

The Dynamics of Economic Growth





A Visual Handbook of Growth Rates, Regimes, Transitions and Volatility

The Effective States and Inclusive Development Research Centre (ESID)

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The Dynamics of Economic Growth: A Visual Handbook of Growth Rates, Regimes, Transitions and Volatility

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First published by the DFID-funded Research Programme Consortium on Effective States and Inclusive Development (ESID), June 2013

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www.effective-states.org

ISBN 978-1-908749-18-5

Produced and designed by: The Studio, email: studio@york.ac.uk Cover image designed by: The Studio

This document is an output from a project funded by UK Aid from the UK Department for International Development (DFID) for the benefit of developing countries. However, the views expressed and information contained in it are not necessarily those of or endorsed by DFID, which can accept no responsibility for such views or information or for any reliance placed on them.



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List of Symbols and Abbreviations

Abbreviations

BP	Bai-Perron		
GDP	Gross Domestic Product		
PWT	Penn World Tables		
GDPPC	Gross Domestic Product Per Capita		
MA	Moving Average		
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares		
рра	Percent per annum		
PWT	Penn World Tables		
SD	Standard Deviation		

Symbols

Ln	Natural Log		
g	Average Annual Growth Rate		
R ²	Co-Efficient of Determination		
SD	Standard Deviation		
Δg	Change in Growth Rate		



List of Country Codes

Country	Code
Afghanistan	AFG
Albania	ALB
Algeria	DZA
Angola	AGO
Argentina	ARG
Australia	AUS
Austria	AUT
Bangladesh	BGD
Belgium	BEL
Benin	BEN
Bolivia	BOL
Botswana	BWA
Brazil	BRA
Bulgaria	BGR
Burkina Faso	BFA
Burundi	BDI
Cambodia	КНМ
Cameroon	CMR
Canada	CAN
Central African Republic	CAF

Country	Code
Chad	TCD
Chile	CHL
China	CHN
Colombia	COL
Congo, Rep.	COG
Congo, Dem Rep.	ZAR
Costa Rica	CRI
Côte d'Ivoire	CIV
Cuba	CUB
Cyprus	СҮР
Denmark	DNK
Dominican Republic	DOM
Ecuador	ECU
Egypt, Arab Rep.	EGY
El Salvador	SLV
Ethiopia	ETH
Fiji	FJI
Finland	FIN
France	FRA
Gabon	GAB

Country	Code
Gambia, The	GMB
Germany	DEU
Ghana	GHA
Greece	GRC
Guatemala	GTM
Guinea	GIN
Guinea-Bissau	GNB
Guyana	GUY
Haiti	HTI
Honduras	HND
Hong Kong SAR, China	HKG
Hungary	HUN
India	IND
Indonesia	IDN
Iran, Islamic Rep.	IRN
Iraq	IRQ
Ireland	IRL
Israel	ISR
Italy	ITA
Jamaica	JAM

Country	Code
Japan	JPN
Jordan	JOR
Kenya	KEN
Korea, Rep.	KOR
Lao PDR	LAO
Lebanon	LBN
Lesotho	LSO
Liberia	LBR
Madagascar	MDG
Malawi	MWI
Malaysia	MYS
Mali	MLI
Mauritania	MRT
Mauritius	MUS
Mexico	MEX
Mongolia	MNG
Morocco	MAR
Mozambique	MOZ
Namibia	NAM
Nepal	NPL
Netherlands	NLD
New Zealand	NZL

Country	Code
Nicaragua	NIC
Niger	NER
Nigeria	NGA
Norway	NOR
Oman	OMN
Pakistan	РАК
Panama	PAN
Papua New Guinea	PNG
Paraguay	PRY
Peru	PER
Philippines	PHL
Poland	POL
Portugal	PRT
Puerto Rico	PRI
Romania	ROM
Rwanda	RWA
Senegal	SEN
Sierra Leone	SLE
Singapore	SGP
Somalia	SOM
South Africa	ZAF
Spain	ESP

Country	Code
Sri Lanka	LKA
Sudan	SDN
Swaziland	SWZ
Sweden	SWE
Switzerland	CHE
Syrian Arab Republic	SYR
Taiwan	TWN
Tanzania	TZA
Thailand	THA
Togo	TGO
Trinidad and Tobago	тто
Tunisia	TUN
Turkey	TUR
Uganda	UGA
United Kingdom	GBR
United States	USA
Uruguay	URY
Venezuela, RB	VEN
Vietnam	VNM
Zambia	ZMB
Zimbabwe	ZWE

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Acknowledgements

This handbook would have not been possible without the able research assistance of Jagadish Sahu, Sitakanta Panda, Debajit Jha (all at Institute of Economic Growth, India), Mir Tanzim Nur Angkur (SANEM), and Aroni Barkat (SANEM and Department of Economics, University of Dhaka). We are grateful to all these individuals for their help. The genesis of the handbook occurred during a meeting in SANEM in November 2012, and we would like to thank Sk. Ashibur Rahman, P.S. to the Executive Director, SANEM, who made sure that the logistics of the meeting were taken care of smoothly. We would also like to thank Aarti Krishnan at the University of Manchester for her editorial support and Julia Brunt, Programme Manager of ESID, also at the University of Manchester, for ably guiding the production process from start to finish. Finally, we would like to thank Monika Kerekes for providing the STATA algorithm to run the Bai-Perron test.

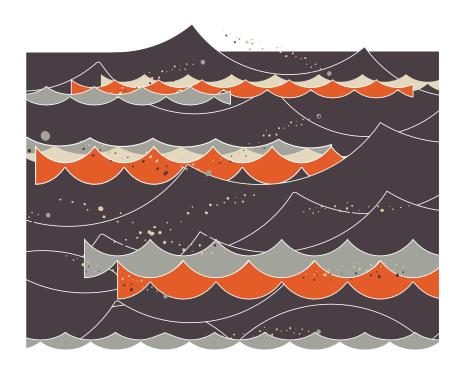


Abstract

Why there are such significant and persistent differences in living standards across countries is one of the most important and challenging areas of development policy. In spite of a voluminous literature on the causes of economic growth, we still have a long way to go in understanding why the growth experiences of countries differ so much, why growth changes so much (for good and ill) over time, and why only a handful of developing countries have seen their incomes converge to the levels observed in developed countries. To understand the causes of economic growth, we first need to understand what growth *is*. Much of the focus in the academic and policy literature on "growth" has been on steady-state or long-run average rates of growth of output per capita, or equivalently, comparing *levels* of income. But the focus on one single growth rate for a particular country misses the point that most countries observe dramatic changes

in their growth of per capita income. We present visually the dynamics of the growth experiences of 125 countries. The graphs themselves (and embedded numeric information) highlight the key point that we would like to convey in this Handbook – that economic growth is dynamic and episodic and that many countries have gone through very different growth phases. We identify the timing and magnitude of "breaks" or "episodes" or "regime transitions" for all our 125 countries from the application of a standard statistical procedure. Viewing economic growth as transitions across growth phases would imply that we would need to move beyond the current approaches to growth, and that new "third generation" theoretical models and empirical methods would need to be developed to understand what determines economic growth.

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Part I

Economic Growth: Getting the Question Right



Part I: Economic Growth: Getting the Question Right

Is there some action a government of India could take that would lead the Indian economy to grow like Indonesia's or Egypt's? If so, what, exactly? If not, what is it about the "nature of India" that makes it so? The consequences for human welfare involved in questions like these are simply staggering: once one starts to think about them, it is hard to think about anything else. **NOBEL LAUREATE ROBERT E. LUCAS 1988, P. 5** Why are there such significant and persistent differences in living standards across countries? This is one of the most important and challenging areas of development policy. These differences arise primarily due to different rates of economic growth across countries. In spite of a voluminous literature on the causes of economic growth: it is *still* "hard to think about anything else". We still have a long way to go in understanding why the growth experiences of countries differ so much, why growth changes so much (for good and ill) over time, and why only a handful of developing countries have seen their incomes converge to the levels observed in developed countries – and "what, exactly" could be done about it.

To understand the causes of economic growth, we first need to understand what growth *is*. Much of the focus in the academic and policy literature on "growth" has been on steady-state or long-run average rates of growth of output per capita, or equivalently, comparing *levels* of income (e.g. Barro, 1991, 1996, 1997; Acemoglu *et al.*, 2001, 2002; Hall and Jones, 1999). But the focus on *one single* growth rate for a particular country misses the point that most countries observe dramatic changes in their growth of per capita income.

Lucas's concern that slow growth might be the "nature of India" reflected the possibility India was trapped in the so-called "Hindu rate of growth". But it wasn't the "nature of India" to grow slowly. Lucas's writings were confirmed only a few years later – as India came out of an incipient macroeconomic crisis in 1991. From 1991 to 2010, GDP per capita grew at a pace of 4.8 percent per annum (ppa) compared with the pace of 2.5 percent from 1970 to 1991. GDP in 2010 was USD 1.45 *trillion* higher than had the previous pace continued

(calculation based on 2005 international currency units of the Penn World Tables 7.1) and the cumulative output gain of the higher growth trajectory of 1991-2010 versus 1970-1991 was over USD 8 trillion. A staggering gain of USD 8 trillion!

Long-run growth averages within countries, therefore, mask distinct periods of success and failure (Easterly *et al.*, 1993; Ben-David and Papell, 1998; Pritchett, 2000; Jones and Olken, 2008; Jerzmanowski, 2006; Kerekes 2012). While the growth process of all "developed" economies is well characterized by a single growth rate and a "business cycle" around that trend (at least until the recent crises) – this is not true for most countries in the world (Aguiar and Gopinath, 2007). Massive discrete *changes* in growth are common in developing countries. Most developing countries experience distinct growth *episodes:* growth accelerations and decelerations or collapses (Rodrik, 1999, 2003; Hausmann *et al.*, 2006; Aizenman and Spiegel, 2010). For policymakers, and business people too, what matters is not the infinite horizon level, but what will happen to output growth in the medium term (five to ten years), when economic growth is unstable and highly unpredictable in most countries (Pritchett and Werker 2012).

This Handbook describes *visually* in graphs (and numbers) the *dynamics* of the growth experiences of 125 countries. We use the chained real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita ("rgdpch") from the Penn World Tables (PWT) version 7.1 for each country for the years available (with the earliest starting year being 1950, and the ending year for all countries being 2010). For each country, we provide a set of **eight** *exactly comparable* graphs; each captures some essential features of the dynamics of economic growth. The

emphasis is on a *visual* presentation of the varied experiences of economic growth across the world and we avoid tables to give the reader (viewer) a *feel* of growth. The graphs themselves (and embedded numeric information) highlight the key point that we would like to convey in this Handbook – that economic growth is dynamic and episodic and that countries have gone through very different growth phases.

Our objective here is **'to get the question right'** – what are the empirical phenomena to be explained by a theory and empirics explaining 'economic growth'? By presenting graphs that summarize the evolution of output per capita in a variety of ways we show that the phenomenon of "growth" to be explained is much more than just a single "growth rate". But we consciously do not propose any "answers" – we are scrupulously free of any assertions about the "causes" of any aspect of growth.¹ Our goal is to describe adequately the "Left Hand Side" – the level and time evolution of GDP per capita. We deliberately do not present any "Right Hand Side"as correlates (much less assert these are "determinants") of the dynamics of economic growth.

The rest of the Handbook is in three parts.

Part II presents visually the stylized facts of economic growth. For each of 125 countries we present four *exactly comparable* graphs that summarize different aspects of the growth experience and are a visual rendition of standard summary statistics (growth, growth by decade, volatility of growth, comparison with world average growth, etc.). Our value added is *comparability*, as we solve the prosaic, but surprisingly unaddressed, problem that, since nearly all graphs of GDP per capita adjust the vertical



¹ There is a vast literature on the so-called 'growth empirics' which are studies on the causes of growth. A few examples: Edwards (1993) and Rodriquez and Rodrik (2001) on trade; Levine (1997) on finance; Barro and McCleary (2003) on religion; Hausmann *et al.* (2007) and Hidalgo et al. (2007) on product space; and Jones and Olken (2005) on political leadership.

and horizontal scales to the data of the particular country, the visual "slope" of the graphs is not comparable. In fact, the automatic adjustments of the scale of the vertical axis done by nearly all spreadsheets or statistical programs cause countries with 1 percent, 3 percent and 5 percent growth to look exactly alike.

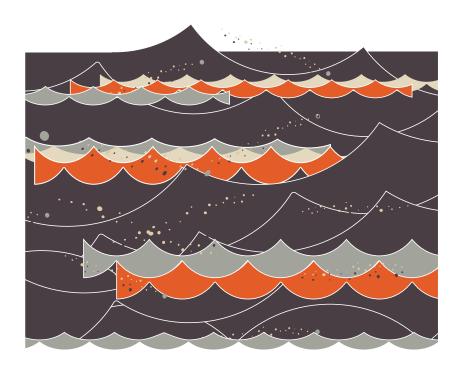
In Part III, we provide more structure and examine "breaks" in growth. We do this by implementing a modified version of a statistical method (Bai-Perron) that is commonly used to identify breaks in the GDP per capita series. Using this method, we demarcate each country's growth experience into distinct growth phases and present our results graphically. The graphs show that economic growth in many countries has apparently discrete and quantitatively massive transitions between periods of high growth, periods of negative growth, and periods of stagnation. Further, we establish when these periods started and ended, and what have been the magnitudes of GDP per capita change in each of these episodes. We also highlight the common features of the growth experiences of very disparate countries – features that a focus only on a single time-averaged growth rate, or even that allow growth to vary in units of decades (e.g. 70s vs 80s), miss.

Our view is that we are moving into a "third generation" of growth research. First generation growth theory was Solow-Swan and its variants (Solow, 1956; Barro *et al.*, 1995; Barro and Sala-i-Martin; 1992, 1995, 1997; Jones, 1997; Mankiw *et al.*, 1992; Sala-i-Martin, 1996a, 1996b). The "second generation" had a theoretical and empirical component. The "endogenous growth" models provided theoretical models with interested comparative dynamics of steady state growth rates by endogenizing technical change (Romer, 1986, 1990, 1993; Lucas, 1988; Aghion and Howitt, 1992; 2009; Helpman, 2004). The "second generation" of empirics started with Barro (1991) type regressions and progressed from throwing every conceivable variable on the "Right Hand Side" (e.g. Sala-i-Martin's 1997 'four million" regressions) to using more sophisticated panel data methods and more careful and robust selection of the set of instrumental variables (Islam, 1995; Jones, 1995; Levine and Renelt, 1992). The "second generation" also included theoretical and empirical work on the *levels* of income (e.g. Hall and Jones, 1999) including the emphasis on the role of "institutions" in determining long-run levels/growth rates (e.g. Acemoglu *et al.*, 2001, 2002, 2004; Acemoglu *et al.*, 2003; North *et al.*, 2009; Easterly and Levine, 1997; Rodrik *et al.*, 2004).

But the principal variable of interest in theoretical and empirical "second generation" literature is the level of output or long-run or time-averaged growth rate of per capita output. As we conclude in Part IV, this visual Handbook shows that such a conceptualization of growth is not a complete description of the reality of economic growth in developing countries.² Viewing economic growth as transitions across growth phases would imply that new "third generation" theoretical models and empirical methods would need to be developed to understand what determines economic growth. We hope that the next stage of research in economic growth will be to use a different set of Left Hand Side variables – including perhaps some we present in Part III of the Handbook.



² To be fair to our intellectual forbears in the "first generation" of theoretical work, Hicks in Capital and Growth (1965) pointed out the growth theory of the "comparative dynamics" of differences in steady state growth rates was the least relevant branch of economics to developing countries, as their growth dynamics were dominated by "catch up" growth and "structural transformation" that were clearly incompatible with "steady state" differences in dynamics in which, almost by definition, all key ratios of the economy had to be constant.



Part II



Section I: Everything You Always Wanted to Know About Growth



Part II: Section I: Everything You Always Wanted to Know About Growth

What are the stylized facts of economic growth? In this part, we present the summary features of economic growth using PWT 7.1 data on real GDP per capita for 125 countries, both developed and developing. Our sample contains all countries from PWT 7.1 which have data at least since 1970 and with a population in 2000 of over 700,000. These cut-offs exclude mostly the new countries formed after the breakdown of the Soviet empire (e.g. Tajikistan, Croatia), very small nation-states (mostly small oil-states, e.g. Bahrain, Brunei), small islands in the Caribbean (e.g. Bermuda) and Pacific (e.g. Tonga) and some countries, such as Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, for which PWT 7.1 GDP per capita data is only available from the mid-1980s.

In the following section, we present four graphs per country.

Figure 1 presents the plot of natural log (Ln) GDP per capita (GDPPC) for the country. On the plot are shown the growth rates overall (all available data) plus overall the decadal and five-year growth rates (ten-year growth rates at the top of the line graph and five-year growth rates at the bottom of the graph). Unless otherwise specified, all reported "growth rates" are

the coefficient from an OLS regression of $\mathsf{ln}(\mathsf{GDPPC})$ on a time trend over the specified period. 3

The top left hand side of Figure 1 presents three summary statistics:

- i) **g** the OLS growth rate over the available data.
- ii) \mathbf{R}^2 the R-square of regressing ln(GDPPC) on a single time trend
- iii) σ_{AY} the standard deviation of the annual log changes in GDPPC.

"The" growth rate (g) is the single number of "growth" and is conventionally used in single cross-section growth regressions (usually over some common period). The other two summary statistics provide a characterization of the temporal behaviour of the GDPPC series.

When growth is moderate and steady (e.g. Denmark $R^2=0.96$) or rapid (e.g. Thailand $R^2=0.98$) the R^2 is very high (well above 0.9). A lower R^2 suggests either very low growth (Senegal $R^2=0.1$, g=0.1) or that the time evolution of output is not well-summarized by a single trend line (Republic of Congo $R^2=0.6$ even with g=1.6).



³ There are of course many other ways of calculating a "growth rate" – one could take the annual growth rates (as log first difference) and average them, or one could calculate the total change endpoint to endpoint and compute the exponential growth rate that would have achieved that change, one could just take N-period In differences and divide by N.

⁴ Of course the standard measure of "cyclical" volatility through a decomposition into "trend" and "deviation around a trend" presumes there is a stable "trend", which, in our view, and as Aguiar and Gopinath (2007) emphasize, gets the cart before the horse by assuming that the "cycle" (which isn't really a "cycle") is not what determines the "trend".

The standard deviation of the first differences of ln(GDPPC) – $\sigma_{\Delta Y}$ is one measure of growth rate volatility.⁴ Developed economies tend to be quite stable by this measure (USA $\sigma_{\Delta Y}$ =2.6, Belgium $\sigma_{\Delta Y}$ =2.3), while developing economies have much higher volatility, almost always above 4, even in relatively stable middle income countries (Indonesia $\sigma_{\Delta Y}$ =4.3, Turkey $\sigma_{\Delta Y}$ =5.4) and reaching spectacular highs in unstable countries (Nigeria $\sigma_{\Delta Y}$ =7.8).

For all countries the horizontal and vertical axes are the same, so that the "eyeball slope" (vertical gain per horizontal movement) represents the same gain in In(GDPPC) per unit time across all graphs. While the *levels* of GDPPC are not comparable across country graphs, each vertical axes has 2.1 log units (the *absolute* values of the y-axis are set for each country by placing the lowest value of the vertical axis .1 In units below the minimum value of In (GDPPC) for each country)⁵. The levels of GDP per capita in USD for each country at its minimum, maximum and median are indicated on the right axis. This common scaling does mean some countries have lots of "white space" and some countries (e.g. Taiwan, the Republic of Korea) have their graph disappear out the top.⁶ The advantage is that, unlike every other graph of economic growth you have ever seen, what looks steeper in one country than another really does represent a faster growth rate. It is not an artefact of compressing the horizontal (to years available) or vertical (to minimize white space or display all data) scales.

Table 1 presents a tabular overview of Figure 1 by classifying each of the 125 countries by (i) growth rate (above or below zero), (ii) volatility ($\sigma_{\Delta Y}$

above or below 3.0) and (iii) goodness of fit of a single time trend (weak fit, $R^2 < 0.5$, moderate fit, $0.9 > R^2 > 0.5$ and strong fit, $R^2 > 0.9$).

All 38 countries with weak fit ($R^2 < 0.5$) have high volatility ($\sigma_{\Delta Y} > 3.0$). As can be seen even in the simplest graph, and in more detail in the others, most of these countries exhibit very sharp and massive growth breaks and multiple growth regimes, often with strongly positive growth followed by negative growth. For instance, Ethiopia had moderate positive growth in the 1950s and 1960s, negative growth in the 1970s and 1980s, but has had rapid growth (g = 5.4) recently and hence has overall g = 0.5, $R^2 = 0.29$, and $\sigma_{\Delta Y} = 6.1$). While most of the 38 "weak fit" countries are Sub-Saharan African, there are countries from other regions as well, such as Albania and Poland from Eastern Europe, Iran and Jordan from the Middle East, and Papua New Guinea from the South Pacific and Bangladesh in South Asia. For countries where fit is weak, either (a) it makes little sense to think of representing the time evolution of output as a *single* growth rate for each country or (b) the single stable trend growth rate is very near zero (positive or negative).

The 10 of the 38 with weak fit, high volatility, and negative growth (g < 0) include conflict affected and "failing states" – Nicaragua, Afghanistan, Haiti and Iraq – but also non-conflict weak performers – Zambia, Nigeria, Togo.

In the 40 countries with moderate fit (0 < R^2 < 0.9) growth transitions and episodes are also pronounced and volatility is high (only 2 have $\sigma_{\Delta Y}$ <3.0 –



⁵ Setting the vertical axes so that all countries - from the USA to Ethiopia - are on the same absolute scale causes nearly all countries to look like the same flat line, with little gain.

⁶ The vertical scale of 2.1 units means that countries with more than an 8.2 fold (=exp(2.1)) increase in GDPPC go out the top of the graph before reaching 2010. On the other hand, expanding the vertical scale for every country, so that the Republic of Korea and Singapore's data would fit, caused most countries' variations to nearly disappear.

Guatemala and South Africa, both at $\sigma_{\Delta Y} = 2.6$). The regional background of countries in this category is more mixed. We have countries from every region, including Asia and Europe. Greece, a (borderline) advanced economy, is here too. Many of these countries have moderate overall growth rates, but massive differences over time. Peru, for instance, had g = 4.8 2000-2010 but g = -2.4 in the 1980s. This is a *range* of decade growth rates of 7.2 ppa (compared with a standard deviation of decade growth rates across countries of only around 2 ppa).

Interestingly, three of the 'miracle growth' countries identified by the Commission for Growth and Development (2008) – Brazil, Japan and Oman – are in this category, which demonstrates just how much growth rates change over time. Brazil had g = 5.5 in the 1970s but g = -0.1 in the 1980s, Japan had among the most "miraculous" growth rates of all time in the 1960s, g = 8.8, but tepid growth (g = 0.6) in the 1990s.

In this "moderate fit" category with g < 0 are states with sufficient economic decline to create a moderate fit around a negative trend, e.g. Liberia g = -4.1, Somalia g = -1.8, Niger g = -1.4, Madagascar g = -1.1).

The 14 countries with strong fit (R-square > 0.9) and low volatility ($\sigma_{\Delta Y} < 3.0$) include 12 developed countries, Colombia and, perhaps surprisingly, Pakistan. Note that stable growth at moderate rates is a "typical" pattern for rich industrial countries, but extremely rare among developing countries.

The 31 countries with strong fit, positive growth and high volatility are a mixed bag. The rapid catch up countries of the OECD (Spain, Finland, Ireland, Portugal) are here. So are the high performing East Asian countries (China, Indonesia, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Thailand, Taiwan, and Vietnam). But there are also countries from other regions – India, Sri Lanka and Nepal from South Asia, Botswana and Lesotho from Sub-Saharan Africa, Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia from the Middle East and North Africa, and Dominican Republic and Mexico from Latin America and the Caribbean.

Of course to have strong fit around a negative trend (g < 0) a country has to be a consistent basket case of growth. The Central African Republic has had negative growth in each of the last four decades.



	g>0		g<0	
	σ′ _{∆y} > 3.0	σ _{′∆y} < 3.0	σ′ _{∆y} >3.0	σ _{′_Δγ} < 3.0
0 < R ² < 0.5	AGO, ALB, BDI, BGD, BOL, CIV, CMR, ETH, GAB, GHA, GUY, IRN, JOR, KEN, LBN, MNG, MWI, NAM, PNG, POL, RWA, SEN, SLE, TCD, UGA, VEN, ZWE		AFG, GIN, GMB, GNB, HTI, IRQ, NGA, NIC, TGO, ZMB	
0.5 ≤ R ² < 0.9	ARG, BEN, BFA, BGR, BRA, CHE, CHL, COG, CUB, DZA, ECU, FJI, GRC, HND, HUN, JAM, JPN, KHM, MLI, MOZ, MRT, MUS, OMN, PER, PHL, PRY, ROM, SDN, SLV, SWZ, SYR, TTO, TZA, URY	GTM, ZAF	LBR, MDG, NER, SOM, ZAR	
0.9 ≤ R ² < 1	AUS, BWA, CHN, CRI, CYP, DOM, EGY, ESP, FIN, HKG, IDN, IND, IRL, ISR, KOR, LAO, LKA, LSO, MAR, MEX, MYS, NPL, NZL, PAN, PRI, PRT, SGP, THA, TUN, TUR, TWN, VNM	AUT, BEL, CAN, COL, DNK, FRA, GBR, DEU, ITA, NLD, NOR, PAK, SWE, USA	CAF	

Table 1: Summary of Growth Experiences across the World

Figure 2 presents a different view of growth by showing the *level* of each country's ln(GDPPC) relative to all other countries at its first year of data and in 2010 (with data starting in 1960 or 1970).

The diagonal lines demarcate different growth benchmarks. Since the axes are equal, zero growth is a 45 degree line (adjusting for aspect ratio) and countries below this line finished 2010 poorer than they started. The 2% line is (roughly) the average economic growth rate across all countries, so

countries above grew faster than average and below slower than average. Countries above the 4% line grew (roughly) one cross-national standard deviation (about 2 ppa) above the average (also about 2 ppa).

Figure 2 also shows numerically the level (not natural log) of GDP per capita at the beginning and end of the available data and the ratio of the two. It also provides information on the relative rank (from the bottom) of the country's per capita income.



The USA provides a nice benchmark, as it was near the top in 1960 (103 of 104) and stayed near the top (102 of 104 in 2010) but growing at almost exactly the average pace (g=2.1 in Figure 1) and hence increasing GDPPC by a factor of 2.7.⁷ Countries with a ratio higher than 2.7 converged on the leader; those with ratios less than 2.7 did not. There is little evidence of *unconditional* relative income convergence for most developing countries (Pritchett, 1997) but some countries with massive gains. The Republic of Korea (USD1656) and The Philippines (USD1459) started out with similar levels of per capita income in 1960. The Republic of Korea's GDPPC in 2010 was 16.1 times higher, USD26,609 – by 2010 it had converged on developed country levels. GDPPC in The Philippines only went up by a factor of 2.2 – which is real progress – but fell relative to the leaders. Most developing countries were like the Philippines in not exhibiting income convergence, but some converging – and some of the rapid convergers had very big populations (e.g. China, India, Indonesia).

Figure 3 plots the first differences of In GDPPC (which is roughly the annual percent growth rate of GDPPC) and the five-year moving average (MA) of the first differences. As in Figure 2, we benchmark the world average growth rate of 2% with a horizontal solid line, and the growth rates of 0% and 4% (about a cross-national standard deviation above and below) with two broken horizontal lines.

This figure captures the *volatility* in the GDPPC growth series over time. The number of times the five-year MA of a particular country crosses **both** the two broken horizontal lines gives us an indication of how volatile the growth rate of GDPPC for that country is. For stable countries, most of the annual observations and nearly all the smoothed five year moving averages are inside these lines – they mostly experience in each year a "typical" growth rate. But for many countries, even the smoothed fiveyear MA of first differences crosses *both* the 0% and 4% horizontal lines multiple times. For instance, Jordan has a low growth rate (g =0.9) and high volatility (σ_{AY} = 9.8), so the MA crosses the 0% and 4% lines 11 times.

Figure 4 compares the distribution of all eight-year (overlapping) growth rates of the particular country with the distribution of all eight-year growth rates for the rest of the world (of course we could have done this for any other number of years). That is, we calculate all possible overlapping growth rates of duration eight-years (e.g. 1960-67, 1961-68, 1962-69, etc) for each country in the world.

We allocated these growth rates into six discrete bins (shown as the groups of bars on Figure 4): (i) growth less than -2.0% (growth collapse); (ii) growth between -2.0% and zero (negative growth); (iii) growth rate between zero and +2.0% (stagnation); (iv) growth between +2.0% and +4.0% (moderate growth); (v) growth between +4.0% and +6.0% (strong growth); and (vi) growth above +6.0% (rapid growth). Since the world average growth rate is 2.0% per annum, and the standard deviation (SD) of the world average growth rate is 2.0, these bins correspond roughly to an empirical "normal" distribution of growth rates.

Figure 4 shows that the same average growth rate can result from very different distributions of growth rates over time. Developed economies, like the UK, had g = 2.4 and nearly all of its eight-year growth rates were between 0% and 4%. But between 1970 and 2010 Cambodia has almost exactly the same average growth rate (g = 2.3), but did so by spending

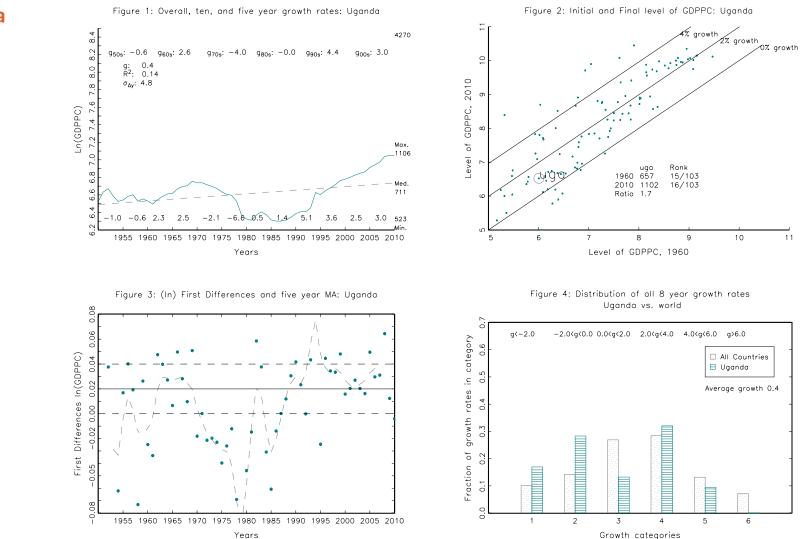


⁷ These two being linked of course by the formula: $Ratio = \frac{yt+N^{y}}{yt} \frac{t+N}{yt} = (1+g)^{N}$, though this will not be exact, as g is an OLS estimate, not calculated endpoint to endpoint.

substantial time in collapse (g < -2) and substantial time in rapid growth (g > 6).

Some countries were reasonably consistent growth "stars" and spent most time with g > 4 (e.g. Singapore, the Republic of Korea). Other countries were consistently poor performers (e.g. Central African Republic, Senegal).

As an example of how the four figures look like for a particular country, we present Figures 1-4 for Uganda below. Figure 1 shows that decadal growth rates varied from -4 % in the 1970s to +4.4% in the 1990s, in the context of a low average rate of growth of 0.4% per annum. Figure 2 shows that Uganda's relative rank in GDPPC has changed very little in the period 1960-2010 (fifteenth from the bottom in 1960 and sixteenth from the bottom in 2010) and that Uganda's average growth rate in 1960-2010 was below the world average rate of growth of 2% per annum. Figure 3 indicates that GDP per capita growth in Uganda has been volatile, with the MA of GDPPC growth crossing both the 0% and 4% horizontal lines. Finally, Figure 4 shows that Uganda has spent more time than the average country in "growth collapse" and "negative growth", but also spent more time than the average county in "moderate growth". Uganda, then, illustrates very well our point that economic growth can change quite remarkably in a relatively short period of time in a single country, and that focusing on the average rate of growth masks this very significant transition in growth phases.



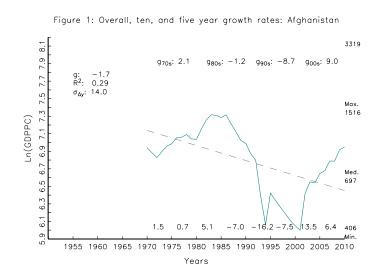
Uganda



For many countries the following seemingly paradoxical fact is that *knowing* what country the growth rate comes from *increases* the variance of your guess of the growth rate. That is, suppose you were drawing a country eight-year period growth rate from the world distribution of growth rates, you would know that the standard deviation is about 2 and the likelihood of being in either "collapse" or "rapid growth" is about 5%. But if we tell you that you are just choosing from the eight-year growth experiences of a country like Ghana, Nigeria, Jordan, Cambodia, Mozambique and Malawi, then your uncertainty about what you will find *increases*. These countries show more variation in the distribution of their growth episodes than the variation in growth rates across all countries in the world. These countries have spent more time in **both** rapid growth and growth collapse than the "typical" country.

Afghanistan

Section II: Country Graphs



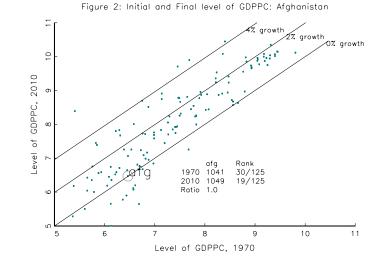
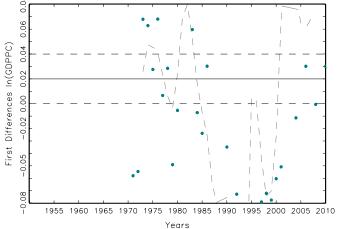
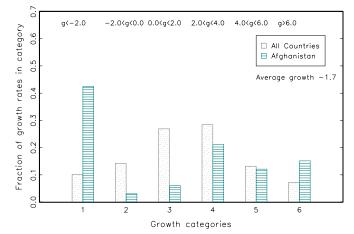


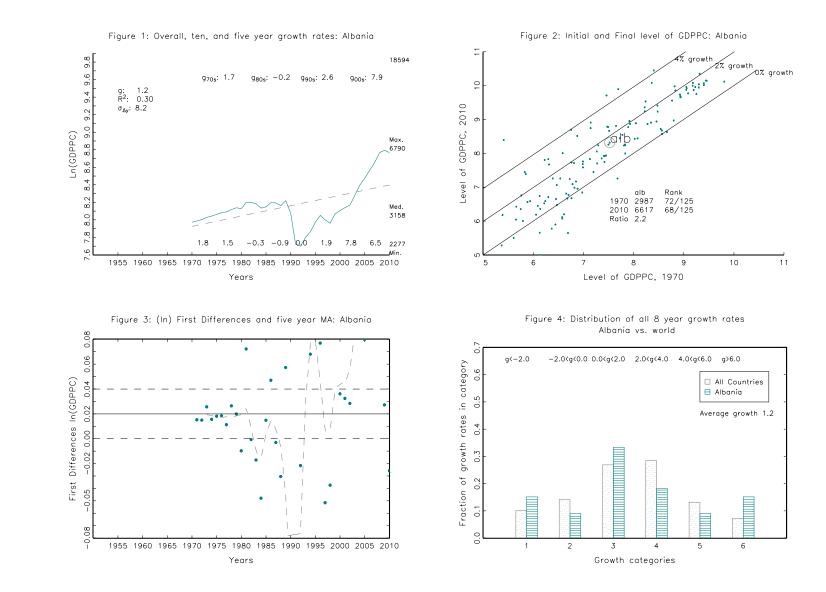
Figure 3: (In) First Differences and five year MA: Afghanistan

Figure 4: Distribution of all 8 year growth rates Afghanistan vs. world

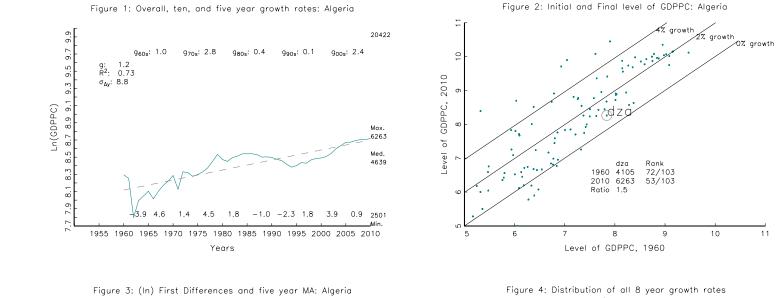




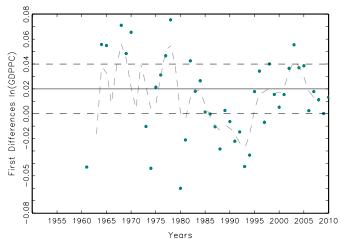


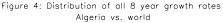


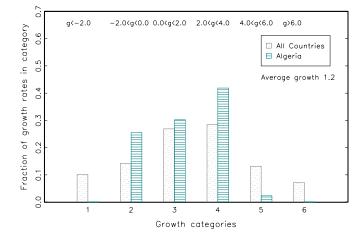
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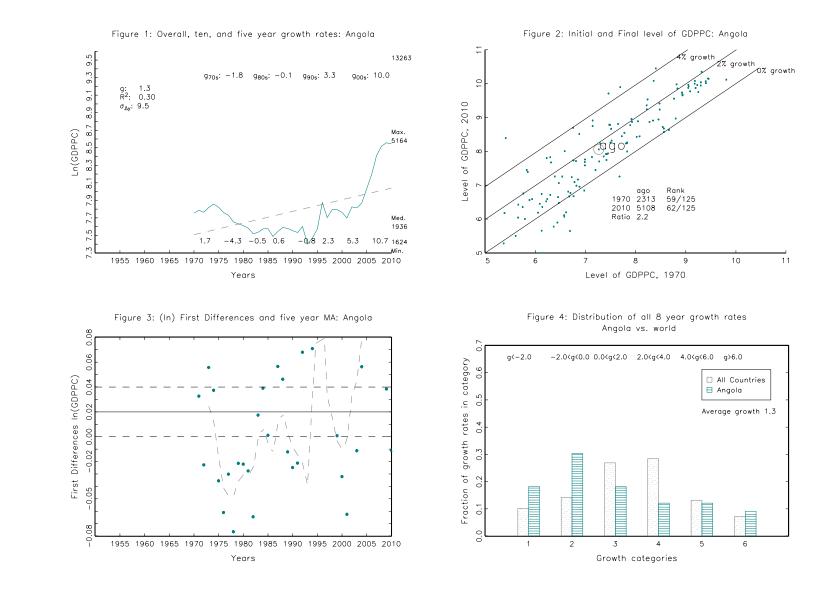


Algeria

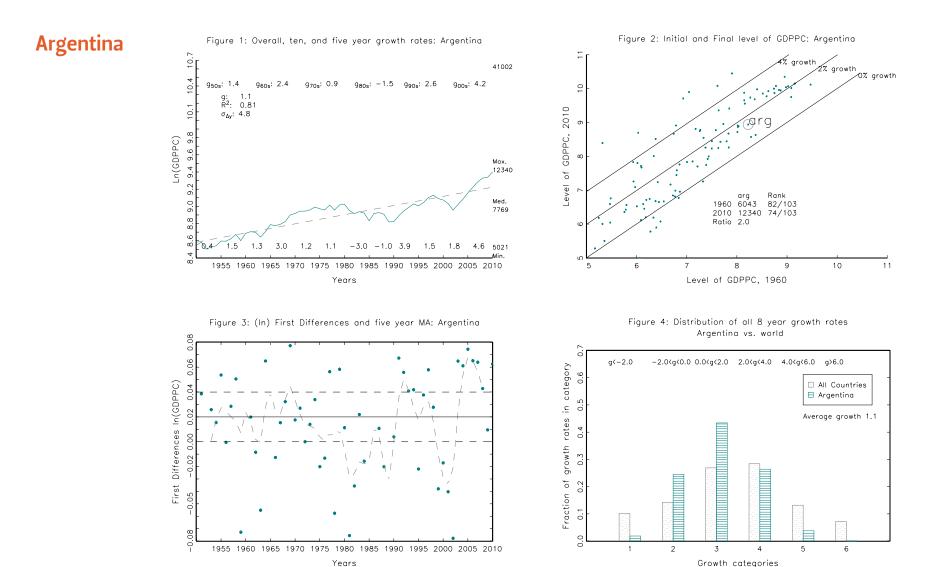


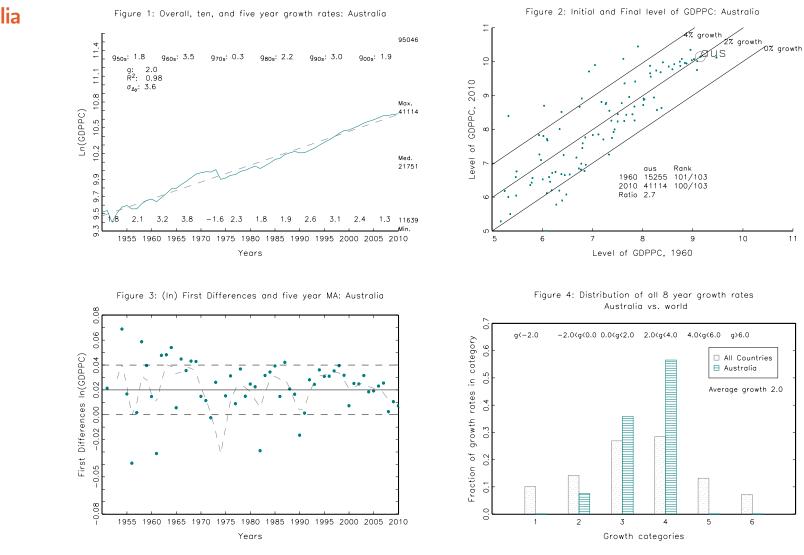




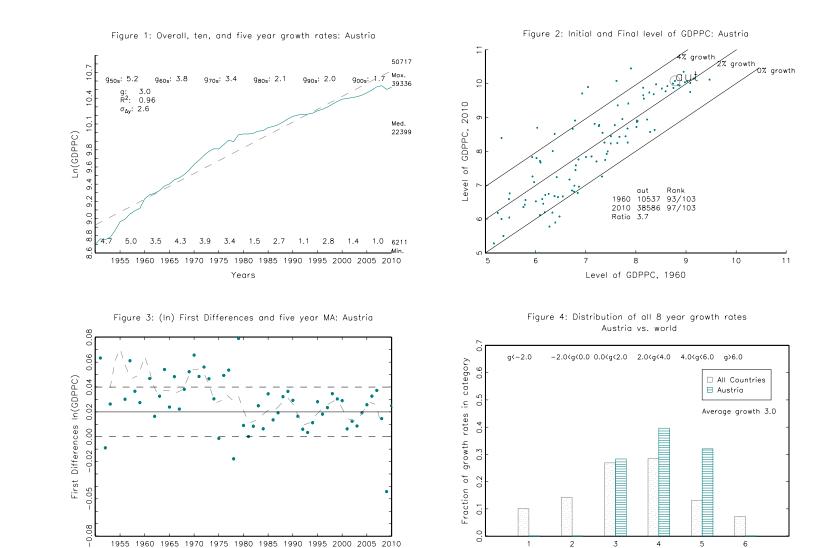


Angola





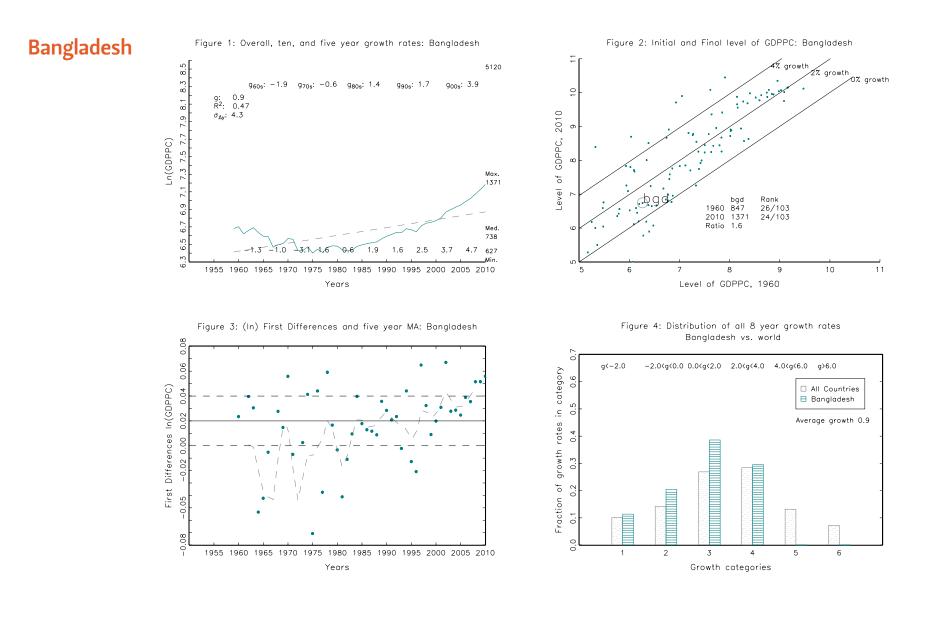
Australia

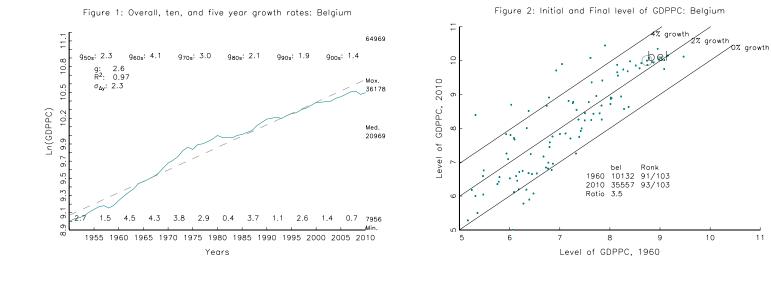


Growth categories

Years

Austria





Belgium

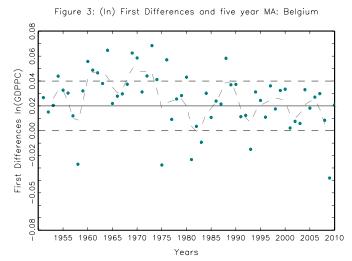
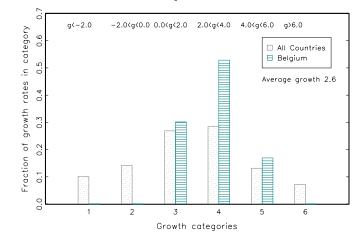
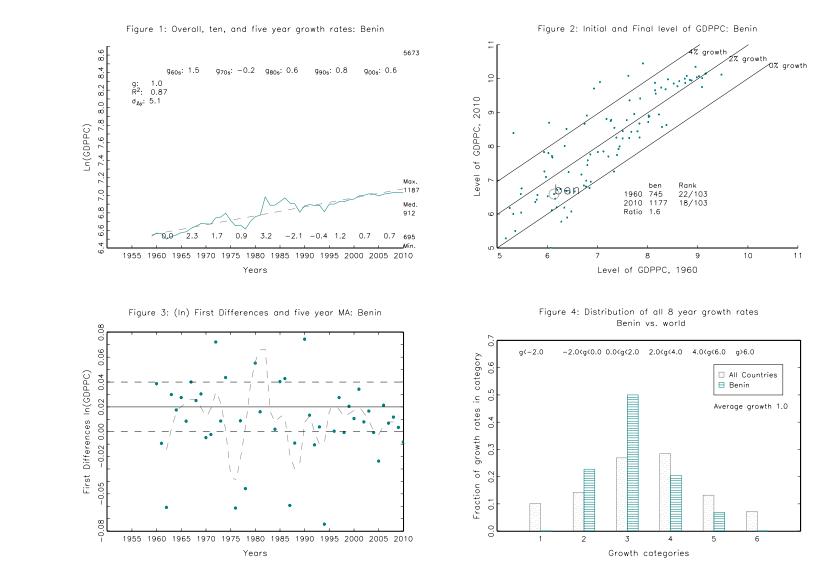


Figure 4: Distribution of all 8 year growth rates Belgium vs. world

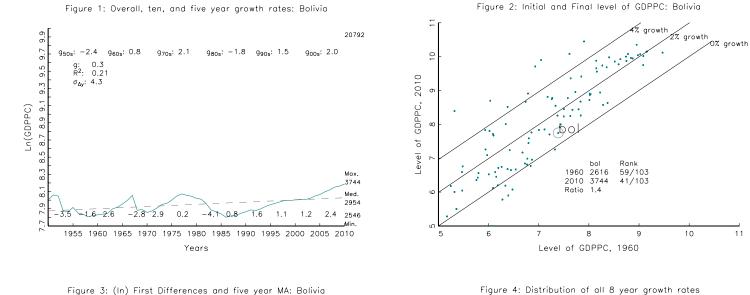






Benin





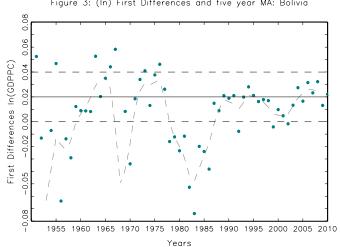
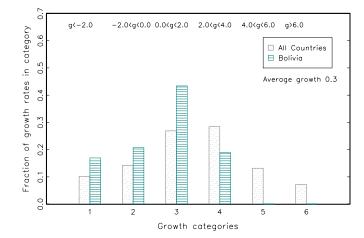


Figure 4: Distribution of all 8 year growth rates Bolivia vs. world

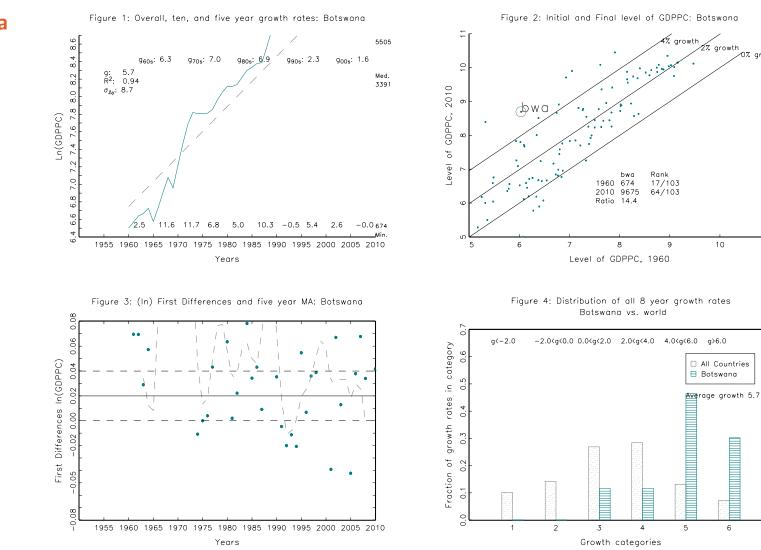


Bolivia



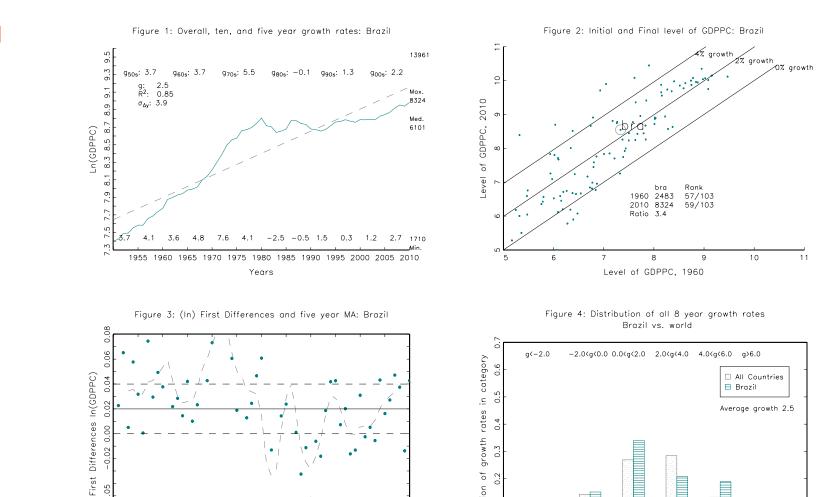
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Botswana





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Growth categories

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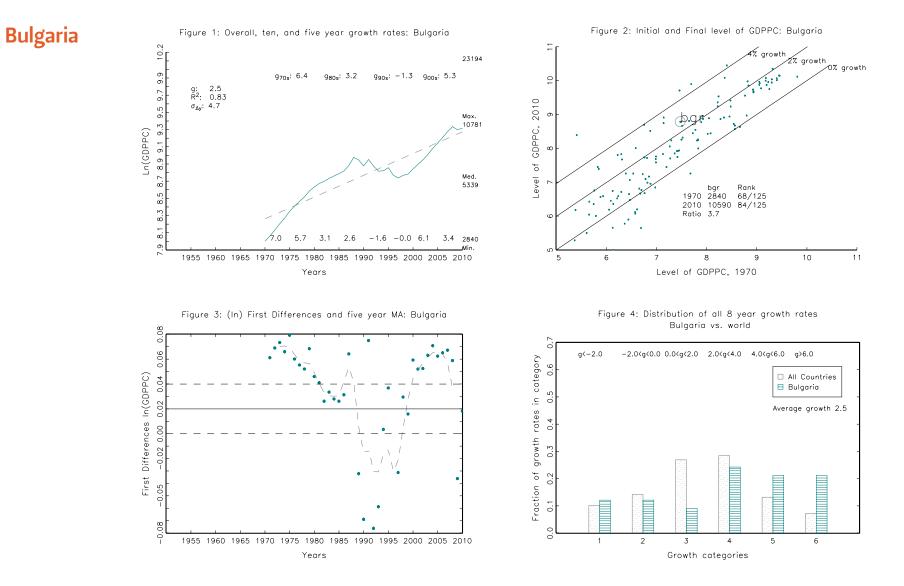
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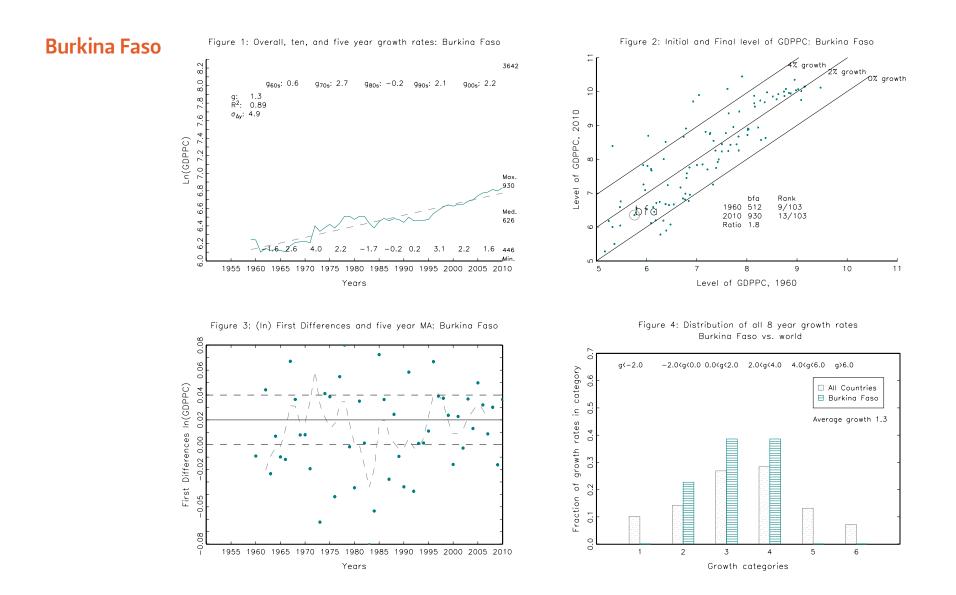
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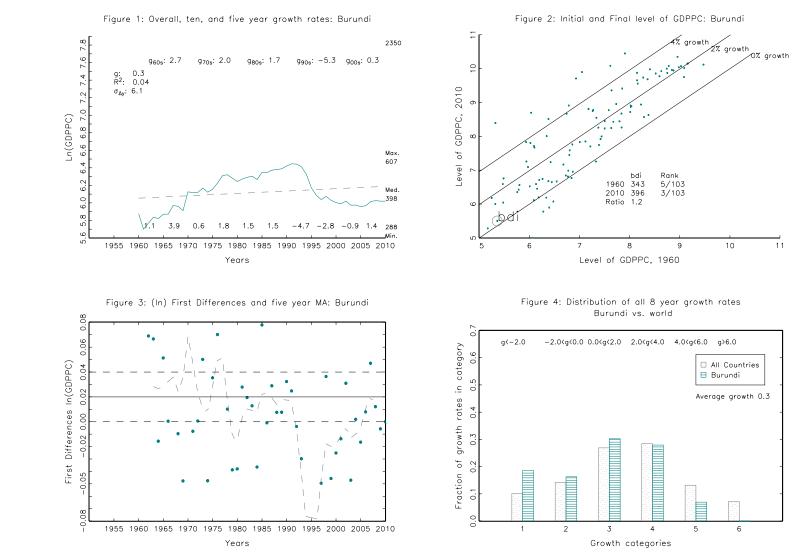
1955 1960 1965 1970 1975 1980 1985 1990 1995 2000 2005 2010

Years

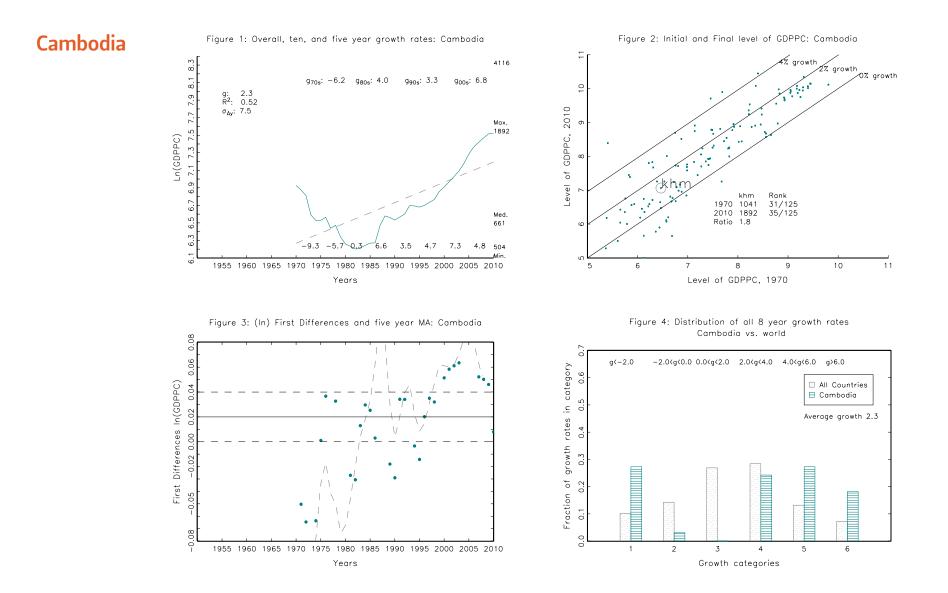


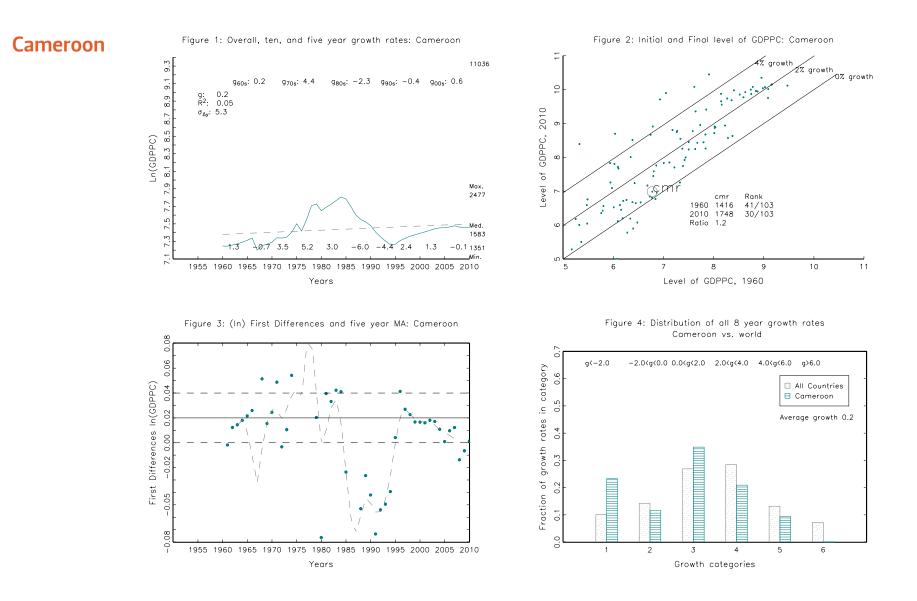


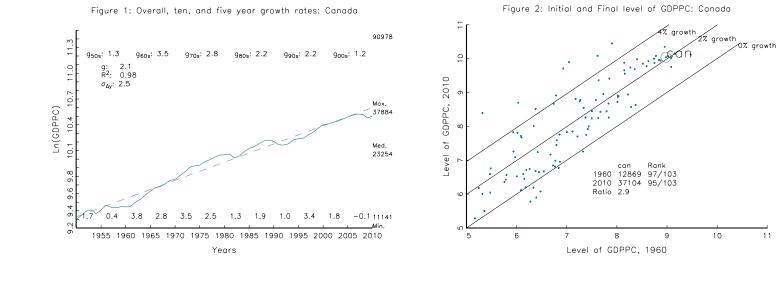




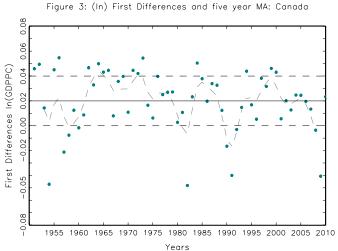
Burundi

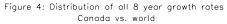












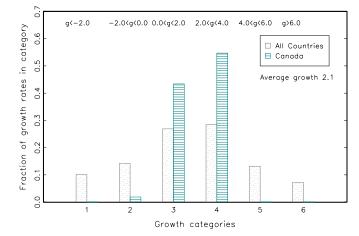
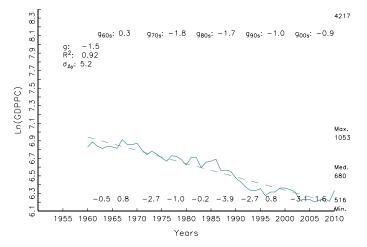
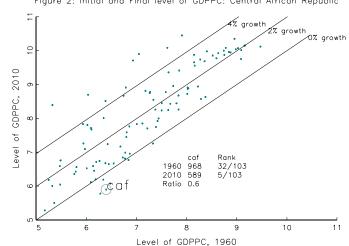






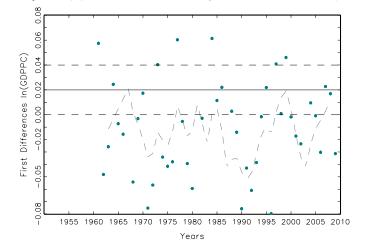
Figure 1: Overall, ten, and five year growth rates: Central African Republic











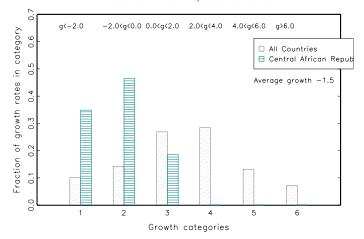
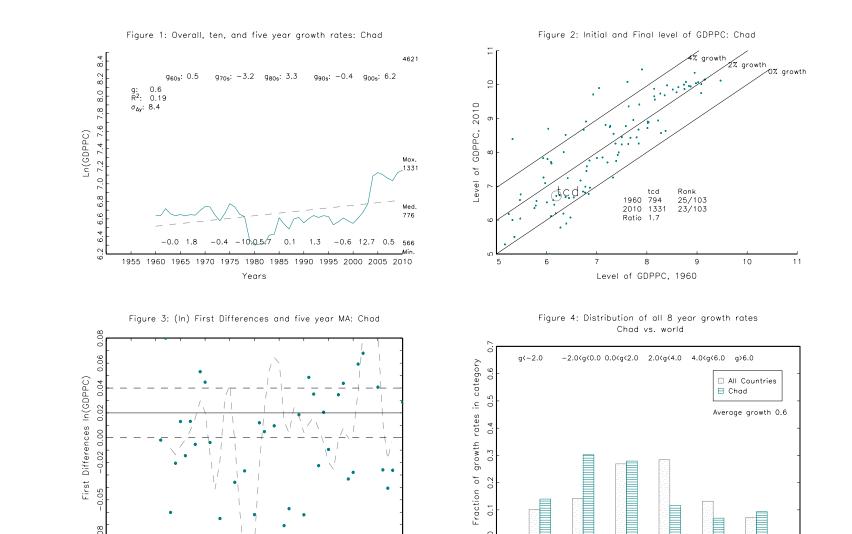


Figure 2: Initial and Final level of GDPPC: Central African Republic





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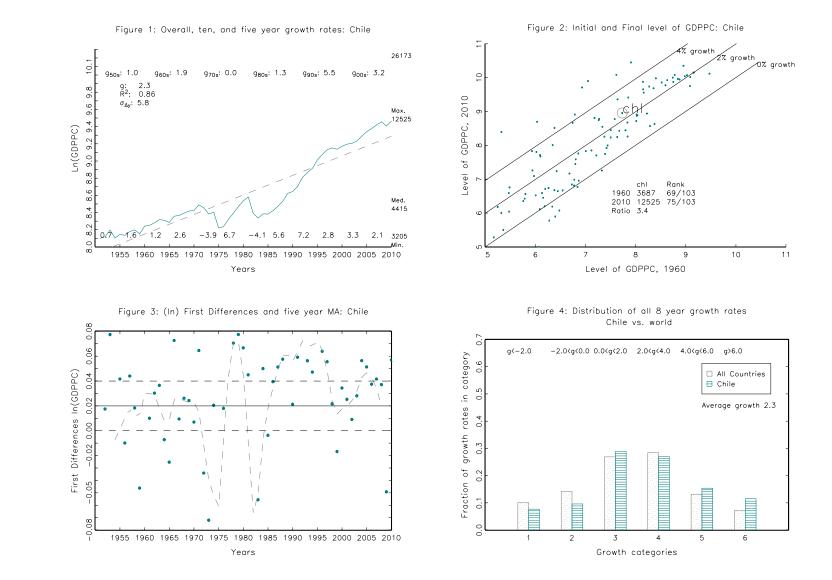
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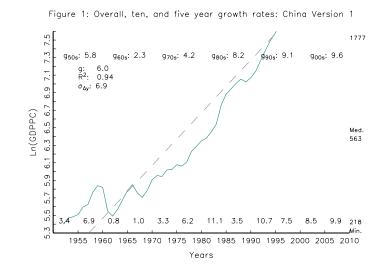


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Chile





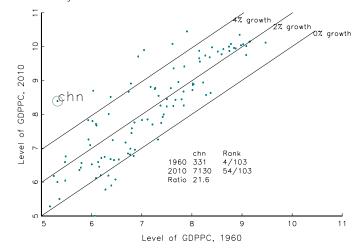


Figure 2: Initial and Final level of GDPPC: China Version 1

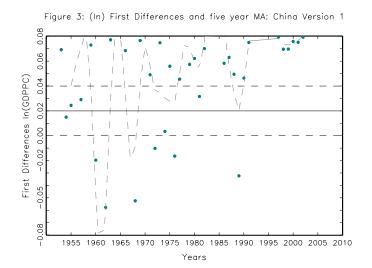
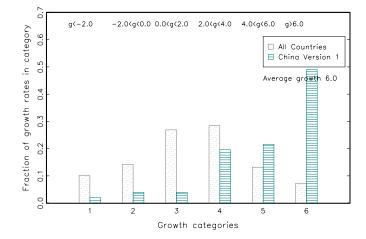
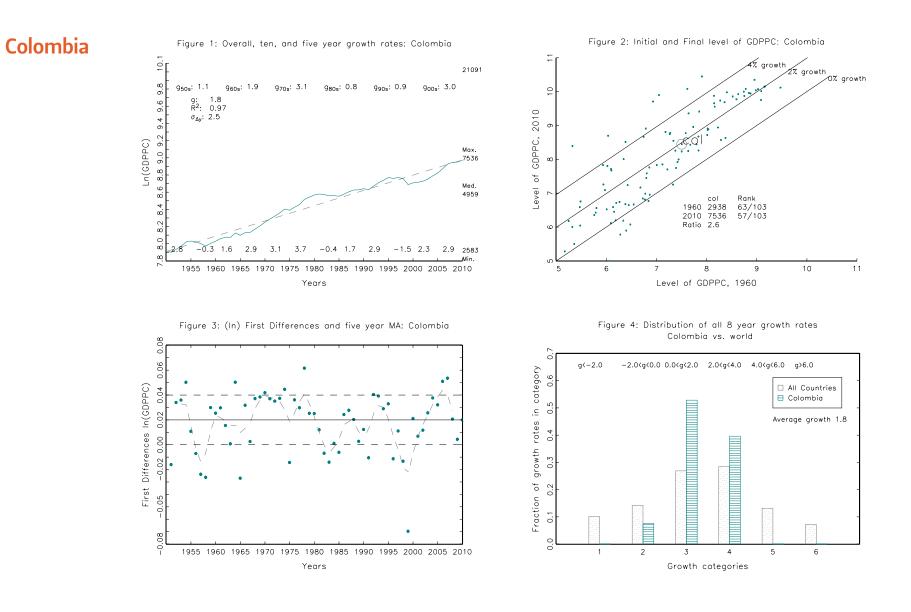
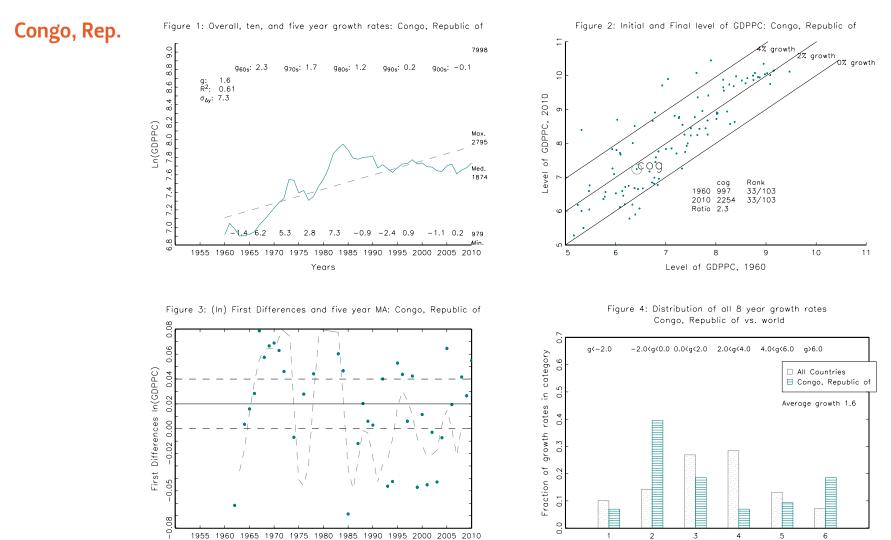


Figure 4: Distribution of all 8 year growth rates China Version 1 vs. world









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Growth categories

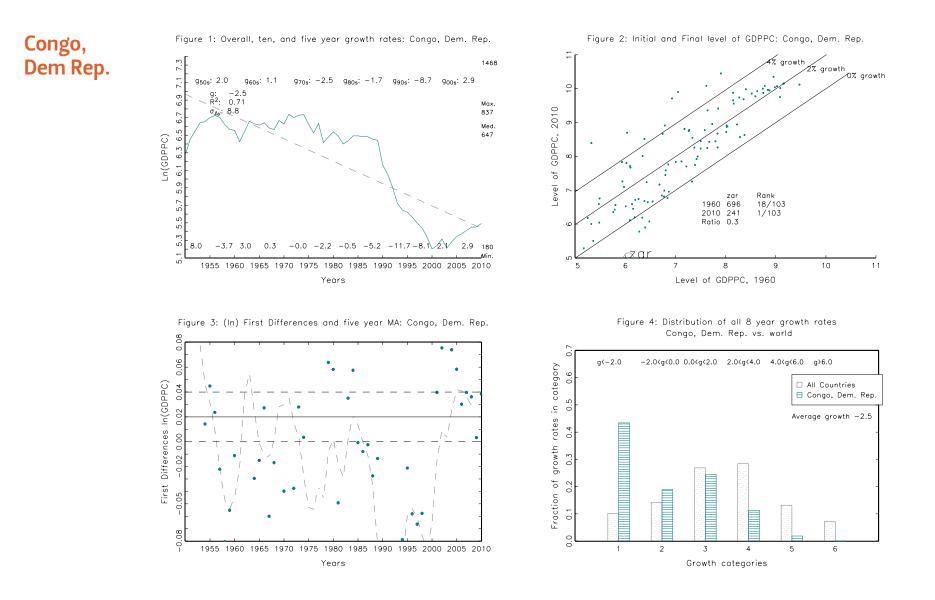
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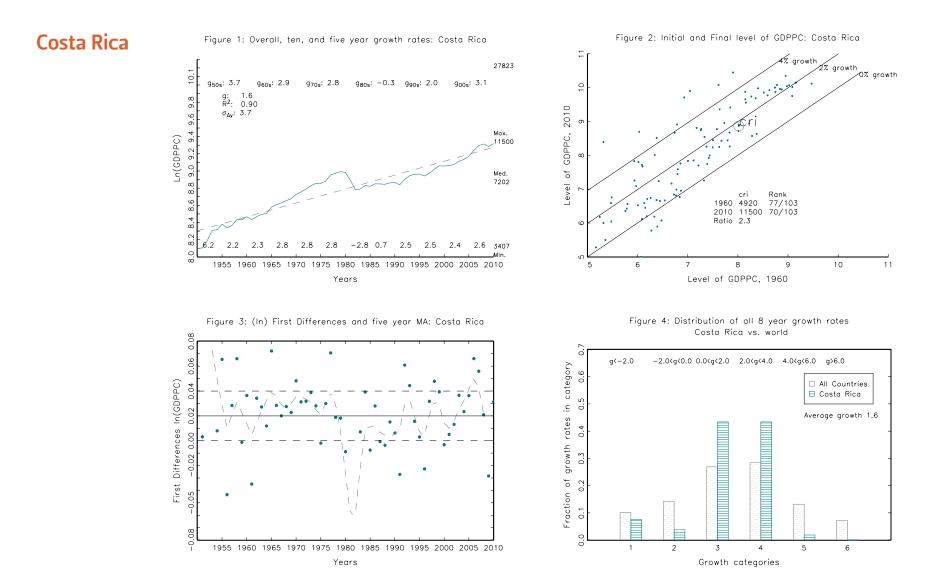
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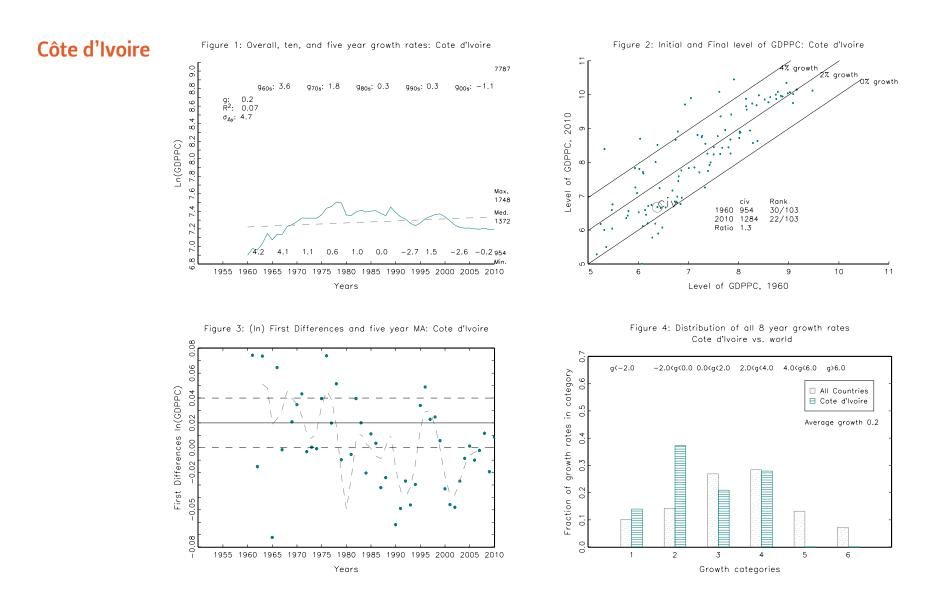
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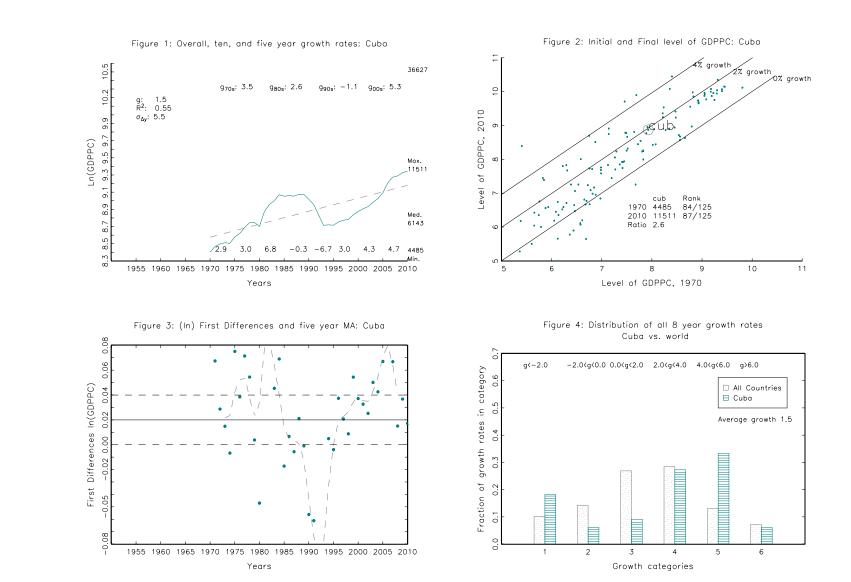






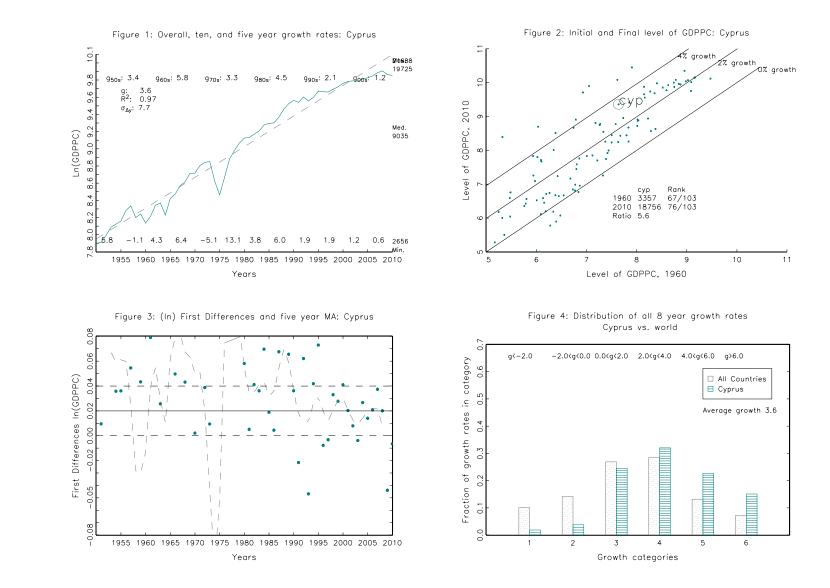






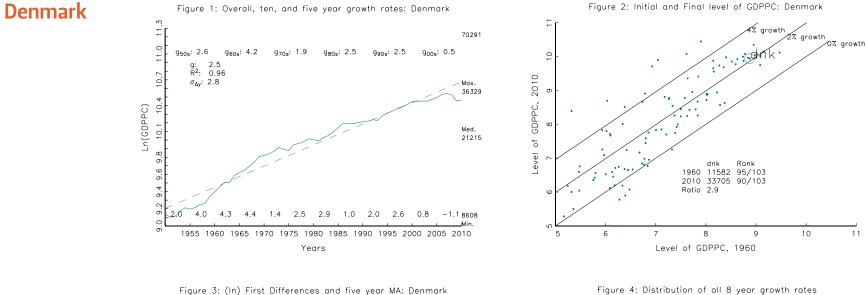
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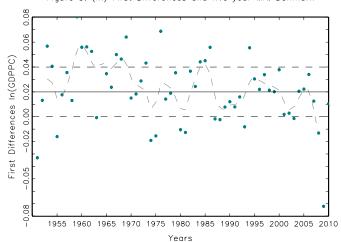


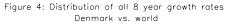


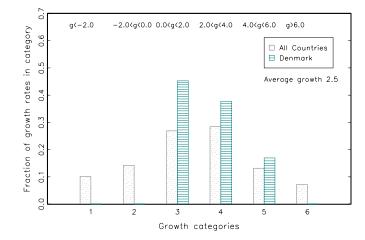
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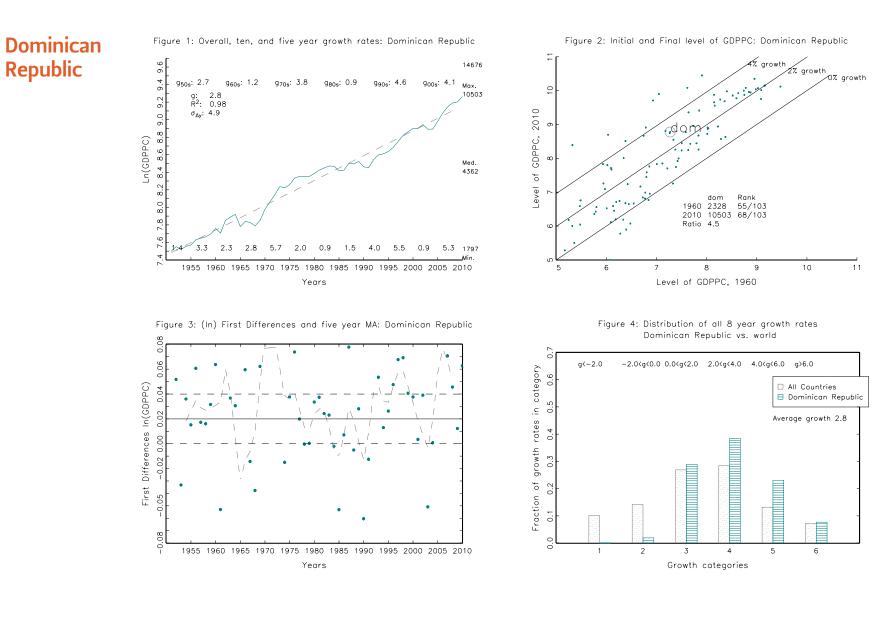


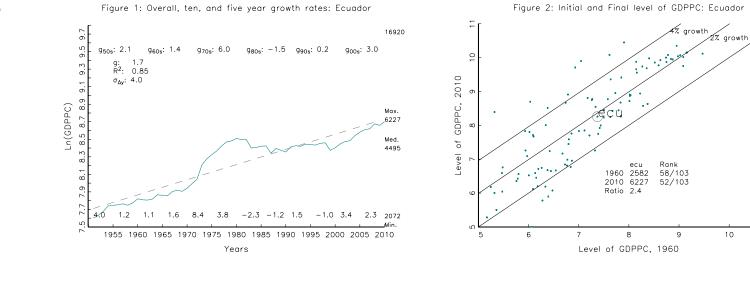




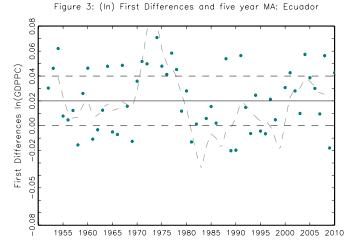








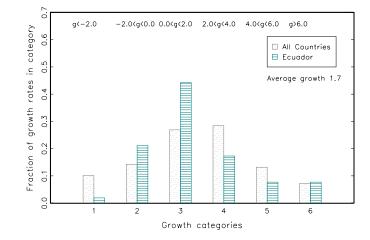
Ecuador



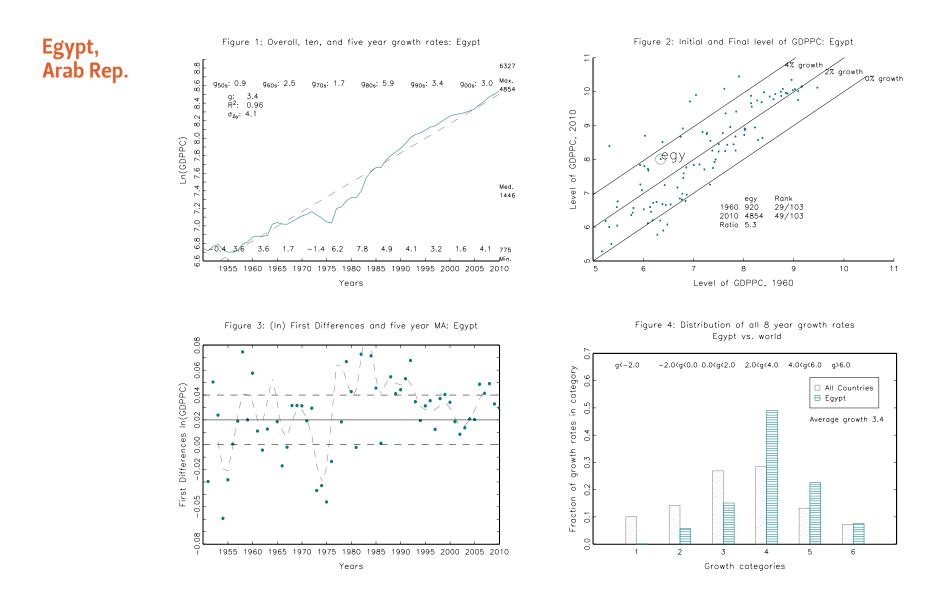
Years

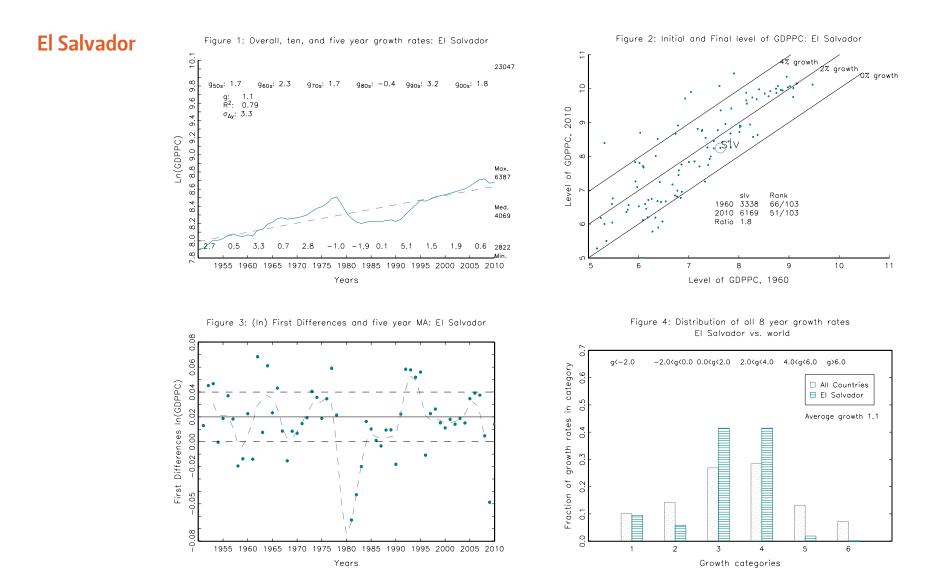
Figure 4: Distribution of all 8 year growth rates Ecuador vs. world

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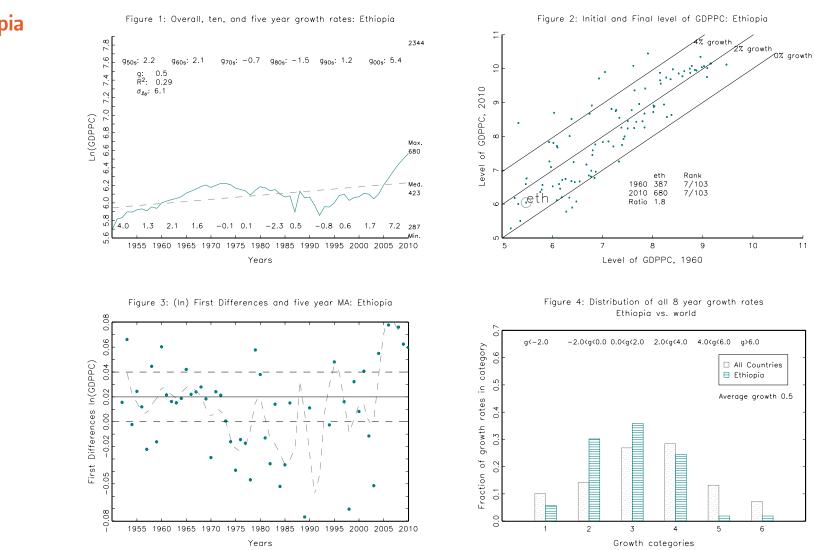








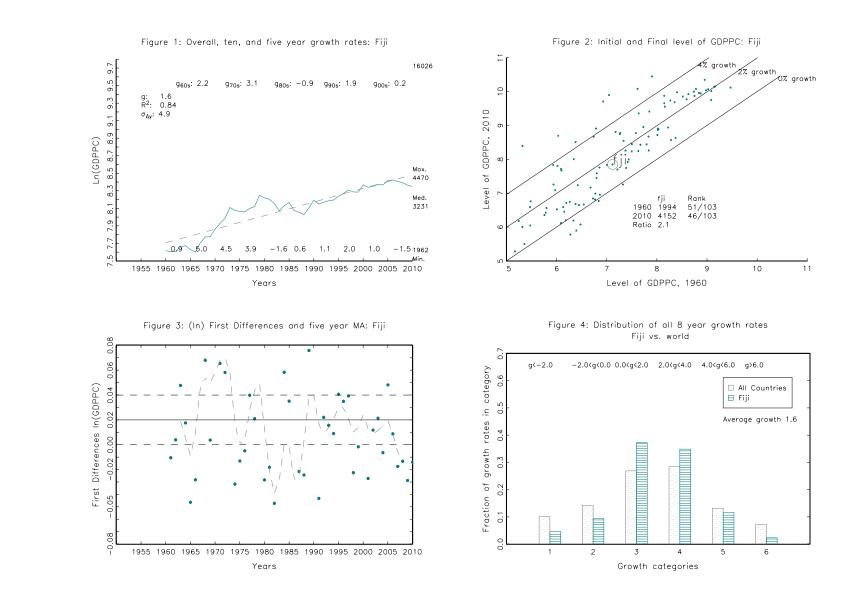


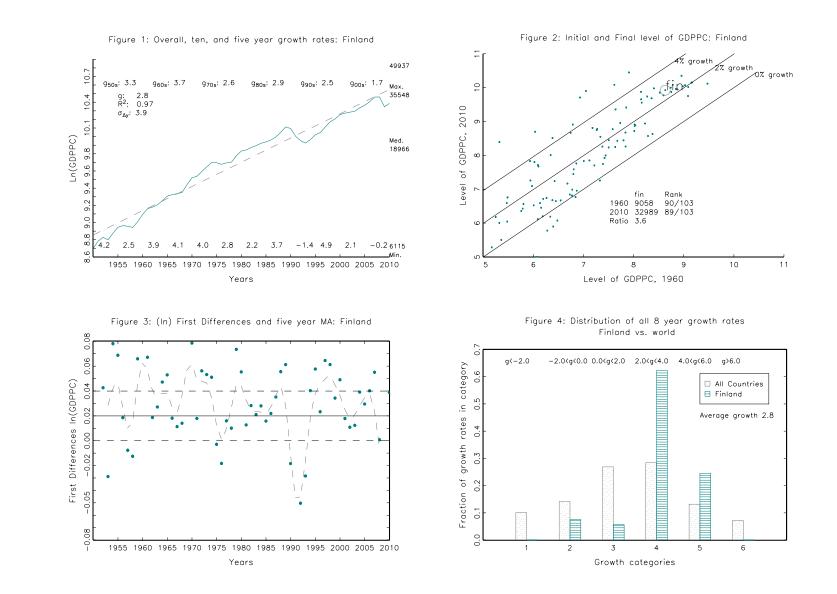


Ethiopia

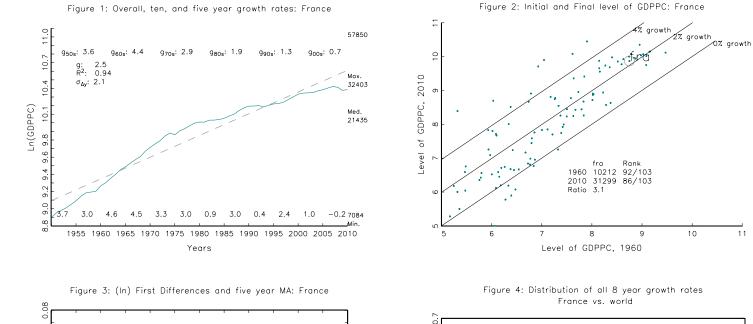


Fiji

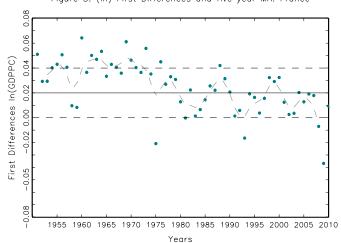


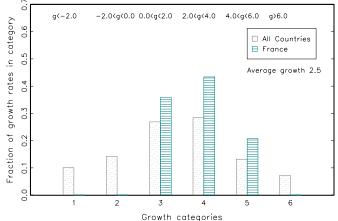


Finland

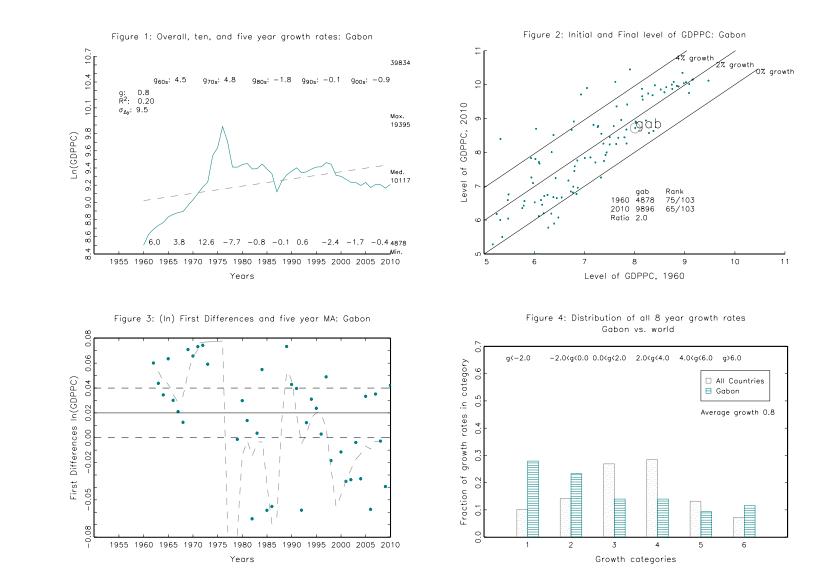


France

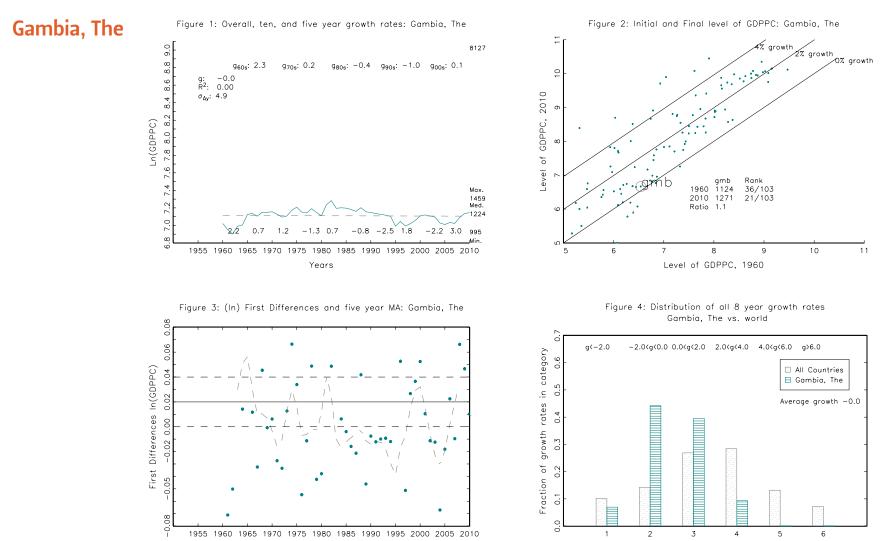




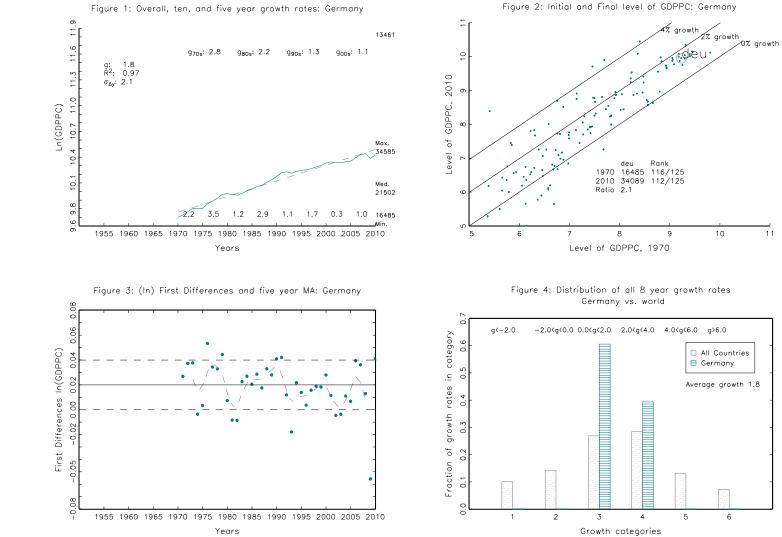




Gabon

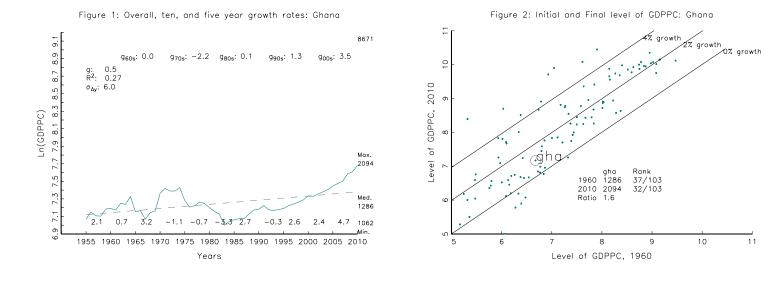


Growth categories

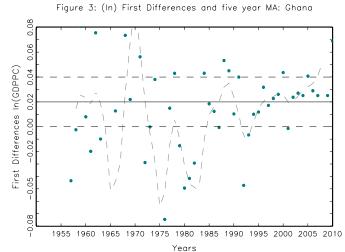


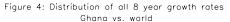
Germany

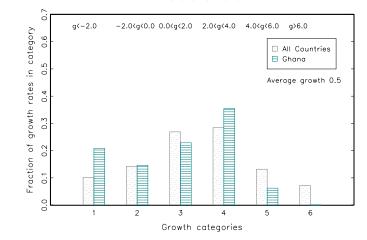




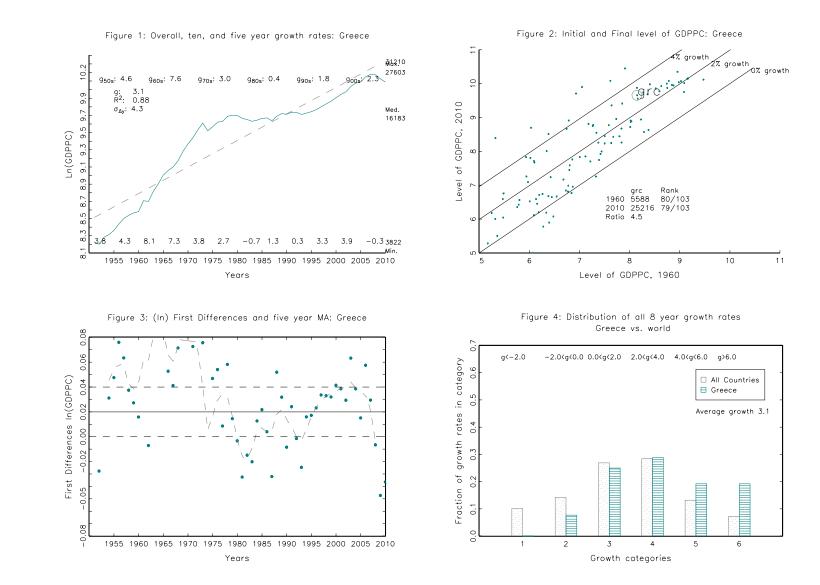
Ghana



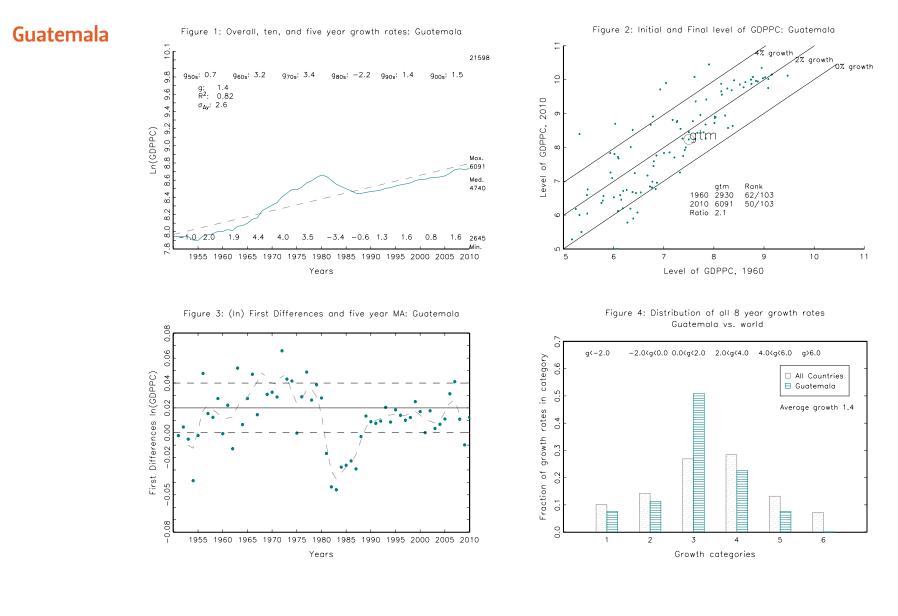


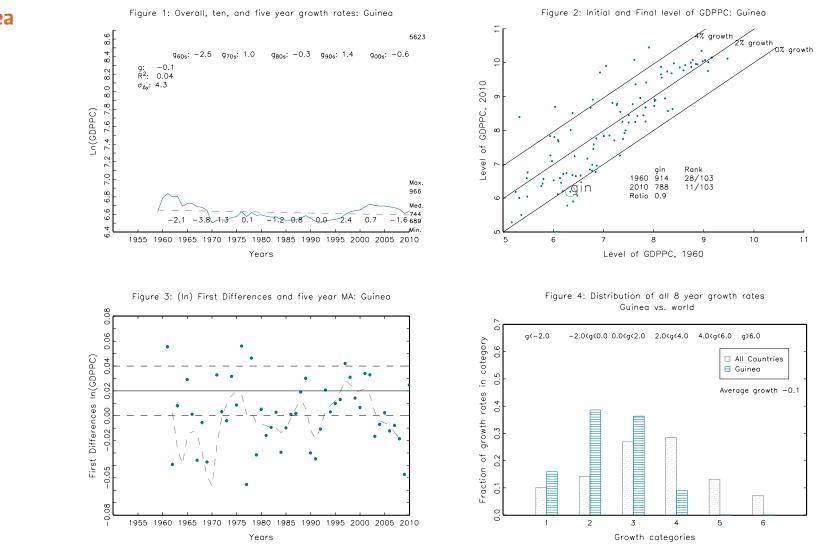






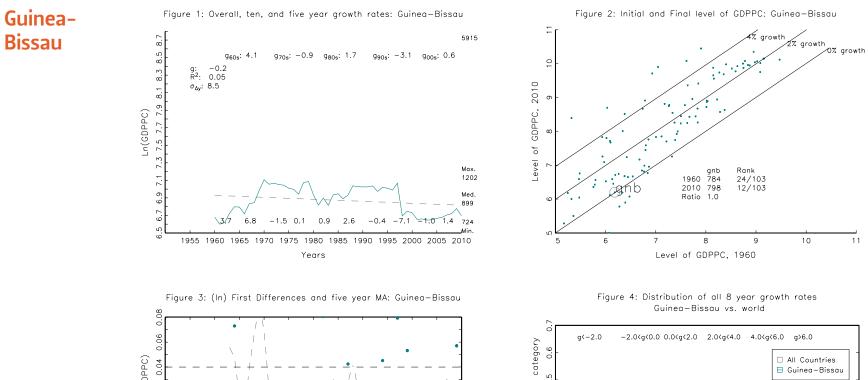
Greece

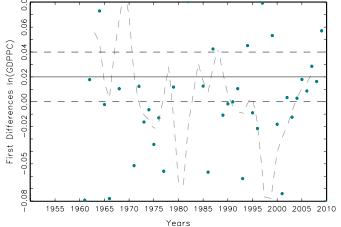


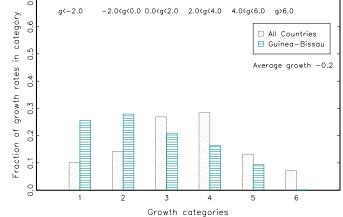


Guinea

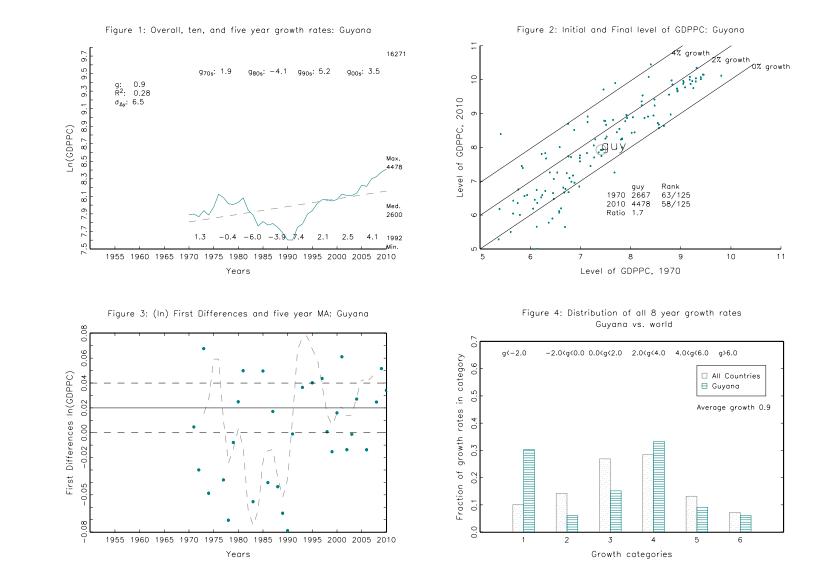


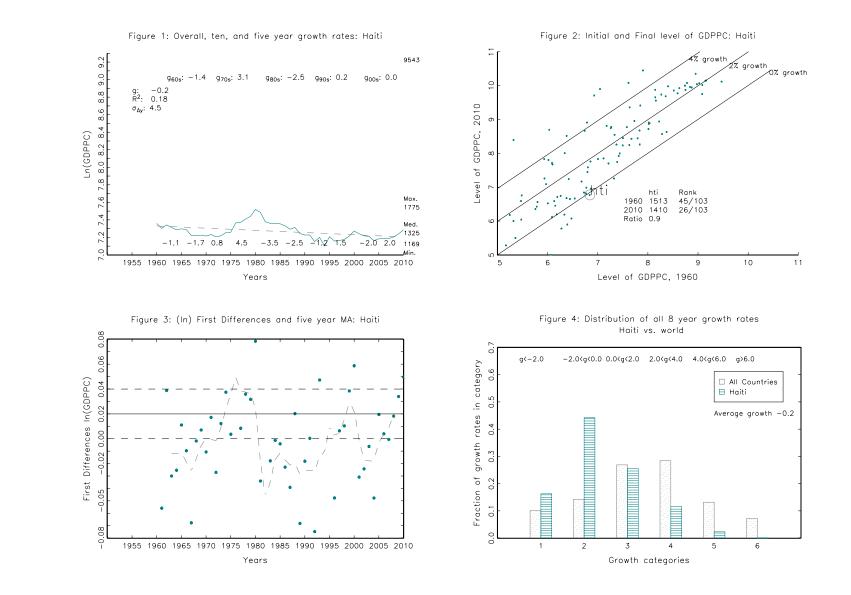






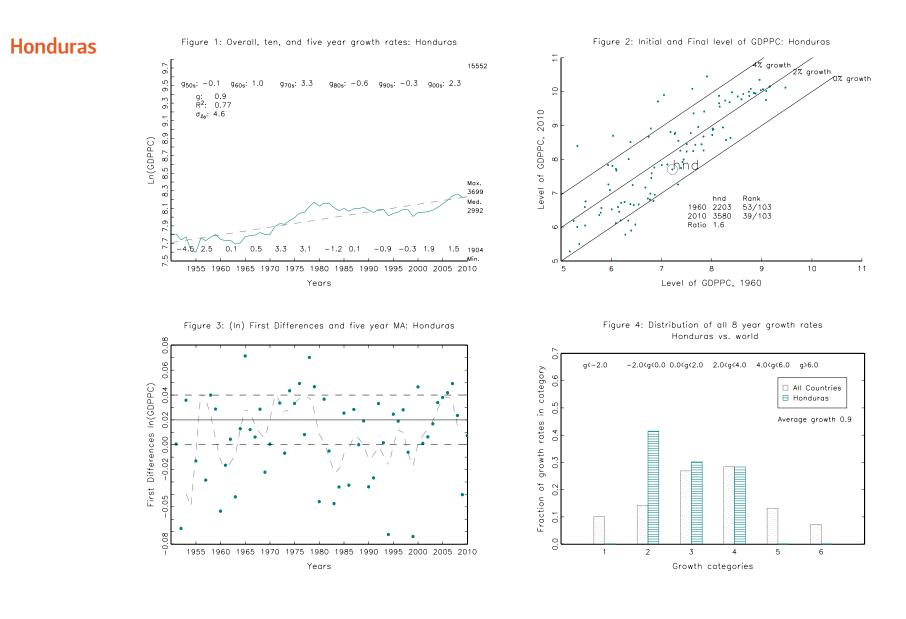


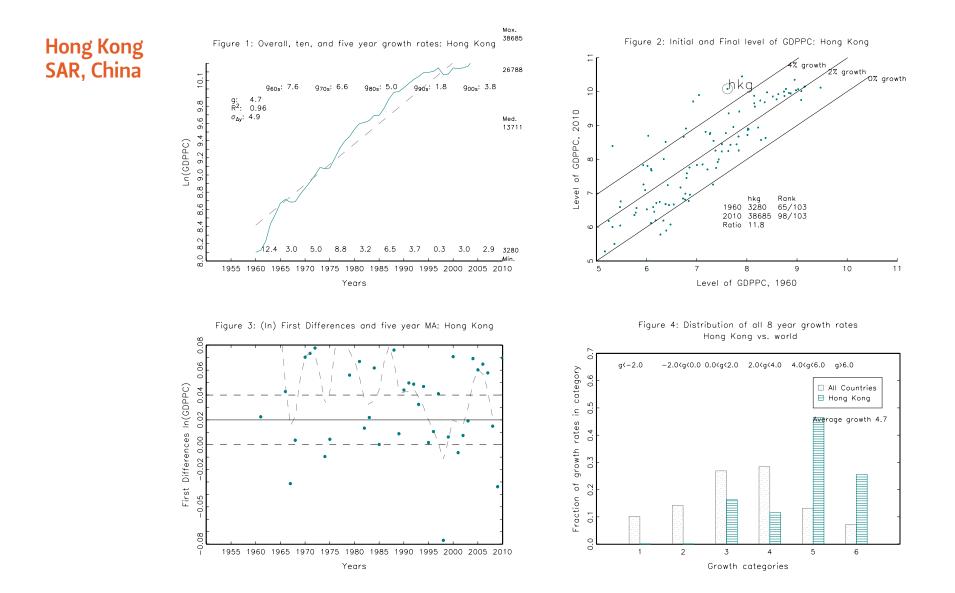




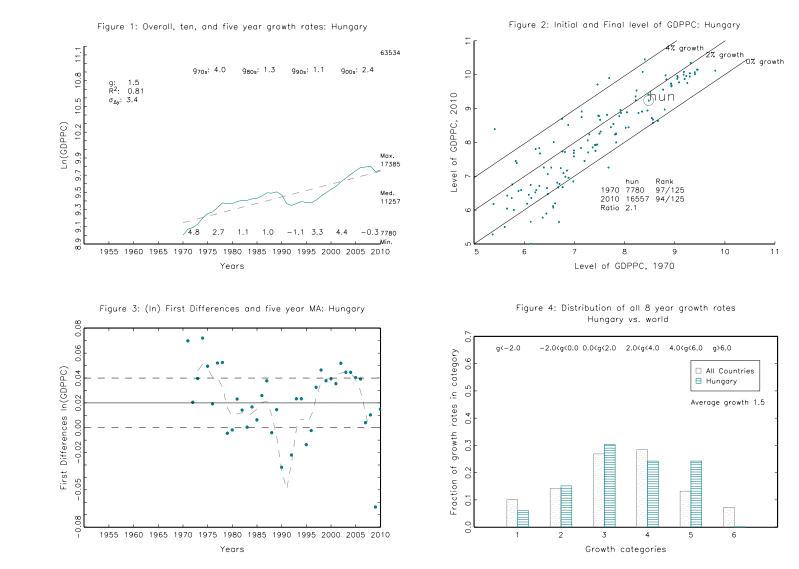
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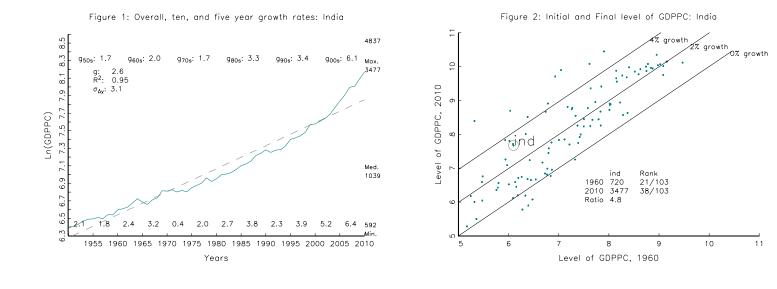








Hungary



India

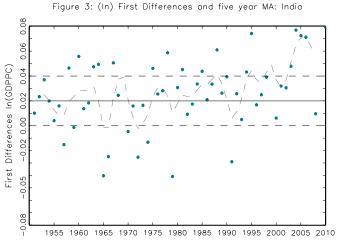
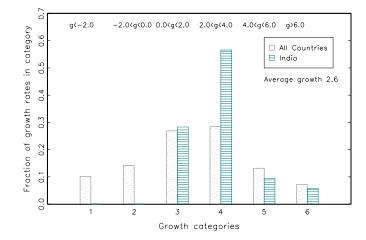
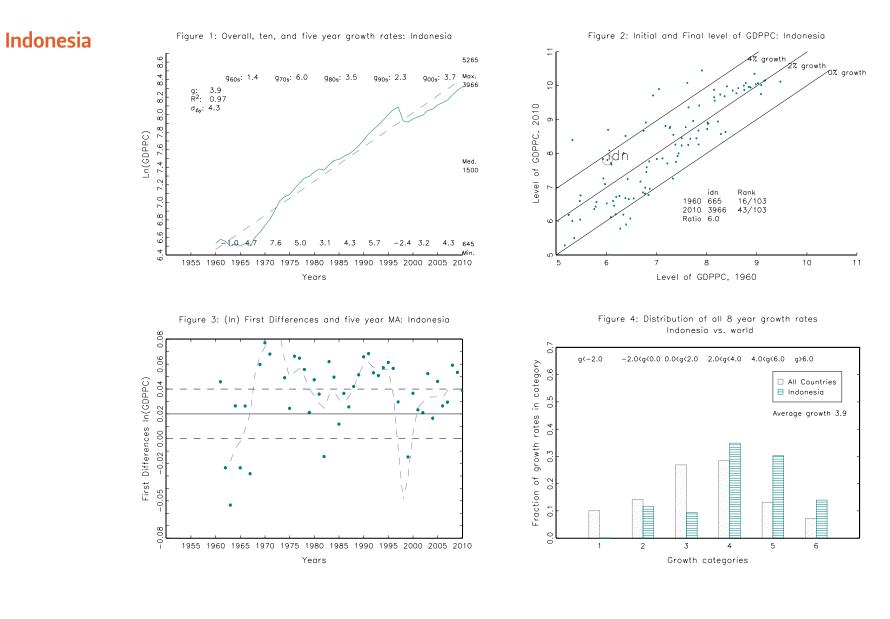


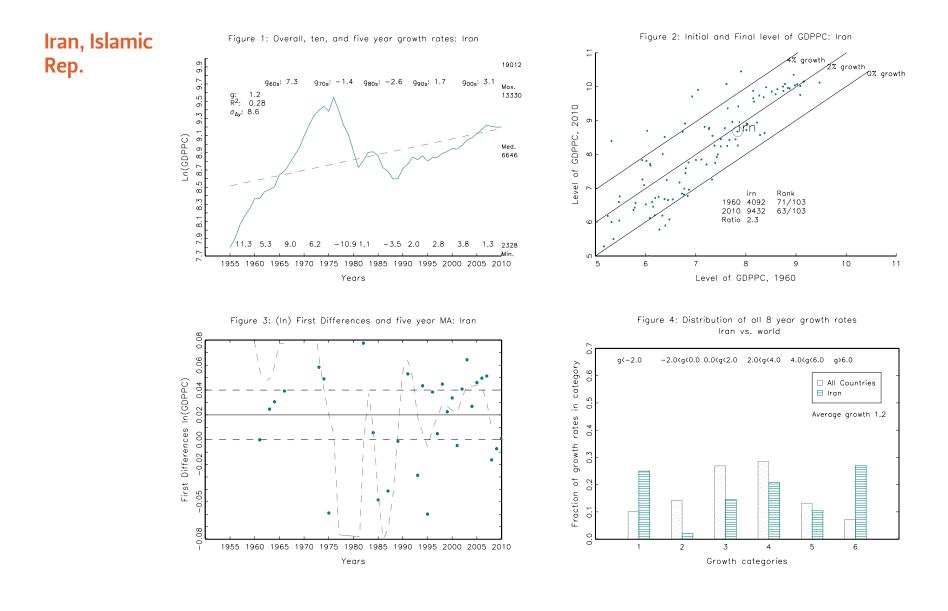


Figure 4: Distribution of all 8 year growth rates India vs. world

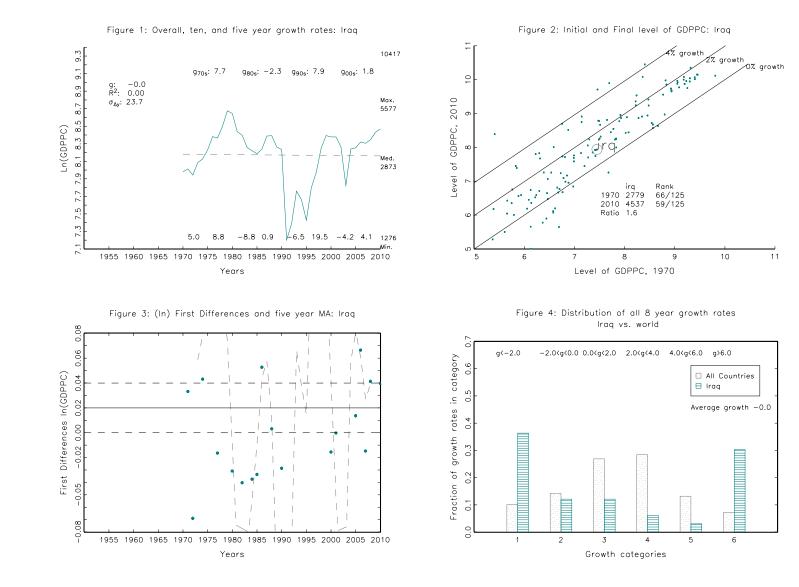




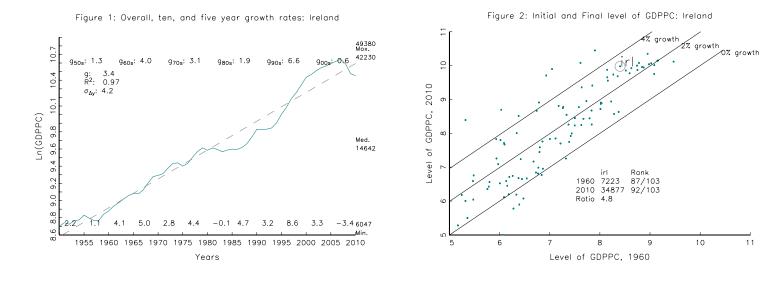




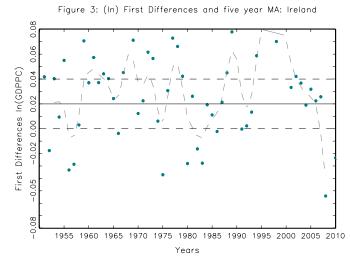


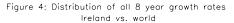


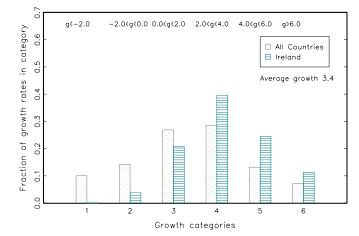
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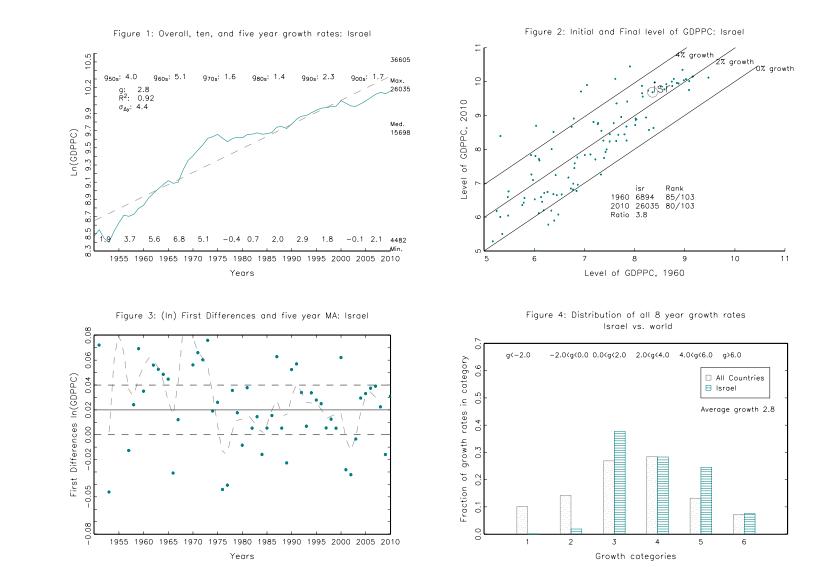
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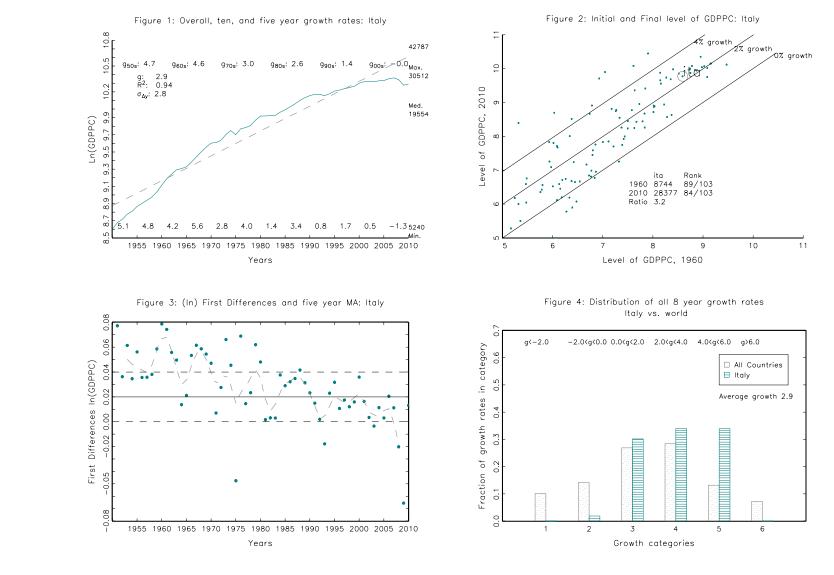






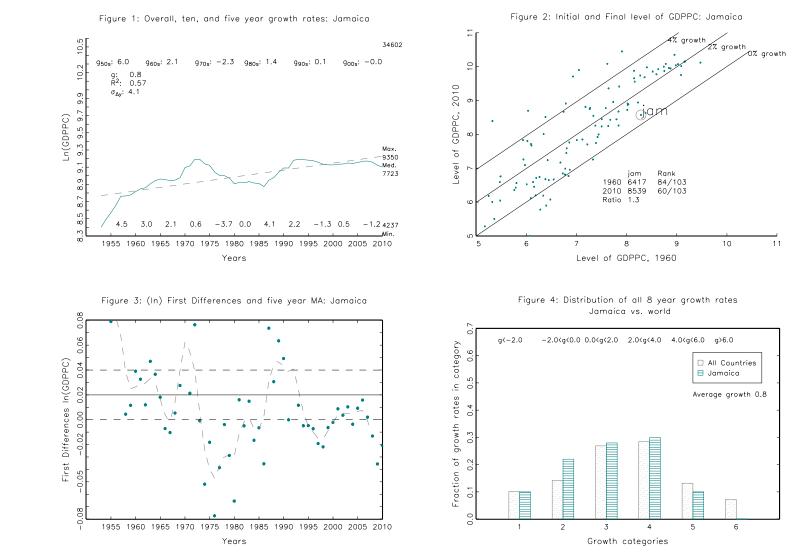


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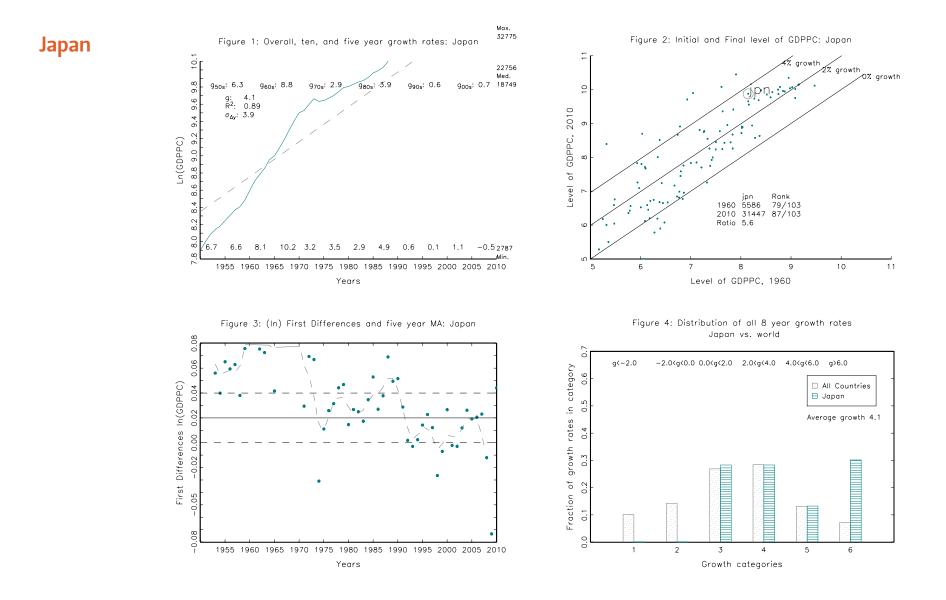


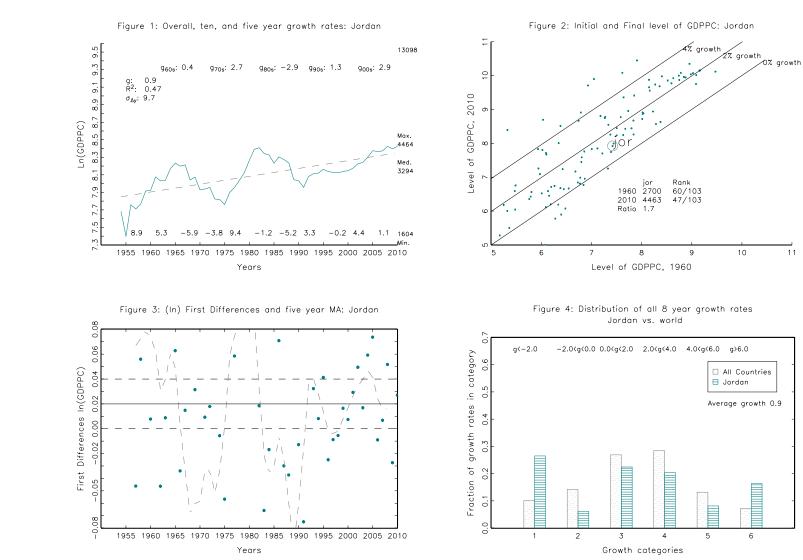
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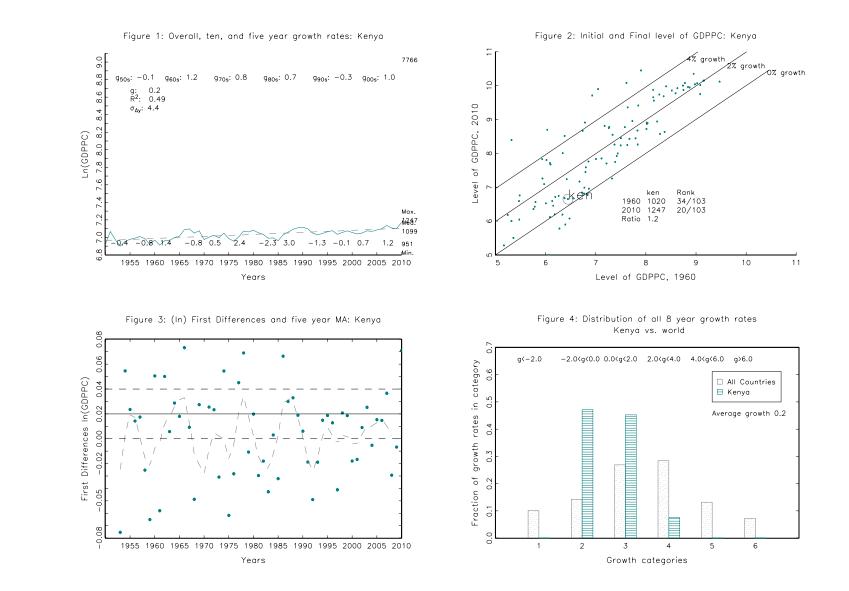


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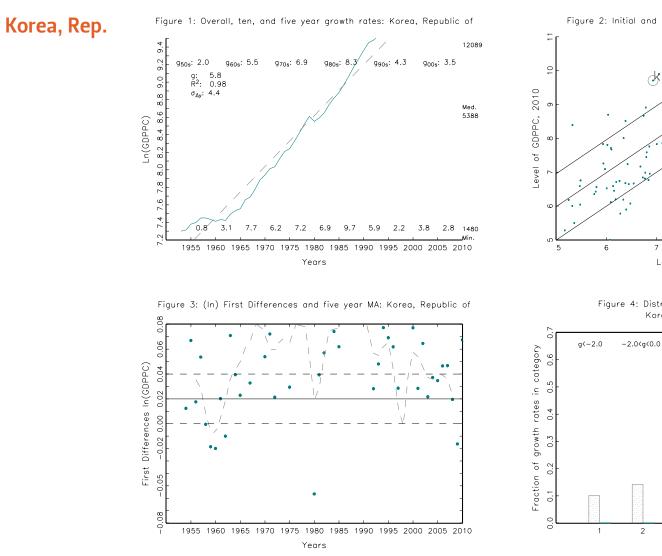




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Kenya



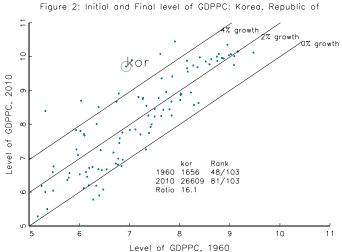
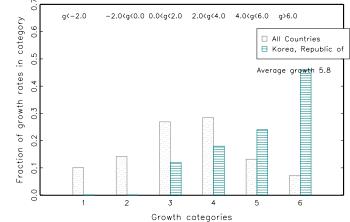
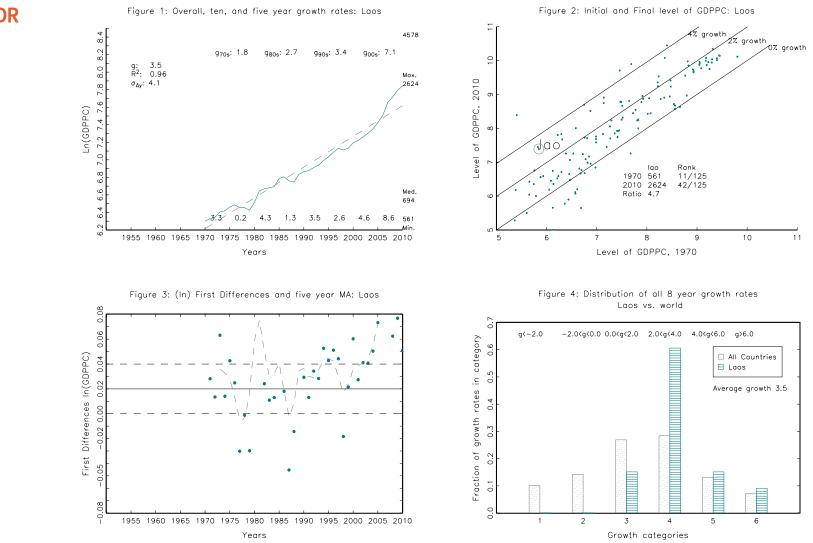


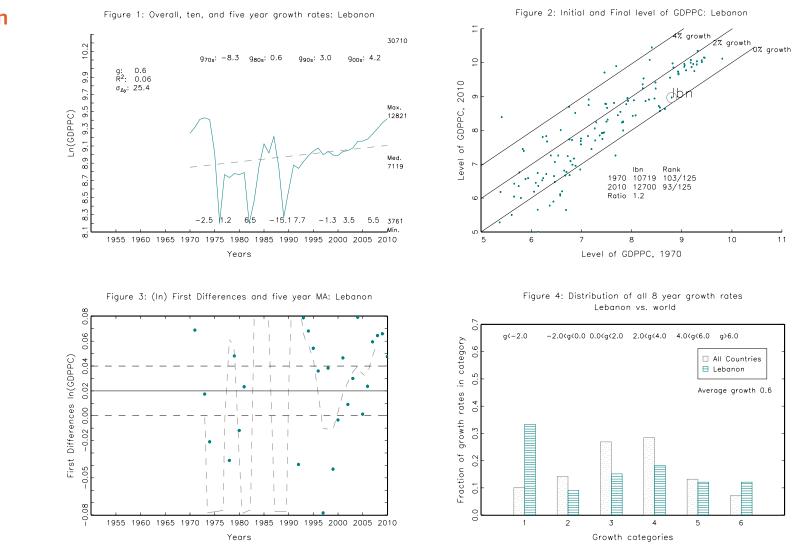
Figure 4: Distribution of all 8 year growth rates Korea, Republic of vs. world





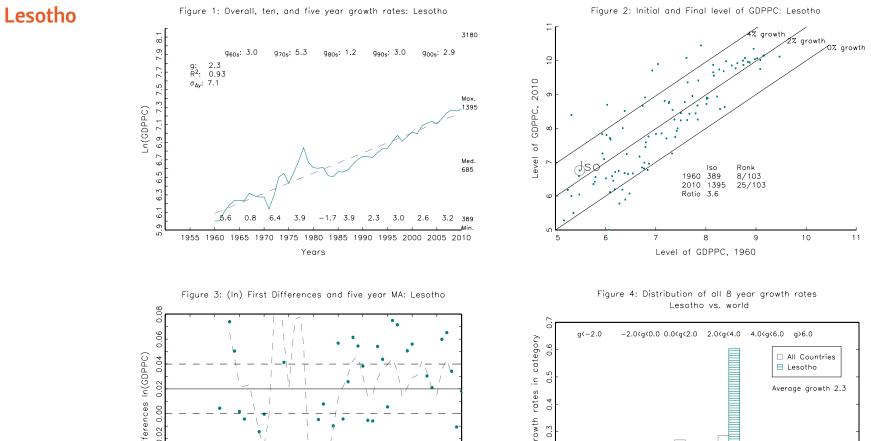
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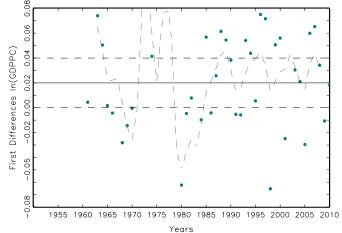


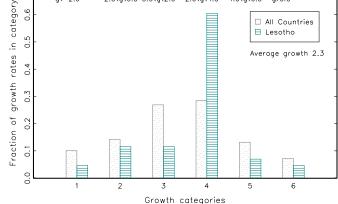


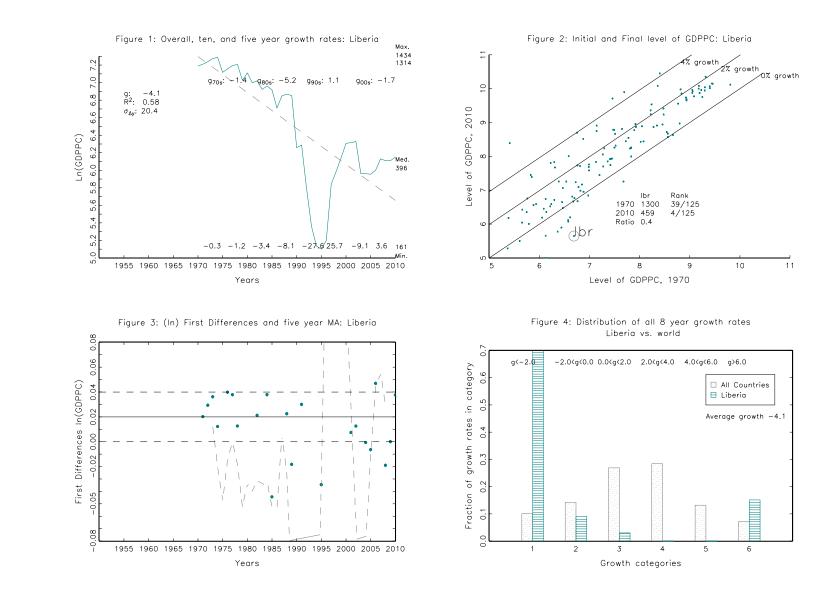
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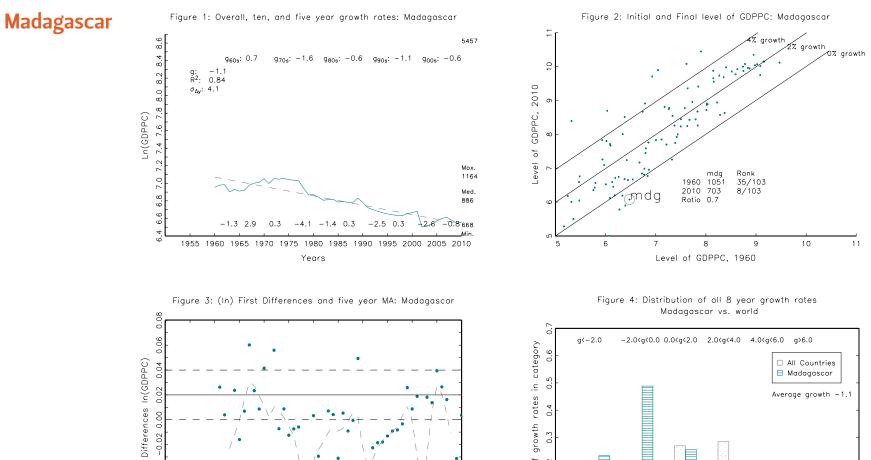














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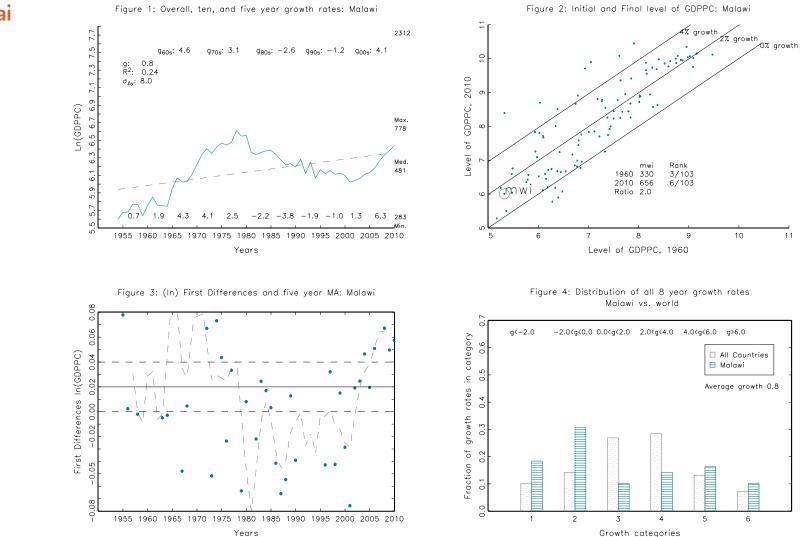
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Growth categories

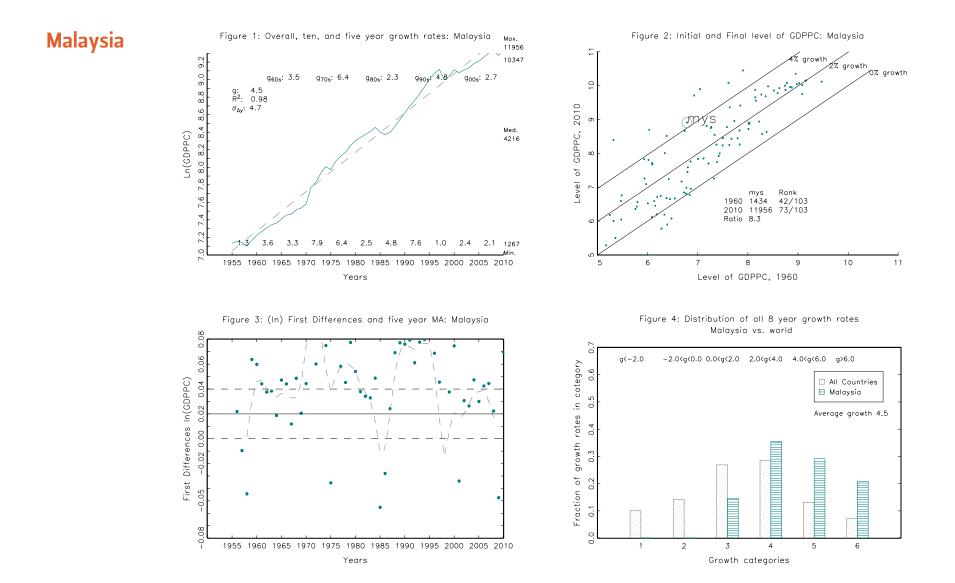
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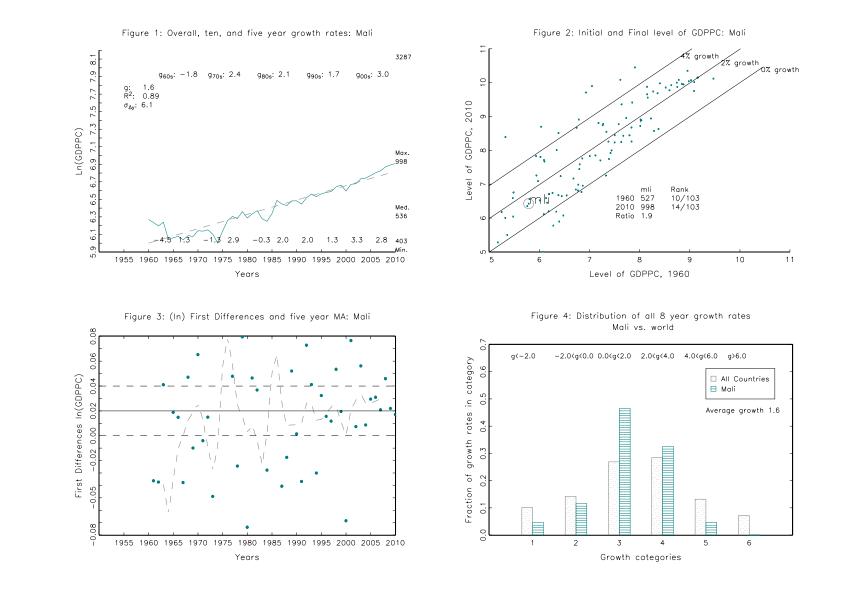


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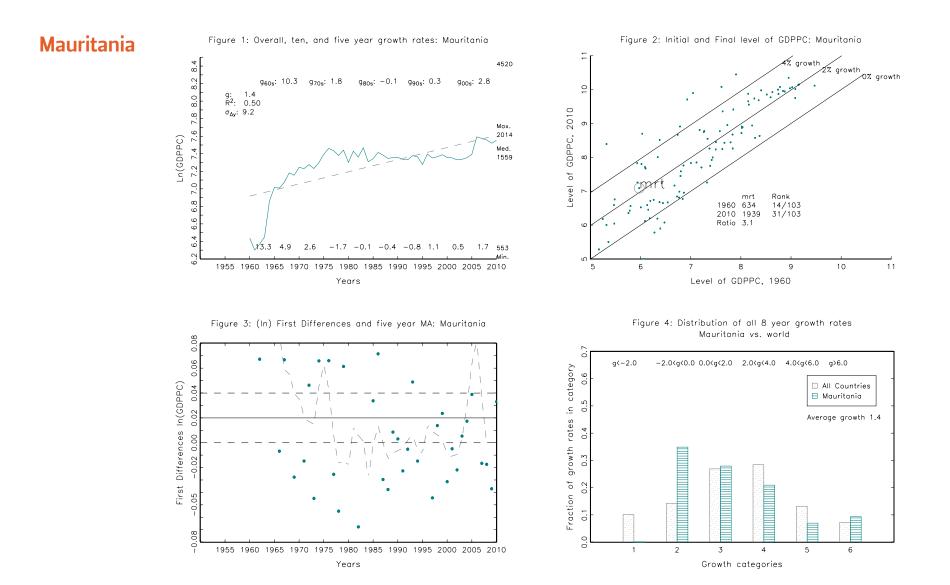
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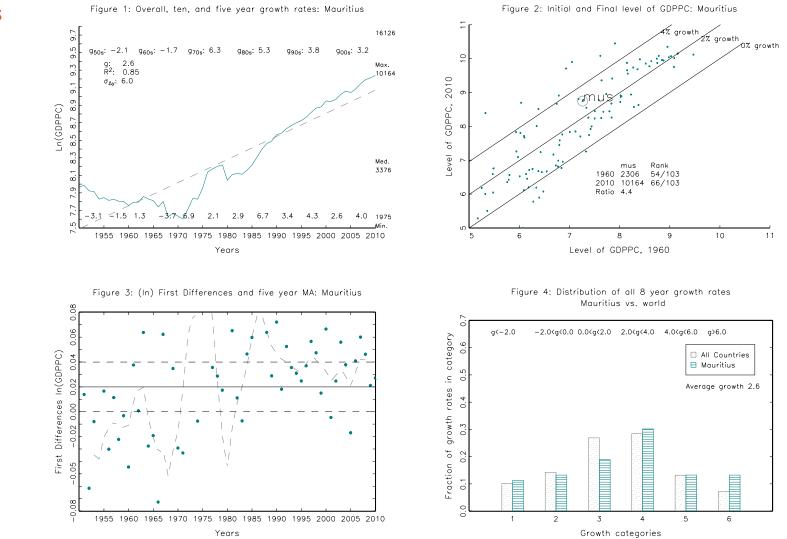
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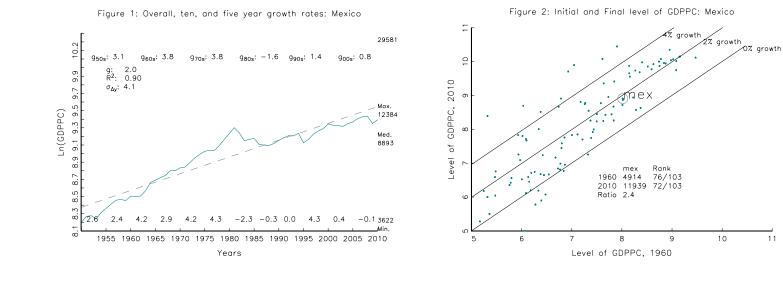
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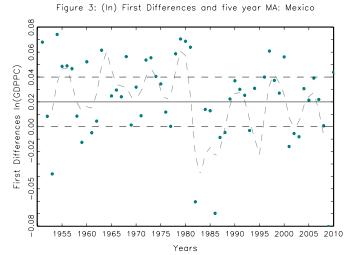


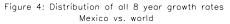


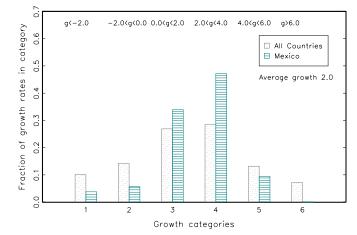
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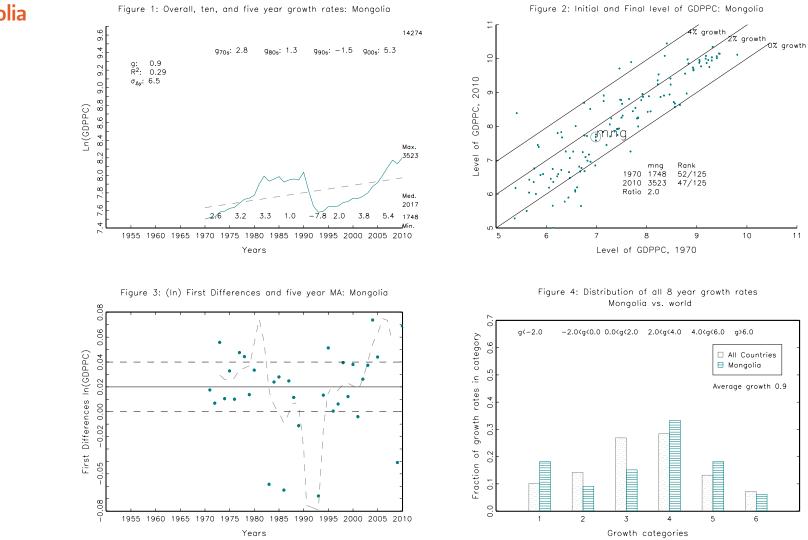
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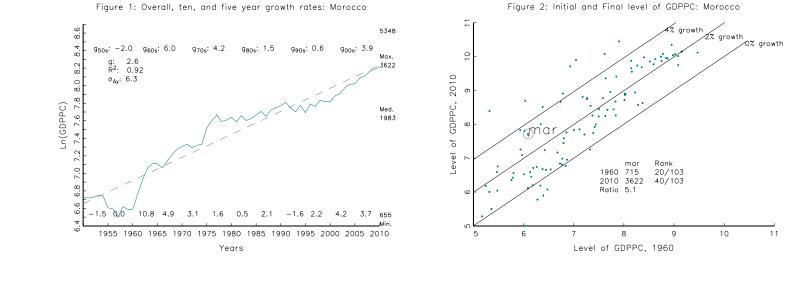




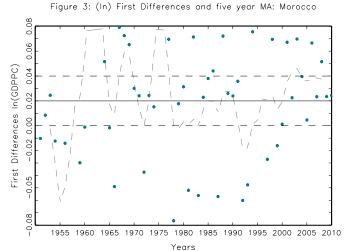


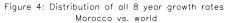


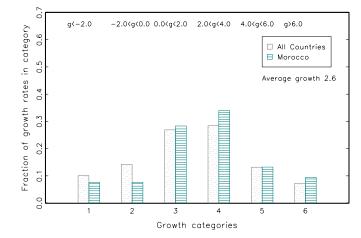
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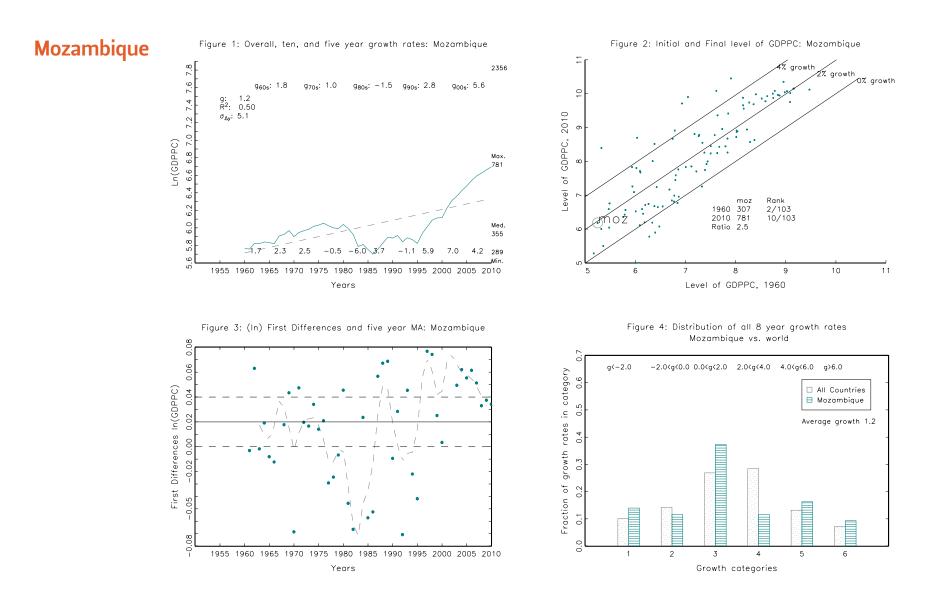
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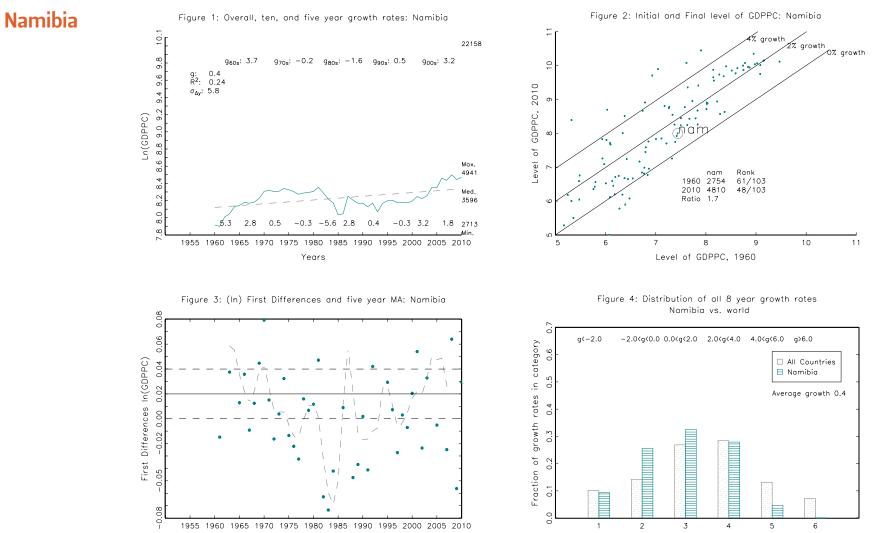






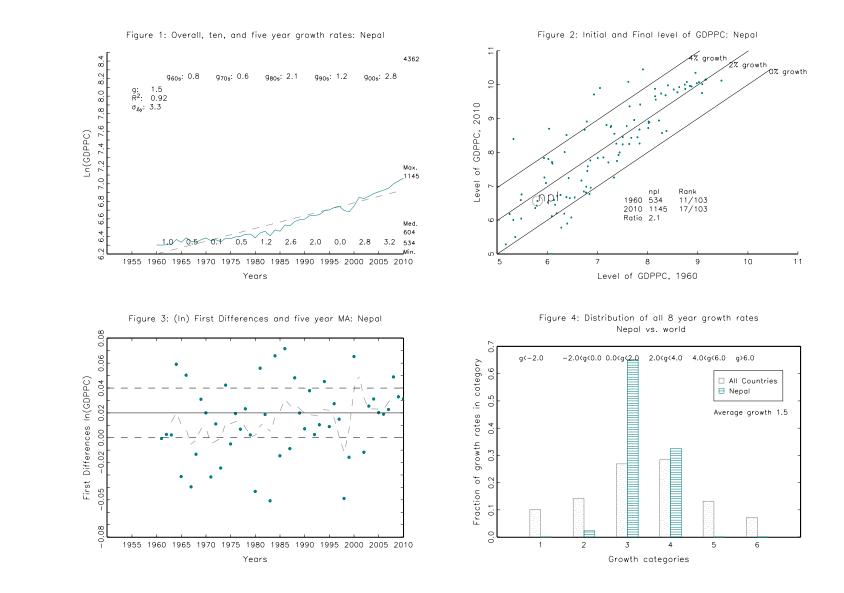




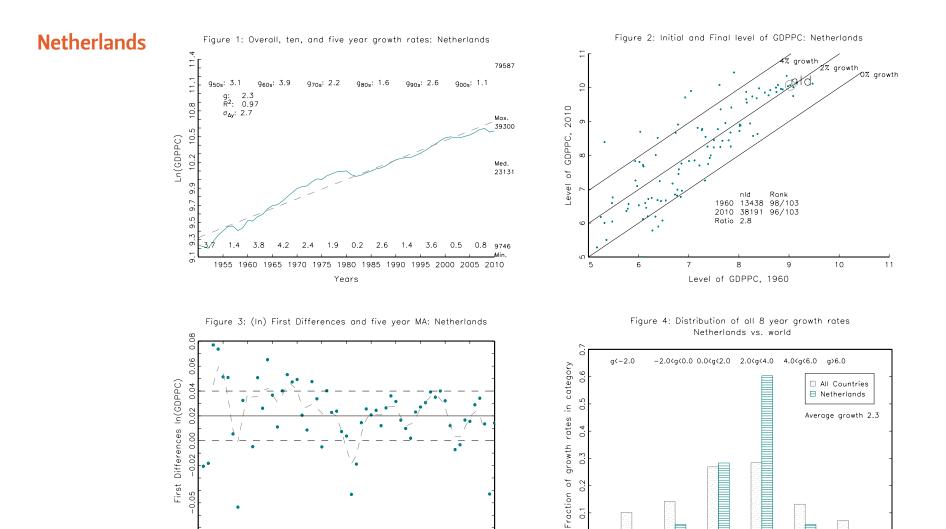


Growth categories





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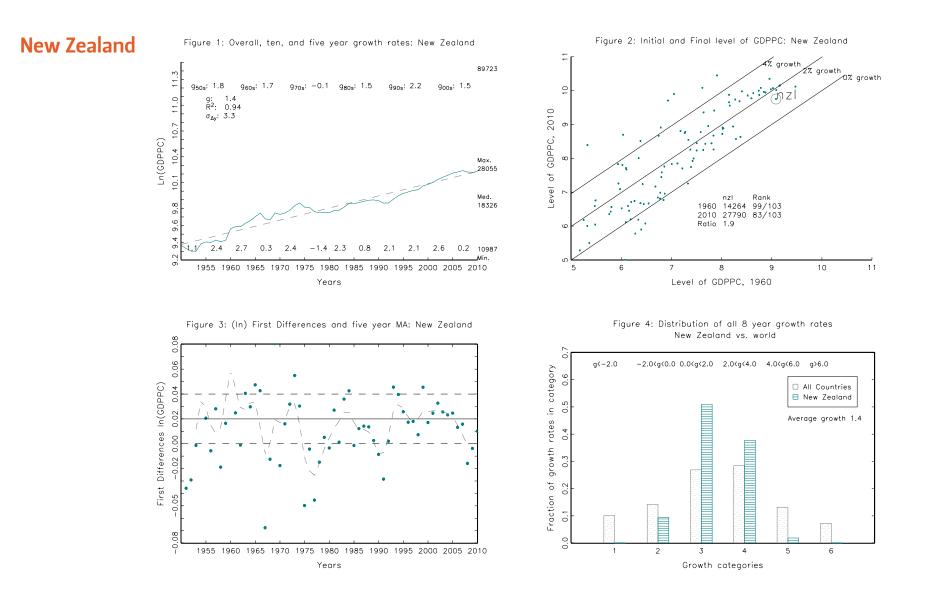
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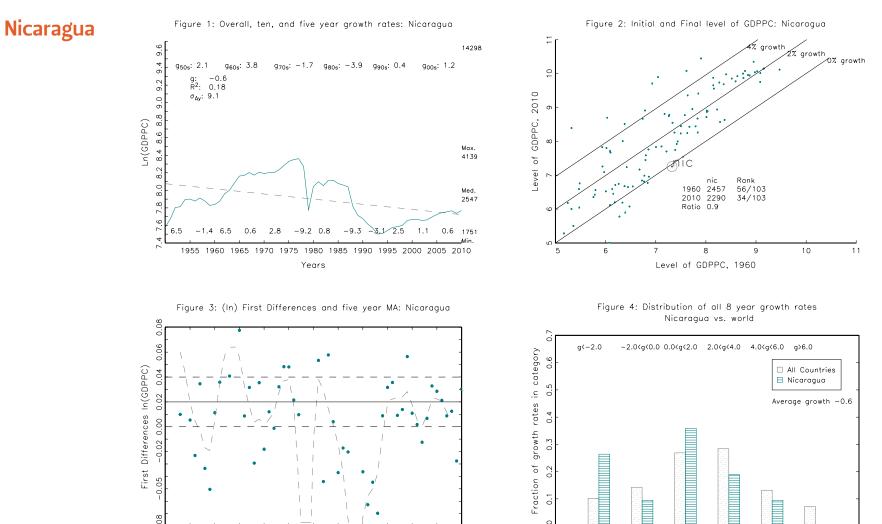


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1955 1960 1965 1970 1975 1980 1985 1990 1995 2000 2005 2010

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Growth categories

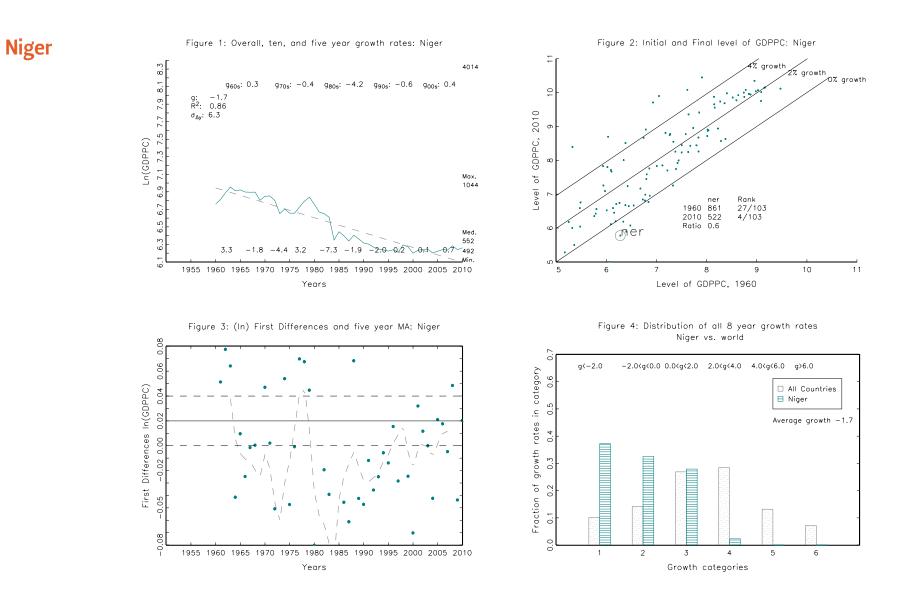
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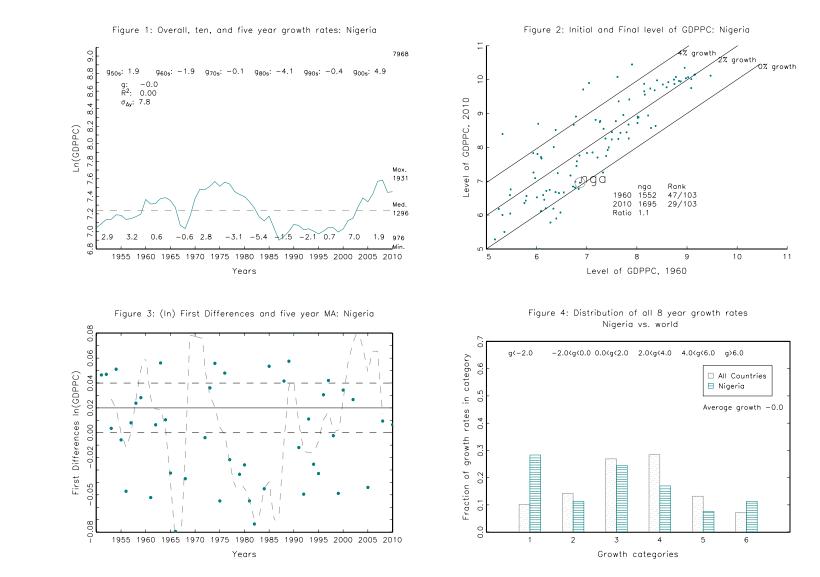
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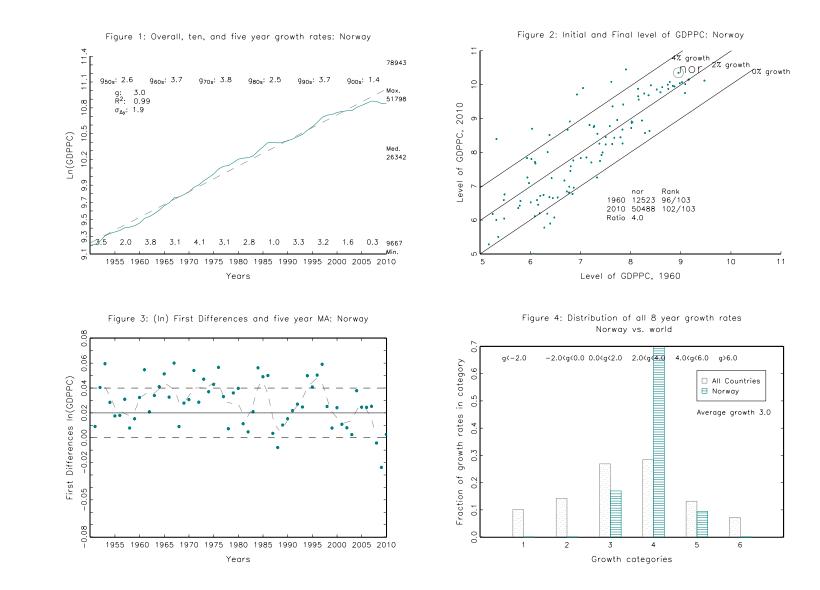




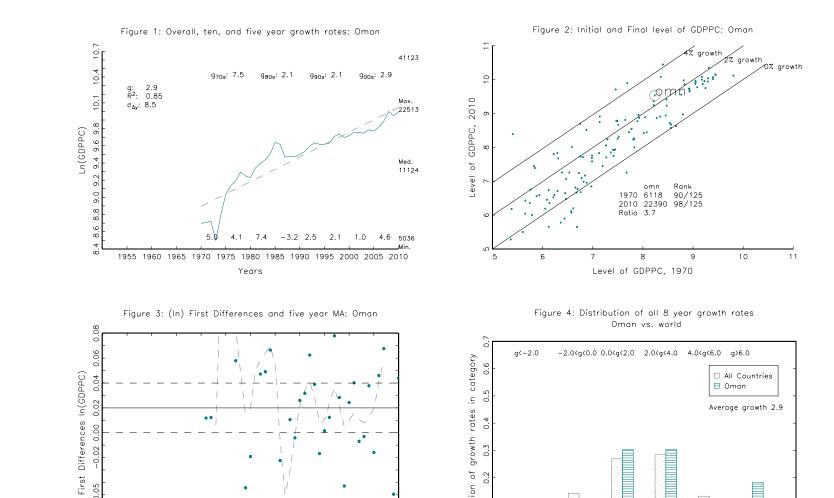


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Oman

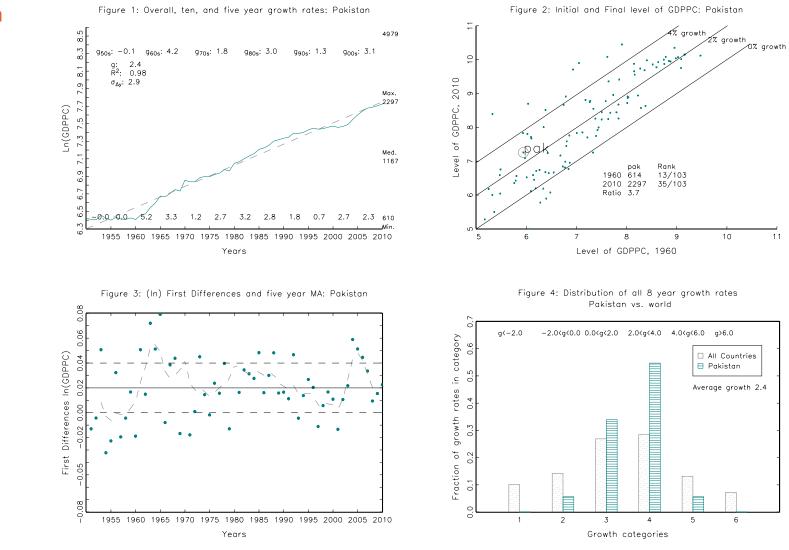


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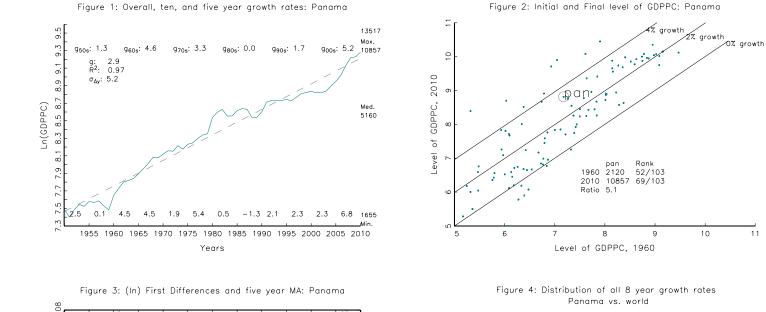
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Years

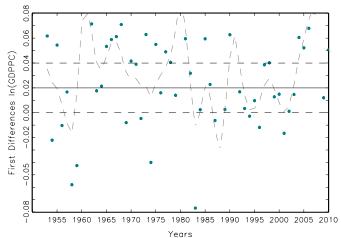


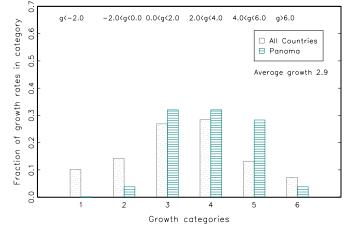
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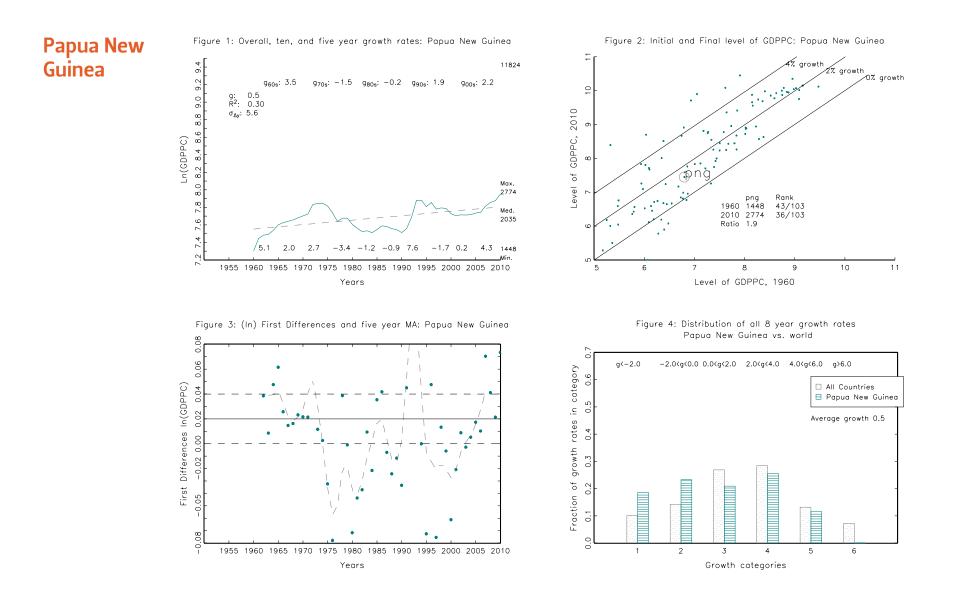




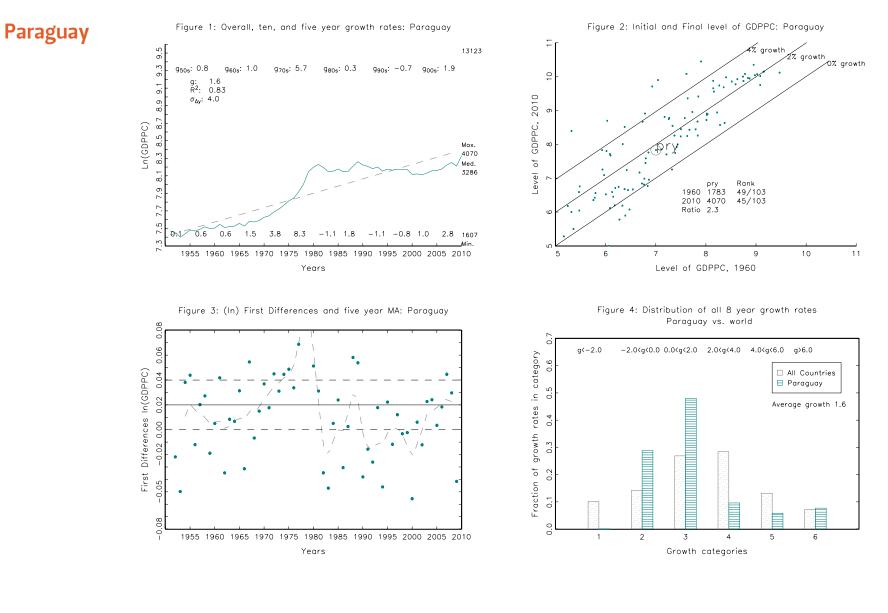
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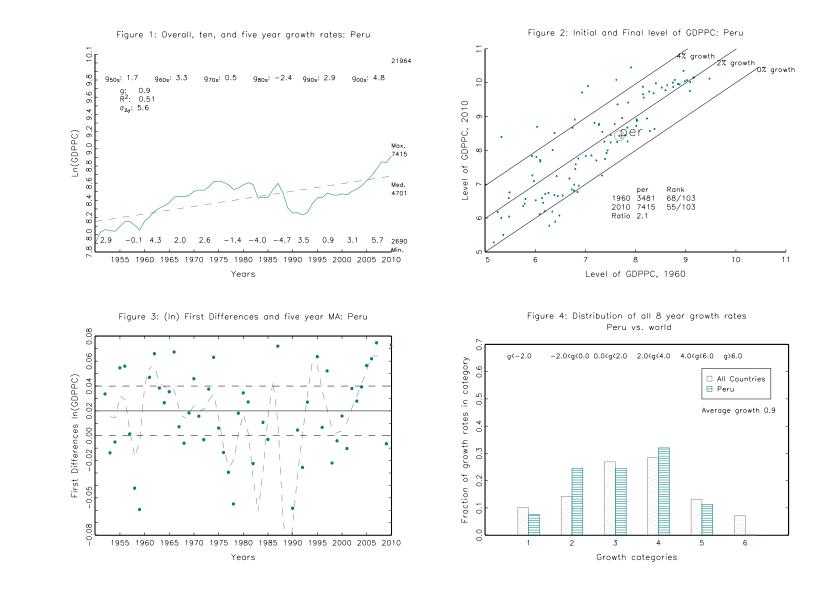






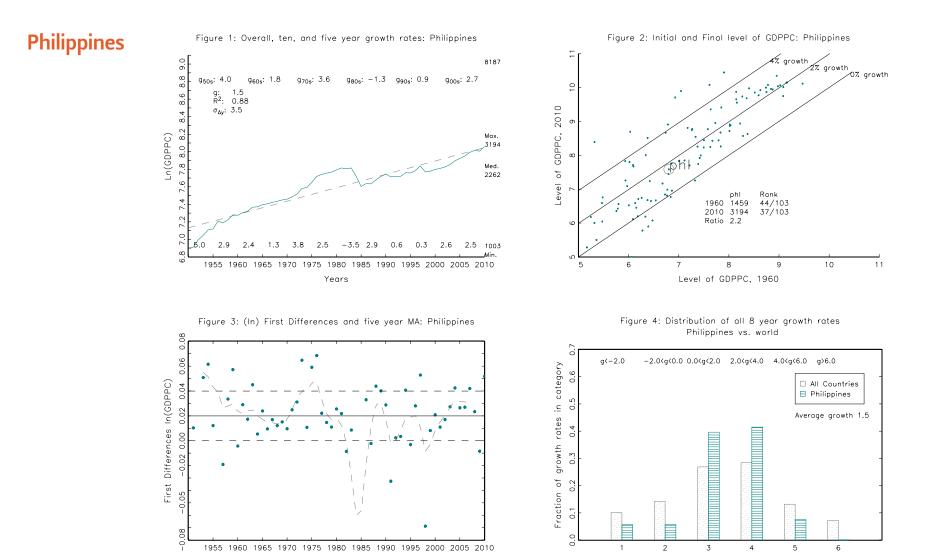




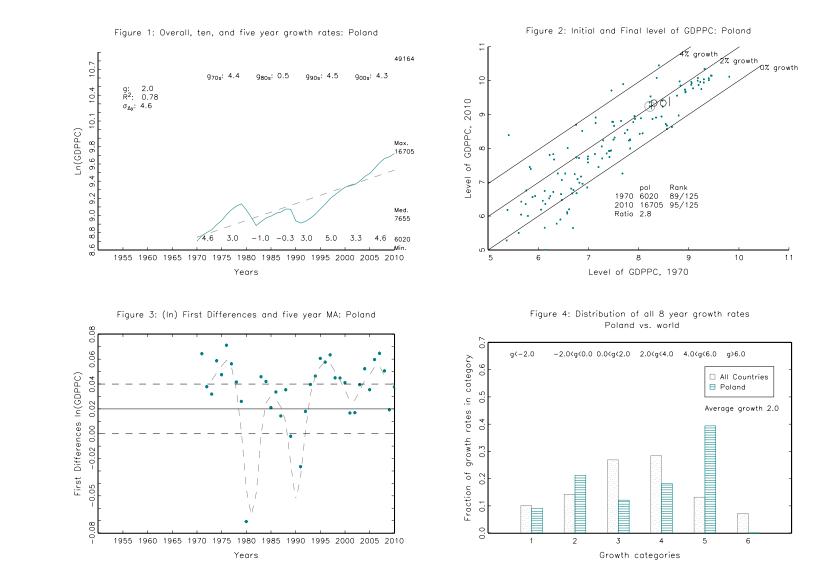


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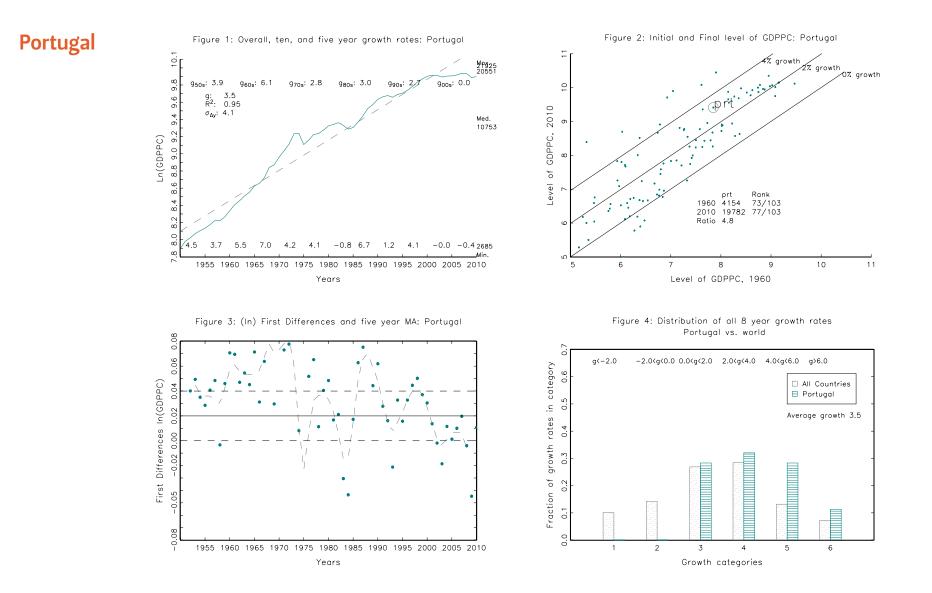


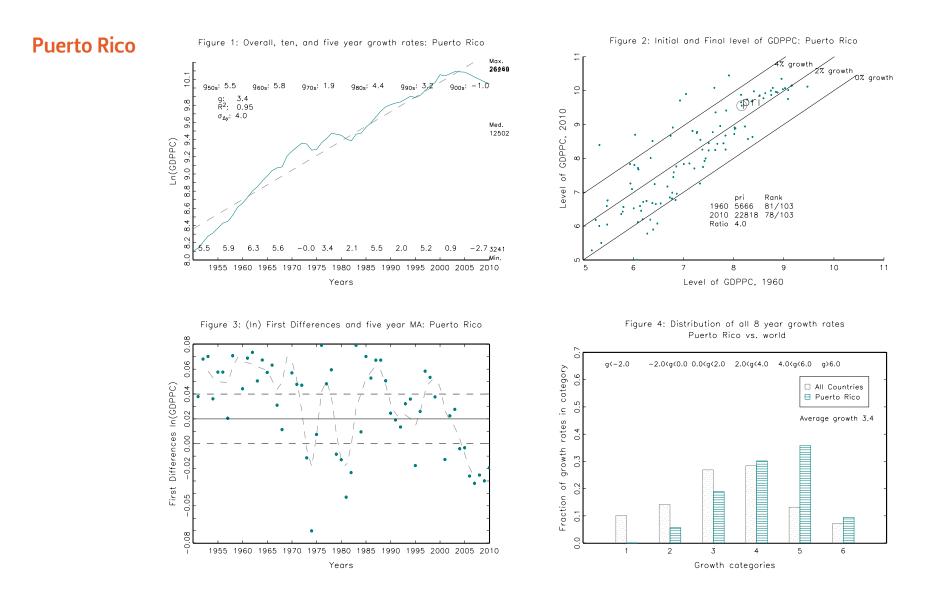
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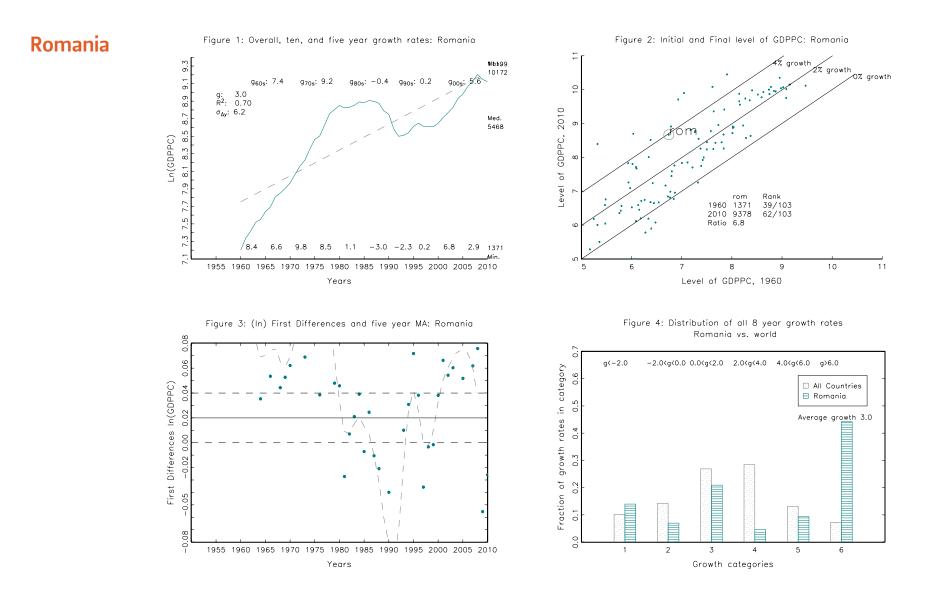


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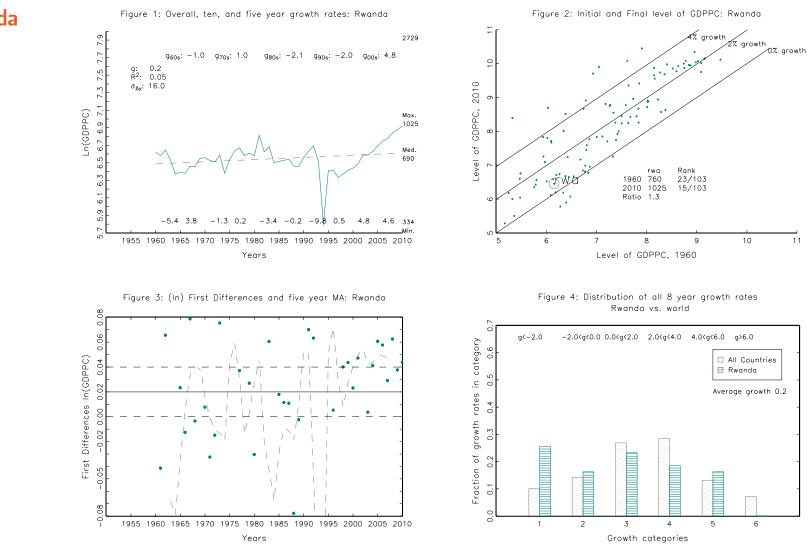
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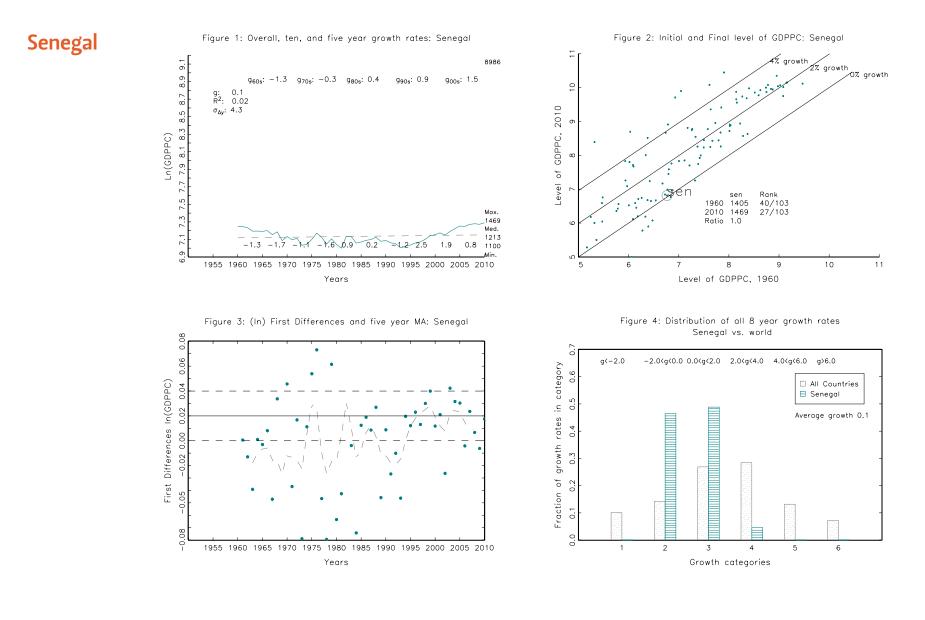


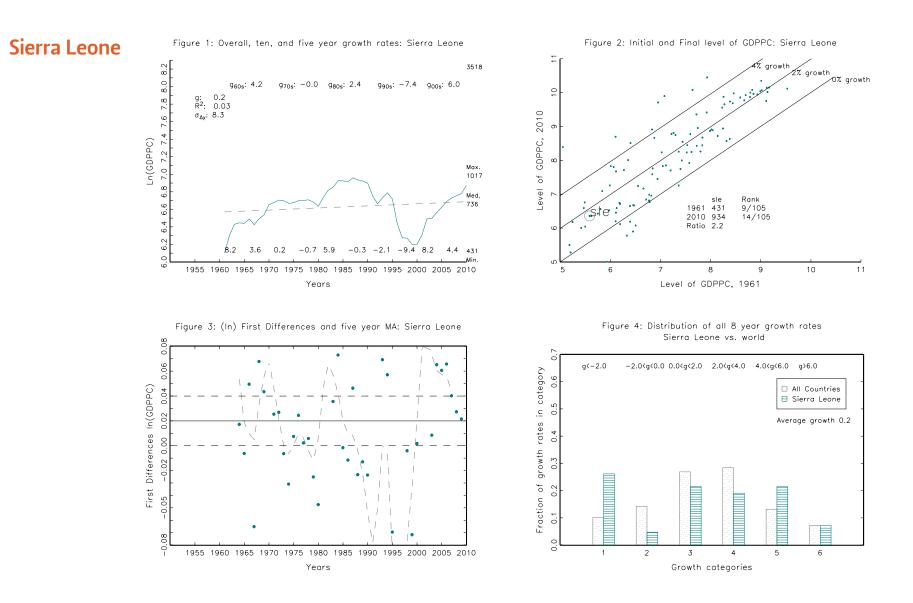




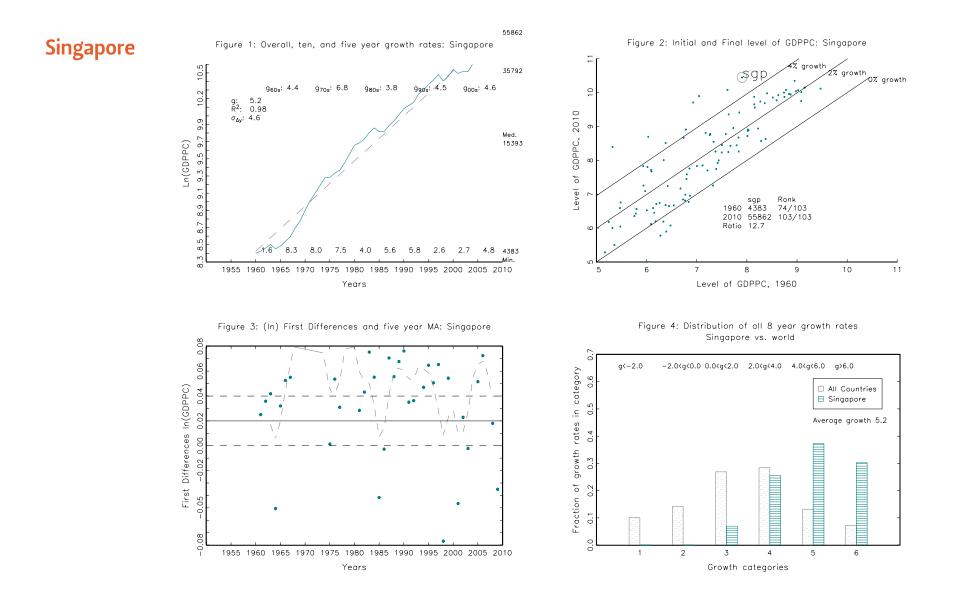




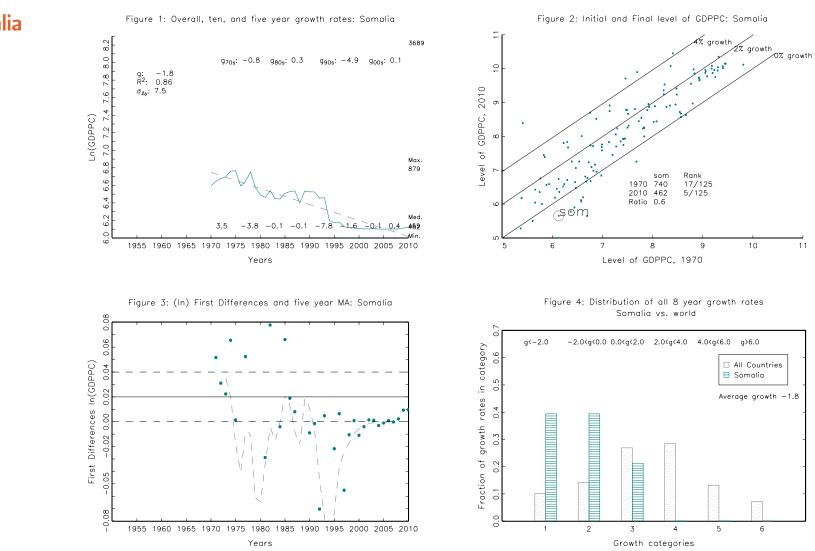




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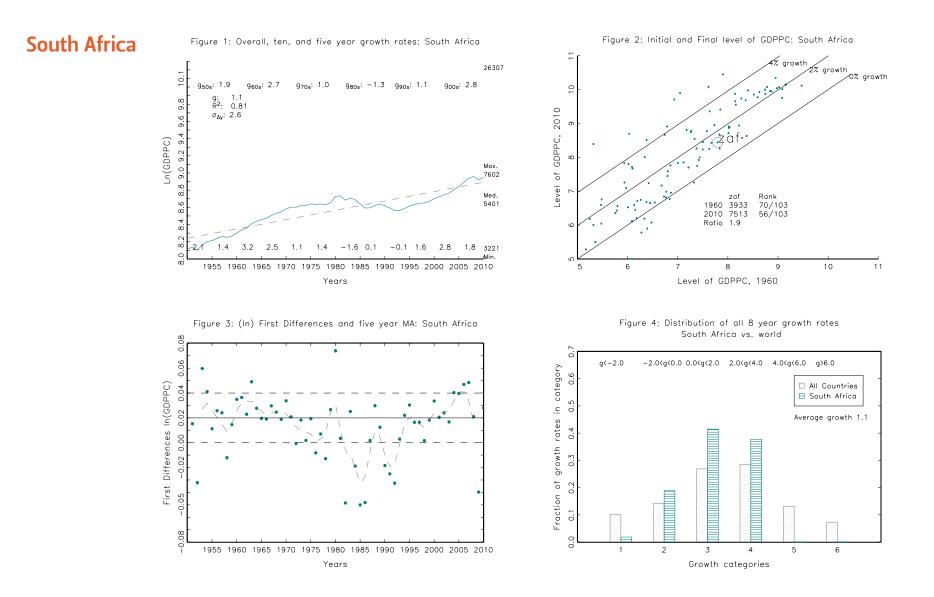




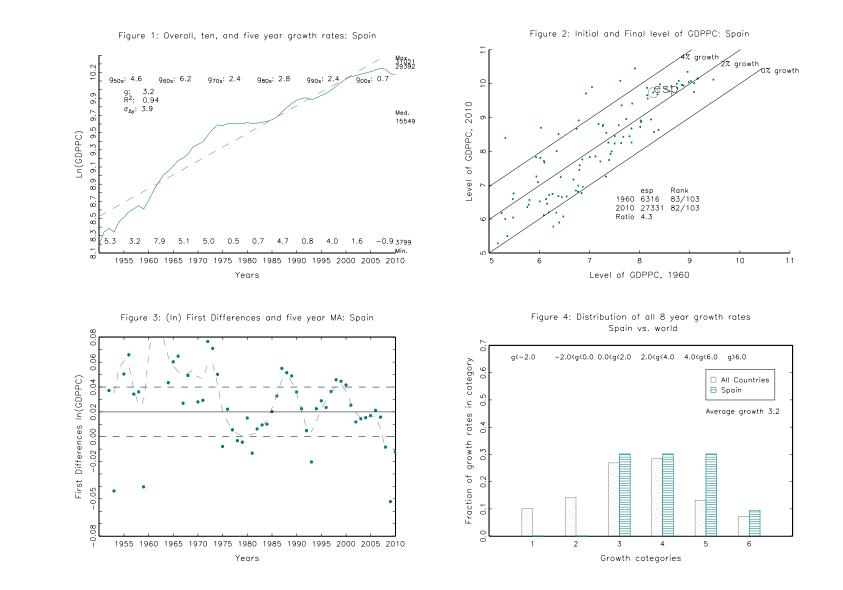


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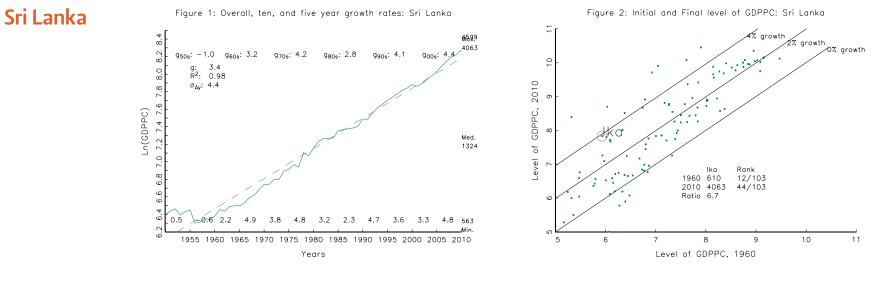


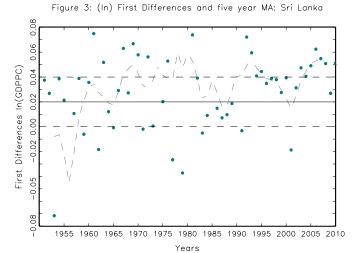


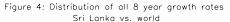


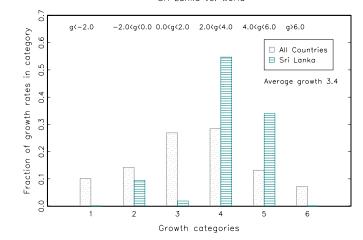


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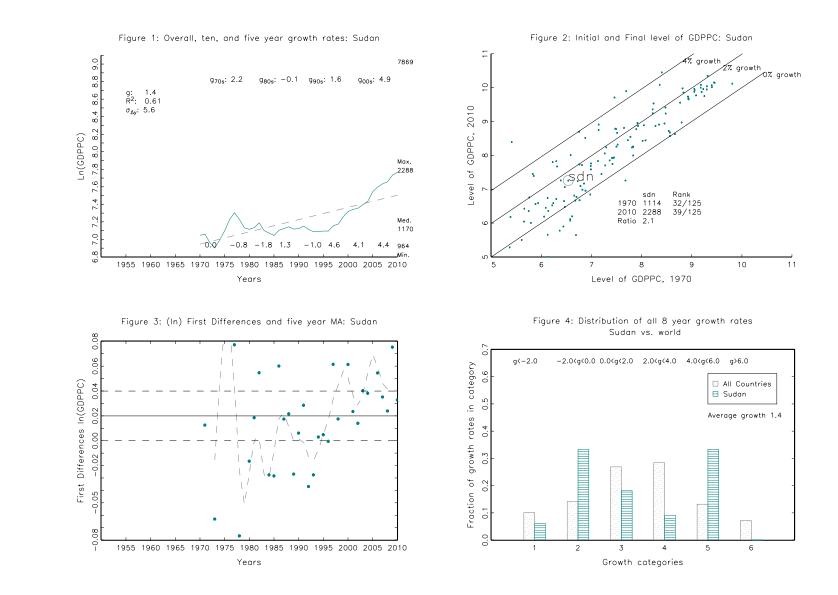




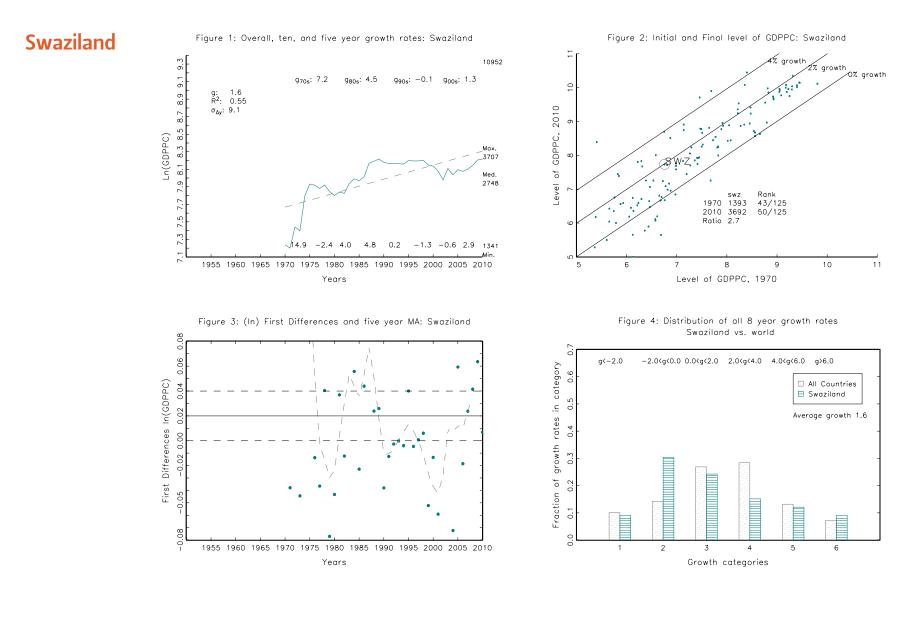


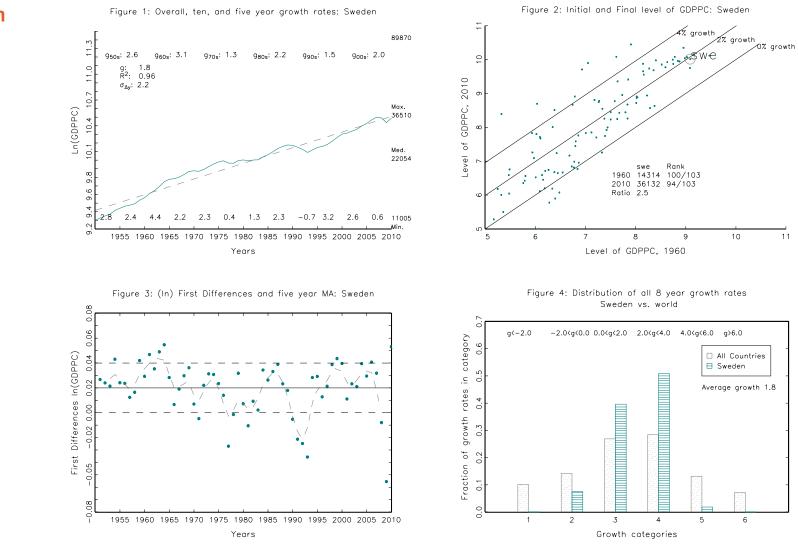




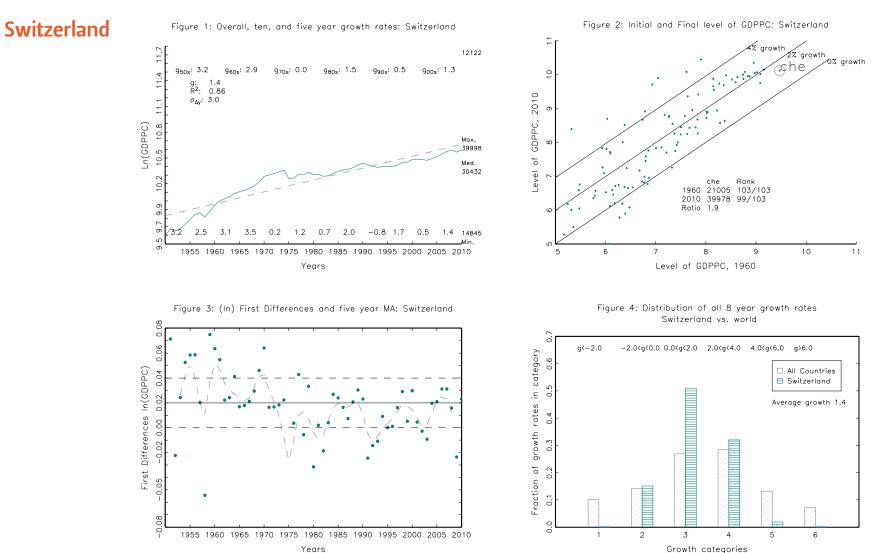


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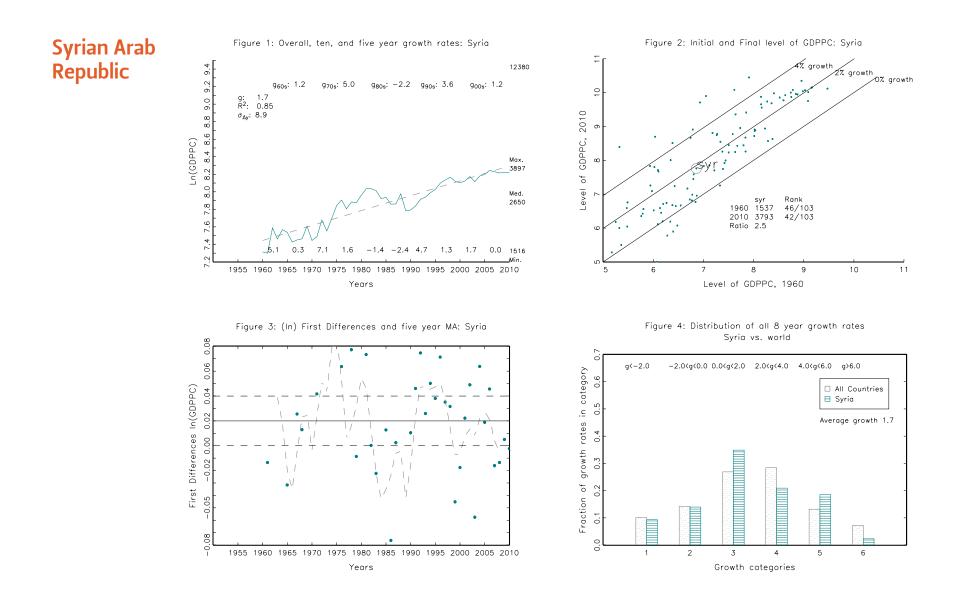


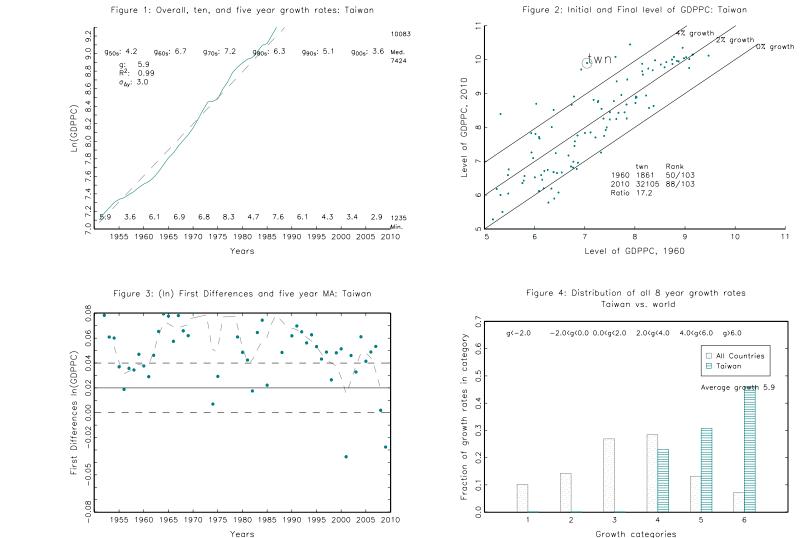


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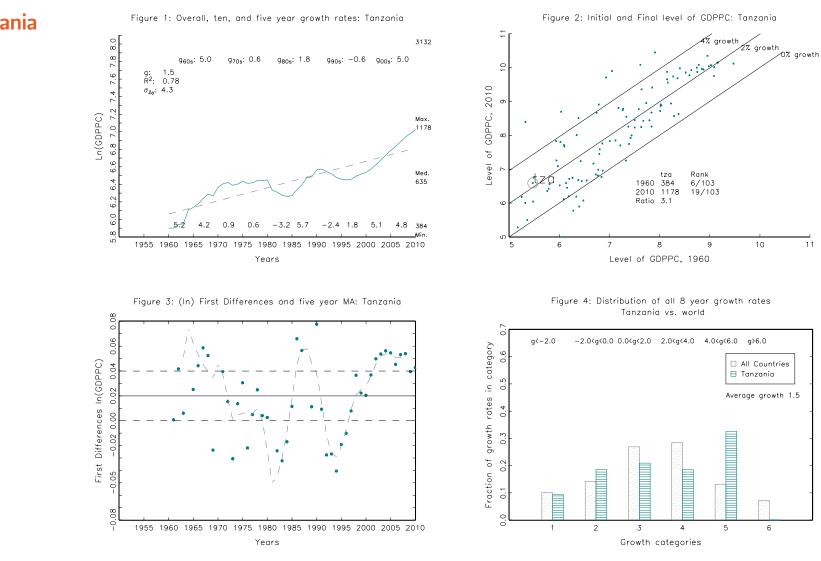




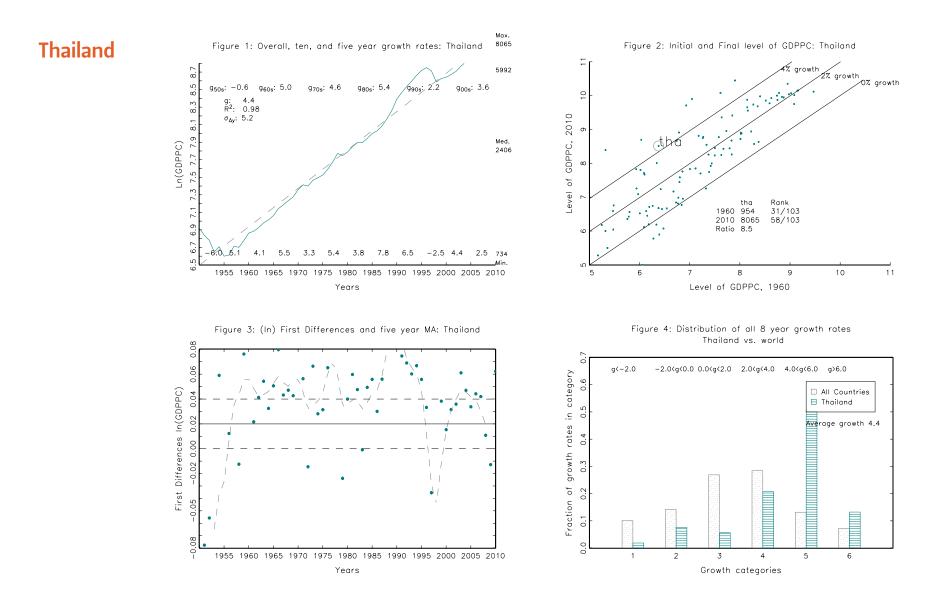


Taiwan





Tanzania



27. growth

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All Countries

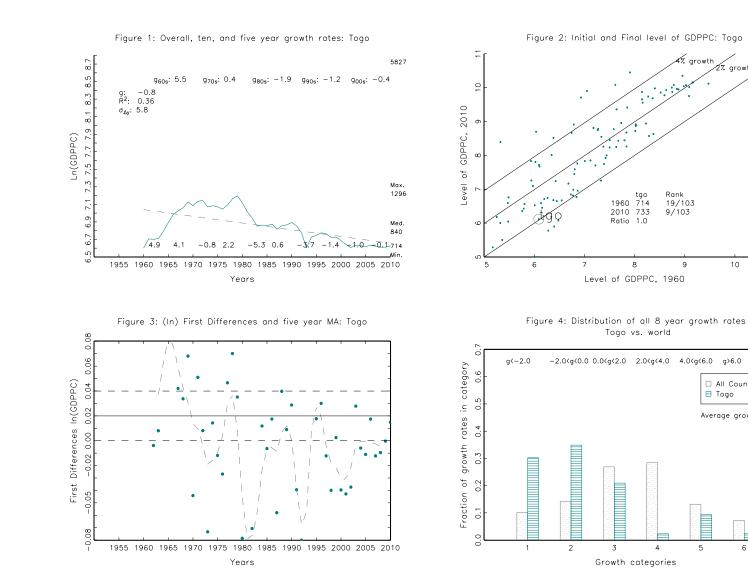
Average growth -0.8

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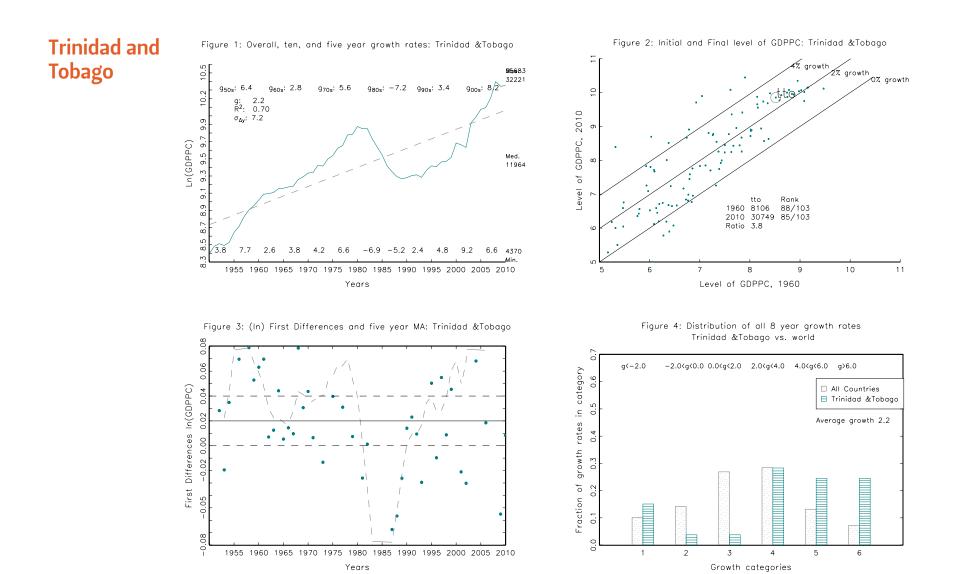
. ∕0% growth

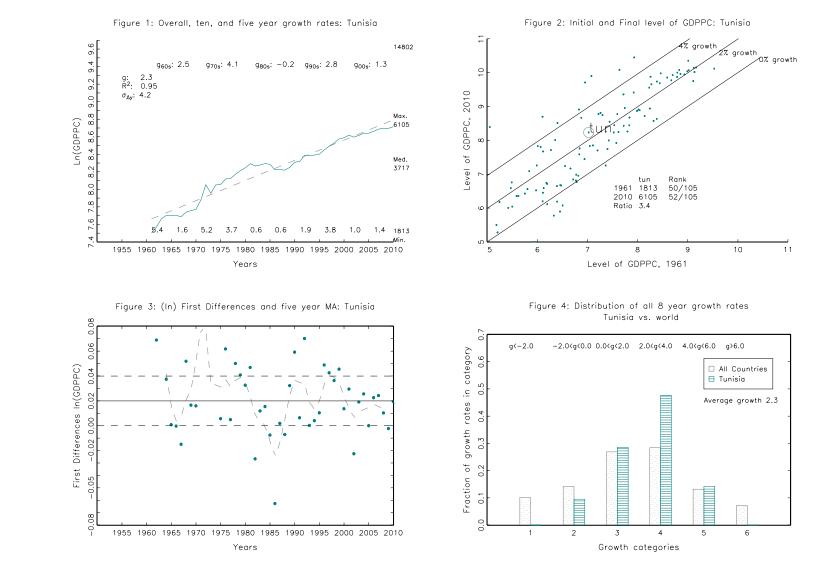
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Togo

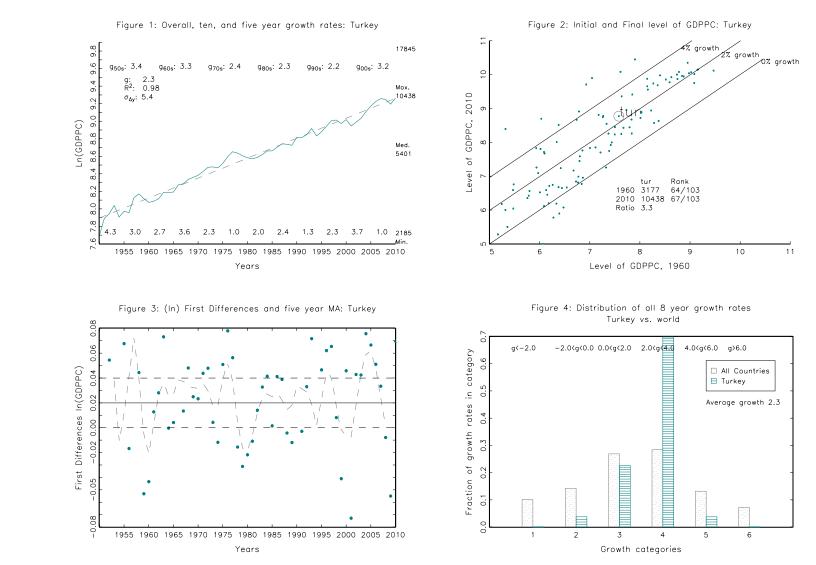
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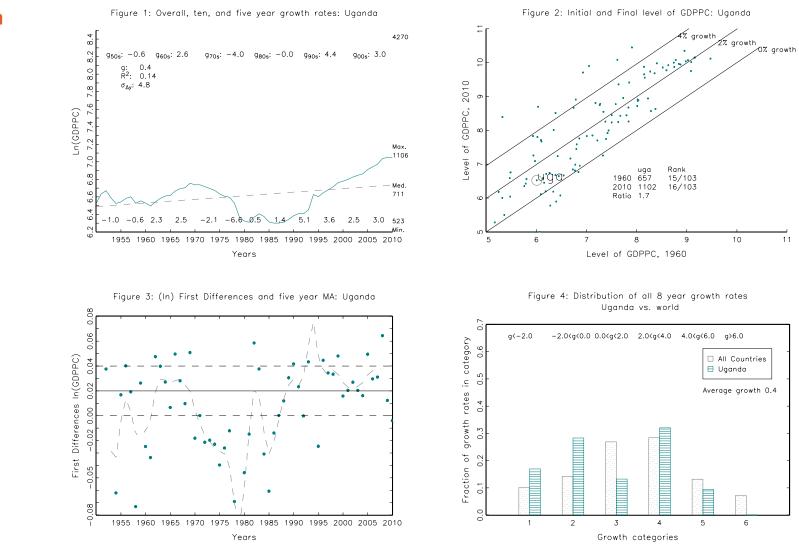
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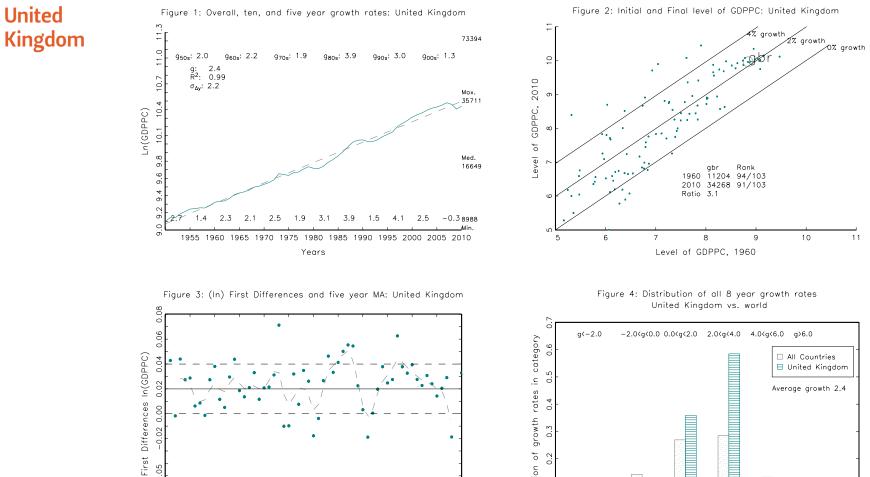
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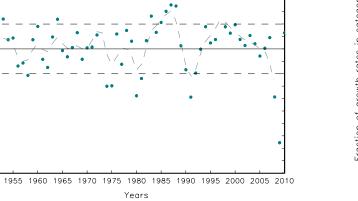


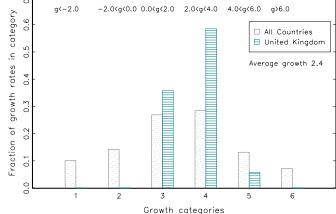


Uganda









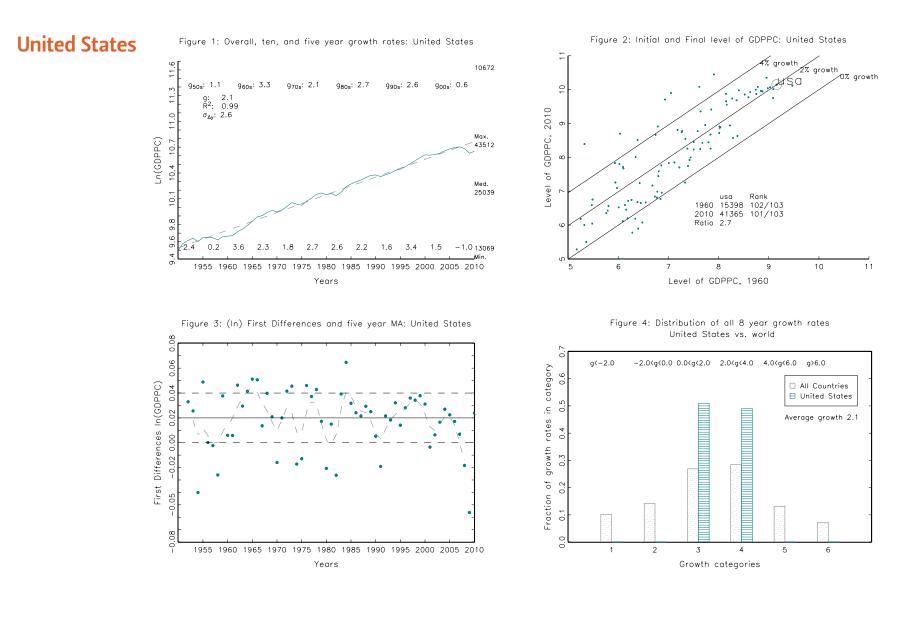


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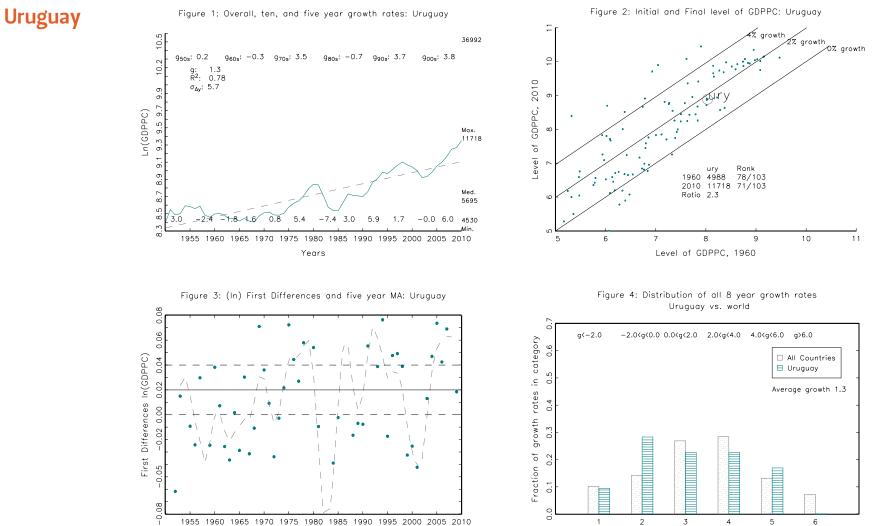
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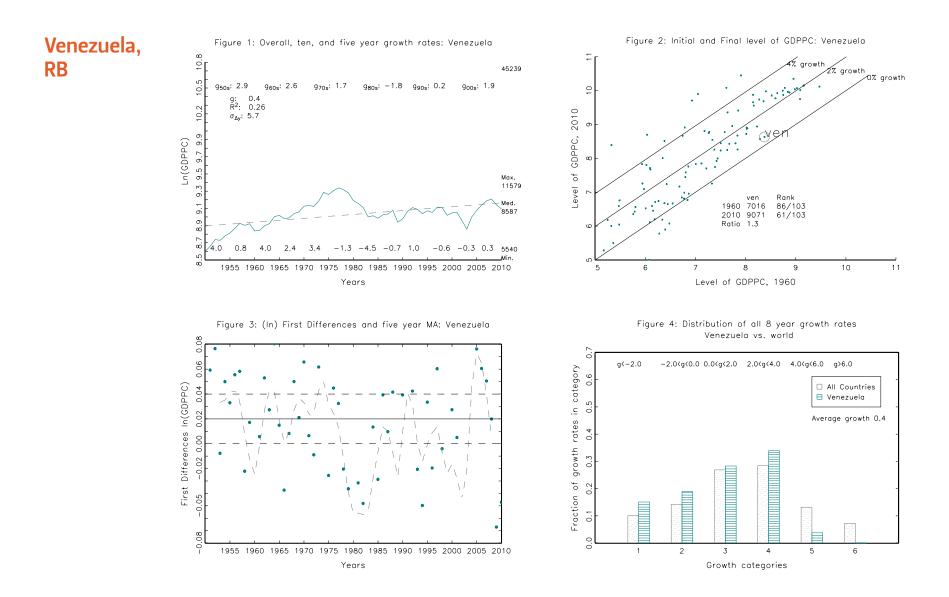
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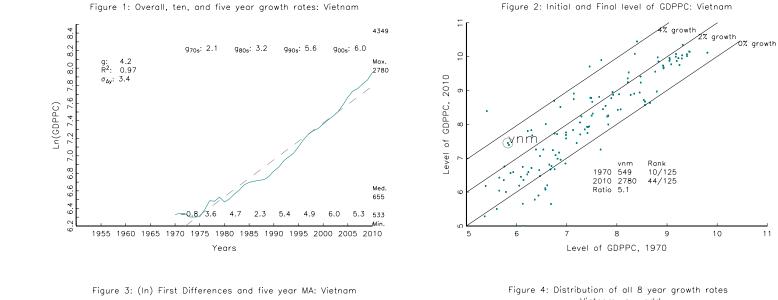
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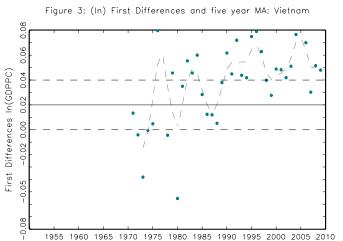
Years



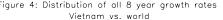


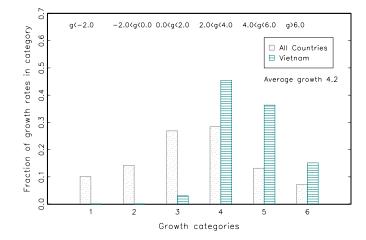






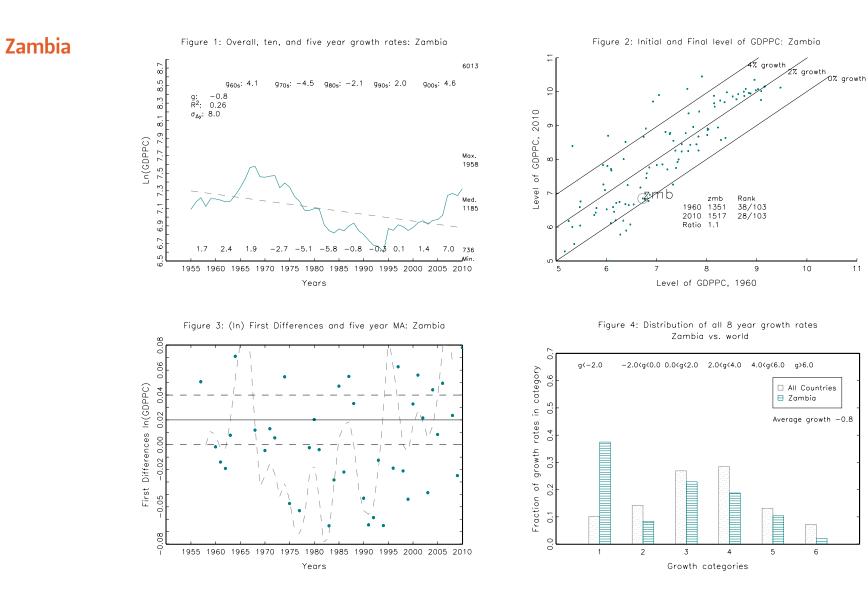




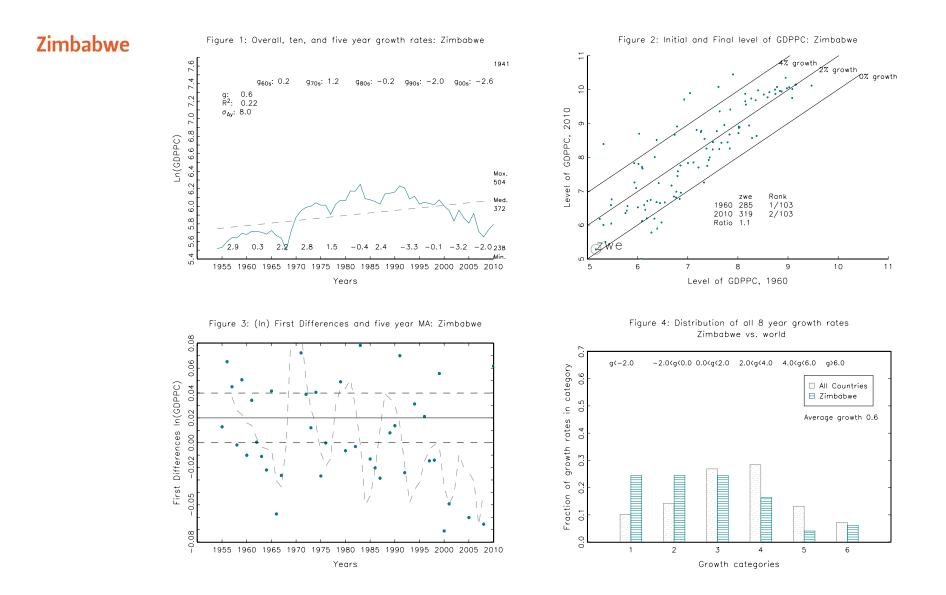


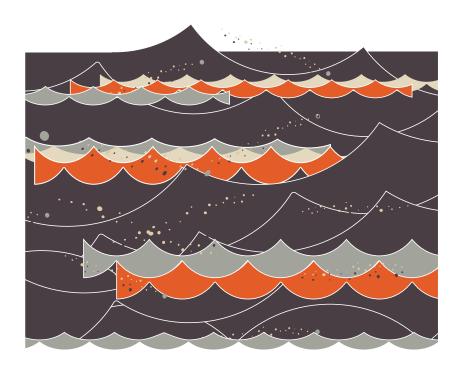


Vietnam



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Part III

Section I: Viewing Economic Growth as Transitions in Growth Regimes



Part III: Section I: Viewing Economic Growth as Transitions in Growth Regimes

We have seen in Part II that the average or long-run rate of economic growth is a poor approximation of country growth experiences, and that countries make frequent transitions between periods of high growth, periods of negative growth and periods of stagnation. To understand economic growth, we need to understand why most countries switch from one growth regime to another. This is not straightforward. How do we know when growth is accelerating when, in most low-income countries, income movements are highly volatile, so a movement up or down may be transitory, and not signal a shift in the growth rate? How do we identify a growth break, which is an episode involving a significant change in growth rates implying a transition from one growth regime to another?

In Part III, we present four more graphs per country. Figure 5 is a simple plot of log GDPPC, and also contains the three summary statistics of growth for each country – g, R² and $\sigma_{\Delta Y.}$ – that we discussed in Part II. Figure 6 presents our growth breaks – where we modify the Bai-Perron (1998) method using our economic filters. We also report the growth rates pre- and post-break, and the change in the growth rate (Δg) from one growth episode to the next. Figure 7 gives the breaks as identified by the Bai-Perron (henceforth, BP) method to compare with the breaks that we have identified. In most cases, the breaks that we have identified are the same as when we apply the Bai-Perron method without modification. However, in several instances (as in the case of Zimbabwe, for example), we obtain more breaks by our method than if we applied the BP method

without modification. In some cases (for example, South Africa), the years identified by the BP break differ from ours – this occurs when we drop the potential break identified by BP, as it does not meet the criteria of a break by our filters; and where the iterative procedure followed by BP leads to a different growth break year. In Figure 8, we report magnitudes of growth in each growth episode using the second of the methods in computing growth magnitudes discussed previously.

Figure 5 replicates Figure 1 (since the figures come either singly or in panels, with four graphs per panel, this makes sure the raw ln(GDPPC) data and graph is present in both panels).

Figure 7 displays the results of one procedure for identifying structural breaks in growth (we describe Figure 7, first since understanding Figure 6 depends on understanding Figure 7).

The widely used BP methodology (1998, 2003a, 2003b, 2006) estimates the dates of structural breaks in time series. BP is a two-step method. The first step estimates the years to place a given number of breaks that would most increase a test-statistic, while the second step sequentially tests how many of these breaks are statistically significant.

In the first step, it is assumed that the growth rate is a stationary dependent variable that equals a regime-specific mean growth rate plus an error term. To implement a BP procedure the user has to specify the

minimum length of any growth regime (e.g. so the breaks cannot be in sequential years and must be, say, five years apart) and the maximum number of potential candidate breaks. The first step of the BP procedure recursively minimizes the sum of squared residuals, both with respect to the break dates and with respect to the regime-specific mean growth rates, subject to the user provided constraint on the minimum length of a growth regime, up to the maximum number of breaks specified.⁸

We implement BP using a "growth regime" minimum of eight-years. One can user shorter or longer periods, but shorter periods (e.g. three or five years) risk conflation with "business cycle fluctuations" or truly "short run" shocks (e.g. droughts). Longer periods (e.g. 10 or 12 years) for a given length of data reduce the number of potential breaks.

We specify a maximum number of candidate breaks for each country, depending on the length of the series. A country with:

- i) Forty years of data (only since 1970), a maximum of two breaks
- ii) More than 40 years and up to 55 years (data since 1955), a maximum of three breaks
- iii) More than 55 years (before 1955), a maximum of four breaks

The second step of the BP procedure decides which of the candidate breaks are statistically significant. BP suggests a sequential testing procedure that starts at zero breaks and then proceeds until one fails to reject the null hypothesis of n breaks against n + 1 breaks. The test statistic supF_T, is

the supremum of all the F-statistics testing the equality of means across regimes over all admissible k-partitions. The value of the test statistic is compared with simulated critical values, which depend on the number of breaks and a trimming parameter (which in turn depends on the minimum size of the regime).⁹

The BP procedure identifies both accelerations and decelerations. For instance, the Republic of Korea accelerated in 1962 from a growth of 1.4 ppa to 6.0 ppa, an acceleration of 4.6 ppa. Growth in Nicaragua is estimated to have decelerated in 1977 from 3 to -1.2, a deceleration of 4.2 ppa. Some countries are estimated to have had multiple BP breaks in their growth. For instance, Jamaica is estimated to have experienced a massive deceleration in 1972, from 4.3 ppa before to -3.5 ppa after, a deceleration of 7.8 ppa. But this lasted only until 1980, when growth accelerated from -3.5 ppa to the modest, but positive, pace of 0.7 ppa, an acceleration of 4.2 ppa.

Figure 6 displays the results of transitions in growth that combine the first stage of the BP procedure to identify the "candidate" breaks with a filter for "genuine" breaks that depends on the *magnitudes* and *directions* of the changes in growth, not a purely *statistical* procedure.

In a separate paper we describe and justify our method versus a "pure" BP approach (Kar *et al.*, 2013) and here we just show the graphs of the output. Our filter takes the break years that BP identifies as the best candidates (with four, three, or two candidate years, depending on the length of



⁸ The Bai-Perron test is robust in that the error term may have different variances across growth regimes and exhibit autocorrelation.

⁹ In some cases, it is difficult to reject the null of zero against one break, but easy to reject the null of zero against a higher number of breaks. In these cases the testing procedure breaks down. In order to take care of this, Bai and Perron (2006) recommend an adjustment to the procedure that uses an alternative procedure in the first step when the null hypothesis of zero breaks is tested. Here, instead of testing zero against one break point, the hypothesis tests the null of m = 0 against the alternative of 1 < m < M, where M is chosen exogenously. After this altered first step, the rest of the test proceeds exactly as before.

the data series). We then apply the following filter to rule out changes in growth that are "too small" to be "genuine" breaks in growth (and might just be due to random fluctuations in the data).

i) In case of the first candidate break, since it is not known whether it follows an acceleration or deceleration, any change of more than 2 ppa (up or down) we count as a growth break.

After that, the threshold depends on the previous history:

- ii) If a candidate acceleration follows a previous deceleration or a candidate deceleration follows a previous acceleration, then to qualify as a genuine growth break the absolute magnitude of the growth difference has to be 3 ppa.
- iii) If, however, a candidate acceleration follows a previous acceleration or a candidate deceleration follows a previous deceleration, then a change of only 1 ppa (in absolute value) qualifies as a genuine break.

Using this method, which is "BP to identify candidate break years plus a magnitude filter"¹⁰, we find a total of 318 structural breaks from the group of 125 countries.

These are provided in Table 2, with the country, year, date of the structural break, growth before the break and growth after the break and the years each growth episode lasts.

The method, the outcome, and the differences with a pure statistically approach like BP are best illustrated with a few examples.

The BP procedure finds only one growth break as statistically significant for Brazil, in 1980, separating growth before 1950-1980 of 4.8 ppa from growth from 1980 to 2010 of 0.7 ppa. The first step of the BP procedure identifies four candidate break years: 1967, 1980, 1992 and 2002. In 1967 growth accelerated from 3.7 in 1950-1967 to 6.3 ppa from 1967 to 1980. Since this is the first and above the 2 ppa threshold, we include it as a break. In 1980 growth decelerates from 6.3 ppa to -1.1 ppa from 1980 to 1992, a deceleration of 7.4 ppa, and easily passes the "deceleration following acceleration" threshold of 3 ppa. In 1992 growth accelerates from -1.1 ppa to 1.4 ppa, a change of 2.5 ppa. However, as this is an acceleration following a deceleration it would have to be above 3 ppa and hence we do not include 1992 as a "genuine" growth break. In 2002 growth accelerated again, this time to 2.5 ppa, and since this was an acceleration following a previous candidate acceleration it only had to pass the 1 ppa threshold.

So our procedure characterizes Brazil's growth regimes as "strong growth" of 3.7 from 1950 to1967, "rapid growth" of 6.3 ppa from 1967 to 1980, "stagnation" from 1980 to 2002, followed by "strong growth" again from 2002 to 2010.

The BP procedure finds only one statistically significant growth break for Ghana, from growth of 0.1 from 1955 to 1983 to growth of 2.6 from 1983 to 2010. Our "BP plus magnitude filter" method classifies all four of the BP candidate break years as breaks and hence has five growth regimes in



¹⁰ See Appendix 1 for further discussion of the different methods to identify growth breaks.

Ghana: slow growth 1955-1966; a burst of growth from 1955 to 1966 (g = 3.7); a growth disaster from 1974 to 1983 (g = -4.5); slow growth from 1983 to 2002 (g = 1.9); and strong growth from 2002 to 2010 (g = 4.2).

Our method clearly creates a richer description of the dynamics, but at the risk of identifying periods that were not "true" growth regime switches. There is nothing special about our proposed filter (other than using the "focal point" thresholds of 1, 2, 3), but there is nothing special for purposes of describing growth regimes in a fetishism of "statistical significance" either.

What do the breaks identified by our methodology tell us about the nature of growth transitions? Do we observe any "stylized facts" about transitions based on these results? More specifically, how much do these transitions change the average growth rates of an economy? Table 2 answers some of these questions by classifying all transitions in terms of a four-by-four matrix that captures the relationship between average growth rates before and after a transition. The vertical axis represents growth rates corresponding to the regime before the break, while the horizonal axis represents growth rates corresponding to the regime after the break. Consistent with our approach in Part II, we divide the distribution of average growth rate of 2% (but combining the lower and upper bins). Thus, the four bins are: (i) g < 0%; (ii) 0% < g < 2%; (iii) 2% < g < 4%; and (iv) g > 4%, where g is the average growth rate of a regime, either before or after a break.

The individual cells of the matrix report all transitions that belong to the corresponding bins in the vertical and horizontal axis, in terms of the country names and the year of transition. Further, for the first column (i.e., for g < 0), entries in light coloured shades (pink) represent transitions

to growth rates between 0% and -2%, while entries with dark coloured shades (red) represent transitions to growth rates less than -2%. Thus entries with darker shades in this column represent transitions into bigger crisis compared with those with lighter ones. Similarly for the fourth column (i.e., for g > 4), entries in light coloured shades (light blue) represent transitions to average growth rates between 4% and 6%, while those with dark colours (dark blue) represent transitions to growth rates higher than 6%. Thus dark coloured entries represent transitions to stronger miracle growth.

Table 2 shows that there are multiple growth transitions corresponding to all 16 cells of the matrix. Moreover, apart from the diagonals that have a lesser possibility of transition by definition (particularly for column two and three that cover a small range of growth rates), all other cells have a large and comparable number of entries. This tells us that the growth transitions resemble a Markov process with comparable probabilities for all types of transitions. Thus, the stylized fact is that when it comes to transitions, anything is possible!



		Growth After Break							
	g<0	0≤g<2	2≤g≤4	g>4					
gowii ecolo econ g≺0	BGD (1967), CAF (1986), CAF (1996), ZAR (1989), COG (1994), ETH (1983), GAB (1987), GIN (2002), MUS (1963), NER (1979), NER (1987), TGO (1993), UGA (1980), ZMB (1975), ZMB (1983), ZWE (2002)	ARG (1985), BDI (2000), BEN (1994), BGD (1982), BOL (1958), BOL (1986), CHL (1976), CMR (1994), GHA (1983), GMB (1995), GNB (1981), GTM (1988), HTI (1994), MDG (2002), MEX (1989), MOZ (1986), NAM (1985), NIC (1979), NIC (1995), PHL (1985), SEN (1973), TCD (1980), VEN (1985)	ZAR (2000), COL (2002), CRI (1991), DZA (1994), ECU (1999), ETH (1992), FJI (1988), GUY (1990), HTI (1972), IRN (1988), JOR (1991), KHM (1982), LBN (1982), LKA (1959), LSO (1986), MLI (1974), MNG (1993), MRT (2002), NGA (1987), PER (1992), PNG (1984), PRY (2002), SLV (1987), TTO (1989), UGA (1961), UGA (1988), ZAF (1993), ZMB (1994)	AFG (1994), AGO (1993), ALB (1992), ARG (2002), BGR (1997), CUB (1995), CYP (1975), FIN (1993), IDN (1968), IRQ (1991), JAM (1986), JOR (1974), LBR (1994), MAR (1960), MUS (1971), MWI (2002), NGA (1968), PAK (1960), POL (1991), ROM (1994), RWA (1994), SDN (1996), SLE (1999), SYR (1989), THA (1958), URY (1985), URY (2002)					
0×g<2	ALB (1982), ARG (1977), ARG (1994), BOL (1977), CHL (1968), ZAR (1974), COL (1994), GMB (1982), GNB (1997), GUY (1981), ITA (2001), MDG (1974), MOZ (1976), NER (1968), NGA (1960), NIC (1987), PER (1981), PRY (1989), ROM (1986), RWA (1981), SLE (1990), SLV (1978), SOM (1978), TCD (1971), TGO (1979), URY (1977), ZWE (1991)	COL (1967), EGY (1965), KEN (1967)	AUS (1961), BFA (1971), BGD (1996), BRA (2002), CMR (1976), DOM (1991), DZA (1971), GTM (1962), HND (1970), IRL (1958), LAO (1979), MAR (1995), NAM (2002), NPL (1983), NZL (1958), PRI (1982), PRT (1985), VEN (2002), ZWE (1968)	BEN (1978), CHL (1986), CHN (1968), DNK (1958), DOM (1968), ECU (1970), EGY (1976), GHA (1966), GHA (2002), HKG (2002), IRL (1987), KOR (1962), MOZ (1995),MWI (1964), MYS (1987), PAN (1959), PAN (2002), PER (1959), PRY (1971), TCD (2000), TZA (2000)					

Table 2: Regime Transitions for each Bai-Perron+Filter Break





		Growth After Break							
		g<0	0≤g<2	2≤g≤4	g>4				
Growth Before Break	2≤g≤4	AFG (1986), BDI (1992), CIV (1978), CMR (1984), CRI (1979), CYP (1967), DZA (1979), ETH (1969), FIN (1985), FJI (1979), GTM (1980), HTI (1980), JAM (1972), MEX (1981), MNG (1982), MRT (1976), NAM (1974), NIC (1967) PHL (1977), PNG (1973), PRI (2000), SDN (1978), SWZ (1989), SYR (1981), UGA (1969), VEN (1977), ZAF (1981), ZMB (1967)	AUS (1969), BFA (1979), CHE (1974), DOM (1960), FJI (2000), GBR (2002), HND (1979), IRL (1979), ITA (1990), JPN (1991), MLI (1986), NLD (1974), NZL (1974), PNG (1993), PRT (2000), TUN (1981), ZWE (1983)	FIN (1974), GBR (1981), IND (1993), LBN (1991), TUN (1972)	BEL (1959),BRA (1967), ETH (2002), IND (2002), KHM (1998), LAO (2002), LKA (1973), LSO (1970), MYS (1970), SGP (1968), TTO (2002), TTO (1961), VNM (1989)				
	g>4	BEN (1986), BGR (1988) COG (1984), CUB (1984), ECU (1978), GAB (1976), GHA (1974),GNB (1970), IRL (2002), IRN (1976), IRQ (1979), JAM (1994), JOR (1965), JOR (1982), LSO (1978), MWI (1978), NGA (1976), POL (1979), TTO (1980), URY (1994)	AUT (1979), BEL (1974), BRA (1980), CHN (1960), ZAR (1958), CYP (1992), DNK (1969), DOM (1976), FIN (2001), GRC (1973), HKG (1994), HUN (1978), ISR (1975), LBR (2002), MAR (1977), MYS (1979), OMN (1985), PAN (1982), PER (1967), PRI (1972), PRT (1973), PRY (1980), ROM (1978), SLE (1970), SYR (1998), TGO (1969), TZA (1971)	BWA (1990), CHL (1997), CRI (1958), EGY (1992), ESP (1974), IDN (1996), ITA (1974), JAM (1961), JPN (1970), KOR (2002), LKA (1981), MRT (1968), MUS (1979), MYS (1996), PAK (1970), PHL (1959), SWZ (1978), THA (1995), TUR (1958), TWN (1994)	AGO (2001), BWA (1973), BWA (1982), CHN (1977), CHN (1991), COG (1976), CYP (1984), GAB (1968), GRC (1960), HKG (1981), ISR (1967), JPN (1959), KOR (1982), KOR (1991), MAR (1968), PRT (1964), RWA (2002), SGP (1980), THA (1987), TWN (1962)				

One limitation of a matrix-based approach is that it is sensitive to the choice of the bins. Alternatively, one can estimate the transition probability functions that are based on an infinite number of bins, each with a range tending to zero. In other words, we estimate a continuous version of the matrix in Table 2. The transition probability function corresponding to our transitions is diagrammatically represented in Figures 9 and 10. Figure 9 is a surface plot, with the Y-axis representing growth before the break and the X-axis representing growth after the break. The Z-axis represents the probability function. Figure 10 is a contour plot representing the same transition probability function, with the iso-probability lines representing all transitions that have a similar probability.

Figures 9 and 10 confirm the conclusions of Table 2, for the specific ranges of the bin that were chosen for that table. Thus, starting from any of those four ranges of growth rates on the Y-axis (growth before a break), the surface plot and the contour plot show that there are significant probabilities of a transition to any of the other three ranges on the X-axis (growth after a break). Significantly, Figures 9 and 10 reveal something more about the transitions. They indicate that, irrespective of the growth rates before the transitions, there is a strong tendency to move towards the world average growth rate of about 2% after the transition. This is evident from the shape of the transition probability function, with the highest probability points being bunched parallel to the Y-axis and perpendicular to the X-axis corresponding to the 2% growth rate. This supports the evidence that there is a tendency towards mean-reversion in growth dynamics.

Figure 8 graphs the "magnitude" of the growth accelerations/decelerations in Figure 7. Figures 6 and 7 give alternate breaking of countries' growth experiences into "regimes" or "episodes". However, neither, in and of themselves, provide a sense of the *cumulative magnitude* of episodic shifts. This question is complex for two reasons.

First, the cumulative magnitude is a combination of the magnitude of the shift in growth *rates* per annum and the number of years the episode lasts. So a growth acceleration from 2 ppa to 6 ppa that lasts only eight years produces less cumulative impact than an acceleration from 2 ppa to 4 ppa that lasts 28 years. If we conceptualize the growth process as a probabilistic shift across growth regimes, then cumulative growth performance is obviously the product of duration in each regime times the growth rate while in that regime. As we have seen, the rich industrial countries did not get rich by having very rapid growth rates; rather it was the result of staying consistently in regimes of moderate (or slow) growth.

Second, establishing the cumulative impact of a growth regime transition has to involve some *counter-factual* of what growth would have been without the growth regime transition that was observed. This is, of course, impossible to know with any certainty. There are three obvious possibilities. One is that the country would have stayed at its existing rate of growth. But this ignores one of the most widely replicated and consistent facts about growth – that there is "regression to the mean" over time and little inter-temporal correlation of growth rates (e.g. Easterly *et al.*, 1993), so predicting that a country will remain at its current growth rate is generally a bad prediction. A second is to assume full regression to the mean and that a country's growth rate would have been the world average growth rate over the post-regime transition. This, however, ignores completely the country's previous growth experience and also any tendencies to "convergence".

The graphs here rely on a method described more fully in a separate paper (Pritchett *et al.*, 2013) and calculate "simple predicted" growth by running a separate prediction regression for each growth transition and predicting a country's growth on the basis of its previous growth and its level of GDPPC (convergence). Then the total impact of a growth regime transition



is the difference between the actual growth after the transition and the predicted growth in the post-transition period times the duration of the transition. Again, this is best illustrated with an example (and a graph), for which we will use Uganda.

Our method shows four growth regime transitions – an acceleration in 1961, a deceleration in 1969, an acceleration in 1980 and another acceleration in 1988. Let us illustrate the method with two examples.

In 1969 growth decelerated from 3.0 to -3.6 ppa and this lower rate of growth lasted until 1980 (11 years).¹¹ The regression prediction of the growth rate from 1969 to 1980 of a country that was growing at a rate of 3.0 from 1961 to 1969 and at Uganda's level of GDPPC in 1969 of USD824 is 2.3 ppa.¹² So the cumulative loss from the growth regime transition in 1969 is (-3.6 - 2.3)*11 = -65.7% – that is, Uganda's GDPPC in 1980 was 66% lower than it would have been had it grown at the predicted rate versus the actual rate.

Country	Start year	Level of income at start	Growth before episode	Growth during episode	Simple predicted growth during episode	Episode duration	Cumulative magnitude of growth regime transition gain/loss
Uganda	1961	636	-0.7%	3.0%	1.7%	8	10.4%
Uganda	1969	824	3.0%	-3.6%	2.3%	11	-65.7%
Uganda	1980	536	-3.6%	-0.5%	-1.4%	8	6.8%
Uganda	1988	529	-0.5%	3.5%	1.4%	22	46.0%

Table 3: Growth Magnitudes for Uganda

In 1980 there was a acceleration that was the end of the collapse from 1969 to 1980 and then in 1988 there was another acceleration. The acceleration of 1988 took growth from -0.5 to 3.5 and the predicted growth from 1988 to 2010 of a country growing at -0.5 ppa from 1980 to 1988 and at Uganda's level of GDPPC in 1988 was 1.4 ppa.¹³ So the total gain from the 1988 growth acceleration was $(3.5-1.4)^{*}22 = 46\%$ – Uganda's output was 46% higher due to the 1988 growth acceleration than the counter-factual of 1.4 ppa growth.

9 Predicted = .0065 +.191 * g₁₉₈₀₋₁₉₈₈ + 0.001 * In(GDPPC₁₉₈₈)

 $\mathcal{G}_{1988-2010}^{Predicted} = .0065 + 91 * g_{1980-1988} + .001 * In(GDPPC_{1988}) \text{ And plugging in of } g_{1980-1988} = -.005 \text{ and } \ln(529) = 6.27, \text{ produces } g^{\text{Predicted}} = .014.$



¹¹ There is some discrepancy between these growth rates and the numbers in Figure 6 because the growth rates in Figure 6 are the result of the output of the BP procedure, whereas the numbers in the table (and used in Figure 8) are OLS estimated growth rates.

¹² The equation, with coefficients estimated from all countries except Uganda, is: $\int_{1969-1980}^{Predicted}$ Hence plugging in the values of g1961-1969=.030 and ln(824)=6.71, produces g^{Predicted}=.023.

¹³ The equation for this episode is (the prediction equation is estimated for each episode):

Uganda

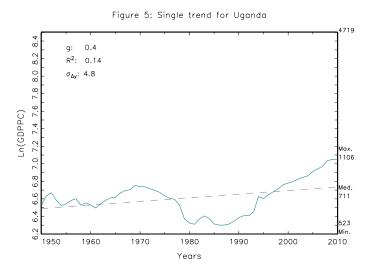


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Uganda

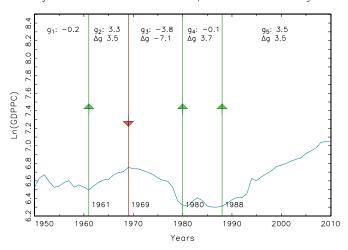


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Uganda

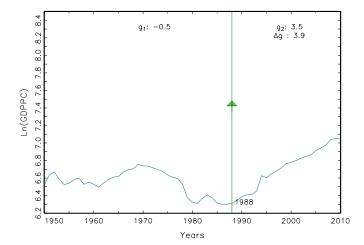
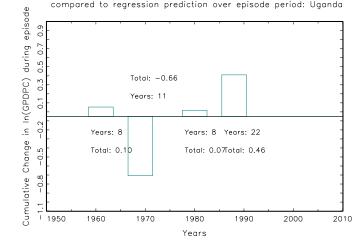


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Uganda



Section II: Country Graphs

Afghanistan

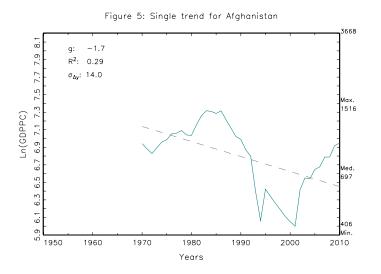


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Afghanistan

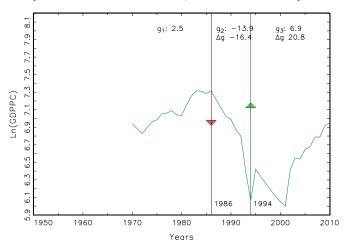


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Afghanistan

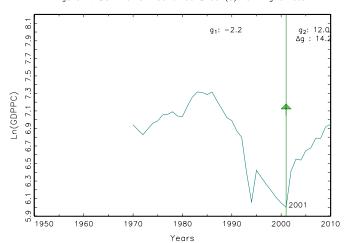
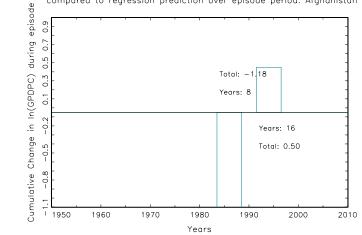
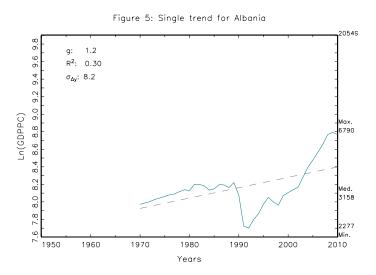


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode , compared to regression prediction over episode period: Afghanistan





Albania



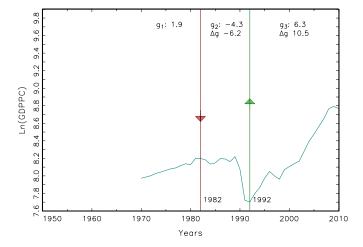
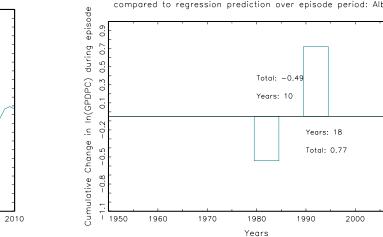
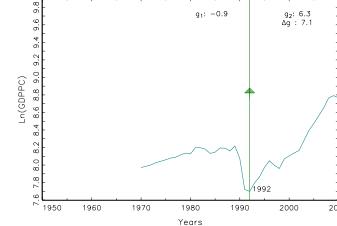


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Albania

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Albania

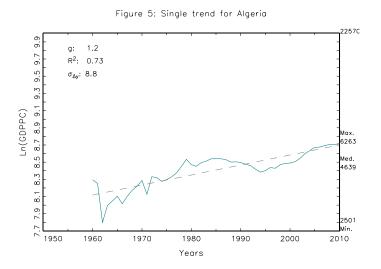
Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Albania







Algeria





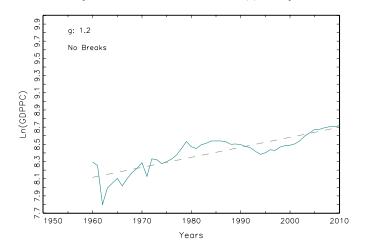


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Algeria

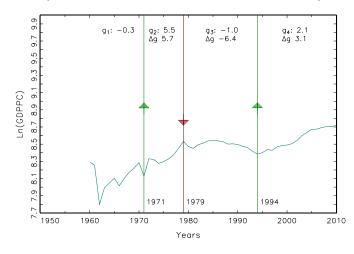
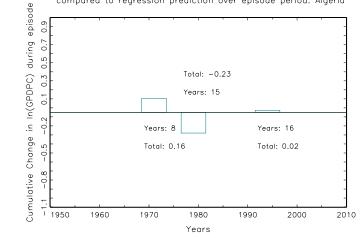


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Algeria





Angola

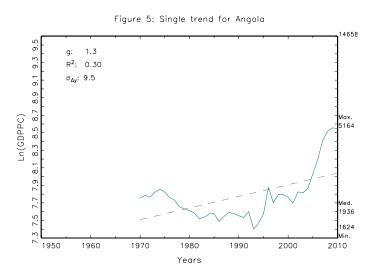


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Angola

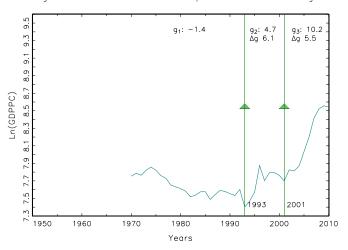
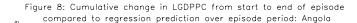
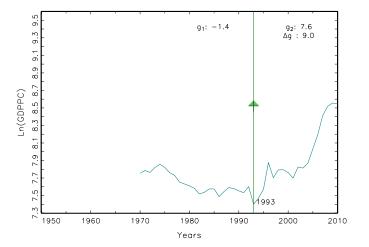
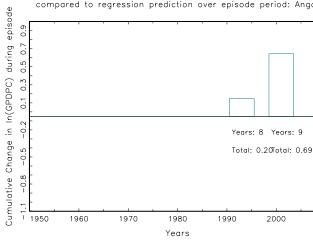


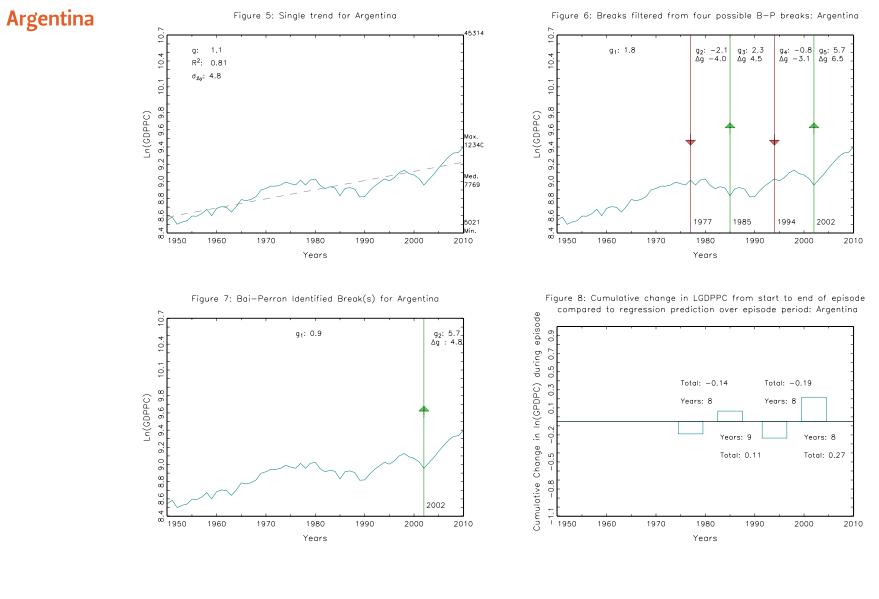
Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Angola





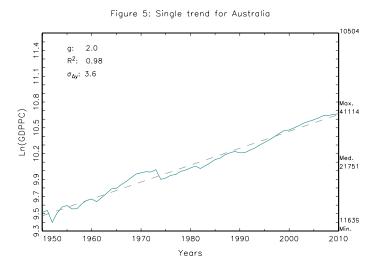






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Australia



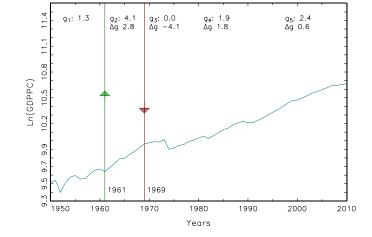


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Australia

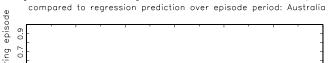
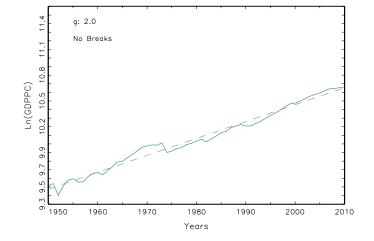


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode



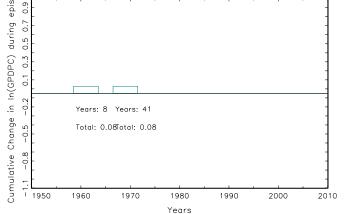
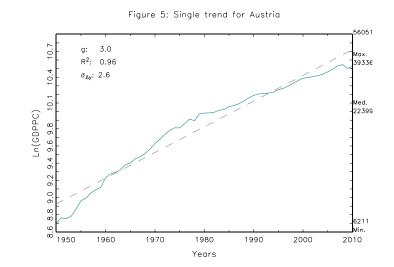


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Australia





Austria

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Austria

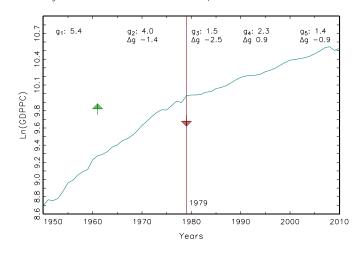
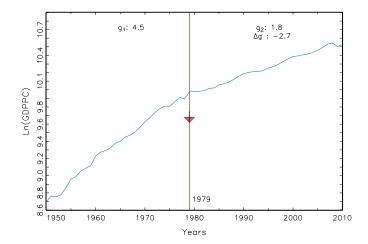
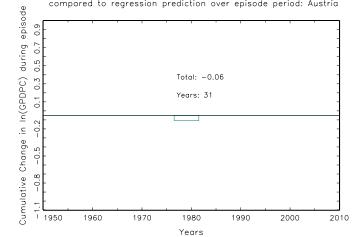




Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Austria







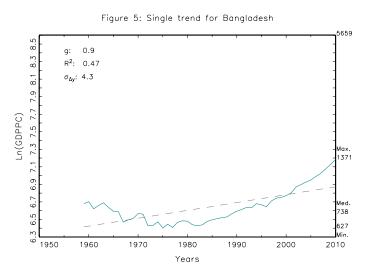


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Bangladesh

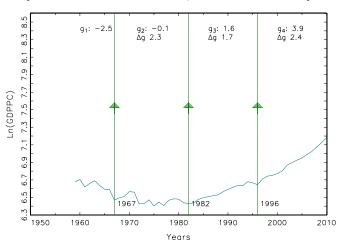


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Bangladesh

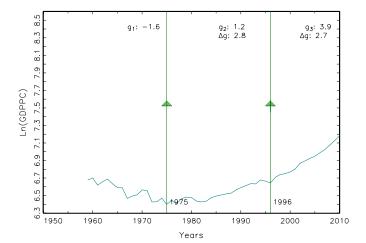
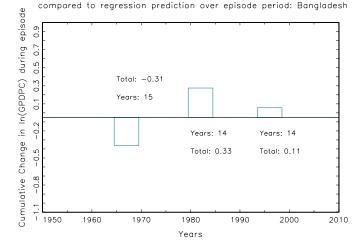


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Bangladesh







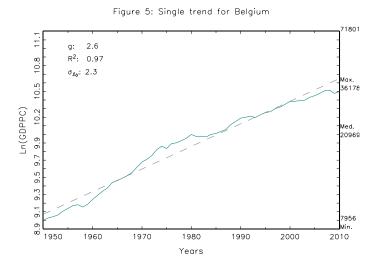
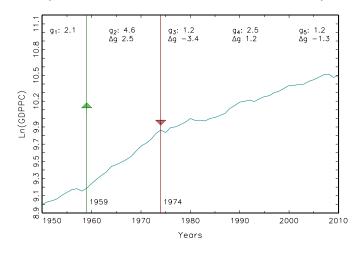


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Belgium



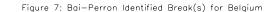
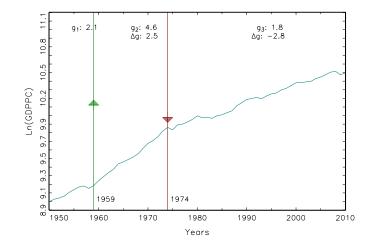
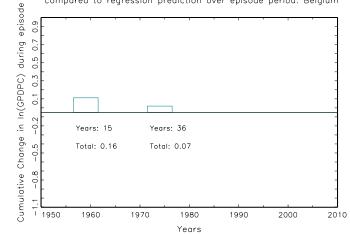
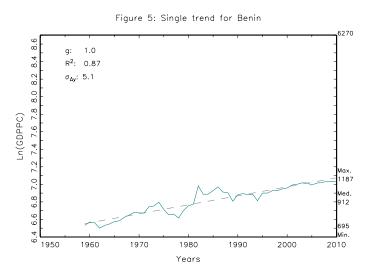


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Belgium







g1: 0.5 g₂: 4.9 ∆g 4.4 g₃: -1.8 ∆g -6.7 g₄: 1.4 ∆g 3.2 α 8.2 8.0 œ Ln(GDPPC) 2 7.4 7.6 7.8 7.0 œ ç G

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Benin

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 $\overline{\mathbf{A}}$ ي. 1950 ک

1960

1970

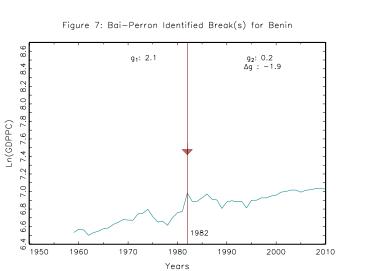


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Benin

1978

1980

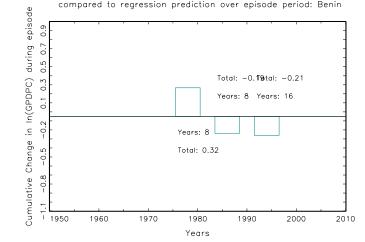
Years

1986

1990

1994

2000



Benin



Bolivia

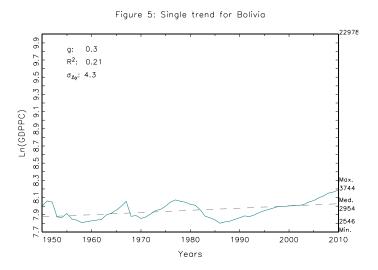
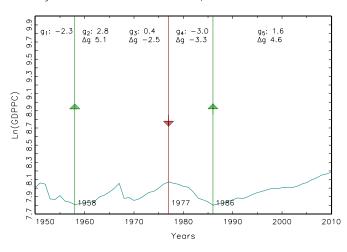
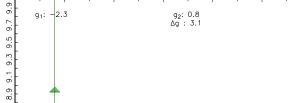


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Bolivia





1980

Years

1990

2000

2010

Ln(GDPPC)

8.7

8.5

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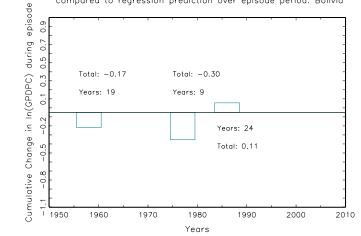
۲. **–** ۲. 1950 958

1960

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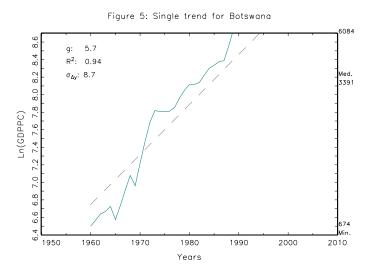
Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Bolivia

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Bolivia









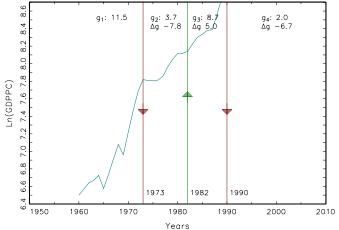


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Botswana

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Botswana

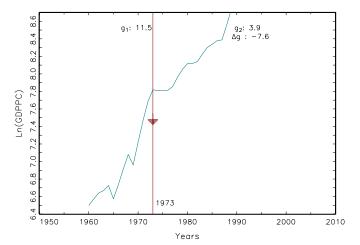
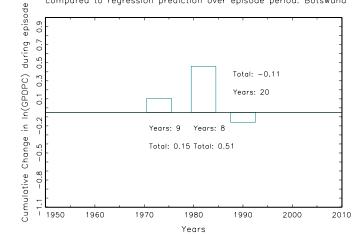


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Botswana





Brazil

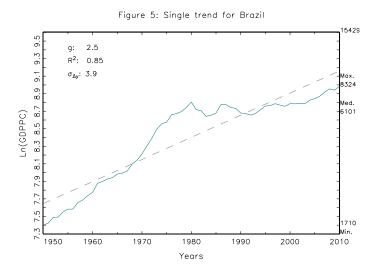


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Brazil

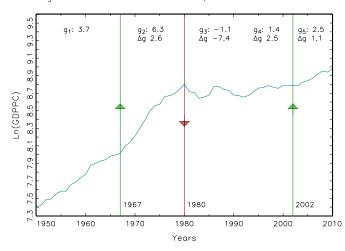


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Brazil

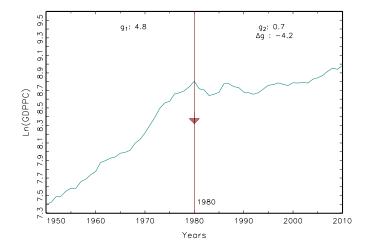
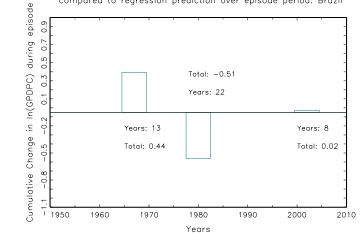
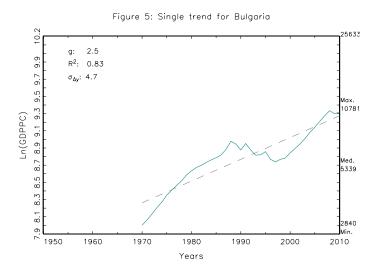


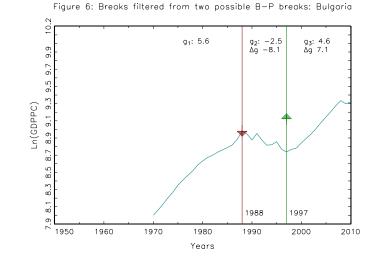
Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Brazil





Bulgaria





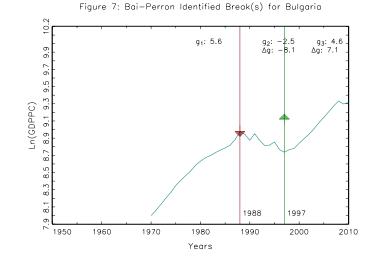
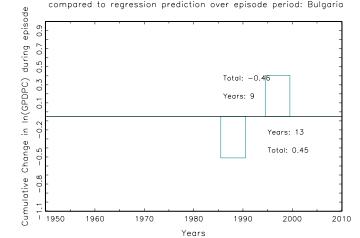


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Bulgaria





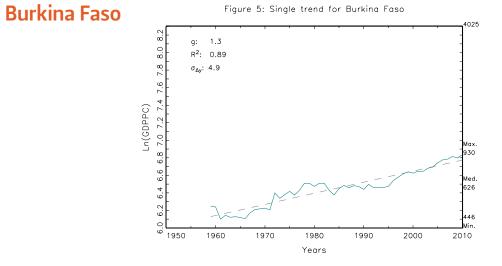
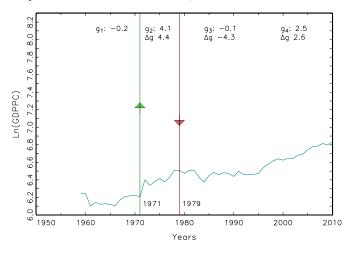


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Burkina Faso





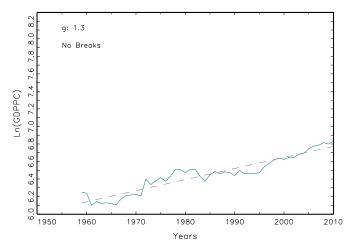
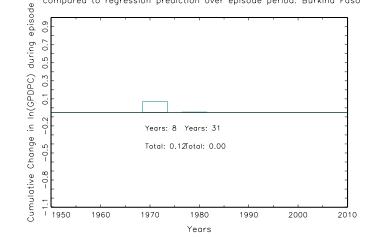


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Burkina Faso





Burundi

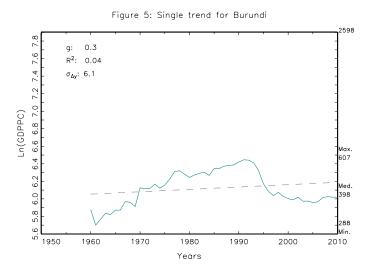


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Burundi

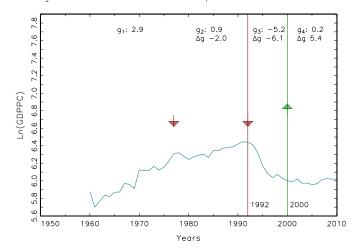
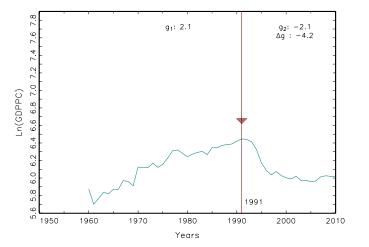


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Burundi

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Burundi



l during episode 0.5 0.7 0.9 Total: -0.**58**tal: -0.22 In(GPDPC) 0.3 Years: 8 Years: 10 0 0 Change in | 3 -0.5 -0.2 0.8 Cumulative 1960 1970 1980 1990 2010 I 1950 2000 Years

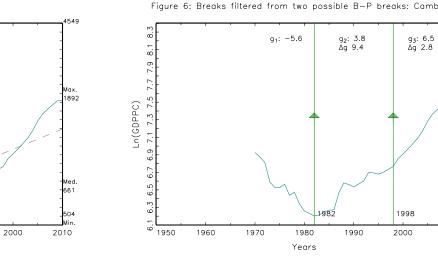


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Cambodia

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Cambodia

1980

Years

1990

Figure 5: Single trend for Cambodia

Cambodia

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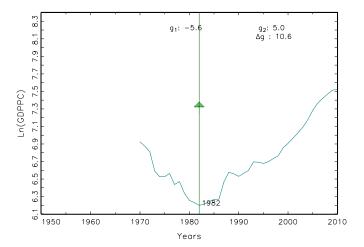
g: 2.3

σ_{Δy}: 7.5

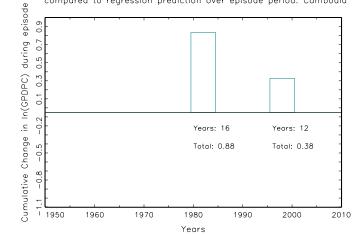
R²: 0.52

1960

1970







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6 8.9 8.7

8.5 Ln(GDPPC)

8.3

8.1

σ

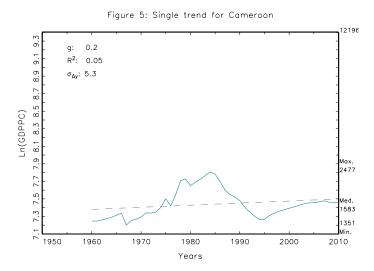
7.7 7.5

7.3

- **L** 1950

1960

Cameroon



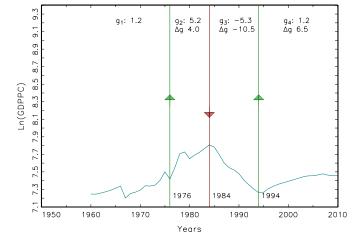
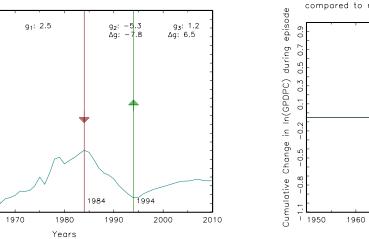


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Cameroon

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Cameroon

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Cameroon



Total: -0.70 Total: -0.15 Years: 10 Years: 16 Years: 8 Total: 0.29 1970 1980 1990 2010 2000 Years





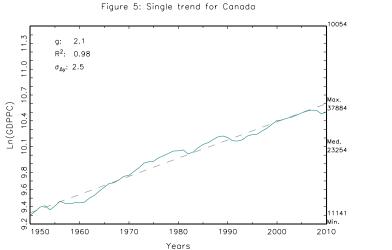


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Canada

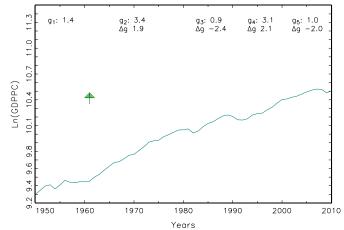


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Canada

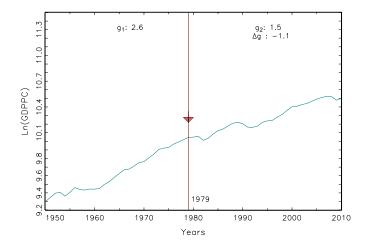
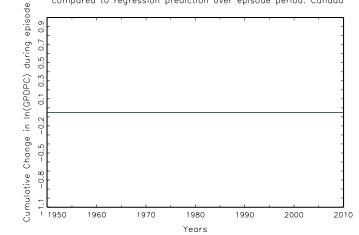
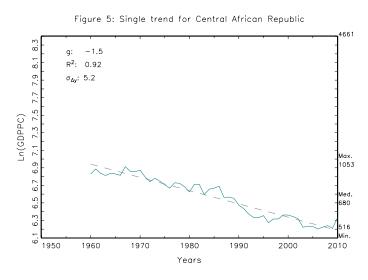


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Canada







gure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Central African Rep

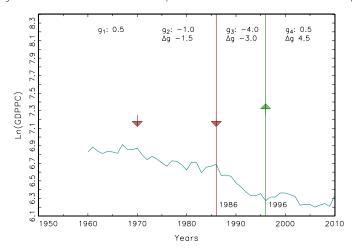


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Central African Republic

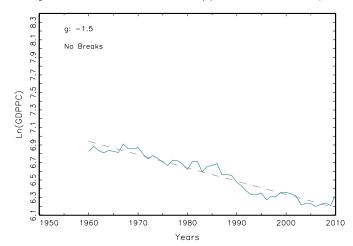
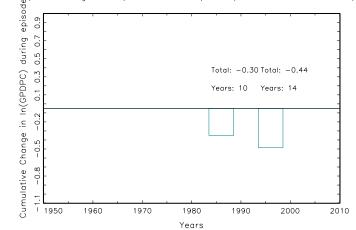


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Central African Repu





Chad

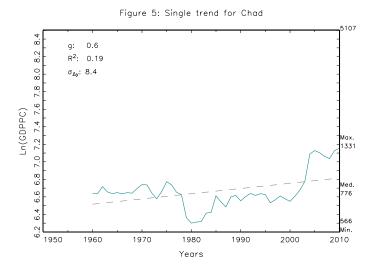
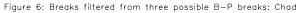


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Chad



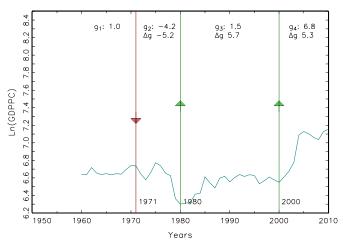
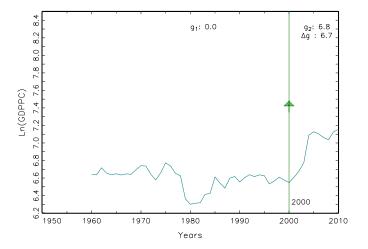
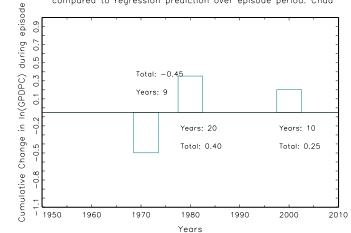


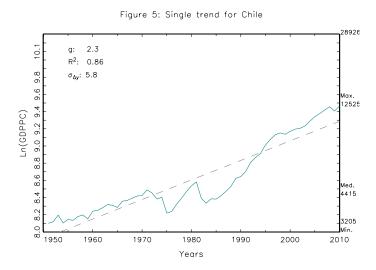
Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Chad







Chile



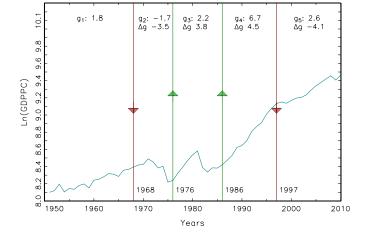


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Chile

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Chile

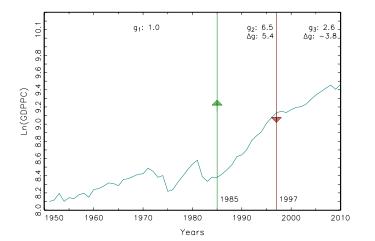
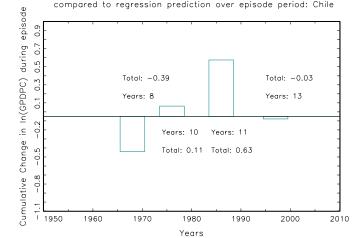


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Chile





China

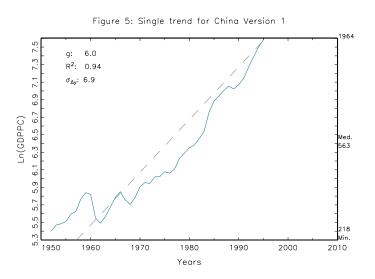


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for China Version 1

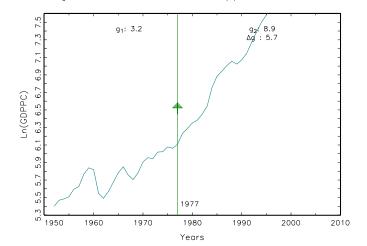
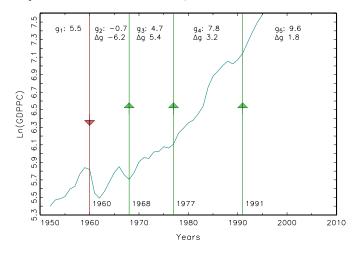
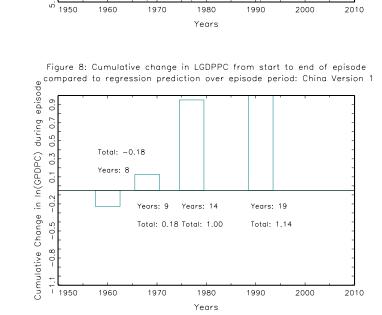


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: China Version 1







Colombia

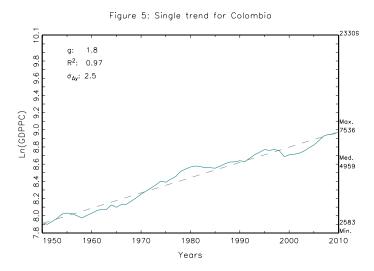


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Colombia

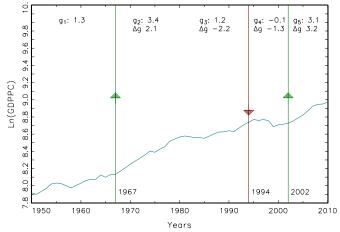
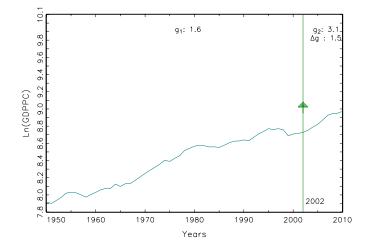
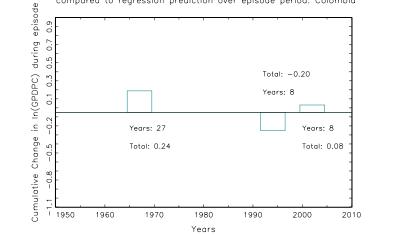


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Colombia









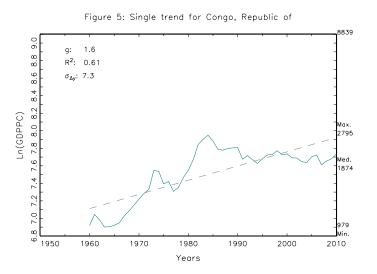


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Congo, Republic

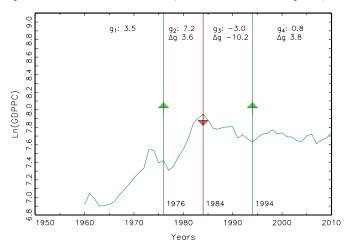


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Congo, Republic of

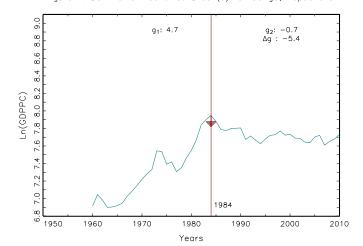
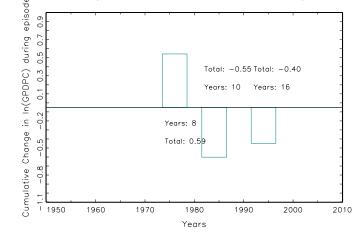


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode gompared to regression prediction over episode period: Congo, Republic (





Congo, Dem Rep

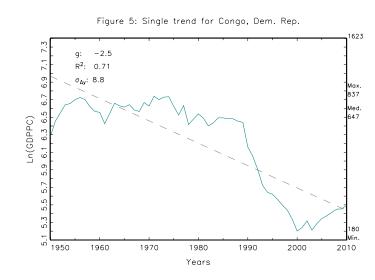
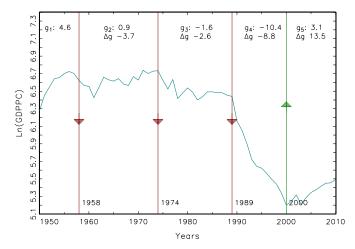
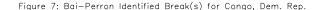


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Congo, Dem. Rep





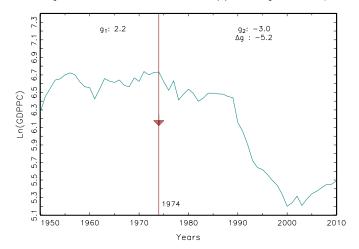
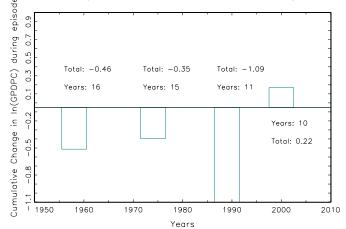


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Congo, Dem. Rep







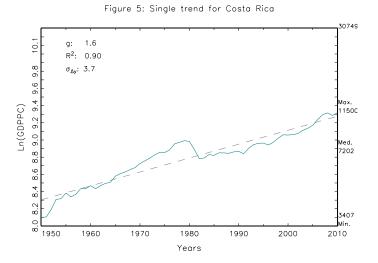


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Costa Rica

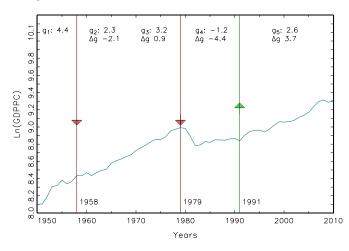


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Costa Rica

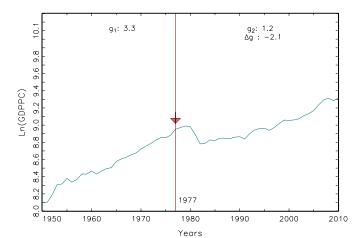
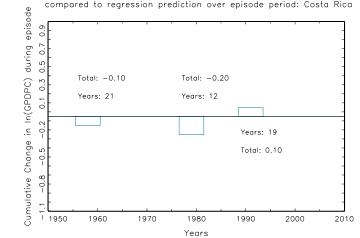


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Costa Rica







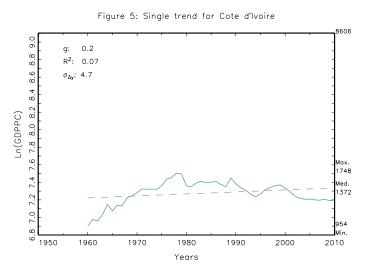


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Cote d'Ivoire

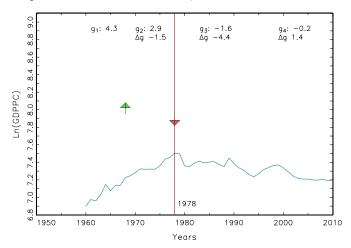


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Cote d'Ivoire

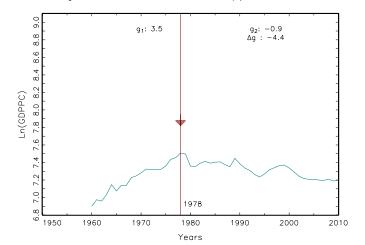
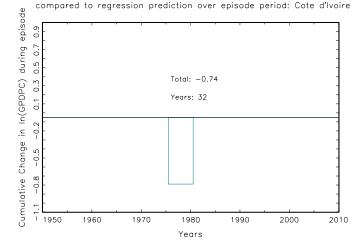


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Cote d'Ivoire





Cuba

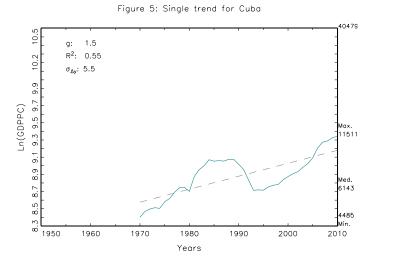
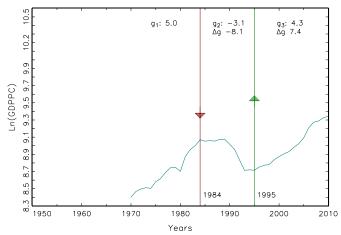
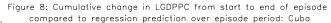
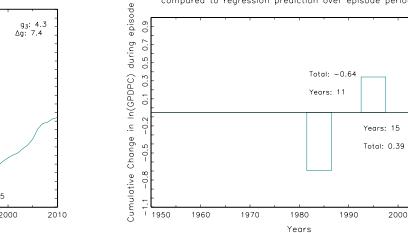


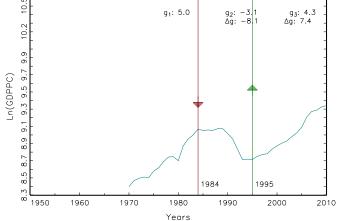
Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Cuba







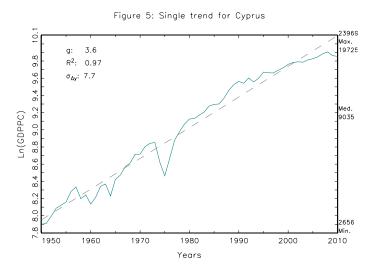






2000





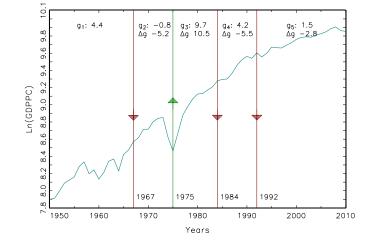


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Cyprus

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Cyprus

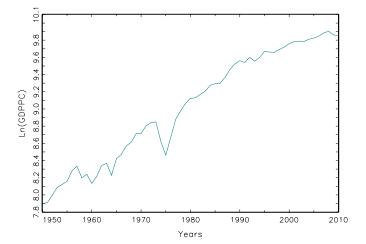
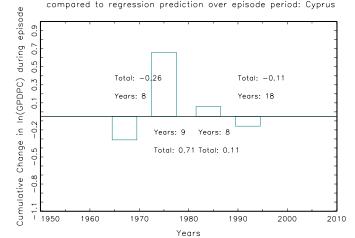
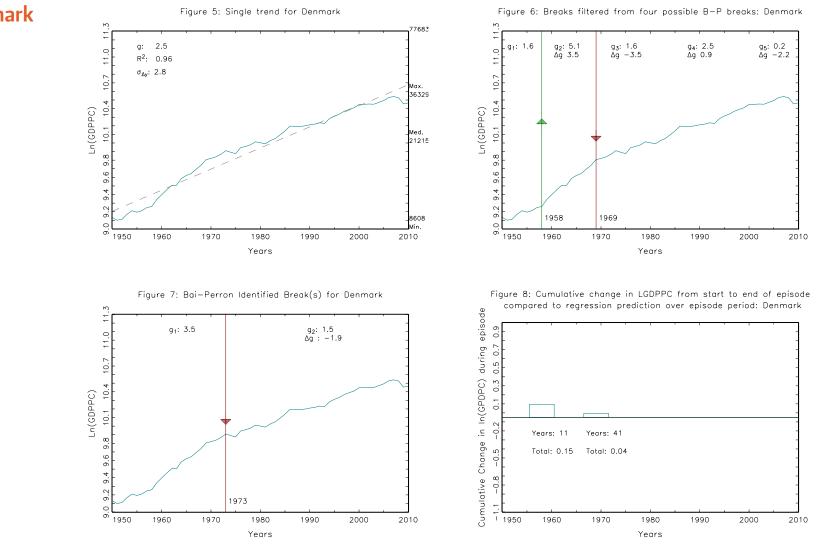


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Cyprus

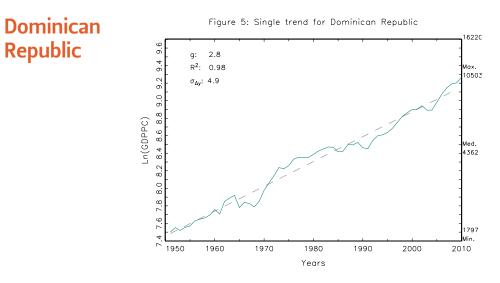






Denmark

Republic



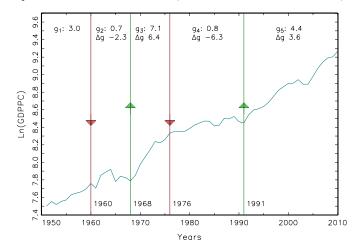


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Dominican Republ

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Dominican Republic

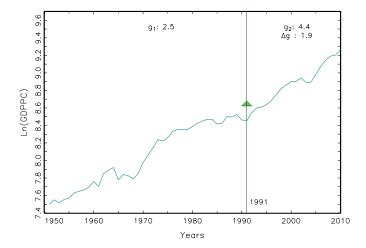
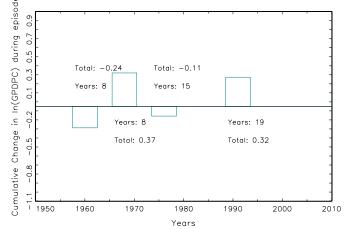


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Dominican Republ





Ecuador

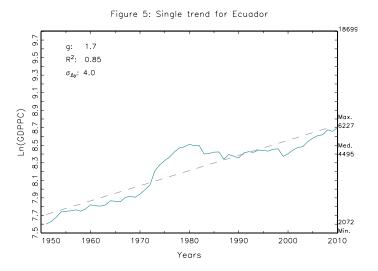


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Ecuador

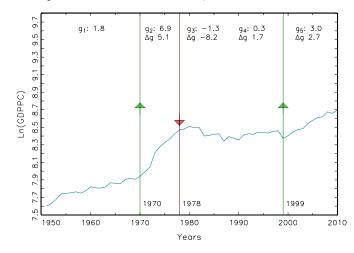


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Ecuador

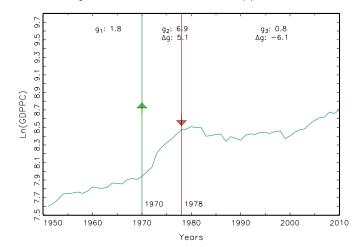
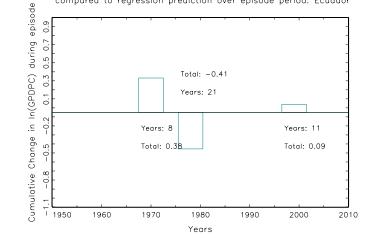
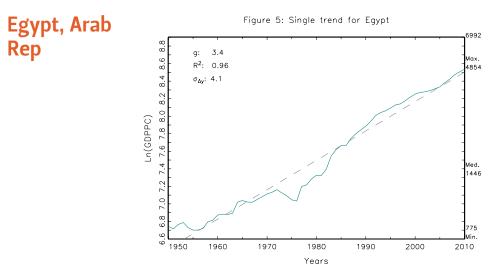


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Ecuador





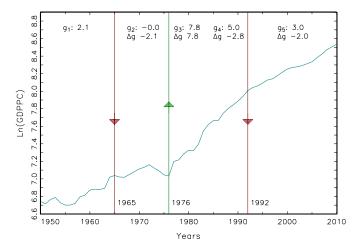


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Egypt

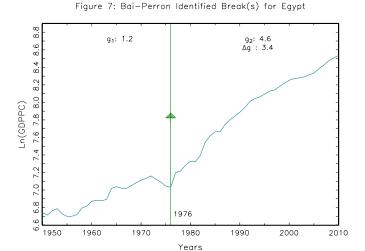
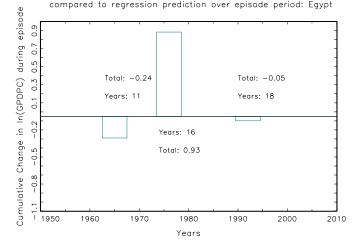
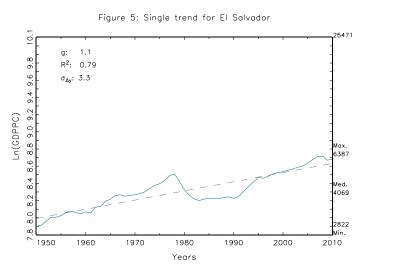


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Egypt

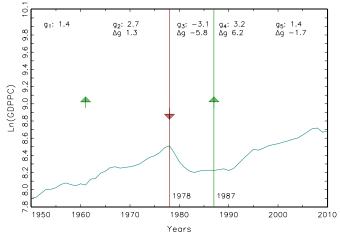




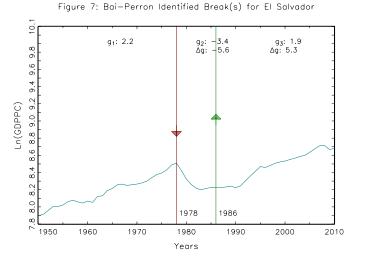


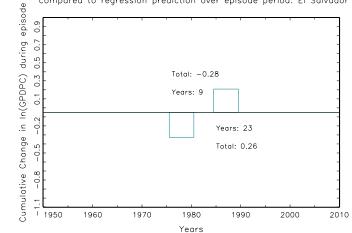
El Salvador

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: El Salvador











Ethiopia

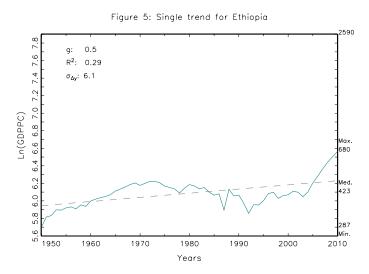


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Ethiopia

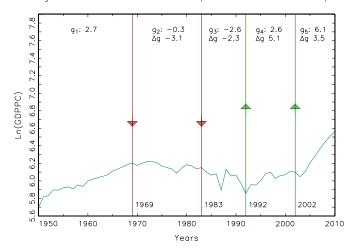
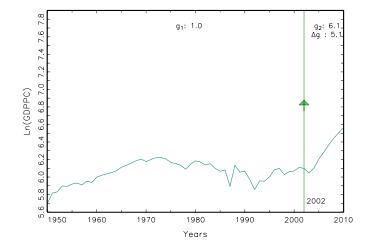
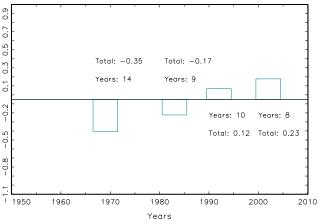


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Ethiopia









Fiji

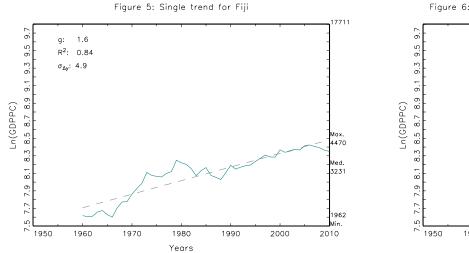
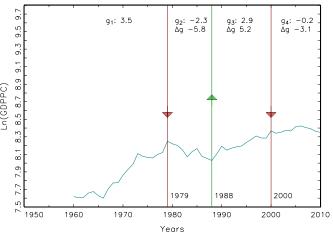
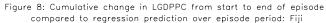
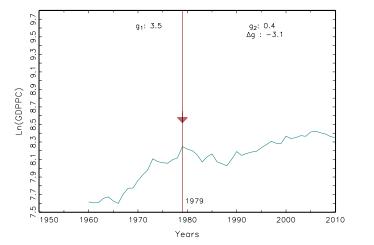


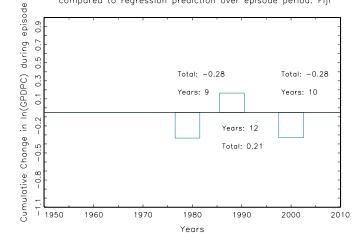
Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Fiji





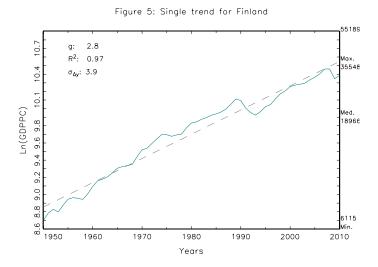








Finland



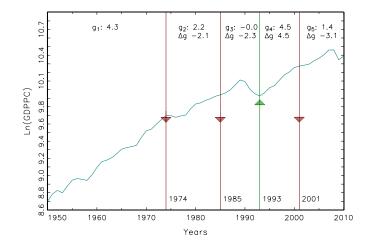
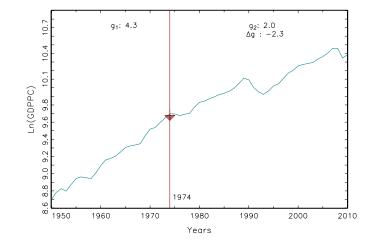


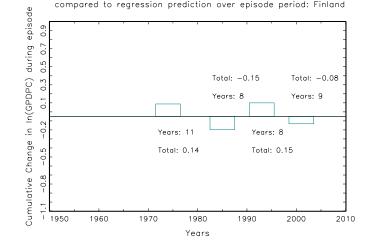
Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Finland

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Finland

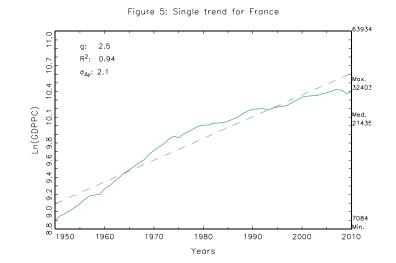
Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode



compared to regression prediction over episode period: Finland

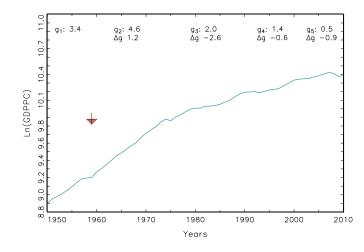






France

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: France





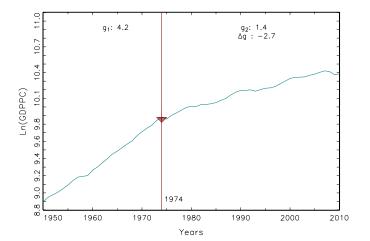
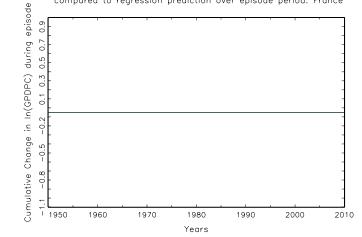
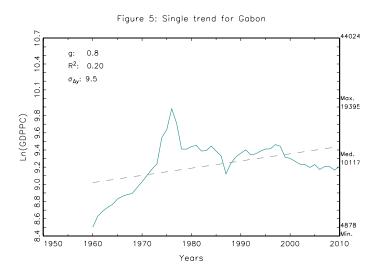


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: France





Gabon



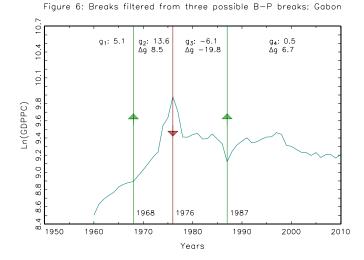
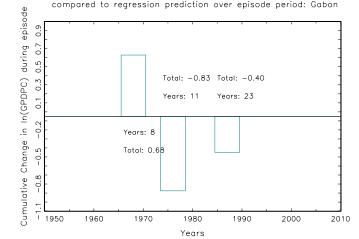
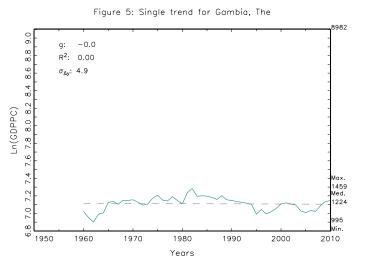


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Gabon 0 g₂: −1.6 ∆g : −11.0 g₁: 9.4 10.4 10.1 Ln(GDPPC) 2 9.4 9.6 9.8 9.2 9.0 8.8 8.6 1976 v **1**950 1960 1970 1980 1990 2000 2010 Years

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Gabon







Gambia, The

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Gambia, The

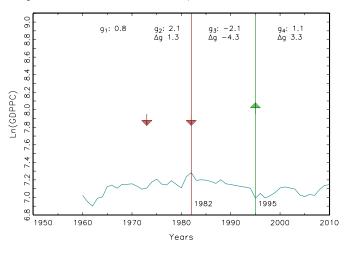


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Gambia, The

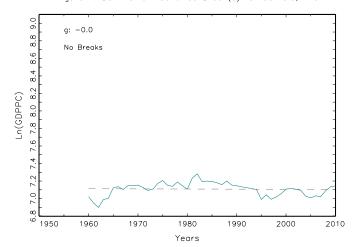
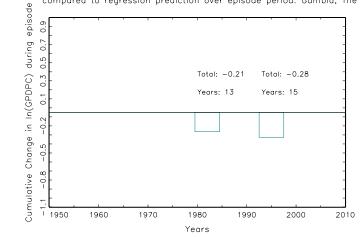
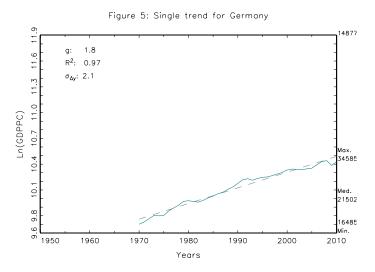
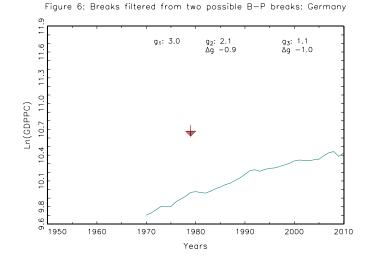


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Gambia, The









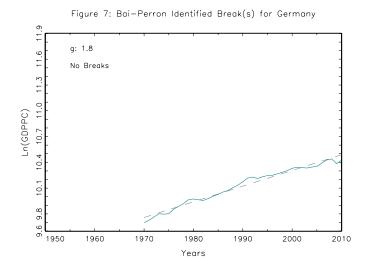
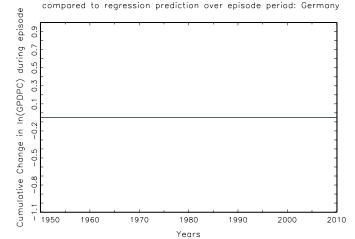


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Germany





Ghana

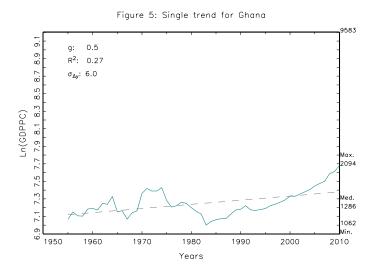


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Ghana

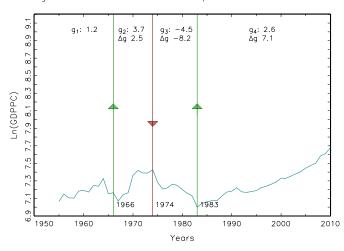


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Ghana

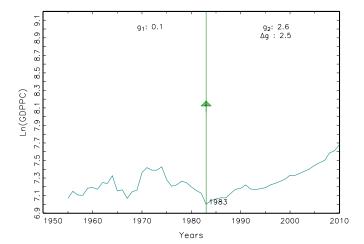
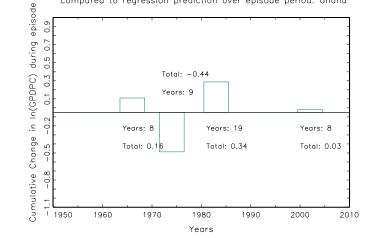
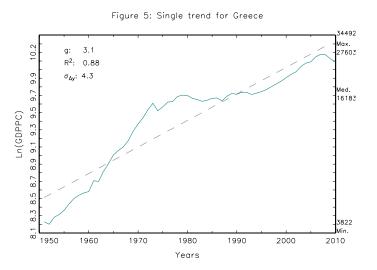


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Ghana









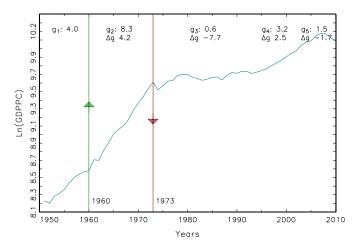
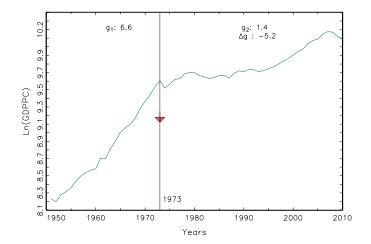


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Greece





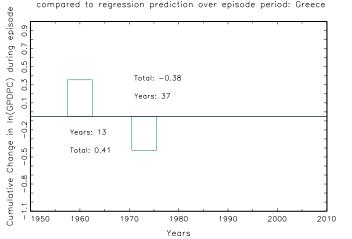
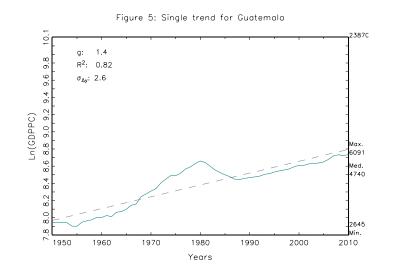


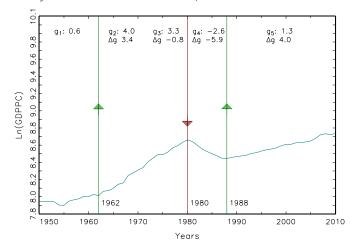
Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Greece





Guatemala

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Guatemala



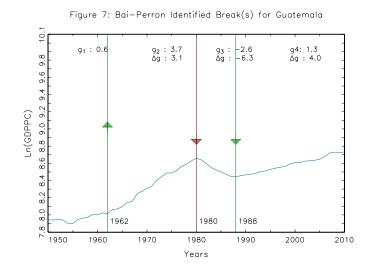
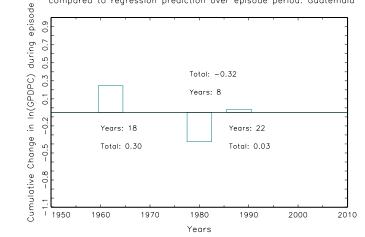


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Guatemala



Guinea

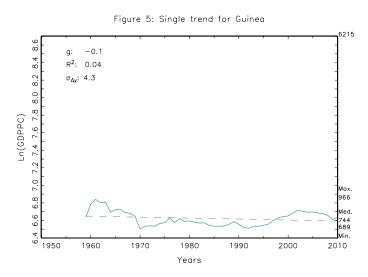


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Guinea

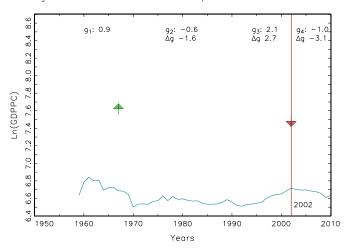


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Guinea

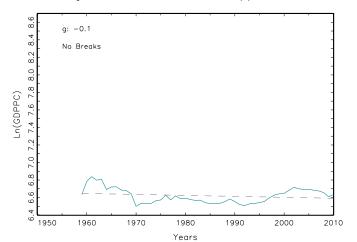
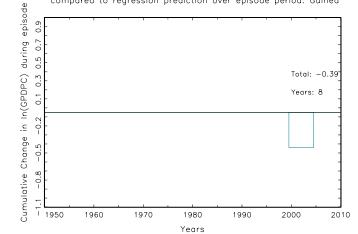
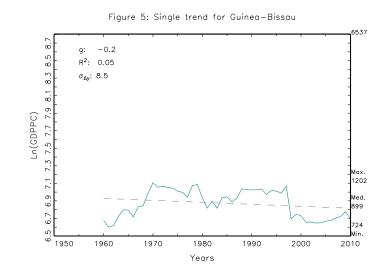


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Guinea



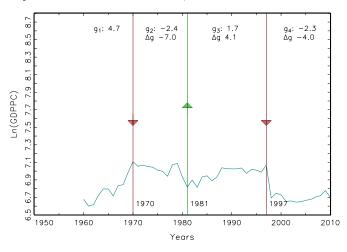




Guinea-

Bissau

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Guinea-Bissau



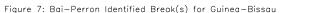
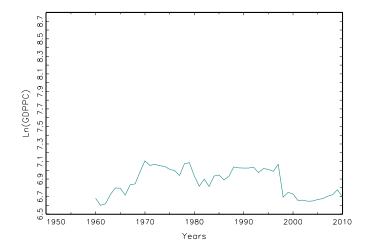
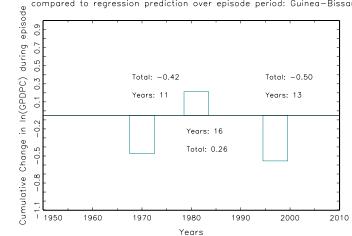
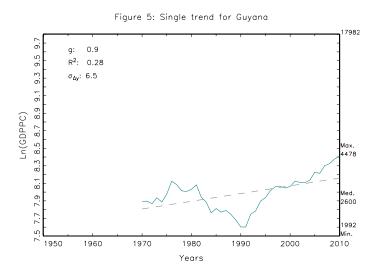


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode a compared to regression prediction over episode period: Guinea-Bissau





Guyana



g₁: 1.9 g₂: -5.0 ∆g -7.0 g₃: 4.2 ∆g 9.3 £ σ M σ σ σ Ln(GDPPC) ω 8.7 ŝ ω ۲ α œ

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Guyana

σ

σ

G

[~] 1950

1960

1970

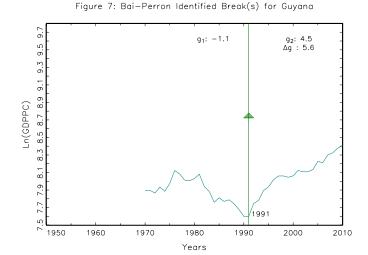


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Guyana

1980

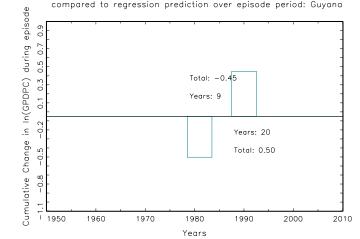
Years

1981

1/990

2000

2010





Haiti

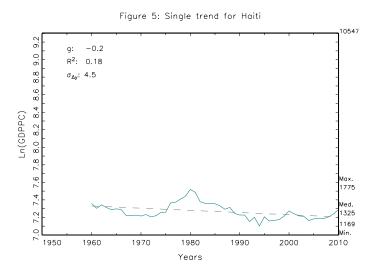


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Haiti

g₁: −0.7

1980

Years

9.0 9.2

8.8

8.6

8.4

8.0 8.2

7.8

7.2 7.4 7.6

0. 1950

1960

1970

Ln(GDPPC)



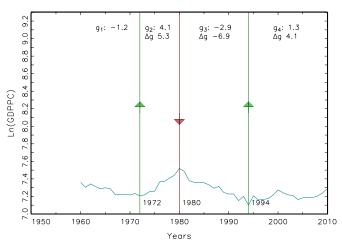
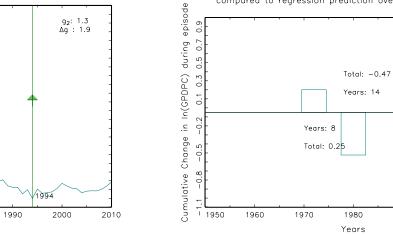


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Haiti





2000

2010

Total: -0.29

Years: 16

Honduras

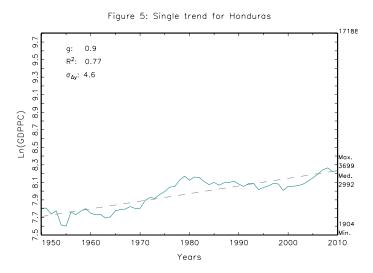


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Honduras

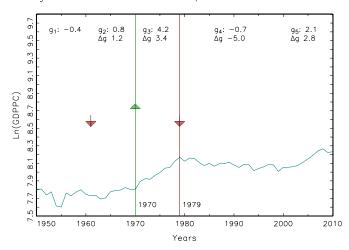
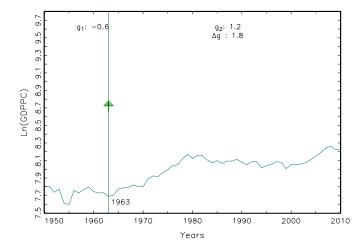
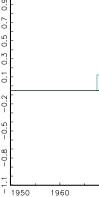


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Honduras



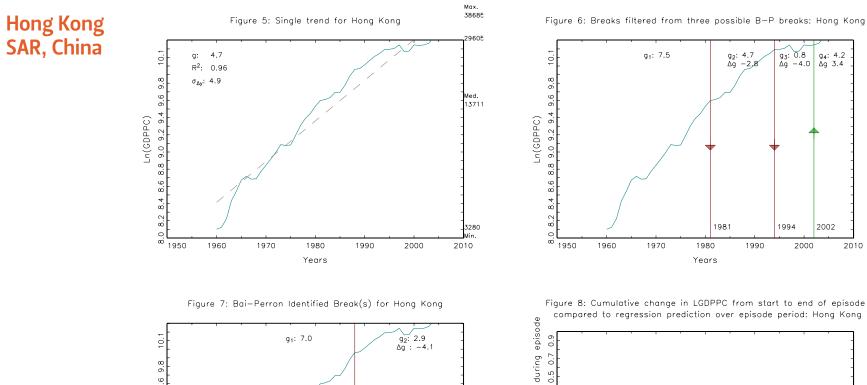


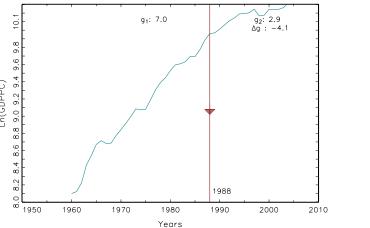


l during episode 0.5 0.7 0.9 Total: -0.44 In(GPDPC) 0 Years: 31 0 0 Years: 9 Change 3 -0.5 -Total: 0.17 œ Cumulative c 1970 1980 1990 2010 2000

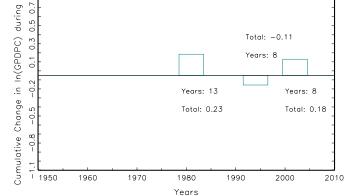
Years





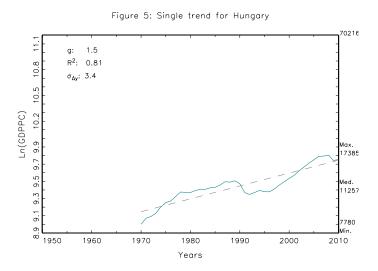


Ln(GDPPC)





Hungary



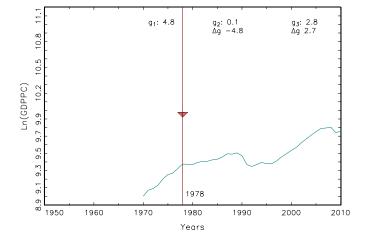
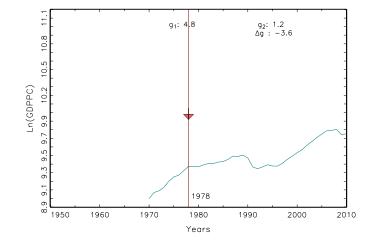
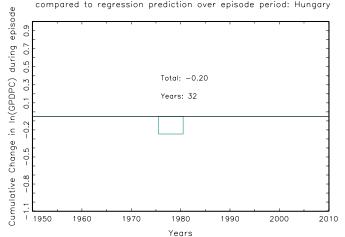


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Hungary

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Hungary

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Hungary





200



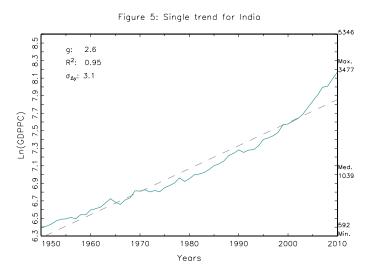


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for India

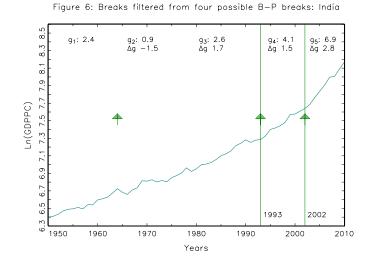
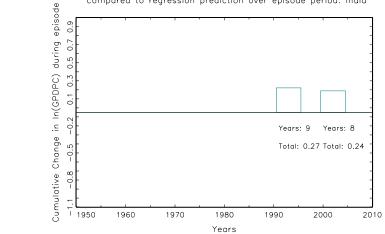
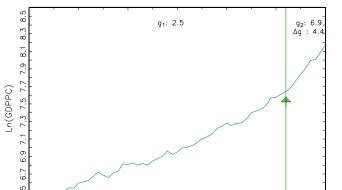


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: India







1980

Years

1990

2002

2010

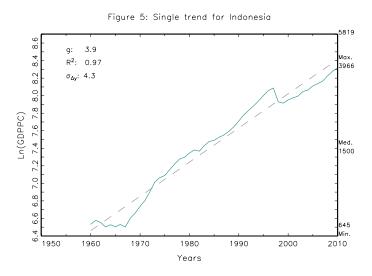
2000

Ġ

ν 9 1950

1960





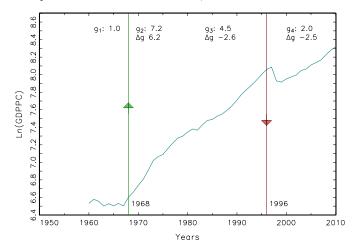


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Indonesia

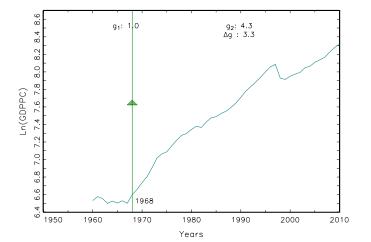


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Indonesia

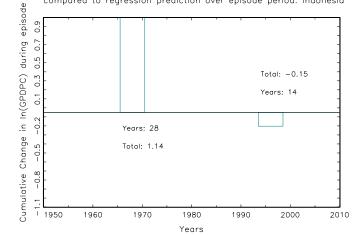


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Indonesia



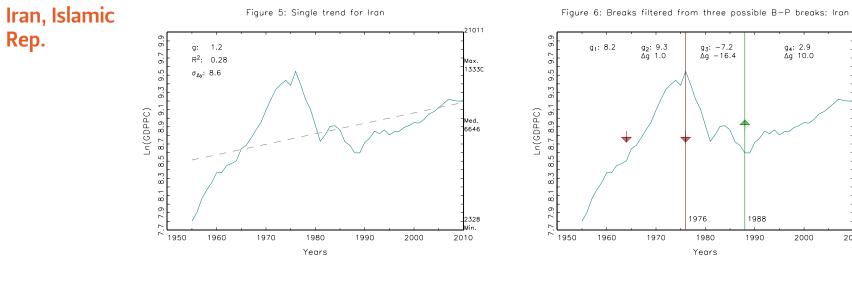


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Iran

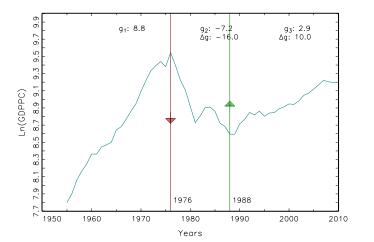
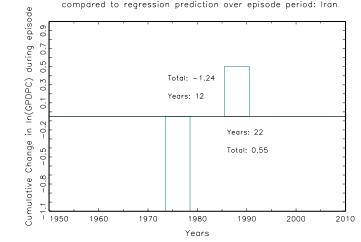
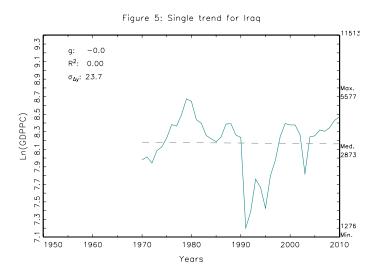


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Iran





Iraq



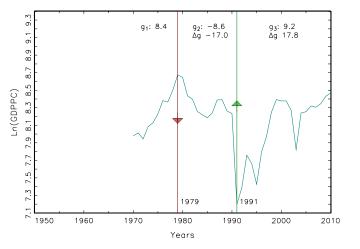


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Iraq

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Irag

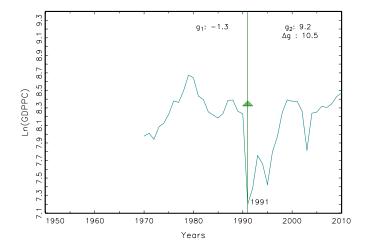
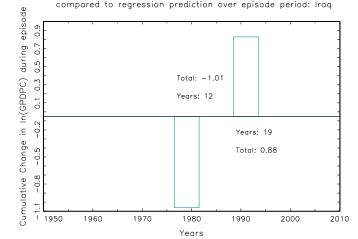


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Iraq









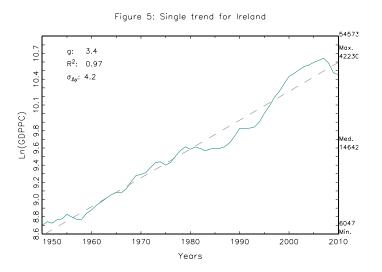


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Ireland

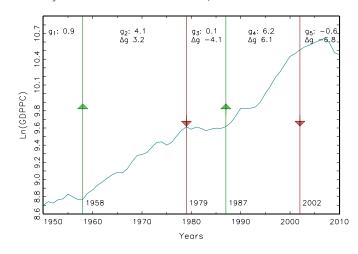


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Ireland

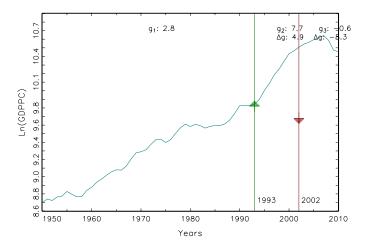
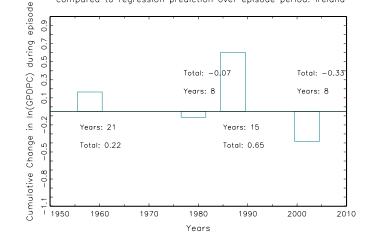
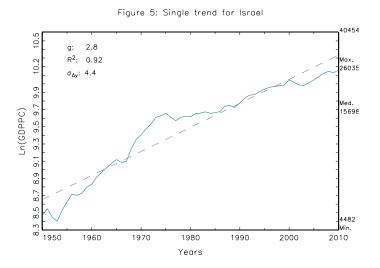


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Ireland





Israel



g₅: 1.2 ∆g -1.4 g1: 3.9 g₂: 7.3 ∆g 3.4 g₃: 0.1 ∆g -7.2 g₄: 2.6 ∆g 2.5 10.2 б б Ln(GDPPC) 1 9.3 9.5 9.7 σ 8.9 . cc ŝ œ 1967 1975 M. [∞] 1950 1960 1970 1980 1990 2000 2010 Years

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Israel

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Israel

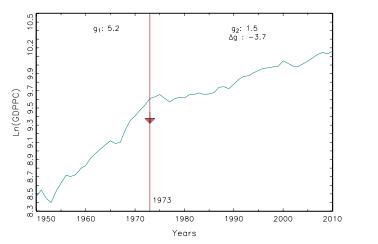
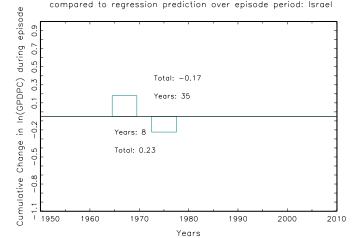
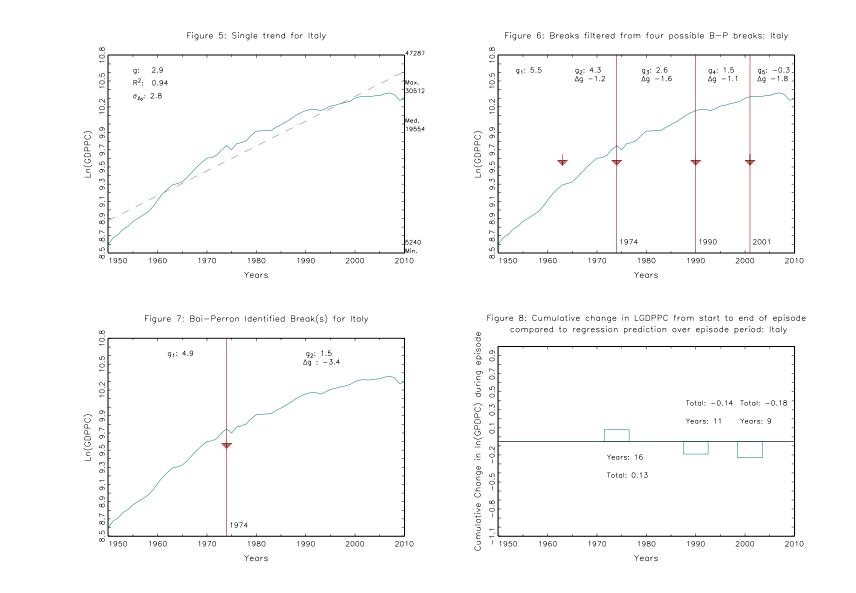


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Israel



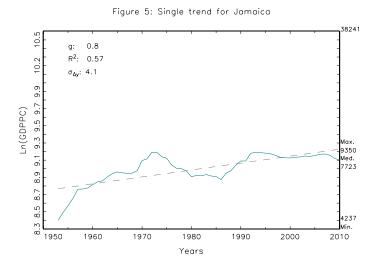




Italy

207

Jamaica



C g₂: 3.2 ∆g -2.6 g₅: -0.5 ∆g -4.6 g₁: 5.8 g₃: -2.2 ∆g -5.5 g₄: 4.1 ∆g 6.3 10.2 9.9 Ln(GDPPC) 1 9.3 9.5 9.7 6 8.9 8.7 8.5 1961 1972 1986 1994 M. [∞] 1950 1960 1970 1980 1990 2000 2010 Years

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Jamaica

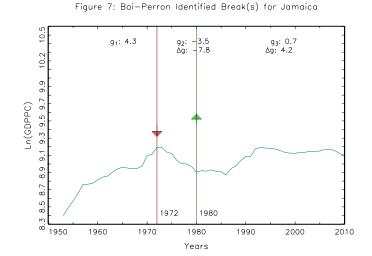
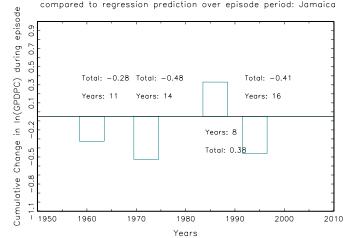
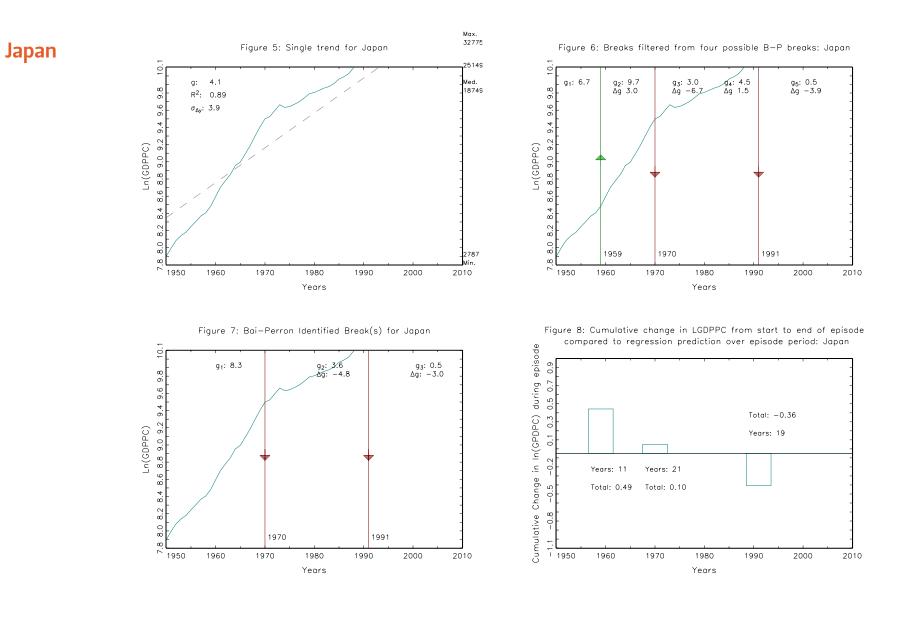


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Jamaica







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Jordan

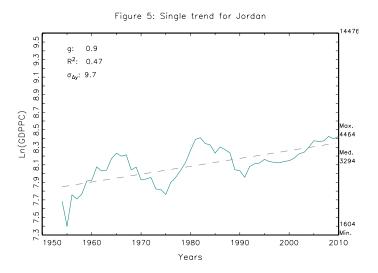


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Jordan

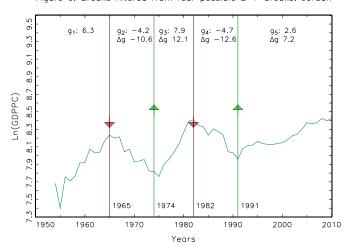


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Jordan

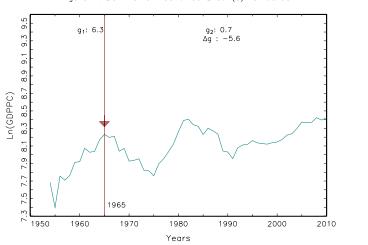
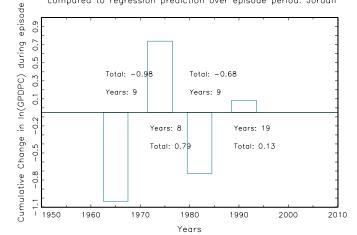


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Jordan





Kenya

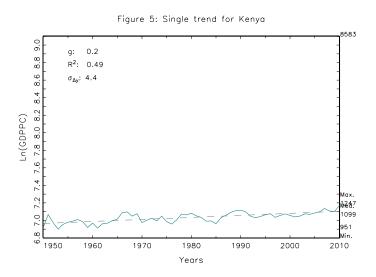


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Kenya

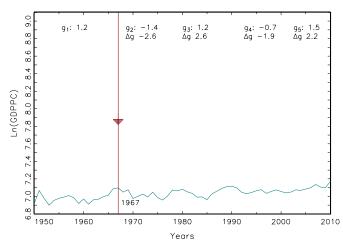


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Kenya

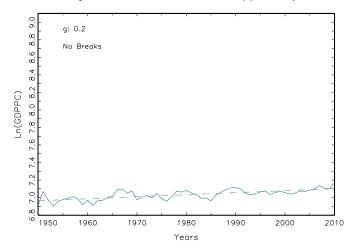
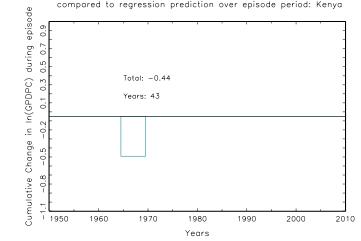


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Kenya





Korea, Rep.

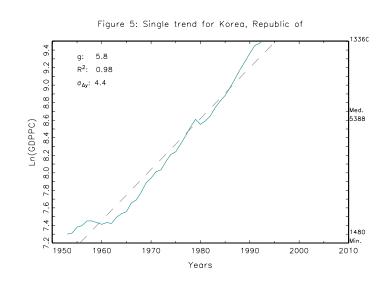


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Korea, Republic (

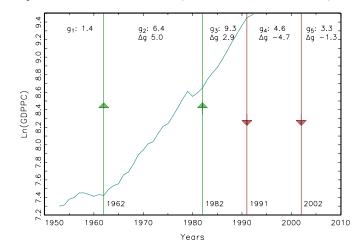


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Korea, Republic of

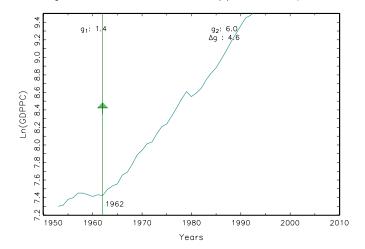
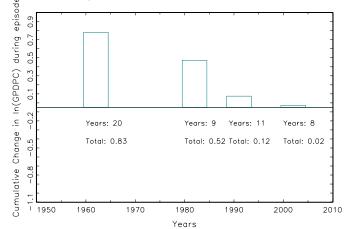
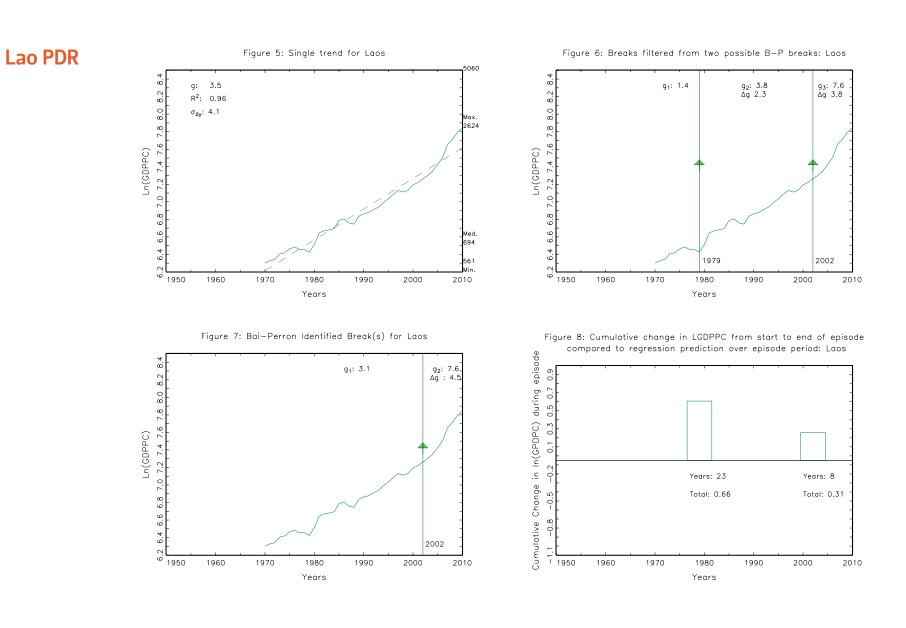


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode gompared to regression prediction over episode period: Korea, Republic c

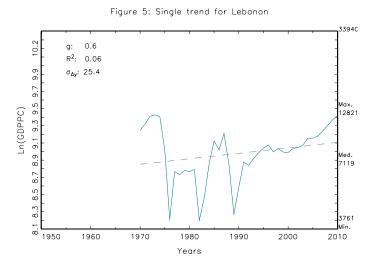






213

Lebanon



g₂: 13.0 ∆g 16.2 g₁: −3.2 g₃: 3.0 ∆g -10.0 ö 6.6 σ Ln(GDPPC) 9 9.1 9.3 9.5 Ľ თ ŵ m 8.5 ю α 1982 1991 [∞] 1950 1960 1970 1980 1990 2000 2010 Years

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Lebanon

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Lebanon

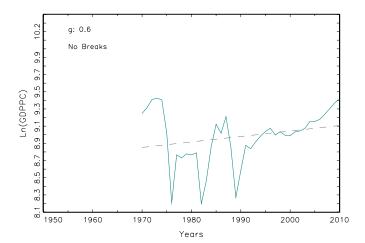
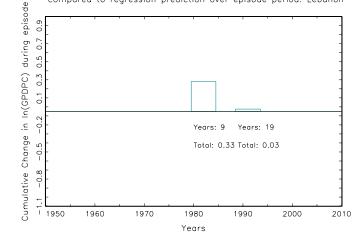


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Lebanon







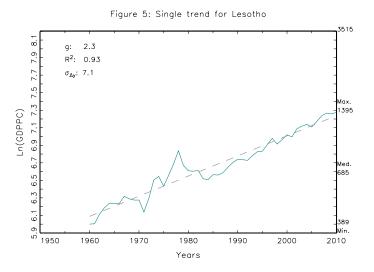
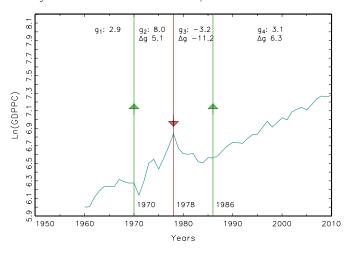


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Lesotho





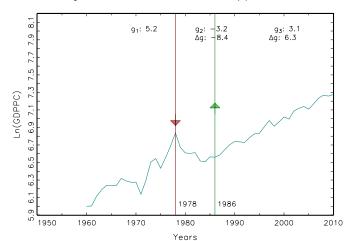
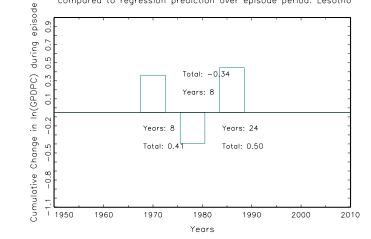
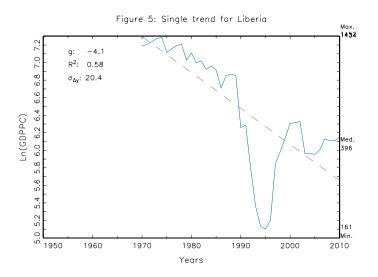


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Lesotho





Liberia



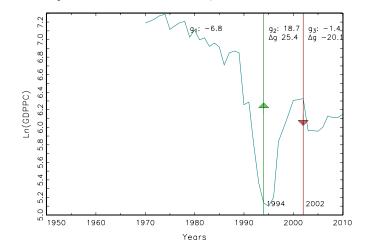
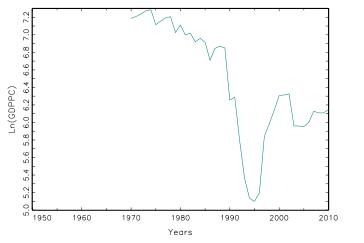
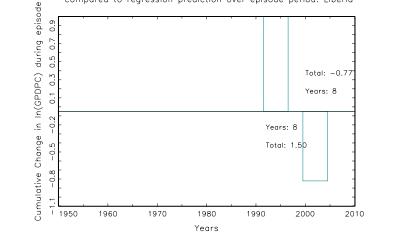


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Liberia

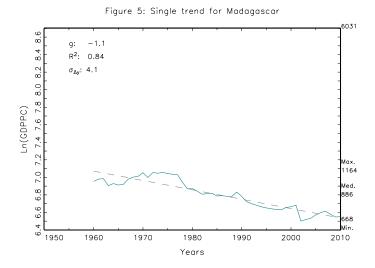
Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Liberia

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Liberia









Madagascar

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Madagascar

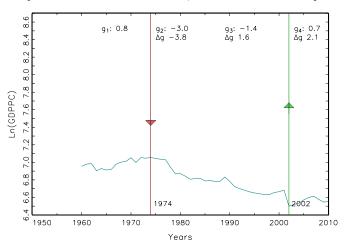


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Madagascar

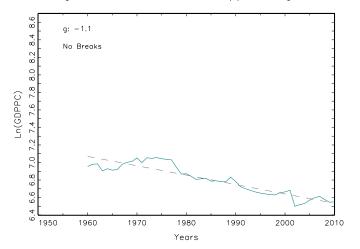
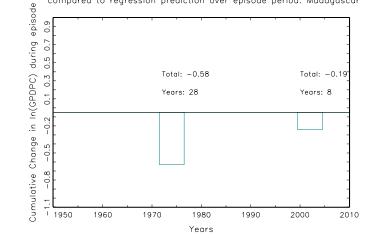


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Madagascar





Malawi

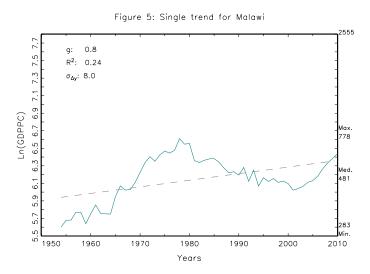


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Malawi

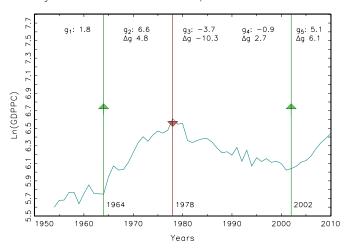
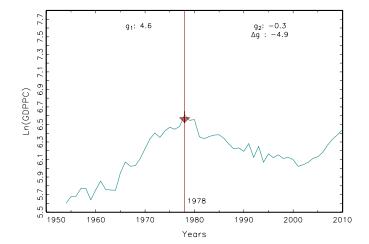
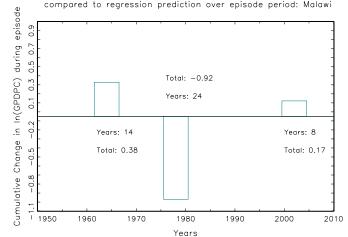


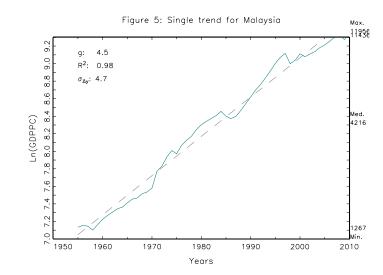
Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Malawi

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Malawi









Malaysia

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Malaysia

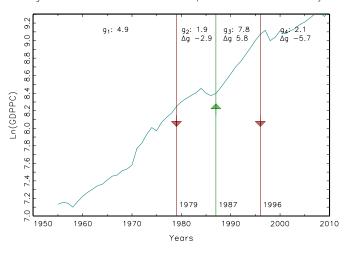


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Malaysia

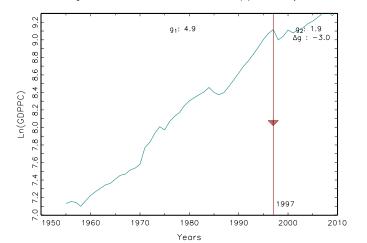
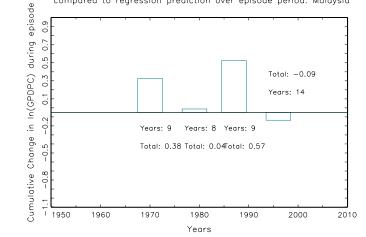
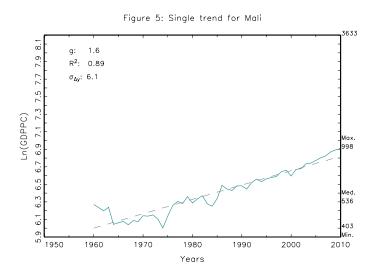


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Malaysia



Mali



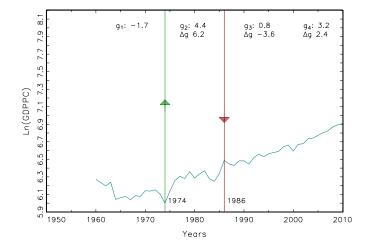
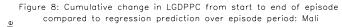
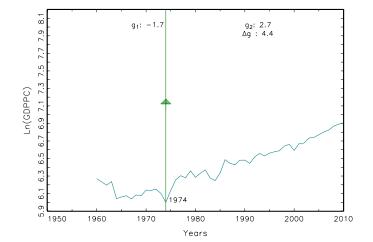


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Mali





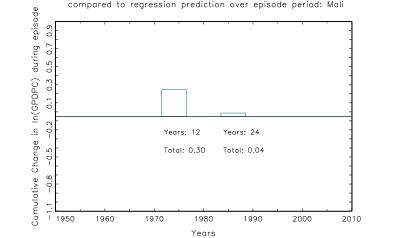
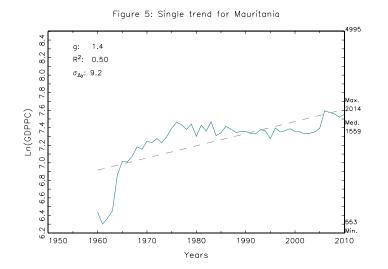


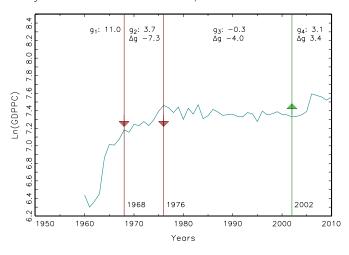
Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Mali





Mauritania

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Mauritania





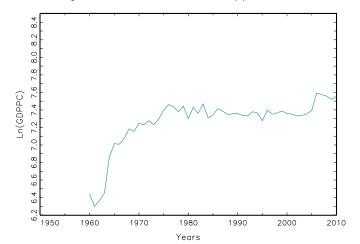
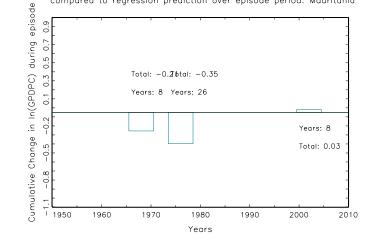
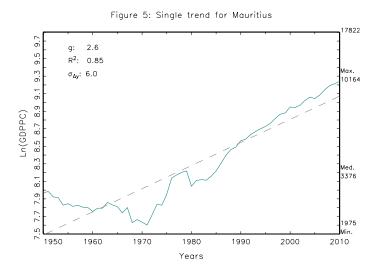


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Mauritania



Mauritius



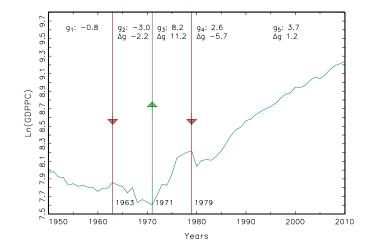


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Mauritius

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Mauritius

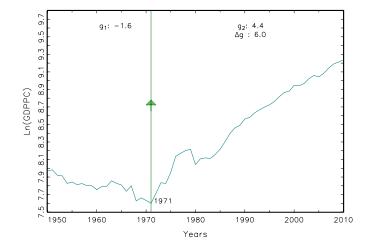
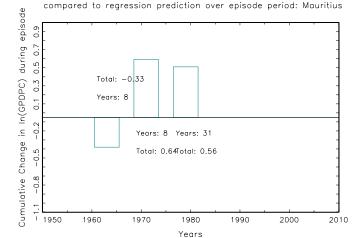


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Mauritius







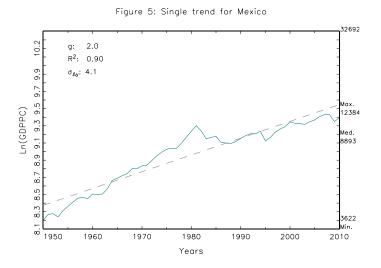


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Mexico

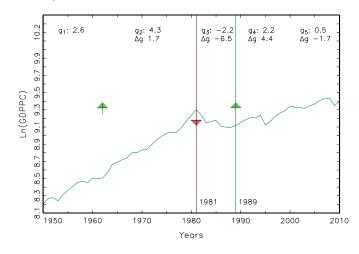


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Mexico

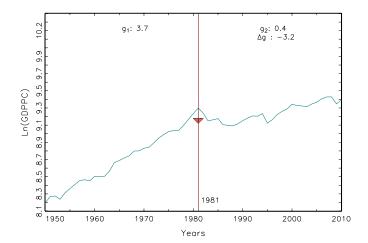
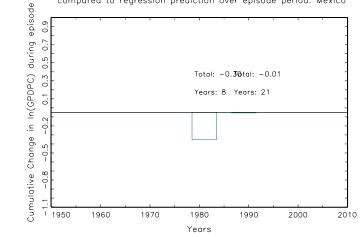


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Mexico





Mongolia

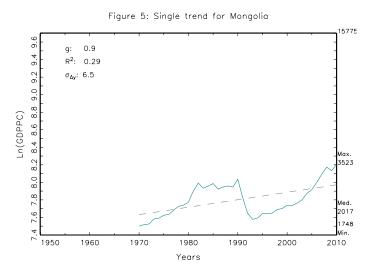


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Mongolia

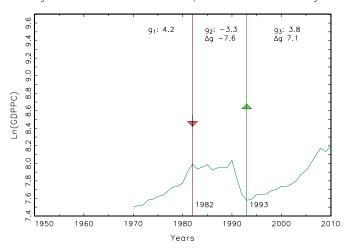
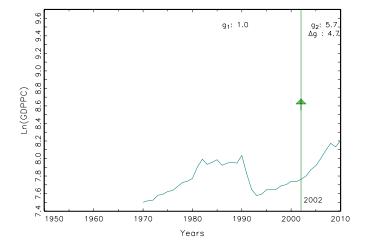
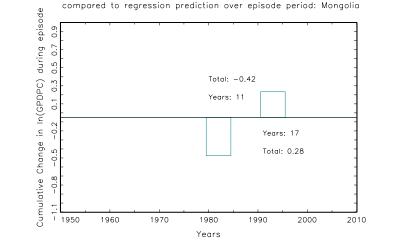
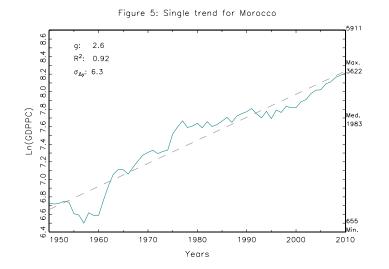


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Mongolia

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Mongolia







Morocco

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Morocco

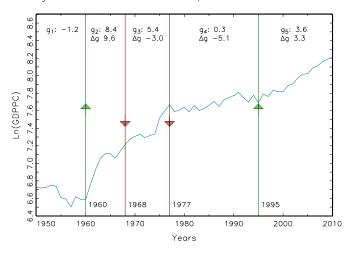


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Morocco

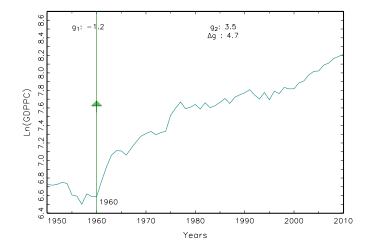
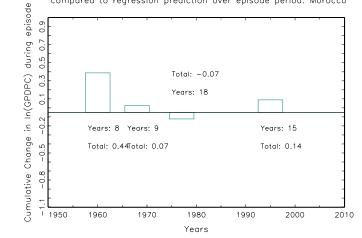


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Morocco



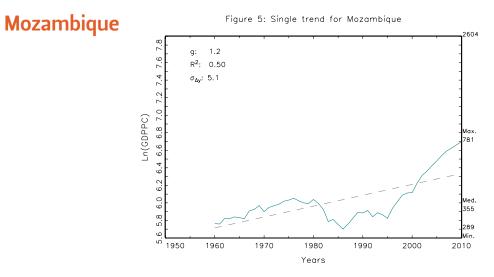


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Mozambique

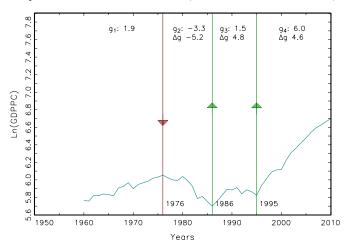


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Mozambigue

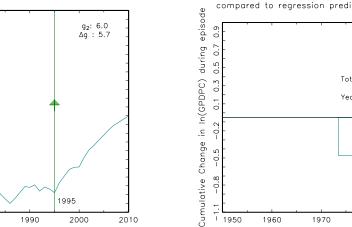
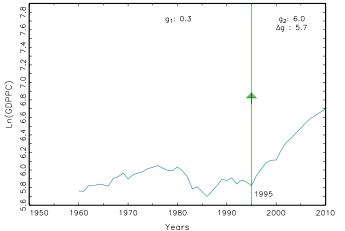
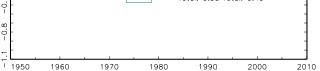


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Mozambique



Total: -0.42 Years: 10 Years: 9 Years: 15 Total: 0.33 Total: 0.49



Years





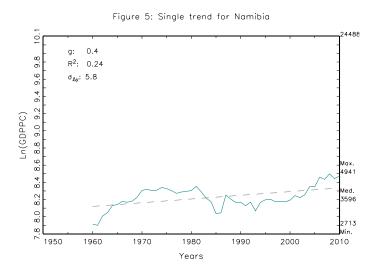


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Namibia

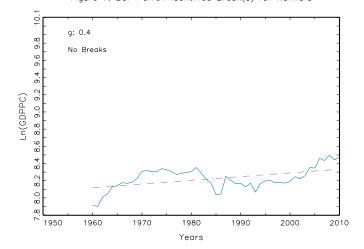
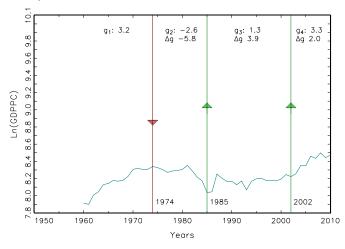
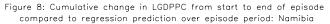
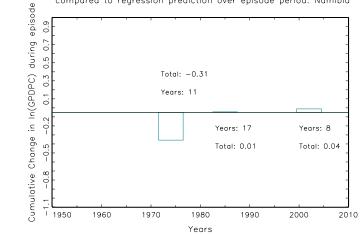


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Namibia

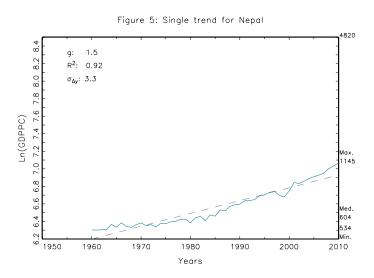


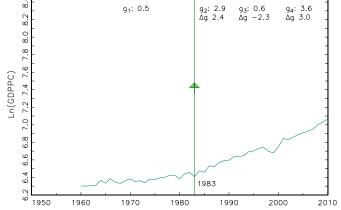






Nepal





g₁: 0.5

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Nepal

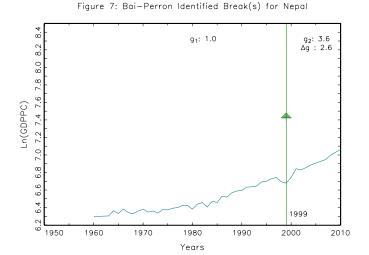
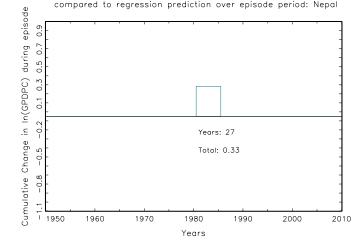
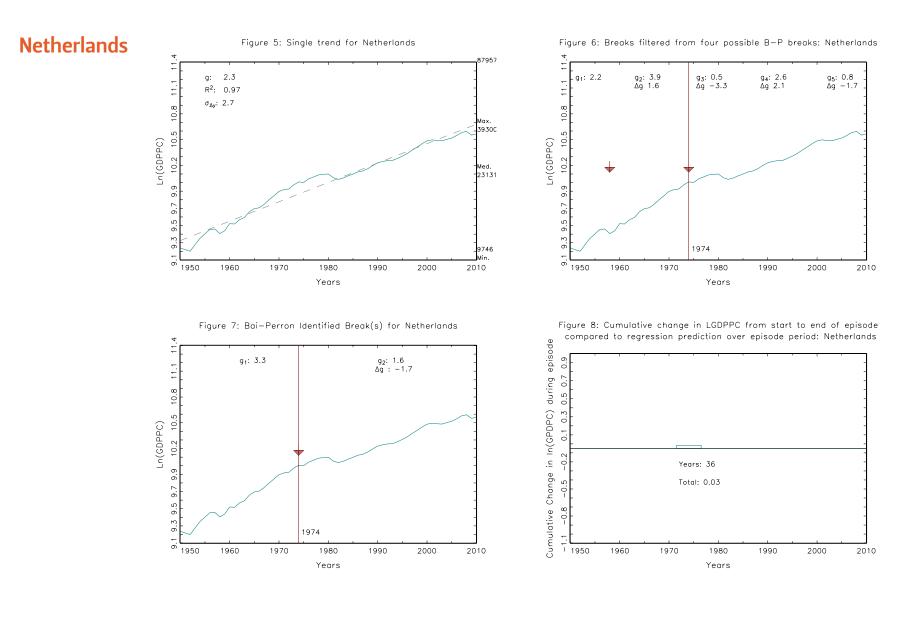


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Nepal

Years









New Zealand

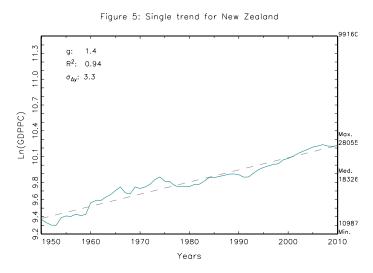


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: New Zealand

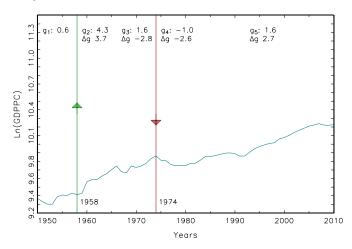


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for New Zealand

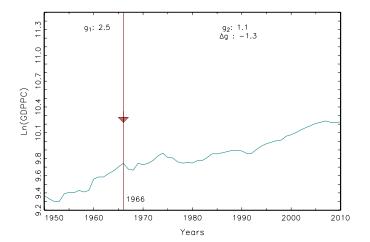
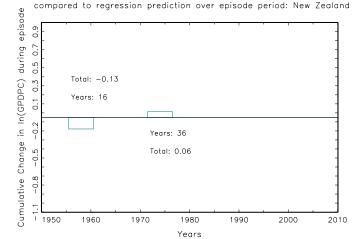
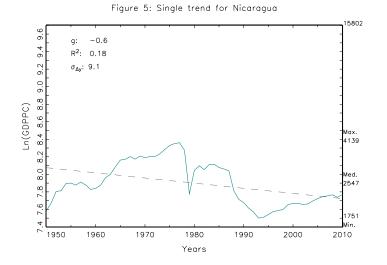


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: New Zealand







Nicaragua

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Nicaragua

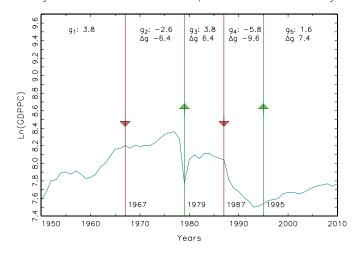


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Nicaragua

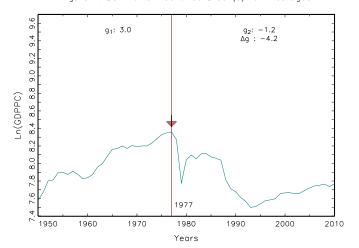
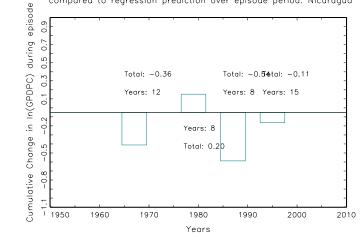
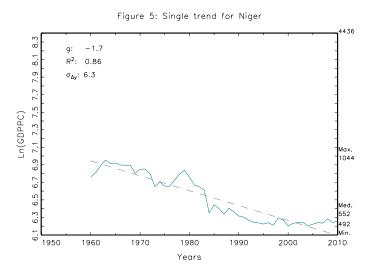


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Nicaragua



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Niger



g₄: -0.3 ∆g 5.4 g₁: 1.8 g₂: -0.3 ∆g -2.1 g₃: -5.7 ∆g -5.4 σ Г ų Ln(GDPPC) 9 7.1 7.3 7.5 σ c

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Niger

α



Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Niger

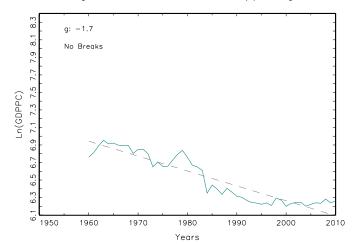
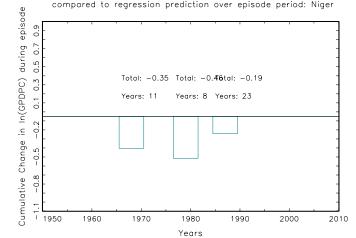


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Niger

Years





Nigeria

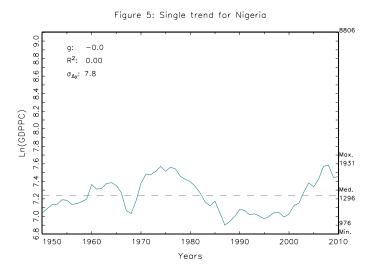


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Nigeria

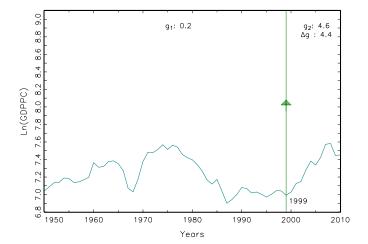


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Nigeria

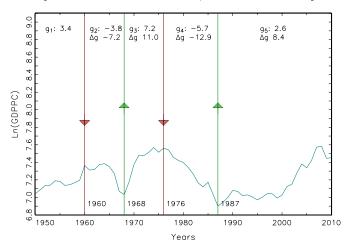
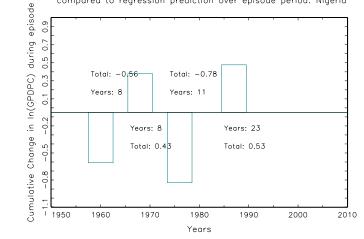
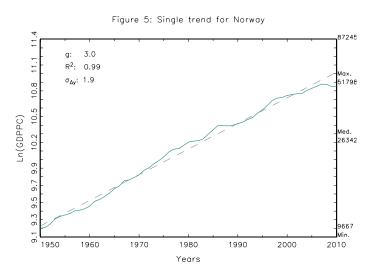


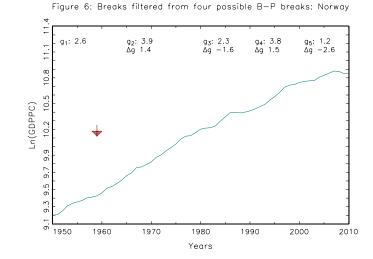
Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Nigeria

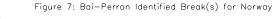


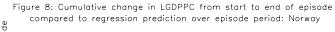
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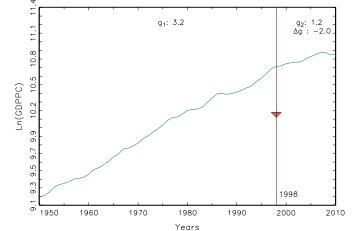




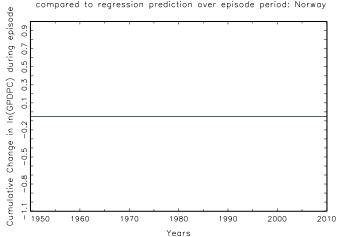


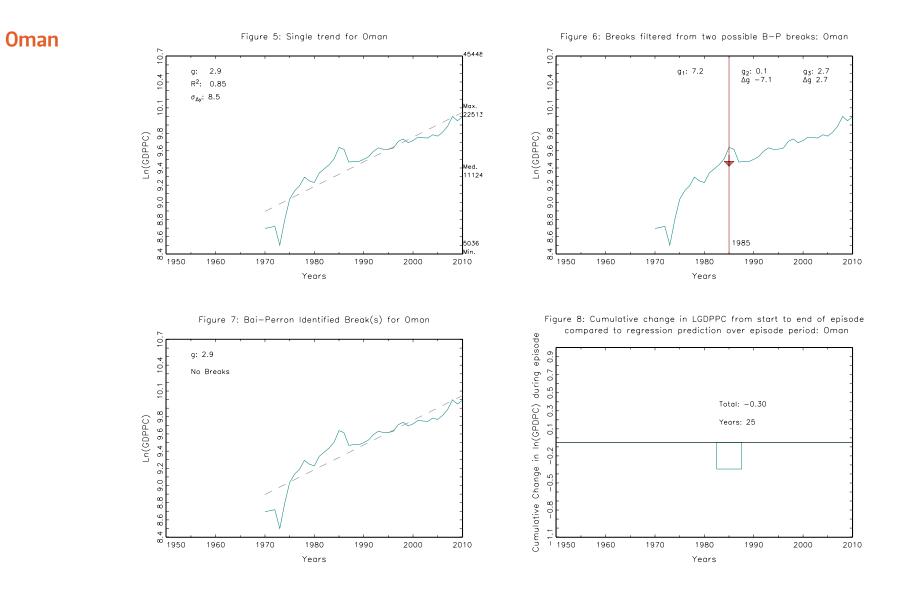














Pakistan

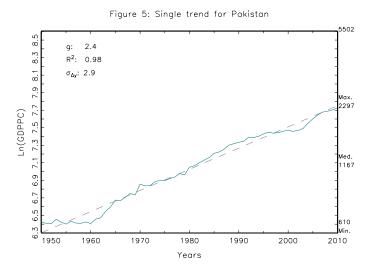


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Pakistan

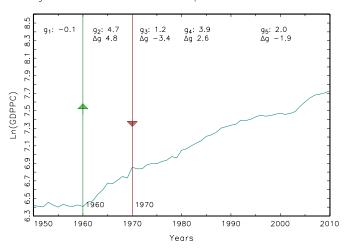
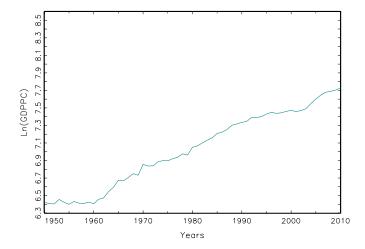
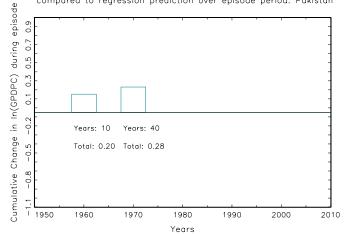


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Pakistan

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Pakistan







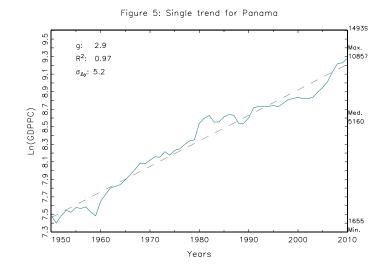
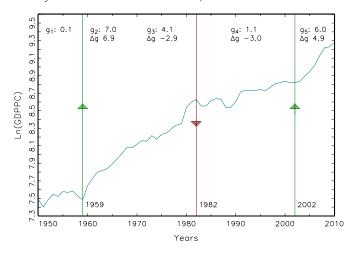
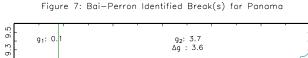


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Panama





1980

Years

1990

2000

2010

9.1

8.9

8.5 8.7

8.3

œ

7.9

10

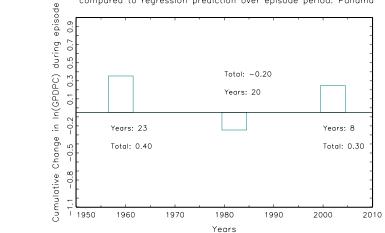
m. 1950 1959

1970

1960

Ln(GDPPC)

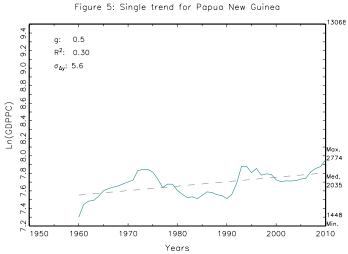
Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Panama











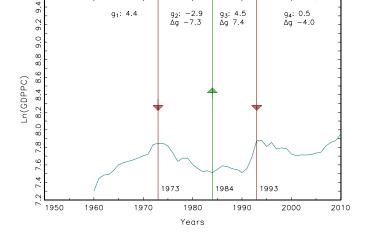


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Papua New Guinea

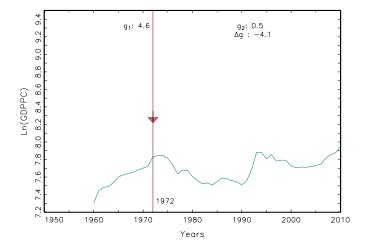


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode gompared to regression prediction over episode period: Papua New Guine

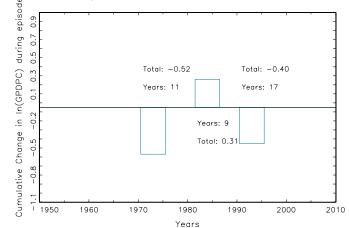


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Papua New Guin-



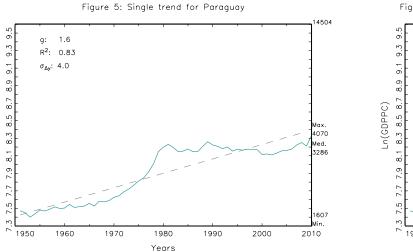


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Paraguay

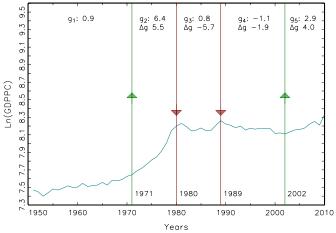


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Paraguay

Paraguay

6

9.3

9.1

6.8

8.5 8.7 Ln(GDPPC)

8.3

α

σ

м

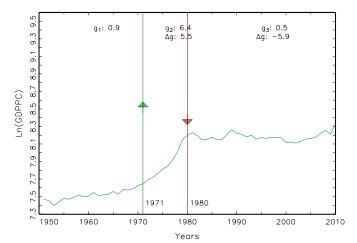
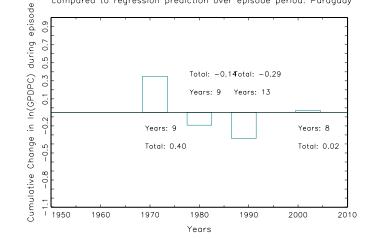
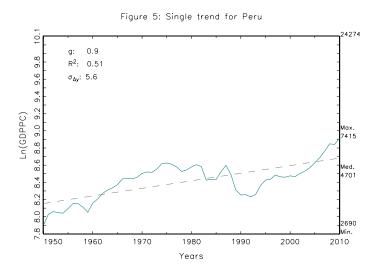


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Paraguay





Peru



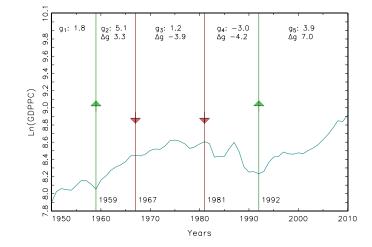
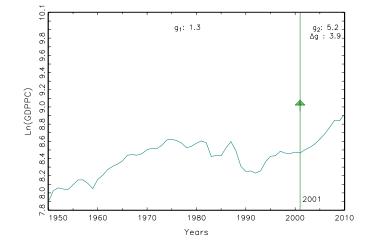


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Peru

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Peru



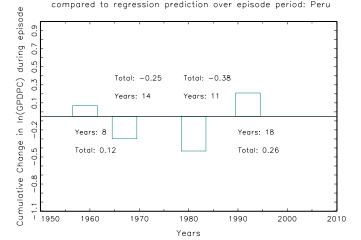
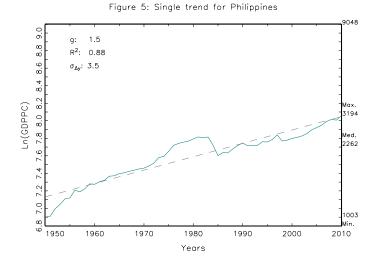


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Peru





Philippines

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Philippines

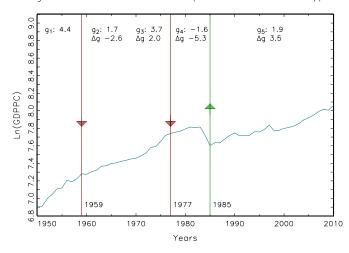


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Philippines

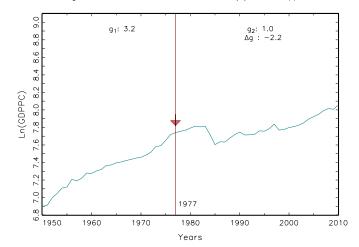
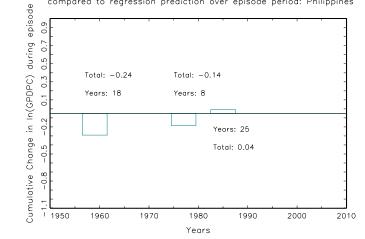


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Philippines





Poland

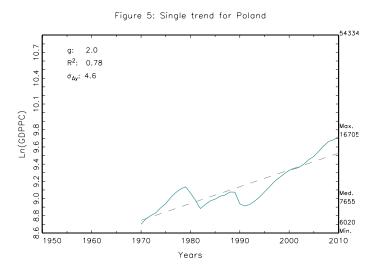


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Poland

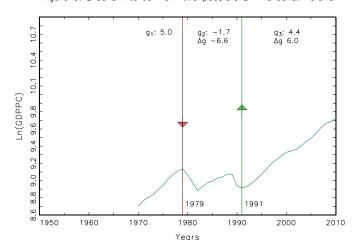
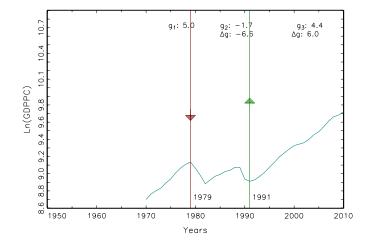


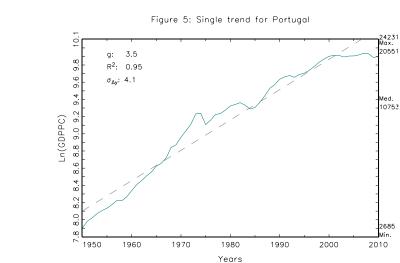
Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Poland

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Poland



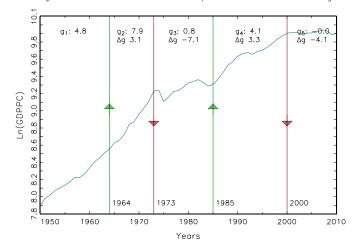
during episode 0.5 0.7 0.9 In(GPDPC) .2 0.1 0.3 Total: -0.22 Years: 12 Years: 19 Change -0.5 -Total: 0.46 œ Cumulative C . 1950 1960 1970 1980 1990 2010 2000 Years





Portugal

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Portugal



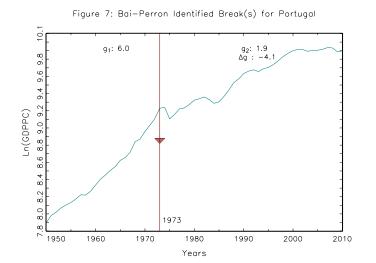
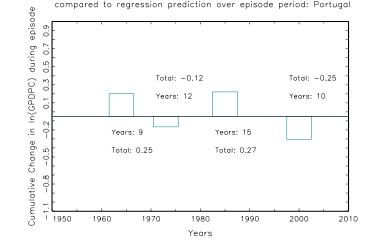


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Portugal



Puerto Rico

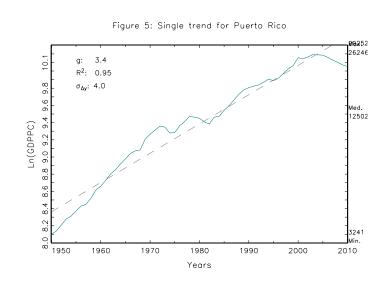


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Puerto Rico

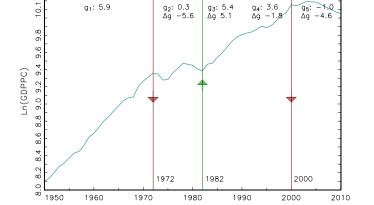


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Puerto Rico

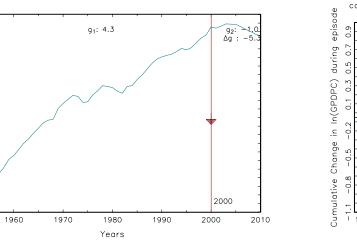
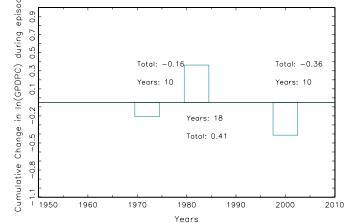


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Puerto Rico

Years





. 10 9.8 9.6

9.4 Ln(GDPPC)

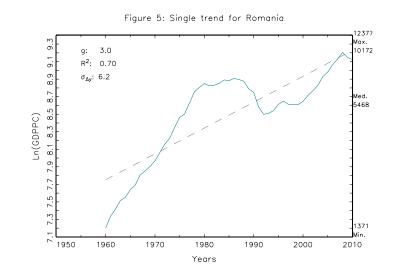
9.0 9.2

8.8

8.6 8.4

8.2

o ∞ 1950



Romania

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Romania

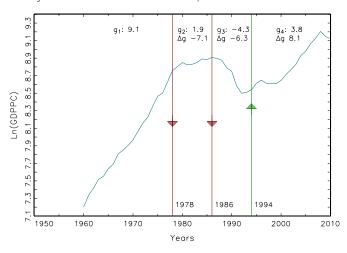


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Romania

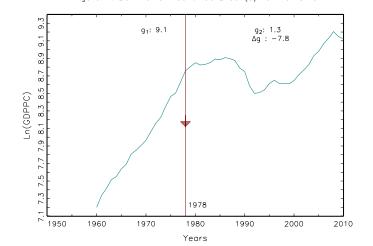
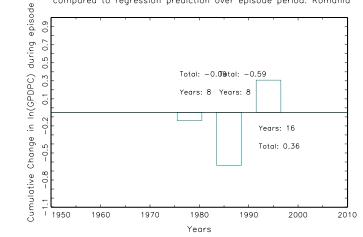


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Romania





Rwanda

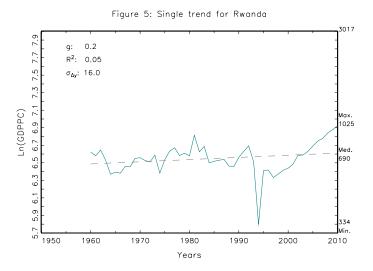


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Rwanda

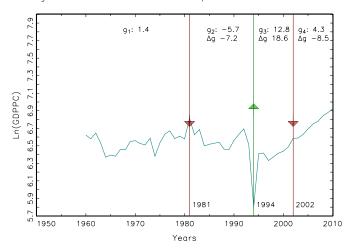
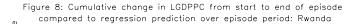
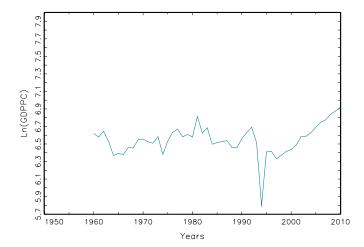
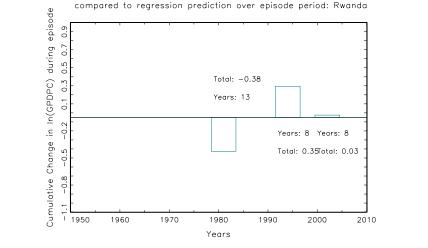


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Rwanda











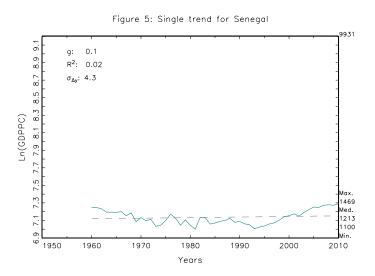
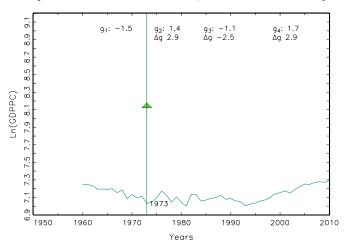
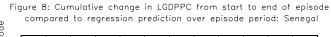
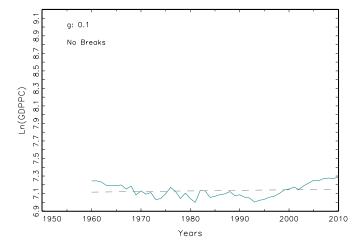


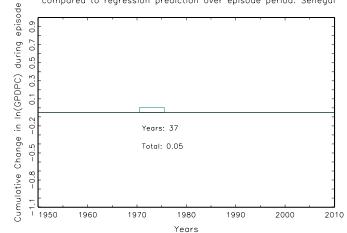
Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Senegal











~ 247



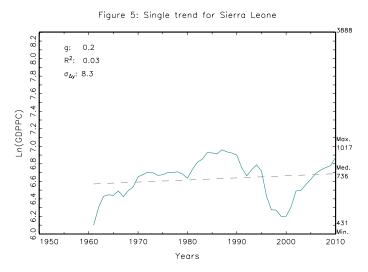


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Sierra Leone

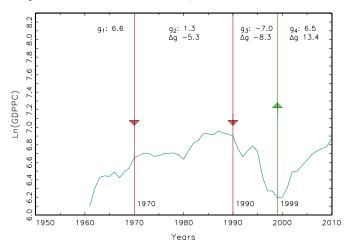


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Sierra Leone

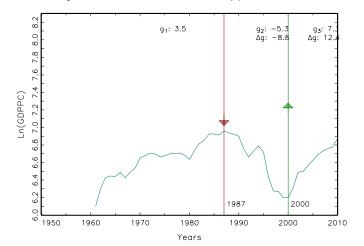
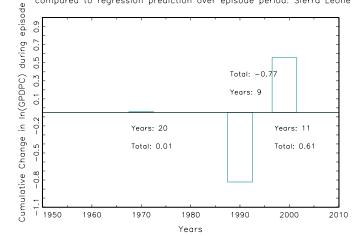
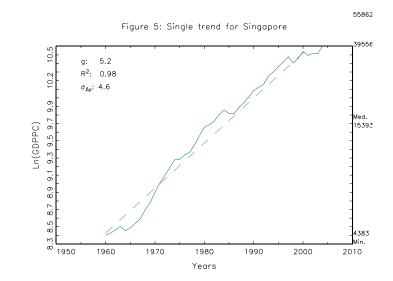


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Sierra Leone







Singapore

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Singapore

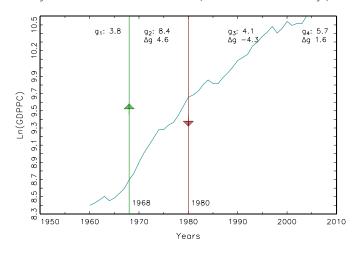


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Singapore

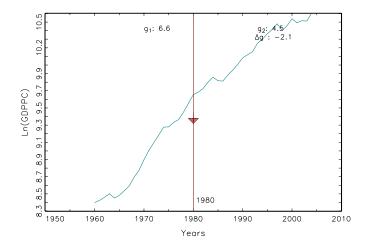
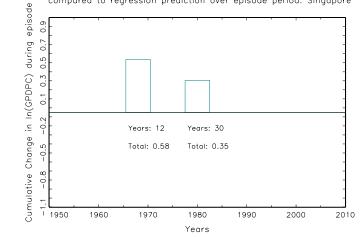
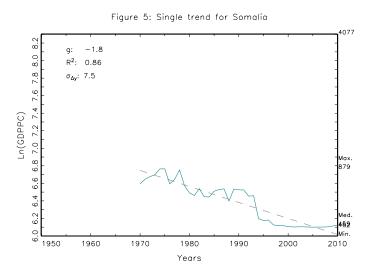
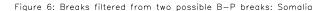


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Singapore



Somalia





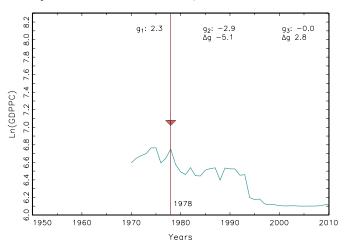


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Somalia

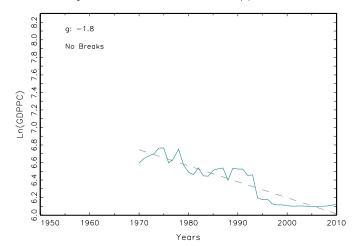
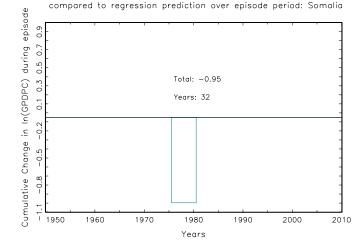


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Somalia





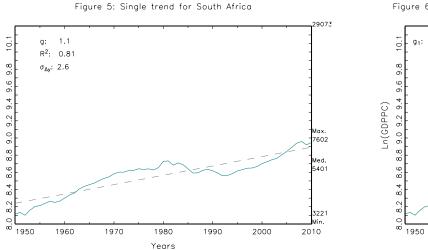


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: South Africa

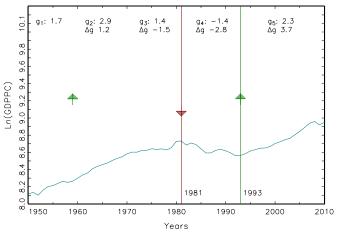


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for South Africa

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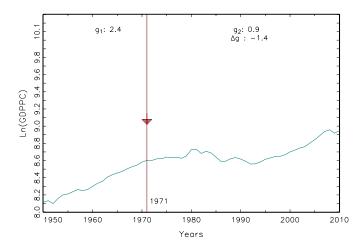
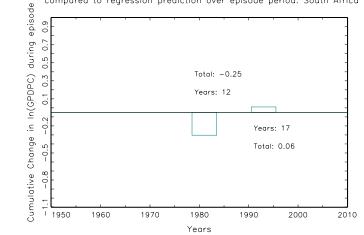
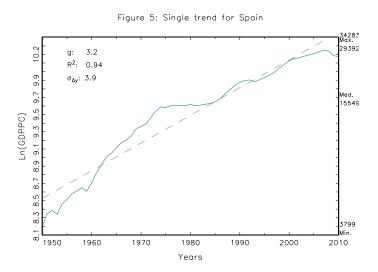


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: South Africa





Spain



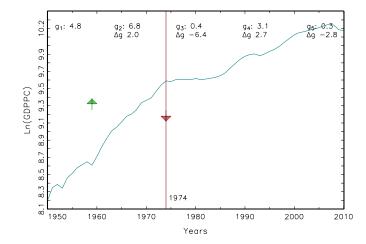
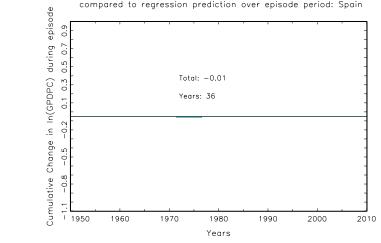


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Spain

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Spain



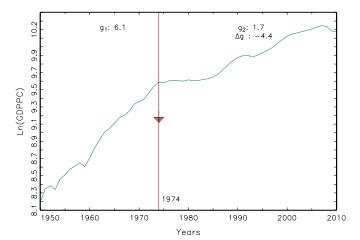


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Spain





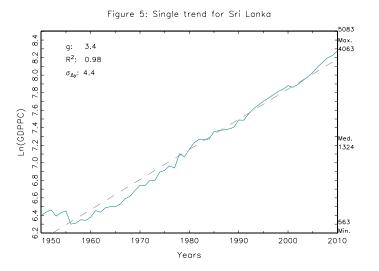
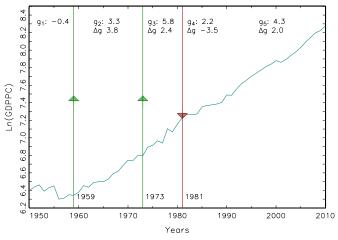


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible $\mathsf{B}-\mathsf{P}$ breaks: Sri Lanka





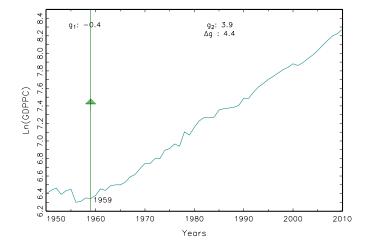
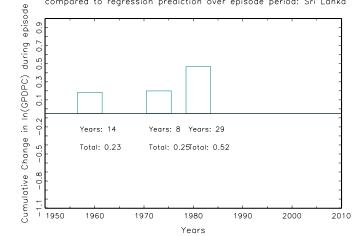
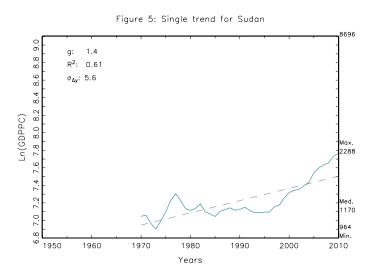


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Sri Lanka





Sudan



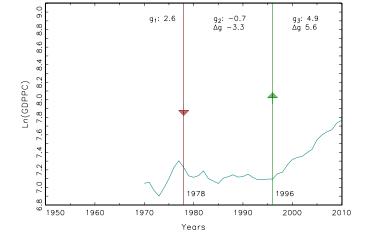
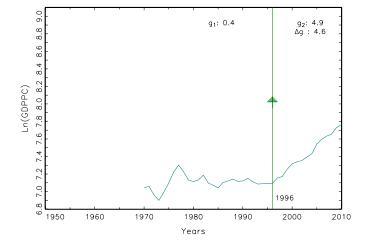
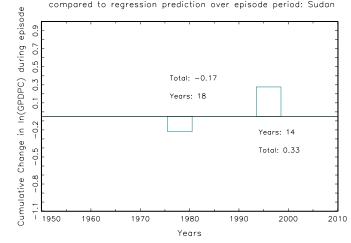


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Sudan

Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Sudan

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Sudan





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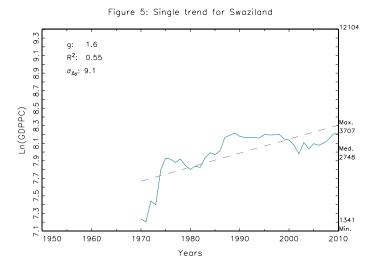


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Swaziland

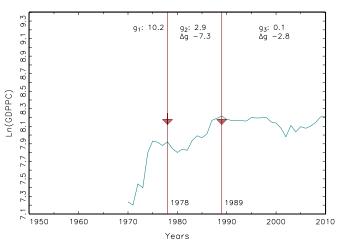


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Swaziland

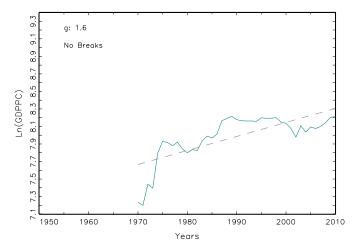
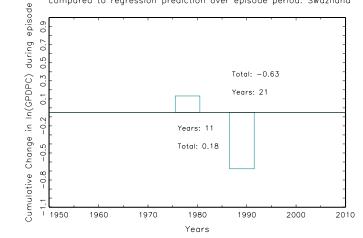


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Swaziland



Sweden

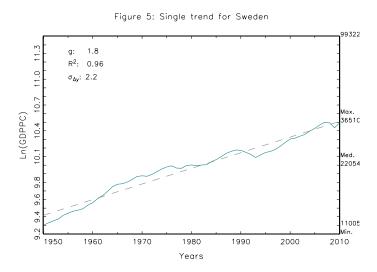


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Sweden

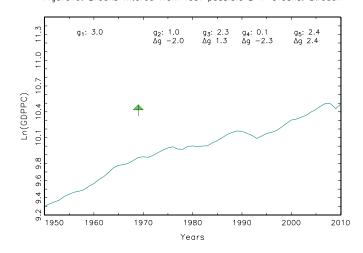


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Sweden

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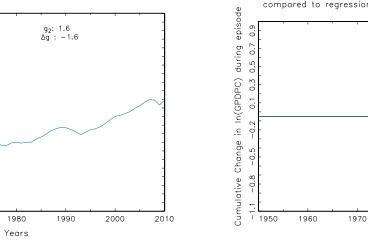
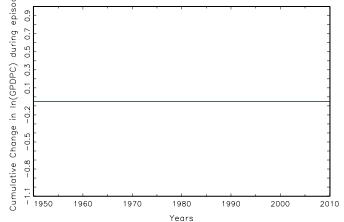
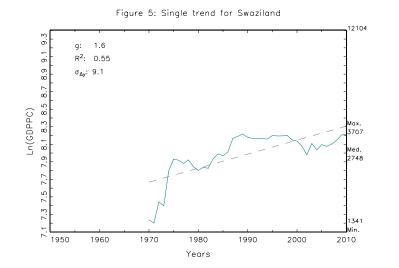


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Sweden







Switzerland

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from two possible B-P breaks: Swaziland

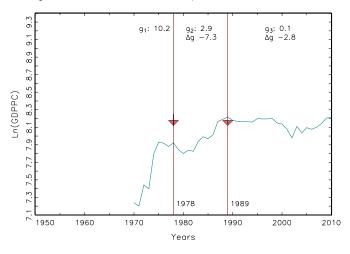


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Swaziland

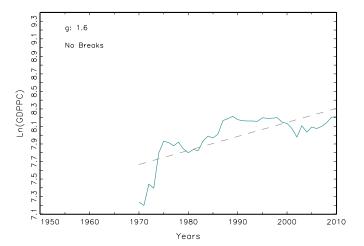
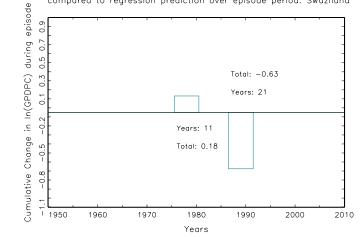


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Swaziland







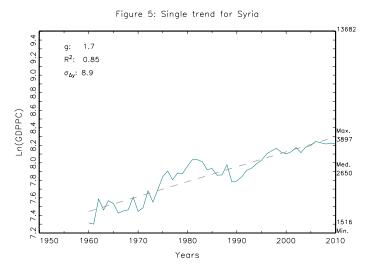


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Syria

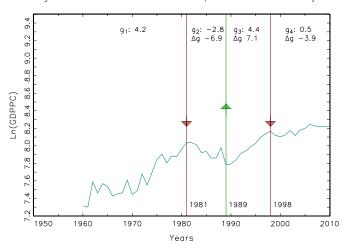


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Syria

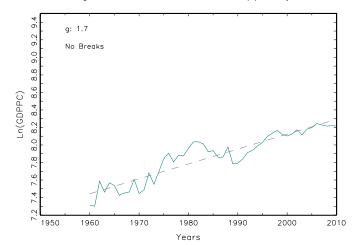
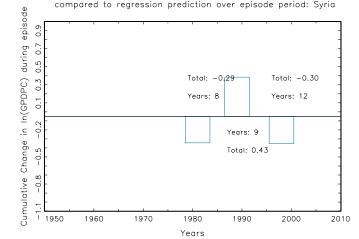
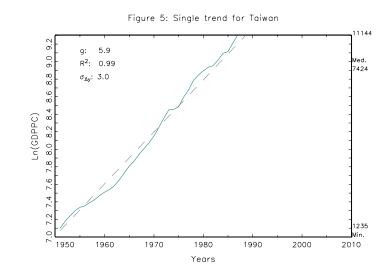


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Syria

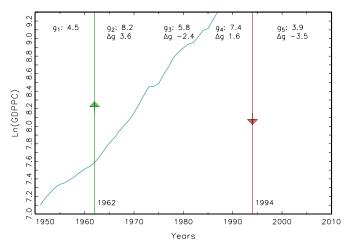


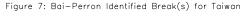




Taiwan

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Taiwan





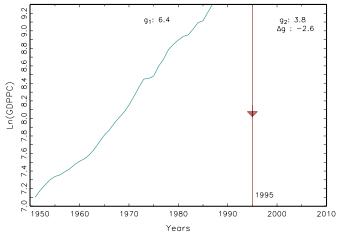
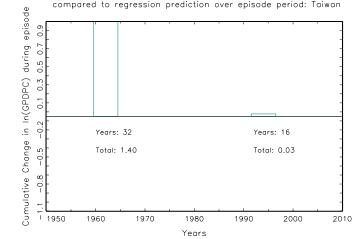


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Taiwan





Tanzania

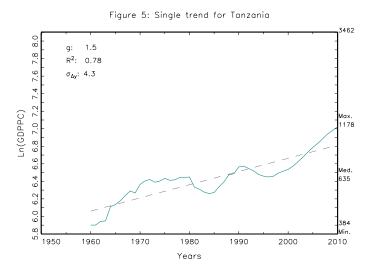


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Tanzania

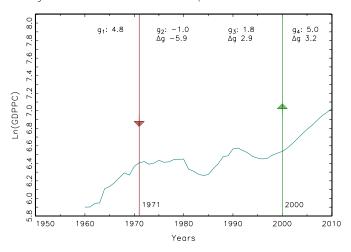


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Tanzania

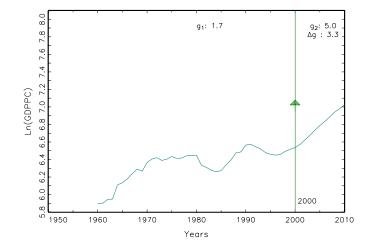


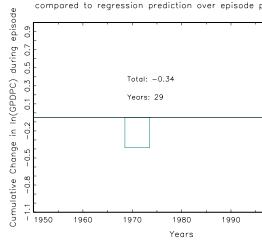
Years: 10

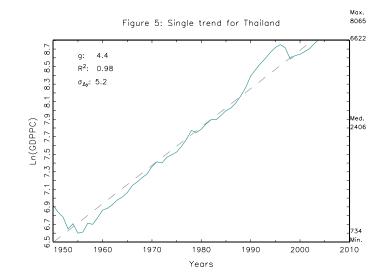
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2000

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Thailand

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Thailand

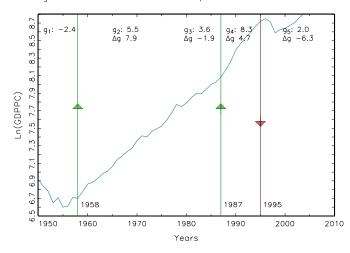


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Thailand

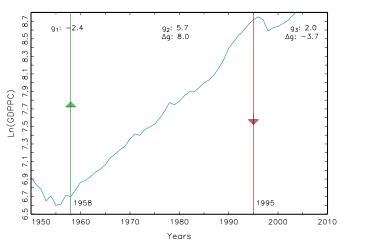
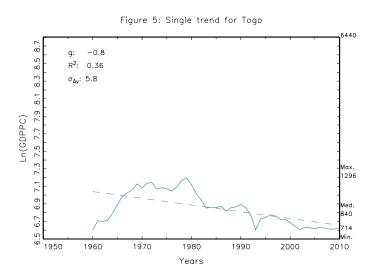


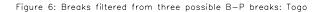
Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Thailand





Togo





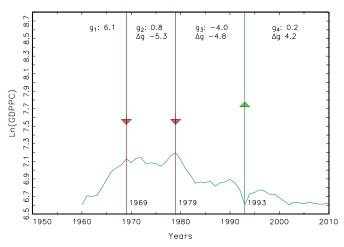
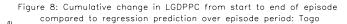
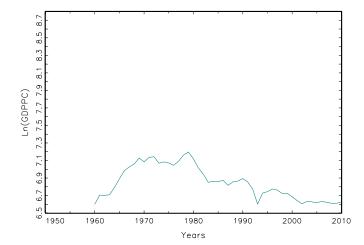
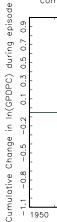
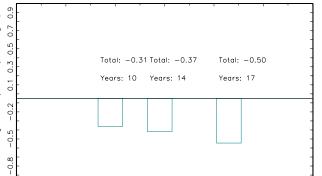


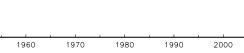
Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Togo







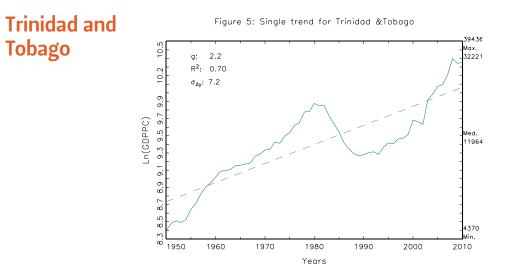




Years

2010





Tobago

Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Trinidad &Tobage

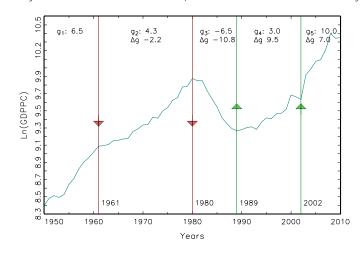


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Trinidad &Tobago

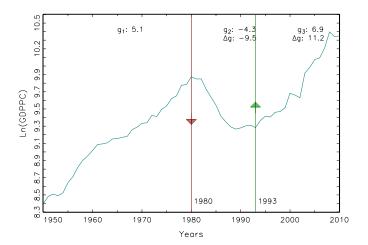
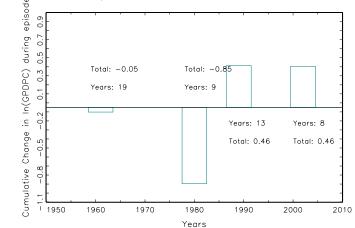


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode ocompared to regression prediction over episode period: Trinidad &Tobaq





Tunisia

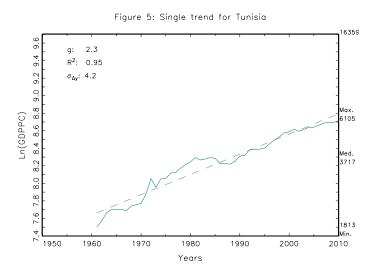


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Tunisia

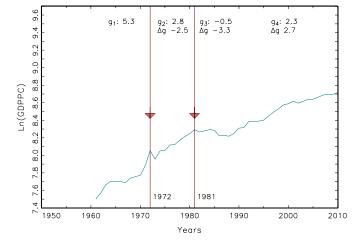
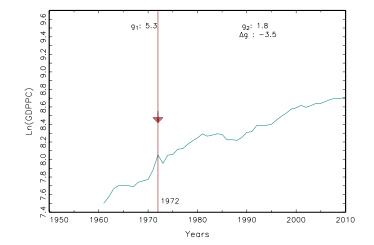
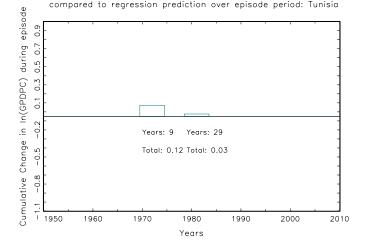


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Tunisia

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Tunisia









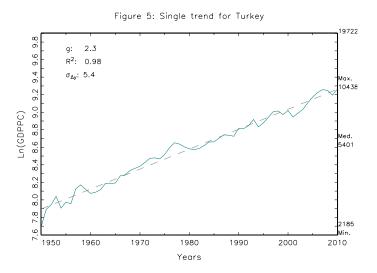


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Turkey

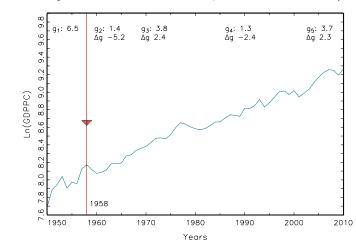
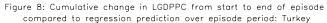
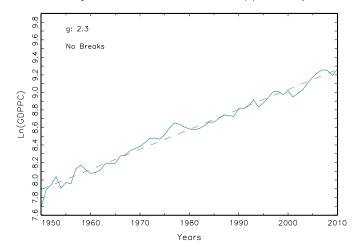
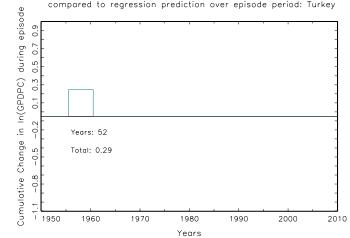


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Turkey









Uganda

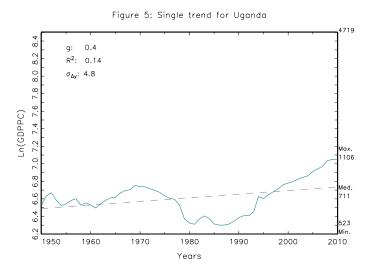


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Uganda

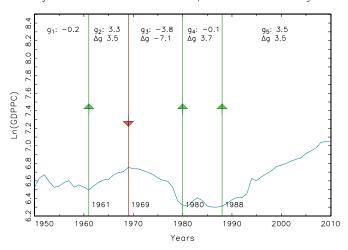


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Uganda

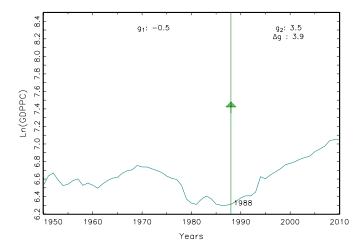
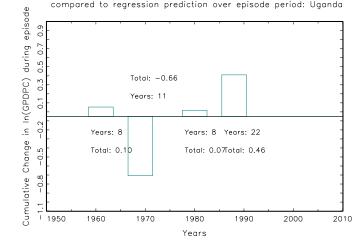
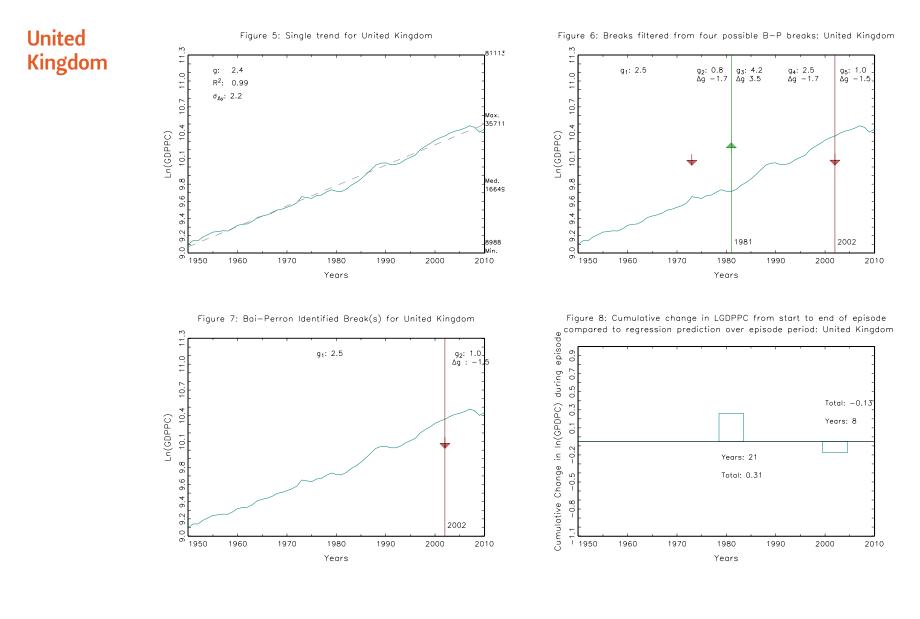


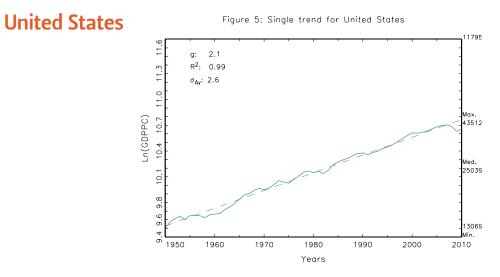
Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Uganda













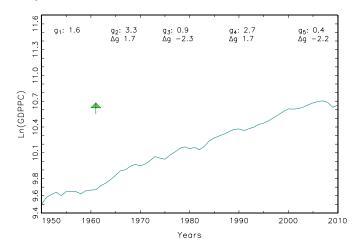


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for United States

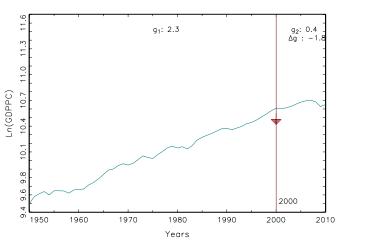
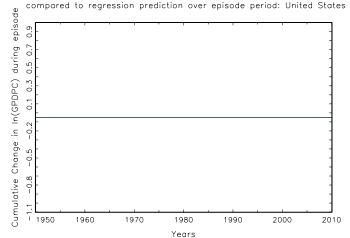


Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: United States







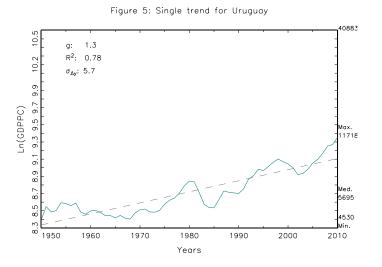


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Uruguay

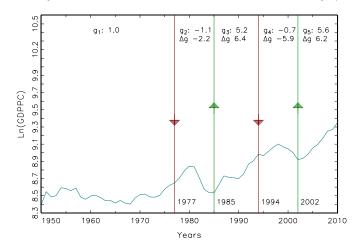
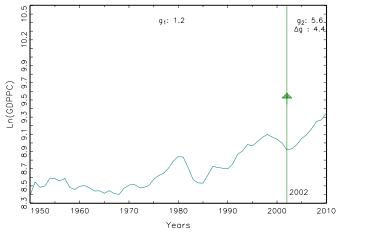
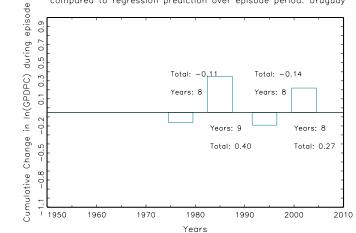


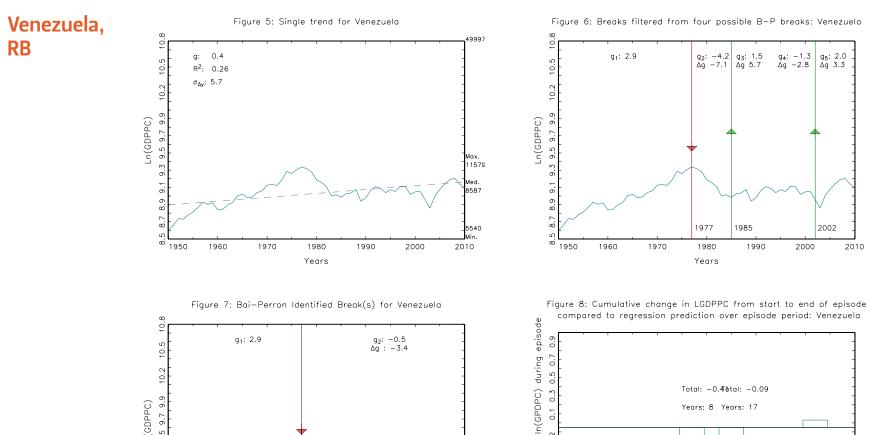
Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Uruguay

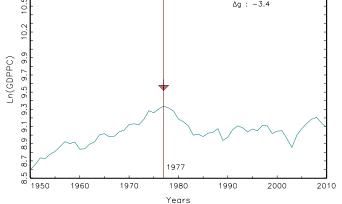
Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Uruguay

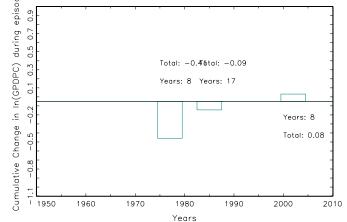




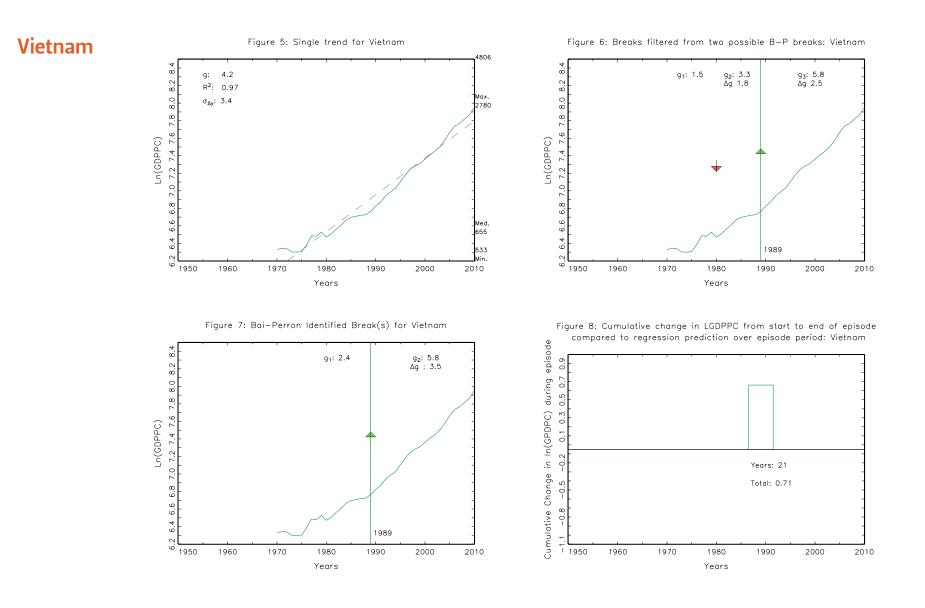












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Zambia

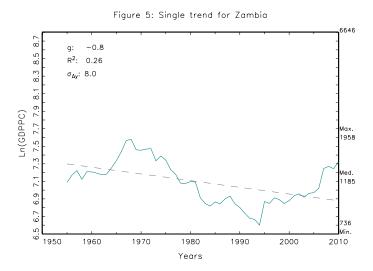


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from three possible B-P breaks: Zambia

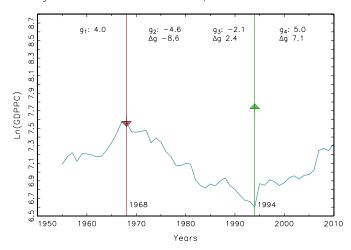
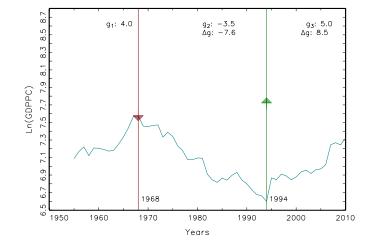
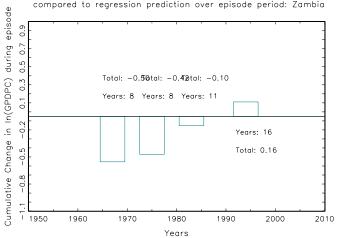


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Zambia











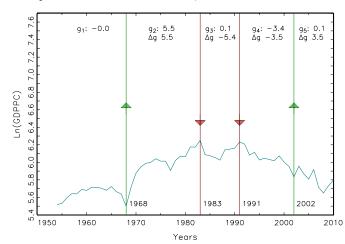
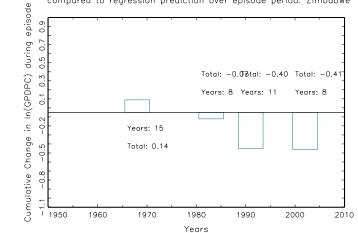


Figure 6: Breaks filtered from four possible B-P breaks: Zimbabwe

Figure 8: Cumulative change in LGDPPC from start to end of episode compared to regression prediction over episode period: Zimbabwe



Zimbabwe

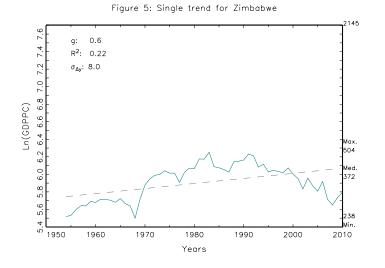
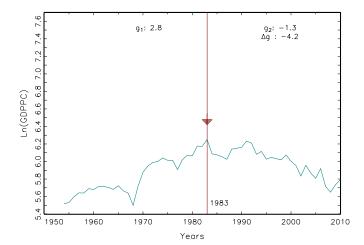


Figure 7: Bai-Perron Identified Break(s) for Zimbabwe





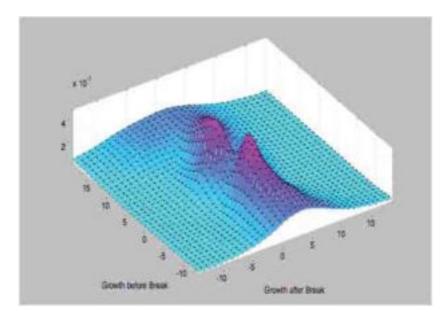
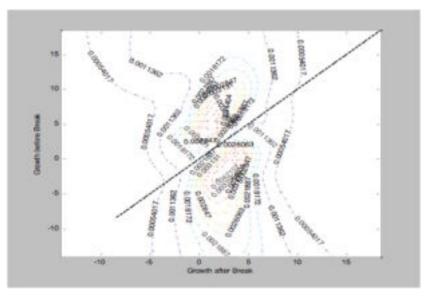
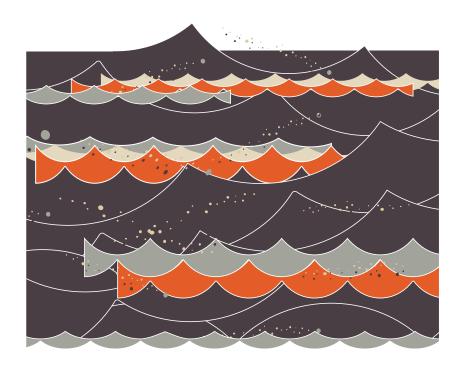


Figure 9: Surface Plot of Transition Probability Function













Conclusions



Part IV: Conclusions

All happy families are alike, every unhappy family is unhappy in its own way.

TOLSTOY, ANNA KARENINA

What would "growth theory" be a theory of? As we see graphically, in the "happy" families of the rich industrial countries the traditional decomposition of the evolution of output per capita into "trend" and "cycle" makes lots of sense. Their growth rates are moderate, volatility is low and growth transitions are within a small range (no busts, no huge booms). The distinction between a "growth theory" (and empirics) that explains "the" growth rate (in either "exogenous" or "endogenous" variants) and a theory (and empirics) that explains the "cyclical" variations around that trend (macroeconomics) again makes sense.

However, almost no developing countries' growth experiences fit that pattern. Our primary goal for this "visual handbook" is to make it easy for people to *look* at the country growth experiences.

Part II summarizes each country's growth experience in a series of *exactly comparable* graphs that illustrate the different dimensions of growth from the simplest overall trend (Figure 1) to relative long-run performance (Figure 2) to growth volatility (Figure 3) to distribution across "growth regimes" (Figure 4).

Part III also produces new comparable graphs focused on documenting the timing and magnitude of "breaks" or "episodes" or "regime transitions" from the application of the standard statistical procedure (Figure 6) to a classification of growth breaks based on the *magnitude* of growth shifts (Figure 7) to estimates of the *cumulative* magnitude of growth episodes (Figure 8).

Unlike most papers that propose and defend a particular causal model (or add a new variable to an existing model) or propose an explanation of some phenomenon, our goal is to illustrate that there is an interesting phenomenon to be explained. There is nothing about the *dynamics* of economic growth – the apparent shifts across growth regimes – that is well-explained by either "growth theory" or "business cycle macroeconomics" of the first or second generation varieties. But these *dynamics* are empirically important – indeed in some instances "staggering" in magnitude.

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Appendix 1: Methods to Identify Growth Breaks

A methodology used to identify growth breaks in the literature can be classified as either one of two distinct approaches, namely, the "filter-based" approach and the "statistical break test-based" approach. The "filter" approach identifies growth changes as "breaks" on the basis of statistical tests plus the *magnitude* of the change in growth before and after a break against a subjectively defined threshold (e.g. Hausmann *et al.*, 2005).¹⁴ The "statistical" approach uses estimation and testing procedures that identify growth breaks in terms of statistically significant changes in (average) growth rates (e.g. Jones and Olken, 2008; Berg *et al.*, 2012; Kerekes, 2011).

All of the essential differences between "filter based" and "statistical" approaches come in the second stage of deciding which of the "candidate" break years identified by choosing years that maximize a test statistic (or, equivalently, minimizing the Sum of Squared Errors (SSE) under constraints) represents a "true" break.

The strongest criticism of the BP methodology is that it has low statistical power, leading to rejection of structural breaks even when they are "true" breaks. Moreover, since the statistical power of the test is dependent on the underlying volatility of the GDPPC series, the BP procedure may "reject" the null and identify as a "true" break a shift in growth rates with an acceleration from g=1 to g=3.5, Δ g=2.5 in one country and "fail

to reject" a break of the *exact same magnitude* in another country with higher volatility.

The literature has tried to deal with this problem in two ways. One set of papers (Jones and Olken, 2008; Kerekes, 2011) have accepted this shortcoming and stressed that although the set of breaks identified in their studies are a subset of the complete set of "true" breaks, the breaks that are identified are very large in magnitude and analysis of these breaks can throw light on growth transitions, even if others are excluded. Jones and Olken allow the minimum length of the growth regimes to vary depending on the length of the data available (which differs from country to country in the Penn World Tables). Kerekes (2011) fixes the shortest growth at eight years for all countries.

A second approach (Berg *et al.*, 2012) makes methodological changes to the BP tests in order to increase the power of these tests. One important outcome of the methodological differences in these studies is that, as contributions using a common framework, they fail to identify a largely common set of breaks, even for the historical data (Kar *et al.*, 2013). This clearly leads to serious concerns about the cohesiveness of the literature on growth breaks.

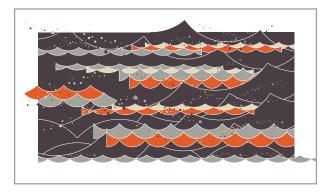
In Figure 6, for each country, we provide the year of the growth break if we



¹⁴ Hausmann *et al.* only calculate up breaks using a filter-break approach, and so is not strictly comparable with other studies, including ours, all of which use a statistical approach or a combination of a statistical plus filter approach.

only used BP to identify breaks in growth. Generally speaking, the timings of our breaks coincide with Berg *et al.* (2012). We find more breaks than Jones-Olken and Kerekes, both of which use a pure statistical approach. We also find more breaks with our "BP plus filter" approach as compared with using BP only, which, as we noted, with its low power, tends to accept the null hypothesis of no break more often than may be justified by the time-series data of GDPPC for several countries.





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