportunity to modify the design of the existing income support mechanism to deal with the economic effects of the pandemic is part of the policy debate in Italy (Forum Diseguaglianze Diversità and ASviS, 2020) and we refer to this in the conclusion.

We aim to highlight the amount of insurance coverage guaranteed directly by government, independently of any potential change in the behaviour of family members which could occur in the short or long term. Furthermore, considering the incidence of the shadow economy in Italy, gross self-employed income has been calibrated so as to obtain an aggregate amount corresponding to that reported in fiscal data (Fiorio and D’Amuri, 2006) and we assume there are no changes in the tax evasion behaviour as a consequence of the shock.

2.3. Income stabilisation indicators

Our analysis focuses on both relative and absolute resilience provided by the welfare state, taking into account the interactions of the tax-benefit policies with other existing household income and household composition.

First, in order to assess the level of stabilisation of incomes with respect to the pre-shock baseline, we employ the Net Replacement Rate approach (Immervoll and O’Donoghue, 2004). This gives an indication of the extent of the remaining disposable income for those affected by the economic lockdown and is computed as follows:

$$\text{Net Replacement Rate} = \frac{Y_{post}}{Y_{pre}}$$

where $Y$ is Household Disposable Income made up of Original Income plus Benefits, minus Taxes; $Y_{post}$ and $Y_{pre}$ refer to the income after and before the earning shock, respectively.

In addition to any form of market income, Original Income includes also other sources of personal income, such as private inter-household transfers and alimonies. Even in the lockdown scenario where we simulate the earning shock, household original income may be positive due to income from savings, private pensions, inter-household transfers or the earnings of other household members. Income from savings could be seen as another channel of self-insurance but, given the poor quality of the underlying data, we treat it as one of the components of Original Income, without highlighting its specific role.
To analyse the transmission channels of relative resilience, we decompose the Net Replacement Rate by income source:

$$\text{Net Replacement Rate} = \frac{O_{\text{post}} + B_{\text{post}} - T_{\text{post}}}{Y_{\text{pre}}}$$

where $O$ is the Original Income, $B$ is the sum of Benefits and $T$ includes Income Taxes and Social Insurance Contributions paid by employees and the self-employed.

Benefits comprise (1) Wage-integration Benefits (Cassa Integrazione Guadagni), (2) COVID Benefit, i.e. newly discretionary policies such as lump sum transfers to self-employed and employees, (3) Housing Benefits, i.e. amount equivalent to the mortgage instalment for the main residence, (4) Other Benefits, i.e. pension and invalidity benefits, minimum income schemes, family benefits.

Moreover, to measure the extent of protection offered by public support, we use an indicator developed in Figari et al. 2014, Compensation Rate, which measures the proportion of net earnings lost due to the economic lockdown, compensated by public transfers net of taxes:

$$\text{Compensation Rate} = \frac{(B_{\text{post}} - B_{\text{pre}}) - (T_{(B_{\text{post}})} - T_{(B_{\text{pre}})})}{(E_{\text{pre}} - E_{\text{post}})}$$

where the difference in net earnings before and after the shock represents the income lost due to the lockdown, which in turn is compensated by more generous net benefits. To derive net measures, taxes are allocated proportionally to each income source.

This new indicator allows us to isolate the net public support from the effect of other earnings present in the household of a worker affected by the lockdown, which usually play an important role in determining the income after an individual employment shock. The compensation rate gives us a direct indication of the net public contribution as a proportion of the net market income lost due to the lockdown. Furthermore, we decompose the compensation rate in the same way as the Net Replacement Rate to highlight the contribution of each group of benefits.

In order to test whether the income stabilisation offered by the tax-benefit systems prevents those affected by the lockdown from falling below an absolute income threshold, we compare the equivalised disposable income before and after the lockdown to the poverty threshold at 60% of the median in the pre-shock baseline, without and with the discretionary policy measures implemented by the government.

Our approach is equivalent to calculating absolute poverty rates with a fixed poverty line and resembles the suggested practice in the measurement of poverty during an economic crisis using a threshold fixed in real terms (Jenkins et al., 2013). Such an indicator can be considered as an appropriate proxy for the experience of impoverishment that an individual faces, comparing their current condition with their own status before the income shock (Matsaganis and Leventi, 2011). A normative judgment of the proper level of protection provided by the welfare systems is beyond the scope of this paper and should be evaluated considering the minimum levels of living standards guaranteed by the welfare system as a whole (Boadway and Keen, 2000). However, given the policy goal of limiting the numbers of individuals at risk of poverty, it is implicit that household income of those affected by the lockdown should not fall below the poverty threshold.

Before moving to the results of the empirical analysis, it is important to reiterate that we consider the hypothetical situation of one month in isolation only (i.e. March 2020, when the government imposed the lockdown and the first compensation measures have been
implemented). Our considerations abstract from the smoothing possibilities of the income shock that an individual can exploit over a longer period of time.

Furthermore, our main indicators – Net Replacement Rate, Compensation Rate and poverty status of individuals affected by the shutdown – refer to the set of individuals identified as those affected by the earning loss and depend on their characteristics and the assumptions we have made on 100% benefit take-up. These indicators are not affected by the absolute numbers of individuals identified as those affected by the loss of earnings. As opposed, estimates of budgetary costs and those of poverty and inequality in the overall population are affected instead by the absolute numbers of individuals considered and this should be borne in mind when interpreting the results.

3. The characteristics of those affected by earning loss

The analysis focuses on employed and self-employed individuals who lost their earnings in the immediate aftermath of the COVID-19 outbreak.

We consider economic sectors at 6-digit level, as classified by ATECO, that were listed in the Decree Law imposing the shutdown of economic activities.\(^1\) Although SILC microdata lack information on business activities at 6-digit level, we draw on other detailed available statistics released by Istat (namely, the operating firms archive (ASIA), the national labour force survey (RCFL) and National Accounts) in order to compute the occupation shares in each sector subject to shut down.

The left enclave in Table 1, based on Istat detailed statistics, shows that\(^2\) 39% of Italian active workers are subject to the shutdown, on average. The shares of workers affected are different across economic sectors: while more than 60% of the active workers in the manufacturing and construction sectors are affected, the shares corresponding to affected workers in the wholesale and retail trade sectors, as well as accommodation and food service activities are of more than 80%. All workers in real estates, arts, entertainment and recreation activities are affected by the shutdown of economic activity.

We then randomly select the individuals, with a positive income source from either employment or self-employment. We perform this selection by sector of employment at 2-digit ATECO level, which we relate to data in EUROMOD in order to get the same occupation shares subject to shut down. On the other hand, in EUROMOD we identify 27 million individuals with a positive income source from employment, temporary jobs or self-employment reported in the income reference year (i.e. 2016). As expected, this figure is higher than the 23 million individuals reported by Istat which refers to those with regular employment contracts.

Moreover, shares shown in the right enclave of Table 1, do not always correspond to those on the left. They can be lower as the salaries of individuals working in the public sector are not affected by the shutdown (and hence not selected in EUROMOD) but can also be higher as the number of individuals observed in some sectors is too limited to select the right amount from the left enclave.

\(^1\) (Decree Law of the Minister of Economic Development which updates the DPCM 22/3/2020 available here https://www.gazzettaufficiale.it/eli/id/2020/03/26/20A01877/sg

\(^2\) For the sake of simplicity, the table reports economic sectors at 1-digit level as per the ATECO classification.
### Table 1. Workers subject to shutdown by sectors of economic activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic activity</th>
<th>ISTAT</th>
<th>EUROMOD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Workers</td>
<td>Workers subjects to shut down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>thousands</td>
<td>thousands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY AND FISHING</td>
<td>909</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B MINING AND QUARRYING</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C MANUFACTURING</td>
<td>4,321</td>
<td>2,825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D ELECTRICITY, GAS, STEAM AND AIR CONDITIONING SUPPLY</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E WATER SUPPLY; SEWERAGE, WASTE ACTIVITIES</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F CONSTRUCTION</td>
<td>1,339</td>
<td>806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE; REPAIR OF VEHICLES</td>
<td>3,287</td>
<td>2,711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H TRANSPORTATION AND STORAGE</td>
<td>1,143</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I ACCOMMODATION AND FOOD SERVICE ACTIVITIES</td>
<td>1,480</td>
<td>1,271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION</td>
<td>618</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K FINANCIAL AND INSURANCE ACTIVITIES</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L REAL ESTATE ACTIVITIES</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M PROFESSIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL ACTIVITIES</td>
<td>1,516</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPPORT SERVICE ACTIVITIES</td>
<td>1,028</td>
<td>362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, DEFENCE; SOCIAL SECURITY</td>
<td>1,243</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P EDUCATION</td>
<td>1,589</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q HUMAN HEALTH AND SOCIAL WORK ACTIVITIES</td>
<td>1,922</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R ARTS, ENTERTAINMENT AND RECREATION</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S OTHER SERVICE ACTIVITIES</td>
<td>712</td>
<td>523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T ACTIVITIES OF HOUSEHOLDS AS EMPLOYERS</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U ACTIVITIES OF EXTRATERRITORIAL ORGANISATIONS AND BODIES</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. Our elaboration using ASIA, RCFL and National Accounts and SILC data.
Overall, we identify 11 million workers potentially at risk of losing their earnings as they are active, with a private employer, in one of the economic sectors subject to the shutdown.

We plan to extend this analysis as soon as administrative data (COB) or Labour Force Survey data are made available where one can identify those who actually suffered the income loss.

Table 2 reports some characteristics of those affected by the economic shutdown: 37% of them lives in households with some children; 41% of them come from one-earner households and for them the temporary shutdown of their activities imply the loss of the main income source.

The distribution of those affected by the lockdown by household income quintile groups (assessed before the earning loss) shows an increasing pattern with quintile shares ranging from 15% at the bottom of the distribution to 24% at the top.

Table 2. Characteristics of those affected by earnings losses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presence of children %</th>
<th>36.60</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of earners %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>40.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>42.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3+</td>
<td>13.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household income quintile %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottom</td>
<td>14.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>16.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>20.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th</td>
<td>23.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top</td>
<td>24.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Summary statistics for those affected by income losses as identified in EUROMOD data. Quintile groups based on household equivalised disposable income in the baseline.
Source: EUROMOD version I2.0+.

4. Income protection policies

The existence in all European countries of a developed welfare state (Schubert et al., 2009), that is intended, among other things, to protect people and their families against economic shocks, is one of the main differences between the crisis faced today and that of the 1930s. However, the sudden and unexpected shock due to the COVID-19 pandemic forced European governments to adapt existing measures and to define new discretionary and bold measures in order to support those who are bearing a disproportionate share of the economic burden (OECD, 2020).

Table 3 provides a summary of the most important measures implemented by the Italian government, including the Decree Law 18/2020 (“Cura Italia”) to support individuals and their families. The same Decree Law imposes that firms cannot fire employees after February 23, 2020: this implies that existing Unemployment Insurance Schemes do not apply to workers affected by an earning loss due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

In order to compensate the earning loss suffered by the employees, the government extended the existing Wage Supplementation Scheme (i.e. Cassa Integrazione Guadagni, CIG) relaxing the eligibility conditions and allowing most of employees to be entitled to the scheme. Only domestic workers and consultants (i.e. parasubordinati) are not eligible. The Wage
Supplementation Scheme provides a replacement of 80% of earnings subject to a maximum cap, which is fully covered by the National Institute of Social Security (INPS). As INPS payments usually take 2 or 3 months, in an attempt to limit delays, the government reached an agreement with commercial banks that anticipate the transfers on behalf of the government and disburse the owed amounts to entitled workers. If monthly earnings are below 2,160 euro, *Cassa Integrazione Guadagni* cannot exceed 940 euro, while if earnings are above the threshold the *Cassa Integrazione Guadagni* is capped at 1,130 euro. This implies that the replacement can be substantially below 80% for most workers. The government expects to transfer up to 3.4 billion euros on this scheme, in addition to 1.7 billion euros for figurative contributions. This amount represents the maximum expense allowed by the government and transfer payments are subject to income taxes.

In order to compensate the earning loss incurred by the self-employed, the government defined a new lump-sum transfer of 600 euro to be paid for the month of March to all self-employed, irrespective of whether they incurred a loss or not. The self-employed in specific professional bodies (e.g. lawyers, accountants, notaries, etc.) are eligible for the lump-sum transfer only if their 2019 income was below 35,000 euro. Rules are such that self-employed must apply for this transfer, and there has been a delay in the processing times due to the high volume of applications with the tax authority, INPS, so that the first transfers reached beneficiaries in mid April. The estimated maximum binding expenditure for the first month is roughly 3.1 billion euros. The transfer is not subject to income tax and does not enter in any means-test of other benefits.

Employees bound to continue work on company premises and those who cannot typically work from home are entitled to a lump-sum transfer of 100 euro to be paid for the month of March. We arbitrarily assume that 50% of employees working in the economic sectors that are not subject to the shutdown still work on company premises. The estimated maximum binding expenditure is about 0.8 billion euros. The transfer is not subject to income tax and does not enter in any means-test of other benefits.

Self-employed can ask to suspend the mortgage on their main residence.\(^3\)

In addition to the policies listed in Table 3, the government allowed employees in the private sector with children up to 12 years old to take parental leave for 15 days at 50% of the earnings’ level or, alternatively, to have a babysitting bonus of 600€ (incremented to 1000€ for those working in the health system). We do not simulate these measures due to data unavailability but we focus instead on simulations involving the realistic take-up of these schemes.

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\(^3\) This is a reduction in current expenditures, which in our simulations is considered as a transfer. Arguably, other naturally reduced costs (e.g. commuting or childcare costs) should have received the same treatment but we decided to consider this expenditure solely because it is the only one clearly defined by the Decree Law and properly guaranteed for by a Fund that covers such expenditures.
Table 3. Simulated policies introduced by the Decree Law 18/2020

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Estimated cost (billion euros)</th>
<th>Target</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wage Supplementation Schemes (i.e. CIG)</td>
<td>$3.4 + 1.7$ (CIG cost + figurative contributions)</td>
<td>Salary workers excluding temporary workers and housekeeping workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lump sum transfer (600€)</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Self-employed (if enrolled in professional body, subject to income limit equal to 35.000€)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lump sum transfer (100€)</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>Employees working on company premises, subject to income limit equal to 40.000€</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mortgage suspension</td>
<td></td>
<td>Self-employed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Empirical evidence

In our simulations we assume that all individuals working in sectors subject to the shutdown benefit from the discretionary policy measures described above.

Table 4 reports the simulated costs and the number of entitled individuals for each measure, considering only one month of application of the different schemes.

The Wage Supplementation Scheme would cost around 5.6 billion euros (plus 2.8 billion euros of credit contributions) with 7 million workers benefitting from it. The lump sum for the self-employed would cost 1.4 billion euros involving 2.4 million individuals. Five million workers would benefit from the lump sum of 100€ with a total cost of 0.5 billion euros.

The simulated costs are somehow different from those estimated by the government and ratified by the Parliamentary Fiscal Council (UPB, 2020), reported in Table 3. This has to do with how we define the individuals entitled, which we related to the take-up of benefits. The government assumes an average take-up rate of around 80% uniform across economic sectors, while the Fiscal Council assume differentiated take-up rates across sectors with an overall average of around 60%. In our simulation we assume that 100% of individuals working in the sectors affected by the shutdown down are entitled to the Wage Supplementation Schemes and the Lump sum transfer (600€) and they do take-up these benefits. We assume that 50% of those employed in sectors not subject to the lockdown are still working on company premises (Fondazione Studi Consulenti del Lavoro, 2020) and they receive the lump sum transfer (100€).

Depending on how reliable our identification of the sectors subject to the shutdown is, our scenario can be considered as an upper-bound scenario in terms of the individuals entitled to receive the benefits and the overall cost of the measures. We assume that all individuals working in the sectors subject to the shutdown are negatively affected (i.e. they lose their earnings) but there could be individuals still working due to specific waivers. On the other hand, there could be individuals working in the sectors not subject to the shutdown who are negatively affected and we are not able to identify them.
Table 4. Policies introduced by the Decree Law 18/2020: simulated costs and entitled individuals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy</th>
<th>Simulated cost billion euros</th>
<th>% of annual GDP</th>
<th>Entitled thousands</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wage Supplementation Schemes</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>7,013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Figurative Social Contributions</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lump sum transfer (600€)</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>2,360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lump sum transfer (100€)</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>4,962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mortgage subsidy</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>363</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Costs refer to a one-month application of the different schemes. Workers entitled to Wage Supplementation Schemes are individuals with positive employment income, working in sectors subject to the shutdown and not in the public sector. Workers entitled to a lump sum transfer (600€) are individuals with positive self-employment income, working in sectors subject to the shutdown and not receiving employment income. Workers entitled to the lower lump sum transfer (100€) are 50% of the individuals with positive employment income, working in sectors not subject to the lockdown (randomly selected and arbitrarily assumed). Source: EUROMOD I2.0+

Overall, a one-month shutdown imposed by the government would imply a loss of original income of around 20 billion euros, representing 1.1% of annual GDP and around 33% of observed original income before the shutdown. With such a loss of original income, the government would lose 2.7 billion euros of income tax revenue and 5.9 billion euros of social security contributions (including both employer and employee contributions). Despite additional 7.6 billion euros of transfers (i.e. Wage Supplementation Scheme and lump sum transfers), the loss of disposable income for the families affects by the economic shutdown is around 8 billion euros or 12% of the observed disposable income before the shock.

Table 5. Income changes due to the economic shutdown

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income source</th>
<th>billion euros</th>
<th>% of annual GDP</th>
<th>% change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Original income</td>
<td>-20.2</td>
<td>-1.13</td>
<td>-32.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social security contribution employer</td>
<td>-4.0</td>
<td>-0.22</td>
<td>-31.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social security contribution employee</td>
<td>-1.9</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>-32.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income tax</td>
<td>-2.7</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>-16.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfers</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>27.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disposable income</td>
<td>-7.9</td>
<td>-0.44</td>
<td>-11.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Income changes refer to one-month shutdown. Source: EUROMOD I2.0+

Figure 1 shows the unequal distribution of income losses along quintile groups. Original income losses are more pronounced at the bottom of the distribution: those in the first quintile group would lose more than 40% of their original income while those in the top quintile group less than 30%. This is due to the fact the one-earner families are more concentrated at the bottom of the distribution and the shutdown causes the loss of their main income sources. Along the income distribution, families are characterised by more earners and other income sources (e.g. property and capital income) not affected, in the short term, by the economic shutdown.
Due to these income changes that also hide re-rankings of individuals moving to the bottom part of the distribution when they lose their earnings, one can expect a different level of inequality in the income distribution after the shock. The Gini of the disposable income distribution is equal to 0.31 before the shutdown and 0.33 after the shutdown, highlighting a non-negligible increase in inequality, explained by a larger role of between population groups inequality, namely those affected and those not affected by the shutdown. Without the policy measures introduced by the government the inequality level in disposable income would have been higher, with Gini equal to 0.42.

5.1. Relative resilience

The average Net Replacement Rat is illustrative of the relative resilience due to differences in tax-benefit systems, characteristics of the individuals affected by the shutdown and household composition.

Household income on average falls to as much as 78% of its pre-shock level considering all households with at least one individual affected by the lockdown.

The protective role played by Original Income (including earnings of other household members) is illustrated in Figure 2 which shows the Net Replacement Rates by its components (with Taxes and Contributions reducing the Replacement Rates and hence negative) and by household income quintile groups. Income from other benefits (i.e. mainly pensions, disability benefits and income-tested benefits) plays a similar but smaller role. The sum of these two components makes up around 60% of post-shock household income, almost constant along the income distribution, with the original incomes less relevant at the bottom of the income distribution and vice versa for the other benefits.
Earnings of other household members are progressively more important as household income increases: the average Net Replacement Rates are likely to be pushed up by the presence of these incomes at the top of the income distribution, but this is partly compensated by progressive income tax. Wage Supplementation Benefits play a large role ranging from 20% to 28% of post-shock household income, with an inverted U shape along the income distribution. COVID benefits are clearly relevant at the bottom of the distribution where they represent almost 20% of post-shock household income.

The general lesson of this analysis is that it is necessary to consider the social protection system as a whole and how it interacts with household composition and incomes received by other household members. Focusing exclusively on discretionary measures is not enough to have a comprehensive picture.

**Figure 2. Decomposition (by income sources) of Net Average Replacement Income for those affected by the lockdown, by household income quintile groups**

Notes: Net Replacement Rate is the ratio of household disposable income after and before the earning shock. “COVID Benefit” include newly discretionary policies such as lump sum transfers to self-employed and employees; “Housing Benefits” include the amount equivalent to the mortgage instalment for the main residence; “Other Benefits” include pension and invalidity benefits, minimum income schemes, family benefits; “Taxes and Contributions” include personal income tax, employee social insurance contributions and other direct taxes. Source: EUROMOD 12.0+.

To focus on the income protection offered by public support, we adopt the Compensation Rate approach. It shows that the average net public contribution to the disposable income as a proportion of the net earnings lost because of the lockdown is around 55% with a decreasing pattern along the income distribution (Figure 3).
Most public support is channelled through the Wage Supplementation Scheme of benefits (the shaded area with a forward-sloping line pattern) only slightly reduced by the progressive income tax (the shaded area with a backward-sloping line pattern) payable on these benefits. Benefits received due to COVID-19 make up the largest share of public support at the bottom of the distribution but represent a non-negligible compensation for those in the upper part of the distribution as well.

Families in the first quintile group benefit relatively more from COVID benefits as individuals entitled to these lump-sum transfers (i.e. self-employed and occasional workers) have more representation in this group, with original income relatively low compared to the 600 € lump-sum transfer. The Compensation Rate decreases with income because the Wage Supplementation Schemes represent a decreasing income replacement, given that it is capped at 1,130 euro.

**Figure 3. Decomposition (by income sources) of average Compensation Rates for those affected by the lockdown, by household income quintile groups**

Note. See Figure 1. Quintile groups based on disposable income before the pandemic. The lump sum of 100€ to the employees is not included in the Compensation Rate because it is given to employees who are not subject to a reduction in their original income. In order to avoid the impact of outliers, the sample is restricted to employees with a Compensation rate between 0 and 1 and to self-employed with income larger than 50€ per month. The Figures reports individual averages which are not strictly comparable with numbers behind Figure 1 which are aggregates at quintile levels. Source: EUROMOD version I2.0+

### 5.2. Absolute resilience

The extent to which the tax-benefit instruments allow those affected by the shutdown to avoid falling below a given level of income depends on the generosity of the system, whether workers are entitled to receiving wage supplementation benefits and COVID benefits, the income position of the individuals before losing their earnings and their household circumstances.
Table 6 shows the poverty rates, for different groups of the population, in three different scenarios: (1) before the shutdown due to the COVID-19 pandemic, (2) after the shut-down without considering the compensation policies implemented by the government and (3) after the shut-down considering the discretionary policies introduced by the government. The poverty line is always constant as in the scenario before the shutdown.

Focusing on the workers active in sectors subject to the shutdown, the share of those at risk of poverty before the shock is around 13%. The impact of the shutdown alone is disruptive with the poverty rate that would have reached 68% of workers without any compensation measure. The policies implemented by the government are able to limit such an impact, limiting the poverty rate at 28%.

The individuals living in one-earner families are, as expected, more exposed to poverty risk: 22% are poor already before the COVID-19 pandemic, 80% would have been in a poverty status without compensation measures and 44% are below the poverty threshold with the discretionary policies in operation.

When extending the analysis to the overall population and considering the compensation measures implemented by the government, the breakthrough impact of the pandemic on the poverty status is evident, with an increase in the poverty rate of more than 8 percentage points, and of more than 13 percentage points when we focus children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>表 6. Poverty rates before and after the COVID-19 pandemic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workers in sectors subject to shut down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before COVID-19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workers in sectors subject to shut-down and living in one-earner families</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.27%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: The poverty threshold is fixed at 60% of baseline median household disposable equivalised income. Poverty rates based on household equivalised disposable income. Source: EUROMOD version 12.0+

6. Conclusions

We have analysed the extent to which the Italian tax-benefit system provides income support to those affected by the economic shutdown at the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic. In order to assess the impact of both the existing and the newly designed benefits on household income, counterfactual scenarios are simulated with EUROMOD, the EU-wide microsimulation model, integrated with information from the activity sectors subject to the economic shutdown.

In interpreting our results there are some caveats to be borne in mind. Most importantly, our paper offers a scenario rather than a forecast and it provides a reference point by which one can evaluate the economic unfolding of the situation and the new policies that will be implemented.
Moreover, our analysis entails potential economic effects of the first month of the COVID-19 pandemic and examines the extent of the intended effects of the schemes, though in reality the transfer payments (i.e. wage supplementation and the emergency lump-sum transfers) were inevitably delayed and this lag might constrain the liquidity of families. In order to limit the delay, the government reached an agreement with commercial banks that anticipate the transfers corresponding to the Wage Supplementation Schemes and disburse the owed amounts to the entitled workers. With that said, our analysis abstracts from any possibility of income and consumption smoothing that individuals can exploit over a longer period of time. Individual preferences for consumption smoothing lead, for instance, to a decrease in current consumption in the presence of economic insecurity. Consequently, the overall effects of the crisis would be exacerbated if the government does not provide immediately an income stabilisation for those who actually experience earning loss, which can potentially translate into detrimental effects on the aggregated demand.

Based on our scenario, one can expect a loss of market income as related to individuals of more than 30%, only partially compensated by new policy measures which tend to guarantee to a larger extent the income of those at the bottom of the distribution. Nevertheless, an increase in the overall inequality and poverty risk is expected, amounting to 15 percentage points among individuals affected by the shut-down and to more than 8 percentage point considering the overall population.

It is clear that the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic are asymmetric and particularly relevant from an economic perspective for some families and less for others, despite the compensation measures implemented by the government. It is crucial to take into account such unequal distribution of the shock if the economic consequences are expected to last long.

As clearly pointed out by Sacchi (2018) while reforms occurred since 2012 have modernised the Italian welfare system “this does not mean that it is necessarily ready for the challenges has to face”. In particular, the first month of the COVID-19 pandemic highlights important deficiencies of the Italian welfare system.

That is, the most important automatic stabilizers embedded in the tax-benefit system (i.e. Minimum guaranteed income - RdC, Family allowances – ANF and in-work bonus – Bonus IRPEF) depend on past year’s incomes and do not react to a sudden loss of earnings such as those experienced in March 2020. Moreover, some of the welfare tools deployed during the emergency, such as the lump sum transfer of 600€ to self-employed, do not seem to be well-thought in terms of size and design as they provide equal transfers to all entitled while ignoring the possibility of individuals having historically declared lower incomes than the one transferred in March 2020 and preventing full coverage, with domestic workers being excluded.

At the time of writing this paper, the Italian government has decided that (i.e. bookshops, baby clothes shops, …) some commercial activities previously subject to the shutdown (i.e. en-detail retail such as book and stationary shops, children’s clothing, etc.) can reopen starting from mid of April 2020 and is currently writing a new Decree Law with new and more generous compensation measures, including a new “emergency income” which should help protect individuals from income losses.

In order to avoid an increase in inequality and poverty two national think-tanks, Forum Diseguaglianze Diversità and ASviS, suggest implementing two extraordinary and temporary instruments: (1) the so called Sostegno di Emergenza per il Lavoro Autonomo (SEA – Emergency Support of Self-Employment) - an income support that takes into account the economic conditions of the household of the self-employed who lose their job – and (2) Reddito...
di Cittadinanza per l’Emergenza (REM - Emergency Citizenship Income) – a last safety net for those not covered by other instruments based on the design of the Citizenship Income (Forum Diseguaglianze Diversità and ASviS, 2020). These measures would allow the country to have a systematic set of instruments to support incomes in the short term and allow the government to focus on the actions needed for the medium- and long-term economic recovery.

In general terms, our analysis has demonstrated the importance of the income of other household members in determining the economic resilience of those affected by the shutdown. The sharing of risks within the household can be seen in general terms as a complement to the insurance function of the Welfare State. However, as it is usual in distributive analysis, we have assumed complete income pooling within the household. The possibility that incomes are not in fact pooled serves to remind us of the non-equivalence of income received in the form of Wage Supplementation Schemes as an individual entitlement on the one hand, and income support schemes, usually assessed on the economic situation of the family as a whole, on the other.

Finally, we believe that the stress test approach applied to tax-benefit schemes offers some potential opportunities for further research.

First, we will trace the evolution of the effects of the shutdown on the labour market in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic and will monitor the effects of the compensation schemes enacted by Italian fiscal authorities on household incomes.

Second, we will extend our analysis to the most important European economies to capture the heterogeneous effects of the COVID-19 asymmetric shock across other European welfare systems. In a cross-country perspective, it will be important to understand how well-suited existing institutional arrangements are for compensating income loss during the pandemic. Moreover, such evidence will raise normative issues on the protection level that the tax-benefit system should guarantee to the population and backs up the idea that unconditional Basic Income instruments would have made comprehensive compensation possible during the pandemic, without the need of discretionary and temporary policies (Atkinson, 2015).

References


Fondazione Studi Consulenti del Lavoro, “Emergenza COVID-19: l’impatto su aziende e lavoratori secondo i Consulenti del Lavoro”, Roma, 2020


