

# Making a miracle?

## A literature review on the economic determinants that shaped East Asia in the 20th century

Beatriz Gietner

April 2021

### 1 Introduction

In the literature, the scenario in which the four newly-industrializing countries (NICs) - or newly industrialized economies (NIEs) - of South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore, Hong Kong, and Japan experienced unmatched levels of economic growth is known as the East Asian miracle<sup>1</sup>. The first time the expression was used to refer to a broad "Miracle" in East Asia was, at least in the West, in the article "Explaining the East Asian 'Miracle'" by McCord (21), published in 1989. From there, the World Bank published the controversial report "East Asian Miracle: Economic Growth and Public Policy" in 1993 (5), which was followed by Krugman's critique on Foreign Affairs entitled "The Myth of Asia's Miracle" (14)<sup>2</sup> and 권 Kwon's rebuttal "The East Asia challenge to neoclassical orthodoxy" (15)<sup>3</sup>, both published in 1994.

Before the 1990s decade, many works were published to explain NICs' economic growth ((2); (7); (9); (11); (24); (31)), but the literature increased considerably after 1990. In this literature review, I will focus on the explanations for the East Asia Miracle presented in the following articles:

- Entrepreneurial state: The Schumpeterian theory of industrial policy and the East Asian "Miracle" (Ebner, 2009(10));
- Financial markets, public policy, and the East Asian Miracle (Stiglitz and Uy, 1996(28));
- Explaining the East Asia Miracle: The role of urbanization (Zhang et al., 2019(33));
- The tyranny of numbers: Confronting the statistical realities of the East Asian growth experience (Young, 1995(32)).

### 2 Making a Miracle

Within economic growth theory, we can highlight two critical approaches at the forefront of much of the existing discussion on economic growth: the neoclassical growth theory and the endogenous growth theory. The former was constructed firstly by Solow and Swan on the basis that physical capital accumulation is an essential driver of economic growth in the short run, while technological advancement is a critical determinant of economic growth in the long run ((27); (30)). Mankiw, Romer, and Weil later included it as the human-capital factor to supplement physical capital accumulation (20). In terms of endogenous growth theory, its major contribution was a model that is based on the inclusion of productivity factors (e.g., learning by doing, R&D) ((1), (19), (25)) and a long-run economic growth at a rate determined by forces that are internal to the economic system, particularly those forces governing the opportunities and incentives to create technological knowledge.

---

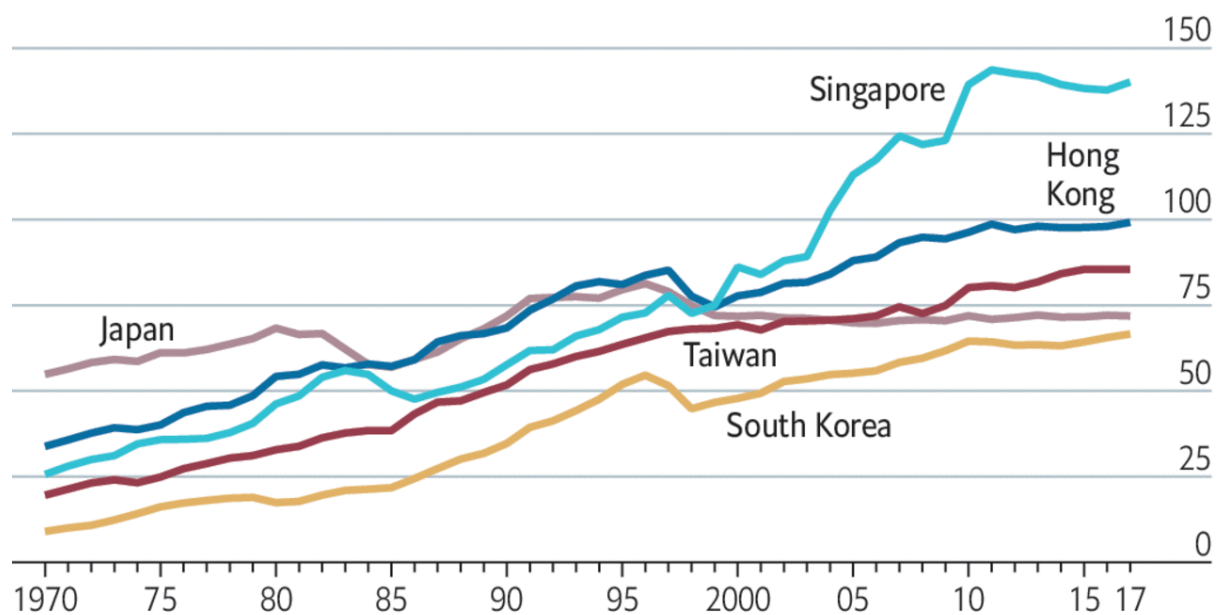
<sup>1</sup>This expression was used in the context of the "Miracle on the Han," introduced by South Korea's Prime Minister, 장면 Chang Myon, as part of his New Year address in 1961 in which he asked his fellow South Koreans to bear the discomfort that came with change and be optimistic of economic growth. It alluded to the phrase "Miracle on the Rhine," coined in reference to the dramatic economic resurgence of West Germany soon after World War II.

<sup>2</sup>Krugman argued that the high growth rates in per capita income experienced by East Asian countries were simply the result of Soviet-style high levels of investment.

<sup>3</sup>권 Kwon argued that contrary to the World Bank report, industrial policies used in East Asian economies have been effective, non-neoclassical tools for economic development, with the government complementing market factors by creating an environment conducive to economic growth.

## Overtaking Japan

GDP per person\* as % of United States



Source: Penn World Table

\*At purchasing-power parity

The Economist

Source: The Economist, retrieved from <https://www.economist.com/special-report/2019/12/05/after-half-a-century-of-success-the-asian-tigers-must-reinvent-themselves>

The two main focus of both theories has been on the importance of state factors such as human capital development and the accumulation of physical capital ((19); (25); (27)). There have also been other important contributions to economic growth literature that focus either on the impact of efficiency factors on economic growth (3) or on the importance of fundamental sources of economic growth, i.e., institutions, legal, demographic, geographic, socioeconomic, and political factors ((4); (26)).

It is a consensus that state factors (human capital stock and physical capital accumulation) and productivity factors (technological growth) are crucial determinants of economic growth. In the context of the five East Asian countries during the almost four decades following World War II's end, they have experienced rapid, sustained growth. This is unusual among developing economies; others have grown quickly for periods but not for decades at such high rates. These economies were also characterized by rapid demographic transitions, strong and dynamic agricultural sectors, and unusually rapid export growth (23), which can help to explain why the idea that countries, or economies, far away from the productivity frontier should grow faster. This growth would tend to slow down with time and cannot be fully applied in the context of East Asia. In the five countries we are considering, we have to account for other factors besides productivity levels if we aim to explain their levels of economic development.

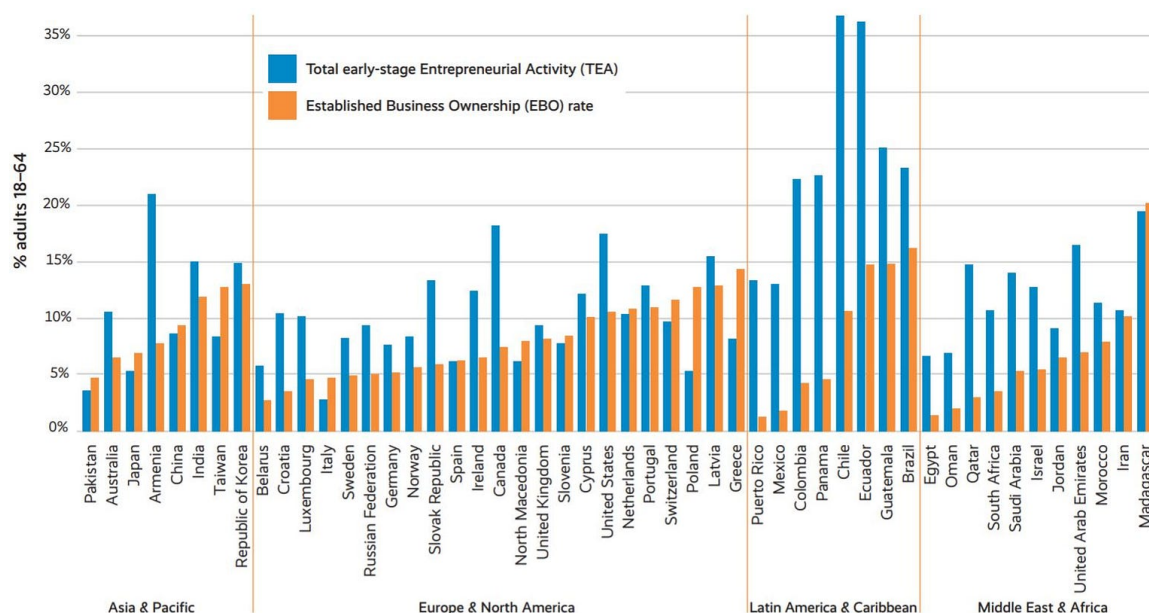
These five countries are also unique in the context of having enjoyed much higher per capita income growth while income distribution has been more equal than in other developing economies. In the second half of the twentieth century, East Asian countries experienced income and general well-being improvements never seen before (6). People in East Asia have seen their per-capita GDP grow by an average of 4.5% annually since 1960, which makes them about nine times as prosperous as two generations ago (12). When we compare them to the average person in Latin America, who is only about two and a half times as prosperous, we can infer that their development was, and remains to this day, unique.

These economies became a puzzle in terms of economic and social development per se and the processes and frameworks that have allowed their progress to diverge from what many people, including many Easy Asians themselves, once regarded as the "best practice" (6). Going against the Washington Consensus policies of inflation-focused macroeconomic policy, liberalized international trade and investment, deregulation, and privatization, all economies except Hong Kong employed interventionist trade and industrial policies (often through a large public-enterprise sector), a strict control on FDI (apart from Japan) and on luxury consumption, a productivity-oriented (as opposed to allocation-oriented) view of competition, and especially an integrated pursuit of infant industry protection and export promotion (6). In summary, as Page points out, the sustained growth of the NICs and Japan for more than thirty years was a combination of several factors: favorable public policies that fostered macroeconomic stability (particularly low inflation and small fiscal deficits) and exports growth, institutions that were responsible for creating a business-friendly environment, accumulation of both human and physical capital, efficient allocation of resources and flexible labor markets, openness to foreign technology and the promotion of specific industries (23).

## 2.1 Entrepreneurship and Innovation (Ebner, 2009)

In the economies we are considering, in one form or another, the government intervened - systematically and through multiple channels - to foster development. According to Ebner, Schumpeter's original position on the historical specificity of entrepreneurship involves the state's temporary exercise of industrial leadership (10). He maintains that the state may exercise this entrepreneurial function in two ways: first-order entrepreneurship, which involves the enforcing of rules that promote innovation activities of the private sector, and second-order entrepreneurship, which reflects selective policy interventions and the promotion of innovation in public enterprises (10). In this setting, the state must be perceived as an institutional terrain for the bargaining procedures among political-economic groups and factions pursuing conflicting strategic interests. The state is then considered a developmental state, acting as a mediator, facilitator, and driver for industrialization through entrepreneurship and other means.

Ebner argues that the regulatory function of states in Western economies, which pioneered the historical advent of industrialization, would focus on rules governing the economic process. In contrast, states in late industrializing economies, such as Japan, would exhibit a developmental function in leading the national drive for industrialization (10). Moreover, industrialization was at the core of East Asian development after the end of the War (and at Japan's core even before). We can divide the countries into two distinct groups: the investment-driven economy of Singapore and the productivity-driven economies of Japan, South Korea, Hong Kong, and Taiwan.



**FIGURE 3.2** Total early-stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) and Established Business Ownership (EBO) rates (% adults 18-64)

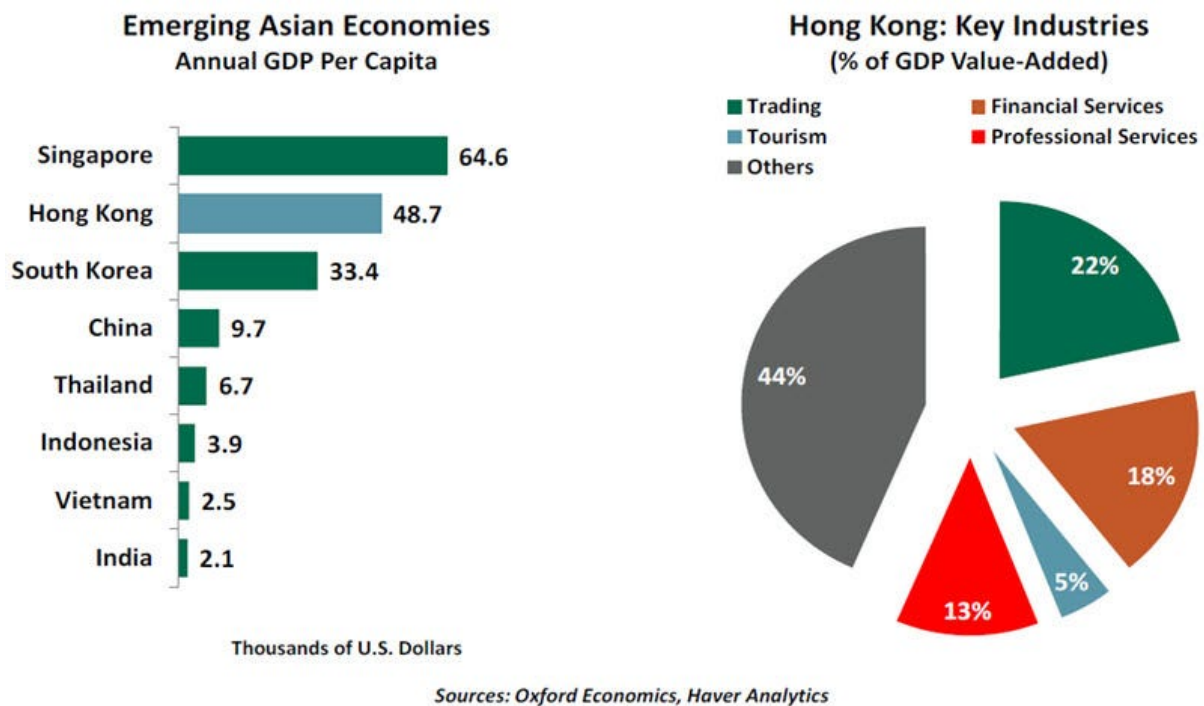
Source: GEM Adult Population Survey, 2019

Source: GEM, retrieved from <https://www.gemconsortium.org/file/open?fileId=50443>

South Korea's economy was based primarily on agriculture. In the 1960s, the young nation began the redistribution of land previously held by the Imperial Japanese government, and with the help of the U.S. military, the government started privatizing properties. After the Korean War, policymakers set out to stimulate economic growth by promoting indigenous industrial firms, but this did not work out. Starting with the Third Republic in 1961, General 박정희 Park Chung Hee shifted to stimulating growth through export promotion while maintaining the previously adopted import-substitution industrialization. Policymakers provided various favors - low-interest loans being the most important - to exporting firms according to their export performance.

Hong Kong's industrialization accelerated after 1945 with the inflow of refugees, entrepreneurs, and capital fleeing the civil War on the mainland. Immigrants from Shanghai created the cotton spinning industry in the colony, cemented Hong Kong's industry in the textile sector, and gradually diversified

into electronics, clothing, plastics, and other labor-intensive production, mainly for export.



Source: Northern Trust, retrieved from <https://www.northerntrust.com/japan/insights-research/2019/market-economic-commentary/wec/august-23>.

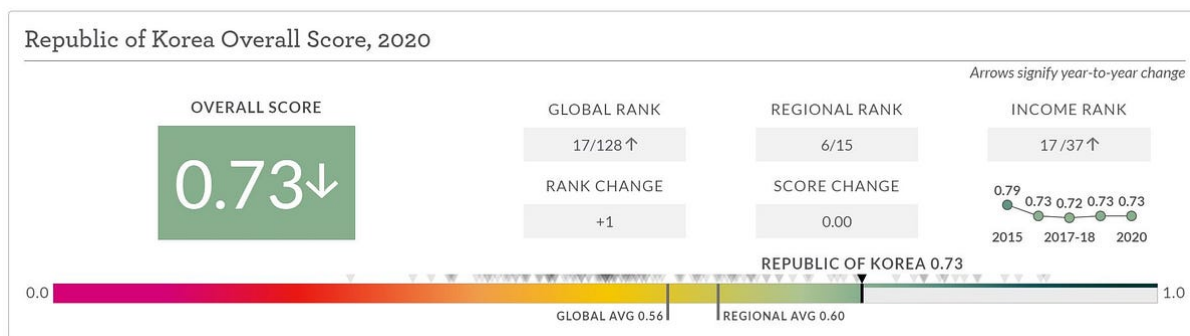
In 1961, Singapore's Economic Development Board (EDB) was created to lead Singapore's industrialization. It has addressed the industrialization of Singapore as a means to an end, not the end itself. In the 1960s and the 1970s, Singapore attracted labor-intensive industries and provided ready-built standard factories to facilitate speedy set-up for the companies (22). The key elements of this stage of industrialization were to eradicate unemployment and attract foreign investment. Singapore's industrialization was achieved greatly by attracting massive foreign investment flows, and the competition for foreign investment in the region has also been fierce (22). According to Ebner, Singapore represents a paradigmatic case of an evolving entrepreneurial state due to multinational enterprises having repeatedly introduced technological and organizational novelty into the local system while government-linked companies and government boards have been actively promoting innovation-driven economic change (10).

Like South Korea, Taiwan, which was also under Japanese rule for an extended period, started its industrialization first with land reform. Taiwan had a base for agricultural productive capacity before the War, and it was resumed without difficulty in the post-war era. Japan transferred back to the Taiwanese government the management of key enterprises accounting for 90% of the total capital of Taiwan's enterprises. Therefore, now-public enterprises would bear the burden of industrialization from the start. The subsequent process of industrialization took the form of private enterprises catching up with and surpassing public enterprises (18).

As Ebner highlights, the restructuring of government and administration lies at the heart of Japan's reorientation towards a more open, competitive, and entrepreneurial setting that includes a refurbished mode of governing state-society synergies (10). Japan, which was once referred to as the "Prussia of the East," is the country that resembles the West industrialization path the most - it was already considered fairly industrialized by the beginning of the twentieth century. Japan, especially during the Meiji Restoration, had a centrally organized and efficient government that received vast support from foreign powers. This helped its determined and efficient workforce create an advanced and productive industrial economy. After the War, domestic investment in industry and infrastructure was the driving force behind growth in Japanese output, with both private and public sectors investing in infrastructure. At the same time, national and local governments served as coordinating agents for infrastructure rebuild-up.

However, as Ebner writes, the role of government was limited, and it went up until a certain point - it is not supposed to be static and immutable. The state-guided adaptive technological learning process





Source: Overall index score, World Justice Project — The Rule of Law Index, 2020, retrieved from <https://worldjusticeproject.org/rule-of-law-index/>

in late industrialization may face stagnation as soon as the technology frontier is approached (10). When this is about to happen, or even sooner, the formation of local innovation capabilities becomes crucial, and the rationale of industrial policy shifts the emphasis from resource mobilization to the building of innovation infrastructures. Economic development is fundamentally a process of establishing relation-based governance and transitioning to rule-based governance (17). The transitory character of the developmental state thus reflects its relative economic success in moving firms and industries toward the technological frontier (10).

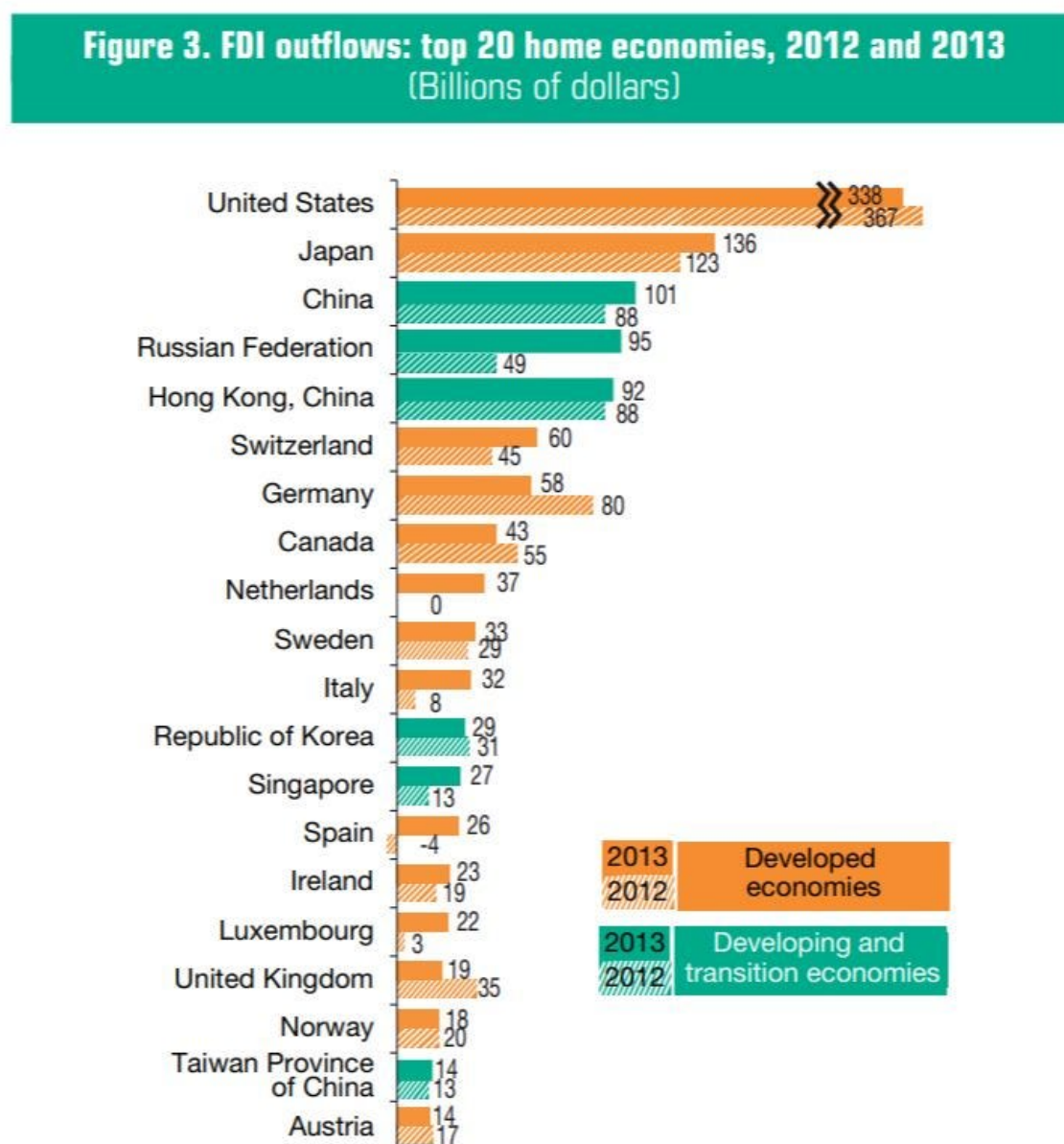
It is safe to say that all the aforementioned countries realized the approaching finish line and acted to diminish the damage it would cause. Today, they rank among the first 30 largest economies in terms of GDP per capita<sup>4</sup>, according to the IMF (2021). For a complementary study, see Lau and Park (2003)(16).

<sup>4</sup>Singapore in second place, Hong Kong in eightieth, Taiwan in twentieth, South Korea in twenty-fifth, and Japan in twenty-seventh.



## 2.2 Financial markets (Stiglitz and Uy, 1996)

Another example of interventionism being a key driver in the East Asian miracle - and sometimes also a barrier to it - can be found in public policies affecting financial markets. In an article published at the blink of the Asian financial crisis of 1997, Stiglitz and Uy write that East Asian governments overall have intervened intensively in the operations of their financial systems: they have helped create financial markets and institutions, regulated them heavily, and directed credit to some industries and away from others (29). These actions aimed to foster savings and affect the allocation of investments (29). By having high national saving rates, mainly achieved by voluntary actions, they could invest their savings in ways that yield high returns. Government interventions in the financial market that promoted savings and efficient capital allocation were central to these successes.



Source: World Investment Report, 2014, retrieved from [https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/wir2014\\_en.pdf](https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/wir2014_en.pdf)

Government interventions were implemented to make financial markets and institutions work better. When they work well, marginal returns are equated in all sectors and firms. Without this intermediation,

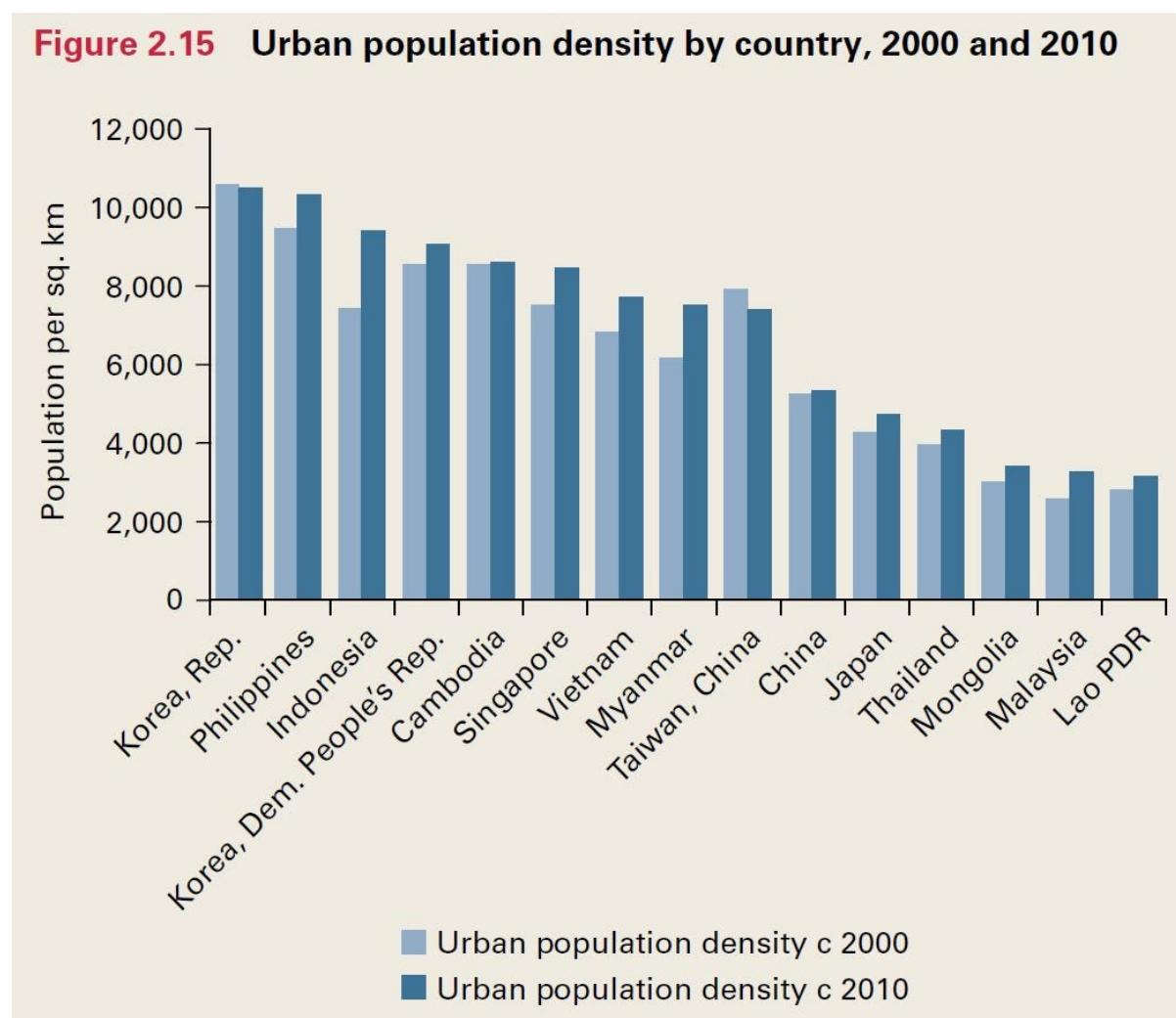


firms would have to rely solely on retained earnings for their investments. By broadly spreading and pooling risks, capital markets lower risk premiums so that firms can undertake investments with greater risks and higher expected returns. However, suppose the marginal private returns from investment are equated in all sectors and firms. In that case, capital may not be allocated efficiently if systematic deviations exist between private and social returns. Here enters the second objective of government intervention in financial markets: correcting any resulting resource misallocation.

Stiglitz and Uy point to five crucial government interventions: promoting savings (the postal saving systems in Japan, Singapore, and Taiwan were the most important of the institutions governments created to promote savings), regulating banks to fortify their solvency (private monitoring is not sufficient to prevent a financial crisis), creating financial institutions and markets (banks offering long-term credit have been among the most common government-created financial institutions), enforcing financial restraint (which enhances the ability of firms to increase their equity, and hence their level of investment and their ability and willingness to take prudent risks), and intervening directly in the allocation of credit (the government directs credit by investing in public enterprises, using its development banks to lend to priority areas - in order to signal to other financial institutions what these areas are -, and compelling commercial banks to lend to designated activities).

The authors conclude by pointing out what is remarkable regarding East Asian governments: they undertook actions (such as prudential regulation) similar to those of more industrial countries. They did so at an earlier stage of development. Something exceptional about these regulatory initiatives is that they succeeded without the abuses that often follow them elsewhere. East Asian governments sought not to replace markets and market forces but to use and direct them. Government lending programs complemented private lending: they did not replace or displace it. Many specific institutions, programs, and practices contributing to East Asia's success can be replicated elsewhere to achieve similar results. However, the main concern when implementing such practices is giving too much power to the state: activist policies often entail giving governments discretionary capacity that can be easily abused, contributing to the failure of these same policies. Several East Asian institutions were imbued with the tools to reduce their vulnerability, and these arrangements can and should be pursued in other places.

## 2.3 Urbanization (Zhang et al., 2019)



Source: Urban Development Series, retrieved from <https://shorturl.at/s39ze>

Zhang et al.'s study focuses on developing a model to explain the East Asian miracle by bringing in urbanization (or structural transformation), which generates demand for capital and helps moderate the K/L ratio, so the law is postponed until urbanization is approaching the end when diminishing returns set in. Because urbanization provides investment opportunities and helps moderate the K/L ratio - as it means a transfer of labor to the urban sector where most investment occurs - it can help explain why Japan and the East Asian NICs had a prolonged high rate of investment which high returns to capital have accompanied.

Urbanization, here, is hypothesized to be one such force that could drive the growth of TFP by allowing knowledge accumulation through "learning by doing." Their two-sector model is verified by empirical evidence from China, where rapid urbanization made it possible to empirically identify and estimate the relationship between regional capital returns, capital deepening, and urbanization (33).

The authors' two-sector general equilibrium model shows that capital return will depict an inverse U-shape in the presence of urbanization as long as the "learning by doing" effect is sufficiently large. Thus, the prevailing practice of most developing countries to slow down urbanization should be avoided if one wants to increase structural transformation and industrial upgrading. They also write that their theoretical framework can be extended to incorporate the human capital accumulation of migrants, which is expected to reinforce their results.

## 2.4 Factor accumulation (Young, 1995)

In this paper, Young attempts to explain the high levels of productivity growth, particularly in the manufacturing sectors of the four East Asian NICs. He finds results that are opposite to those he expected. While the growth of output and manufacturing exports in the newly industrializing economies of East Asia was virtually unprecedented, the growth of TFP in these economies was not. From 1960 to 1995, productivity growth in the aggregate non-agricultural economy of the NICs ranged from a low of -0.3% in Singapore to a high of 2.3% in Hong Kong, whereas in manufacturing productivity growth ranged from a low of -1.0% in Singapore to a high of 2.9% in South Korea. According to him, neo-classical growth theory's emphasis on level changes in income and its well-articulated quantitative framework can explain most, if not all, of the difference between the performance of the NICs and that of other post-war economies (32).

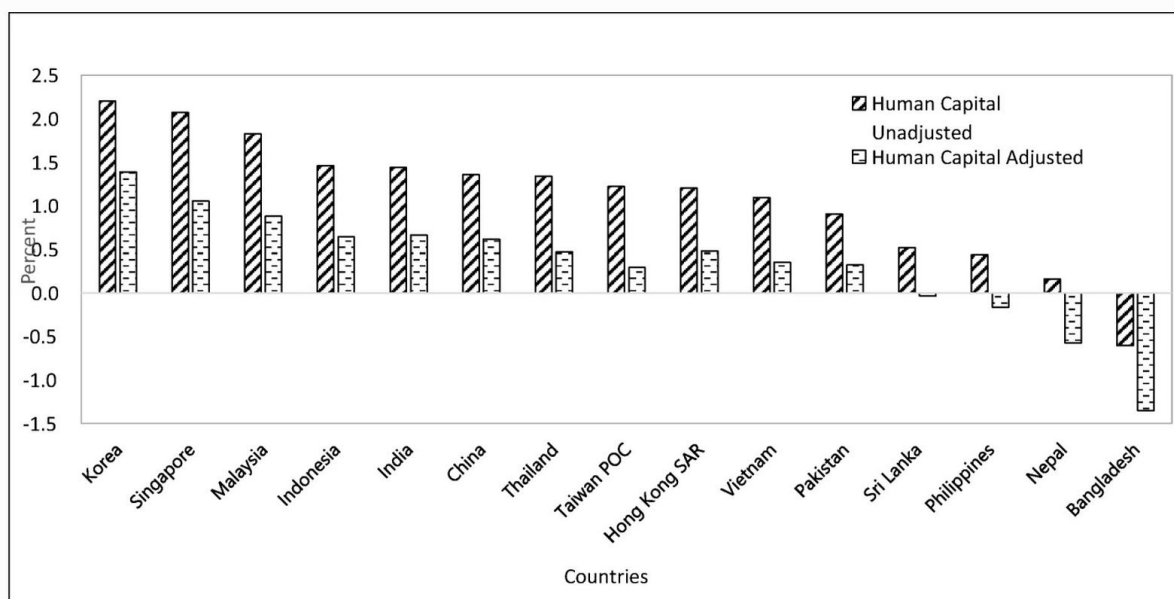
Young argues, with data, that although the growth of manufacturing output has been unusually rapid in the NICs economies, so has the growth of manufacturing employment. Therefore, once we account for the transfer of labor into manufacturing, we can see that both Singapore and Taiwan underperformed in the aggregate economy.

Human capital accumulation in the East Asian NICs has been relatively rapid: from 1960 to 1995, the proportion of the working population with a secondary education or more doubled in Hong Kong and Taiwan, tripled in Korea, and quadrupled in Singapore. By 1990–1991, between 18 and 20% of the working population in each economy had some tertiary education, and the improvement of educational attainment of the workforce contributed to about 1% per annum additional growth in labor input in each of these economies. Regarding Singapore's -0.3% productivity growth, Young's rationale is that, although the late 1960s appear to have been a period of rapid productivity growth, these gains were partially lost during the 1970s and 1980s. With weighted capital input growing an average of 3.0% p.a. faster than output and output per unit of effective labor input growing only 2.8% p.a., the TFP residual for the aggregate economy averaged -0.3% p.a. over a twenty-four-year period, which was virtually an unprecedented record of productivity regress. He also finds that the changing role of physical and human capital accumulation in sustaining growth was reflected in the decline in the growth of output per effective worker, which went from 9.2% in the late 1960s to 2.7% in the 1970s to 0.2% in the 1980s.

Hong Kong sustained a TFP growth rate of 2% or more in each five-year period, averaging 2.3% over the 1966–1991 period as a whole. As for South Korea, productivity growth in its economy appears to have improved over time, with the average 2.5% growth of the 1980s well above the .8% and 1% growth experienced during the 1960s and 1970s, respectively, with manufacturing having had the highest average level of productivity growth (with averages of 2% to 3% per decade). Taiwan had an average rate of productivity growth comparable to Hong Kong's, but its sectoral productivity growth had a different pattern from South Korea's.

Young points out that despite his study producing results smaller than the ones produced by other authors, there is soundness in the others' reasoning. Even so, one must not let himself be taken away by a discourse that paints incredibly high productivity growth levels, especially in their manufacturing sectors, in the NICs considered. His results suggest that such a premise is largely incorrect. In a paper published in 1996 by Collins and Bosworth, they reach similar conclusions to Young's: much of the East Asian growth occurred after 1973 when TFP gains were smaller throughout the industrial economies (8). However, given the magnitude of the technology gap, it is not easy to see why developments at the frontier were relevant to East Asia (8). They argue that, to varying degrees, the East Asian economies followed Japan in pursuing a development strategy involving the sequenced promotion of low, middle, and high-technology industries. However, unlike Japan in the 1960s, the increase in TFP was modest. The East Asian NICs have become more like Japan, and Japan has become more like the non-Asian developed economies, regarding the sources of their economic growth (16).

While technological progress enabled the engine of long-run growth, accumulation would play an independent role during a (perhaps prolonged) transitional phase (8). The authors remember that Krugman, among others, has suggested that East Asia's growth must slow in the future because of what he characterizes as an excessive reliance on capital formation. Nevertheless, this was back in the 1990s; therefore, it would be interesting to see follow-up research on how capital formation in the East Asian NICs and Japan evolved after the 1997 crisis.



**Growth of Total Factor Productivity: 1974–2014** Sources: World Economic Outlook (International Monetary Fund 2016); and authors' estimates

Retrieved from <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s11293-019-09642-5>

### 3 Conclusion

What most economists in the West fail to see is the fact that the East Asian form of economic development had already made its debut long before the Keynesian revolution and neoclassical counter-revolution; the prototype of the East Asian model can be traced back to Meiji Japan (15). The East Asian NICs and Japan might have drawn inspiration and borrowed technology and scientific knowledge from the West. However, how they had initially imagined, organized, and executed their development was specific to that region, with the government playing a key role in almost every aspect of the venture, in some economies more than others (15).

Governments, in summary, created an environment where markets could thrive. No single policy ensured success, nor did the absence of any single ingredient ensure failure; thus, the real miracle of East Asia may be political more than economic (28).

Whether we decide to call it a miracle or not, the increases in income and reductions in poverty in East Asia were real and impressive. We might disagree about the extent to which one or more economic growth determinants were responsible for improving the lives of at least 20% of the world's population, but we cannot ignore the roles they played. It is tricky to advocate for replicating many policies that were put in place in the three decades East Asia transformed itself, nor do we have the controlled experiments that would allow us to assess what would have happened had they not been executed (28). Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore, all faced its challenges. Today, we can attest that diminishing returns eventually set in - not only to capital but to investments in knowledge and that comparative advantage does not last forever. There must be a constant desire to innovate and remain competitive in an ever-growing globalized world.

As argued by Kowalski and Ossella (2000), many economists have tried to - unsuccessfully - determine what factors have contributed to Japan and East Asian NICs growth in an attempt to mimic it in other developing countries (13). Theory suggests that private markets and increased human and physical capital can account for most of the growth in East Asia. However, the reality is more diverse, reminding us to account for government intervention. Maybe the explanation lies in the middle: a market-friendly policy put in place by governments, one that has been structured in the best way to encourage privatization and strong labor markets. We might never fully understand what happened in those three decades, and it is okay. We will keep on trying.

## References

- [1] AGHION, P., HOWITT, P., HOWITT, P. W., BRANT-COLLETT, M., AND GARCÍA-PEÑALOSA, C. *Endogenous growth theory*. MIT press, 1998.
- [2] BALASSA, B. The lessons of east asian development: An overview. *Economic development and cultural change* 36, S3 (1988), S273–S290.
- [3] BARRO, R. J. Government spending in a simple model of endogenous growth. *Journal of political economy* 98, 5, Part 2 (1990), S103–S125.
- [4] BARRO, R. J. Notes on growth accounting. *Journal of economic growth* 4, 2 (1999), 119–137.
- [5] BIRDSALL, N., AND PAGE, J. *East Asian miracle: Economic growth and public policy*. World Bank, Policy Research Department, 1993.
- [6] CHANG, H.-J. *The East Asian development experience: The miracle, the crisis and the future*. Zed Books, 2006.
- [7] CHU, Y.-H. State structure and economic adjustment of the east asian newly industrializing countries. *International Organization* (1989), 647–672.
- [8] COLLINS, S. M., BOSWORTH, B. P., AND RODRIK, D. Economic growth in east asia: accumulation versus assimilation. *Brookings papers on economic activity* 1996, 2 (1996), 135–203.
- [9] DEYO, F. C., HAGGARD, S., AND KOO, H. Labor in the political economy of east asian industrialization. *Bulletin of Concerned Asian Scholars* 19, 2 (1987), 42–53.
- [10] EBNER, A. Entrepreneurial state: The schumpeterian theory of industrial policy and the east asian "miracle". In *Schumpeterian perspectives on innovation, competition and growth*. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2009, pp. 369–390.
- [11] HAGGARD, S. The east asian nics in comparative perspective. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 505, 1 (1989), 129–141.
- [12] HANUSHEK, E. A., AND WOESSMANN, L. Knowledge capital, growth, and the east asian miracle. *Science* 351, 6271 (2016), 344–345.
- [13] KOWALSKI, E., AND OSSELLA, I. Determinants of economic growth in east asia, 2019.
- [14] KRUGMAN, P. The myth of asia’s miracle. *Foreign affairs* (1994), 62–78.
- [15] KWON, J. The east asia challenge to neoclassical orthodoxy. *World Development* 22, 4 (1994), 635–644.
- [16] LAU, L. J., AND PARK, J. The sources of east asian economic growth revisited. In *Conference on International and Development Economics in Honor Henry Y. Wan, Jr., Cornell University, Ithaca* (2003).
- [17] LI, J. S. Relation-based versus rule-based governance: An explanation of the east asian miracle and asian crisis. *Review of international economics* 11, 4 (2003), 651–673.
- [18] LIU, T.-C. The process of industrialization in taiwan. *The Developing Economies* 7, 1 (1969), 63–80.
- [19] LUCAS, R. E. Making a miracle. *Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society* (1993), 251–272.
- [20] MANKIW, N. G., ROMER, D., AND WEIL, D. N. A contribution to the empirics of economic growth. *The quarterly journal of economics* 107, 2 (1992), 407–437.
- [21] MCCORD, W. Explaining the east asian" miracle". *The National Interest*, 16 (1989), 74–82.
- [22] MONDEJA, M. Notes on singapore’s development strategy, 2017.
- [23] PAGE, J. *The East Asian miracle: four lessons for development policy*, vol. 9. MIT Press, 1994, pp. 219–269.

- [24] RANIS, G. The role of institutions in transition growth: The east asian newly industrializing countries. *World Development* 17, 9 (1989), 1443–1453.
- [25] ROMER, P. M. Increasing returns and long-run growth. *Journal of political economy* 94, 5 (1986), 1002–1037.
- [26] SACHS, J. D., AND WARNER, A. M. Fundamental sources of long-run growth. *The American economic review* 87, 2 (1997), 184–188.
- [27] SOLOW, R. M. A contribution to the theory of economic growth. *The quarterly journal of economics* 70, 1 (1956), 65–94.
- [28] STIGLITZ, J. E. Some lessons from the east asian miracle. *The world Bank research observer* 11, 2 (1996), 151–177.
- [29] STIGLITZ, J. E., AND UY, M. Financial markets, public policy, and the east asian miracle. *The World Bank Research Observer* 11, 2 (1996), 249–276.
- [30] SWAN, T. W. Economic growth and capital accumulation. *Economic record* 32, 2 (1956), 334–361.
- [31] WHITE, G., Ed. *Developmental States in East Asia*. Springer, 1988.
- [32] YOUNG, A. The tyranny of numbers: confronting the statistical realities of the east asian growth experience. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 110, 3 (1995), 641–680.
- [33] ZHANG, X., WAN, G., LUO, Z., AND WANG, C. Explaining the east asia miracle: The role of urbanization. *Economic Systems* 43, 2 (2019), 100697.

## 4 Suggested readings

- Growth theories in light of the East Asian experience (Ito and Kruger, 2019).
- Rethinking the East Asian Miracle (Stiglitz and Yusuf, 2001).
- Making a miracle (Lucas, 1993).
- The East Asian Miracle and Development Policy: A Twenty-Year Retrospective (Page, 2016).
- Economic Growth in East Asia: Accumulation versus Assimilation (Collins et al., 1996).
- The Total Factor Productivity Debate: Determinants of Economic Growth in East Asia (Chen, 1997).