



BANCA D'ITALIA
EUROSISTEMA

Temi di Discussione

(Working Papers)

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what are the risks?

by Giulia Cifaldi and Andrea Neri

April 2013

Number

908



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ISSN 1594-7939 (print)

ISSN 2281-3950 (online)

Printed by the Printing and Publishing Division of the Bank of Italy

ASKING INCOME AND CONSUMPTION QUESTIONS IN THE SAME SURVEY: WHAT ARE THE RISKS?

by Giulia Cifaldi^a and Andrea Neri^b

Abstract

Sample surveys providing high-quality information on both total household expenditure (consumption) and income are not commonly available. Nevertheless, surveys focusing on income usually do collect some information on expenditure. One major drawback of this practice is that it could lead some researchers to think that both sets of information are similarly accurate, as they are derived from the same survey. This paper conducts an empirical investigation of the consequences of such an assumption. We draw on the Survey of Household Income and Wealth (SHIW) as a case study, since it collects information on both income and consumption. We combine this Survey with the information drawn from other surveys that are assumed to be more reliable for specific items. On average, we find that the underestimation of household income is lower than the one relating to consumption. As a consequence, saving rates in the SHIW are likely to be overestimated. We also find evidence that measurement error in income data is proportionally higher for high incomes. This does not appear to be the case for consumption data. Household saving is likely to be overestimated, especially for households in the low-income classes. Finally, we find evidence that measurement error may bias the relationship between household savings and its determinants.

JEL Classification: C25, C42, D31.

Keywords: measurement error, income, consumption, imputation.

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^a Bank of Italy, Economic and Financial Statistics Department; giulia.cifaldi@bancaditalia.it.

^b Bank of Italy, Economic and Financial Statistics Department; andrea.neri@bancaditalia.it.

1 Introduction¹

Sample surveys providing high-quality information on both total household expenditure (consumption) and income are not commonly available. One of the main reasons is that collecting high-quality data on both topics requires a very large number of questions that would result in an excessive respondent burden. Both the concepts of income and consumption consist of a high number of components and, in order to collect accurate data, it would be necessary to include a specific question for each single item rather than asking few questions at a more aggregate level [Krosnick and Presser, 2010, Fowler, 1995, Crossley and Winter, 2012]. Quality expenditure data usually call for the use of diaries in which the household records all purchases made within a short period of time (at least for small and frequently purchased items). The diary method minimizes the reliance on respondents' memories at a higher cost in terms of respondent burden. Moreover, collecting high-quality information on income is a burdensome task. First, it requires asking each member of the household whether or not he/she has received a particular type of income. This must be done for all possible sources of income (self-employment, employment, pensions, return on assets, etc.). Moreover, it is good practice to collect additional data such as the type of work the respondent is engaged in, the type of pension received, the characteristics of a rented dwelling, and so on.

Since asking detailed questions on income and consumption in the same survey can be problematic, surveys tend to specialize in one of the two topics. Surveys whose main focus is income usually include few recall questions on consumption as well. This is done for at least two reasons. First, it enables the study of household savings decisions, where saving is defined as income minus consumption. This topic is usually of great interest to policy makers and, when available, surveys are widely used since they allow economists to analyze relevant subgroups of the population. Second, asking consumption questions may help improve the quality of income responses. This could be achieved during the interview by probing the respondents when answers do not appear to be fully coherent, or at a later stage during the editing process (via callbacks).

This practice risks having one major drawback. External users may be tempted to use both variables in the same study without giving due consideration to measurement issues. They may implicitly assume that responses about consumption have the same accuracy as those on income, since they are both collected in the same survey (using the same procedures and standards for quality checks). This then risks jumping to erroneous conclusions, especially when investigating household saving decisions.

There are at least two reasons why the 'equal accuracy assumption' may not be valid. The first is that questions on income are usually considered sensitive and tend to produce comparatively higher nonresponse rates or larger measurement error in responses than questions on other topics [Tourangeau and Yan, 2007]. For instance, some respondents

¹We wish to thank L. Cannari, G. D'Alessio, C. Rondinelli and two anonymous referees for their useful comments. The Bank of Italy bears no responsibility for the analyses and conclusions, which are solely those of the authors. Emails: giulia.cifaldi@bancaditalia.it, andrea.neri@bancaditalia.it.

may feel that such questions are overly intrusive and that they are none of the researcher's business. Others may fear consequences in providing truthful answers in case of possible disclosure to a third party (such as fiscal authorities). A second reason is that if the questions on consumption are not part of the focus of the survey, diaries are not used to collect expenditure information. Even if in the literature there are studies showing that diaries are not perfect [Crossley and Winter, 2012], there appears to be a prevailing view that the diary approach provides more accurate measures than recall questions as far as nondurable expenditure is concerned [Battistin, 2003a].

In this paper we use an empirical application to answer the following research question: what are the consequences of being unaware that income and consumption data might have a different level of accuracy? To the best of our knowledge, this is the first application on this topic.

A paper by Browning et al. [2003] studies the quality of responses to questions on expenditure in multipurpose surveys. After reviewing the way consumption questions are framed, the authors assess the quality of the responses by comparing them with external sources of information. They argue that, even if there is evidence of bias, valid information can be collected by adding specific recall questions to general purpose surveys. They also provide recommendations on how to do so. However, the paper only focuses on total expenditure; it does not consider income or other variables.

In a similar vein, other research studies the effects of measurement error in the two variables separately. For a review of studies on the measurement issue in income variables see Moore et al. [2000] and Pedace and Bates [2000]. On consumption, see, for example, Attanasio et al. [2004], Attanasio and Weber [2010], Battistin [2003b], Crossley and Winter [2012], Kan and Pudney [2008] and Pudney [2008]. Rather surprisingly, there are no studies dealing with both consumption and income at the same time.

One last point is worth mentioning. A discussion of the best definition of household savings is beyond the scope of this work. Some economists argue that the saving definition should only include part of the expenditure on consumer durables. Moreover, income should be adjusted for the loss of purchasing power due to inflation, and saving should probably be considered net of the depreciation of capital stock [Rossi and Visco, 1994]. Nevertheless, in this paper we prefer to stick to the national accounts definition, mainly because this enables us to have a term of comparison for evaluating our imputation process.

For this, we draw on data from the Survey of Household Income and Wealth, a national representative probabilistic sample of the Italian population. The main focus of the SHIW is to collect detailed information on household income and wealth, but the questionnaire also includes some questions that attempt to reconstruct total household expenditure.

2 Data

The SHIW is conducted every two years by the Bank of Italy to study the economic situation of Italian households. The sample consists of about 8,000 households selected from population registers. The survey has been run since 1962. In this analysis we use data from the 2008 wave. The survey also collects some information on total household expenditure. This feature makes it suitable for an empirical investigation of our research question. Similar surveys usually include questions only relating to some of the components of total expenditure. For instance, the US Panel Study on Income Dynamics (PSID) asks questions about food, rent, transport, education, health and child care expenses. The British Household Panel Survey (BHPS) collects information on durable items and on food expenses. The European survey on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) includes questions on main residence related expenses, while the Household Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) survey asks respondents about groceries, food, and meals outside the home.

Previous research using the SHIW has shown that both data on income and on consumption are affected by non-sampling errors. According to Neri and Zizza [2010] the main problems affecting the measurement of income in the SHIW are: 1) the difficulty respondents have recalling secondary sources of income; 2) the underreporting of income from self-employment; 3) the misreporting of income from financial assets; 4) the underreporting of income from properties other than the main residence.

As to consumption, Battistin [2003b] compares the SHIW with the expenditure survey run by the national statistical office (ISTAT). The author finds that while food expenditure data are of comparable quality across the two surveys once heaping and rounding are accounted for, the same does not hold for other non-durable expenditure.

Table 1 in the appendix compares the survey data and national accounts. Since in national accounts direct taxes are not broken down by type of income, an arbitrary criterion of division must be adopted. In this paper after-tax incomes are derived from national accounts by assigning a proportional share of direct taxes to each type of income. According to aggregate data the Italian household saving rate is some 14 percent of total disposable income. The survey-based estimate is 26 percent. National accounts can hardly be considered error-free and therefore a benchmark. Yet, the comparisons suggest that there are problems on the survey side.

In order to study the accuracy of SHIW data on income and consumption we use some external sources of information. A first dataset is the European Standard on Income and Living Condition survey (EU-SILC). This aims to provide comparable statistics on income, poverty, and living conditions of households in the European Union. In Italy it is carried out annually by ISTAT. In 2008 the sample included 20,928 households for a total of 52,433 individuals distributed in about 800 municipalities. Survey data are linked with administrative and tax records. If a respondent omits a source of income, this will be recovered from administrative records. As a consequence, we can assume that the number of income recipients is correctly estimated in EU-SILC. We therefore use this information

to adjust that available in the SHIW.

A second external dataset is a survey carried out in 2003 by a primary Italian bank group among its customers. The survey design and implementation were planned to be as similar as possible to those of the SHIW. The sample consists of 1,834 households. The outstanding feature of this sample is that data are coupled with the bank administrative databases using an exact matching procedure. For each respondent it is therefore possible to compare the amounts he/she reported in the survey with the true values contained in the administrative records. Financial data were available for six aggregate financial assets (deposits and repos, government bonds, private bonds, quoted shares, mutual funds and managed savings) and for financial liabilities. We use this external information to deal with the issue of misreporting in financial income in the SHIW.

The third dataset we use is the Household Budget Survey conducted yearly by ISTAT. This provides information on levels and patterns of monthly household expenditure on consumption. Data collection is mainly based on a daily diary in which the respondents record their expenditure. This is followed by a face-to-face interview to register socio-demographic information, characteristics of dwellings and ownership of durable goods (the latter is based on recall questions). In 2008 the sample included 23,392 households randomly drawn from 470 municipalities. We use this survey to assess the accuracy of expenditure items in the SHIW.

3 Methodology

In ideal conditions, we would have information from administrative records about each respondent's income and consumption. Unfortunately, this is not the case in the present study. Accordingly, we try to explore the information from external surveys that for some specific items may be assumed to produce accurate measurements. The method consists in adjusting SHIW data as follows:

1. adjustment of secondary sources of income;
2. adjustment of income for the self-employed;
3. adjustment of property income;
4. adjustment of income from financial assets;
5. adjustment of non-durable expenditure.

The final result is the production of a synthetic dataset in which measurement error should be accounted for. This file can be used to gain an insight into the consequences of the 'equal accuracy assumption'. However, it is worth stressing that none of the adjustments described in the paper are currently part of the production process of SHIW data. To the best of our knowledge the same applies for most of the existing similar surveys. Corrections for measurement error in public use data files are seldom, if ever made.

In the following sections we describe the method used to adjust for underreporting in secondary sources of income and non-durable expenditure. This is the original contribution of the work, while for the other steps we replicate existing methods.

For self-employment income, we replicate the method described in Neri and Zizza [2010]. This is a modified version of the approach by Pissarides and Weber [1989]. It consists in imputing income on the basis of the value of the main residence (while controlling for other socio-demographic variables). This value is assumed to be reported accurately even by the self-employed. The first step is to estimate the relation between income from work and the value of the main residence in a subsample of reliable SHIW respondents while controlling for a set of observed characteristics. The estimated coefficients are then projected on to the self-employed to obtain their predicted income.

The procedure for adjusting rental income is borrowed from Cannari and D'Alessio [1993] and is limited to dwellings other than the main residence. The Census provides an estimate of the total number of secondary dwellings. We can therefore calculate the number of missing dwellings as the difference between the Census figure and the one from the survey. We then assign these missing dwellings to SHIW respondents. In order to do so, we first estimate for each respondent the probability of holding one or more dwellings as a function of a set of household characteristics. On the basis these probabilities, we impute the ownership of the missing dwellings using a random experiment.

As regards financial income, we replicate the procedure by D'Aurizio et al. [2006], which is based on a sample survey of customers of a leading Bank coupled with administrative data on the assets actually owned. For each respondent we then have information on both the true amount of financial wealth survey and the one reported in the survey. We use this information to estimate the misreporting behavior in the external data and we then project it on to SHIW respondents. This is done for six different categories of financial asset (deposits, government bonds, private bonds, shares, managed savings, mutual funds) and for financial liabilities. The adjustment consists of the following steps. First, we adjust for misreporting in the ownership. Using the external data, we estimate the probability of holding a financial asset (or liability) as a function of the ownership declared in the survey and other household characteristics. We then project these probabilities on to SHIW respondents and impute ownership with a random experiment. Second, we adjust misreporting in the amounts following a similar procedure. In the external data we compute the ratio between the true and the declared amount for each asset (and for liabilities) and we estimate its relation with a set of socio-demographic variables. Eventually we use this information to impute the true amount of financial wealth held by SHIW respondents.

The adjustment process for both income and consumption items results in a final dataset with imputed values. We then compare imputed and initial values both in a univariate and in a multivariate context. For the latter, we pool the adjusted and the original data and we fit the following ordinal regression model:

$$y^* = \beta X + \gamma \text{Adj} + \text{interactions} + \varepsilon, \tag{1}$$

where y^* is the unobserved household propensity to save, while y is the observed household saving class grouped into 5 categories (1=negative savings, 2=saving rate between 0 and 25% of income, 3= saving rate between 25 and 50% 4=saving rate between 50 and 75%, 5=saving rate over 75%). The regressors in the X matrix are the household income class (quintiles), age, educational attainment, activity status, number of household components, size of the municipality, and geographical area. The term Adj is a dummy variable indicating where the sample is from imputed data (adj=1) or not. We also included some interactions between Adj and other regressors. In case there are no significant differences between imputed and original values, both the Adj variable and the interaction terms should not be significantly different from zero.

3.1 Imputation of secondary sources of income

Table 2 reports the number of workers and jobs estimated by National Accounts, the SHIW and the EU-SILC. According to the SHIW, payroll income is the main source of income for some 18.7 million workers, while self-employment is the first source for 4.4 million. These data are largely in line with the National Accounts. Yet, when it comes to the total number of jobs, the difference between the two sources increases. This implies that in the SHIW the number of income earners from secondary activity is underestimated. The same does not hold (at least to the same extent) for the EU-SILC, mainly because this survey uses administrative records.

We then perform a statistical matching between the SHIW and the EU-SILC by relating the secondary sources of income. Besides from the standard assumption of conditional independence, there are three preliminary conditions underlying of this exercise. First, the surveys should be seen as random samples drawn from the same population. Second, the distribution of the variables used in the matching should be similar in the two samples. Third, there should be no measurement error in the variables used as covariates.

Since in both surveys the sampling is performed so that it is representative of the Italian population, the first condition is satisfied. However, the second assumption does not hold: although the SHIW and the EU-SILC share some socio-demographic characteristics, their distributions are not fully comparable. Table 3 presents the results from a logit regression of a binary indicator T taking 1 for the observation in the EU-SILC sample (and 0 for the SHIW sample) over a set of social-demographic variables. Only the composition of individuals by sex and geographical area appears to be consistent in the two surveys. Significant differences concern the distribution of units by educational qualification, activity and marital status, type of household and tenure status. These differences may stem from operative aspects (such as the replacement protocol used to select substitutes) or from the external information used to compute the weights.

To ensure that condition 2 is met, the individuals in the EU-SILC sample are re-weighted on the basis of the SHIW sample through the propensity score weighting [Rosenbaum and Rubin, 1983]. Before re-weighting the EU-SILC sample, the distribution by age, educational qualification and activity status in the SHIW sample is aligned with data from

the Registry and Labour Force Survey. The propensity score λ is defined as the conditional probability of belonging to the EU-SILC sample ($T = 1$) given the set of socio-demographic variables X . In the case of a logistic regression:

$$\lambda_i = \Pr(T = 1|X = x_i) = f(x_i'\beta) = f(x_i'\widehat{\beta}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x_i'\widehat{\beta}}}. \quad (2)$$

The score is then used to define the new weight ω_{1i} of each unit as follows:

$$\omega_{1i} = \frac{\omega_{0i}}{\widehat{\lambda}_i}, \quad (3)$$

where ω_{0i} is the original weight in the SHIW sample. The results are shown in table 3. This re-weighting procedure allows us to reduce (increase) the weight of those EU-SILC units exhibiting over-represented (under-represented) characteristics in the SHIW.

The re-weighting of the EU-SILC sample is followed by the imputation of income earners from secondary activity in the SHIW sample. The imputation of income earners from secondary activities (employment, self-employment, retirement and transfers) is based on a random regression model:

1. in the EU-SILC sample the probability of being income earners ($I = 1$) is estimated as a function of the set of socio-demographic characteristics using a weighted probit regression. We run 4 different regressions, one for each source of income. For the sake of simplicity the coefficients are not reported;
2. in the SHIW sample the predicted probability of being income earners is defined as:

$$\widehat{\text{PR}}(I=1) = \Phi(x_i'\widehat{\beta} + u_i) \quad (4)$$

where $\widehat{\beta}$'s are the estimated coefficients of the probit regression and $u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$ with σ_u^2 equal to the variance of the residuals in the regression ($\Sigma e_i^2/n$);

3. in the SHIW sample the new income earners are defined using a random experiment: if $\Phi(x_i'\widehat{\beta} + u_i) > \nu_i \Rightarrow$ the i -th individual is an income earner, where ν_i is drawn from $U(0, 1)$. The total number of income recipients is constrained so as not to be higher than the figure from national accounts.

Finally, the amount of perceived income is attributed to each imputed earner by means of the propensity score matching. Propensity score matching associates to each unit of the recipient file (the income earner previously imputed in the SHIW) the record (income) of the most similar observation in the donor file (EU-SILC) in order to minimize a distance function defined in terms of propensity score. In this case, the propensity score is the conditional probability of belonging to the SHIW sample ($T = 1$) given the set of socio-demographic variables. As before, a logit model is used to estimate the propensity

score. Having defined and estimated the propensity score, the unit from the EU-SILC sample is chosen as a matching partner for SHIW individuals through the nearest neighbor (NN) matching with replacement that, as opposed to the NN matching without replacing, increases the quality of matching and reduces the bias.

The last assumption relates the absence of measurement error in the covariates. Even if we recognize that this could be a relevant issue, in this paper we do not address it and we leave it for future research. The main reason is that to the best of our knowledge statistical matching methods for dealing with this problem scarcely exist in the literature. This calls for a paper focusing specifically on this theme.

3.2 Imputation of non-durable expenditure

The SHIW is not focused on consumption. Nonetheless, there a number of questions aimed at constructing a measure of total expenditure. First, there is a question on food that reads as follows:

“What is the average monthly expenditure on food alone? This includes spending on food in supermarkets and the like and spending on meals eaten regularly outside the home.”

There is also a question on total non-durable consumption:

“How much did the household spend on average per month in 2008 in cash, by credit card, cheque or debit card, on all items? Include all spending, for both food and non-food, and exclude only the following items: - purchases of valuables, cars, et., maintenance, allowances, gifts (as above) - extraordinary maintenance of dwelling; - rental of dwelling; - mortgage installments; - life insurance premiums; - contributions to supplementary pension schemes.” Some items such as mortgage installments are not included since they are not counted as expenditure, others are excluded in order to avoid double counting (they are included in other sections of the questionnaire). Finally there are questions on durable expenditure that ask about the purchase and sale of valuables, means of transport, furniture, appliances, sundry equipment, and so on.

In our paper we deal with the first two items: food and other non-durable expenditure. The imputation of durable expenditure is not performed primarily because in both surveys this information comes from recall questions and then because there is no reason to assume that data from the Household Budget Survey (HBS) are better than SHIW data. Moreover, even though durable expenditure is a small portion of total consumption expenditure, it fluctuates more than non-durable spending. The high volatility of durable expenditure results in a poor statistical fit of the selected model to estimate the spending. Therefore, in the SHIW sample the imputed total consumption expenditure will be derived from the sum of the original durable spending and the imputed expenditure on food and non-durable goods.

In 2008 the SHIW registered an average consumption per household of €23,757, well below the €30,769 and €37,457 recorded by the HBS and National Accounts, respectively. Consequently, we use HBS data to improve consumption information in the SHIW.

As to food consumption, the SHIW and HBS distributions are fairly aligned (table

11). The main differences stem from higher order percentiles. SHIW data exhibits a lower variability than HBS. Indeed, asking information by using a single recall question causes respondents to round the reported values. The imputation process is therefore mainly used to deal with the issues of heaping and rounding.

In the first step we align the socio-demographic characteristics of the two samples by re-weighting HBS units through the propensity score weighting, where the propensity score is now defined as the conditional probability of belonging to the HBS sample given the set of socio-demographic variables (table 3).

The imputation of the expenditure on food is then based on a random regression imputation. In the HBS sample family food expenditure (F) is estimated using a weighted log-linear regression model:

$$\ln F = \beta X + \alpha FC + \gamma \ln(\text{newaffitto}) + \epsilon, \quad (5)$$

where X is the set of socio-demographic characteristics, FC is the food expenditure class² and ϵ is the error term distributed as a $N(0, \sigma^2)$. The variable *newaffitto* contains the current monthly rent paid by tenants and the monthly rent that owners could get by renting the main residence (subjective or figurative rent). We include this variable as a proxy for household current income (in the HBS there is no reliable information on income). Table 5 reports the main descriptive statistics for *newaffitto* in both samples. Except for the higher values of the variable, there are no significant interquartile differences between the two samples. Nevertheless, in the SHIW the distribution of *newaffitto* exhibits more variability. We therefore take the logarithm of the variable.

The predicted food spending in the SHIW is defined as follows:

$$\hat{F} = \exp\{\hat{\beta}X + \hat{\alpha}FC + \hat{\gamma} \ln(\text{newaffitto}) + 0, 5\hat{\sigma}^2\} + u, \quad (6)$$

where $\hat{\sigma}^2$ is the estimated residual variance of the regression. A residual component u is then added to the predicted values. In order to avoid negative values of expenditure, u is drawn from a truncated normal distribution. Moreover, to preserve the association between the imputed and the original variable we assign the residuals through the following procedure. First we run the regression using the SHIW data. Second, we compute for each residual its rank from the empirical distribution of residuals in the SHIW and then select the residual at the same rank in the empirical distribution of residuals from the HBS. Since the two samples do not have the same number of observations, it is not possible to exactly match the SHIW and HBS residuals at a specific rank. We therefore discretized the distribution of residuals in intervals containing an equal (or close to equal) number of weighted observations. We then randomly select a residual from each interval and assign it to the unit in the SHIW in the same interval.

²Four levels of food expenditure are defined: less than €200, between €200 and €500, between €500 and €900, and greater than €900. The distributions of households according to their class of food spending are not significantly different in the two samples.

Table 6 reports the estimation results of (5). The statistical fit of the model is $R^2 = 0.87$. Spending on food increases with age class until 64 years. It decreases for the elderly. Spending on food decreases for single men/women and widowers. Moreover, the larger the family, the greater the consumption of food. Clearly, the proxies of income, educational qualification and *newaffitto*, have a significant positive effect on spending. Regarding activity status, the food expenditure of employees is higher than that of the unemployed and inactive people but lower than that of the self-employed.

After the imputation of food expenditure, we deal with non-durable expenditure.³ Once again the imputation is based on a random regression imputation. To predict non-durable expenditure (ND) in the SHIW, the information on household characteristics, income and food expenditure, provided by the HBS sample, is exploited:

$$\ln(\text{ND}) = \beta X + \alpha \ln F + \gamma \ln(\text{newaffitto}) + \epsilon. \quad (7)$$

The results of the regression are displayed in table 7. The R^2 of the model is 0.51. Expenditure is higher in the north of Italy and for women. Relative to young people, the consumption of non-durable goods is greater for middle-aged people. Clearly, non-durable expenditure increases for respondents with higher incomes, better qualifications and larger households. Divorces and widowers tend to spend more for the purchase of non-durable goods than do married persons. As expected, homeowners have higher standard of living and consequently higher non-durable expenditure. The imputed values are computed by following the same steps previously described for the imputation of food expenditure.

4 Results

We estimate household income reported by respondents to be, on average, some 20% lower than the true (unobserved) income (table 8). Incomes from self-employment and from financial assets account for most of the difference between the imputed and reported income. Income from transfers shows the greatest adjustment, but it does not affect the overall average because of its low salience. The household average payroll income is not affected by the imputation.

The adjustment relating to the secondary sources of income increases the overall percentage of recipients by about 5 percentage points (table 9). Income from transfers shows the highest increase (+10 points), while in the other cases the increase ranges from 1.5 to 2.9 points. As to the amounts, the imputation changes the average annual individual income by about 3 percent (table 10). The main change relates to income from transfers.

The average household consumption increases by some 27 percent (table 12). Table 11 reports the distribution of SHIW expenditure on food and non-durable goods before and after the imputation. Overall, the initial distribution of expenditure on food does

³The definition of non-durable spending excludes mortgage and effective and figurative rent payment on main residence and other dwellings, spending life insurance and annuity, costs for maintenance works of dwelling

not seem to be very different from the imputed one. The monthly median is €500 in the initial data and €521 in the imputed ones (+4 per cent). The main differences seems to relate the highest and lowest percentiles. The imputation process has a greater effect on expenditure on non-durables other than food consumption. The estimated median value is €1,085 versus the initial figure of €650 (+65 percent). The changes seem to be larger for the lowest percentiles of the distribution.

Figure 1 shows the age profile for non-durable expenditure in the SHIW before and after the imputation. Basically, even though the predicted profile is decisively above the observed one, consumption trend remains unchanged with a peak at around 50 years. Nevertheless, the growth of the predicted expenditure for households aged between 30 and 40 is lower than the increase in observed spending and the exact peak shifts slightly to the right, to just over age 50.

Since the accuracy of income appears to be higher than that of consumption, the average saving rate is likely to be overestimated in the survey. Indeed, its estimate drops from 26 to 22 percent after taking into account measurement errors. The degree of overestimation varies across different subgroups of the population. A greater number of errors are found for households in which the highest income recipient is a woman, young person, that with a low level of education and households comprising one member.

Moreover, table 13 shows that the saving rate appears to be overestimated in particular for households in the lower classes. The same does not hold for well-off households (say households with an income higher than the 8th decile). Their estimated saving rate does not seem to be overestimated in the survey. This implies that respondents with a low income tend to underreport their consumption more than their income. These results should be interpreted with caution, however. They may depend on the models used in the adjustment process. As a robustness check we compute an alternative set of predicted values for consumption as follows. First, we assume that the variables income $I = \ln(I_1)$ and consumption $C = \ln(C_1)$ follows a bivariate lognormal distribution where I_1 and C_1 are bivariate normal. The mean and the standard deviation of I and C (μ_I , μ_C , σ_I , σ_C) are estimated using the SHIW and the HBS surveys. The correlation coefficient between the two variables ρ_{IC} is estimated using the SHIW. The predicted value of consumption (\hat{C}_{1i}) for household i on a log scale is computed as:

$$\hat{C}_{1i} = \hat{\mu}_{C1} + \hat{\rho}_{IC} \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{C1}}{\hat{\sigma}_{I1}} (\hat{I}_{1i} - \hat{\mu}_{I1}) \quad (8)$$

Then, we back transform by exponentiating \hat{C}_{1i} to get the results into the original scale. We also rescale the values so that $E(\hat{C}_{1i}) = \hat{\mu}_C$. As a result, we get a new set of predicted values \hat{C}_{1i} which have the desirable property of having the same correlation with the predicted values of income as the one estimated in the original data. This approach should therefore minimize the risk of assigning by chance high values of consumption to households with a low income. Finally, we use the new predicted values to estimate the share of households with negative savings. We get results that are fairly consistent with

those presented in table 13.

We also find evidence that measurement errors bias the relationship between household saving and demographic variables. The results in table 14 show that the variable Adj is significantly different from zero. This indicates that the (conditional) average of household saving is different across the two samples. The same holds for the relation between the saving rate and household income class. The main effect of income shows that the higher the income class the higher the saving rate. The interaction terms between Adj and the income class are positive. This means that the association between income and saving is stronger in the imputed data with respect to the original data. A similar consideration applies to the association between the saving rate and geographical area (see the interaction terms between Adj and geographical area).

5 Discussion and conclusions

In this paper we discuss the consequences of asking questions on income and expenditure in the same survey. In particular, we try to assess what consequences a researcher could face, by assuming that the measurements of these two variables have the same accuracy. We use the SHIW survey which collects detailed information on income and some recall questions on total household expenditure.

Our first finding is that the underreporting of household expenditure appears to be higher than that of household income. As a consequence, any survey-based estimate of saving rate is likely to be overestimated. This result goes in the expected direction, as the SHIW is mainly focused on income.

As to the total household expenditure, the main problems don't stem from the measurement of food consumption. We find the distribution of food consumption expenditure to be in line with the one from a survey using the diary method. One main drawback of having a single recall question is that it leads to heaping and rounding. Respondents seem to be good at reporting their spending on food in a typical month, even though they are less likely to report exact amounts.

On the contrary, problems stem from asking a single recall question relating to the bulk of other non-durable expenditure. Even if in the SHIW survey some important items are excluded from the bulk question because they are inquired into separately, the question still seems to be overly general to provide accurate data. Indeed, the concept of non-durable expenditure is too complex to be measured by a single item. It includes a number of components such as clothing and footwear, housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels, health, transport, communication, recreation and culture, education, restaurants and hotels, and so on. Without any specific indication of the items to be included, some respondents do not include some categories in their estimates of totals. The ideal solution would be to include a few questions on the main categories of spending before asking for the total. They could be selected from those that are the most salient items according to the HBS survey. Besides helping respondents, this solution would also enable researchers to make a better matching between the SHIW and HBS surveys.

Another solution could be to list precisely all the main items the respondent should think about in the wording of the question. This solution would offer two main advantages. First, it could help ensure that every respondent answers the same question. Second, it would help the respondent since he/she is likely to think of all the main items and then sum them up before answering. He/she is unlikely to know their total expenditure offhand.

Of course, these speculations would call for some specific controlled experimental study on the effects of using different questions in the quality of expenditure items.

Another finding is that misreporting in income and in consumption seems to have a different association with the reported amounts. The higher the income declared by respondents, the higher the measurement error. For consumption we don't find similar evidence.

We think this may be for at least two reasons. First, consumption is probably a less sensitive topic than income. Wealthy households may be afraid of reporting all their true income, for instance because they think that fiscal authorities may request such information from the Bank of Italy and link it to tax records. For consumption it is less so, since this data is not generally used by fiscal authorities. Second, consumption may be more difficult to hide from an interviewer. The interview takes place in the household's main residence. So interviewers can usually get an idea of the level of total expenditure of the respondent from the items they see in the house. Moreover they are trained to probe in case they feel that replies are clearly not compatible with what they see. Respondents know that and so it could be more difficult for them to underreport household expenditure substantially.

One important consequence of this finding is that household saving rates are likely to be overestimated, especially for low-income households. Since policy analysis usually focuses on poor households, the information from surveys should be interpreted with caution.

Finally, we find evidence that the different level of accuracy of income and consumption items is also likely to bias the relationship between household saving and its correlates. This result suggests that researchers interested in households' saving decisions should tackle measurement issues before jumping to any into economic interpretations.

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5.1 Tables and figures

Table 1: National Accounts and SHIW income and consumption statistics (2008)

| Source of income | NA | SHIW | SHIW/NA |
|---|------------------|---------|---------|
| | Millions of euro | | |
| Payroll income | 350,303 | 311,642 | 89.0% |
| Imputed rents | 71,422 | 151,322 | 211.9% |
| Income from self-employment in units with: | | | |
| - up to 5 employees and actual rents | 162,942 | 86,845 | 53.3% |
| - more than 5 employees | 50,172 | 5,634 | 11.2% |
| Entrepren. income, income from financ. assets | 126,868 | 15,589 | 12.3% |
| Pensions and net transfers | 257,481 | 193,486 | 75.1% |
| Total gross disposable income | 1,077,518 | 767,526 | 71.2% |
| Food consumption | 134,365 | 143,739 | 107.0% |
| Total consumption | 922,979 | 567,232 | 61.46% |
| Saving rate | 14.3% | 26.1% | |

NA statistics exclude non-profit institutions serving households and are net of tax and contributions.

Table 2: Number of workers and jobs: a comparison of micro and macro data (2008)

| Main source of income | Workers by main income source (thousands) | | | | |
|-----------------------|---|--------|---------|---------|------------|
| | NA | SHIW | EU-SILC | SHIW/NA | EU-SILC/NA |
| From employment | 18,885 | 18,722 | 17,767 | 99% | 94% |
| From self-employment | 5,773 | 4,444 | 5,252 | 77% | 91% |
| Total | 24,658 | 23,166 | 23,019 | 94% | 93% |
| | Jobs held (thousands) | | | | |
| | NA | SHIW | EU-SILC | SHIW/NA | EU-SILC/NA |
| Employees | 20,925 | 19,045 | 21,100 | 91% | 101% |
| Self-employed | 8,503 | 4,910 | 6,825 | 58% | 80% |
| Total | 29,428 | 23,955 | 27,925 | 81% | 95% |

Table 3: Logistic model of the probability of belonging to the EU-SILC sample

| Variables | Coeff. | Std. Err. | p-value |
|--|---------------|------------------|----------------|
| Constant | 0.58 | 0.05 | 0.000 |
| Female | 0.00 | 0.02 | 1.000 |
| $35 \leq \text{Age} < 44$ | 0.09 | 0.03 | 0.001 |
| $45 \leq \text{Age} < 54$ | 0.12 | 0.03 | 0.000 |
| $55 \leq \text{Age} < 64$ | 0.10 | 0.03 | 0.002 |
| $\text{Age} \geq 64$ | 0.09 | 0.04 | 0.034 |
| Elementary school | 0.26 | 0.03 | 0.000 |
| Middle school | -0.06 | 0.03 | 0.017 |
| High school | -0.11 | 0.03 | 0.000 |
| University degree | -0.12 | 0.03 | 0.000 |
| Center | 0.00 | 0.02 | 0.939 |
| South and Islands | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.123 |
| Wife of head of household | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.342 |
| Parent of head of household | -0.54 | 0.07 | 0.000 |
| Child of head of household | -0.06 | 0.04 | 0.101 |
| Other | 0.06 | 0.05 | 0.280 |
| Self-employed | -0.08 | 0.03 | 0.005 |
| Unemployed | -0.08 | 0.04 | 0.084 |
| Inactive | -0.08 | 0.02 | 0.000 |
| Unmarried | 0.17 | 0.03 | 0.000 |
| Separated/divorced | -0.05 | 0.04 | 0.241 |
| Widowed | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.515 |
| Couple, both < 65 years | -0.11 | 0.04 | 0.006 |
| Couple, at least one > 65 years | -0.13 | 0.04 | 0.003 |
| Other 2 adults | -0.03 | 0.04 | 0.490 |
| Single parent with dependent children | 0.15 | 0.05 | 0.006 |
| Couple with 1 dependent child | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.303 |
| Couple with 2 dependent children | 0.00 | 0.04 | 0.953 |
| Couple with 3 or more dependent children | -0.18 | 0.05 | 0.000 |
| Other households with dependent children | -0.04 | 0.04 | 0.271 |
| Other households | -0.01 | 0.04 | 0.751 |
| Tenant/subtenant | -0.06 | 0.02 | 0.002 |
| Other | 0.10 | 0.02 | 0.000 |

Table 4: Logistic model of the probability of belonging to the HBS sample

| Variables | Coeff. | Std. Err. | p-value |
|--------------------------------|---------------|------------------|----------------|
| Constant | 1.55 | 0.09 | 0.000 |
| Female | -0.33 | 0.03 | 0.000 |
| 35≤Age<44 | 0.02 | 0.05 | 0.665 |
| 45≤Age<54 | 0.10 | 0.05 | 0.047 |
| 55≤Age<64 | 0.12 | 0.05 | 0.026 |
| Age≥64 | 0.14 | 0.06 | 0.017 |
| Elementary school | 0.00 | 0.05 | 0.940 |
| Middle school | -0.27 | 0.05 | 0.000 |
| High school | -0.34 | 0.05 | 0.000 |
| University degree | -0.37 | 0.06 | 0.000 |
| Centre | -0.06 | 0.03 | 0.062 |
| South and Islands | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.380 |
| Self-employed | -0.16 | 0.04 | 0.000 |
| Unemployed | -0.14 | 0.07 | 0.040 |
| Inactive | -0.22 | 0.04 | 0.000 |
| Unmarried | -0.13 | 0.05 | 0.004 |
| Separated/divorced | -0.56 | 0.06 | 0.000 |
| Widowed | -0.33 | 0.05 | 0.000 |
| Couple | -0.67 | 0.04 | 0.000 |
| Couple with 1 child | -0.46 | 0.05 | 0.000 |
| Couple with 2 children | -0.49 | 0.05 | 0.000 |
| Couple with 3 or more children | -0.60 | 0.07 | 0.000 |
| Single parent with children | 0.70 | 0.06 | 0.000 |
| Other households | -0.44 | 0.05 | 0.000 |
| Tenant/subtenant | -0.20 | 0.03 | 0.000 |
| Other | -0.16 | 0.04 | 0.000 |

Table 5: Descriptive statistics for *newaffitto*,(€)

| Descriptive statistic | SHIW | | HBS | |
|------------------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| | <i>newaffitto</i> | $\ln(\textit{newaffitto})$ | <i>newaffitto</i> | $\ln(\textit{newaffitto})$ |
| Mean | 571 | 6.13 | 537 | 6.13 |
| 5% | 150 | 5.01 | 150 | 5.01 |
| 25% | 300 | 5.70 | 315 | 5.75 |
| 50% | 500 | 6.21 | 500 | 6.21 |
| 75% | 700 | 6.55 | 700 | 6.55 |
| 95% | 1,300 | 7.17 | 1,000 | 6.91 |
| Std. Dev. | 420 | 0.68 | 288 | 0.60 |

Table 6: Log food expenditure estimates using HBS data

| Variables | Coeff. | Std. Err. | p-value |
|--------------------------------|---------------|------------------|----------------|
| Constant | 4.77 | 0.02 | 0.000 |
| $35 \leq \text{Age} < 44$ | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.417 |
| $45 \leq \text{Age} < 54$ | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.137 |
| $55 \leq \text{Age} < 64$ | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.006 |
| $\text{Age} \geq 64$ | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.894 |
| Unmarried | -0.01 | 0.01 | 0.071 |
| Separated/divorced | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.355 |
| Widowed | -0.02 | 0.01 | 0.036 |
| Elementary school | 0.03 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| Middle school | 0.04 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| High school | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| University degree | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| Self-employed | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.148 |
| Unemployed | -0.05 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| Inactive | -0.01 | 0.01 | 0.167 |
| Couple | 0.06 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| Couple with 1 child | 0.08 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| Couple with 2 children | 0.09 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| Couple with 3 or more children | 0.11 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| Single parent with children | 0.06 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| Other households | 0.08 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| $200 < \text{FC} \leq 500$ | 0.90 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| $500 < \text{FC} \leq 900$ | 1.52 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| $\text{FC} > 900$ | 2.09 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| $\ln(\text{newaffitto})$ | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.000 |
| Sample size | 22,379 | | |
| R^2 | 0.8716 | | |
| Adjusted R^2 | 0.8714 | | |

Table 7: Log non-durable expenditure estimates using HBS data

| Variables | Coeff. | Std. Err. | p-value |
|--------------------------------|---------------|------------------|----------------|
| Constant | 2.13 | 0.07 | 0.000 |
| Centre | -0.17 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| South and Islands | -0.30 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| Male | -0.01 | 0.01 | 0.227 |
| 35≤Age<44 | -0.02 | 0.02 | 0.172 |
| 45≤Age<54 | 0.01 | 0.02 | 0.492 |
| 55≤Age<64 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.011 |
| Age≥64 | -0.08 | 0.02 | 0.000 |
| Elementary school | 0.12 | 0.02 | 0.000 |
| Middle school | 0.23 | 0.02 | 0.000 |
| High school | 0.40 | 0.02 | 0.000 |
| University degree | 0.56 | 0.02 | 0.000 |
| Self-employed | 0.06 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| Unemployed | -0.12 | 0.03 | 0.000 |
| Inactive | -0.07 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| Unmarried | -0.01 | 0.02 | 0.694 |
| Separated/divorced | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.013 |
| Widowed | 0.01 | 0.02 | 0.615 |
| Couple | 0.26 | 0.02 | 0.000 |
| Couple with 1 child | 0.37 | 0.02 | 0.000 |
| Couple with 2 children | 0.38 | 0.02 | 0.000 |
| Couple with 3 or more children | 0.43 | 0.03 | 0.000 |
| Single parent with children | 0.29 | 0.02 | 0.000 |
| Other households | 0.29 | 0.02 | 0.000 |
| Tenant/subtenant | -0.20 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| Other | -0.02 | 0.01 | 0.155 |
| ln(F) | 0.58 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| ln(newaffitto) | 0.12 | 0.01 | 0.000 |
| Sample size | 22379 | | |
| R^2 | 0,5149 | | |
| Adjusted R^2 | 0,5144 | | |

Table 8: Effects of the adjustment process on the average household income components (€, percentages)

| Source of income | SHIW before the imputation | SHIW after the imputation | Diff. | Contribution % | Var. % |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------|---------------------------|---------------|
| Payroll income | 13,052 | 13,029 | -24 | -0.4 | -0.2 |
| Income from self-employment | 4,187 | 7,173 | 2,985 | 45.7 | 71.3 |
| Income from pension | 7,985 | 8,777 | 792 | 12.1 | 9.9 |
| Income from transfers | 80 | 504 | 424 | 6.5 | 529.6 |
| Income from financial assets | 6,842 | 9,190 | 2,348 | 36.0 | 34.3 |
| Total income | 32,146 | 38,672 | 6,526 | 100.0 | 20.3 |

Table 9: Percentage of income earners in SHIW before and after the imputation

| Source of income | SHIW before the imputation | SHIW after the imputation |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Employment | 31.87% | 33.14% |
| Self-employment | 8.22% | 12.71% |
| Retirement | 25.44% | 26.83% |
| Transfers | 5.26% | 15.77% |
| Total income earners | 65.54% | 70.13% |

Table 10: Per capita average annual income of earners in the SHIW before and after the imputation (€)

| Source of income | SHIW before the imputation | SHIW after the imputation |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Employment | 16,373 | 15,520 |
| Self-employment | 20,373 | 18,477 |
| Retirement | 12,547 | 13,000 |
| Transfers | 608 | 1,283 |
| Total income | 15,434 | 15,947 |

Table 11: Descriptive statistics for monthly expenditure on food and non-durable goods (€)

| Statistics | HBS | | SHIW before the imputation | | SHIW after the imputation | |
|------------|-------|-------------|-------------------------------|-------------|------------------------------|-------------|
| | Food | Non-durable | Food | Non-durable | Food | Non-durable |
| Mean | 578 | 1,156 | 512 | 757 | 578 | 1,156 |
| 5% | 156 | 189 | 200 | 200 | 263 | 471 |
| 25% | 325 | 504 | 300 | 400 | 382 | 793 |
| 50% | 502 | 890 | 500 | 650 | 521 | 1,085 |
| 75% | 747 | 1,496 | 600 | 1000 | 708 | 1,440 |
| 95% | 1,248 | 3,019 | 1,000 | 1,700 | 1,205 | 2,109 |
| Std. Dev. | 359 | 977 | 268 | 521 | 258 | 503 |

Figure 1: Age profile for non-durable expenditure

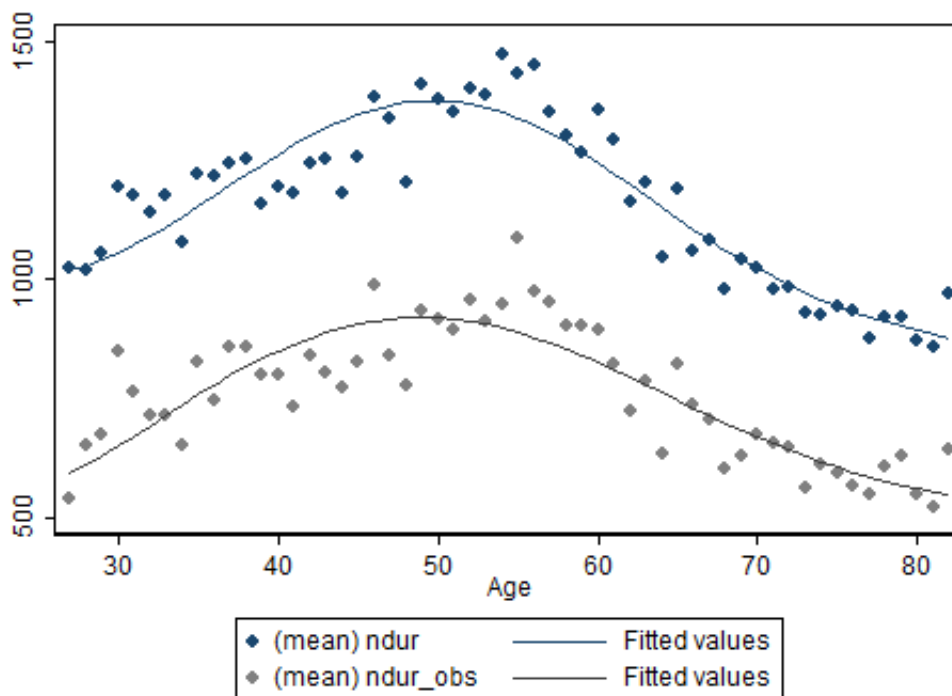


Table 12: Household income, consumption and saving rate, (€, percentages)

| | SHIW before the imputation | | | SHIW after the imputation | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------|-------------|------------------------------|---------------|-------------|
| | Income | Cons. | Saving rate | Income | Cons. | Saving rate |
| Sex | | | | | | |
| Male | 35,132 | 25,483 | 27.5 | 42,423 | 32,034 | 24.5 |
| Female | 25,477 | 19,903 | 21.9 | 29,895 | 25,779 | 13.8 |
| Age | | | | | | |
| ≥34 | 28,722 | 22,136 | 22.9 | 33,458 | 28,505 | 14.8 |
| 35-44 | 31,472 | 24,787 | 21.2 | 36,467 | 30,818 | 15.5 |
| 45-54 | 38,881 | 27,697 | 28.8 | 46,132 | 34,326 | 25.6 |
| 55-64 | 38,929 | 27,047 | 30.5 | 47,612 | 33,908 | 28.8 |
| ≥64 | 26,580 | 19,659 | 26.0 | 33,479 | 26,091 | 22.1 |
| Educational qualification | | | | | | |
| None | 14,688 | 12,078 | 17.8 | 16,935 | 16,310 | 3.7 |
| Elementary school | 21,200 | 16,915 | 20.2 | 26,144 | 21,689 | 17.0 |
| Middle school | 29,393 | 22,585 | 23.2 | 34,064 | 27,730 | 18.6 |
| High school | 38,108 | 27,821 | 27.0 | 42,202 | 32,964 | 21.9 |
| University degree | 55,451 | 35,991 | 35.1 | 62,091 | 42,907 | 30.9 |
| Activity status | | | | | | |
| Employed | 33,278 | 25,327 | 23.9 | 37,331 | 31,333 | 16.1 |
| Self-employed | 46,939 | 30,319 | 35.4 | 58,036 | 36,813 | 36.6 |
| Unemployed | 10,163 | 14,260 | 40.3 | 14,881 | 21,449 | 44.1 |
| Inactive | 26,789 | 20,085 | 25.0 | 33,015 | 26,430 | 19.9 |
| Number of components | | | | | | |
| 1 component | 19,528 | 16,410 | 16.0 | 22,865 | 21,996 | 3.8 |
| 2 components | 32,013 | 23,083 | 27.9 | 38,689 | 29,422 | 24.0 |
| 3 components | 39,747 | 27,839 | 30.0 | 46,716 | 34,647 | 25.8 |
| 4 components | 40,662 | 29,488 | 27.5 | 48,365 | 35,843 | 25.9 |
| 5 or more components | 37,212 | 28,379 | 23.7 | 49,752 | 36,450 | 26.7 |
| Size of municipality | | | | | | |
| Up to 20,000 inhabitants | 30,942 | 22,619 | 26.9 | 37,196 | 29,077 | 21.8 |
| from 20,000 to 40,000 inhabitants | 30,600 | 22,852 | 25.3 | 36,529 | 28,956 | 20.7 |
| from 40,000 to 500,000 inhabitants | 31,651 | 23,611 | 25.4 | 38,338 | 29,642 | 22.7 |
| Over 500,000 inhabitants | 39,279 | 29,197 | 25.7 | 46,640 | 36,184 | 22.4 |
| Geographical area | | | | | | |
| North | 36,321 | 25,940 | 28.6 | 42,150 | 32,942 | 21.8 |
| Center | 34,345 | 25,853 | 24.7 | 41,728 | 31,949 | 23.4 |
| South and Islands | 24,122 | 18,916 | 21.6 | 30,722 | 24,277 | 21.0 |
| Total | 32,146 | 23,757 | 26.1 | 38,672 | 30,162 | 22.0 |

Table 13: Household saving rate by income percentile, (€, percentages)

| | SHIW before the imputation | | | SHIW after the imputation | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------|-------------|--------------------------------------|--------|-------------|
| | Income | Cons. | Saving rate | Income | Cons. | Saving rate |
| Percentile of income | | | | | | |
| <10 | 8,187 | 10,536 | -28.7 | 9,181 | 16,730 | -82.2 |
| 10-19.9 | 13,435 | 13,750 | -2.3 | 15,119 | 19,471 | -28.8 |
| 20-29.9 | 17,176 | 16,719 | 2.7 | 19,622 | 22,032 | -12.3 |
| 30-39.9 | 20,595 | 17,967 | 12.8 | 24,217 | 24,680 | -1.9 |
| 40-49.9 | 24,296 | 20,493 | 15.7 | 28,631 | 27,544 | 3.8 |
| 50-59.9 | 28,366 | 23,461 | 17.3 | 34,055 | 29,285 | 14.0 |
| 60-69.9 | 33,698 | 25,268 | 25.0 | 40,021 | 32,501 | 18.8 |
| 70-79.9 | 40,499 | 29,137 | 28.1 | 47,781 | 35,847 | 25.0 |
| 80-89.9 | 50,436 | 34,077 | 32.4 | 60,515 | 41,455 | 31.5 |
| 90-100 | 84,887 | 46,213 | 45.6 | 107,651 | 52,107 | 51.6 |

Table 14: Ordinal logit model for the household saving class

| Variables | | Coeff. | Std.Err. | p-value |
|--|--------------------------|--------|----------|---------|
| Quintiles of household income: | 2nd quintile | 1,25 | 0,070 | 0,000 |
| Base 1st quintile | 3rd quintile | 2,08 | 0,075 | 0,000 |
| | 4th quintile | 3,14 | 0,083 | 0,000 |
| | 5th quintile | 4,34 | 0,093 | 0,000 |
| Age: Base < 34 | 35-44 | -0,22 | 0,057 | 0,000 |
| | 45-54 | -0,16 | 0,059 | 0,006 |
| | 55-64 | -0,17 | 0,068 | 0,013 |
| | Over 64 | 0,03 | 0,082 | 0,733 |
| Educational qualification: | Elementary school | -0,28 | 0,105 | 0,008 |
| Base none | Middle school | -0,63 | 0,110 | 0,000 |
| | High school | -0,85 | 0,112 | 0,000 |
| | University degree | -0,85 | 0,127 | 0,000 |
| Activity status: | Self-employed | 0,22 | 0,049 | 0,000 |
| Base employed | Unemployed | -0,28 | 0,169 | 0,096 |
| | Inactive | -0,08 | 0,065 | 0,217 |
| Number of components: | 2 components | -0,39 | 0,047 | 0,000 |
| Base 1 component | 3 components | -0,65 | 0,056 | 0,000 |
| | 4 components | -0,92 | 0,061 | 0,000 |
| | 5 or more components | -1,05 | 0,080 | 0,000 |
| | Female | 0,07 | 0,038 | 0,053 |
| Size of municipality: | 20,000-40,0000 | -0,04 | 0,047 | 0,362 |
| Base up to 20,000 | 40,000-50,0000 | -0,13 | 0,038 | 0,001 |
| | Over 50,0000 inhabitants | -0,60 | 0,052 | 0,000 |
| Geographical area: | Center | -0,19 | 0,055 | 0,000 |
| Base north | South and Islands | 0,40 | 0,052 | 0,000 |
| Adj | | -1,87 | 0,171 | 0,000 |
| Interaction Adj-income class | Int12 | 0,19 | 0,111 | 0,093 |
| | Int13 | 0,73 | 0,113 | 0,000 |
| | Int14 | 1,09 | 0,116 | 0,000 |
| | Int15 | 1,81 | 0,122 | 0,000 |
| Interaction Adj-geographical area | Int12 | 0,39 | 0,080 | 0,000 |
| | Int13 | 0,61 | 0,075 | 0,000 |
| Sample size | 15954 | | | |
| Pseudo R^2 | 0,196 | | | |

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