

# Cross-country Income Differences

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# Introduction

We study why there are rich and poor countries.

This borrows heavily from [Caselli \(2005\)](#).

You should also read [Acemoglu \(2009\)](#)

# A Simple Start

A common view in the literature:

productivity accounts for at least half of cross-country income variation.

We build up this result and then look at recent contributions.

# Development Accounting

The basic framework postulates

$$y = Ak^{\alpha}h^{1-\alpha}$$

where

- $y$ : gdp per worker (PPP)
- $k$ : capital per worker
- $h$ : human capital per worker

A key parameter:  $\alpha = 1/3$

- observable as the capital share – around 1/3 in the U.S.
- Gollin (2002) argues that the capital share is roughly the same in rich and poor countries
- that motivates the Cobb-Douglas functional form
- but it may not actually be true

## The basic question

The ratio of rich to poor incomes is given by

$$\frac{y_{rich}}{y_{poor}} = \frac{A_{rich}}{A_{poor}} \left( \frac{k_{rich}}{k_{poor}} \right)^{\alpha} \left( \frac{h_{rich}}{h_{poor}} \right)^{1-\alpha}$$

How big are the contributions of inputs  $(k, h)$  and “productivity”  $A$ ?

# Measurement

GDP:

- we assume that the PWT got this right.

Capital:

- we have data on investment (quantities)
  - meaning: expenditures deflated by the local price of capital
- perpetual inventory method:  $K_{t+1} = (1 - \delta) K_t + I_t$
- assumption:  $K_0 = I_0 / (g + \delta)$
- $I_0$ : investment up to 1970 (or something like it)
- $\delta = 0.06$ : based on studies of depreciation in rich countries

## Measurement: Human capital

Here, things get tricky.

The standard approach follows Hall and Jones (1999)

$$h = e^{\phi(s)}$$

$s$ : average years of schooling of population over age 25 (Barro-Lee)

$\phi(s)$ : piecewise linear with slopes

- 0.13 for  $s \leq 4$
- 0.10 for  $4 < s \leq 8$
- 0.07 for  $s > 8$



The rationale for this:

- assume that workers are paid their marginal products
- then variation of wages within countries reveals  $\phi(s)$
- cross-country data show that  $\phi(s)$  is higher in countries with low schooling (Psacharopoulos)
- that last fact is probably not true

Implicit assumptions:

- $h(0)$  is the same everywhere
- a year of schooling is the same everywhere

## Measures of success

Define  $y_{KH} = k^\alpha h^{1-\alpha}$ .

Variation in  $y_{KH}$  is explained by inputs.

Fraction of income variation due to factors according to Caselli (2005):

$$success1 = \frac{var [\ln y_{KH}]}{var [\ln y]} = 0.39$$

$$success2 = \frac{y_{KH}^{90}/y_{KH}^{10}}{y^{90}/y^{10}} = 0.34$$

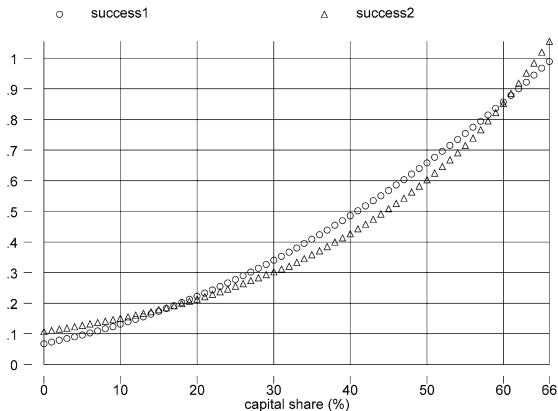
**Exercise:** Replicate these figures.

# Robustness

Quantitatively not important (Caselli, 2005)

- depreciation rate  $\delta$
- how  $K_0$  is constructed
- reasonable variation in  $\phi(s)$ 
  - as long as it is consistent with wage data
  - return to schooling could be higher if there a big externalities
- differences in hours worked
  - hours are lower in richer countries

## Robustness: Capital share



Higher capital share  $\Rightarrow$  higher success

Because capital varies more than *h*.

## Robustness: School Quality

Since we observe wages by schooling, school quality cannot affect  $\phi(s)$ .

So we must assume it affects  $h(0)$ :

$$h = A_h e^{\phi(s)} \quad (1)$$

The problem: if this is the quality of learning, why does it affect all workers equally?

For this to make sense, we need workers with different  $s$  to be imperfect substitutes.

We will return to this later.

## A simple specification (Caselli 2005):

$$A_h = p^{\phi_p} m^{\phi_m} k_h^{\phi_k} h_t^{\phi_h} \quad (2)$$

This is freely invented.

The inputs are:

- $p$ : teacher-pupil ratio
- $m$ : teaching materials per student
- $k_h$ : capital in education sector
- $h_t$ : teacher human capital.

Why these inputs?

- because we can observe them

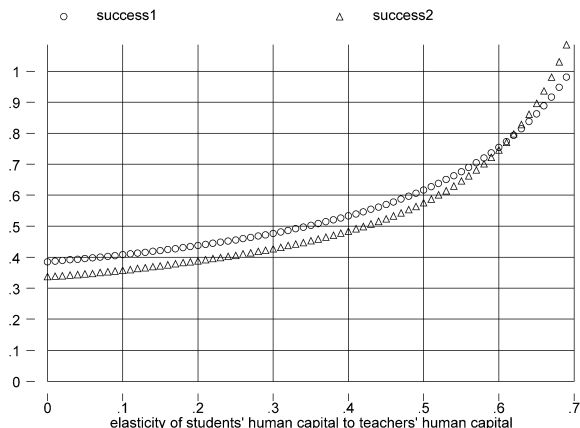
Problem: we don't know anything about the elasticities

- in micro studies using rich country data, the elasticities look like 0
- but there are measurement issues (Hanushek)

## A special case

Only include teacher human capital (Bils and Klenow, 2000)

Assume steady state:  $h_t = h$ .



Source: Caselli (2005)

Clearly, quality could be important.

Problem: how to estimate the  $h$  production function?

Later, we look at some sophisticated efforts to do just this.

## Promising Ideas

### Test scores

Assume that  $A_h = e^{\phi_\tau \tau}$

$\tau$  is a standardized test score.

Problem:

within a country, a 1 standard deviation increase in test scores increases earnings by at most 20%

See Hanushek and Woessman (2008)

### Health

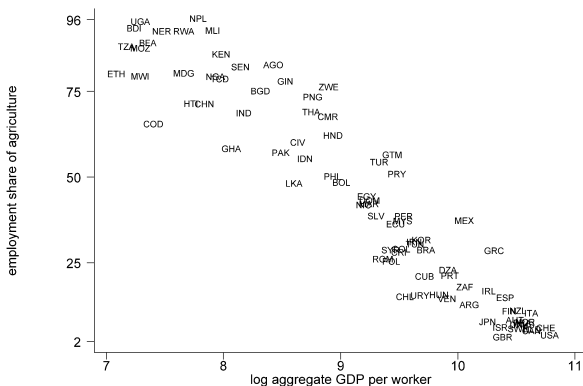
Any measure of health (e.g. mortality) is strongly related to income.

Problem: how to quantify the effect of health on  $h$ ?



# Agriculture

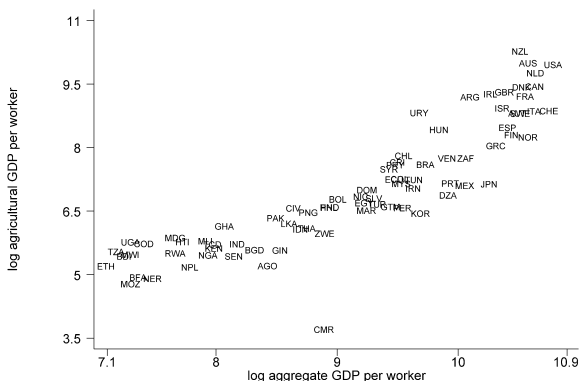
Fact: fraction of workers in agriculture varies from essentially 0 to essentially 1.



Source: Caselli (2005)

# Large Variation in Ag Productivity

Variation in Ag productivity is much greater than variation in non-ag productivity



Source: Caselli (2005)

The pattern: low income countries employ large amounts of labor in a sector with particularly low productivity.

## How much does this matter?

A counterfactual experiment by [Caselli \(2005\)](#):  
moving all labor into industry (holding productivity constant)  
would cut cross-country income differences by 3/4

This provides the background for papers that ask:

1. Why is so much labor employed in the wrong sector in low income countries?
  - (a) [Gollin, Parente, and Rogerson \(2002\)](#)
  - (b) [Gollin, Parente, and Rogerson \(2007\)](#)
  - (c) [Restuccia, Yang, and Zhu \(2007\)](#)
2. Why is labor productivity so low in agriculture
  - (a) [Gollin, Lagakos, and Waugh \(2011\)](#)
  - (b) [Lagakos and Waugh \(2013\)](#)
  - (c) [Herrendorf and Schoellman \(2011\)](#)

# Non-neutral Productivity Differences

What if we relax the Cobb-Douglas assumption?

For example:

$$Y = [\alpha (A_k K)^\sigma + (1 - \alpha) (A_h h L)^\sigma]^{1/\sigma} \quad (3)$$

with elasticity of substitution  $\eta = 1 / (1 - \sigma)$ .

**Parameterizing this:** Assume that factors are paid marginal products:

$$r = \alpha (y/k)^{1-\sigma} A_k^\sigma \quad (4)$$

$$w = (1 - \alpha) (y/h)^{1-\sigma} A_h^\sigma \quad (5)$$

Given data on  $y, k, h, r, w$ , we can back out productivities:

$$A_k = (S_k / \alpha)^{1/\sigma} y/k \quad (6)$$

$$A_h = (S_h / (1 - \alpha))^{1/\sigma} y/h \quad (7)$$

where  $S_k, S_h$  are factor income shares.

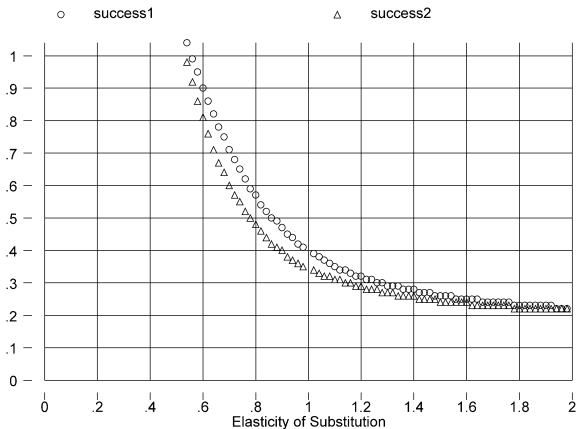
Problem: we don't know much about  $\eta$ .

## Implications

1. For any reasonable value of  $\eta$  not close to 1 (Cobb-Douglas),
  - (a)  $A_h$  is positively related to  $y$ , but
  - (b)  $A_k$  is *negatively* related to  $y$ .
2. A generalization: extend the model to have skilled and unskilled labor, then: poor countries use
  - (a) skilled labor less efficiently
  - (b) unskilled labor *more* efficiently (Caselli and Coleman, 2006).
3. If the elasticity of substitution between factors is low enough, factor inputs account for a large share of cross-country income gaps.

## Illustration from the 2 factor ( $k, h$ ) model

Assume that all countries use the U.S. technology

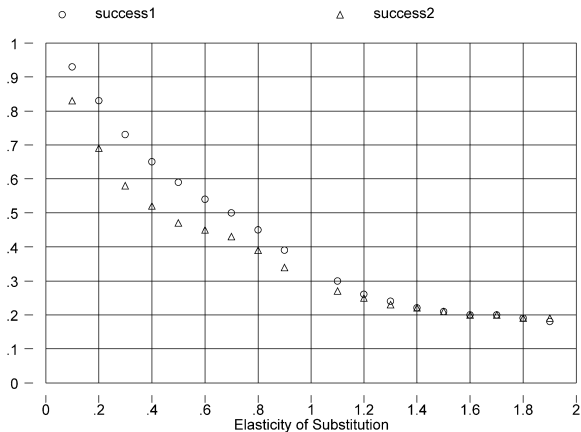


This experiment is a bit awkward.

It forces low income countries to use a  $k$  intensive technology, even though their endowments are  $h$  intensive.

Alternative experiment:

Let each country choose from the menu of technologies observed in the data.



The conclusion remains: the Cobb-Douglas assumption matters.



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