



HAL
open science

Productivity and public expenditure: a structural estimation for Vietnam's provinces

Phu Nguyen-Van, Thi Kim Cuong Pham, Duc-Anh Le

► **To cite this version:**

Phu Nguyen-Van, Thi Kim Cuong Pham, Duc-Anh Le. Productivity and public expenditure: a structural estimation for Vietnam's provinces. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Regional Science*, 2019, 3 (1), pp.95-120. 10.1007/s41685-018-0085-1 . hal-02481650

HAL Id: hal-02481650

<https://hal.univ-lorraine.fr/hal-02481650v1>

Submitted on 6 Sep 2021

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Productivity and public expenditure: A structural estimation for Vietnam's provinces

Phu Nguyen-Van, Thi Kim Cuong Pham, Duc-Anh Le

Abstract

We propose a structural approach to investigate total factor productivity (TFP) and economic growth of 58 provinces and municipalities of Vietnam (known as one of the most dynamic emerging economies in the last few years). The analysis is applied to the provincial data that are available to us for the period 2000-2007. TFP is composed of three components: an autonomous technological change, an observed deterministic part depending on external factors, and an unobserved stochastic part. Estimation results do not show any evidence regarding the impacts of national and local public spending on TFP and economic growth of Vietnam's provinces. On the contrary, human capital and industry share (compared to shares of agriculture and services) significantly increase the provincial TFP, helping to explain the cross-province differences in terms of productivity. Finally, TFP of Vietnam's provinces does not converge in the long run as it displays a polarization feature around two main groups of provinces, a large group with low TFP levels and a much smaller group with high TFP levels. This bipolar pattern of TFP distribution supports the competitiveness disparity among the Vietnam's provinces.

Keywords: National public expenditure; Local public expenditure; Human capital; Sectoral shares; Total factor productivity; Vietnam's provinces

JEL Classification: C23; H50, H70, O40, P25

1 Introduction

Vietnam, a one-party communist country, initiated a vast economic reform program in 1986 (known as ‘Doi Moi’ in Vietnamese) to transform its planned economy into a socialist-oriented market economy. Since then, the Vietnam’s economy has been recognized as one of the most dynamic emerging economy in the world. It has a long lasting and rapid growth over the last three decades. In this context, two major issues have intrigued both academic researchers and policy observers.

One the one hand, the public sector always keeps an utmost importance during the industrialization and modernization of the Vietnam’s economy. Public expenditure at the national and local levels, regardless of its categories (investment, education spending, health spending, etc.), is considered as a key factor for this economic take-off. This feature seems go to the opposite direction of the Washington Consensus which recommended several countries (in particular in Latin America and Africa in the 80s) to implement a higher deregulation and a rapid privatization (Williamson, 1990). Regarding national and local public expenditure, Figure 1 displays the rising dynamics of national GDP and median values of provincial GDP over the period 2000-2007 (both in 2010 prices). Figure 2 displays the evolution of these series over the period 2000-2007. For local public spending, the plot shows the median values computed yearly for Vietnam’s provinces. National and local public expenditure (in terms of public investment, also in 2010 prices) in Vietnam also increases during the same period of observation.

One the other hand, the decentralization, one pillar of this reform devolving larger competencies and responsibilities to the provinces, implies a greater competition among provinces.¹ Although many State efforts have been made to correct economic disparity among provinces, the phenomenon still remains important. It is generally admitted that the locomotive of the Vietnamese economy is Ho Chi Minh City, its neighboring provinces, and in a lesser extent Da Nang and the capital Ha Noi. Concerning the competition between provinces, the Vietnam Provincial Competitiveness Index (PCI) has been constructed to measure and rank the economic governance at the provincial level in relation with private sector development (Malesky et al., 2015).² The top 5 provinces

¹Vietnam was consequently viewed as a relatively highly decentralized country (World Bank, 2014).

²The Vietnam Provincial Competitiveness Index is administered by the Vietnam Chamber of Commerce and Industry (VCCI) with support from the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID). It is built on the opinions of domestic non-state firms from all 63 provinces and foreign-invested ones operating in Vietnam. The PCI aims to assess and rank the provincial economic governance that can

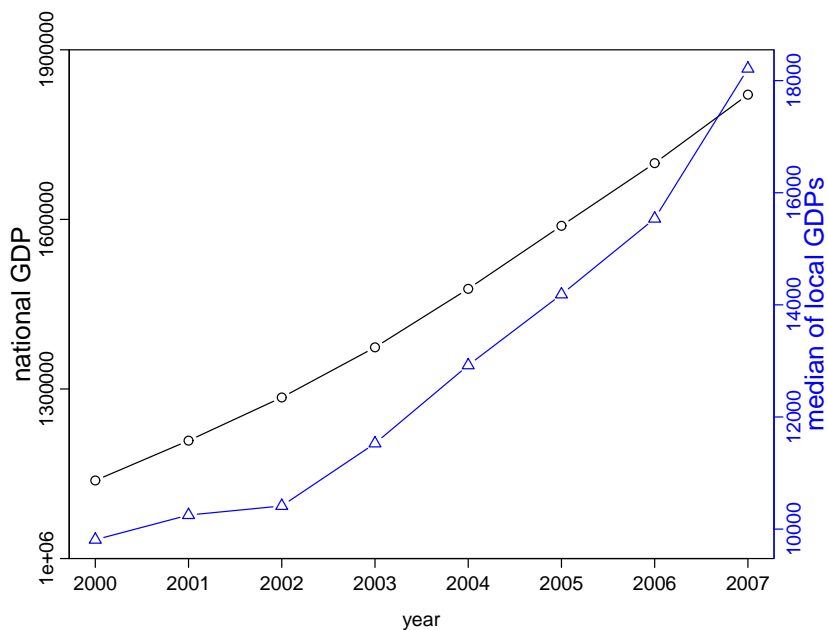


Figure 1: National GDP and median GDP of Vietnam’s provinces. The left y -axis corresponds to national GDP (\circ symbol). The right y -axis corresponds to the median local GDP (Δ symbol). Data sources: World Development Indicators (World Bank), General Statistics Office (Vietnam), and Ministry of Finance (Vietnam).

following this index in 2007 are Binh Duong (top), Da Nang, Vinh Long, Binh Dinh, and Lao Cai (Vung Tau and Ho Chi Minh City are respectively in the 8th and the 10th position) while the bottom five are Bac Lieu, Dien Bien, Cao Bang, Lai Chau and Dak Nong (the last position). The ranking in 2014 shows that the top ten provinces are Da Nang (top), Dong Thap, Lao Cai, Ho Chi Minh City, and Quang Ninh whereas the bottom five are Bac Kan, Ha Giang, Cao Bang, Lai Chau, and Dien Bien (all of them are at the northern border).

In terms of observed data on foreign direct investment at the provincial level, we note that the top five provinces which received the highest foreign direct investment in 2000 (measured in 2010 prices) are Ho Chi Minh City, Binh Duong, Bac Lieu, Dong Nai (all of them are in the South), and the capital Ha Noi (in the North) whereas the five provinces which received the least foreign investment are Ha Nam, Nam Dinh, Dien Bien (in the North), Dak Nong (Central Highlands), and Ninh Thuan (Center). In 2007, the top five are almost the same with the exception that Bac Lieu is replaced by Vung Tau (a neighboring province of Ho Chi Minh City). For the same year, the bottom five are Bac

affect private sector development.

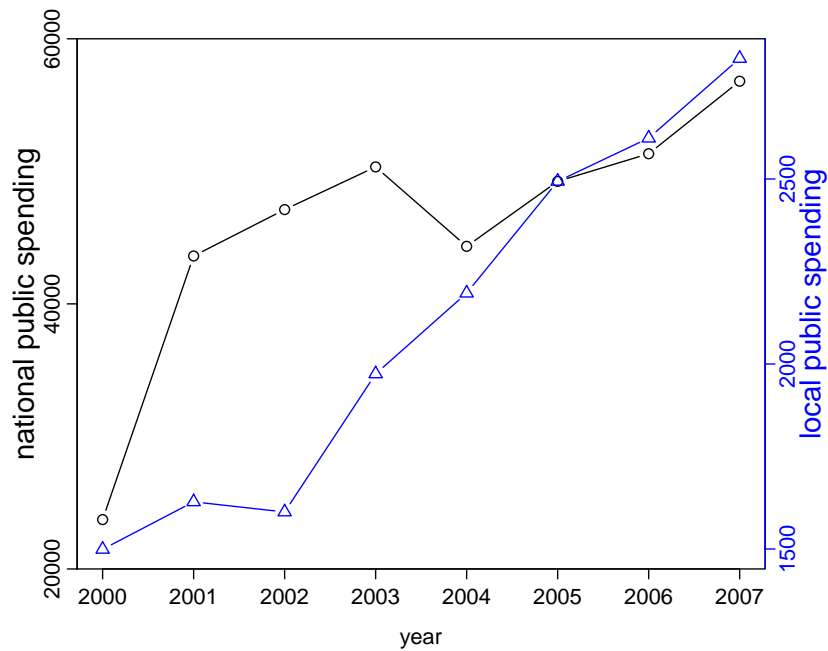


Figure 2: National and provincial public spending. The left y -axis corresponds to national public spending (\circ symbol). The right y -axis corresponds to median values of provincial public spending (Δ symbol). Data sources: World Development Indicators (World Bank), General Statistics Office (Vietnam), and Ministry of Finance (Vietnam).

Kan (in the North), Quang Binh (Center), Bac Lieu, Tra Vinh, and An Giang (all in the South).

It appears that only the provincial economic governance, represented by the PCI, does not entirely capture the dynamics of foreign direct investment in Vietnam's provinces. Comparing the lists of provinces above, we find that top provinces receiving FDI do not always coincide with top provinces having the highest PCI values. More precisely, the top five provinces receiving highest FDI amounts in 2007 (i.e. Ho Chi Minh City, Binh Duong, Vung Tau, Dong Nai, and Hanoi) are different from the top five provinces with highest PCI values in the same year (Binh Duong, Da Nang, Vinh Long, Binh Dinh, and Lao Cai). We hypothesize that an analysis of the distribution of provincial productivity can help us to explain this phenomenon. Indeed, we argue that an FDI firm, which wants to take advantage of its investment opportunities in a province, will not only look at the business environment for development of the private sector through the economic governance quality of the provincial authority (which is measured by the PCI), but also

at the productivity level of this province.³ Therefore, we believe that an analysis of the distribution of TFP will contribute to disentangle the discrepancy between PCI and FDI.

Our paper addresses therefore both the issues underlined above. On the one hand, we investigate whether the underlying dynamics of local and national public expenditure in Vietnam can have any impact on the local economies, in terms of growth and productivity. On another hand, we propose to explain economic disparity between Vietnam's provinces by productivity differential. Such a study has not been done so far, probably due to the lack of reliable data. We investigate the impact of public expenditure on provincial productivity by distinguishing two types of public expenditure at the national and the provincial levels. We estimate the role of provincial and national public expenditure in the production process using a data set of 58 Vietnam's provinces over the period 2000-2007. A second novel feature is that our model adapts the firm-level approach initiated by Olley and Pakes (1996), Levinsohn and Petrin (2003), and Akerberg et al. (2015) to regional data. Using this approach, we endogenize total factor productivity (TFP) by clearly distinguishing three components of it: (i) an autonomous technological change, (ii) a deterministic technological change depending on provincial external factors such as human capital and local economy's structure (shares of services, industry, and agriculture in the regional GDP), and (iii) an unobservable (stochastic) technological change. The novelty resides in the correlation between TFP and production input factors, contrary to most of existing studies where TFP is considered as the remaining part of the production function and independent of production inputs. Furthermore, based on the production function estimation, we compute the TFP of Vietnam's provinces and examine its dynamics in order to investigate the long-run distribution of TFP across 58 Vietnam's provinces. Finally, our results are checked by taking into account the endogeneity problem which may be caused by measurement errors in some explanatory variables, especially those measured at the regional level.

The main results may be summarized as follows. Firstly, among provincial inputs (physical capital, labor force and public expenditure), only labor force has a positive and significant effect on the output growth of Vietnam's provinces. Neither national nor local public expenditure has a significant effect on TFP. Secondly, our results show that the share of agriculture and that of services in provincial GDP have negative and significant effects on TFP of Vietnam's provinces (compared to industry share) whereas the literacy rate (which is a proxy for human capital) has a positive and significant

³This also motivates our approach which allows for the correlation between TFP and production input factors.

effect. This finding means that these external factors can explain the cross-provincial differences in terms of TFP and income. Finally, when analyzing the dynamics of TFP, we do not find any evidence of convergence between 58 Vietnam's provinces. The long-run distribution of TFP displays a divergence pattern corresponding to a bipolarization phenomenon where provinces are amassed into two groups, one with high TFP levels and another with low TFP levels. This bipolar feature provides a plausible explanation of the disparity described above regarding the competition between the Vietnam's provinces.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we present a short literature review on TFP, underlying the role of public expenditure. Section 3 presents our proposed structural modeling using a stochastic production function and the potential determinants of TFP for Vietnam's provinces. Section 4 presents data and the econometric specification. Estimation results are reported in Sections 5. The endogeneity issue related to measurement errors in some explanatory variables is discussed in Section 6. Section 7 concludes the study.

2 An overview on public expenditure, economic growth, and productivity

The question of whether public expenditure has a significant impact on production and economic growth has been the object of a great deal in the growth literature, notably from the seminal paper of Barro (1990). Barro postulated that for countries with a government size lower than an optimal threshold, public spending has a positive impact on growth, while for countries with a government size higher than that threshold, the impact is negative. Several empirical studies focused on this postulate and the results were mixed. For example, Chamorro-Narvaez (2012) considered the case of Latin America countries over the period 1975-2000 and concluded that neither the stock of government spending nor its current spending has any impact on the growth rate of GDP per capita. Bose et al.(2007) rather indicated a significant influence of capital spending. Using a data set of 15 developing countries, Ghosh and Gregoriou (2008) and Gregoriou and Ghosh (2009) suggested that the current component of public spending has a positive impact on growth whereas the capital component has a negative effect. This result confirms that of Devarajan et al. (1996) for a larger group of 43 countries over the period 1970-1990.

Several empirical studies underline the influence of public expenditure on TFP (see, e.g., Aschauer, 1989, Lynde and Richmond, 1993, Hansson and Henrekson, 1994, Munnell,

1990, Ramirez, 1998, Ascari and Di Cosmo, 2005, Destefanis and Sena, 2005, Bronzini and Piselli, 2009, etc.). The findings were divergent, depending on data, econometric methodology, public expenditure categories, etc. For instance, analyzing labor productivity of the Group of Seven industrialized countries (G-7) over the period 1960-1986, Aschauer (1989) stated that if the share of GDP devoted to public capital accumulation increases by 1%, then labor productivity increases by 0.73%. Lynde and Richmond (1993) explained the American TFP slowdown in the early 1970s by the decline in the public capital-labor ratio. The same argument was advanced by Munnell (1990). This author stressed that besides the fall in the public capital-labor ratio, other factors such as education, rising energy costs, research and development, spending cut, and diversion of funds to pollution abatement are parts of productivity decline in the United States in the early 1970s. Mastromarco and Zago (2012) also concluded that public infrastructure has no significant effect on TFP of Italian manufacturing firms. Moreover, public infrastructure of one region may have a positive effect on the neighboring regions' TFP. This geographical spillover (or externality) from public infrastructure was found across Italian regions during the period 1980-2001 by Bronzini and Piselli (2009).

Bayraktar and Moreno-Dodson (2012) underlined that there is no agreement on which components of public spending that can enhance growth. The impact of public spending through its components on economic growth is strong only for countries where there exist fast growth dynamics, a macroeconomic stability, and a strong openness to the private sector. In the same vein, Baldacci et al. (2008) indicated that with the presence of control for governance, both education and health spending promote higher growth in developing countries. Hansson and Henrekson (1994) analyzed the effects of different public expenditure categories in a sample of 14 OECD countries for the period 1970-1987. Not surprisingly, they found that consumption expenditure and transfers exert a negative influence while educational expenditure has a positive effect on the TFP growth. However, the authors did not find any significant effect of government investment on the TFP growth. This study did not find any nexus between government spending and the marginal productivity of capital and labor.

It should be noted that the impacts of local and national government expenditure on growth are not necessarily identical. The implementation of policies in infrastructure and human capital by the local government is more likely to foster economic growth. This may be explained by the fact that the central government's policies ignore the geographical difference between regions. Besides, the local government is supposed to be nearer to individual preferences (Oates, 1972, 1993). Empirical findings in Iimi (2005), Thieben

(2003), Enikolopo and Zhuravskaya (2007), among others, corroborated this observation. However, in a cross-country study for the period 1970-1989, Davoodi and Zou (1998) found the opposite result. These authors indicated that if the decentralization of expenditure (i.e. local expenditure) increases by 10%, it reduces economic growth by 0.7-0.8% in developing countries. Similarly, using a data on 23 developing countries and for the period 1974-1991, Woller and Philipps (1998) showed no evidence of a significant effect of local expenditure on growth.

At the regional level, Destefanis and Sena (2005) and Ascari and Di Cosmo (2005) also highlighted the role of infrastructure and public capital in explaining the TFP's heterogeneity between Italian regions. Indeed, Ascari and Di Cosmo (2005) concluded that the Italian regions's TFP is mainly determined by research activity, human capital, social capital, infrastructure, and agglomeration spillovers. For the period 1970-1998, Destefanis and Sena (2005) found a positive and significant effect of public capital on the evolution of TFP, particularly in the Italian Southern regions. In another study, Bronzini and Piselli (2009) highlighted significant effects of human capital and neighboring regions' public infrastructure on the long-run TFP across Italian regions over the period 1980-2001. This finding corresponds to the existence of a geographical spillover following which an Italian region's productivity benefits from the R&D activity and public infrastructure in its neighboring regions.⁴

TFP heterogeneity between regions may be found in studies using Chinese data (Chen et al., 2009, Li, 2009, Li and Liu, 2011, among others). For the case of China's regions, one of main element explaining this heterogeneity relates to technological change. Chen et al. (2009) analyzed the dynamics of China's productivity over the period 1996-2004 and found out an increase in regional productivity, which is explained by technological change or an adjustment in the production scale. Their analysis also underlined the persistence of productivity inequality between coastal and non-coastal regions. Li (2009) gave the same conclusion concerning the difference in regional productivity for the period 1984-2006. In addition, the author concluded that TFP growth does considerably contribute

⁴At the country level, the international transmission of R&D knowledge may be implemented through the channel of trade and its contribution to TFP growth has been found in several studies (Del Barrio-Castro et al., 2002, Madsen, 2007, etc.). The underlying idea is that one economy's TFP depends on its R&D activity and R&D of foreign economies that spill over into the world economy by mean of trade. Trade partners benefit from technological spillovers, which increase their TFP, leading to economic growth. In this regard, the magnitude of international R&D spillovers may depend on human capital of an economy.

to regional economic growth. Using a stochastic frontier model and a decomposition of productivity growth in three components (adjusted scale effect, technological progress and growth of technical efficiency), Li and Liu (2011) estimated the TFP growth of China's regions for the post-reform period (i.e. after 1978). As in Chen et al. (2009), the authors indicated that the major determinant of the TFP growth is technological progress. They recommended the use of a productive investment policy promoting embodied technological change in order to sustain the China's post-reform economy.

Regarding the Vietnam's regions, empirical studies on the relationship between government expenditure, growth and productivity are rare. This is probably due to the lack of reliable data. Anh (2008) analyzed the effects of different components of government expenditure on economic growth for the period 2001-2005. The author found that investment expenditure has a positive impact on economic growth while current expenditure (such as salary, administration, culture and information, etc.) has no significant impact on economic growth. Nguyen and Giang (2008) indicated that TFP of Vietnam's economy during the period 1985-2006 was driven by 45.8% by capital, 34.5% by labor, and 19.7% by technological progress. The authors also found that the productivity growth rates of industry, agriculture, and services sectors are 6.3%, 1.6%, and -4.7%, respectively. In a recent analysis, Nguyen et al. (2015) applied a spatial econometric approach to investigate the dynamics of industrial labor productivity among 60 provinces over the period 1998-2011. The result showed that the spatial dependence among regions, i.e. labor productivity in a province depends on neighboring regions' productivity, affects the labor productivity convergence.

In the next section, we present a structural econometric model to investigate the determinants of output growth and TFP of Vietnam's regions.

3 A model for productivity of Vietnam's provinces

3.1 Production function

We consider the following stochastic production function of province i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, N$) at year t ($t = 1, 2, \dots, T$):

$$Y_{it} = A_{it}K_{it}^{\alpha}L_{it}^{\beta}G_{it}^{\gamma}\tilde{G}_t^{\theta}\exp(\varepsilon_{it}). \quad (1)$$

where Y_{it} , A_{it} , K_{it} , L_{it} , G_{it} are production output, technological level (or TFP), local private capital, local labor, and local government expenditure, respectively. \tilde{G}_t is national

public expenditure corresponding to a positive externality in the province's production. The error terms ε_{it} represent the unobserved random residuals associated to the production process. Coefficients α , β , and γ correspond to output elasticities of local production factors. Moreover, we do not assume that $\alpha + \beta + \gamma = 1$, i.e. there is not necessarily a constant returns to scale production function.

For local and national public expenditure, we only consider public investment spending (or productive spending), which include (national and provincial) expenditure on roads, highways, airports, etc. that directly relate to the production process. We remark that national public spending may be subject to congestion as it is nonexclusive, but partially nonrival. Hence, we can write \tilde{G}_t as:

$$\tilde{G}_t = \frac{G_t}{K_t^\varphi L_t^\psi}, \quad (2)$$

where K_t^φ and L_t^ψ represent congestion linked to the use of stock of physical capital and labor force at the national level. If $\varphi = \psi = 0$ there is no congestion. In other words, the parameters φ and ψ represent the degree of nonrivalry of national public spending.

The technological level or TFP A_{it} is endogenous and defined by

$$A_{it} = A_0 \exp(\lambda t + Z'_{it}\eta + \omega_{it}). \quad (3)$$

In this formulation, A_0 is a constant technological level, λt represents autonomous technological change, and $Z'_{it}\eta$ corresponds to observed factors that can impact the TFP. For instance, in the context of our data, Z_{it} includes provincial literacy rate as a measure of human capital and the shares of agriculture and services in provincial production (the industry share is considered the reference category). The remaining term, ω_{it} , is the unobserved stochastic TFP.

By plugging equations (3) and (2) into equation (1), we obtain the production function of each province as follows:

$$Y_{it} = A_0 \exp(\lambda t + Z'_{it}\eta + \omega_{it}) \frac{G_t^\theta}{K_t^{-\theta\varphi} L_t^{-\theta\psi}} K_{it}^\alpha L_{it}^\beta G_{it}^\gamma \exp(\varepsilon_{it}). \quad (4)$$

Taking logarithmic transformation of equation (4) gives the following expression

$$y_{it} = a_0 + \lambda t + Z'_{it}\eta + \omega_{it} + b_K k_{it} + b_L l_{it} + \theta g_{it} + \alpha k_{it} + \beta l_{it} + \gamma g_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (5)$$

where the lowercase letters represent variables measured in logs, i.e. $x \equiv \ln X$ with $X = Y_{it}, K_{it}, L_{it}, G_{it}, K_t, L_t, G_t$. Furthermore, the coefficients of the model are $a_0 \equiv \ln A_0$, $b_K \equiv -\theta\varphi$, and $b_L \equiv -\theta\psi$.

It should be noted that at the local level, we can observe the quantities of output and inputs $(y_{it}, k_{it}, l_{it}, g_{it})$, the quantities of variables at the national level (k_t, l_t, g_t) , the autonomous technological change (relative to t), and the deterministic technological change (relative to Z_{it}). However, we cannot observe the stochastic productivity, ω_{it} . Without any restriction on the productivity level ω_{it} , the model cannot be estimated. Hence, in order to have a tractable model, we assume that ω_{it} is a non-specified function of input choices at the local level, i.e. $\omega_{it} = m(k_{it}, l_{it}, g_{it})$. It results that ω_{it} is not separately identified from $\alpha k_{it} + \beta l_{it} + \gamma g_{it}$. Moreover, because the nonparametric nature of m , i.e. it is identified up to an additive constant, the regression intercept a_0 is subsumed into m . Equation (5) can be rewritten as

$$y_{it} = \lambda t + Z'_{it}\eta + \Psi(k_{it}, l_{it}, g_{it}) + b_K k_t + b_L l_t + \theta g_t + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (6)$$

where $\Psi(k_{it}, l_{it}, g_{it}) \equiv m(k_{it}, l_{it}, g_{it}) + \alpha k_{it} + \beta l_{it} + \gamma g_{it}$.

Estimation of the model can rely on the method developed by Olley and Pakes (1996), Levinsohn and Petrin (2003), and Akerberg et al. (2015), which can be briefly sketched as follows.⁵ The first step is to estimate λ , η , b_K , b_L , θ , and function Ψ by using the Robinson's (1988) method. When estimates for b_K , b_L and θ are available, φ and ψ can be estimated by the delta method.

In the second step, it is assumed that ω_{it} follows a first-order Markov chain, i.e.

$$\omega_{it} = E(\omega_{it} | \omega_{i,t-1}) + \zeta_{it}, \quad (7)$$

where ζ_{it} is the white noise. By using a first set of estimates for α , β , and γ , denoted as α^0 , β^0 , and γ^0 , we can compute $\tilde{\omega}_{it} = \hat{\Psi}(k_{it}, l_{it}, g_{it}) - (\alpha_K^0 k_{it} + \beta_L^0 l_{it} + \gamma^0 g_{it})$, which can be used in the nonparametric regression $E(\tilde{\omega}_{it} | \tilde{\omega}_{i,t-1})$. The next operation is to compute the innovation term $\tilde{\zeta}_{it}(\alpha_K^0, \beta_L^0, \gamma^0) = \tilde{\omega}_{it} - E(\tilde{\omega}_{it} | \tilde{\omega}_{i,t-1})$, which evidently depends on $(\alpha^0, \beta^0, \gamma^0)$. Then, we obtain the following moment conditions

$$E \left[\tilde{\zeta}_{it}(\alpha^0, \beta^0, \gamma^0) \begin{pmatrix} k_{i,t-1} \\ l_{i,t-1} \\ g_{i,t-1} \end{pmatrix} \right] = 0. \quad (8)$$

Finally, the optimization over $(\alpha^0, \beta^0, \gamma^0)$ provides a GMM estimation for (α, β, γ) .⁶

⁵See also van Beveren (2012) for a literature survey.

⁶We can also use the moment conditions

$$E \left[(\tilde{\zeta}_{it} + \tilde{\varepsilon}_{it}) \begin{pmatrix} k_{i,t-1} \\ l_{i,t-1} \\ g_{i,t-1} \end{pmatrix} \right] = 0$$

The bootstrap procedure can be employed to compute the standard errors for all the parameters of the model.

After obtaining the estimates of the model, TFP (net of autonomous technological change λt and deterministic factors $Z'\eta$) of province i at year t can be computed as (from equation (6)):

$$\hat{\omega}_{it} = y_{it} - \hat{\lambda}t - Z'_{it}\hat{\eta} - \hat{b}_K k_t - \hat{b}_L l_t - \hat{\theta}g_t - \hat{\alpha}k_{it} - \hat{\beta}l_{it} - \hat{\gamma}g_{it}. \quad (9)$$

3.2 Dynamics of total factor productivity

With the series on TFP in hands, we can analyze its distribution dynamics in order to shed light on the convergence/divergence process. The main question is whether a convergence in terms of TFP has taken place among 58 Vietnam's provinces and municipalities during the period of study.

Let $f_t(\omega_{it})$ and $f_{t-1}(\omega_{i,t-1})$ denote the distribution of TFP at time t and $t-1$, respectively. We assume that the process describing the evolution of the TFP distribution is time-invariant and of first-order in between t and $t-1$ (see Johnson, 2000, 2005), hence the relationship between the two distributions is given by

$$f_t(\omega_{it}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(\omega_{it} | \omega_{i,t-1}) f_{t-1}(\omega_{i,t-1}) d\omega_{i,t-1}, \quad (10)$$

where $f(\omega_{it} | \omega_{i,t-1})$ is the conditional density of current TFP given past values of TFP.

It should be noted that $f(\omega_{it} | \omega_{i,t-1})$ represents the distribution dynamics of TFP between $t-1$ and t . This function represents the continuous version of the transition matrix in a discrete space. Let $f_{t-1,t}(\omega_{i,t-1}, \omega_{it})$ denote the joint distribution of $(\omega_{i,t-1}, \omega_{it})$. The joint distribution at point (x^0, y^0) can be estimated by

$$f_{t-1,t}(x^0, y^0) = \frac{1}{NTh^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^T K\left(\frac{x^0 - \omega_{i,t-1}}{h}\right) K\left(\frac{y^0 - \omega_{it}}{h}\right), \quad (11)$$

where $K(\cdot)$ is the univariate kernel function and h is the bandwidth. We use the Gaussian kernel and the optimal bandwidth proposed by Silverman (1986).

We obtain $f_{t-1}(\omega_{i,t-1}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_{t-1,t}(\omega_{i,t-1}, \omega_{it}) d\omega_{it}$ and

$$f(\omega_{it} | \omega_{i,t-1}) = \frac{f_{t-1,t}(\omega_{i,t-1}, \omega_{it})}{f_{t-1}(\omega_{i,t-1})}. \quad (12)$$

because equation (6) becomes

$$y_{it} = \hat{\lambda}t + Z'_{it}\hat{\eta} + \hat{a}_K k_t + \hat{a}_L l_t + \hat{\theta}g_t + \alpha_K k_{it} + \beta_L l_{it} + \gamma g_{it} + E(\tilde{\omega}_{it} | \tilde{\omega}_{i,t-1}) + \tilde{\zeta}_{it} + \tilde{\varepsilon}_{it},$$

where estimates were plugged.

By using the conditional distribution $f(\omega_{it} | \omega_{i,t-1})$, we can calculate the ergodic density for TFP as

$$f_{\infty}(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(\omega_{it} | \omega_{i,t-1}) f_{\infty}(\omega) d\omega. \quad (13)$$

This density represents the long-run behavior of provincial productivity.

4 Data

The data used in this paper cover 58 provinces and municipalities of Vietnam and are provided by the General Statistics Office of Vietnam (GSO).⁷ They include series at the provincial level such as provincial GDP, provincial public expenditure, provincial total investment in physical capital, provincial labor force, shares of agriculture, services and industry in provincial GDP, and ratio of people able to read and write in provincial population. All these series, except ratio of people able to read and write, cover the period 2000-2007. The literacy rate is only observed in 2006. This database for a period of 8 years is so far the best we can obtain at the provincial level.⁸

Data at the national level are extracted from the World Development Indicators database of the World Bank. They correspond to GDP, national public expenditure, gross fixed capital formation, national labor force, GDP deflator and gross national expenditure deflator for the period 2000-2007. Table 1 reports the list of 58 provinces and municipalities. Table 2 summarizes the definition and the sources of variables used in estimations. Table 3 reports some main statistics for the series employed in this study.

Concerning variables at the provincial level, there are two types of investment in physical capital: private domestic investment (PI) and foreign direct investment (FDI). These variables are expressed in billion VND and in 2010 prices using the GDP deflator series available from the WDI database. Then, we use the perpetual inventory method (PIM) to compute the series on physical capital stock for each type of investment, i.e. K_{it}^{PI} and K_{it}^{FDI} .⁹ Finally, the stock of total private physical capital at the local level is

⁷See Appendix A for a map of Vietnam's provinces and municipalities.

⁸Official data at the provincial level, usually provided by the General Statistics Office for a longer period are not available. Vietnam has in total 58 provinces and 5 municipalities. However, five provinces (Ha Giang, Hau Giang, Kon Tum, Dong Thap, and Tra Vinh) were excluded from our data sample due to missing data. Ha Tay was merged into the capital Ha Noi in 2008.

⁹The equation characterizing the PIM is $K_{it}^{\tau} = S_{it}^{\tau} + (1 - \delta)K_{i,t-1}^{\tau}$ where S_{it}^{τ} is the flow of investment of type τ ($\tau = PI$ or FDI), K_{it}^{τ} is the capital stock of type τ at time t , and δ is the depreciation rate. The initial capital stock is given by $K_{i0}^{\tau} = S_{i0}^{\tau} / (g_S^{\tau} + \delta)$ where g_S^{τ} is the average geometric growth rate of investment of type τ for the period of study. Usually the depreciation rate is set between 4% and 6%. In

Table 1: List of provinces and municipalities

Name	Period	Name	Period	Name	Period
Ha Noi*	2000-2007	Hai Phong*	2000-2007	Vinh Phuc	2000-2007
Bac Ninh	2000-2007	Hai Duong	2000-2007	Hung Yen	2000-2007
Nam Dinh	2000-2007	Ninh Binh	2003-2007	Ben Tre	2000-2007
Lao Cai	2000-2007	Bac Kan	2000-2007	Lang Son	2000-2007
Yen Bai	2000-2007	Thai Nguyen	2000-2007	Phu Tho	2000-2007
Quang Ninh	2000-2007	Lai Chau	2000-2007	Dien Bien	2000-2007
Hoa Binh	2001-2007	Thanh Hoa	2000-2007	Nghe An	2000-2007
Quang Binh	2005-2007	Quang Tri	2000-2007	Thua Thien-Hue	2005-2007
Quang Nam	2000-2007	Quang Ngai	2000-2007	Binh Dinh	2000-2007
Khanh Hoa	2000-2007	Dong Nai	2000-2007	Gia Lai	2000-2007
Dak Nong	2000-2007	Lam Dong	2000-2007	Ho Chi Minh City*	2000-2007
Binh Phuoc	2000-2007	Tay Ninh	2000-2007	Binh Duong	2001-2007
Binh Thuan	2000-2007	Ba Ria-Vung Tau	2000-2007	Long An	2000-2007
An Giang	2000-2007	Tien Giang	2000-2007	Vinh Long	2000-2007
Kien Giang	2000-2007	Can Tho*	2000-2007	Ninh Thuan	2000-2007
Soc Trang	2005-2007	Bac Lieu	2002-2007	Ca Mau	2000-2007
Ha Tay	2000-2007	Ha Nam	2000-2007	Cao Bang	2000-2007
Tuyen Quang	2005-2007	Bac Giang	2000-2007	Son La	2000-2007
Ha Tinh	2000-2007	Da Nang*	2000-2007	Phu Yen	2000-2007
Dak Lak	2000-2007				

Notes. There are 53 provinces and 5 municipalities (stared).

Table 2: Variable definition

Variable	Description	Source*
National level		
K_t	National physical capital stock, 2010 prices, billion VND	our calculations
L_t	National labor force, thousands people	WDI
G_t	National public expenditure, 2010 prices, billion VND	MOF
Local level		
Y_{it}	Provincial GDP, 2010 prices, billion VND	GSO
K_{it}	Provincial physical capital stock, 2010 prices, billion VND	our calculations
L_{it}	Provincial labor force, thousands people	GSO
G_{it}	Provincial public expenditure, 2010 prices, billion VND	GSO
S_{it}^{PI}	Private investment, 2010 prices, billion VND	GSO
S_{it}^{FDI}	Foreign direct investment, 2010 prices, billion VND	GSO
Ind_{it}	Share of industry in provincial GDP (reference)	GSO
Agr_{it}	Share of agriculture in provincial GDP	GSO
Ser_{it}	Share of service in provincial GDP	GSO
H_i	Ratio of people able to read and write in population, 2006	GSO

Notes. * WDI: World Development Indicators, MOF: Vietnam Ministry of Finance, GSO: General Statistics Office.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics

Variable	Mean	Std.Dev.	Min.	Max.
K_t	584223.51	198453.55	310483.31	919427.91
L_t	44950.95	2241.10	41324.12	48166.10
G_t	46366.11	8921.28	23725.57	56800.15
Y_{it}	23121.40	40988.93	1155.76	334111.21
K_{it}	10765.26	198453.55	170.95	177912.82
L_{it}	685.27	534.60	47.8	3340.03
G_{it}	3736.54	5323.40	53.25	42116.90
S_{it}^{PI}	3718.66	7388.06	20.94	62899.12
S_{it}^{FDI}	1457.61	3754.54	0	22929.91
Ind_{it}	0.30	0.14	0.06	0.91
Agr_{it}	0.36	0.16	0.01	0.75
Ser_{it}	0.33	0.08	0.07	0.59
H_i	0.92	0.07	0.60	0.98

Notes. Number of observations: 425 (58 provinces and municipalities, period 2000-2007).

given by the sum between these two stocks of capital, i.e. $K_{it} = K_{it}^{PI} + K_{it}^{FDI}$.

Concerning public expenditure at the national and the provincial levels (G_t and G_{it}), we use data on public investment expenditure which is often considered a productive spending. These variables and provincial GDP (Y_{it}) are measured in billion VND and in 2010 prices (using the GDP deflator). We observe that the data for some variables at the provincial level such as domestic and FDI investments (S_{it}^{PI} and S_{it}^{FDI}), provincial GDP, provincial public spending, and provincial labor force (L_{it}) are missing in 2004. Thus, we compute the average geometric growth rates of these series to interpolate the missing values for each of the 58 provinces and municipalities included in the data sample.¹⁰ This interpolation aims to complete the data. However, this operation may exacerbate the potential measurement error relative to data collection and affects the quality of estimation. This issue will be addressed in Section 5.

Regarding variables at the national level, the stock of national physical capital K_t is defined as the sum of stocks of local physical capital, i.e. $K_t = \sum_i^N K_{it}$. Data on national labor force are obtained from the WDI and are expressed in thousands of people. For national public spending G_t , we use the series on central government expenditure on investment from the Vietnam Ministry of Finance (MOF) database and compute its corresponding values in 2010 prices (in billion VND) using the GDP deflator (from the WDI).

The data at the local level show a huge heterogeneity among 58 provinces considered. Three most dynamic regions in the country can be identified: (i) Ho Chi Minh City and the neighboring provinces in Southern Vietnam, (ii) Da Nang in the Center, and (iii) Ha Noi (the capital) and Hai Phong in the North. The data on local production include Lai Chau (one of the poorest provinces, located at the Vietnam-China border) which only produced 1155.76 billion VND in 2000 (the smallest value in the sample) and Ho Chi Minh City which produced an amount of about 290 times higher, i.e. 334111.21 billion VND in 2007. It is also Ho Chi Minh City which has the maximum value of local physical capital stock (i.e. 177912.82 billion VND in 2007), more than one thousand times higher than the physical capital stock of Bac Giang (another province closed to the northern border

this paper, changing δ from 4% to 6% does not modify the qualitative results.

¹⁰Let g_x denote the average geometric growth rate of a series x . Hence, the relation between the initial value (period 0) and the value of this variable at time t is $x_t = x_0(1 + g_x)^t$. Thus, the average growth rate of x between 0 and t is approximately calculated as $g_x = \ln(x_t/x_0)/t$. Equivalently, this growth rate can be computed as $g_x = \exp(b) - 1$ where b is the slope coefficient of the ordinary least squares regression $\ln x_t = a + bt + v_t$, $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$.

with China, only 170.95 billion VND in 2000). Ho Chi Minh City, Binh Duong, Dong Nai, Vung Tau, and Ha Noi are among the provinces which attract the highest amounts of foreign direct investment. Lai Chau is one of the provinces that cumulate handicaps, including the lowest amount of local public spending and the lowest ratio of people who are able to read and write (60%). On the contrary, Ha Noi has the highest amount of local public spending and the highest value of human capital (98% of population are able to read and write). The capital also possesses the most important labor force (more than 3.34 million people).

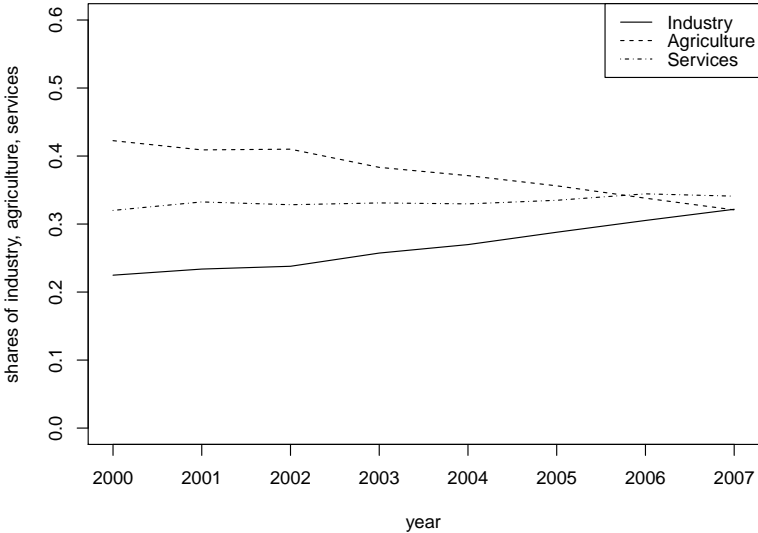


Figure 3: Evolution of shares of industry, agriculture, and services in provincial GDP. The curves correspond to the yearly median values. Source: General Statistic Office of Vietnam, Ministry of Finance, and the World Bank.

Concerning the economic structure of the country, Figure 3 shows that industry is the most dynamic sector compared to agriculture and services. Indeed, the industry share in GDP increases more rapidly than the services share while the agriculture share decreases over the period of study. The discrepancy among the three sectors observed at the beginning of the sample (the median values of these shares vary between 30%-36% in 2000) vanishes over time, leading to an almost equal distribution in 2007 (the median values for each of the three shares are around 32%-34%). Table 3 completes the picture. We observe that industry share in the local GDP is highest in Vung Tau (91%) while it attains its lowest value in Dak Nong (only 6%), which is also the most agricultural province (its agriculture share in GDP is about 75%). Ha Noi has the highest services share in its

local economy (about 59%). The annual growth rates over the period of study for these sectoral shares are respectively -0.034 (agriculture), 0.008 (services), and 0.045 (industry). In other words, industry is the most dynamic sector of the Vietnam’s economy. We can therefore expect that industrial activity would contribute more to provincial productivity compared to agriculture and services.

In the next section, we discuss the estimation results of our structural modeling which takes into account the heterogeneity described above to address the issue of productivity of Vietnam’s provinces.

5 Results and discussion

We aim to estimate the production function as well as the three TFP components of 58 Vietnam’s provinces and municipalities. We first present the estimation of the model, including the coefficients associated to autonomous technological change (λ), deterministic term of technological change explained by the share of agriculture in provincial production (η_{Agr}), the share of service in provincial production (η_{Ser}), the literacy rate at the provincial level in 2006 (η_H), the effects of production inputs ($\alpha, \beta, \gamma, b_K, b_L, \gamma$), and the congestion effects related to national public spending (φ, ψ). Next, we compute the unobserved stochastic part of TFP, i.e. TFP net of autonomous technological change and deterministic factors, as shown by equation (9).

Estimation results are presented in the Table 4. We observe that among different production inputs, only local labor has a positive and significant effect on the provincial production. The estimated parameter associated to this variable shows that in response to a rise of 1% in labor force, the provincial output increases about at 0.8%. There is no evidence of significant impact of local and national public expenditure on provincial output. In other words, all government spending in investment during the period 2000-2007 are not effective in terms of provincial growth and productivity. This result might be explained by the lack of control for provincial governance as underlined by Bayraktar and Moreno-Dodson (2012) and Baldacci et al. (2008).¹¹ These author showed in their cross-country studies that the significant effect of public spending depends on the governance quality and macroeconomic stability.

Concerning the deterministic (observable) TFP, our findings shed light the role of agriculture and services shares in GDP, and human capital in explaining provincial differences

¹¹However, information on provincial governance is not available.

Table 4: Estimation results

Variable	Coefficient	Estimate	Bootstrap Std.Err.
<i>Production inputs</i>			
Provincial physical capital	α	-0.116	0.110
Provincial labor	β	0.819**	0.315
Provincial public spending	γ	-0.144	0.307
National physical capital	b_K	0.201	3.708
National labor	b_L	-10.922	20.441
National public spending	θ	-0.037	0.323
<i>Congestion effects</i>			
Capital related	φ	5.400	110.026
Labor related	ψ	-293.218	2598.676
<i>Determinants of TFP</i>			
Agricultural share	η_{Agr}	-0.894**	0.385
Services share	η_{Ser}	-2.019**	0.607
Human capital	η_H	1.365*	0.751
Time trend	λ	0.201	0.740

Notes. Number of observations: 425 (58 provinces and municipalities, period 2000-2007). Standard errors are obtained by bootstrap (99 replications). Significance levels: * 10%, **: 5%.

in terms of productivity and output. Indeed, it is shown that agriculture and services shares (compared to industry share which is the reference category) exert a negative influence on the TFP and output. This result is not surprising for industry is recognized as the most dynamic sector in the Vietnam's economy (see also Figure 3). Moreover, human capital (proxied by the literacy rate) has a positive and significant effect. This result is consistent with existing empirical works (for example, Ascari and Di Cosmo, 2005, and Bronzilli and Piselli, 2009, with data on Italian regions, and Lynde and Richmond (1993) with American data, etc.). Our estimation results suggest that the production process in Vietnam's provinces is essentially based on labor and human capital and that public spending (both at the local and national levels) are not effective during the period of study.

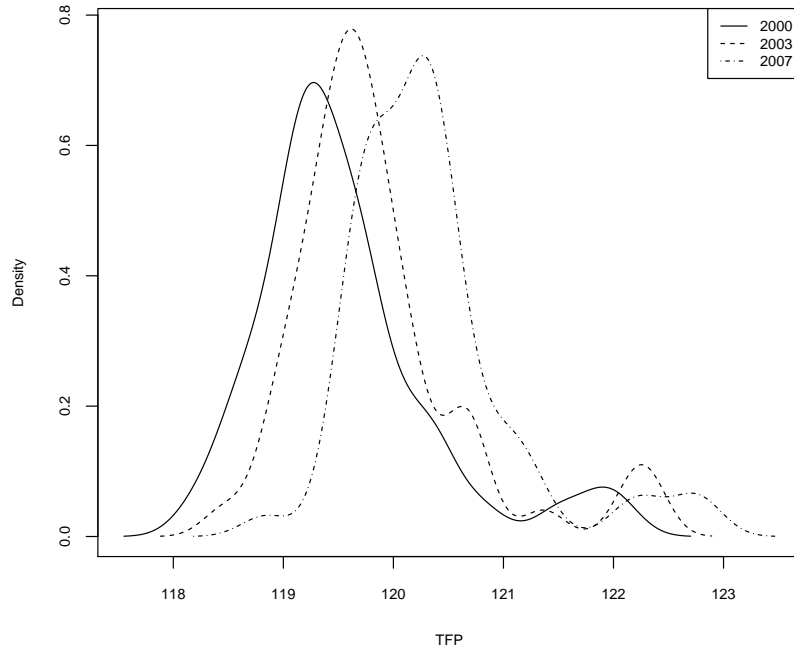


Figure 4: Distribution of the unobserved stochastic part of TFP (ω_{it}) in 2000, 2003, and 2007.

Provided the estimated coefficients of the model, we can obtain the series on TFP and analyze its distribution. Figure 4 displays the distribution of this component of TFP in 2000, 2003, 2007. We observe that provincial TFP increases over time thanks to a parallel movement of the curve to the right.

The growth rate of TFP is given by

$$\frac{\dot{A}_{it}}{A_{it}} = \lambda + \dot{Z}'_{it}\eta + \dot{\omega}_{it}. \quad (14)$$

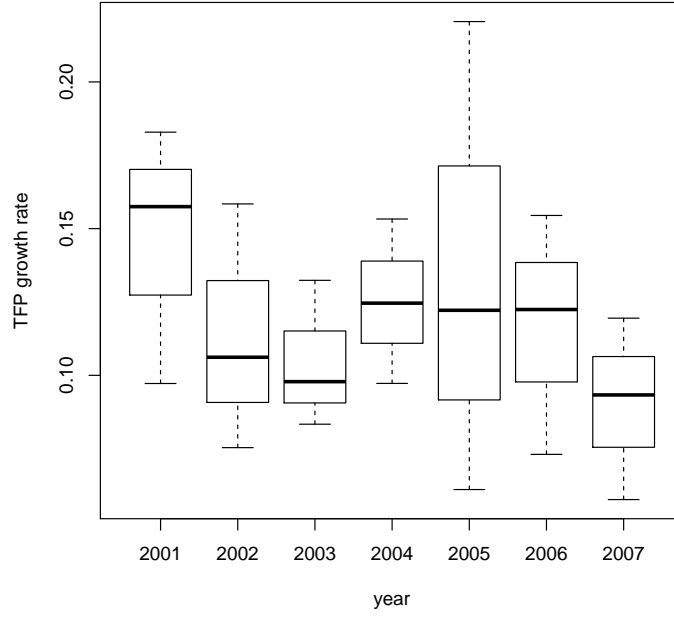


Figure 5: Growth rate of TFP related to the unobserved stochastic part, $\hat{\omega}_{it}$, period 2001-2007.

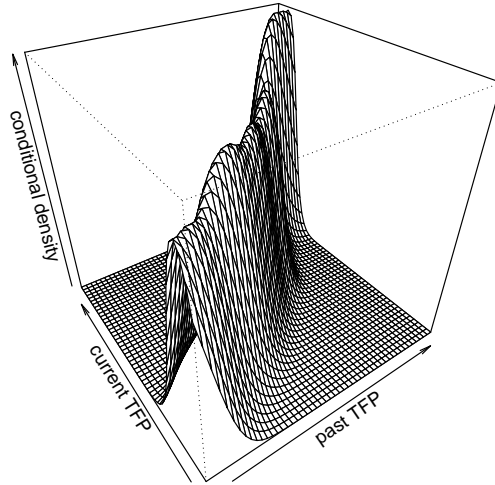


Figure 6: Surface of conditional density of stochastic TFP of Vietnam's provinces, $f(\text{current TFP} | \text{past TFP})$.

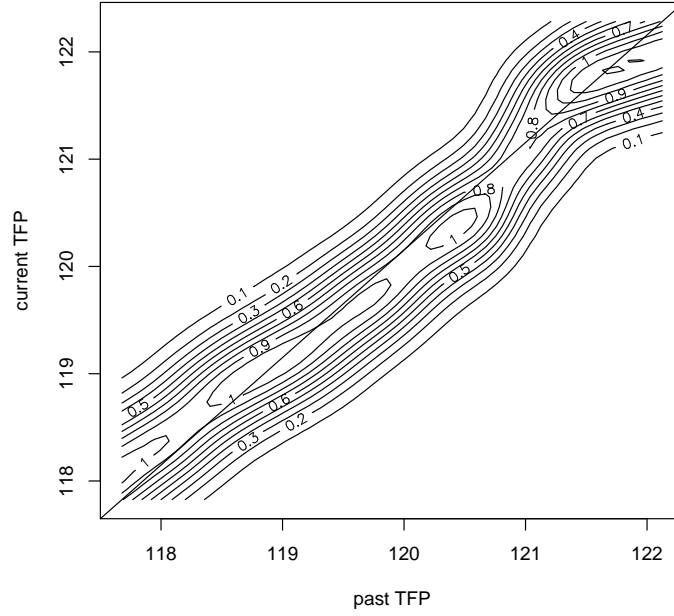


Figure 7: Contour plot of conditional density of stochastic TFP of Vietnam's provinces, $f(\text{current TFP} \mid \text{past TFP})$.

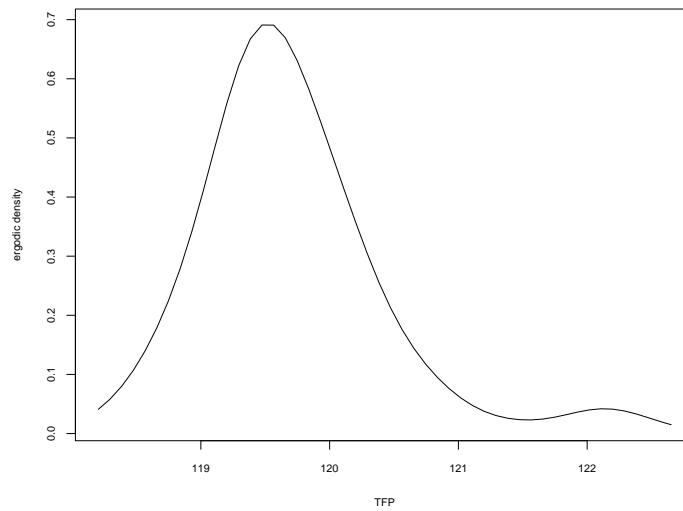


Figure 8: Ergodic distribution of stochastic TFP of Vietnam's provinces.

Hence, the variation of TFP comes from three components: a constant corresponding to autonomous technological change λ and two varying quantities, one is the variation of the observed deterministic component ($\dot{Z}'_{it}\eta$) while the other is the variation of the unobserved

stochastic component ($\dot{\omega}_{it}$).

As the autonomous and the deterministic parts are easily predictable (following the corresponding estimated parameters of λ and η), we only focus on the growth rate of TFP which is due the variation of the stochastic part, i.e. $\dot{\omega}_{it}$. The latter is displayed in Figure 5. Some remarks are in order. Firstly, the box sizes of different years are different as we have a unbalanced panel data. Secondly, the bold line indicates the median value of TFP growth rate. We observe that the growth rate of TFP due to the unobserved stochastic part during the period 2001-2007 has no clear evolution. Most of its values fall into the interval (0.05, 0.17). The median value of TFP growth rate is found between 0.1 and 0.15. These results represent then a big heterogeneity among the 58 provinces and municipalities.

Figure 6 represents the distribution dynamics of the stochastic TFP ω between two years, t and $t - 1$. It shows the conditional density of current TFP given past values of TFP. The conditional density for 58 provinces and municipalities shows a multimodal distribution and contour plot in Figure 7 makes clear this observation by giving three peaks around the 45° line. Two peaks on the 45° line (with low TFP values for the first one and with high TFP values for the second one) and one peak below the 45° line. This result indicates a weak decrease of TFP over time for provinces with medium TFP values. However, regions with a low or high TFP value stay at their initial position.

In the long run, the ergodic distribution of stochastic TFP computed following equation (13), presented in Figure 8, illustrates a bi-modal pattern indicating the existence of two groups of provincial TFP – a large group with a low TFP and a much smaller one with a high TFP. This result underpins the lack of convergence in the long run, characterized by a polarization phenomenon, among the 58 Vietnam’s provinces and municipalities. We think that the bipolar pattern of TFP distribution can help to explain the disparity in terms of competitiveness among the Vietnam’s regions. Indeed, the high TFP group (TFP higher than 121.5) includes the only four provinces and municipalities: Ho Chi Minh City, Khanh Hoa, Vung Tau (two neighboring provinces of Ho Chi Minh City), and the capital Ha Noi. Moreover, if we look at the upper tail of the low TFP group, i.e. for TFP comprised between 121 and 121.5, it corresponds to four additional provinces: Can Tho, Dong Nai (two provinces very close to Ho Chi Minh City), and Hai Phong (a neighboring province of Ha Noi), and Da Nang (a city in the Center). Binh Duong is also very close to this group as its TFP reaches an amount of 120.6. These provinces and cities have the highest productivities in the sample. They are also among the most attractive provinces in terms of FDI and competitiveness following the PCI criterion (see

Malesky et al., 2015). By comparing the long-run distribution (Figure 8) with the current situation of provincial TFP (Figure 4), we observe that despite its bipolar pattern the long-run distribution (which has a lower peak corresponding to high TFP values than the current distribution) appears to be more homogenous than the current distribution. This observation underlines some improvement in provincial TFP distribution, i.e. its disparity is reduced in the long run.¹²

6 Measurement errors

Data at the provincial level may contain unobserved measurement errors which can alter the quality of estimation. While measurement errors relative to local GDP y_{it} are not a serious problem (as they are automatically plugged into the regression residual terms), measurement errors concerning local capital stock k_{it} , local labor force l_{it} and local public spending g_{it} can induce important consequences with regard to the quality of parameter estimates. Indeed, in this situation, the residual terms in equation (6) becomes correlated with regressors, resulting in an inconsistent estimation for λ , η , b_K , b_L , θ , and function Ψ obtained at the first step.¹³

To deal with this issue, we propose to modify the estimation procedure applied to equation (6). We suppose that each of the three variables k_{it} , l_{it} , g_{it} has an instrument set w_{it}^x so that we can write

$$x_{it} = \sum_j^J \pi_j(w_{jit}^x) + u_{it}^x, \quad x_{it} = k_{it}, l_{it}, g_{it}, \quad (15)$$

where π_j is the univariate nonparametric function for the j th component of the set of instruments w_{it}^x for x_{it} . In the context of our data, we think that a reasonable instrument set for x_{it} should correspond to its lagged value ($x_{i,t-1}$) and other local variables, including Z_{it} in equation (6).¹⁴ The additive structure here allows us to keep the flexibility of nonparametric modeling and to avoid the curse of dimensionality when a nonparametric function contains a high number of arguments.

The model with measurement errors in local variables is composed of equation (6) and equations (15) and the assumptions $E(\varepsilon_{it} | u_{it}^x, w_{it}^x) = E(\varepsilon_{it} | u_{it}^x) \neq 0$ and $E(u_{it}^x | w_{it}^x) = 0$.

¹²We are thankful to an anonymous reviewer for pointing out this issue.

¹³More precisely, if $x_{it} = x_{it}^* + \varepsilon_{it}^x$ where x_{it}^* is the unobserved true value of x_{it} , $x_{it} = k_{it}, l_{it}, g_{it}$, and ε_{it}^x is the corresponding measurement error, the new residual terms of equation (6) becomes $\vartheta_{it} \equiv \varepsilon_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}^k + \varepsilon_{it}^l + \varepsilon_{it}^g$. Hence, $E(\vartheta_{it} | k_{it}, l_{it}, g_{it}) = E(\vartheta_{it} | k_{it}^* + \varepsilon_{it}^k, l_{it}^* + \varepsilon_{it}^l, g_{it}^* + \varepsilon_{it}^g) = E(\vartheta_{it} | \varepsilon_{it}^k, \varepsilon_{it}^l, \varepsilon_{it}^g) \neq 0$.

¹⁴Using lagged values $x_{i,t-1}$ reduces the sample size from 423 observations to 364 observations.

Table 5: Estimation results, accounting for *measurement errors*

Variable	Coefficient	Estimate	Bootstrap Std.Err.
<i>Production inputs</i>			
Provincial physical capital	α	-0.041	0.281
Provincial labor	β	0.229	1.236
Provincial public spending	γ	-0.093	0.362
National physical capital	b_K	-0.388	4.909
National labor	b_L	-12.271	40.059
National public spending	θ	-0.051	1.419
<i>Congestion effects</i>			
Capital related	φ	-7.592	231.809
Labor related	ψ	-240.290	6722.220
<i>Determinants of TFP</i>			
Agricultural share	η_{Agr}	-0.583	0.503
Services share	η_{Ser}	-1.582*	0.847
Human capital	η_H	1.421*	0.807
Time trend	λ	0.320	1.091

Notes. Number of observations: 367 (58 provinces and municipalities, period 2000-2007). Standard errors are obtained by bootstrap (99 replications). Significance levels: * 10%, ** 5%.

The method developed by Newey et al. (1999) can be adapted to estimate this model. Following Newey et al. (1999), we need an additional assumption that $E(\varepsilon_{it} | u_{it}^x) = \rho_x u_{it}^x$ with $x_{it} = k_{it}, l_{it}, g_{it}$. Hence, estimation for $\lambda, \eta, b_K, b_L, \theta$, and function Ψ in equation (6) can be obtained as previously described (see Section 3.1) but with a preliminary step. More precisely, we first implement the nonparametric estimation of the additive model in equation (15) for $x_{it} = k_{it}, l_{it}, g_{it}$ to compute the residuals \hat{u}_{it}^x . Secondly, we apply the Robinson's (1988) method, as described in Section 3.1, to equation (6), which now includes three additional regressors, $\hat{u}_{it}^k, \hat{u}_{it}^l$, and \hat{u}_{it}^g . This step gives the estimates for λ, η, b_K, b_L , and θ . Finally, estimation for α, β , and γ can be obtained as described above in Section 3.1.

Table 5 displays estimation results when measurement errors in local variables are taken into account. We can observe that considering these errors do not significantly change the results given in Table 4 as the signs of estimated coefficients remain unchanged.

Most of qualitative conclusions presented in the previous section still remain valid with some exceptions. In particular, compared to previous results, labor force is no longer determinant for the provincial output. The same remark applies to the agricultural share which now has no significant impact on productivity. Concerning other significant factors, the observed effect of services share on the provincial TFP is less important while that of human capital is stronger in the new estimation.

7 Conclusion

This paper aims to analyze the determinants and the dynamics of the TFP of Vietnam's provinces and their economic growth using panel data for 58 Vietnam's provinces and municipalities during the period 2000-2007. In a context of Vietnam's economy, which has an important public intervention (both at the local and national levels) and a large decentralization in favor of provinces, our study indicates that while private factors such as labor force and human capital are key factors, both local and national government expenditure seem to play no significant role in explaining the TFP growth and production of Vietnam's provinces. The latter result suggests that public spending is largely ineffective and its role should be redesigned in the case of Vietnam.

When analyzing the dynamics of TFP, we observe a heterogeneity of TFP across 58 Vietnam's provinces and municipalities. The analysis points out a polarization phenomena with two groups of TFP, one large group with high TFP values and one small group with low TFP values. In other words, the convergence process is not observed for productivity of Vietnam's provinces, i.e. provinces with low TFP do not necessarily grow more quickly than provinces with high TFP. The bipolar feature of TFP distribution could provide an explanation for the economic disparity among Vietnam's provinces. In particular, our results indicate that provinces and municipalities with a high productivity tend to attract a high amount of FDI, are among the most competitive provinces, and generally correspond to the locomotive of the economy (i.e. Ho Chi Minh City, its neighboring provinces, Da Nang, and Ha Noi). Despite its bipolar pattern, the long-run distribution still presents some improvement thanks to a reduced productivity disparity compared to the current situation.

Our study can be interestingly extended in several ways. A spatial analysis can be added to account for spatial spillover effect that may underpin regional economic development. Indeed, the analysis performed in this paper did not include the phenomenon of spatial agglomeration arising in Ho Chi Minh City, Ha Noi and their neighboring

provinces. Spatial econometrics will be helpful to deal with this issue. Accounting for both spatial feature and structural modelling of productivity is technically challenging but very promising for our further research. It is also desirable to consider some additional controls for national and local governance. While such a variable can be found at the national level, it is unfortunately not available at the provincial level. It is also interesting to extend our analysis to cope with other economies where both the national and local factors compete in the development process. Another extension is to employ a more flexible (possibly nonparametric) specification for the production function.

References

- [1] Anh P.T (2008), “Components of government expenditures and economic growth in Vietnam,” Center of Economic Policy Research, Hanoi National Economics University NC-03/2008.
- [2] Akerberg D., Caves K., and Frazer G. (2015), “Identification properties of recent production function estimators,” *Econometrica* 83(6), 2411-2451.
- [3] Ascari G. and Di Cosmo V. (2005), “Determinants of total factor productivity in the Italian regions,” *Scienze Regionali*, 27-50.
- [4] Aschauer D.A. (1989), “Is public expenditure productive,” *Journal of Monetary Economics* 23, 177-200.
- [5] Baldacci E., Clements B., Gupta S. and Cui Q. (2008), “Social spending, human capital, and growth in developing countries”, *World Development*, 36(8), 1317-1341.
- [6] Barro R.J. (1990), “Government spending in a simple model of endogenous growth,” *Journal of Political Economy* 98, S103-S125.
- [7] Bayraktar N. and Moreno-Dodson B. (2015), “How can public spending help you grow? An empirical analysis for developing countries”, *Bulletin of Economic Research* 67(1), 30-64.
- [8] Bose N., Haque, M.E. and Osborn D.R. (2007), “Public expenditure and economic growth: A disaggregated analysis for developing countries”, *The Manchester School* 75 (5), 533-556.
- [9] Bronzini R. and Piselli P. (2009), “Determinants of long-run regional productivity with geographical spillovers: The role of R&D, human capital and public infrastructure,” *Regional Science and Urban Economics* 39, 187-199.

- [10] Chamorro-Narvaez R.A. (2012), "The composition of government spending and economic growth in developing countries: the case of Latin America", *OIDA International Journal of Sustainable Development* 5(6), 39-50
- [11] Chen K.-H., Huang Y.-J, and Yang C.-H. (2009), "Analysis of regional productivity growth in China: A generalized metafrontier MPI approach," *China Economic Review* 20, 777-792.
- [12] Coe D.T. and Helpman E. (1995), "International R&D spillovers," *European Economic Review* 39, 859-887.
- [13] Coe D. T., Helpman E., and Hoffmaister A.W. (2009), "International R&D spillovers and institutions," *European Economic Review* 53(7), 723-741.
- [14] Davarajan S., Swaroop V. and Zou H.-F. (1996), "The composition of public expenditure and economic growth", *Journal of Monetary Economics* 37, 313-344.
- [15] Del Barrio-Castro T., Lopez-Bazo E., and Serrano-Domingo G. (2002), "New evidence on international R&D spillovers, human capital and productivity in the OCDE," *Economics Letters* 77, 41-45.
- [16] Destefanis S. and Sena V. (2005), "Public capital and total factor productivity: new evidence from the Italian regions, 1970-98," *Regional Studies* 39, 603-617.
- [17] Engelbrecht H.J. (1997), "International R&D spillovers, human capital and productivity in the OCDE economies: an empirical investigation," *European Economic Review* 41, 1479-1488.
- [18] Enikolopov R. and Zhuravskaya E. (2007), "Decentralization and political institutions", *Journal of Public Economics* 91(11), 2261-2290.
- [19] Frantzen D. (2002), "R&D, human capital and international technology spillovers: a cross country analysis," *Scandinavian Journal of Economics* 102, 57-75.
- [20] Ghosh S. and Gregoriou A. (2008), "The composition of government spending and growth: is current or capital spending better?", *Oxford Economic Papers* 60(3), 484-516.
- [21] Gregoriou A. and Ghosh S. (2009), "On the heterogeneity impact of public capital and current spending on growth across nations", *Economic Letters* 105, 32-35.
- [22] Hansson P. and Henrekson M. (1994), "A new framework for testing the effect of government spending on growth and productivity," *Public Choice* 81, 381-401.

- [23] Iimi A. (2005), “Decentralization and economic growth revisited: an empirical note”, *Journal of Urban Economics* 57(3), 449-461.
- [24] Levinsohn J. and Petrin A. (2003), “Estimating production functions using inputs to control for unobservables,” *Review of Economic Studies* 70(2), 317-341.
- [25] Li K.-W (2009), “China’s total factor productivity estimates by region, investment sources and ownership,” *Economic Systems* 33, 213-230.
- [26] Li K.-W. and Liu T. (2011), “Economic and propductivity growth decomposition: An application to post-reform China,” *Economic Modelling* 28, 366-373.
- [27] Lumenga-Neso O., Olarreaga M., and Schiff M. (2005), “On “indirect” trade-related R&D spillovers,” *European Economic Review* 49, 1785-1798.
- [28] Lynde C. and Richmond J. (1993), “Public capital and total factor productivity,” *International Economic Review* 34, 401-414.
- [29] Madsen J.B. (2007), “Technology spillovers through trade and TFP convergence: 135 years of evidence for the OECD countries,” *Journal of International Economics* 72, 464-480.
- [30] Malesky E., Dau Anh Tuan, Pham Ngoc Thach, Le Thanh Ha, Nguyen Ngoc Lan, Nguyen Le Ha (2015). *Provincial Competitiveness Index 2014*. Labour Publishing House, Hanoi.
- [31] Mastromarco C. and Zago A. (2012), “On modelling the determinants of TFP growth,” *Structural Change and Economic Dynamics* 23, 373-382.
- [32] Munnell A.H. (1990), “Why has productivity growth delined? Productivity and public investment,” *New England Economic Review* 3-22.
- [33] Nguyen K. M. and Giang T. L. (2008), “Factor productivity and efficiency of the Vietnamese economy in transition,” *Asia-Pacific Development Journal* 15(1), 93-117.
- [34] Nguyen, K. M., Pham, A. T. and Nguyen, V. H. (2015), “Using spatial econometric approach to analyze convergence of labor productivity at the provincial level in Vietnam,” *Journal of Economics and Development* 17(1), 5-19.
- [35] Oates, W. E. (1972), *Fiscal Federalism*. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, New York.
- [36] Oates, W. E. (1993), “Fiscal decentralization and economic development”, *National Tax Journal* 46(2), 237-243.
- [37] Olley G.S. and Pakes A. (1996), “The dynamics of productivity in the telecommunications equipment industry,” *Econometrica* 64(6), 1263-1297.

- [38] Ramirez M.D. (1998), “Does public investment enhance labor productivity growth in Chile? A cointegration analysis,” *North American Journal of Economics & Finance* 9(1), 45-65.
- [39] Robinson P.M. (1988), “Root- N -consistent semiparametric regression,” *Econometrica*, 931-954.
- [40] Thieben U. (2003), “Fiscal decentralisation and economic growth in high-income OECD countries”, *Fiscal Studies*, 24(3), 237-274.
- [41] Van Beveren I. (2012), “Total factor productivity estimation: A practical review,” *Journal of Economic Surveys* 26(1), 98-128.
- [42] Williamson, J. (1990), “What Washington means by policy reform,” in J. Williamson (ed) *Latin American Adjustment: How Much Has Happened?*, Washington DC, chap. 2, 7-20.
- [43] World Bank (2014). *Making the Whole Greater than the Sum of the Parts: A Review of Fiscal Decentralization in Vietnam*. The World Bank, Washington D.C.

Appendix



Figure A: Map of Vietnam’s provinces and municipalities (mainland). Source: Wikimedia.