

## Determinants of Economic Growth: Will Data Tell?<sup>†</sup>

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*Many factors inhibiting and facilitating economic growth have been suggested. Can agnostics rely on international income data to tell them which matter? We find that agnostic priors lead to conclusions that are sensitive to differences across available income estimates. For example, the PWT 6.2 revision of the 1960–1996 income estimates in the PWT 6.1 leads to substantial changes regarding the role of government, international trade, demography, and geography. We conclude that margins of error in international income estimates appear too large for agnostic growth empirics. (JEL O41, O47)*

Why does income grow faster in some countries than others? Most empirical research addressing this question has in common that only a few explanatory variables are considered, but differs in the variables selected (e.g., Roger C. Kormendi and Philip G. Meguire 1985; Kevin B. Grier and Gordon Tullock 1989; Robert J. Barro 1991; for a review, see Steven N. Durlauf, Paul A. Johnson, and Jonathan R. W. Temple 2005). Researchers select explanatory variables because there are almost as many candidate variables as countries, and classical regression analysis yields inconclusive or fragile results in this case.

The literature's focus on regression models with few explanatory variables has raised concerns that findings are non-robust to variable selection (e.g., Ross Levine and David Renelt 1992). These concerns appear especially relevant in growth economics as researchers' choices point to a wide range of priors regarding relevant explanations, and the availability of multiple measures for each explanation leaves room for data mining. As a result, many economists appear to be discounting the cross-country evidence on growth determinants (e.g., Dani Rodrik 2006; Commission on Growth and Development 2008).

Should cross-country growth evidence be discounted? Are there no growth determinants that are robust to variable selection? Carmen Fernandez, Eduardo Ley, and Mark F. J. Steel (2001b) and Xavier Sala-i-Martin, Gernot Doppelhofer, and Ronald I. Miller (2004) propose to answer these questions using Bayesian model averaging

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with agnostic priors. The goal is to see which growth determinants, if any, are robust when priors implicit in variable selection are relaxed as much as possible. Put differently, the objective is to see what the data tell a researcher who is completely agnostic a priori. Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001b) and Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) find that the data point strongly to a number of robust growth determinants. We show that agnostic Bayesian model averaging discriminates among variables based on small differences in the  $R$ -squared of relatively few specifications. This leads to results that are very sensitive to minor errors in measurement and that turn out to differ substantially depending on the income estimates being used. We conclude that margins of error in international income estimates are too large for such agnostic growth empirics.<sup>1</sup>

Given the difficulties faced when estimating international income differences, see Alan Heston (1994) for example, it is not surprising that estimates vary and are continuously revised. For example, the Penn World Table (PWT) income data, the dataset used in most cross-country empirical work, have undergone periodic revisions to eliminate errors, incorporate improved national income data, or account for new price benchmarks.<sup>2</sup> These corrections turn out to have a substantial effect on the conclusions of Bayesian model averaging with agnostic priors. For example, using the Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) procedure we find 10 variables with a posterior inclusion probability—the probability that a variable should be included in the empirical growth model—greater than 50 percent according to PWT 6.2 or PWT 6.1 data for the 1960–1996 period. Hence, there are ten variables more likely to be included than excluded in the empirical growth model according to one of the two versions of the PWT. But eight of these variables are more likely to be included than excluded according to one version of the PWT, and more likely to be excluded than included according to the other version. This disagreement is not driven by small changes around the 50 percent threshold, as each of the 8 variables sees a change in posterior inclusion probability greater than 40 percentage points. The criterion used by Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) to classify variables as robust to model selection yields 23 growth determinants according to PWT 6.2 or 6.1. But 13 of these growth determinants are robust according to one of the datasets but not the other. The inclusion probabilities obtained with Fernandez, Ley, and Steel's (2001b) approach are very similar and produce the same disagreements.

Disaccord concerning the 1960–1996 growth determinants across PWT income data revisions affects factors that have featured prominently in the literature. For instance, one of the influential findings of Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) is a robust negative effect of malaria prevalence in the 1960s on economic growth over the 1960–1996 period (a finding used to estimate the economic costs of malaria by Jeffrey D. Sachs 2005). But malaria prevalence is not a robust growth determinant according to the Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004)

<sup>1</sup> Throughout we only consider measurement error in international income estimates. This approach is conservative as it abstracts from mismeasured growth determinants.

<sup>2</sup> See Heston, Robert Summers, and Bettina Aten (2001, 2002, 2006). In each revision some countries are dropped or added for reasons related to data availability or data quality. Note that changes in the base year alone can change relative income estimates (e.g., Steve Dowrick and John Quiggin 1997; Angus Deaton and Heston 2010). Simon Johnson et al. (2009) explain why newer is not necessarily better when it comes to PWT income estimates.

criterion when we use PWT 6.1 or PWT 6.2 data instead of PWT 6.0 data. Prominent potential growth determinants that are robust according to PWT 6.0 and PWT 6.1 data, but not according to PWT 6.2 data, are life expectancy, the abundance of mining resources, the relative price of investment goods, and location in the tropics (for earlier results on these growth determinants see Barro 1991, J. Bradford De Long and Lawrence H. Summers 1991, Charles I. Jones 1994, and Sachs and Andrew M. Warner 1995). For example, the posterior inclusion probabilities of the relative price of investment goods and of location in the tropics go respectively from 77 percent and 57 percent with PWT 6.0 data to 2 percent and 5 percent with PWT 6.2 data. On the other hand, the posterior inclusion probability of fertility is only 3 percent with PWT 6.0 data, but 91 percent with PWT 6.2 data (on the link between fertility and growth see Barro 1991, 1998 and Barro and Jong-Wha Lee 1994). Fernandez, Ley, and Steel's (2001b) approach yields very similar posterior inclusion probabilities.

As is well known, there is no best method for obtaining internationally comparable real income data (e.g., J. Peter Neary 2004). As different datasets use different methods, their income estimates would differ even if the underlying data was identical. For example, the PWT and the World Bank use different methods, which is why their international income estimates differ, although they build on the same national income and price benchmark data (e.g., Irving B. Kravis, Heston, and Summers 1982; Neary 2004; Dowrick 2005). Differences between estimates in the World Bank's *World Development Indicators 2004* (WDI) and the PWT are limited however. For example, the correlation between 1975–1996 growth rates in the PWT 6.1 and the WDI is 93.5 percent, and the correlation between 1975–1996 growth rates in the PWT 6.2 and the WDI is 96.2 percent.<sup>3</sup> Still, agnostic Bayesian model averaging yields disagreement on the determinants of 1975–1996 growth between the two datasets. For example, there are 5 variables with posterior inclusion probabilities greater than 50 percent according to PWT 6.1 or PWT 6.2. For each of these 5 variables, switching to the WDI data leads to a change in the posterior inclusion probability greater than 40 percentage points for one of the PWT-WDI comparison pairs. Moreover, of the 26 variables with posterior inclusion probabilities greater than 10 percent in one of the two PWT datasets, 14 see a change in the posterior inclusion probability greater than 20 percentage points for one of the PWT-WDI comparison pairs (the 10 percent threshold corresponds to Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller's (2004) robustness criterion).

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. Section I introduces Bayesian model averaging with agnostic priors, and Section II explains why the conclusions of agnostic Bayesian model averaging can be very sensitive to measurement. Section III uses alternative income estimates for the same period and shows that they yield rather different results when using agnostic Bayesian model averaging. The section also presents a small-scale Monte Carlo study of the sensitivity of agnostic Bayesian model averaging to small changes in the data. Section IV concludes.

<sup>3</sup> We cannot tell whether PWT 6.2 income estimates are closer to WDI estimates than PWT 6.1 estimates by coincidence or because there is some convergence in how the PWT and the WDI resolve contentious measurement issues. If it is the latter, PWT-WDI differences may become progressively smaller in the future.

## I. Bayesian Model Averaging and Agnostic Priors

Bayesian model averaging with agnostic priors is a special case of Bayesian model averaging. We therefore first explain Bayesian model averaging in the context of growth regressions, and then introduce agnostic priors.

*Bayesian Model Averaging in Growth Regressions.*—Consider the problem of identifying the determinants of economic growth across countries. If the number of countries ( $N$ ) were large relative to the number of explanatory variables ( $K$ ), we could find the statistically significant explanatory variables by regressing the growth rate of countries on all candidate variables. With  $N$  close to  $K$ , this approach tends to yield estimates that are too imprecise to be of interest (the approach is infeasible when  $N < K$ ). Bayesian methods therefore frame the problem of identifying the determinants of economic growth in terms of uncertainty about the true set of explanatory variables (model uncertainty).<sup>4</sup> The Bayesian approach to model uncertainty is to first attach prior probabilities to alternative sets of explanatory variables and then update these probabilities using data.

To develop the Bayesian approach to growth determinants more formally it is useful to collect all  $K$  candidate explanatory variables in a vector  $x$ . The  $2^K$  subsets of  $x$  are denoted by  $x_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, 2^K$ , and called models. The cross-country growth regressions considered are of the form

$$(1) \quad y_n = \alpha + x_{jn}\beta_j + \varepsilon_{jn},$$

where  $y_n$  is the growth rate of per capita GDP in country  $n$ ;  $\alpha$  is the constant term;  $\beta_j$  is the effect of the explanatory variables in model  $j$  on growth; and  $\varepsilon_{jn}$  is a Gaussian error term. The ingredients of Bayesian model averaging (BMA) are: priors for models ( $p_j$ ); priors for all parameters ( $\alpha$ ,  $\beta_j$ , and the variance of the error term); and the likelihood function for each model  $j$ . A key intermediate statistic is the likelihood of model  $j$  integrated with respect to the parameters using their prior distributions (the marginal likelihood of model  $j$ ,  $l_y(M_j)$ ). Bayesian approaches use Bayes' theorem to translate the density of the data conditional on the model (the marginal likelihood) into a posterior probability of the model conditional on the observed data,

$$(2) \quad p(M_j|y) \propto l_y(M_j)p_j.$$

One can go from posterior probabilities of models to *posterior inclusion probabilities* for each of the  $K$  candidate explanatory variables.<sup>5</sup> The posterior inclusion probability of a variable is calculated by summing posterior probabilities of all models including the variable. The actual relationship of a variable with growth is

<sup>4</sup> William A. Brock and Durlauf (2001) argue that in growth economics there is model uncertainty because of uncertainty about which growth determinants to include in a model and uncertainty about which observations in a dataset constitute draws from the same statistical model.

<sup>5</sup> BMA actually provides the full posterior distribution of all parameters. We focus on key summary statistics used in the growth regressions literature.

summarized in the unconditional posterior mean of its coefficient (to distinguish it from the posterior mean conditional on the variable being included).<sup>6</sup>

BMA can also accommodate a focus on groups of variables rather than individual variables (e.g., Brock, Durlauf, and Kenneth D. West 2003; Durlauf, Andros Kourtellos, and Chih Ming Tan 2006, 2008). A focus on groups reflects priors that some variables have to be considered jointly because they represent theories or that some variables capture the same underlying growth determinant.

*BMA with Agnostic Priors.*—The idea of agnostic Bayesian approaches to growth determinants of Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001b), and Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004), is to limit the subjectivity of Bayesian analysis. This is done by including a large number of candidate variables treated symmetrically a priori, and by using coefficient priors that have a negligible effect on the posterior distribution of model coefficients (so-called loose priors). Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001b) assume equal prior probabilities for all models, irrespective of model size and composition.<sup>7</sup> Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) assume equal prior probabilities for all models, irrespective of model size and composition. They specify noninformative priors for model coefficients that make posterior distributions equal to classical sampling distributions of ordinary least-squares coefficients. This is why they refer to their approach as Bayesian averaging of classical estimates. Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001b) use so-called benchmark priors proposed in Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001a) that are designed to have a negligible effect on the posterior distribution of model coefficients.<sup>8</sup>

Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) chose priors for model coefficients that yield the following (approximate) marginal likelihood of the data

$$(3) \quad l_y(M_j) \propto N^{-\frac{k_j}{2}} SSE^{-\frac{N_j}{2}},$$

where  $k_j$  is the number of candidate explanatory variables included in model  $j$  and  $SSE_j$  is the sum of squared ordinary least-squares residuals associated with the model. Hence, posterior probabilities of models are increasing in model fit and decreasing in the number of candidate variables included in the model. The marginal likelihood of the data in Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001b) is

$$(4) \quad l_y(M_j) \propto \left(\frac{g}{g+1}\right)^{\frac{k_j}{2}} \left(\frac{1}{g+1} SSE_j + \frac{g}{g+1} (y - \bar{y})'(y - \bar{y})\right)^{-\frac{(N-1)}{2}},$$

<sup>6</sup> Detailed discussions of BMA can be found in Edward E. Leamer (1978) and Jennifer A. Hoeting et al. (1999) for example.

<sup>7</sup> The Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001a) model prior implies that the expected model size is  $K/2$ , where  $K$  is the number of candidate variables. Ley and Steel (2009) find that results can be sensitive to the prior expected model size. Therefore, they advocate the use of hierarchical priors, which decrease the dependence on the prior expected model size specified by the researcher. They find that in the cross-country growth context their preferred priors lead to posteriors which are concentrated on rather small models (two to seven variables). In the Web Appendix, we report all calculations of this paper repeated using Ley and Steel (2009) priors and show that this does not affect our conclusions.

<sup>8</sup> Theo S. Eicher, Chris Papageorgiou, and Adrian E. Raftery (forthcoming) and Ley and Steel (2009) examine a variety of priors.

where  $g = 1/\max\{N, K^2\}$ ,  $y$  is a vector with all entries equal to the average growth rate in the sample.

## II. Agnostic Priors and Imperfect Data

Agnostic Bayesian approaches to growth determinants put much weight on the sum of squared errors when assigning posterior inclusion probabilities to models. This can be seen immediately from the Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) marginal likelihood in (3) where the sum of squared errors (SSE) is raised to the power  $-N/2$ , which in their case is  $-44$  as they have data on 88 countries. Fernandez, Ley, and Steel's (2001a) approach in (4) also implies posterior inclusion probabilities that are very sensitive to the sum of squared errors because their loose priors amount to a very small value for  $g$ .

To get a sense of the magnitude of this effect, suppose that we want to determine the posterior inclusion probabilities of the 67 candidate explanatory variables considered by Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004). To simplify, we limit attention to models of a predetermined size. In this case, substituting (3) into (2) and summing across all models containing a given variable, yields that the posterior inclusion probability of a candidate explanatory variable  $v$  relative to  $w$  is

$$(6) \quad \frac{\text{Posterior probability variable } v}{\text{Posterior probability variable } w} = \frac{\sum_{j \in S_v} SSE_j^{-\frac{N}{2}}}{\sum_{j \in S_w} SSE_j^{-\frac{N}{2}}}$$

where  $S_v$  and  $S_w$  denote the set of models containing variable  $v$  and  $w$  respectively. Now suppose that a data revision leads to a fall in the sum of squared errors generated by candidate variable  $v$  of 1.5 percent in all models. With data on 88 countries, this implies that the posterior inclusion probability of this variable almost doubles relative to other variables.

How strongly do actual data revisions affect posterior inclusion probabilities? To illustrate the effect we assume a predetermined model size of 1 and determine the posterior inclusion probability of the 67 variables in the Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) dataset with both PWT 6.1 and PWT 6.2 income data for the 1960–1996 period. In the top-left panel of Figure 1 we plot the  $R$ -squared ( $R^2$ ) of all 67 models including just the constant term and each of the variables (sorted by decreasing  $R^2$ ) using PWT 6.1 data. In the top-right panel we display the corresponding posterior probabilities (computed as in Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller 2004). The comparison of these two panels illustrates how small differences in  $R^2$  translate into large differences in inclusion probabilities. The best variable (which turns out to be the number of years countries have been open to international trade) has an  $R^2$  of 33 percent and gets a posterior inclusion probability of 84 percent. The sixth variable has an  $R^2$  of 25 percent and an inclusion probability of around 0.6 percent (beyond the sixth variable, inclusion probabilities are negligible). The bottom-left and bottom-right panels display the  $R^2$  and inclusion probability for variables in the same order as in the top-left panel but using PWT 6.2 data. It can be seen that changing the dataset perturbs the inclusion probabilities drastically when compared to changes in  $R^2$ . For example,

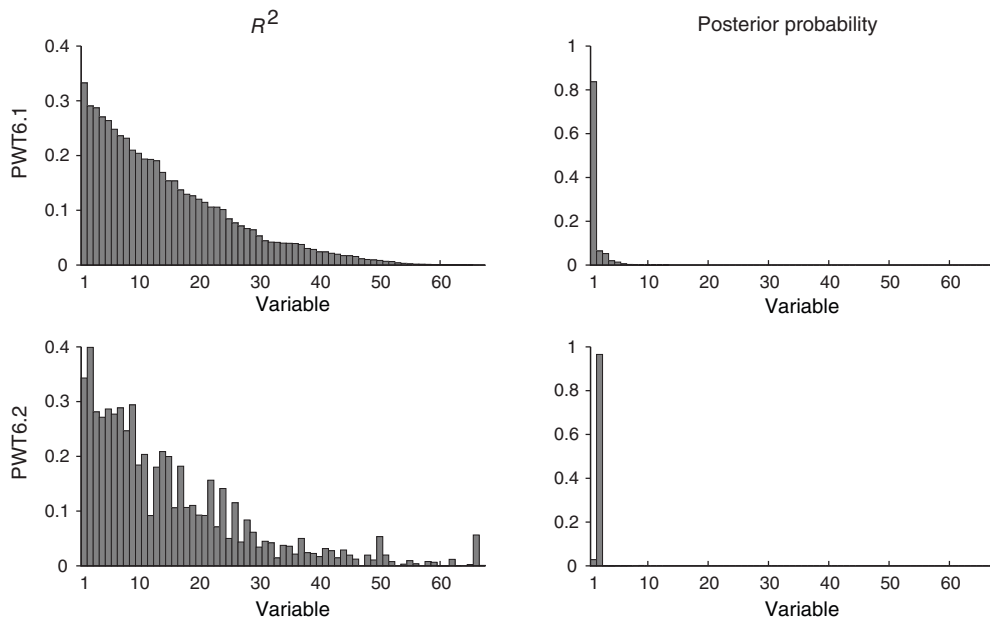


FIGURE 1.  $R^2$ S AND POSTERIOR PROBABILITIES IN ONE-VARIABLE MODELS, WITH PWT 6.1 AND PWT 6.2 DATA

the number of years open goes from a posterior inclusion probability of 84 percent with PWT 6.1 data to a posterior inclusion probability of 3 percent with PWT 6.2 data. On the other hand, the posterior inclusion probability of the East Asia dummy goes from a posterior inclusion probability of 6 percent with PWT 6.1 data to a posterior inclusion probability of 97 percent with PWT 6.2 data.

When the predetermined model size is greater than one, the posterior inclusion probability of a variable is the sum of posterior inclusion probabilities across models containing the variable. What if data revisions were to lead to changes in the sum of squared errors that are unsystematic across models containing the same variable? Would such data imperfections average out and therefore have small effects on posterior inclusion probabilities? It turns out that they may not average out in theory and practice. To see this, note that when  $N$  is large, then  $\sum_{j \in S_v} SSE_j^{-N/2}$  is dominated by the sum of squared errors of the best fitting model (the model with the lowest  $SSE$ ). In this case, we can therefore approximate the relative posterior inclusion probabilities in (6) by an expression that only involves the best fitting models for each variable

$$\frac{\text{Posterior probability variable } v}{\text{Posterior probability variable } w} \cong \frac{\max\{SSE_j^{-N/2} : j \in S_v\}}{\max\{SSE_j^{-N/2} : j \in S_w\}}$$

Small unsystematic changes in the sum of squared errors across models can therefore have large effects on posterior inclusion probabilities of variables.<sup>9</sup>

<sup>9</sup> In Ciccone and Jarocinski (2008) we propose three modifications of BMA that reduce this sensitivity. For other work in this direction see Martin Feldkircher and Stefan Zeugner (2009).

TABLE 1—DETERMINANTS OF POSTERIOR INCLUSION PROBABILITIES

	PWT 6.0 coefficient	(SD)	PWT 6.1 coefficient	(SD)	PWT 6.2 coefficient	(SD)
Intercept	−197.9	(4.0)	−163.7	(2.6)	−188.5	(3.0)
Log SSE at the 50th percentile	0.1	(1.1)	−1.1	(1.5)	1.8	(1.2)
Log SSE at the 25th percentile	1.4	(1.7)	2.0	(2.3)	0.2	(1.3)
Log SSE at the 5th percentile	−2.0	(1.7)	−0.7	(2.2)	−2.4	(1.8)
Log SSE at the 1st percentile	−7.3	(1.2)	−9.2	(1.7)	−6.9	(1.2)
Log of the smallest SSE	−37.0	(1.3)	−28.2	(1.2)	−30.6	(1.0)
$R^2$	0.99		0.99		0.99	
Observations	67		67		67	

Notes: Regression results. Dependent variable is the log of inclusion probabilities of variables in the Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) dataset.

To illustrate the effect of the best fitting models on posterior inclusion probabilities for actual data revisions, we return to the example where we try to determine the posterior inclusion probabilities of the 67 candidate explanatory variables for economic growth considered by Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) with PWT 6.0, PWT 6.1, and PWT 6.2 data. But now we take the predetermined model size to be 3. In this case, each variable is part of  $66 \times 65/2 = 2,145$  models, which means that the posterior inclusion probability of a variable is the sum of posterior inclusion probabilities across 2,145 models. A useful perspective on the sensitivity of posterior inclusion probabilities to the sum of squared errors of the best-fitting model can be obtained in two steps. First, we compute for each variable the sum of squared errors of all models that contain the variable, sort the sums of squared errors from smallest to largest, and store the minimum as well as the sum of squared errors at the first, fifth, twenty-fifth, and fiftieth percentile. Then we regress the log of the posterior inclusion probabilities of all variables on the log sum of squared errors at these percentiles and the log sum of squared errors of the best-fitting model.

Table 1 shows the results of this regression for the posterior inclusion probabilities obtained using PWT 6.0 data, PWT 6.1 data, and PWT 6.2 data. According to the  $R^2$ , the smallest sum of squared errors and the sums of squared errors at the first, fifth, twenty-fifth, and fiftieth percentile explain 99 percent of the variation in posterior inclusion probabilities in each of the three datasets. It is also interesting to note that only the sum of squared errors of the best fitting model and at the first percentile are statistically significant. Hence, the variation in posterior inclusion probabilities across variables is explained by relatively few specifications (1 percent of the 2,145 specifications). Moreover, posterior inclusion probabilities turn out to be sensitive to the sum of squared errors of the best fitting model as a 1 percent fall in the minimum sum of squared error is associated with an increase in the posterior inclusion probability of at least 28 percent.<sup>10</sup>

<sup>10</sup> Other researchers also find that BMA is dominated by the best model. Examples include Feldkircher and Zeugner (2009); Anthony Garratt, Kevin Lee, Emi Mise, and Kalvinder Shields (2009); Ley and Steel (2009); and Hashem Pesaran, Christoph Schleicher, and Paolo Zaffaroni (2009).



### III. Determinants of Economic Growth: Does Data Tell?

So far we have argued that the conclusions of agnostic BMA might be sensitive to the margins of error in the available income data. We now examine whether this is the case when we do a full-fledged agnostic BMA analysis of the determinants of economic growth over the 1960–1996 period and over the 1960–1975 period.

#### *A. Determinants of Economic Growth 1960–1996: The Effect of PWT Revisions*

To assess the sensitivity of the results of agnostic BMA to PWT income data revisions, we compare PWT 6.2 results with those of earlier PWT income data covering the 1960–1996 period (PWT 6.0 and PWT 6.1). Our starting point is the sample of Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004), who use PWT 6.0 income data and data on 67 potential growth determinants for 88 countries.<sup>11</sup> The PWT 6.1 income data are available for 84 of the countries in the Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) sample and the PWT 6.2 data for 79 countries. As we want to use the history of PWT revisions to examine how much posterior inclusion probabilities might change with future revisions, we always use the largest possible sample.<sup>12</sup>

*Growth Determinants.*—Table 2 contains our results using Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller's (2004) approach. All variables with a posterior inclusion probability greater than 10 percent in one of the three PWT datasets are shown in boldface. The 10 percent posterior inclusion probability threshold comes from Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) who use it to define robust growth determinants (they use the threshold  $7/67 \approx 10$  percent because in their setup, variables with a posterior inclusion probability greater than this threshold have a posterior inclusion probability greater than the prior inclusion probability). The table shows that Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller's (2004) results are sensitive to PWT revisions. The Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) criterion yields 23 robust growth determinants according to PWT 6.2 or PWT 6.1. But the two versions of the PWT disagree on more than half of these variables (13).<sup>13</sup>

The disagreement in Table 2 is not driven by small changes in posterior inclusion probabilities around the particular Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) robustness threshold. Among the 10 variables with a posterior inclusion probability greater than 50 percent, according to PWT 6.2 or PWT 6.1, there are 8 variables where the PWT revision changes the posterior inclusion probability by more than 40

<sup>11</sup> Variables and samples are described in Web Appendix A. The Web Appendix is available at [www.antonioiccone.eu](http://www.antonioiccone.eu).

<sup>12</sup> One could instead take a backward looking perspective and ask if results are consistent across PWT versions given the largest common sample. This backward looking perspective seems less interesting to us because the largest common sample usually changes with PWT revisions.

<sup>13</sup> PWT data revisions affect African countries most (see the Web Appendix B). One may therefore conclude that African countries should be excluded from any agnostic BMA exercise. But such a reduction in sample size implies that less can be said about the growth determinants of excluded countries, especially if results are sensitive to data (i.e. included countries). Moreover, if the goal is to extract lessons for a particular country, one should not drop relevant comparison countries from the sample. Definition of the relevant comparison group is not obvious, which is why it is desirable that the empirical approach taken should not be very sensitive to the particular sample being used.

TABLE 2—DETERMINANTS OF 1960–1996 INCOME GROWTH WITH THE SALA-I-MARTIN, DOPPELHOFFER, AND MILLER (2004) APPROACH  
(Posterior Inclusion Probabilities using income data from PWT 6.2, 6.1, and 6.0)

	PWT 6.2 posterior	PWT 6.1 inclusion	PWT 6.0 probabilities	PWT 6.2/6.1 abs.diff.	PWT 6.2/6.0 abs.diff.
GDP in 1960 (log)	<b>1.00</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.69</b>	0.00	0.31
Primary schooling in 1960	<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.99</b>	<b>0.79</b>	0.01	0.21
Fertility in 1960s	<b>0.91</b>	<b>0.12</b>	0.03	0.78	0.88
African dummy	<b>0.86</b>	<b>0.18</b>	<b>0.15</b>	0.68	0.71
Fraction Confucius	<b>0.83</b>	<b>0.12</b>	<b>0.20</b>	0.71	0.64
Fraction Muslim	<b>0.40</b>	<b>0.19</b>	<b>0.11</b>	0.21	0.29
Latin American dummy	<b>0.35</b>	0.07	<b>0.14</b>	0.29	0.21
East Asian dummy	<b>0.33</b>	<b>0.78</b>	<b>0.83</b>	0.45	0.50
Fraction Buddhist	<b>0.28</b>	<b>0.11</b>	<b>0.11</b>	0.18	0.17
Primary exports 1970	<b>0.27</b>	<b>0.21</b>	0.05	0.05	0.22
Nominal government GDP share 1960s	<b>0.27</b>	0.02	0.04	0.25	0.23
Openness measure 1965–1974	<b>0.15</b>	0.05	0.07	0.09	0.07
Timing of independence	<b>0.12</b>	0.08	0.02	0.04	0.10
Population density coastal in 1960s	0.10	<b>0.79</b>	<b>0.43</b>	0.69	0.33
Hydrocarbon deposits in 1993	0.10	<b>0.12</b>	0.03	0.02	0.07
Years open 1950–1994	0.09	0.06	<b>0.11</b>	0.03	0.02
Fraction Protestants	0.07	0.02	0.05	0.05	0.02
Spanish colony	0.06	0.02	<b>0.13</b>	0.04	0.06
Fraction speaking foreign language	0.06	0.04	0.08	0.02	0.01
Fraction Catholic	0.06	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.03
European dummy	0.06	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03
Average inflation 1960–1990	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.03
Fraction of tropical area	0.05	<b>0.70</b>	<b>0.57</b>	0.65	0.52
Government share of GDP in 1960s	0.05	0.04	0.06	0.01	0.01
Fraction population over 65	0.05	0.05	0.02	0.00	0.02
Air distance to big cities	0.04	<b>0.45</b>	0.04	0.41	0.01
Square of inflation 1960–1990	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
Ethnolinguistic fractionalization	0.04	0.02	0.10	0.01	0.07
Fraction population in tropics	0.03	<b>0.16</b>	0.06	0.12	0.03
Tropical climate zone	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.02
Defense spending share	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01
Fraction population less than 15	0.03	0.02	0.04	0.01	0.01
Size of economy	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01
Life expectancy in 1960	0.03	<b>0.25</b>	<b>0.22</b>	0.22	0.19
Revolutions and coups	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.00
Landlocked country dummy	0.03	0.08	0.02	0.05	0.01
Higher education 1960	0.03	0.02	0.06	0.01	0.03
Population growth rate 1960–90	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.01
Fraction Hindus	0.03	0.02	0.04	0.01	0.02
Absolute latitude	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.00
Fraction Orthodox	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01
Gov. consumption share 1960s	0.03	0.05	0.10	0.02	0.08
Interior density	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01
War participation 1960–90	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01
Socialist dummy	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01
Malaria prevalence in 1960s	0.02	0.02	<b>0.26</b>	0.00	0.23
Investment price	0.02	<b>0.98</b>	<b>0.77</b>	0.96	0.75
Political rights	0.02	<b>0.25</b>	0.07	0.23	0.05
Colony dummy	0.02	0.09	0.03	0.07	0.01
Public investment share	0.02	0.04	0.05	0.02	0.03
Oil producing country dummy	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
Land area	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
Capitalism	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
Real exchange rate distortions	0.02	0.04	0.09	0.02	0.07
Population density 1960	0.02	<b>0.74</b>	0.09	0.72	0.07
British colony dummy	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.00	0.01
Public education spending share in GDP in 1960s	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.00

(Continued)

TABLE 2—DETERMINANTS OF 1960–1996 INCOME GROWTH WITH THE SALA-I-MARTIN, DOPPELHOFFER, AND MILLER (2004) APPROACH  
(Posterior Inclusion Probabilities using income data from PWT 6.2, 6.1, and 6.0) (Continued)

	PWT 6.2 posterior	PWT 6.1 inclusion	PWT 6.0 probabilities	PWT 6.2/6.1 abs.diff.	PWT 6.2/6.0 abs.diff.
Population in 1960	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.01
Fraction of land area near navigable water	0.02	0.05	0.02	0.03	0.00
Fraction GDP in mining	0.02	<b>0.24</b>	<b>0.12</b>	0.22	0.10
Religion measure	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.00
Fraction spent in war 1960–1990	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00
Terms of trade growth in 1960s	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01
Civil liberties	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.00	0.01
English speaking population	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
Terms of trade ranking	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
Outward orientation	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.02

Notes: Variables come from the Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) dataset. Posterior inclusion probabilities higher than the prior inclusion probabilities (here: 7/67) are in **bold**.

percentage points (the absolute difference in posterior inclusion probabilities across PWT revisions are shown in the last two columns of the table).

Many of the variables affected by PWT revisions have been prominent in the growth literature. For example, consider the investment price variable (for earlier work, see De Long and Summers 1991, and Jones 1994). It has the third highest posterior inclusion probability (98 percent) according to PWT 6.1 income data, but is practically irrelevant in PWT 6.2 (the posterior inclusion probability is 2 percent). The posterior inclusion probability of the variable capturing location in the tropics (fraction of tropical area) drops from 70 percent to 5 percent. A similar drop is experienced by population density in 1960, and the population density of coastal areas in the 1960s. Air distance to big cities is another geographic country characteristic whose relevance for growth diminishes with the PWT 6.2 dataset. Life expectancy in 1960, the fraction of GDP produced in the mining sector, and political rights experience smaller, but still important, decreases in their posterior inclusion probabilities (from around 25 percent to below 3 percent; for earlier results on the role of life expectancy and political rights for economic growth see Adam Przeworski and Fernando Limongi 1993; Barro 1991, 1996). The share of government expenditures in GDP, on the other hand, obtains a posterior inclusion probability of 27 percent according to PWT 6.2, but is irrelevant according to PWT 6.1. Other variables with high posterior inclusion probabilities (above 83 percent) with PWT 6.2 data, but low posterior inclusion probabilities (below 18 percent) according to PWT 6.1, are location in Africa, the fraction of the population that adheres to Confucianism, and fertility.

There is even greater disagreement regarding the determinants of 1960–1996 growth when we compare the results using PWT 6.2 data to those using PWT 6.0. Examples of variables that are irrelevant using PWT 6.0, but robust growth determinants according to the Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) criterion when using PWT 6.2, are fertility and primary export dependence (for earlier results see Sachs and Warner 1995). Examples going in the opposite direction are the degree of ethnolinguistic fractionalization of the population, which

was borderline with PWT 6.0 (for more on this variable, see William Easterly and Levine 1997; Alberto Alesina et al. 2003; Alesina and Eliana La Ferrara 2005), and malaria prevalence. Disagreement is also substantial among the growth determinants with the highest posterior inclusion probabilities. For example, among the 8 variables with a posterior inclusion probability greater than 50 percent according to PWT 6.2 or PWT 6.0, there are 6 variables where the PWT revision changes the posterior inclusion probability by more than 40 percentage points. When we look across all three revisions of the PWT income data, we find that the Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) criterion yields 20 variables that are robust according to one version, but nonrobust according to another. And, among the 10 variables with a posterior inclusion probability greater than 50 percent according to one of the datasets, there are 8 variables where the probability changes by more than 40 percentage points from one version of the PWT to another.

Applying BMA with the benchmark priors of Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001a), instead of Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller's (2004) approach, yields very similar posterior inclusion probabilities. The absolute difference in posterior inclusion probabilities between the two approaches averaged across all variables is only 1 percent for each of the three versions of the PWT.<sup>14</sup> As a result, BMA with the benchmark priors of Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001a) is as sensitive to PWT revisions as Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller's (2004) approach.

*Theory and Proxy Groups.*—There is no unique way to partition variables into relevant groups. We work with two conceptually distinct partitions. One of them contains groups of variables that can be argued to proxy for the same underlying growth determinant. We refer to these groups as proxy groups. Table 3 reports the proxy groups we employ; this table should be read as our priors on closely related variables. When we were doubtful on whether to include a variable in a group or not, we generally included the variable, as we already know from our previous results that posterior inclusion probabilities are highly sensitive to PWT data revisions when groups are sufficiently small (singletons). Consider, for example, the proxy group called openness to trade. It seemed quite reasonable to include variables that appeared to reflect exports, imports, or tariff and nontariff barriers to trade. But although we ultimately also included the real exchange rate distortion index in this group, this seemed less obvious (e.g., Francisco Rodríguez and Rodrik 2001).

Table 3 also reports the second partition of variables we work with, theory groups. Here we follow Durlauf, Kourtellos, and Tan's (2008) definitions of broad economic theories as closely as possible. For example, just like Durlauf, Kourtellos, and Tan, we define the neoclassical theory group to contain initial GDP, population growth, and variables reflecting capital accumulation. But there are also differences. The Durlauf, Kourtellos, and Tan (2008) macroeconomic policy group only contains three variables: trade openness, government consumption, and inflation. The list of 67 potential growth determinants we start out with contains several variables reflecting similar concepts, for example various measures of public consumption as well

<sup>14</sup> See Web Appendix Table C.2.1 for the full results.

TABLE 3—DEFINITIONS OF GROUPS OF VARIABLES

Group name	Variable names
<i>A. Proxy groups</i>	
Market access	Population density coastal in 1960s Interior density Landlocked country dummy Fraction of land area near navigable water
Population growth	Fertility in 1960s Population growth rate 1960–1990
Climate zones	Tropical climate zone Fraction of tropical area Fraction population in tropics Absolute latitude
Health	Malaria prevalence in 1960s Life expectancy in 1960
Natural resources	Fraction GDP in mining Hydrocarbon deposits in 1993 Oil producing country dummy Primary exports 1970
Size of government	Nominal government GDP share 1960s Government share of GDP in 1960s Government consumption share 1960s Public investment share
Inflation	Average inflation 1960–1990 Square of inflation 1960–1990
War and conflict	Revolutions and coups Fraction spent in war 1960–1990 War participation 1960–1990
Openness to trade	Openness measure 1965–1974 Years open 1950–1994 Outward orientation Real exchange rate distortions
Size of the economy	Size of economy Population in 1960
Rights	Political rights Civil liberties
Age structure	Fraction population less than 15 Fraction population over 65
Education	Public education spending share in GDP in 1960s Higher education 1960 Primary schooling in 1960
<i>B. Theory groups</i>	
Neoclassical	GDP in 1960 (log) Population growth rate 1960–1990 Public education spending share in GDP in 1960s Higher education 1960 Primary schooling in 1960
Demography	Life expectancy in 1960 Fertility in 1960s Fraction population less than 15 Fraction population over 65

*(Continued)*

TABLE 3—DEFINITIONS OF GROUPS OF VARIABLES (*Continued*)

Group name	Variable names
Macroeconomic policy	Nominal government GDP share 1960s Government share of GDP in 1960s Government consumption share 1960s Public investment share Average inflation 1960–1990 Square of inflation 1960–1990 Openness measure 1965–1974 Years open 1950–1994 Outward orientation Real exchange rate distortions Investment price
Absolute geography	Tropical climate zone Fraction of tropical area Fraction population in tropics Malaria prevalence in 1960s Absolute latitude
Regional heterogeneity	African dummy European dummy Latin American dummy East Asian dummy
Religion	Fraction Confucius Fraction Muslim Fraction Buddhist Fraction Protestants Fraction Catholic Fraction Orthodox Religion measure Fraction Hindus
Geography and trade (within countries and international)	Air distance to big cities Population density 1960 Size of economy Population in 1960 Land area Population density coastal in 1960s Landlocked country dummy Interior density Fraction of land area near navigable water
Institutions	Political rights Civil liberties Socialist dummy Capitalism
War and conflict	Revolutions and coups Fraction spent in war 1960–1990 War participation 1960–1990
Colonial history	British colony dummy Spanish colony Colony dummy Timing of independence
Natural resources	Fraction GDP in mining Hydrocarbon deposits in 1993 Oil producing country dummy Primary exports 1970
Terms of trade	Terms of trade growth in 1960s Terms of trade ranking

TABLE 4—POSTERIOR INCLUSION PROBABILITIES OF GROUPS OF VARIABLES IN THE SALA-I-MARTIN, DOPPELHOFFER, AND MILLER (2004) APPROACH  
(Using income data from PWT 6.2, 6.1, 6.0)

	PWT 6.2	PWT 6.1	PWT 6.0
<i>Panel A. Proxy groups</i>			
Education	<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.99</b>	<b>0.80</b>
Population growth	<b>0.92</b>	0.15	0.05
Natural resources	0.35	0.44	0.20
Size of government	0.34	0.14	0.23
Openness to trade	0.25	0.17	0.26
Market access	0.17	<b>0.81</b>	0.46
Climate zones	0.14	<b>0.84</b>	<b>0.64</b>
Inflation	0.09	0.03	0.04
Age structure	0.08	0.07	0.06
War and conflict	0.07	0.05	0.06
Health	0.05	0.26	0.40
Size of the economy	0.05	0.04	0.04
Rights	0.04	0.27	0.09
<i>Panel B. Theory groups</i>			
Neoclassical	<b>1.00</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.92</b>
Demography	<b>0.94</b>	0.39	0.29
Regional heterogeneity	<b>0.93</b>	<b>0.89</b>	<b>0.94</b>
Religion	<b>0.90</b>	0.38	0.39
Macroeconomic policy	<b>0.54</b>	<b>0.99</b>	<b>0.90</b>
Natural resources	0.35	0.44	0.20
Geography and trade (within countries and international)	0.27	<b>0.89</b>	<b>0.54</b>
Colonial history	0.20	0.19	0.19
Absolute geography	0.16	<b>0.84</b>	<b>0.84</b>
Institutions	0.08	0.30	0.12
War and conflict	0.07	0.05	0.06
Terms of trade	0.03	0.04	0.04

*Notes:* Posterior probabilities higher than 0.5 are in bold. The prior probability of each group is different and depends on its size. The prior probability of a group of  $j$  variables is  $1 - (1 - p)^j$ , where  $p$  is the prior inclusion probability of an individual variable (here:  $p = 7/67$ ). This formula can be obtained by noting that the prior probability of a group being represented equals one minus the prior probability that none of the variables from the group is included. As the inclusion of variables is a priori independent, the prior probability that none of  $j$  variables is included in the model equals  $(1 - p)^j$ .

as a measure of public investment. Our macroeconomic policy group is therefore larger than Durlauf, Kourtellos, and Tan's (2008). Our list of potential growth determinants also contains several variables that capture economic effects of geography. We therefore deviate from Durlauf, Kourtellos, and Tan (2008) and define an absolute geography group, which contains variables related to countries' climate zone, and a geography and trade group, which captures aspects of geography that appear relevant for internal and international trade.

Once groups have been defined, we can determine the posterior inclusion probabilities of groups, defined as the probability that at least one of the variables in a group is included in the model. For example, if PWT revisions only led to a reassignment of posterior inclusion probabilities across variables in the same group, the posterior inclusion probabilities of groups would be unaffected.

Table 4 reports posterior inclusion probabilities of proxy groups and theory groups based on the posterior probabilities of individual variables in Table 2. The

table shows substantial disagreement about the posterior inclusion probability of proxy groups. For example, the posterior probability of inclusion of the population growth group varies from 92 percent with PWT 6.2 to 15 percent with PWT 6.1. Among the 4 groups of variables with a posterior inclusion probability greater than 50 percent according to PWT 6.2 or PWT 6.1, there are 3 groups where the PWT revision changes posterior inclusion probabilities by more than 40 percentage points. Comparing results across the 3 versions of the PWT, we find that among the 9 groups with a posterior inclusion probability greater than 10 percent according to one dataset, there are 7 groups where posterior inclusion probabilities change by at least 20 percentage points from one revision to another.

There continues to be substantial disagreement across PWT revisions when we examine the posterior inclusion probabilities of theory groups. Among the 7 groups of variables with a posterior inclusion probability greater than 50 percent according to PWT 6.2 or PWT 6.1, there are 5 groups where the PWT revision changes the posterior inclusion probability by more than 40 percentage points.<sup>15</sup> When we consider the 3 versions of the PWT, we find that among the 10 groups with a posterior inclusion probability greater than 10 percent according to one dataset, there are 7 groups where posterior inclusion probabilities change by at least 20 percentage points from one revision to another.

Posterior inclusion probabilities of proxy groups and theory groups change by very little when we calculate them using BMA with the benchmark priors of Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001a) instead of Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller's (2004) approach.<sup>16</sup> This is not surprising, given our previous finding that the two approaches yielded nearly identical posterior inclusion probabilities for individual variables.

The presence of groups in BMA may have implications for model (group) priors. For example, the posterior probabilities of groups in Table 4 were obtained, just like the posterior probabilities of individual variables in Table 2, under the assumption that each variable has the same prior inclusion probability independent of the inclusion of other variables. This independence assumption implies that larger prior probabilities are assigned to larger groups. An alternative approach would be to assume that each group has the same prior inclusion probability. In this case it would also be necessary to specify the prior probabilities for all subsets of each group, conditional on the group being represented. One possibility would be to assign the same prior probability to all subsets (Brock, Durlauf, and West 2003). Another possibility is to assign lower prior probabilities to subsets containing strongly correlated variables

<sup>15</sup> The two groups producing relatively consistent results are the neoclassical theory group and a group of selected regional dummies which Durlauf, Kourtellos, and Tan (2006, 2008) refer to as regional heterogeneity group. The neoclassical theory group turns out to produce consistent results across PWT revisions because the variables included in this group produce relatively consistent results individually, see Table 2. For the regional heterogeneity group, on the other hand, the consistency of the group is the result of offsetting effects of two component variables. As can be seen in Table 2, individually, the dummy variable for Africa has a substantially larger posterior inclusion probability using PWT 6.2 than PWT 6.1, while it is the other way around for the dummy variable for East Asia. In any case, the interpretation of these dummy variables is difficult as the definition of regions may have been affected by growth performance.

<sup>16</sup> See Web Appendix Table C.2.2 for full results.



TABLE 5—POSTERIOR INCLUSION PROBABILITIES OF GROUPS OF VARIABLES OBTAINED WITH “DILUTION” MODEL PRIORS AND SALA-I-MARTIN, DOPPELHOFFER, AND MILLER (2004) COEFFICIENT PRIORS  
(Using growth data from PWT 6.2, 6.1, 6.0)

	PWT 6.2	PWT 6.1	PWT 6.0
<i>Panel A. Proxy groups</i>			
Education	<b>1.00</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.93</b>
Population growth	<b>0.94</b>	<b>0.50</b>	0.24
Natural resources	0.42	<b>0.91</b>	0.48
Size of government	<b>0.50</b>	0.38	<b>0.75</b>
Openness to trade	0.24	0.22	0.21
Market access	0.09	0.29	0.13
Climate zones	0.16	0.29	0.18
Inflation	0.27	0.13	0.11
Age structure	0.24	0.36	0.19
War and conflict	0.13	0.17	0.16
Health	0.17	<b>0.53</b>	<b>0.53</b>
Size of the economy	0.13	0.12	0.12
Rights	0.17	0.15	0.14
<i>Panel B. Theory groups</i>			
Neoclassical	<b>1.00</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.96</b>
Demography	<b>0.89</b>	<b>0.58</b>	0.43
Regional heterogeneity	<b>0.94</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>0.94</b>
Religion	<b>0.75</b>	<b>0.58</b>	0.43
Macroeconomic policy	0.11	<b>0.96</b>	<b>0.86</b>
Natural resources	0.48	<b>0.98</b>	<b>0.56</b>
Geography and trade (within countries and international)	0.02	0.14	0.06
Colonial history	0.26	0.26	0.14
Absolute geography	0.10	0.27	0.38
Institutions	0.08	0.08	0.10
War and conflict	0.10	0.17	0.13
Terms of trade	0.09	0.16	0.09

Notes: The prior probability of each group is 0.5. Posterior inclusion probabilities higher than 0.5 are in **bold**.

than subsets containing weakly correlated variables. This is the so-called dilution prior as implemented by Durlauf, Kourtellis, and Tan (2006, 2008).<sup>17</sup>

Table 5 presents posterior inclusion probabilities of groups of variables obtained by combining dilution priors with Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller's (2004) coefficient priors. The table shows that dilution priors also yield substantial disagreement on posterior inclusion probabilities across the three versions of the PWT. There are 5 groups of variables with a posterior inclusion probability greater than 50 percent according to PWT 6.2 or PWT 6.1, and the 2 versions of the PWT disagree by more than 40 percentage points on 2 of them. There is a similar degree of discord for theory groups. The coefficient priors of Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001a) also yield substantial disaccord for proxy groups and theory groups.<sup>18</sup>

<sup>17</sup> The prior is proportional to the determinants of the correlation matrix (see Durlauf, Kourtellis, and Tan 2008 for details).

<sup>18</sup> See Web Appendix Table C.3.2 and C.4.2 for full results.

TABLE 6—DETERMINANTS OF 1975–1996 INCOME GROWTH WITH THE FERNANDEZ, LEY, AND STEEL (2001b) APPROACH. POSTERIOR INCLUSION PROBABILITIES (using income data from PWT 6.1 and 6.2, and WDI)

	PWT 6.2 (common sample $N = 87$ )	WDI	PWT 6.1 (common sample $N = 86$ )	WDI	PWT 6.2/WDI abs. diff.	PWT 6.1/WDI abs. diff.
East Asian dummy	<b>0.98</b>	<b>0.99</b>	<b>0.50</b>	<b>0.99</b>	0.01	0.49
Investment price	<b>0.97</b>	0.24	0.34	0.06	0.73	0.28
GDP in 1975 (log)	<b>0.91</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.60</b>	<b>1.00</b>	0.09	0.40
Life expectancy in 1975	<b>0.88</b>	<b>0.95</b>	0.47	<b>0.99</b>	0.07	0.51
Fraction of tropical area	<b>0.72</b>	<b>0.68</b>	0.20	<b>0.72</b>	0.05	0.52
Fraction GDP in mining	0.32	0.18	<b>0.59</b>	0.25	0.14	0.34
Absolute latitude	0.21	0.32	0.22	0.27	0.10	0.05
Fraction Confucius	0.14	0.07	0.45	0.06	0.07	0.39
Openness measure 1965–1974	0.11	0.19	0.12	0.28	0.08	0.16
Political rights	0.11	0.26	0.03	0.21	0.16	0.18
Primary schooling in 1975	0.10	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.07	0.01
Real exchange rate distortions	0.09	0.34	0.35	0.38	0.25	0.03
British colony dummy	0.09	0.12	0.10	0.08	0.03	0.02
Public investment share	0.09	0.03	0.06	0.03	0.06	0.03
Population density coastal in 1960s	0.08	0.09	0.06	0.07	0.01	0.01
Years open 1950–1994	0.08	0.32	0.09	0.26	0.25	0.18
Population density 1975	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.01	0.00
African dummy	0.07	0.03	<b>0.57</b>	0.04	0.04	0.53
Fraction population in tropics	0.06	0.04	0.19	0.04	0.03	0.15
Fraction buddhist	0.05	0.02	0.30	0.02	0.03	0.28
Terms of trade ranking	0.05	0.06	0.11	0.06	0.01	0.06
Fraction speaking foreign language	0.05	0.13	0.03	0.10	0.08	0.08
Malaria prevalence in 1960s	0.05	0.09	0.02	0.10	0.04	0.08
Revolutions and coups	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.01
Ethnolinguistic fractionalization	0.04	0.06	0.10	0.05	0.01	0.05
Higher education 1975	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.00	0.00
Fraction Muslim	0.04	0.05	0.12	0.04	0.01	0.08
Population in 1975	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.00	0.01
Latin American dummy	0.04	0.03	0.14	0.03	0.01	0.12
Government share of GDP in 1970s	0.04	0.02	0.33	0.20	0.01	0.14
Fraction Orthodox	0.04	0.02	0.05	0.03	0.01	0.02
Fraction Hindus	0.04	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.00	0.02
Capitalism	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
Civil liberties	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.00	0.01
Timing of independence	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.00	0.00
Land area	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.00	0.01
Gov. consumption share 1970s	0.03	0.18	0.12	0.21	0.15	0.09
Fraction population less than 15	0.03	0.02	0.13	0.02	0.01	0.11
Nominal government GDP share 1970s	0.03	0.02	0.30	0.06	0.01	0.24
Religion measure	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
Average inflation 1960–1990	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.01	0.02
Fraction spent in war 1960–1990	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.00
Fraction Protestants	0.02	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.01	0.02
Size of economy	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.01
Defense spending share	0.02	0.05	0.28	0.06	0.03	0.21
Fraction population over 65	0.02	0.02	0.06	0.02	0.00	0.04
Square of inflation 1960–1990	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.01
Interior density	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
European dummy	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.02	0.00	0.02
Primary exports 1970	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.01
Spanish colony	0.02	0.02	0.10	0.02	0.00	0.07
Fraction of land area near navigable water	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00

(Continued)

TABLE 6—DETERMINANTS OF 1975–1996 INCOME GROWTH WITH THE FERNANDEZ, LEY, AND STEEL (2001b) APPROACH. POSTERIOR INCLUSION PROBABILITIES (using income data from PWT 6.1 and 6.2, and WDI) (Continued)

	PWT 6.2 (common sample $N = 87$ )	WDI	PWT 6.1 (common sample $N = 86$ )	WDI	PWT 6.2/WDI abs. diff.	PWT 6.1/WDI abs. diff.
Fertility in 1960s	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.00	0.03
Hydrocarbon deposits in 1993	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.01
Fraction Catholic	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.00	0.02
Population growth rate 1960–1990	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.02
Colony dummy	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
Outward orientation	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.01
Oil producing country dummy	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
Terms of trade growth in 1960s	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
Public education spending share in GDP in 1970s	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
Air distance to big cities	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.01
Tropical climate zone	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.05	0.02	0.03
Landlocked country dummy	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
English speaking population	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.01
War participation 1960–90	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
Socialist dummy	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.02

Note: The variables are based on Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004), but wherever applicable, variables were updated from the 1960s to the 1970s, see Web Appendix A. The prior probability of each variable is 0.5. Posterior inclusion probabilities higher than 0.5 are in **bold**.

### B. Determinants of Economic Growth 1975–1996: PWT or WDI?

We also want to examine the sensitivity of agnostic Bayesian model averaging to the different methodological choices underlying the PWT and the World Bank international income data published in the WDI. This analysis is for the 1975–1996 period, as the World Bank’s purchasing power parity income estimates are available for few countries before 1975. As potential determinants we continue to use the 67 variables compiled by Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004), with values updated as necessary.<sup>19</sup>

*Growth Determinants.*—Table 6 reports our results for individual growth determinants. We now use the BMA approach with the benchmark priors of Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001a). Results using the priors of Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) are almost identical however; for example, the absolute difference in posterior inclusion probabilities between the two approaches averaged across all variables never exceeds 1 percent.<sup>20</sup>

Table 6 shows substantial disagreement regarding posterior inclusion probabilities when using WDI instead of PWT income data. For example, there are 5 variables with a posterior inclusion probability greater than 50 percent according to one of the two PWT datasets. For each of these 5 variables, switching to the WDI data produces a change in the posterior inclusion probability greater than 40 percentage points for 1 of the PWT-WDI comparison pairs. These differences in posterior inclusion probabilities are quite surprising as the correlation between WDI and PWT growth rates is very

<sup>19</sup> Details on the updated variables are given in Web Appendix A, Table A1c.

<sup>20</sup> See Web Appendix Table D.1.1 for full results.

TABLE 7—POSTERIOR INCLUSION PROBABILITIES OF GROUPS OF VARIABLES IN THE FERNANDEZ, LEY, AND STEEL (2001b) APPROACH (Using income data from PWT 6.1 and 6.2, and WDI)

	PWT 6.2 (common sample $N = 87$ )	WDI	PWT 6.1 (common sample $N = 86$ )	WDI
<i>Panel A. Proxy groups</i>				
Climate zones	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.98</b>	<b>0.59</b>	<b>0.98</b>
Health	<b>0.89</b>	<b>0.96</b>	0.49	<b>0.99</b>
Natural resources	0.36	0.22	<b>0.62</b>	0.29
Openness to trade	0.27	<b>0.66</b>	0.49	<b>0.69</b>
Size of government	0.17	0.24	<b>0.75</b>	0.46
Education	0.15	0.09	0.08	0.09
Rights	0.13	0.29	0.05	0.24
Market access	0.13	0.14	0.12	0.12
War and conflict	0.08	0.06	0.08	0.06
Size of the economy	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.08
Inflation	0.04	0.03	0.06	0.03
Age structure	0.05	0.04	0.19	0.04
Population growth	0.04	0.04	0.08	0.04
<i>Panel B. Theory groups</i>				
Regional heterogeneity	<b>0.99</b>	<b>0.99</b>	<b>0.90</b>	<b>0.99</b>
Macroeconomic policy	<b>0.99</b>	<b>0.81</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>0.83</b>
Absolute geography	<b>0.96</b>	<b>0.99</b>	<b>0.60</b>	<b>0.99</b>
Neoclassical	<b>0.92</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.64</b>	<b>1.00</b>
Demography	<b>0.89</b>	<b>0.96</b>	<b>0.57</b>	<b>0.99</b>
Natural resources	0.36	0.22	<b>0.62</b>	0.29
Religion	0.30	0.24	<b>0.64</b>	0.22
Geography and trade (within countries and international)	0.28	0.30	0.28	0.29
Institutions	0.17	0.33	0.10	0.27
Colonial history	0.14	0.18	0.24	0.15
War and conflict	0.08	0.06	0.08	0.06
Terms of trade	0.07	0.08	0.13	0.07

Notes: Posterior probabilities higher than 0.5 are in **bold**. The prior probability of each group is different and depends on its size. The prior probability of a group of  $j$  variables equals  $1 - (0.5)^j$  (for an explanation, see notes to Table 4).

high. The correlation between 1975–1996 growth rates in the PWT 6.1 and the WDI is 93.5 percent. And the correlation between 1975–1996 growth rates in the PWT 6.2 and the WDI is 96.2 percent. Table 6 also shows that most of the disagreement comes from the comparison between the PWT 6.1 data and WDI data.

*Theory and Proxy Groups.*—Table 7 reports inclusion probabilities of proxy groups and theory groups based on the posterior probabilities of individual variables in Table 6. Now there is less disagreement. But there are still key groups with substantial disaccord. For example, the trade openness group goes from 27 percent using the PWT 6.2 to 66 percent using WDI income data. For theory groups there is considerable agreement between WDI and PWT 6.2 income data, but less agreement between WDI and PWT 6.1 data. Of the 7 groups with posterior inclusion probabilities above 50 percent according to the WDI or the PWT 6.1, 2 groups see a change in posterior inclusion probabilities of more than 40 percentage points. The priors of Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) yield similar results.<sup>21</sup>

<sup>21</sup> See Web Appendix Table D.1.2 for the full results.

TABLE 8—POSTERIOR INCLUSION PROBABILITIES OF GROUPS OF VARIABLES OBTAINED WITH “DILUTION” MODEL PRIORS AND FERNANDEZ, LEY, AND STEEL (2001b) BENCHMARK COEFFICIENT PRIORS (Using income data from PWT 6.1 and 6.2, and WDI)

	PWT 6.2 (common sample $N = 87$ )	WDI	PWT 6.1 (common sample $N = 86$ )	WDI
<i>Panel A. Proxy groups</i>				
Climate zones	<b>0.71</b>	<b>0.87</b>	0.14	<b>0.86</b>
Health	<b>0.70</b>	<b>0.98</b>	0.07	<b>0.99</b>
Rights	0.06	0.17	0.02	0.13
Inflation	0.03	0.02	0.04	0.02
Openness to trade	0.02	0.12	0.04	0.11
Natural resources	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.02
Age structure	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
Population growth	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
Size of the economy	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
War and conflict	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01
Education	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01
Size of government	0.01	0.02	0.11	0.06
Market access	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
<i>Panel B. Theory groups</i>				
Regional heterogeneity	<b>1.00</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.97</b>	<b>1.00</b>
Absolute geography	<b>0.58</b>	<b>0.97</b>	0.22	<b>0.97</b>
Demography	0.10	<b>0.96</b>	0.04	<b>0.97</b>
Neoclassical	0.07	<b>0.97</b>	0.01	<b>0.97</b>
Colonial history	0.04	0.02	0.09	0.02
Macroeconomic policy	0.04	0.00	0.01	0.01
War and conflict	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01
Terms of trade	0.02	0.04	0.04	0.03
Natural resources	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Religion	0.01	0.00	0.05	0.00
Institutions	0.01	0.04	0.01	0.03
Geography and trade (within countries and international)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Notes: The prior probability of each group is 0.5. Posterior inclusion probabilities higher than 0.5 are in **bold**.

Table 8 shows that combining dilution priors with Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001a) coefficient priors yields substantial disagreement for proxy groups. Both groups with posterior inclusion probabilities above 50 percent according to the WDI or the PWT 6.1, see a change in posterior inclusion probabilities of more than 40 percentage points when switching to WDI data. There is also disaccord for theory groups. Of the 4 groups with a posterior inclusion probability greater than 50 percent using either the PWT 6.2 or the WDI, 2 groups see a change of more than 40 percentage points when switching to WDI data (and a third group sees a change in the posterior inclusion probability of 39 percentage points). The coefficient priors of Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) yield less disagreement, especially for theory groups.<sup>22</sup>

<sup>22</sup> See Web Appendix Table D.3.2 and D.4.2 for the full results.

### C. A Monte Carlo Study

As another check on the sensitivity of agnostic Bayesian approaches, we perform a Monte Carlo study. We first generate 30 artificial datasets by randomly perturbing the 1960–1996 annualized growth rates in the PWT 6.1. To make sure this perturbation is minor compared to the margins of error in the available income data, we calibrate it to the smallest difference between available datasets (which happens to be the difference between the PWT 6.1 and the PWT 6.0).<sup>23</sup> We then draw from the calibrated distribution until we have generated 30 growth perturbations whose correlation with PWT 6.1 growth is between 97.5 percent and 98 percent. For comparison, the correlation of 1960–1996 growth rates between the PWT6.1 and the PWT6.2 is 93.5 percent, and the correlation of 1975–1996 growth rates between the PWT6.2 and the WDI is 96.2 percent. The construction of the perturbed growth rates is explained in more detail in the Appendix.

Applying Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller's (2004) approach to each of the 30 growth perturbations yields substantial variation in posterior inclusion probabilities. For example, of the 7 growth determinants with posterior inclusion probabilities above 50 percent according to PWT 6.1, more than 2 see a change in their posterior inclusion probability greater than 40 percentage points in an average perturbation.<sup>24</sup> Moreover, of the 67 candidate explanatory variables we consider, close to half emerge as growth determinants according to the Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004) criterion for some perturbation but not for another. Repeating the exercise applying the BMA approach with the benchmark priors of Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001a) instead of Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller's (2004) approach yields very similar results.<sup>25</sup>

## IV. Conclusions

The empirical growth literature has focused on regression models with few explanatory variables, which has raised the question whether findings are robust to variable selection. One way to answer this question is by using statistical approaches that incorporate prior uncertainty about model specification, as in Fernandez, Ley, and Steel (2001b) and Sala-i-Martin, Doppelhofer, and Miller (2004). This allows treating all explanatory variables symmetrically a priori—to be agnostic on what matters for growth a priori—and see whether some explanatory variables end up receiving strong support from the data.

We show that such approaches yield conclusions that are sensitive to minor errors in measurement and that turn out to differ substantially depending on the income

<sup>23</sup> This calibration is second best and could be much improved upon if we had a better understanding of the main sources of uncertainty and measurement error in the data underlying the PWT, or if we could isolate the effects of changes in the base year on PWT revisions.

<sup>24</sup> Formally, consider perturbation  $j$  and denote with  $z(j)$  the number of variables that see a change in their posterior inclusion probability greater than 40 percentage points when comparing PWT 6.1 with perturbation  $j$ . The average of  $z(j)$  across perturbations is 2.1.

<sup>25</sup> Ley and Steel (2009) perform a Monte Carlo experiment where they generate artificial samples by randomly dropping 15 percent of observations, and find posterior inclusion probabilities of some variables fluctuating between zero and almost certainty.

estimates being used. For example, the PWT 6.2 revision of the PWT 6.1 1960–1996 data leads to substantial changes regarding the role of government, international trade, demography, and geography. Overall, our findings suggest that margins of error in the available income data are too large for empirical analysis that is agnostic about model specification. It seems doubtful that the available international income data will tell an agnostic about the determinants of economic growth.

This finding puts growth empirics in a difficult situation. Levine and Renelt (1992) showed that when empirical work starts from a limited number of explanatory variables, results are likely to be nonrobust to model specification. We show that when the net is cast widely, results are likely to be nonrobust to minor errors in measurement.

#### APPENDIX: DESIGN OF THE MONTE CARLO STUDY

We generate 30 perturbed 1960–1996 growth series starting from PWT 6.1 GDP per capita growth. The perturbations are drawn from distributions that are calibrated to the difference between the PWT 6.0 and PWT 6.1 income data. The variance of these perturbations is taken to be decreasing in income per capita of a country. This reflects the observed heteroskedasticity of the measurement error; the income of richer countries is more exactly measured than that of poorer countries. In particular, we take the variance of the perturbations to be the fitted value from a regression of the squared differences between PWT 6.1 and PWT 6.0 growth rates on a constant and PWT 6.1 log income per capita in 1960 (see Table A1 below for the results). Fitted values of the 17 richest (in 1960) countries are negative, so we replace them with 0, (i.e., we do not perturb their growth rates). We draw from this distribution until we have generated 30 growth perturbations whose correlation with PWT 6.1 growth is between 0.975 and 0.979 (the interval is centered on 0.977, the correlation between PWT 6.1 and 6.0 growth rates). Summary statistics about perturbed data are reported in Table A2 below.

TABLE A1—ORDINARY LEAST-SQUARES REGRESSION OF SQUARES OF REVISIONS OF INCOME DATA (GROWTH AND LEVELS) ON THE LEVEL OF INCOME IN 1960

Constant	0.000160 (0.000048)
$\log y_{1960}^{\text{PWT6.1}}$	-0.000019 (0.000006)
$R^2$	0.10
Observations	84

Note: Standard errors are in parentheses.

TABLE A2—PERTURBED GROWTH RATE SERIES COMPARED TO PWT 6.1 1960–1996 GROWTH RATES

	Correlation with PWT 6.1 1960–1996 growth rates	$R^2$ of regression on constant and PWT 6.1 1960–1996 growth rates
Minimum	0.975	0.950
Average	0.977	0.954
Maximum	0.979	0.959

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