ARC Centre of Excellence in Population Ageing Research

Working Paper 2022/09

Return-to-Work Policies’ Clawback Regime and Labor Supply in Disability Insurance Programs

Arezou Zaresani and Miguel Olivo-Villabrille

This paper can be downloaded without charge from the ARC Centre of Excellence in Population Ageing Research Working Paper Series available at www.cepar.edu.au
Return-to-Work Policies’ Clawback Regime and Labor Supply in Disability Insurance Programs*

Arezou Zaresani†  Miguel Olivo-Villabrille‡

May 2022

Abstract

Exploiting a quasi-natural experiment and using administrative data, we examine the effects of the return-to-work policies’ clawback regime in Disability Insurance (DI) programs on beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions, allowing them to collect reduced DI payments while working. We compare two return-to-work policies: one with a single rate clawback regime and another featuring a more generous clawback regime, where a reform further increased its generosity. The reform caused an increase in the mean labor supply: beneficiaries who already work, work more, and those who did not work started working. The effects are heterogeneous by beneficiaries’ characteristics, and the increase is driven mainly by top percentiles of earnings. Findings suggest an essential role for the clawback regime in return-to-work policies and targeted policies to increase the labor supply in DI programs.

JEL classification: D3; H3; I3; J3.

Keywords: disability insurance; clawback rate; return-to-work policy, financial incentives; labor supply.

*We are grateful to Pamela Campa, Herb Emery, Arvind Magesan, and Stefan Staubli for their wisdom and guidance throughout this project. We thank Robert Breunig, Patrick Button, Kenneth James McKenize, Timothy J. Moore, Luigi Pistaferri, Joanne Roberts, Mehdi Shadmehr, Jeffrey Smith, Trevor Tombe, Jean-François Wen, and Alexander Whalley for their helpful comments and advice. We have benefited from discussion with the seminar participants at the Canadian Health Economics Study Group (CHESG 2021), European Society for Population Economics, European Association of Labour Economics (EALE 2021), Asian and Australasian Society of Labour Economics (AASLE 2021), National Bureau of Economic Research Summer Institute (NBER SI 2019), Society of Labor Economist (SOLE 2018), American Economic Association (AEA 2018), Labor Economics Workshop (LEW 2018), IZA labor summer school (2017), Empirical Microeconomics Workshop (Banff 2016), Canadian Public Economics Group (CPPEG 2016), Canadian Economics Association (CEA 2016) and International Health Economics Association (HEA 2015), University of Calgary, University of Melbourne, University of Monash, Wellington University of Victoria. We acknowledge the excellent research assistantship by Farouk Awal. We thank Margherita Fort, the Guest Editor of the Labour Economics journal, and three anonymous referees for their great comments and feedback. This study uses data from Alberta Human Services and Statistics Canada. It is conducted at the University of Calgary Research Data Center, part of the Canadian Research Data Centre Network (CRDCN). We thank Cheryl Radina and Angela Forman from Alberta Human Services and Charlie Victorino and Stephanie Cantlay from Statistics Canada for their help accessing the data sources. This research is supported by grants from the University of Calgary, the University of Melbourne, and the University of Manitoba. The services and activities provided by the CRDCN are made possible by the financial or in-kind support of the SSHRC, the CIHR, the CFI, Statistics Canada, and participating universities, whose support is gratefully acknowledged. The interpretation and conclusions contained herein are ours and do not necessarily represent the Government of Alberta, Ontario, or Statistics Canada. All the results are reviewed to ensure that no confidential information is disclosed.

†Corresponding author: The University of Sydney, IZA and Tax and Transfer Policy Institute (TTPI) at the Australian National University (ANU), Email: Arezou.Zaresani@anu.edu.au.

‡CEPAR – UNSW Sydney and TTPI – ANU. Email: m.olivo@unsw.edu.au.
1 Introduction

Return-to-work policies in Disability Insurance (DI) programs allow beneficiaries to work and collect reduced DI payments under a clawback regime characterized by earnings thresholds, marginal clawback rates, and DI payments. These policies intend to provide financial incentives to beneficiaries to return to the labor force and potentially improve their economic well-being, ensure their broader integration into society, and decrease costs. Previous studies have examined the effects of return-to-work policies on beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions from the introduction of return-to-work policies, changes in the DI payments, eligibility, and screening process. The findings from those studies are mixed.¹ There is incipient work on explaining these mixed findings by considering adjustment costs in beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions (Zaresani, 2020). The increase in work incentives induced by a policy change must be large enough to offset the adjustment cost if the goal is to increase the labor supply of the DI beneficiaries. The evidence on the effects of clawback regimes that influence the size of the induced financial incentives, probably due to the lack of such policy variations, is scarce, and it could be another explanation for the mixed findings. Results in this area would be important for understanding labor supply policies’ ramifications and better design of DI policies.

We examine the effects of return-to-work policies’ clawback regimes on DI beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions. Specifically, we compare return-to-work policies in two Canadian provincial DI programs with similar screening, eligibility criteria, and benefits but different clawback regimes. One is Alberta’s ”Assured Income for the Severely Handicapped” (hereafter AISH) program, with a generous clawback regime featuring an earnings exemption threshold,² wherein monthly DI payments gradually get reduced as earnings increase. A reform in April 2012 further increased its generosity, allowing the beneficiaries to work more while collecting a larger portion of their DI payments. The

¹Some studies find positive effects of return-to-work policies on labor supply (e.g., Ruh and Staubli, 2019; Zaresani, 2018; Vall Castelló, 2017; Kostol and Mogstad, 2014; Campolieti and Riddell, 2012). However, some other studies find negative effects (e.g., Gelber et al., 2017; Maestas et al., 2013; Marie and Vall Castello, 2012). Yet, another group of studies finds neutral effects (e.g., Büttler et al., 2015).

²The earnings exemption threshold in the Canadian DI program is comparable to the Substantive Gainful Activity (GSA) in the US system. Earnings below the threshold do not affect DI payments.
second program is the "Ontario Disability Support Program" (hereafter ODSP), with a single rate clawback regime. We estimate the causal effects of AISH’s clawback regime change on beneficiaries’ earnings and labor force participation decisions in a Difference-in-Differences (DD) framework using ODSP as a control group.\textsuperscript{3} We also provide suggestive evidence on the relative magnitude of the substitution versus income effects of the reform. To gain further insight into the effects of the reform apart from average effects, we employ a quantile DD framework. Finally, we estimate the elasticity of earnings in the exempted range with respect to a generosity measure of the clawback regime.

We use individual-level longitudinal administrative data on monthly earnings of AISH and ODSP beneficiaries spanning one year and a half of pre- and two years of post-reform obtained from the Alberta and Ontario governments. Observing monthly earnings is essential since the earnings thresholds are monthly based. The data also has information on beneficiaries’ characteristics, including gender, age, family structure, type of disability, and location of residence.

Our analysis provides three main conclusions. First, a more generous clawback regime causes an increase in the mean labor supply along with both the intensive and the extensive margins. The DD model’s estimated effects, controlling for individual fixed effects, are an 11.91% increase in the average inflation-adjusted monthly earnings and a modest 0.78% point increase in the labor force participation rate.\textsuperscript{4}

Second, the estimates are heterogeneous by beneficiaries’ family structure, age, gender, type of disability, and location of residence. The estimates are larger for men, younger beneficiaries, those with dependents, those with psychotic disabilities, and beneficiaries

\textsuperscript{3}Zaresani (2018) explores the AISH reform (the exact policy change as in our paper) to estimate the effects of the generosity of DI benefits on beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions using a Regression Discontinuity Design (RDD), exploring the discontinuous change in the generosity of the AISH’s return-to-work policy at the month of the policy change. We are interested in investigating the effects of different clawback regimes of DI programs on beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions. A DD design, in contrast to a RDD, fits our purpose better by allowing us to compare two DI programs in AISH and ODSP. We chose ODSP as our control group for a few reasons. First, we were able to obtain administrative data on DI beneficiaries from the government of Ontario. Second, Ontario’s DI program (eligibility criteria and benefit levels) is more similar to Alberta’s among the other provinces (also see Appendix A.2). Third, Ontario’s program did not have major reforms during our study period.

\textsuperscript{4}Most of the effect in our study comes from an increase in intensive margins, unlike Ruh and Staubli (2019) in the Austrian DI program where the reform affects the labor supply decisions mostly in extensive margins. The reason is that the exemption threshold in AISH creates a kink, as opposed to a notch in the Austrian context.
who reside in metropolitan areas. Suggestive evidence shows that the income effects of the reform are negligible and that a more generous clawback regime affects work incentives. The quantile DD estimates show that the higher percentiles of the earnings are the drivers of the increase in mean earnings. Findings suggest that targeted policies may work better to encourage DI beneficiaries to return to work.

Third, an increase in the generosity of a clawback regime decreases the portion of the beneficiaries with earnings in the exempted range. The estimated elasticities suggest that a 10% increase in generosity decreases the portion of beneficiaries with earnings in the exempted range by 11.4% and 3.3% for the beneficiaries without and with dependents, respectively.5

Our findings provide evidence on the labor supply responses to different clawback regimes of return-to-work policies in DI programs, an important policy domain. While the return-to-work policies aim to get DI beneficiaries into the labor force by providing financial incentives, empirical findings on the effectiveness of such policies are mixed. Hoynes and Moffitt (1999), Benitez-Silva et al. (2011), Weathers II and Hemmeter (2011) and Bütler et al. (2015) find no effects from financial incentives to work in the US and Switzerland, and Ruh and Staubli (2019) find earnings thresholds provide work disincentives in an Austrian DI program. Meanwhile Zaresani (2018), Kostol and Mogstad (2014) and Campolieti and Riddell (2012) find positive responses respectively in Norway and Canada. Gelber et al. (2017); Maestas et al. (2013); Marie and Vall Castello (2012); Lemieux and Milligan (2008); Fortin et al. (2004); Campolieti (2004) and Gruber (2000) find that providing more generous benefits has negative effects on labor supply in social assistance programs in Canada, the US, and Spain. Garcia Mandico et al. (2020); Borghans et al. (2014) and Staubli (2011) examine the effects of terminating benefits and stricter eligibility criteria in DI programs in the Netherlands and Austria. They find that individuals substitute DI benefits by collecting more from other social assistance programs. Beyond a change in financial incentives, medical reassessment of DI recipients and trial work periods in the US do not affect the labor supply (Autor and Duggan, 2006).

5The exemption threshold is higher for AISH beneficiaries with dependents than those without dependents.
Moore (2015) finds that losing benefits due to the removal of drug and alcohol addictions as qualifying conditions for DI benefits increases labor supply. We contribute to this literature by examining the impacts of financial incentives induced by the return-to-work policies’ clawback regime on labor supply decisions.

2 Institutional background and data

2.1 DI programs

DI programs are among the largest social insurance programs in advanced countries. OECD countries, on average, spend more than 2.5% of their GDP on these programs (OECD, 2010). These programs provide benefits to compensate individuals for lost employment earnings due to health conditions that limit the amount or type of paid work they can perform. These programs have been criticized for their high cost and providing work disincentives to the beneficiaries.

Many countries are considering or have recently implemented return-to-work policies in their DI programs to encourage beneficiaries to work.6 Return-to-work policies provide work incentives to the beneficiaries by allowing them to work and collect reduced DI payments. For instance, as part of the Ticket to Work and Work Incentives Improvement Act of 1999 in the US, the Social Security Disability Insurance (SSDI) program underwent a Benefit Offset National Demonstration (BOND). BOND consists of a random assignment test of a $1 for $2 offset applied to annual earnings above the SSDI’s Substantial Gainful Activity (SGA) threshold. BOND allows the beneficiaries in the treatment group to retain some of their monthly cash benefits while earning more than the SGA, whereas entirely suppressing those benefits for the control group. Various evaluations find no confirmatory evidence of an impact of BOND on average earnings (SSA, 2018; Weathers II and Hemmeter, 2011; Wittenburg et al., 2015).

6The UK, Norway, and Switzerland are among the countries that recently implemented policies in their DI programs to increase the beneficiaries’ labor supply. The UK’s program allows beneficiaries to keep half of their benefits for up to a year if they work. In Norway’s program, benefits are reduced by $0.6 for every $1 earned above an exemption threshold (Kostol and Mogstad, 2014). Switzerland tested a program that offered a conditional cash payment if DI recipients started to work or increased their earnings (Bütler et al., 2015).
2.2 DI programs in Canada

Canada features DI programs at both the federal and provincial levels. The federal DI program in Canada provides benefits to individuals with medically verifiable physical or non-physical disabilities that limit the amount of paid work they can perform. This federal program provides short-term benefits to participants, while the eligibility criteria are based on individuals’ employment history. This program aims to enable benefit recipients (and their dependents) to live independently in their communities as much as possible. However, most individuals with lifelong and severe disabilities would not be eligible for the federal program –due to a lack of employment history– and need for long-term assistance. The provincial DI programs complement the federal program by providing long-term benefits to those not eligible for the federal program or those needing more assistance. Each province operates its DI program under different ministries, but they feature comparable eligibility criteria and benefits. However, the specifics of the programs vary across Canadian provinces. For more details on Canadian federal and provincial DI programs, see Appendix A.

2.3 Alberta and Ontario provincial DI programs

The ”Assured Income for the Severely Handicapped” (AISH) is Alberta’s provincial DI program. AISH is a means-tested program where eligible individuals are entitled to a predetermined amount of assistance. The eligibility to enter the program is determined by the applicant’s disability, age, income, and assets. Eligible individuals must be permanently disabled in that there is no curative therapy to materially improve their condition (SASR, 2010). They must also be 18–65 years old, live in the province, and be Canadian citizens or permanent residents.\footnote{Beneficiaries older than 65 years are eligible to receive the guaranteed income support or the old age security pension, which both are federal programs.} An eligible benefit recipient’s and their partner’s total assets –excluding their primary residence and means of transportation– cannot be worth more than C$100,000. A social worker makes the final decision on an application file after receiving all the relevant medical reports from a qualified health professional.
In 2012, entitled individuals received monthly DI payments of C$1,188 – in addition to supplemental assistance, such as health benefits and subsidized transport.

The "Ontario Disability Support Program" (ODSP) is the provincial DI program in Ontario. The eligibility criteria and the determination process are similar to Alberta’s AISH. Beneficiaries receive monthly DI payments and similar supplementary assistance. Individual circumstances, including the number and age of dependants, and geographic location, determine the monthly DI payments in the range of C$1,086 to C$1,999 during our study period of 2010-2014.8

Once an individual enters the AISH or the ODSP, there are three main pathways out of the programs. First, a benefit recipient may die. Second, they may no longer be eligible to receive the benefits. For example, a benefit recipient may reach the retirement age of 65 and be eligible to receive the federal guaranteed income support or the old age security pension. Third, a benefit recipient may no longer meet the medical or income and asset criteria for receiving the benefits. However, eligibility-based exits account for a tiny fraction of the exits from both programs.

2.4 AISH’s return-to-work policy

AISH has a return-to-work policy that allows beneficiaries to work while collecting reduced DI payments under a clawback regime characterized by earnings thresholds, marginal clawback rates, and DI payments. AISH’s clawback regime features an increase in the marginal clawback rate as earnings increase. It has an exemption threshold below which earnings are exempted from the clawback and do not affect DI payments (a 0% marginal clawback rate), but the DI payments are gradually reduced for earnings accumulated above the exemption threshold. Figure 1 plots the budget constraints of beneficiaries. The horizontal axis denotes the monthly employment earnings, and the vertical axis denotes the total monthly disposable income, the added earnings, and net DI payments.9

---

8The ODSP’s DI payments range from C$1,341 to C$1,739, as of August 2020. For more details see Section 30.(1) in https://www.ontario.ca/laws/regulation/980222#BK34.

9We abstract from income taxes in our study, but DI beneficiaries’ earnings are subject to federal and provincial income taxes. However, most DI beneficiaries’ annual earnings fall into the lowest income tax bracket. Alberta’s lowest income tax bracket in the 2012-2013 financial year is C$43,561, with a combined federal and provincial tax rate of 25%. The corresponding bracket and rate in Ontario are C$39,723 and
The exemption thresholds are C$400 and C$975 for beneficiaries without and with dependents, respectively. The DI payments are reduced by C$1 for every C$2 of earnings accumulated between the exemption threshold and the second threshold, which is C$1,500 and C$2,500 for beneficiaries without and with dependents, respectively (50% marginal clawback rate). The DI payments are reduced by C$1 for every C$1 of earnings accumulated above the second threshold (100% marginal clawback rate).

We combine the features of a clawback regime—earnings thresholds, marginal clawback rates, and DI payments—to define the Payment Reduction Rate (PRR) as a measure of the generosity of a regime. The PRR for earnings $z$ denotes the portion of DI payments reduced if a beneficiary earns $z$. Abstracting from the income taxes for simplicity, the PRR for earnings $z$ is defined as below:

$$PRR^z = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } z \leq \text{exemption threshold} \\ 1 - \frac{I^z - I^0}{z} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(1)

where $I^0$ and $I^z$ denote the average disposable income of beneficiaries with earnings below the exemption threshold and those with earning $z$ above the threshold. Disposable income is defined as earnings and net DI payments added together.

A clawback regime with a lower PRR—wherein the marginal clawback rate increases as earnings rise—provides financial incentives to the beneficiaries to work by gradually reducing the DI payments and allowing them to work more. Comparing two clawback regimes, a more generous one has a lower PRR for all earnings levels.

25.05%. For more information see: https://www.taxtips.ca/priortaxrates/tax-rates-2012-2013.htm.

10 The second threshold increased to C$1,500 from C$1,000 for the beneficiaries with dependents and to C$2,500 from C$2,000 for the beneficiaries with dependents in July 2008.

11 Kostol and Mogstad (2014) use a similar formula for the participation tax rate to estimate the elasticity of labor force non-participation with respect to participation tax rate from work incentives induced by a policy change in a Norwegian DI program where the marginal taxes on earnings above a threshold is decreased.
2.4.1 Change in AISH’s return-to-work policy and the expected effects

After Alberta’s 2012 provincial election, the new premier changed the ministry responsible for administering AISH and, as part of a campaign promise, increased the generosity of the clawback regime in April 2012. First, the monthly exemption threshold was doubled. It was increased to C$800 from C$400 for beneficiaries with no dependents and to C$1,950 from C$975 for those with dependents (see Figure 1). Second, the monthly DI payments were increased by 35%. It was increased by C$400 to C$1,588 from C$1,188 for all the beneficiaries. This reform increases the financial incentives to work by allowing beneficiaries to collect more DI payments while working and earning more.

Figure 2 plots the PRR for each earnings level before and after the reform. PRR is zero for the earnings below the exemption threshold, and it increases gradually for the higher earnings. The reform decreases the PRR for all earnings levels, where the largest decrease is right above the former exemption threshold, where the PRR goes down to 0 from 50%.

Expected effects of the reform  In a static labor supply model, beneficiaries choose their hours of work at a given offered wage, which we assume is constant.\footnote{As a justification for this assumption, we note that the education level of most of the provincial DI beneficiaries is less than high school, and most of the beneficiaries who work do so in low skilled, minimum wage jobs (Kneebone and Grynishak, 2011). The minimum hourly wages in 2012 were C$9.75 and C$10.25 in Alberta and Ontario, respectively.} Let us also assume that leisure and income are normal goods. Consider a beneficiary who, before the reform, locates at points on the budget segment $ab$ in Figure 1. Depending on their preferences, the increase in the monthly DI payments and the increase in the exemption threshold could lead to one of three responses. First, they might exit the labor force, move to point $A$, and collect the new higher DI payments. Second, they might increase their earnings and move to a point on the $AB$ segment. Third, they may not change their earnings and locate at the same earnings level but on the new budget constraint. In any case, the disposable income rises, and the decision would inform about the size of the income versus the substitution effects of the reform. A decision not to change or increase the labor supply would suggest that the income effects are negligible, and the substitution
effects, which provide work incentives, are the dominant effects of the reform.

Consider next a beneficiary who, before the reform, locates at a point on the budget segment \(bc\) but to the left of C$800. They may move to \(B\) or some point at the budget segment \(BC\) post-reform. The DI payments are gradually reduced while disposable income increases. For beneficiaries who before the reform locate on the segment \(bc\) but to the right of C$800, or those located at points on the budget segment \(cd\), the reform could lead to either of these two responses, depending on their preferences. First, if the disutility of working is sufficiently high, they might reduce their earnings. Second, they might not change their earnings, suggesting that the reform’s income effects are negligible.

The overall impact of the AISH’s reform on the labor supply decisions of beneficiaries is theoretically ambiguous. Nevertheless, this simple static model makes two predictions. First, beneficiaries with earnings around the exemption threshold might increase their earnings (and labor supply) with a more generous clawback regime. Second, the portion of beneficiaries with earnings in the exempted range might decrease with a more generous clawback regime. We will empirically investigate these predictions by analyzing the distributional effects of the reform in Section 5 and estimating the elasticity of the portion of beneficiaries with earnings in the exempted range with respect to PRR of the clawback regime in Section 6.

2.5 ODSP’s return-to-work policy

The ODSP also has a return-to-work policy that allows its beneficiaries to work while collecting reduced DI payments under a clawback regime. Unlike AISH, ODSP’s clawback regime does not have an exemption threshold and has a constant PRR. Its clawback regime is a single rate wherein DI payments are reduced at a fixed rate of 50% for all earnings. DI payments are reduced by C$1 for every C$2 of earnings, starting from the first earned dollar (50% marginal clawback rate). Figure 3 plots the budget constraint of ODSP beneficiaries.

\[\text{In September 2013, ODSP introduced an exemption threshold at C$200, the clawback rate above which is 50\%. We estimate our models including and excluding the affected period, which does not substantially affect the estimates. See Figure 4 and Table 2.}\]
3 Empirical analysis

3.1 Data and sample selection

We use individual-level administrative data on the monthly earnings of the AISH and ODSP beneficiaries obtained from the governments of Alberta and Ontario. Observing monthly earnings is essential since the earnings thresholds are monthly based. The data spans from November 2010 to August 2013 (one year and a half before the AISH reform and one year and a half after it) and includes only beneficiaries with non-physical disabilities. In addition, the data includes information on individuals’ gender, age, family structure, type of disability, and location of residence. Our study sample includes 18–64 years of AISH and ODSP beneficiaries with non-physical disabilities, excluding those who entered AISH after the reform was announced in February 2012.

Those who enter the AISH post-reform may be relatively healthier and may be able to work more than those who entered before the reform. The new return-to-work policy allows the beneficiaries to work more while collecting higher DI payments. The reform was announced in February 2012 and came into effect two months later, in April 2012. Given the short time between the announcement and implementation of the reform, anticipatory responses from the beneficiaries are unlikely; however, they could potentially bias the estimates upwards. To address this issue, we take a similar approach as Marie and Vall Castello (2012) and exclude the AISH beneficiaries who entered the program after February 2012 from our study sample.

We do not have data on beneficiaries with physical disabilities in Alberta, which is about half of all the reported disabilities in the program (SASR, 2010). However, studying beneficiaries with non-physical disabilities fits the purpose of this research. Non-physical disabilities, such as depression, are hard-to-verify, and individuals with these conditions are the marginal entrants into the DI programs (Autor and Duggan, 2006; Liebman, 2015), who may have at least some ability to work (Bastani and Waldenström, 2020; Maestas et al., 2013). Marginal entrants’ work decisions may be more sensitive to financial incentives. They may decide to work if, for instance, they can find a suitable job that
possibly accommodates their disability.

### 3.2 Descriptive evidence

Table 1 presents the summary statistics broken down into before and after the reform. The sample size in AISH is 452,000 individual-months (around 10,000 individuals over three years), and in ODSP is 6.9 million individual-months (around 150,000 individuals over three years).\(^{14}\)

The first panel of the table presents labor market statistics. Both programs' average net monthly payments are similar before the reform (C$1,160 in AISH versus C$1,020 in ODSP), but it is higher in AISH after the reform since AISH's DI payments increased by C$400 (C$1,530 versus C$1,015). About half of AISH beneficiaries who participate in the labor market—have positive earnings—compared with less than 10% in the ODSP. The average inflation-adjusted monthly earnings are higher in AISH than in ODSP (C$255 versus C$50). Post-reform earnings in AISH increase (C$255 versus C$285), but it does not change much in ODSP (C$50 versus C$55). Post-reform labor force participation does not change much in both programs.

The second panel of Table 1 presents a summary of the beneficiaries' characteristics. The demographic characteristics in AISH and ODSP are comparable and do not change post-reform. Half of the beneficiaries in each program are female. In both programs, about half of all beneficiaries have non-physical disabilities (SASR, 2010). We divide non-physical disabilities into three groups: Psychotic (i.e., Schizophrenia and Bipolar disorder), Neurological (i.e., Autism and Down Syndrome), and Mental conditions (i.e., Anxiety and Depression). The composition of disability types is comparable, where the Psychotic

---

\(^{14}\)Alberta and Ontario's population in the 2016 Census are 13,448,494 and 4,0067,175 respectively, where about 1% of the Canadian population have reported having disabilities. The smaller sample size in Alberta than in Ontario and the differences in the observable characteristics might be due to our sample subsetting process. We took a similar approach as Marie and Vall Castello (2012) and excluded new beneficiaries who entered into the AISH once the reform was announced (that is, two months prior to the reform coming into effect) to reduce potential bias in our estimates. Regarding the portion of the beneficiaries, the new entries in Alberta before the reform are twice the size of Ontario's (13% versus 6%). The new entry rate decreased in Alberta after the reform to about 5%, a similar rate as Ontario. We estimated a Regression Discontinuity Design (RDD) model similar to Zaresani (2018) from the effect of AISH's reform on the number of new entries. These estimates are presented in Table E.1. Based on anecdotal evidence, a stricter screening process might have caused a decrease in the number of new entries in Alberta due to an increase in applicants under a more generous return-to-work policy.
and Mental disabilities are the largest and the smallest groups, respectively, and the composition does not change post-reform. A larger portion of AISH beneficiaries lives in metropolitan areas.\textsuperscript{15} In both programs, most of the benefit recipients do not have dependents.

3.3 Graphical evidence

To graphically assess the impact of the reform on AISH beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions, we plot the trends in the inflation-adjusted average monthly earnings and the labor force participation rates in AISH and ODSP in Figure 4.\textsuperscript{16} Labor force participation is defined as a dummy variable that switches on for positive earnings. Panel (a) shows that the earnings in both AISH and ODSP are relatively stable before the reform. However, in the months following the reform, the earnings in AISH gradually rise. Panel (b) shows a similar trend for the labor force participation, where the post-reform increase in AISH is much smaller. This could be because adjusting work hours for individuals already employed can be easier than finding a job and starting to work.\textsuperscript{17}

As mentioned before, the reform in AISH came into effect in April 2012, but it was publicly announced two months earlier, in February 2012. Figure 4 also suggests that there are no anticipatory effects in earnings nor labor force participation of the beneficiaries.

3.4 Identification strategy

Estimating the causal effects of the return-to-work policies’ clawback regime on labor supply decisions of DI recipients is challenging. Individuals’ labor supply is endogenous since the selection process into a DI program strongly depends on having low earnings.\textsuperscript{16}See Figure B.1 in Appendix B for a close up of the trends without control group.\textsuperscript{17}Figure 4 shows that the labor supply in Ontario’s DI program is relatively stable during our study period and does not show large changes, creating concerns that it might not contribute to the DD estimates. However, comparing our DD estimates in Table 2 with the RDD estimates (see Table 1 in Zaresani (2018)) shows that our DD estimates are more than 30% larger than the RDD estimates without a control group ($29.87 versus $22.52), providing suggestive evidence that indeed the control group is contributing to the DD estimates.

\textsuperscript{15}The metropolitan areas in Alberta are Calgary and Edmonton, and in Ontario are Toronto and Ottawa.

\textsuperscript{16}The metropolitan areas in Alberta are Calgary and Edmonton, and in Ontario are Toronto and Ottawa.

\textsuperscript{17}The metropolitan areas in Alberta are Calgary and Edmonton, and in Ontario are Toronto and Ottawa.
We estimate the causal effects of the AISH’s reform from a DD model using the ODSP as a control group. ODSP beneficiaries represent an appropriate control group because, except for the clawback regime of its return-to-work policy, ODSP is similar to AISH regarding eligibility criteria and beneficiary characteristics. In addition, ODSP did not undergo major reforms during the period of our study.\footnote{The ODSP introduced an exemption threshold at C$200 in September 2013. As a robustness check for the main analysis, we exclude this period; see Section 4.1.} In our DD framework, the first difference is over time since AISH’s clawback regime became more generous after April 2012. The second difference is across the programs; there was a reform in AISH but not in the ODSP. We implement a DD comparison by estimating a regression of the form:

\[
y_{it} = \beta (POST_t \times AISH_i) + X_{it}'\delta + \gamma_i + \lambda_t + \epsilon_{it} \tag{2}
\]

where \(i\) and \(t\) respectively denote individuals and time, and \(y_{it}\) denotes the outcome variable. We use inflation-adjusted monthly earnings and labor force participation as the outcome variables, examining the effects on the labor supply decisions in intensive and extensive margins, respectively. \(AISH_i\) is a dummy variable for the treatment group, the AISH beneficiaries. This variable controls for program-specific trends and is equal to one for those in the AISH program and zero otherwise. \(POST_t\) is another dummy variable that switches on for the post-reform months. The vector \(X_{it}\) is a set of time-varying individual characteristics to control for any observable differences that might confound the analysis, including age, family structure, and the location of residence. We include a vector of individual fixed effect \(\gamma_i\), capturing individual-specific factors such as ability or tastes for work. We also include a vector of time fixed effects \(\lambda_t\) to control possible economy-wide changes in economic conditions. \(\epsilon_{it}\) captures any remaining unobserved factors affecting individuals’ labor supply decisions. The coefficient of interest is \(\beta\), which captures the effects of the reform on labor supply decisions of AISH’s beneficiaries relative to ODSP’s overtime.

The key identification assumption of a DD model is parallel trends between AISH and ODSP, indicating that there is no unobserved program-specific change that first is
correlated with the reform, and second is correlated with program-specific changes in the outcome variable. To provide suggestive evidence on the plausibility of this assumption, we generalize Equation (2) by replacing \( POST_i \times AISH_i \) with a full set of treatment and quarterly time interaction terms and estimate an event study regression of the form:

\[
y_{it} = \sum_{t=-8}^{t=7} \beta_t(q_t \times AISH_i) + X_{it}\delta + \gamma_i + \lambda_t + \epsilon_{it} \\
\]

(3)

where \( q_t \) denotes a set of dummies switching on for quarter \( t \). The pre-reform interaction terms \( \beta_t \) provide a specification test, where zero or very small pre-reform estimates provides suggestive evidence for the plausibility of the parallel trends assumption.

\section*{4 Results}

Table 2 presents the estimated effects from the DD model specified in equation (2).\(^{19}\) All estimates include time-varying individual characteristics, individual and time fixed effects.\(^{20}\) Standard errors are clustered at the individual level. The estimated intensive margin effect is an 11.87\% increase in monthly earnings (C\$29.98 increase from a pre-reform average of C\$252.47). The table shows a positive effect in the extensive margin, a 0.79\% point increase in the labor force participation rate (from an average participation rate of 48.12\%). This finding is consistent with recent evidence that the extensive margin of labor supply is more sensitive to non-linear budget sets than commonly thought, which can have welfare implications (Gelber et al., 2020a; Eissa et al., 2008).\(^{21}\)

\(^{19}\)The table also presents the estimated effects using a longer panel, spanning two years of pre- and post-reform periods, which includes the policy change in ODSP, where an exemption threshold of C\$200 was introduced in September 2013. These estimates are very similar to our main estimates using a shorter panel.

\(^{20}\)The estimates without controlling for individual characteristics are almost identical to those with individual characteristics. This can be explained by the fact that the estimates already include individual fixed effects, and there might not be much variation in the included time-varying individual characteristics.

\(^{21}\)Gelber et al. (2020a) examine the impact of the US Social Security Annual Earnings Test (AET) on older workers’ labor supply. They estimate 0.49 for the extensive margin elasticity, implying more than a 1\% point increase in the participation rate in the absence of the AET. Eissa et al. (2008) develop a theoretical framework to show that labor force participation is more responsive to taxes and transfers than hours worked. They apply their framework to examine the welfare effects on single mothers in the US from tax acts passed in 1986, 1990, 1993, and 2001.
Changing labor supply in response to changes in work incentives may involve adjustment costs, the money and time required to find a new job, negotiating increased or reduced hours with an employer, and adjusting non-work schedules. Those adjustment costs could attenuate beneficiaries’ response to work incentives (Zaresani, 2020; Gelber et al., 2020b; Chetty et al., 2011). Zaresani (2020) explores AISH’s reform and finds that beneficiaries face adjustment costs to adjust their labor supply, which is more than 10% of their earnings. The size of the induced financial incentives from the return-to-work policies’ clawback regimes affects beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions. Beneficiaries might increase their labor supply only if the financial incentives are large enough to offset the adjustment costs they face. This emphasizes the importance of the size of the financial incentives induced by the return-to-work policies’ clawback regime.

4.1 Robustness analysis

The estimates presented in Table 2 will be biased if the treatment and control groups have different labor supply trends before the reform. We plot the estimated coefficients of the interaction terms $\beta_i$ from the event study specified in Equation (3) for the earnings and labor force participation rate in Figure 5. Each dot indicates the estimated coefficient for the quarter relative to the reform, and the bars represent the corresponding 95% confidence intervals. The estimated pre-reform coefficients are almost zero and then gradually increase in the quarters following the reform in both panels, and they are statistically significant.

The level difference in outcome variables between the control and treatment groups in a DD analysis is not a threat to the identification, but it might raise questions about the suitability of the control group. In addition to the event study estimates showing the plausibility of the parallel trends assumption for identifying our DD model (see Figure 5), we performed an additional sensitivity analysis of parallel trends assumptions using the method of Rambachan and Roth (2022). This method is based on deriving worst-case bounds for the causal effect under specific violations of the parallel trends assumption. Our analysis shows that average estimated treatment effects are robust to reasonable
violations of the parallel trend assumptions. This finding suggests that although the levels of outcome variables are different between the control and treatment groups, it is not a threat to identifying the causal effect. Details of the analysis are provided in Appendix C.

4.2 Heterogeneity analysis

The treatment effects literature explicitly recognizes that the effect of the treatment can be heterogeneous across different individuals (Heckman and Vytlacil, 2007; Heckman et al., 1997; Heckman and Singer, 1985). Table 3 presents the estimated effects of AISH's reform by beneficiaries’ family structure, age, gender, type of disability, and residence location. It is instructive to examine the effects of the reform on beneficiaries with and without dependents separately since the earnings thresholds are higher for those with dependents (see Figure 1). The estimated increases in the earnings and labor force participation are higher for those with dependents (17.88% versus 12.77% increase in earnings and 4.31% points versus 0.62% points increase in the labor force participation).

There are sizeable differences in the effects of the reform across age groups. AISH’s more generous clawback regime increases the labor supply of the 18–34 age group in both extensive and intensive margins (22.97% increase in earnings and 4.21% points increase in the labor force participation rate). The effect on the 35–49 age group is mostly in the intensive margin where the earnings increase by 9.82%, and the participation rate decreases by 0.79 % points. The estimated effect on the beneficiaries over 50 years old is mainly a decrease in the extensive margin, a 4.07% point decrease in labor force participation rate, and a smaller 1.83% decrease in the earnings.

The estimated effects are slightly larger for men in intensive margins but almost identical in extensive margins. The estimated effects for men and women are respectively 14.36% and 10.82 % increase in the earnings and 0.80% and 0.79% point increase in the labor force participation rate.

Health condition plays an essential role in the labor supply decisions of individuals.

---

22This is an interesting finding, but we are unable to investigate it further since we do not have data on beneficiaries’ work hours, wages, or occupations.
Table 3 shows the estimated effects broken down by disability type. The largest increase in labor supply along the intensive and extensive margins is for beneficiaries with psychotic disabilities (15.07% increase in the earnings and 1.46% point increase in the participation rate). The increase in the labor supply of beneficiaries with neurological and mental disabilities is only along the intensive margin (respectively 11.84% and 7.58% increase in the earnings), and small insignificant decreases along the extensive margin (respectively 0.07% and 0.50% points decrease).

The last panel of Table 3 shows the estimates by beneficiaries’ location of residence: metropolitan versus non-metropolitan areas. The estimated effects on the intensive margin are very similar (13.12% and 13.37% increase in the earnings), but the increase on the extensive margin in the metropolitan area is much larger (1.83% point increase versus 0.18% point decrease in the participation rate). This could be because there might be more new job openings in metropolitan areas.

Our findings show significant heterogeneity in the responsiveness to financial work incentives, indicating that targeted policies may be most effective in inducing DI recipients to return to work. In particular, the strongest responses to financial incentives are among beneficiaries with dependents, those aged 35–49 years, males, those with Psychological conditions, and those residing in metropolitan areas.

To investigate the plausibility of the parallel trends assumption required for a causal interpretation of our heterogeneity analysis, we estimate event study models specified in Equation (3) for each sub-sample. We plot the quarterly time and treatment interaction term coefficients ($\beta_t$) and the 95% confidence intervals in Appendix D. Pre-reform coefficients are close to zero and gradually rise post-reform for almost all sub-samples. Similar to the estimates for the whole sample plotted in Figure 5, the estimated coefficients for the two earliest pre-reform quarters are slightly larger than zero. It could be a delayed response to the AISH’s July 2008 reform. Excluding the affected periods does not change our estimates.

---

23The estimates for beneficiaries with dependents, those over 50 years, and beneficiaries with mental disabilities are exceptions. This could be because these sub-samples are small (see Table 1), and therefore coefficients are less precisely estimated.
Our estimates show that return-to-work policies’ clawback regime has heterogeneous effects on beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions. This finding suggests that targeted policies might be more effective in encouraging DI recipients to return to work.

### 4.3 Income and substitution effects

The reform in AISH has two components: an increase in the exemption thresholds and an increase in the monthly DI payments. In principle, the reform may well have both income and substitution effects. Assuming that leisure and labor are normal goods, the increase in DI payments should induce beneficiaries to work less or stop working, resulting in a negative income effect on the labor supply. The increase in the exemption thresholds is comparable to a decrease in the implied marginal tax rate on the payments, making leisure more expensive, and increasing incentives to substitute leisure with work, a positive substitution effect on labor supply. The relative size of income versus substitution effects has important welfare implications (Autor and Duggan, 2007).

Figure 1 shows the budget constraint of AISH’s beneficiaries before and after the reform. For all earnings levels—except for earnings between the old and the new exemption thresholds—the budget constraints pre- and post-reform are parallel, suggesting a dominant income effect. We estimate the effects of the reform on the labor supply of beneficiaries with earnings in the parallel ranges using a DD model. We use the ODSP’s beneficiaries in similar earnings ranges as control groups.

Panels (a) and (b) of Figure 6 plot the trends in the inflation-adjusted earnings for AISH and ODSP beneficiaries with no dependents whose monthly earnings is always below C$300 within 6 and 12 months prior to the reform (earnings below the old exemption threshold). Panels (c) and (d) plot the trends for the beneficiaries without dependents whose monthly earnings is always more than C$900 within 6 and 12 months before the reform (earnings above the new exemption threshold). Panel (e) plots the trends for the beneficiaries with dependents whose earnings six months before the reform is always less than C$850 (earnings below the old exemption threshold). These figures suggest that

---

24There are very few beneficiaries with dependents whose earnings for 6 or 12 months is always above the new exemption threshold.
earnings trends in AISH are similar to ODSP, both before and after the AISH reform, suggesting that the effects of the reform on earnings are rather small.

Table 4 presents the estimated effects of the reform for each subgroup presented in Figure 6. The estimated effects are either very small or negative and insignificant. In addition to the positive estimates from the reform on labor force participation rate, these findings suggest that the income effect of the reform is negligible, and a more generous clawback regime affects work incentives (Autor and Duggan, 2007).25

5 Distributional effects

The DD model estimates the mean impacts of a more generous clawback regime on beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions, which masks the distributional effects of the reform. A more generous clawback regime provides low and high-earner beneficiaries with different work incentives. Looking separately at different sub-samples also does not improve the performance of mean impacts (Bitler et al., 2006). To assess the effects of the reform across different earnings percentiles, we estimate a quantile DD model. This model compares each earnings decile of AISH to the corresponding decile of the ODSP as a control group in a DD framework.26

Figure 7 plots the estimated quantile DD models with bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals for beneficiaries without and with dependents in each panel. The blue dashed line illustrates the estimated average effect of the reform on earnings from the DD model presented in Table 3. As shown in Table 1, around 50% and 90% of the beneficiaries in AISH and ODSP, respectively, do not participate in the labor force and have zero earnings. This is why the estimated effects for the lower percentiles are zero. The figure suggests that the mean effect is driven mainly by the higher earnings deciles, especially those with earnings between the former and the new exemption thresholds.

We present the quantile DD estimates for the whole sample and by beneficiaries’ age,

25Marie and Vall Castello (2012) finds that a 35% increase in the payments in the Spanish DI program decreased the labor force participation rate. They conclude that the effects are mostly due to income effects since the DI benefits are not employment contingent.

26For any variable $Y$ with cumulative distribution function $F(y) = P[Y \leq y]$, the $q^{th}$ percentile of $F$ is defined as the smallest value $y_q$ such that $F(y_q) = q$. 
gender, type of disability, and residence location in Appendix F. The distributional effects are heterogeneous by beneficiaries’ characteristics, and the effects for the lower deciles of earnings are zero, and they rise for the higher deciles, suggesting that high earners are the main drivers of the mean estimated effects.

The quantile estimations suggest that the estimated mean effects on earnings from a more generous clawback regime from the DD model show a great deal of heterogeneity. The estimated effects are consistent with the predictions from the labor supply model presented in Section 2.4.1 that the effects at the bottom should be small and it should gradually increase for the higher earnings deciles, especially those closer to the exemption threshold. This finding suggests that targeted return-to-work policies might work better to increase the labor supply in DI programs.

6 How does a more generous clawback regime affect exempted earnings?

The reform in AISH increased the generosity of the clawback regime by decreasing the PRR –defined in Equation (1)– for all earnings levels. It allows beneficiaries to keep a larger portion of the DI payments while working more. Figure 2 plots the PRTs in AISH before and after the reform, where the largest decrease is right above the former exemption threshold, where the PRR jumps down to 0 from 50%.

Figure 8 and Figure 9 plot the earnings distribution of AISH beneficiaries before and after the reform for those without and with dependent, respectively. There is bunching (excess mass) at the old and the new exemption thresholds, suggesting that beneficiaries are responsive to the PRR. However, the post-reform figures with a more generous clawback regime have a thicker right tail, suggesting that a lower PRR is associated with a lower portion of beneficiaries with Earnings Below Exemption Threshold (EBT). This observation is consistent with the prediction of the model presented in Section 2.4.1.

We estimate an aggregate elasticity of EBT with respect to the PRR, defined as
where $\Delta$ denotes the change in the corresponding variable after the reform relative to the before the reform. 0 and 1 indexes refer to pre- and post-reform, respectively.

To estimate the elasticity, we divide the monthly earnings into $[z - \delta/2, z + \delta/2]$ bins with width $\delta = $ $10$. $\Delta PRR$ is the average change in $PRR$ weighted with the portion of the beneficiaries in each bin $z$ before the reform, denoted by $p_0^z$:

$$
\Delta PRR = \mathbb{E}_z[p_0^z(PRR_1^z - PRR_0^z)]
$$

We estimate the standard errors using a non-parametric bootstrap by drawing 10,000 samples with replacement. For each bootstrapped sample, we then estimate the elasticity. The standard error of a parameter is the standard deviation of its bootstrapped parameters.

Table 5 presents the estimated elasticities. The estimated elasticity for beneficiaries without and with dependents is 0.114 and 0.033, respectively. A 10% decrease in PRR decreases the portion of beneficiaries with earnings below the old exemption threshold by 11.4% and 3.3% for those without and with dependent, respectively. The size of these estimates is comparable to the estimates of Kostol and Mogstad (2014) in the range of 0.119 to 0.186.

7 Fiscal impacts and conclusion

7.1 Fiscal impacts of the AISH policy change

Table 6 presents the back of the envelope calculations of the fiscal impacts of the policy change in AISH in pre- and post-reform financial years (April 1 to March 31). The table

\[\epsilon = \frac{\Delta EBT / EBT_0}{\Delta PRR / PRR_0}\] (4)
consists of three rows: cost, revenue, and net cost. The cost includes the total amount of the DI payments before clawback. The revenue includes federal and provincial income taxes on the earnings and the clawbacked DI benefits added together.\textsuperscript{28} The net cost is the cost net of revenues.

The substantial increase in the program’s cost after the policy change is caused by the increase in the monthly payments. The annual cost of increasing the DI payments is about fifty million dollars. The tax revenue in the years after the policy change does not fall much despite the higher exemption thresholds. Two years after the policy change, the tax revenue is about one million dollars higher than that one year after the policy change. These results suggest that the policy change has resulted in a significant increase in DI recipients’ earnings. Using hourly minimum wage rates, the estimated effect suggests that the DI recipients who increased their labor supply worked an additional 3 to 5 hours per month.

\section*{7.2 Conclusion}

Many countries have recently implemented –or are considering implementing– return-to-work policies to provide financial incentives to DI beneficiaries to increase their labor supply. Return-to-work policies allow beneficiaries to work while collecting reduced DI payments based on a clawback regime. Previous works investigate the effects on beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions from increased financial incentives, but the empirical findings are mixed. The clawback regime of return-to-work policies is an important factor that could impact beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions, but little is known about the effects of its variations, mainly due to the scarcity of such policy variations. A better understanding of beneficiaries’ labor supply responses to the financial incentives of the return-to-work policies is critical for designing such policies better.

We examine how the clawback regime of return-to-work policies impacts benefit recipients’ labor supply decisions. We use individual-level longitudinal administrative data

\textsuperscript{28}Most DI beneficiaries’ annual earnings fall in the lowest income tax bracket, which is C$43,561, with a combined federal and provincial tax rate of 25\% in the 2012-2013 financial year in Alberta. The combined tax rate did not change during our study, and the threshold is adjusted for the inflation rate annually. All the dollar values are in C$2012.
and a DD model to compare the labor supply in two DI programs with similar eligibility criteria and beneficiary characteristics but different clawback regimes in return-to-work policies. One program has a particular clawback regime in which DI payments are gradually reduced as earnings increase, and reform further increases its generosity. The second program has a single rate clawback regime wherein DI payments are reduced at a fixed rate for all earnings levels.

We find that the increase in the clawback regime’s generosity causes an increase in labor supply in intensive and extensive margins. Beneficiaries who already work, work more (11.87% increase in earnings), and those who did not work start working (0.79% point increase in labor force participation rate). The estimated effects are heterogeneous by beneficiaries’ family structure, age, gender, type of disability, and residence location. The estimates from quantile DD models show that top percentiles of earnings drive the increase in earnings. Suggestive evidence further shows that the substitution effects dominate the income effects, and a more generous clawback regime provides work incentives. Under the more generous clawback regime, a smaller portion of beneficiaries earns below the exemption threshold. The estimated elasticities are 0.11 and 0.03 for beneficiaries without and with dependent, respectively. Our findings suggest that targeted return-to-work policies with a more generous clawback regime could increase the labor supply in DI programs.

The effect on beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions from the financial incentives induced by the clawback regime of return-to-work policies is attenuated due to the adjustment costs they face (Zaresani, 2020). Beneficiaries would adjust their labor supply in response to changes in clawback regimes only if the incentives are large enough to offset the adjustment costs they face, suggesting an important role for the size of the financial incentives in beneficiaries’ labor supply decisions.

Our findings show the importance of the clawback regime of return-to-work policies to increase labor supply in DI programs, an important policy domain, but it has caveats. Our study does not explore the welfare effects and the optimal clawback regime for return-to-work policies. The study of those issues is left for future work.
References


## Tables

### Table 1: Summary statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>AISH Before reform</th>
<th>AISH After reform</th>
<th>ODSP Before reform</th>
<th>ODSP After reform</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Labor market statistics</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor force participation (%)</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average monthly employment</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>earnings (2012 C$)</td>
<td>(420)</td>
<td>(470)</td>
<td>(235)</td>
<td>(245)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average net monthly DI</td>
<td>1,160</td>
<td>1,530</td>
<td>1,020</td>
<td>1,015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>payments (2012 C$)</td>
<td>(120)</td>
<td>(150)</td>
<td>(470)</td>
<td>(460)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of new entries</td>
<td>1,215</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>8,440</td>
<td>9,965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individual characteristics</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male (%)</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>53.4</td>
<td>53.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average age (years)</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(12.5)</td>
<td>(12.8)</td>
<td>(12.6)</td>
<td>(12.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No dependent (%)</td>
<td>91.3</td>
<td>90.8</td>
<td>82.1</td>
<td>82.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of disability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Psychotic (%)</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Neurological (%)</td>
<td>50.1</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Mental (%)</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area resident (%)</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of individuals</td>
<td>8,940</td>
<td>9,890</td>
<td>142,970</td>
<td>160,775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of observations</td>
<td>214,595</td>
<td>237,285</td>
<td>3,431,300</td>
<td>3,385,615</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:** This table provides summary statistics for the data from the AISH and ODSP. According to Statistics Canada’s confidentiality guidelines, the average inflation-adjusted (2012 C$) monthly earnings and DI payments are rounded to the closest five. The metropolitan area of Alberta are Calgary and Edmonton, and Ontario’s are Toronto and Ottawa. The standard deviations of the continuous variables are provided in the parenthesis.
Table 2: Estimated effects from DD model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Earnings ($)</th>
<th>Labor Force Participation (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>AISH × Post</strong></td>
<td>29.87***</td>
<td>31.02***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.53)</td>
<td>(1.34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sample</strong></td>
<td>Short panel</td>
<td>Long panel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individual and time fixed effects</strong></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individual covariates</strong></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pre-reform mean in AISH</strong></td>
<td>250.89 (421.03)</td>
<td>250.18 (420.65)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>R-Sq.</strong></td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Num. of. Obs.</strong></td>
<td>5,810,529</td>
<td>7,741,795</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: This table presents the estimated monthly effects of the reform in AISH from the DD model specified in Equation (2). The short panel spans an 18-month window around the reform date (October 2010 to August 2013). The longer panel spans 24 months around the reform date (April 2010 to March 2014). The included individual covariates are age, family structure, and the location of residence. The earnings are inflation-adjusted (2012 C$). All the estimates include individual fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered in individual levels and are presented in the parenthesis.

*p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01
Table 3: Heterogeneity analysis from DD model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Family structure</th>
<th>Earnings ($)</th>
<th>Labor Force Participation Rate (%)</th>
<th>Num. of. Obs.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AISH × Post</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>AISH × Post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No dependent</td>
<td>31.81***</td>
<td>249.06</td>
<td>0.62***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.37)</td>
<td>(404.04)</td>
<td>(0.16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With dependent</td>
<td>42.39***</td>
<td>237.11</td>
<td>4.31***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5.37)</td>
<td>(498.67)</td>
<td>(0.47)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-34 years</td>
<td>57.29***</td>
<td>249.38</td>
<td>4.21***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2.19)</td>
<td>(425.70)</td>
<td>(0.23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-49 years</td>
<td>25.82***</td>
<td>262.85</td>
<td>-0.79***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2.39)</td>
<td>(420.75)</td>
<td>(0.26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+50 years</td>
<td>-4.11*</td>
<td>224.29</td>
<td>-4.07***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2.33)</td>
<td>(375.49)</td>
<td>(0.30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37.79***</td>
<td>263.09</td>
<td>0.80***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.88)</td>
<td>(428.66)</td>
<td>(0.20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>24.82***</td>
<td>229.36</td>
<td>0.79***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.89)</td>
<td>(392.29)</td>
<td>(0.22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Type of disability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychotic</td>
<td>32.65***</td>
<td>216.60</td>
<td>1.46***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2.02)</td>
<td>(403.23)</td>
<td>(0.23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neurological</td>
<td>32.28***</td>
<td>272.41</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.91)</td>
<td>(418.40)</td>
<td>(0.21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental</td>
<td>19.72***</td>
<td>260.00</td>
<td>-0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5.03)</td>
<td>(420.88)</td>
<td>(0.56)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Location of residence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area</td>
<td>34.34***</td>
<td>261.63</td>
<td>1.83***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.97)</td>
<td>(428.07)</td>
<td>(0.21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>31.40***</td>
<td>234.69</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.81)</td>
<td>(397.81)</td>
<td>(0.21)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: See notes to Table 2.
*p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01
Table 4: Estimated income effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No dependent</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>With dependent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AISH × Post</td>
<td>-1.61</td>
<td>4.74***</td>
<td>-4.99</td>
<td>18.97</td>
<td>-4.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.23)</td>
<td>(1.22)</td>
<td>(12.48)</td>
<td>(10.40)</td>
<td>(11.12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AISH</td>
<td>44.66***</td>
<td>37.36***</td>
<td>-133.79***</td>
<td>-81.01***</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.81)</td>
<td>(0.83)</td>
<td>(8.23)</td>
<td>(7.19)</td>
<td>(6.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>0 &lt; earnings ≤ 300</td>
<td>0 &lt; earnings ≤ 300</td>
<td>earnings ≥ 900</td>
<td>earnings ≥ 900</td>
<td>0 &lt; earnings ≤ 850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12 months before reform</td>
<td>6 months before reform</td>
<td>12 months before reform</td>
<td>6 months before reform</td>
<td>6 months before reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual and time fixed effects</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual co-variates</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean in AISH before policy change</td>
<td>138.76</td>
<td>135.59</td>
<td>1,248.98</td>
<td>1,140.49</td>
<td>307.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(103.65)</td>
<td>(118.55)</td>
<td>(421.28)</td>
<td>(492.57)</td>
<td>(348.25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-Sq.</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Num. of. Obs.</td>
<td>213,642</td>
<td>268,394</td>
<td>29,361</td>
<td>52,104</td>
<td>55,667</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: See notes to Table 2.

*p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01
Table 5: Estimates of elasticity of earnings below the exemption threshold with respect to DI payment reduction rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No dependent</th>
<th>With dependent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\epsilon$</td>
<td>0.114***</td>
<td>0.033***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.004)</td>
<td>(0.003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta EBT$</td>
<td>-0.035</td>
<td>-0.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.001)</td>
<td>(0.003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$EBT_0$</td>
<td>0.747</td>
<td>0.879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.001)</td>
<td>(0.002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta PRR$</td>
<td>-0.190</td>
<td>-0.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.001)</td>
<td>(0.002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$PRR_0$</td>
<td>0.480</td>
<td>0.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.007)</td>
<td>(0.004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Num. of Obs.</td>
<td>411,373</td>
<td>40,507</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: This table presents the estimates of the elasticity of Earnings Below exemption Threshold (EBT) with respect to Payment Reduction Rate (PRR) from Equation (1). The bootstrapped standard deviations are in the parenthesis.

*p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01

Table 6: Fiscal effects of AISH’s reform

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009 2010 2011</td>
<td>2012 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost (million $)</td>
<td>114.6 124.2 133.1</td>
<td>186.4 193.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revenue (million $)</td>
<td>12.1 12.1 13.5</td>
<td>12.6 14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net cost (million $)</td>
<td>102.5 112.7 119.6</td>
<td>173.8 178.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: This table shows the annual fiscal effects of the policy change in AISH. Each fiscal year spans April 1-March 31. The revenue includes combined provincial, and federal income taxes and clawbacked DI benefits added together. All monetary values are in 2012 dollars.
Figures

Figure 1: Budget constraints of AISH beneficiaries

(a) No dependent

(b) With dependent

Note: This figure illustrates the budget constraints of AISH beneficiaries before and after the reform. The horizontal axis represents the monthly earnings, and the vertical axis denotes the disposable income which is earnings and net DI payments added together. The monthly DI payments are C$ 1,188 and C$ 1,588 before and after the reform, respectively. The marginal clawback rate of DI payments at each bracket are respectively zero, 50% and 100%.
Figure 2: Payment reduction rate in AISH

(a) No dependent

(b) With dependent

Note: This figure illustrates the DI Payment Reduction Rate (PRR) in AISH’s return-to-work policy’s clawback regime, before and after the reform as defined in Equation (1).
Figure 3: Budget constraint of ODSP beneficiaries

Note: This figure plots the budget constraint of ODSP beneficiaries. The horizontal axis represents the monthly earnings, and the vertical axis denotes the disposable income which is earnings and net DI payments added together. DI payments range from C$1,086 to C$1,999. The DI payments clawback rate is 50%.
Figure 4: Trends in the labor supply

(a) Earnings

(b) Labor force participation

Notes: This figure plots the average monthly earnings and labor force participation rate in the AISH and ODSP. The horizontal axis represents the month relative to the reform. Labor force participation is defined as a dummy that switches on for positive earnings. For a close up of the labor supply trends in AISH, see Figure B.1 in Appendix B.
Figure 5: Event study estimates

(a) Earnings

(b) Labor force participation

Notes: This figure plots the estimated time trend coefficients ($\beta_t$) from Equation (3) and the 95% confidence intervals.
Figure 6: Trends in monthly earnings of AISH and ODSP beneficiaries with likely dominant income effects

(a) Monthly earnings below $300 for 6 months before the reform (no dependent)

(b) Monthly earnings below $300 for 12 months before the reform (no dependent)
(c) Monthly earnings over $900 for 6 months before the reform (no dependent)

(d) Monthly earning over $900 for one year before the reform (no dependent)
(e) Monthly earnings below $850 for 6 months before the reform (with dependent)

Note: This figure plots the trends in the monthly earnings of AISH and ODSP beneficiaries with likely dominant income effects.
Figure 7: Quantile DD estimates by family structure

(a) With no dependent

(b) With dependent

Notes: This figure plots the estimated quantile DD models. Bars represent the 95% bootstrapped standard errors, and the dashed blue line shows the estimated mean effect from the DD model presented in Table 3.
Figure 8: Earnings distribution of AISH’s beneficiaries with no dependent

(a) Before reform

(b) After reform

Note: The sample includes only beneficiaries with positive earnings. About half of all the beneficiaries have zero earnings (see Table 1).
Figure 9: Earnings distribution of AISH’s beneficiaries with dependent

(a) Before reform

(b) After reform

Note: See notes to Figure 8.
Figure 10: Quantile DD estimates

(a) All earnings

(b) Positive earnings

Notes: This figure plots the estimated quantile DD models. The bars show the bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals, which are very small. The blue dashed blue line shows the mean effect estimated from the DD model presented in Table 2.
Appendix: For on-line publication

A DI programs in Canada

A.1 Federal DI program

The Federal Government of Canada provides a wide range of social assistance programs, including Employment Insurance (EI); Sickness benefits (one must have accumulated at least 600 hours of insurable employment in the qualifying period to receive up to 15 weeks of benefits); Canada Pension Plan (CPP) (Quebec Pension Plan (QPP) in Quebec) disability benefits (to be eligible, one must have enough contributions to the CPP/QPP); Child Disability benefit (CDB) (a tax-free benefit for families who care for a child under 18 with a severe and prolonged disability); Special Benefits for Parents of Critically Ill Children (PCIC) (for eligible parents who take leave from work to provide care or support to their critically ill or injured child for up to 35 weeks); and Employment Insurance Compassionate Care Benefits (for those take time off work to provide care or support to a family member who is gravely ill and is at risk of dying within six months).\textsuperscript{29}

The Federal Government of Canada also provides monthly income benefits to employees who cannot work for a period of time due to a totally disabling illness or non-work-related injury. All new employees hired on a full-time or part-time basis are covered automatically under the DI Plan. Each month, employees will contribute a specified amount for each $1,000 of their annual insured salary taken to the next highest multiple of $250. The DI premiums are made by payroll deductions, where the employers pay 85%, and the employee pays the rest.

To be eligible for the benefit, one must be employed when the disability starts, and the disability must not exist when they become insured. The insurance coverage will cease on the date an individual ceases to be employed or qualify as an eligible employee. The program is administered by Sun Life company, and benefits are paid subject to a 13-week elimination period or the exhaustion of sick leave, whichever is later. The eligible beneficiaries receive benefits for up to 24 months if they are in a continuous state of incapacity due to illness or injury and are prevented from performing the duties of their regular occupation. If at the end of these 24 months, they are unable to perform any commensurate occupation\textsuperscript{30} for which they are reasonably qualified by training or experience, their benefits would be continued as long as they remain disabled, but not beyond your 65th birthday.

A.2 Provincial DI programs

The provincial DI programs complement the Federal program by providing long-term benefits to those not eligible for the federal program or who need more assistance. Each province operates its DI program under different ministries; they feature comparable


\textsuperscript{30}For the DI Plan, commensurate occupation means one for which the rate of pay is at least 66% of the current rate for their regular position.
eligibility criteria but different benefit levels. However, the specifics of the programs vary across Canadian provinces.

Apart from the DI programs in Alberta and Ontario, another notable program exists in British Columbia. That program offers single beneficiaries payments of around C$1,300, with an asset test of C$100,000. The BC program features a deduction of 100% of benefits for each dollar earned over C$15,000 in a year. Other provinces feature much smaller and localized programs. For example, New Brunswick offered DI single beneficiaries payments of C$663 in 2014, with an asset test of C$3,000. Manitoba features an asset test of between C$4,000 and C$16,000 depending on family size and payment of C$996 in 2016 for a single beneficiary. Quebec focuses on assistance through tax credits and the Quebec Pension Plan, although the latter requires the recipient to have contributed enough before acquiring the disability.

---

31 The Government of British Columbia restricts access to the data on their DI program; hence it was not considered for this paper.
B Trends in labour supply of AISH beneficiaries

Figure B.1: Trends in labour supply of AISH beneficiaries

(a) Earnings

(b) Labor force participation

Notes: This figure plots the trend in the monthly earnings and labor force participation of AISH beneficiaries in months relative to the reform. The fitted lines are plotted in black. This figure provides a close up of the labor supply trends provided in Figure 4.
C Sensitivity of DD estimates to parallel trends assumption

We present a sensitivity analysis of violations of the parallel trends assumption necessary to identify the causal effect in our Difference-in-Differences (DD) analysis presented in Table 2. This analysis is based on Rambachan and Roth (2022) and consists of determining bounds for the Average Treatment Effect (ATE) under worst-case scenarios given pre-specified violations of parallel trends. Here we consider two types of violations.

First, we allow differential economic shocks to the treated and control groups. In particular, we bound possible violations of parallel trends post-treatment by a factor $M$ of the largest confounding shock pre-treatment. Panel (a) of Figure C.1 plots how the estimated ATE on earnings, represented by the red line, changes as we allow $M$ to change. The figure shows that only if we allow for post-intervention violations to be as high as 1.7 times pre-intervention shocks, we would not be able to discard a null ATE (although, in that case, an ATE of $57 per quarter is also likely).

The second type of violation to parallel trends we consider allows for the control and treatment groups to be located on differential secular trajectories. In that case, we only impose that those trends change smoothly over time. In effect, we allow for the second derivative of the secular trends to change by at most $M$ between consecutive periods. Panel (b) of Figure C.1 plots the estimated treatment effect on earnings changes as we allow $M$ to change. The figure shows that only if we allow for changes in the slope of differential secular trends for control and treatment groups as high as 2.4 per period, we would not be able to discard a null average treatment effect (although, in that case, an ATE of $54 per quarter is also likely).

We repeat the two exercises presented above to analyze the treatment effect on labor force participation, presented in Figure C.2. The treatment effect is not very robust to violations of parallel trends in this case. This is not unexpected as the estimated treatment effects on labor force participation are not very large, to begin with.

---

32 This corresponds to “Bounding Relative Magnitudes” in Rambachan and Roth (2022).

33 This corresponds to “Smoothness Restrictions” in Rambachan and Roth (2022).
Figures

Figure C.1: Sensitivity analysis of DD estimates for earnings

(a) Sensitivity to differential confounding factors

(b) Sensitivity to differential trends

Note: This figure presents the robustness of DD estimates from Equation (2), presented in Table 2 using the method of Rambachan and Roth (2022). $M$ denotes the variation in factor of violation of differential confounding factors and and differential trend, respectively in Panel (a) and Panel (b).
Figure C.2: Sensitivity analysis of DD estimates for labor force participation

(a) Sensitivity to differential confounding factors

(b) Sensitivity to differential trends

Note: See notes to Figure C.1.
D  Event study estimates for sub-samples

Figure D.1: Event study estimates by family structure

(a) Earnings

(1) No dependent

(2) With dependent

(b) Labor force participation

(1) No dependent

(2) With dependent

Notes: This figure plots the estimated time trend coefficients (\( \beta_k \)) from Equation (3). Bars show the 95% confidence intervals from individual level clustered standard errors.
Figure D.2: Event study estimates by age

(a) Earnings

(1) 18-34 years

(2) 35-49 years

(3) +50 years

Relative quarter to policy change

Estimated effects on earnings ($)
(b) Labor force participation

(1) 18-34 years

(2) 35-49 years

(3) +50 years

Notes: See notes to Figure D.1.
Figure D.3: Event study estimates by gender

(a) Earnings

(1) Male

(2) Female

(b) Labor force participation

(1) Male

(2) Female

Notes: See notes to Figure D.1.
Figure D.4: Event study estimates by type of disability

(a) Earnings

(1) Psychotic

(2) Neurological

(3) Mental

Relative quarter to policy change
(b) Labor force participation

(1) Psychotic

(2) Neurological

(3) Mental

Notes: See notes to Figure D.1.
Figure D.5: Event study estimates by location of residence

(a) Earnings

(1) Metropolitan area

(2) Other

(b) Labor force participation

(1) Metropolitan area

(2) Other

Notes: See notes to Figure D.1.
E  Effects of AISH policy change on new entries

Table E.1: Estimated effects of the reform in AISH on the number of new entrants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bandwidth</th>
<th>12 months</th>
<th>18 months</th>
<th>24 months</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estimated effect on number of new entrants</td>
<td>-7.62*</td>
<td>-4.36</td>
<td>-1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4.49)</td>
<td>(5.14)</td>
<td>(5.25)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: This table presents the estimated effects of the reform in AISH on the number of the new entrants using a Regression Discontinuity Design (RDD) model from Zaresani (2018). The robust standard errors are in the parenthesis.

*p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01

F  Quantile DD estimates

Figure F.1: Quantile DD estimates for the whole sample

Notes: This figure plots the estimated quantile DD models. The bars show the bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals, which are very small. The blue dashed blue line shows the mean effect estimated from the DD model presented in Table 2.
Figure F.2: Quantile DD estimates by age

(1) 18-34 years

(2) 35-49 years

(3) +50 years

Notes: This figure plots the estimated quantile DD models. The bars show the bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals, which are very small. The blue dashed blue line shows the mean effect estimated from the DD model presented in Table 3.
Figure F.3: Quantile DD estimates by gender

(1) Male  
(2) Female

Notes: See notes to Figure F.2.
Figure F.4: Quantile DD estimates by type of disability

(1) Psychotic  

(2) Neurological  

(3) Mental

Notes: See notes to Figure F.2.
Figure F.5: Quantile DD estimates by location of residence

(1) Metropolitan area

(2) Other

Notes: See notes to Figure F.2.