

14.452 Economic Growth: Lecture 4, The Solow Growth Model and the Data

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November 8, 2016.

Solow Growth Model and the Data

- Use Solow model or extensions to interpret both economic growth over time and cross-country output differences.
- Focus on *proximate causes* of economic growth.

Growth Accounting I

- Aggregate production function in its general form:

$$Y(t) = F[K(t), L(t), A(t)].$$

- Combined with competitive factor markets, gives Solow (1957) *growth accounting framework*.
- Continuous-time economy and differentiate the aggregate production function with respect to time.
- Dropping time dependence,

$$\frac{\dot{Y}}{Y} = \frac{F_A A}{Y} \frac{\dot{A}}{A} + \frac{F_K K}{Y} \frac{\dot{K}}{K} + \frac{F_L L}{Y} \frac{\dot{L}}{L}. \quad (1)$$

Growth Accounting II

- Denote growth rates of output, capital stock and labor by $g \equiv \dot{Y}/Y$, $g_K \equiv \dot{K}/K$ and $g_L \equiv \dot{L}/L$.
- Define the contribution of technology to growth as

$$x \equiv \frac{F_A A \dot{A}}{Y A}$$

- Recall with competitive factor markets, $w = F_L$ and $R = F_K$.
- Define factor shares as $\alpha_K \equiv RK/Y$ and $\alpha_L \equiv wL/Y$.
- Putting all these together, (1) the *fundamental growth accounting* equation

$$x = g - \alpha_K g_K - \alpha_L g_L. \quad (2)$$

- Gives estimate of contribution of technological progress, *Total Factor Productivity* (TFP) or Multi Factor Productivity as

$$\hat{x}(t) = g(t) - \alpha_K(t) g_K(t) - \alpha_L(t) g_L(t). \quad (3)$$

- All terms on right-hand side are “estimates” obtained with a range of assumptions from national accounts and other data sources.

Growth Accounting III

- In continuous time, equation (3) is exact.
- With discrete time, potential problem in using (3): over the time horizon factor shares can change.
- Use beginning-of-period or end-of-period values of α_K and α_L ?
 - Either might lead to seriously biased estimates.
 - Best way of avoiding such biases is to use as high-frequency data as possible.
 - Typically use factor shares calculated as the average of the beginning and end of period values.
- In discrete time, the analog of equation (3) becomes

$$\hat{x}_{t,t+1} = g_{t,t+1} - \bar{\alpha}_{K,t,t+1}g_{K,t,t+1} - \bar{\alpha}_{L,t,t+1}g_{L,t,t+1}, \quad (4)$$

- $g_{t,t+1}$ is the growth rate of output between t and $t + 1$; other growth rates defined analogously.

Growth Accounting IV

- Moreover,

$$\bar{\alpha}_{K,t,t+1} \equiv \frac{\alpha_K(t) + \alpha_K(t+1)}{2}$$
$$\text{and } \bar{\alpha}_{L,t,t+1} \equiv \frac{\alpha_L(t) + \alpha_L(t+1)}{2}$$

- Equation (4) would be a fairly good approximation to (3) when the difference between t and $t+1$ is small and the capital-labor ratio does not change much during this time interval.
- Solow's (1957) applied this framework to US data: a large part of the growth was due to technological progress.
- From early days, however, a number of pitfalls were recognized.
 - Moses Abramovitz (1956): dubbed the $\hat{\chi}$ term "the measure of our ignorance".
 - If we mismeasure g_L and g_K we will arrive at inflated estimates of $\hat{\chi}$.

Growth Accounting Results

- Example from Barro and Sala-i-Martin's textbook

Table 10.1
Growth Accounting for a Sample of Countries

| Country | (1) Growth Rate of GDP | (2) Contribution from Capital | (3) Contribution from Labor | (4) TFP Growth Rate |
|---|------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Panel A: OECD Countries, 1947-73 | | | | |
| Canada ($\alpha = 0.44$) | 0.0517 | 0.0254 (49%) | 0.0088 (17%) | 0.0175 (34%) |
| France ^a ($\alpha = 0.40$) | 0.0542 | 0.0225 (42%) | 0.0021 (4%) | 0.0296 (54%) |
| Germany ^a ($\alpha = 0.39$) | 0.0661 | 0.0269 (41%) | 0.0018 (3%) | 0.0374 (56%) |
| Italy ^b ($\alpha = 0.39$) | 0.0527 | 0.0180 (34%) | 0.0011 (2%) | 0.0337 (64%) |
| Japan ^a ($\alpha = 0.39$) | 0.0951 | 0.0328 (35%) | 0.0221 (23%) | 0.0402 (42%) |
| Netherlands ^c ($\alpha = 0.45$) | 0.0536 | 0.0247 (46%) | 0.0042 (8%) | 0.0248 (46%) |
| U.K. ^d ($\alpha = 0.38$) | 0.0373 | 0.0176 (47%) | 0.0003 (1%) | 0.0193 (52%) |
| U.S. ($\alpha = 0.40$) | 0.0402 | 0.0171 (43%) | 0.0095 (24%) | 0.0135 (34%) |
| Panel B: OECD Countries, 1960-95 | | | | |
| Canada ($\alpha = 0.42$) | 0.0369 | 0.0186 (51%) | 0.0123 (33%) | 0.0057 (16%) |
| France ($\alpha = 0.41$) | 0.0358 | 0.0180 (53%) | 0.0033 (10%) | 0.0130 (38%) |
| Germany ($\alpha = 0.39$) | 0.0312 | 0.0177 (56%) | 0.0014 (4%) | 0.0132 (42%) |
| Italy ($\alpha = 0.34$) | 0.0357 | 0.0182 (51%) | 0.0035 (9%) | 0.0153 (42%) |
| Japan ($\alpha = 0.43$) | 0.0566 | 0.0178 (31%) | 0.0125 (22%) | 0.0265 (47%) |
| U.K. ($\alpha = 0.37$) | 0.0221 | 0.0124 (56%) | 0.0017 (8%) | 0.0080 (36%) |
| U.S. ($\alpha = 0.39$) | 0.0318 | 0.0117 (37%) | 0.0127 (40%) | 0.0076 (24%) |

Table continued

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Growth Accounting Results (continued)

Table 10.1
(Continued)

| Country | (1) Growth Rate of GDP | (2) Contribution from Capital | (3) Contribution from Labor | (4) TFP Growth Rate |
|---|------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Panel C: Latin American Countries, 1940-90 | | | | |
| Argentina ($\alpha = 0.54$) | 0.0279 | 0.0128 (46%) | 0.0097 (35%) | 0.0054 (19%) |
| Brazil ($\alpha = 0.45$) | 0.0558 | 0.0294 (53%) | 0.0150 (27%) | 0.0114 (20%) |
| Chile ($\alpha = 0.52$) | 0.0362 | 0.0120 (33%) | 0.0103 (28%) | 0.0138 (38%) |
| Colombia ($\alpha = 0.63$) | 0.0454 | 0.0219 (48%) | 0.0152 (33%) | 0.0084 (19%) |
| Mexico ($\alpha = 0.69$) | 0.0522 | 0.0259 (50%) | 0.0150 (29%) | 0.0113 (22%) |
| Peru ($\alpha = 0.66$) | 0.0323 | 0.0252 (78%) | 0.0134 (41%) | -0.0062 (-19%) |
| Venezuela ($\alpha = 0.55$) | 0.0443 | 0.0254 (57%) | 0.0179 (40%) | 0.0011 (2%) |
| Panel D: East Asian Countries, 1966-90 | | | | |
| Hong Kong ^d ($\alpha = 0.37$) | 0.073 | 0.030 (41%) | 0.020 (28%) | 0.023 (32%) |
| Singapore ($\alpha = 0.49$) | 0.087 | 0.056 (65%) | 0.029 (33%) | 0.002 (2%) |
| South Korea ($\alpha = 0.30$) | 0.103 | 0.041 (40%) | 0.045 (44%) | 0.017 (16%) |
| Taiwan ($\alpha = 0.26$) | 0.094 | 0.032 (34%) | 0.036 (39%) | 0.026 (28%) |

Source: Panel A, columns 1-5: GDP; Panel C: Penn World Table; Panel D: Penn World Table and Human Capital (1966-90)

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Interpreting the Results

- Reasons for mismeasurement:
 - what matters is not labor hours, but effective labor hours
 - important—though difficult—to make adjustments for changes in the *human capital* of workers.
 - measurement of capital inputs:
 - in the theoretical model, capital corresponds to the final good used as input to produce more goods.
 - in practice, capital is machinery, need assumptions about how relative prices of machinery change over time.
 - typical assumption was to use capital expenditures but if machines become cheaper would severely underestimate g_K

A World of Augmented Solow Economies I

- Mankiw, Romer and Weil (1992) used regression analysis to take the augmented Solow model, with human capital, to data.
- Use the Cobb-Douglas model and envisage a world consisting of $j = 1, \dots, N$ countries.
- “Each country is an island”: countries do not interact (perhaps except for sharing some common technology growth).
- Country $j = 1, \dots, N$ has the aggregate production function:

$$Y_j(t) = K_j(t)^\alpha H_j(t)^\beta (A_j(t) L_j(t))^{1-\alpha-\beta}.$$

- Nests the basic Solow model without human capital when $\alpha = 0$.
- Countries differ in terms of their saving rates, $s_{k,j}$ and $s_{h,j}$, population growth rates, n_j , and technology growth rates $\dot{A}_j(t) / A_j(t) = g_j$.
- Define $k_j \equiv K_j / A_j L_j$ and $h_j \equiv H_j / A_j L_j$.

A World of Augmented Solow Economies II

- Focus on a world in which each country is in their steady state
- Assuming that human capital also has depreciation, at the rate δ_h , and it is accumulated with the saving rate s_h , steady state values for country j would be (to be derived in recitation):

$$k_j^* = \left(\left(\frac{s_{k,j}}{n_j + g_j + \delta_k} \right)^{1-\beta} \left(\frac{s_{h,j}}{n_j + g_j + \delta_h} \right)^\beta \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha-\beta}}$$

$$h_j^* = \left(\left(\frac{s_{k,j}}{n_j + g_j + \delta_k} \right)^\alpha \left(\frac{s_{h,j}}{n_j + g_j + \delta_h} \right)^{1-\alpha} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha-\beta}}$$

- Consequently:

$$y_j^*(t) \equiv \frac{Y(t)}{L(t)} \tag{5}$$

$$= A_j(t) \left(\frac{s_{k,j}}{n_j + g_j + \delta_k} \right)^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha-\beta}} \left(\frac{s_{h,j}}{n_j + g_j + \delta_h} \right)^{\frac{\beta}{1-\alpha-\beta}}$$

A World of Augmented Solow Economies II

- Here $y_j^*(t)$ stands for output per capita of country j along the balanced growth path.
- Note if g_j 's are not equal across countries, income per capita will diverge.
- Mankiw, Romer and Weil (1992) make the following assumption:

$$A_j(t) = \bar{A}_j \exp(gt).$$

- Countries differ according to technology *level*, (initial level \bar{A}_j) but they share the same common technology growth rate, g .

A World of Augmented Solow Economies III

- Using this together with (5) and taking logs, equation for the balanced growth path of income for country $j = 1, \dots, N$:

$$\ln y_j^*(t) = \ln \bar{A}_j + gt + \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \ln \left(\frac{s_{k,j}}{n_j + g + \delta_k} \right) + \frac{\beta}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \ln \left(\frac{s_{h,j}}{n_j + g + \delta_h} \right). \quad (6)$$

- Mankiw, Romer and Weil (1992) take:
 - $\delta_k = \delta_h = \delta$ and $\delta + g = 0.05$.
 - $s_{k,j}$ = average investment rates (investments/GDP).
 - $s_{h,j}$ = fraction of the school-age population that is enrolled in secondary school.

A World of Augmented Solow Economies IV

- Even with all of these assumptions, (6) can still not be estimated consistently.
- $\ln \bar{A}_j$ is unobserved (at least to the econometrician) and thus will be captured by the error term.
- Most reasonable models would suggest $\ln \bar{A}_j$'s should be correlated with investment rates.
- Thus an estimation of (6) would lead to omitted variable bias and inconsistent estimates.
- Implicitly, MRW make another *crucial* assumption, the **orthogonal technology assumption**:

$$\bar{A}_j = \varepsilon_j A, \text{ with } \varepsilon_j \text{ orthogonal to all other variables.}$$

Cross-Country Income Differences: Regressions I

- MRW first estimate equation (6) without the human capital term for the cross-sectional sample of non-oil producing countries

$$\ln y_j^* = \text{constant} + \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} \ln(s_{k,j}) - \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} \ln(n_j + g + \delta_k) + \varepsilon_j.$$

Cross-Country Income Differences: Regressions II

Estimates of the Basic Solow Model

| | MRW 1985 | Updated data 1985 2000 | |
|-----------------------|----------------|------------------------------|----------------|
| $\ln(s_k)$ | 1.42 (.14) | 1.01 (.11) | 1.22 (.13) |
| $\ln(n + g + \delta)$ | -1.97 (.56) | -1.12 (.55) | -1.31 (.36) |
| Adj R^2 | .59 | .49 | .49 |
| Implied α | .59 | .50 | .55 |
| No. of observations | 98 | 98 | 107 |

Cross-Country Income Differences: Regressions III

- Their estimates for $\alpha / (1 - \alpha)$, implies that α must be around 2/3, but should be around 1/3.
- The most natural reason for the high implied values of α is that ε_j is correlated with $\ln(s_{k,j})$, either because:
 - 1 the orthogonal technology assumption is not a good approximation to reality or
 - 2 there are also human capital differences correlated with $\ln(s_{k,j})$.
- Mankiw, Romer and Weil favor the second interpretation and estimate the augmented model,

$$\ln y_j^* = \text{cst} + \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \ln(s_{k,j}) - \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \ln(n_j + g + \delta_k) \quad (7)$$

$$+ \frac{\beta}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \ln(s_{h,j}) - \frac{\beta}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \ln(n_j + g + \delta_h) + \varepsilon_j.$$

Estimates of the Augmented Solow Model

| | MRW 1985 | Updated data 1985 2000 | |
|-----------------------|----------------|--------------------------------|----------------|
| $\ln(s_k)$ | .69 (.13) | .65 (.11) | .96 (.13) |
| $\ln(n + g + \delta)$ | -1.73 (.41) | -1.02 (.45) | -1.06 (.33) |
| $\ln(s_h)$ | .66 (.07) | .47 (.07) | .70 (.13) |
| Adj R ² | .78 | .65 | .60 |
| Implied α | .30 | .31 | .36 |
| Implied β | .28 | .22 | .26 |
| No. of observations | 98 | 98 | 107 |

Cross-Country Income Differences: Regressions IV

- If these regression results are reliable, they give a big boost to the augmented Solow model.
 - Adjusted R^2 suggests that three quarters of income per capita differences across countries can be explained by differences in their physical and human capital investment.
- Immediate implication is technology (TFP) differences have a somewhat limited role.
- But this conclusion should not be accepted without further investigation.

Challenges to Regression Analyses I

- **Technology differences across countries are not orthogonal to all other variables.**
- \bar{A}_j is correlated with measures of s_j^h and s_j^k for two reasons.
 - ① *omitted variable bias*: societies with high \bar{A}_j will be those that have invested more in technology for various reasons; same reasons likely to induce greater investment in physical and human capital as well.
 - ② *reverse causality*: complementarity between technology and physical or human capital imply that countries with high \bar{A}_j will find it more beneficial to increase their stock of human and physical capital.
- In terms of (7), implies that key right-hand side variables are correlated with the error term, ε_j .
- OLS estimates of α and β and R^2 are biased upwards.

Challenges to Regression Analyses II

- β is too large relative to what we should expect on the basis of microeconomic evidence.
- The working age population enrolled in school ranges from 0.4% to over 12% in the sample of countries.
- Predicted log difference in incomes between these two countries is

$$\frac{\beta}{1 - \alpha - \beta} (\ln 12 - \ln (0.4)) = 0.66 \times (\ln 12 - \ln (0.4)) \approx 2.24.$$

- Thus a country with schooling investment of over 12 should be about $\exp(2.24) - 1 \approx 8.5$ times richer than one with investment of around 0.4.

Challenges to Regression Analyses III

- Take Mincer regressions of the form:

$$\ln w_i = \mathbf{X}'_i \boldsymbol{\gamma} + \phi S_i, \quad (8)$$

- Microeconometrics literature suggests that ϕ is between 0.06 and 0.10.
- Can deduce how much richer a country with 12 if we assume:
 - ① That the micro-level relationship as captured by (8) applies identically to all countries.
 - ② That there are no *human capital externalities*.
- Then: a country with 12 more years of average schooling should have between $\exp(0.10 \times 12) \simeq 3.3$ and $\exp(0.06 \times 12) \simeq 2.05$ times the stock of human capital of a county with fewer years of schooling.

Challenges to Regression Analyses IV

- Thus holding other factors constant, this country should be about 2-3 times as rich as the country with zero years of average schooling.
- Much less than the 8.5 fold difference implied by the Mankiw-Romer-Weil analysis.
- Thus β in MRW is too high relative to the estimates implied by the microeconomic evidence and thus likely upwardly biased.
- Overestimation of β is, in turn, most likely related to correlation between the error term ε_j and the key right-hand side regressors in (7).

Solow Model and Growth Regressions I

- Another popular approach of taking the Solow model to data: *growth regressions*, following Barro (1991).
- Return to basic Solow model with constant population growth and labor-augmenting technological change in continuous time:

$$y(t) = A(t) f(k(t)), \quad (9)$$

and

$$\frac{\dot{k}(t)}{k(t)} = \frac{sf(k(t))}{k(t)} - \delta - g - n, \quad (10)$$

Solow Model and Growth Regressions II

- Differentiating (9) with respect to time and dividing both sides by $y(t)$,

$$\frac{\dot{y}(t)}{y(t)} = g + \varepsilon_f(k(t)) \frac{\dot{k}(t)}{k(t)}, \quad (11)$$

where

$$\varepsilon_f(k(t)) \equiv \frac{f'(k(t)) k(t)}{f(k(t))} \in (0, 1)$$

is the elasticity of the $f(\cdot)$ function.

- $\varepsilon_f(k(t))$ is between 0 and 1 follows from Assumption 1. For example, with Cobb-Douglas $\varepsilon_f(k(t)) = \alpha$, but generally a function of $k(t)$.

Solow Model and Growth Regressions III

- First-order Taylor expansion of (10) with respect to $\log k(t)$ around k^* (and recall that $\partial y / \partial \log x = (\partial y / \partial x) \cdot x$):

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\dot{k}(t)}{k(t)} &\simeq \left(\frac{sf(k^*)}{k^*} - \delta - g - n \right) \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{f'(k^*)k^*}{f(k^*)} - 1 \right) s \frac{f(k^*)}{k^*} (\log k(t) - \log k^*) . \\ &\simeq (\varepsilon_f(k^*) - 1) (\delta + g + n) (\log k(t) - \log k^*) . \end{aligned}$$

- First term in the first line is zero by definition of the steady-state value k^* .
- Also used definition of $\varepsilon_f(k(t))$ and the fact that $sf(k^*)/k^* = \delta + g + n$.
- Substituting into (11),

$$\frac{\dot{y}(t)}{y(t)} \simeq g - \varepsilon_f(k^*) (1 - \varepsilon_f(k^*)) (\delta + g + n) (\log k(t) - \log k^*) .$$

Solow Model and Growth Regressions IV

- Define $y^*(t) \equiv A(t) f(k^*)$; refer to $y^*(t)$ as the “steady-state level of output per capita” even though it is not constant.
- First-order Taylor expansions of $\log y(t)$ with respect to $\log k(t)$ around $\log k^*(t)$:

$$\log y(t) - \log y^*(t) \simeq \varepsilon_f(k^*) (\log k(t) - \log k^*).$$

- Combining this with the previous equation, “convergence equation”:

$$\frac{\dot{y}(t)}{y(t)} \simeq g - (1 - \varepsilon_f(k^*)) (\delta + g + n) (\log y(t) - \log y^*(t)). \quad (12)$$

- Two sources of growth in Solow model: g , the rate of technological progress, and “convergence”.

Solow Model and Growth Regressions V

- Latter source, convergence:
 - Negative impact of the gap between current level and steady-state level of output per capita on rate of capital accumulation (recall $0 < \varepsilon_f(k^*) < 1$).
 - The lower is $y(t)$ relative to $y^*(t)$, hence the lower is $k(t)$ relative to k^* , the greater is $f(k^*)/k^*$, and this leads to faster growth in the effective capital-labor ratio.
- Speed of convergence in (12), measured by the term $(1 - \varepsilon_f(k^*))(\delta + g + n)$, depends on:
 - $\delta + g + n$: determines rate at which effective capital-labor ratio needs to be replenished.
 - $\varepsilon_f(k^*)$: when $\varepsilon_f(k^*)$ is high, we are close to a linear—AK—production function, convergence should be slow.

Example: Cobb-Douglas Production Function

- Consider Cobb-Douglas production function

$$Y(t) = A(t) K(t)^\alpha L(t)^{1-\alpha}.$$

- Then (12) becomes

$$\frac{\dot{y}(t)}{y(t)} \simeq g - (1 - \alpha) (\delta + g + n) (\log y(t) - \log y^*(t)).$$

- Focus on advanced economies for a back of the envelope calculation:
 - $g \simeq 0.02$ for approximately 2% per year output per capita growth,
 - $n \simeq 0.01$ for approximately 1% population growth and
 - $\delta \simeq 0.05$ for about 5% per year depreciation.
 - Share of capital in national income is about 1/3, so $\alpha \simeq 1/3$.
- Thus convergence coefficient would be around 0.054 ($\simeq 0.67 \times 0.08$), which is very rapid relative to what some authors estimate from cross-country regressions.

Solow Model and Growth Regressions VI

- Using (12), we can obtain a growth regression similar to those estimated by Barro (1991).
- Using discrete time approximations, equation (12) yields:

$$g_{i,t,t-1} = b^0 + b^1 \log y_{i,t-1} + \varepsilon_{i,t}, \quad (13)$$

where $\varepsilon_{i,t}$ is a stochastic term capturing all omitted influences.

- If such an equation is estimated in the sample of core OECD countries, b^1 is indeed estimated to be negative. But for the whole world, no evidence for a negative b^1 . If anything, b^1 would be positive, i.e., there is no evidence of world-wide convergence,
- Barro and Sala-i-Martin refer to this as “unconditional convergence.” But this might be too demanding:
 - requires income gap between two countries to decline, irrespective of what types of technological opportunities, policies and institutions these countries have. If countries do differ, Solow model would *not* predict that they should converge in income level.

Solow Model and Growth Regressions VII

- If countries differ according to characteristics, then perhaps

$$g_{i,t,t-1} = b_i^0 + b^1 \log y_{i,t-1} + \varepsilon_{i,t}, \quad (14)$$

- Now the constant term, b_i^0 , is country specific, and can be, for example, modeled as

$$b_i^0 = \mathbf{X}'_{i,t} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \delta_i + u_{i,t},$$

where δ_i denotes country fixed effects.

- In this case, focus is on “conditional convergence,” i.e., on whether $b^1 < 0$.
- This equation can be estimated using panel data methods as in the first lecture, but **much care is necessary**.
- $\mathbf{X}_{i,t}$ should not include channels (such as education and investment); lots of biases and causality definitely not guaranteed. If these problems exist for the model is not specified properly, b^1 will not be estimated consistently.

Calibrating Productivity Differences I

- Suppose each country has access to the Cobb-Douglas aggregate production function:

$$Y_j = K_j^\alpha (A_j H_j)^{1-\alpha}, \quad (15)$$

- Each worker in country j has S_j years of schooling.
- Then using the Mincer equation (8) ignoring the other covariates and taking exponents, H_j can be estimated as

$$H_j = \exp(\phi S_j) L_j,$$

- Does not take into account differences in other “human capital” factors, such as experience.

Calibrating Productivity Differences II

- Let the rate of return to acquiring the S th year of schooling be $\phi(S)$.
- A better estimate of the stock of human capital can be constructed as

$$H_j = \sum_S \exp\{\phi(S) S\} L_j(S)$$

- $L_j(S)$ now refers to the total employment of workers with S years of schooling in country j .
- Series for K_j can be constructed from Summers-Heston dataset using investment data and the perpetual inventory method.

$$K_j(t+1) = (1 - \delta) K_j(t) + I_j(t),$$

- Assume, following Hall and Jones that $\delta = 0.06$.
- With same arguments as before, choose a value of $1/3$ for α .

Calibrating Productivity Differences III

- Given series for H_j and K_j and a value for α , construct “predicted” incomes at a point in time using

$$\hat{Y}_j = K_j^{1/3} (A_{US} H_j)^{2/3}$$

- A_{US} is computed so that $Y_{US} = K_{US}^{1/3} (A_{US} H_{US})^{2/3}$.
- Once a series for \hat{Y}_j has been constructed, it can be compared to the actual output series.
- Gap between the two series represents the contribution of technology.
- Alternatively, could back out country-specific technology terms (relative to the United States) as

$$\frac{A_j}{A_{US}} = \left(\frac{Y_j}{Y_{US}} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{K_{US}}{K_j} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{H_{US}}{H_j} \right).$$

Calibrating Productivity Differences IV

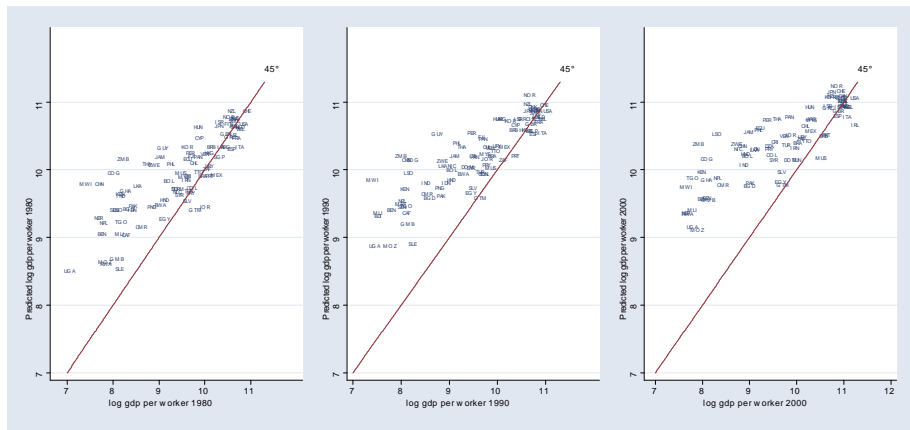


Figure: Calibrated technology levels relative to the US technology (from the Solow growth model with human capital) versus log GDP per worker, 1980, 1990 and 2000.

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Calibrating Productivity Differences V

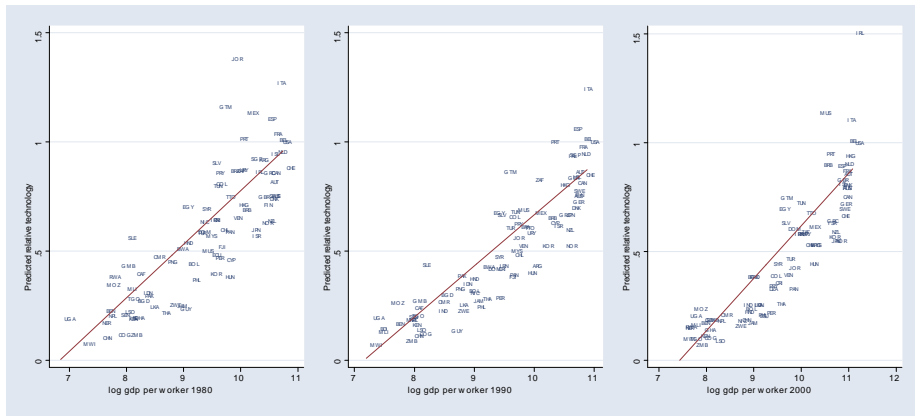


Figure: Calibrated technology levels relative to the US technology (from the Solow growth model with human capital) versus log GDP per worker, 1980, 1990 and 2000.

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Calibrating Productivity Differences VI

The following features are noteworthy:

- ① Differences in physical and human capital still matter a lot.
- ② However, differently from the regression analysis, this exercise also shows significant *technology (productivity) differences*.
- ③ Same pattern visible in the next three figures for the estimates of the technology differences, A_j/A_{US} , against log GDP per capita in the corresponding year.
- ④ Also interesting is the pattern that the empirical fit of the neoclassical growth model seems to deteriorate over time.

Challenges to Calibration I

- In addition to the standard assumptions of competitive factor markets, we had to assume :
 - no human capital externalities, a Cobb-Douglas production function, and a range of approximations to measure cross-country differences in the stocks of physical and human capital.
- The calibration approach is in fact a close cousin of the growth-accounting exercise (sometimes referred to as “levels accounting”).
- Imagine that the production function that applies to all countries in the world is

$$F(K_j, H_j, A_j),$$

- Assume countries differ according to their physical and human capital as well as technology—but not according to F .

Challenges to Callibration II

- Rank countries in descending order according to their physical capital to human capital ratios, K_j/H_j Then

$$\hat{x}_{j,j+1} = g_{j,j+1} - \bar{\alpha}_{K,j,j+1}g_{K,j,j+1} - \bar{\alpha}_{L,j,j+1}g_{H,j,j+1}, \quad (16)$$

- where:
 - $g_{j,j+1}$: proportional difference in output between countries j and $j + 1$,
 - $g_{K,j,j+1}$: proportional difference in capital stock between these countries and
 - $g_{H,j,j+1}$: proportional difference in human capital stocks.
 - $\bar{\alpha}_{K,j,j+1}$ and $\bar{\alpha}_{L,j,j+1}$: average capital and labor shares between the two countries.
- The estimate $\hat{x}_{j,j+1}$ is then the proportional TFP difference between the two countries.

Challenges to Calibration III

- Levels-accounting faces two challenges.
 - ① Data on capital and labor shares across countries are not widely available. Almost all exercises use the Cobb-Douglas approach (i.e., a constant value of α_K equal to $1/3$).
 - ② The differences in factor proportions, e.g., differences in K_j/H_j , across countries are large. An equation like (16) is a good approximation when we consider small (infinitesimal) changes.

From Correlates to Fundamental Causes

- In this lecture, the focus has been on proximate causes— importance of human capital, physical capital and technology.
- Let us now return to the list of potential fundamental causes discussed in the first lecture:
 - 1 luck (or multiple equilibria)
 - 2 geographic differences
 - 3 institutional differences
 - 4 cultural differences
- Do we need to worry about the relationship between these fundamental causes and the correlates of growth? In what way? Where is theory useful?

Conclusions

- Message is somewhat mixed.
 - On the positive side, despite its simplicity, the Solow model has enough substance that we can take it to data in various different forms, including TFP accounting, regression analysis and calibration.
 - On the negative side, however, no single approach is entirely convincing.
- Complete agreement is not possible, but safe to say that consensus favors the interpretation that cross-country differences in income per capita cannot be understood solely on the basis of differences in physical and human capital
- Differences in TFP are not necessarily due to technology in the narrow sense.
- It is also useful and important to think about *fundamental causes*, what lies behind the factors taken as given either Solow model.

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14.452 Economic Growth

Fall 2016

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